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A B S T R A C T

To provide the context for an examination of Syria's tourist industry and as a means of identifying the lines along which her tourist industry should be developed, general issues relating to tourism and tourist development are first discussed. The magnitude of world tourism and of the flows of tourists and tourist receipts between developed and underdeveloped regions are investigated and a discussion of tourism's costs and benefits to developing countries concludes that many of the costs can be avoided by the establishment in tourist destination areas of saturation levels for the industry, that is, of maximum acceptable levels of tourist development. It is recognized, however, that methods for determining such levels are virtually non-existent.

The development of Syria's tourist industry over the last 15 years is then analyzed and the overriding influence of political events on this development illustrated.

The study turns next to the question of Syria's tourist potential. Touring, seaside resort tourism, and estivage tourism are identified as the most important types of tourism which Syria can expect to cater for in the future, the basic resources required by each of these three types of tourism are identified, and existing methods for the evaluation of these resources reviewed.

The regional geography of north west Syria is then examined as a prelude to an investigation of this area's tourist potential, it being impossible in a limited scale study such as this to investigate the tourist potential of the whole of Syria, and it is concluded that the major role of an expanded tourist industry in this region should be the provision of employment. The area's tourist potential is then examined using the

Potential Surface Technique employing, within the framework of this technique a new method of landscape evaluation the validity of which is demonstrated by field tests. The role of landscape in determining the tourist potential of the study area is examined and it is concluded that this potential is great enough to allow an expansion of tourism on a scale sufficient to make a significant contribution to the fulfillment of the study area's future employment needs.

THE VISTOMETRIC TECHNIQUE OF LANDSCAPE EVALUATION:
ITS APPLICATION IN A STUDY OF THE
SYRIAN TOURIST INDUSTRY

A.R. George, B.A. (Hons.), Oxon., M.A., Dunelm.

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A Thesis Presented in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
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INTRODUCTION

The author's interest in the Middle East, and in Syria in particular, dates from 1967 when he undertook a hitch-hiking tour in the Levant. Since then he has developed his interest both as an undergraduate at Oxford, where he chose to study the geography of the Middle East as an optional subject, and as a postgraduate at Durham, where he studied for an MA degree by examination and dissertation in the geography of the Middle East and Mediterranean. During the course of these studies he became aware of the major problems facing developing countries in their struggle for economic and social advancement and became interested in the role that tourism which, at least as a mass activity, is a relatively recent phenomenon, could play in the development process. The present thesis constituted an ideal way of bringing together the author's interest in Syria, on the one hand, and in the role of tourism in development, on the other.

The greatest need of any country seeking an expansion of her tourist industry is for an overall tourist development plan. Such a plan was, in fact, recently prepared for Syria by a French consultant company, Omnium Technique d'Amenagement (OTAM), but unfortunately leaves much to be desired. This plan (OTAM, 1972a, b, c; 1973; OTU, 1973)¹, like the majority of similar documents, emphasizes the potential benefits of tourism but remains silent on the potential disbenefits. Further, the evaluation of tourist resources is either unsystematic, purely subjective, or both, while the examination of Syria's existing tourist facilities and the analysis of the past development

¹ OTAM ceased to exist in the second half of 1972 and work on the Syrian tourist plan was completed by Omnium Technique de l'Urbanisme (OTU). OTU itself ceased to exist in 1976. Both companies were subsidiaries of Omnium Technique Holding.

of the Syrian tourist trade are both somewhat cursory. Meanwhile, estimates are made of the future demand for travel to Syria, estimates which, because of the key role that politics have played in the development of Syria's tourist industry, and in view of the unstable political circumstances in the Middle East as a whole, as well as within Syria, and the likelihood that this instability will continue, must be rejected as being unreliable¹. Because of these severe shortcomings OTAM's recommended development programme must be treated with considerable circumspection. Indeed, it is not too much to say that Syria effectively remains without a reliable tourist development plan.

Now, the formulation of a tourist development plan must essentially proceed in three stages²: the inventory and evaluation of tourist resources and facilities, the investigation of future demand for these resources and facilities, and the derivation of recommendations on the development of facilities and attractions in the light of conclusions drawn from the first two stages of enquiry. In practice, however, reliable predictions of demand are, because, in the Syrian context, of the key influence of unpredictable political events on this, impossible. Only the first stage in the formulation of a development plan for Syrian tourism, and the first phase of the second stage, the analysis of the past development of Syria's tourist trade, can therefore be undertaken at present with an expectation of dependable results. In view of the shortcomings of OTAM's work, the execution of these tasks constitutes Syria's greatest current need in the field of research into her tourist industry. A further major need, although not in the latter field, is an

¹ It must, of course, be said in OTAM's defence that, since they were presented with the task of producing a tourist development plan, they had to derive some estimate of future demand, even if the estimate was unreliable.

² As will be seen from the foreword to Chapter Two, the preparation of a tourist development plan in fact involves six basic tasks. For the sake of simplicity, however, only three are mentioned at this early point in the thesis. Further, for the same reason, the first task, as presented here, is, as will be seen, in fact a fusion of the first and third of the six aforementioned tasks.

exposition of both the costs and benefits of tourism, as experienced by countries with developed tourist industries, in order to encourage a balanced approach to tourist development on the part of those concerned with the planning of this development. As Syria's greatest needs, this exposition, and the execution of the two above-mentioned tasks, naturally presented themselves as the major tasks which should be undertaken in this thesis. It was clear, however, that to give sufficient attention to all the aspects of all three tasks would be impossible in a doctoral thesis and it was decided to exclude any detailed consideration of Syria's tourist facilities.

In the evaluation of tourist resources, however, there was obviously no point in simply re-applying the methods that OTAM had used. Now, most often it is not individual resources, but combinations of different resources that are required by tourism. Accordingly, a method of systematically evaluating combinations of resources was required. However, by contrast to the evaluation of individual resources, it is difficult, if not impossible, to directly evaluate combinations of resources except unsystematically. The best approach was therefore felt to be to evaluate combinations of resources in terms of the quality of the individual resources present. A technique which allowed the separate evaluations of an area's individual resources to be systematically compounded into composite assessments of that area's resources in combination was thus an imperative need. The Potential Surface Technique, a refinement of the conventional sieve map approach to resource evaluation, was identified as the only such method available. This technique basically involves firstly, the construction of individual maps, or 'factor surfaces', showing the distribution by quality in an area of each resource required by a given activity or activities, in the present study, various types of tourism, using the same

areal survey units in the construction of each map. Systematic techniques can and should be used for the evaluation of these individual resources. The second stage in the application of the Potential Surface Technique involves the superimposition of the individual surfaces with the separate assessments of each resource in each survey unit being systematically compounded into new measures of the quality of these resources in combination, to produce a composite surface, or composite surfaces, showing the potential of the various parts of the area under study for the relevant activity or activities.

The use of systematic methods both of evaluating individual tourist resources and of combining these evaluations to produce final assessments of tourist potential assuredly gives much more reliable results than can be expected from the methods of resource evaluation employed by OTAM.

In the course of the work, however, it became evident that existing techniques for the evaluation of one tourist resource, landscape, were unlikely to yield reliable results. Accordingly, a new method of evaluating scenic quality is developed and applied in north west Syria and the results obtained using maps as data sources checked by field tests. The technique aims to quantify scenic quality but it must be emphasised that this is only possible to a limited extent. Certain landscape elements are simply not amenable to quantification and the selection of the measurable elements which were used in the technique was undertaken subjectively. It must be stressed that our knowledge of the quantification of scenic beauty is in its infancy and it is by no means claimed that the new technique is definitive. It is offered merely as an advance over existing techniques. Nevertheless the new method constitutes the major contribution to knowledge made by the study. It follows naturally from this that that part of the thesis concerned with resource evaluation gives particular emphasis to questions regarding landscape, although other tourist resources are certainly

not ignored.

The thesis contains eight chapters. In Chapter One the magnitude of world tourism and of the flows of tourists and tourist receipts between developed and underdeveloped regions is investigated. Tourism's costs and benefits to developing countries are then discussed and it is concluded that many of the costs can be avoided by the establishment in destination areas of maximum acceptable levels of tourist development.

In Chapter Two the salient characteristics of the development of the Syrian tourist industry in the recent past are reviewed and the major role that politics have played in this development stressed. It is emphasized that Syria will not experience a significant expansion of her tourist trade until political circumstances, both within the country and in the Middle East as a whole, become more stable.

Chapters Three, Four, Five and Six are concerned with the tourist potential of north west Syria. The author would have liked to evaluate the tourist potential of the whole of Syria. Such a task, however, is beyond the scope of a study limited by time and finance and undertaken by only one person and in any event a coverage of 1:50,000 scale maps does not exist for the whole of the country and it had been decided that such maps were to constitute the major sources of data for the evaluation of tourist potential. It was therefore decided to investigate the tourist potential of only one area and north west Syria was chosen for study as it had emerged from OTAM's work as having the greatest tourist potential of any region in Syria and was therefore deserving of investigation before any other area. Further, a full coverage of 1:50,000 scale maps and a partial coverage of 1:25,000 scale maps exists for this region.

In Chapter Three touring, seaside resort tourism, and estivage tourism¹, are identified as the types of tourism which will be of major

¹ 'Estivage' tourism is the French name for the type of tourism whose basic purpose is to escape from uncomfortably hot areas to cooler regions, these latter most frequently being in upland areas. There is no equivalent word in common use in English denoting this type of tourism.

importance for Syria, the basic resources required by these three types of tourism are identified, previous approaches to the evaluation of these resources discussed, and the Potential Surface Technique identified as the only available method of compounding separate evaluations of an area's individual resources to produce new composite assessments of that area's resources in combination.

In Chapter Four the regional geography of north west Syria is investigated and population loss due to unemployment identified as the major problem facing the area, a problem which is likely to continue to exist for many years to come. It is therefore argued that employment is the greatest single benefit that a development of tourism in the area could bestow on the region.

In Chapter Five the resources identified in Chapter Three are evaluated and a series of maps is produced showing the distribution by quality in the study area of these resources. Existing techniques for the evaluation of all these resources, except landscape, are used. For the evaluation of scenery a new map-based technique, christened the Vistometric technique of landscape evaluation, is developed.

In Chapter Six the results of a field test of the technique are presented and it is demonstrated that the technique's assumptions are valid, that the results obtained using maps as data sources are similar to those obtained in the field, and that the technique yields more reliable measures of landscape quality than any existing method which uses grid squares as survey units.

In Chapter Seven the magnitude of the study area's tourist potential is investigated by combining the maps produced in Chapter Five to create composite maps showing the potential for the three types of tourism under consideration of the various parts of the study area. Particular emphasis, however, is placed on the role of landscape, relative to the other resources, in determining the tourist potential of each part of the study area for

each of the types of tourism. It is concluded that the tourist potential of north west Syria is great enough to allow a development of tourism on a scale sufficient to provide enough employment to significantly reduce the population loss that the study area will still be experiencing at the time when political circumstances allow such development to proceed.

In Chapter Eight the main stages of the study are summarized and the nature of the advances which the Vistometric technique of landscape evaluation makes over existing methods discussed.

It should be noted that no general scheme of transliteration was adopted in the treatment of Arabic words and place names. Instead, English forms of these were used which were either in common use in English or, where there was no such form, which approximated the Arabic pronunciation.

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ABBREVIATIONS

1970 Census:	Office of the Prime Minister, Central Bureau of Statistics, Syrian Arab Republic (n.d.) <u>Population Census in Syrian Arab Republic 1970, Damascus.</u>
1970 Census:	Office of the Prime Minister, Central Bureau of Statistics, Syrian Arab Republic (n.d.) <u>Population Census 1970, Vol. 4, Hama Governorate, Damascus.</u>
1970 Census:	Office of the Prime Minister, Central Bureau of Statistics, Syrian Arab Republic (n.d.) <u>Population Census 1970, Vol. 5, Homs Governorate, Damascus¹.</u>
IUOTO:	International Union of Official Travel Organizations.
<u>MEED:</u>	<u>Middle East Economic Digest.</u>
OECD:	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development.
OFA:	Office Arabe de Presse et de Documentation.
ORRRRC:	Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission.
Statistical Abstract + year ² :	Office of the Prime Minister, Central Bureau of Statistics, Syrian Arab Republic (1969) <u>Statistical Abstract 1967, Damascus.</u>
	Office of the Prime Minister, Central Bureau of Statistics, Syrian Arab Republic (1969) <u>Statistical Abstract 1968, Damascus.</u>
	Office of the Prime Minister, Central Bureau of Statistics, Syrian Arab Republic (1971) <u>Statistical Abstract 1969-1970, Damascus.</u>
	Office of the Prime Minister, Central Bureau of Statistics, Syrian Arab Republic (1972) <u>Statistical Abstract 1972, Damascus.</u>

¹ See footnote on p.493.

² Note that the year given relates to the year in the title of the Statistical Abstract, not to the Abstract's year of publication.

Office of the Prime Minister, Central Bureau
of Statistics, Syrian Arab Republic (1973)
Statistical Abstract 1973, Damascus.

Office of the Prime Minister, Central Bureau
of Statistics, Syrian Arab Republic (1974)
Statistical Abstract 1974, Damascus.

UNCTAD:

United Nations Conference on Trade and
Development.

UNECA:

United Nations Economic Conference for Africa.

UNESOC:

United Nations Economic and Social Conference.

CHAPTER ONE

THE MAGNITUDE OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISM AND ITS
SIGNIFICANCE FOR DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

1. The Magnitude of International Tourism and Tourist Receipts

From a relatively lowly level of 25.3 million in 1950 international tourist arrivals (at frontiers and accommodation units) grew to almost 200 million by 1972 (Table 1). In the decade 1962-1972 the annual rate of growth of visitor arrivals attained an average of 9.3 per cent. This impressive rate of growth is primarily the result of the growth of disposable incomes in tourist generating countries, coupled with increasing amounts of free time. But higher incomes and more leisure time are not the only factors behind the growth of tourism. The growth of international trade and foreign investments has stimulated business travel while the rapid development of package tours originating in Europe has given a great boost to leisure travel. Finally, travel abroad for all purposes has been encouraged by the expansion of the air transport industry and by a general trend (at least before the oil crisis) towards lower air fares.

Tables 2 and 3 show, respectively, the development of tourist arrivals in each of the world regions covered by the six IUOTO Regional Commissions, and the relative importance of each region in international tourism. The fastest growth rates of arrivals in the five year period 1967-1972 were achieved by the regions composed mainly of developing countries. Thus, arrivals in Africa increased at an average rate of 20.1 per cent per annum, in Latin America and the Caribbean at 16 per cent per annum (1966-1971), and in Asia/Australasia at 16.8 per cent per annum, while arrivals in the

Table 1 The Development of International Tourist Arrivals^a

Year	Arrivals (millions)	Annual Growth (%)
1950	25.3	-
- - - - -		
1960	71.2	-
1961	75.3	5.8
1962	81.4	8.1
1963	93.0	14.2
1964	108.0	16.1
1965	115.5	6.9
1966	130.8	13.2
1967	139.5	6.6
1968	139.7	0.1
1969	154.1	10.3
1970	168.4	9.3
1971	181.5	7.8
1972	198.0	9.1

^a Note that the data in this table includes figures for only a limited number of countries and should therefore be treated with considerable circumspection.

Source: IUOTO, 1974, p.9.

Table 2 International Tourist Arrivals by IUOTO Region (millions).

Region ^a	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
Europe	98.8	103.6	105.4	115.1	124.2	134.2	148.5
North America	22.2	25.9	22.8	25.1	27.4	28.5)	36.0
Latin America and Caribbean	3.1	3.5	4.1	4.8	5.9	6.5)	
Africa	1.3	1.4	1.7	2.0	2.6	3.1	3.5
Asia/Australasia	2.5	2.9	3.4	4.3	5.4	5.6	6.3
Middle East	2.9	2.2	2.3	2.8	2.9	3.6	3.7
<u>World Total</u>	130.8	139.5	139.7	154.1	168.4	181.5	198.0

^a For countries included in each region see Appendix I to this chapter. Data is not, however, available for all the countries listed in this appendix.

Source: IUOTO, 1974, p.10.

Table 3 International Tourist Arrivals by IUOTO Region:
Percentage Shares.

Region ^a	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
Europe	75.5	74.3	75.5	74.7	73.8	73.9	75.0
North America	17.0	18.6	16.3	16.3	16.3	15.7)	18.2
Latin America and Caribbean	2.4	2.5	2.9	3.1	3.5	3.6)	
Africa	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.8
Asia/Australasia	1.9	2.1	2.4	2.8	3.2	3.1	3.2
Middle East	2.2	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.7	2.0	1.9
<u>World Total</u>	100.0	100.1 ^b	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.1

^a For countries included in each region see Appendix I to this chapter. Data is not, however, available for all the countries listed in this appendix.

^b The figures in this column do not add up to 100 because of rounding errors. The same situation occurs in many of the tables in this thesis which contain percentages.

Source: Derived from Table 2.

Middle East grew at an average annual rate of 11 per cent. In the same period tourist arrivals in Europe increased by only 7.5 per cent per annum and those in North America (1966-1971) by only 5.1 per cent per annum. These lower rates of growth for Europe and North America are not surprising in view of the already highly developed state of these regions' tourist industries. Because of the very large numbers of tourists involved, however, relatively low rates of growth nevertheless imply massive increases in absolute numbers.

From an inspection of Table 3, the dominance of Europe and North America as destination areas is immediately apparent. Throughout the 1966-1972 period these two regions together consistently recorded about 90 per cent of annual total world tourist arrivals while all the other regions' shares were minimal. On the other hand, the faster growth rates achieved by these latter regions have meant that they marginally increased their share of world tourist arrivals during the period. In 1966 Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean, Asia/Australasia, and the Middle East together accounted for 7.5 per cent of world arrivals but this proportion had increased to 10.4 per cent by 1971.

Table 4 shows the development of world tourist receipts from 1950 to 1972. In 1972 world receipts totalled \$24,200 million, 11.5 times the 1950 figure. In the decade 1962-1972 international tourist receipts grew even faster than tourist arrivals, averaging 12 per cent per annum.¹ Tables 5 and 6 show, respectively, the development of tourist receipts in each of the IUOTO regions, and the share of each region in total

¹ Note, however, that IUOTO tourist receipts data is given at current prices. Because of inflation the real value of tourist receipts has increased at a somewhat slower average rate than 12 per cent per annum.

Table 4 The Development of International Tourist Receipts^a
 (\$ US million)

Year	Receipts	Annual Growth (%)
1950	2.1	-
- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
1960	6,800	-
1961	7,300	7.4
1962	7,800	6.8
1963	8,300	6.4
1964	9,600	15.7
1965	11,000	14.6
1966	12,500	13.6
1967	13,400	7.2
1968	13,800	3.0
1969	15,400	11.6
1970	17,900	16.2
1971	20,900	16.8
1972	24,200	15.8

^a Note that the data in this table includes figures for only a limited number of countries and should therefore be treated with caution.

Source: IUOTO, 1974, p.19.

Table 5 International Tourist Receipts by IUOTO Region (\$ US million)

Region ^a	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
Europe	8,030	8,280	8,620	9,300	11,200	13,600	16,200
North America	2,370	2,860	2,680	3,050	3,500	3,700)	5,600
Latin America and Caribbean	980	1,110	1,240	1,500	1,300	1,500)	
Africa	270	280	290	360	380	490	560
Asia/Australasia	580	700	760	910	1,200	1,250	1,450
Middle East	270	190	230	280	280	350	370
<u>World Total</u>	12,500	13,420	13,820	15,400	17,860	20,890	24,180

^a For countries included in each region see Appendix I to this chapter. Data is not, however, available for all the countries listed in this appendix.

Source: IUOTO, 1974, p.19.

Table 6 International Tourist Receipts by IUOTO Region: Percentage Shares

Region ^a	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
Europe	64.2	61.7	62.4	60.4	62.7	65.1	67.0
North America	19.0	21.3	19.4	19.8	19.6	17.7)	23.2
Latin America and Caribbean	7.8	8.3	9.0	9.7	7.3	7.2)	
Africa	2.2	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.1	2.3	2.3
Asia/Australasia	4.6	5.2	5.5	5.9	6.7	6.0	6.0
Middle East	2.2	1.4	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.5
<u>World Total</u>	100.0	100.0	100.1	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0

^a For countries included in each region see Appendix I to this chapter. Data is not, however, available for all the countries listed in this appendix.

Source: Derived from Table 5.

world tourist receipts. In the five year period 1967-1972 tourist receipts grew at about the same rate, averaging between 14.2 and 15.7 per cent per annum, in Europe, Africa, Asia/Australasia, and the Middle East, while growth was slower, averaging 9 per cent per annum (1966-1971), in North America and Latin America and the Caribbean. The regions composed mainly of underdeveloped countries (excepting Latin America and the Caribbean) thus experienced the fastest rates of growth of tourist receipts, although Europe, a region mainly comprising developed countries, witnessed an equally fast growth rate.

As might be expected in view of their dominance in terms of tourist arrivals, of all the regions, the largest share of world tourist receipts in 1972 was accounted for by Europe and North America, these two regions together receiving about 82 per cent of total receipts. Latin America and the Caribbean came in third place with about 7 per cent, followed by Asia/Australasia with 6 per cent, and Africa with 2.3 per cent. The Middle East, with only 1.5 per cent, received the smallest share of world tourist receipts in 1972. There were no major changes in the respective share of each region in total tourist receipts in the five year period 1967-1972 although there was a slight tendency for the regions with faster rates of growth of receipts to increase their shares at the expense of the regions with slower growth rates.

The IUOTO regions have some unity in that the countries included in each are, for the most part, located in a similar area of the Earth's surface. In several cases, however, notably Europe and Asia/Australasia, individual regions encompass countries with widely different socio-economic characteristics. It is more realistic to examine the world distributions of tourist arrivals and receipts in terms of regions defined both on the basis of geographical proximity and in terms of whether they are developed

or underdeveloped. 1972 arrivals and receipts data for such regions is presented in Table 7¹. The totals in Table 7 differ from those in Tables 2 and 5 because countries have only been included in Table 7 where information is available for both tourist arrivals and tourist receipts, a practice which differs from the IUOTO procedure. The resultant exclusions, combined with the fact that statistics are in any case available for only a limited number of countries means that data for only a very few countries is included in Table 7. For this reason too much emphasis should not be given to conclusions drawn from this table.

In 1972 developed countries received 64.9 per cent of total arrivals, the developed countries of Europe and North America being the major developed destination regions. Of the underdeveloped regions, Europe and the Mediterranean was by far the most important destination, receiving 28.7 per cent of total world tourist arrivals. The dominance of North America and Europe as destination regions revealed in Table 3 is thus confirmed in Table 7. The Middle East received only 2.5 per cent of world arrivals.

Those regions which dominate in terms of tourist arrivals are also the major recipients of tourist receipts. Thus, the developing countries of Europe and the Mediterranean received 18.5 per cent of total receipts while developed Europe and North America received 52.3 per cent and 18 per cent, respectively, of total world tourist receipts. The developing world, with 35.1 per cent of tourist arrivals, received only 28 per cent of tourist receipts, the difference apparently being the result of slightly lower average receipts per arrival in developing than in developed countries (see Table 8).

¹ The OECD definitions of 'developed' and 'developing' were used in the preparation of Table 7.

Table 7 International Tourist Arrivals and Receipts by Developed and Developing Region, 1972.

Region ^a	Tourist Arrivals (thousands)	% of Total	Tourist Receipts (\$ US million)	% of Total
<u>Underdeveloped</u>				
Africa	632.5	0.4	104.3	0.5
Asia	2,312.1	1.4	426.9	2.0
South America	3,340.7	2.1	778.2	3.6
Middle East	4,086.4	2.5	764.1	3.5
Europe and Mediterranean	46,464.4	28.7	4,029.3	18.5
<u>Sub-Total</u>	56,836.1	35.1	6,102.8	28.1
<u>Developed</u>				
Europe	77,397.0	47.8	11,399.4	52.3
North America	26,851.8	16.6	3,920.0	18.0
Oceania	847.7	0.5	356.0	1.6
<u>Sub-Total</u>	105,096.5	64.9	15,675.4	71.9
<u>World Total</u>	161,932.6	100.0	21,778.2	100.0

^a For countries included in each region see Appendix II to this chapter.

Source: IUOTO, 1973.

Table 8 Average Receipts per Arrival by Developed and Developing Region, 1972.

Region ^a	Receipts per Arrival (\$ US)
<u>Underdeveloped</u>	
Africa	164.9
Asia	184.6
South America	232.9
Middle East	187.0
Europe and Mediterranean	85.1
<u>Sub-Total</u>	107.4
<u>Developed</u>	
Europe	147.3
North America	146.0
Oceania	420.0
<u>Sub-Total</u>	117.1
<u>World Total</u>	134.5

^a For countries included in each region see Appendix II to this chapter.

Source: Derived from Table 7.

Too much should not be made of the figures for average expenditure per arrival in Table 8, firstly because the data for receipts includes receipts from all visitors, both those officially defined as tourists, and those defined as excursionists while the arrivals data refers only to tourist arrivals as such¹, and, secondly, because, as Bryden (1973, p.62) has pointed out, "practices vary widely in the matter of compiling data on tourist receipts". It may be noted, however, that the figure for Oceania looks unreasonably high, while the figure for the Middle East, slightly higher than average, looks reasonable by comparison with the figures for other regions.

2. Inter-Regional Flows of Tourists and Tourist Receipts

A consideration of the net tourist flows between regions is crucial to an understanding of world tourism. To identify such flows it is necessary to distinguish between arrivals in a region and arrivals generated by that region. Deficiencies in the data for 1972, the most recent year for which data was available to the author, precludes such an analysis for that year. Bryden (1973), however, undertook just such a study for 1965 and his results are presented in Table 9². It is clear from this table that the greatest number of inter-regional arrivals was generated by the developed countries

¹ A 'tourist' according to the IUOTO definition is a person staying at least one night in accommodation provided within the country visited or a person staying for longer than 24 hours in the country visited; all other visitors are termed 'excursionists' (IUOTO, 1973, p.5).

² Unfortunately, while Bryden used the OECD definition of 'developed' and 'developing' countries, his grouping of countries into regions differs from that adopted in Tables 7 and 8. It is not immediately apparent how Bryden, using data which was most likely to some extent inferior to that available for 1972, succeeded in undertaking this study. It is possible that he used total visitor arrivals data (i.e. data for tourist arrivals and excursionist arrivals) for countries where data for tourist arrivals as such was lacking. This, combined with the fact that data of any sort was available for only a few countries, limits the value of conclusions drawn from Table 9. Conclusions drawn from Table 10 must therefore also be treated with some caution since the data in that table is derived from that in Table 9.

Table 9 Tourist Arrivals and Arrivals Generated by Developed and Developing Region, 1965^a.

Region	Arrivals (thousands)		Arrivals Generated (thousands)	
	<u>From Same Region</u>	<u>Inter-Regional</u>	<u>In Same Region</u>	<u>Inter-Regional</u>
<u>Developing</u>				
Africa	481.3	764.3	481.3	738.3
Asia	2,066.7	1,705.1	2,066.7	617.5
South and Central America	617.4	2,031.2	617.4	1,067.1
Commonwealth Caribbean	48.6	324.5	48.6	19.0
Europe and Mediterranean	3,414.6	14,598.3	3,414.6	3,932.8
<u>Sub-Total</u>	6,628.6	19,414.4	6,628.6	6,374.7
<u>Developed</u>				
Europe	54,620.5	11,924.1	54,620.5	14,908.5
North America	39,638.4	1,363.7	39,638.4	10,978.8
South Africa	nil	223.5	nil	276.9
Asia/Australasia	132.5	565.0	132.5	819.7
<u>Sub-Total</u>	94,391.4	14,076.3	94,391.4	26,983.9

^a For countries excluded because of lack of data see Appendix III to this chapter.

Source: Bryden, 1973, p.61.

of Europe, followed by North America. Nevertheless, the developing countries themselves provided a substantial proportion of inter-regional arrivals, especially the developing countries of Europe and the Mediterranean.¹

Importantly, however, Bryden noted that many tourist arrivals were not classified by nationality in the individual country data in the IUOTO statistics he used but were combined in the category 'other countries'. "Observation of country data suggests that these 'other countries' are mainly developing countries, many of which, if taken individually, do not feature largely in the generation of tourist arrivals. North American countries and the larger developed countries of Europe appear individually in the statistics of nearly every country. The total number of arrivals under the category 'other countries' in 1965 was 5,638,100, of which 4,234,000 were arrivals in developed countries. It is probable, therefore, that Table 9 substantially understates the inter-regional generation of tourist arrivals by developing countries and, consequently, overstates the apparent net flow to developing countries from developed countries" (Bryden, 1973, p.62).

Table 10 shows the regional balances of tourist arrivals and arrivals generated in 1965. North America is the major net generator of inter-regional arrivals followed by the developed countries of Europe. All the developed regions show 'balance of tourist arrivals deficits' while all developing regions, and in particular Europe and the Mediterranean,

¹ Most of the inter-regional arrivals generated by the developing countries of Europe and the Mediterranean are registered in the developed countries of Europe. A large number of migrant workers from the developing Mediterranean countries work in north west Europe and many of the arrivals generated by the former countries in the latter area must be attributed to visits by friends and relatives of these workers.

Table 10 Balance of Tourist Arrivals and Arrivals Generated by Developed and Developing Region, 1965.

Region	Inter-Regional Arrivals less Inter-Regional Arrivals Generated (thousands)
<u>Developing</u>	
Africa	+ 26.0
Asia	+ 1,087.6
South and Central America	+ 964.1
Commonwealth Caribbean	+ 305.5
Europe and Mediterranean	+10,665.5
<u>Sub-Total</u>	+13,048.7
<u>Developed</u>	
Europe	- 2,984.4
North America	- 9,615.1
South Africa	- 53.4
Asia/Oceania	- 254.7
<u>Sub-Total</u>	-12,907.6

Source: Derived from Table 9.

show 'balance of tourist arrivals surpluses'. On the other hand, bearing in mind Bryden's remarks about 'other countries', the net flow of tourists from developed to developing countries is probably overstated in Table 10.

It is frequently argued that tourism provides a means of transferring wealth from the rich countries to the underdeveloped countries and the examination of the net flows of tourist receipts between regions is in this respect of even greater interest than the preceding investigation of net inter-regional flows of tourists. An investigation of world flows of tourist receipts was undertaken by Bryden (1973) for the year 1965 and his results are presented in Table 11. Serious gaps in the data mean, however, that the figures in this table should be treated with considerable caution. Nevertheless, the general conclusion can be drawn that although the developed countries were in deficit to the extent of \$848.4 million in 1965, most of this net flow of foreign exchange accrued to the developing countries of Europe and the Mediterranean, and in particular to Spain. Further, "unless the statistics of tourist expenditures used in the balance of payments statistics of the developed countries are substantially in error, it seems likely that the developing countries outside Europe and the Mediterranean are, in aggregate, in significant deficit on their travel accounts, indicating a net flow of resources from the developing countries to the developed through the tourism market" (Bryden, 1973, p.64).

In 1965, unlike in 1972, Bryden found that average expenditure per visitor in developing destinations was higher than that in developed destinations. This, combined with the net flow of tourists from developed to developing countries shown in Table 10, makes Bryden's findings on net inter-regional flows of tourist receipts somewhat surprising. Bryden, however, explained the discrepancy in terms of:

Table 11 Net Balance of Travel Accounts by Developed and Developing Region, 1965.

Region ^a	Tourist Receipts (\$ US million)	Tourist Expenditures (\$ US million)	Balance surplus (+) deficit (-) (\$ US million)
<u>Developed</u>			
North America	1,906.7	3,198.3	-1,291.6
Europe	5,690.1	5,125.1	+ 565.0
Asia/Australasia	178.5	276.5	- 98.0
South Africa	49.0	72.8	- 23.8
<u>Total</u>	7,824.3	8,672.7	- 848.4
<u>Developing^a</u>			
Africa	82.1	55.6	+ 26.5
Asia	95.1	74.6	+ 20.5
South and Central America	101.7	153.4	- 51.7
Commonwealth Caribbean	12.5	14.5	- 2.0
Europe and Mediterranean	1,435.7	216.5	+1,219.2
<u>Total</u>	1,727.1	514.6	+1,212.5

^a For countries included in each region see Appendix IV to this chapter.

Source: Bryden, 1973, p.64.

- a) Errors in tourist expenditure estimates of developed countries.
- b) Errors in tourists receipts estimates of developed and developing countries.
- c) The problem of 'other arrivals', raised above.
- d) The possibility that developed country visitors to developing countries may spend less per capita than developing country visitors to developed countries.
- e) The treatment of developing countries in Europe and the Mediterranean.¹
- f) The incomplete coverage of the balance of travel account data, although the relatively complete coverage for developed countries and for developing countries in Europe and the Mediterranean suggests that this cannot be of major importance.

Whatever the reasons, however, Bryden concluded that "it must be held on this evidence that, at best, tourism at present involves only minimal net flows of foreign exchange from developed countries to developing countries outside Europe, and at worst a net flow of foreign exchange to the developed countries". Further, the figures for international tourist receipts and expenditures exclude receipts and expenditures on transportation, and "if these were included it seems likely that the above conclusion would be reinforced, since the majority of international transportation is undertaken by carriers based in the developed countries" (Bryden, 1973, pp. 65-66). A similar investigation of the net flows of tourist receipts between developed and developing regions was undertaken by the present author for 1972 and the results confirmed Bryden's conclusion.

¹ It is not clear what is meant by this.

On the other hand, examinations of the inter-regional flows of tourist receipts in terms of surpluses or deficits on the travel account of the balance of payments can be misleading since these figures relate to the gross receipts and expenditures of countries on tourism and not to the net receipts and expenditures. This question is examined in more detail later in this chapter.¹ Moreover, an analysis of inter-regional flows of expenditures and receipts on tourism ignores the nature of the travel for which cash is being expended. Much of the travel undertaken by residents of developing countries to developed countries may be for business or educational purposes, and as such may represent a net contribution to the economic advancement of the underdeveloped countries, whereas the majority of travellers from developed to developing countries travel for purposes of leisure and to that extent any expenditures these vacationers make in developing countries are net losses to the developed countries². In any event, the fact that most developing countries do not currently receive much net benefit through the tourist market does not, of course, mean that this will always be the case for the tourist boom has only just started.

3. The Economic Costs and Benefits of Tourism

Many developing countries, lacking in natural resources, discouraged by the difficulties of establishing viable local manufacturing sectors, and plagued by persistent unemployment and shortages of sorely needed

¹ It is likely, however, that an investigation of the flows of net receipts and expenditures would reveal an even greater net flow of cash to the developed countries than does the present investigation of inter-regional flows of gross receipts and expenditures.

² It can, of course, be argued that a holiday abroad is as much a productive investment for the resident of a developed country as is a journey abroad for business or educational reasons taken by a resident of a developing country.

foreign exchange with which to finance their development programmes, look to tourism as a possible means of economic advancement. Yet, in spite of the magnitude of world tourism, and the fact that mass tourism has been extant since the early 1960s, very little basic research has been conducted into the economic impact which tourism can have on destination countries and the consequent lack of information bedevils all discussion of this matter.¹

Proponents of tourist development cite the following major economic arguments in favour of tourism: the industry, as a foreign exchange earner, contributes positively to the balance of payments; national income is increased by means of the 'multiplier' effects of tourist spending; tourism can provide additional government revenue; tourist demand stimulates agriculture and industry in the destination area; the industry is a source of employment; and tourism can be used to direct development to economically under-privileged areas of a country or region. Critics, however, (see Young, 1973, p.144) have argued that tourism can have an adverse effect on the balance of payments, particularly in the case of developing countries, because of the need to import inputs to the industry and because of the expatriation of profits earned by foreign owned tourist enterprises, necessitates heavy infrastructure costs, and can retard economic growth by involving a large proportion of a country's labour force in an industry with poor productivity prospects. Further, it is held that excessive tourist activity has inflationary consequences, and that an over-dependence on tourism makes an economy vulnerable to the vicissitudes of demand in the tourist generating countries.

¹ Only one publication, by the UNCTAD secretariat (UNCTAD, 1973), has brought together in one place the existing fragmented information on the impact of tourism on national economies and this section on the economic costs and benefits of tourism leans heavily on this report.

In view of the controversy that surrounds the economic effects of tourism it is pertinent to examine these opposing claims and to determine the extent to which they can be substantiated, particularly as they apply to developing countries.

3.1 The Impact of Tourism on the Balance of Payments

Burkart and Medlik (1974, p.64) have listed the major categories of transaction generated by tourism as follows:

- a) Current expenditure by tourists in countries visited (on accommodation, meals, etc.).
- b) Purchase of capital goods by tourists in countries visited (e.g. motor cars, antiques).¹
- c) Imports and exports of goods for tourist purposes.
- d) Fare payments to other countries' international carriers.
- e) Various money transfers (e.g. by nationals working in tourist enterprises abroad, to finance advertising and tourist offices in other countries, etc.).
- f) Foreign capital investment in facilities.
- g) Interest, profits, and dividends (transmission of return on investment to country of origin of capital).

Of these, (b) and (c) are included in the balance of trade with other items, (d), (e) and (g) are included in the balance of trade with other invisibles, and (f) is included in the capital account of the balance of payments.

Thus, six of the seven principal types of transaction are not usually

¹ It is doubtful, in fact, whether tourists purchase capital goods while on holiday. Certainly cars and antiques are more appropriately considered as consumer goods which should come under item (c).

separately identified as being attributable to tourism in balance of payments statistics. Only the first, current expenditure by tourists in countries visited, is included as a distinct tourism-related item in the balance of payments. It is perhaps for this reason that gross tourist receipts are frequently cited as a measure of the economic benefits of tourism.

However, a mere statement of the total amount of foreign exchange received overstates the contribution of tourism to the balance of payments. The UNCTAD secretariat, in their report on tourism in developing countries (UNCTAD, 1973) devoted considerable attention to this matter, and noted that to obtain a measure of the true impact of tourist expenditure, certain outflows of foreign exchange resulting from tourism must be taken into account.

Firstly, the cost of imported goods and services consumed by visitors must be considered. It is essential to include here not only direct imports for immediate sale to tourists, but also intermediate goods imported by domestic producers in connection with that part of their output which is sold to the tourist sector for consumption by visitors. A second drain on foreign exchange holdings is caused by factor payments abroad. These comprise management fees to foreign companies, profits and/or other income earned by foreign investors, and the salaries of expatriate employees in the tourist industry. At least a part of these incomes is not spent in the local economy. Commissions to travel agents and tour operators in the tourist generating countries should be included here.

Non-commercial expenditure on publicity and promotion of the destination country abroad constitutes a third foreign exchange outflow. Fourthly, account should be taken of the costs of imports of capital goods required for accommodation and other tourist facilities. These too should include not only direct imports but also the indirect imports that are involved when capital goods are supplied to the tourist sector by domestic

producers. Finally, note must be taken of imports resulting from increased consumption by residents. That is, incomes received by persons engaged in the tourist industry are partly spent on imported goods or on domestically produced goods having an import component. Incomes spent by these persons in the local economy become income for other domestic producers who, in turn, consume in a way which involves further imports. Another cause of increased consumption can be the 'demonstration effect' by which local people, influenced by the example of tourists who are often from high income countries, develop a demand for certain types of consumer goods that can be supplied only by imports.¹

While very few analyses have been made of the foreign exchange costs of current imports for tourism, the available evidence suggests that for developing countries these can be relatively high. This derives both from the lack of self-sufficiency of domestic economies and from the considerable extent of foreign ownership and participation which is common in the tourist industries of those countries. Table 12 shows the import content of sales to tourists from different sectors for Hawaii and Kenya. Many other countries for which similar estimates have been made have, like Hawaii, island economies in which private consumption, and consumption by visitors, have a relatively high import content. Thus in the US Virgin Islands it is estimated that nearly half of the receipts from visitors flows out again as payment for imports of food and other consumption goods for tourism, and in the Bahamas the proportion is estimated to be about 43 per cent (UNCTAD, 1973, p.14). In Trinidad and Tobago the proportion has been

¹ In the discussion of the import component of tourist income which follows, emphasis is given to drains on foreign exchange resulting from, firstly, current imports of goods and services for consumption by tourists, and secondly, from imports of capital goods for the tourist sector. Information on the other types of foreign exchange outflows resulting from tourism is so scanty as to preclude their detailed consideration.

Table 12 The Import Content of Sales to Visitors in Different Sectors (percentages)^a.

Hawaii (1951)

Accommodation establishments ^b	38-39
Restaurants	41
Food shops	49
Wine and spirit shops	66
Clothing and accessories	44
Jewellery, gifts, and souvenirs	60
Department stores	54
Drug stores	65
Inter-island transport	39
Ground transport	37
Travel agents	29
Miscellaneous	45
<u>Total</u>	45

Kenya (1966/1967)

Hotels and restaurants	18
Tour operators and car hire	18
Safari outfitters	16
Air charter	19
Other private sector activities ^c	27
<u>Total</u>	22

^a Including the import component of purchases made by each sector from other (i.e. non-tourist) sectors. Data for Kenya excludes sales to visitors residing in other East African countries. Sectoral percentages represent shares of total output; totals are weighted averages, with weights based on the distribution of visitors' expenditure.

^b Including food and drink consumed therein.

^c Including sales of curios. This item accounted in all for about one-third of visitors' expenditure.

Source: UNCTAD, 1973, p.14.

estimated at 15 per cent (60 per cent of the consumption goods supplied to the tourist sector are imported, but such goods account for about 25 per cent of the total expenditure of visitors). However, at least another 15 per cent flows out again as payments to foreign investors in the hotel industry, so that net foreign exchange receipts are at least 30 per cent less than the gross figure (UNCTAD, 1973, p.14).

In Ceylon, the import content of receipts from tourism is thought to be about 25 per cent (UNCTAD, 1973, p.14). In Jamaica, a 1958 study showed that 39 per cent of tourist receipts were immediately disbursed abroad for tourism-related imports, mostly food (Young, 1973, p.152). Similarly, in Tunisia it is estimated that the amount of foreign exchange diverted to pay for tourism-related imports constitutes 40 per cent of foreign exchange receipts from tourism (Haggage, 1972, p.88). A further indication of the magnitude which foreign exchange leakages can attain comes from Mauritius, where on average, the net foreign exchange benefit from each inclusive tour visitor is only 10 per cent of the total cost of the tour (Young, 1973, p.151).

At the other extreme, the UNCTAD secretariat found a particularly low import content for visitor expenditure in Yugoslavia, Greece, and Mexico, all countries with comparatively self-sufficient economies. Thus, the figure is probably under 2 per cent in Yugoslavia and probably under 10 per cent in Greece while according to rough official estimates the equivalent proportion is probably under 2 per cent in the case of expenditure by visitors to the interior of Mexico, although this makes no allowance for the outflow of payments to international hotel chains under management contracts and similar arrangements (UNCTAD, 1973, p.14). The UNCTAD secretariat concluded that in island economies net foreign exchange receipts from tourism generally range from 50 to 70 per cent of gross receipts, while in

other developing countries the proportion may well be higher, perhaps 70 - 80 per cent and even more in countries which are able to satisfy the demand for all but the luxury type of consumer goods from domestic output (UNCTAD, 1973, p.14). It is worth noting, however, that the figure for island economies is high not so much because these economies are island-based as such, but because of the small size and low level of development which characterizes many small island economies. A similarly high figure probably holds for many small, underdeveloped, non-island economies. In Syria, which has a relatively diversified economy, net receipts probably amount to at least 70 per cent of gross tourist receipts.

Just as for current imports, the import content of capital investment in tourism is dependent primarily on the degree of economic self-sufficiency of the destination area. The type of tourism in question also has a bearing in that a 'high income' tourist industry will require much greater capital inputs such as lifts, air conditioning, etc., than low cost tourism. The UNCTAD report notes that the few estimates of the import content of investment that are available are generally based only on a sample of hotels and take no account of indirect imports, but it would seem that "inter-country differences tend to be as great as for the import content of current inputs" (UNCTAD, 1973, p.15). No information is available on small island economies, but the UNCTAD secretariat found that for Yugoslavia (which is an extreme case since the country caters mainly for low cost tourism and because there is a fairly wide range of domestic industrial output protected against imports) imports of machinery and equipment in the hotel and catering sector constitute only 1 - 2 per cent of total investment costs. In Greece the import component of investment for first class hotels is about 15 per cent, but is declining as domestic output diversifies and

expands, while for lower class hotels the figure is about 10 per cent (UNCTAD, 1973, p.16). UNCTAD (1973, p.16) concluded that, even in less industrialized countries (such as Syria), the import content of investment costs was only in the region of 25 per cent.

But, as Bryden (1973, p.72) has pointed out, the argument that tourism should be encouraged because of its favourable impact on the balance of payments is, by itself, "a perfectly general point which can be applied to any export generating or import-substituting activity ... as in the case of other industries, the contribution to the balance of payments is not a sufficient criterion for establishing whether or not there is a potential gain from the allocation of resources to the tourist industry." A more important question is whether or not the import content of income from tourism is greater or less than the equivalent proportion for other export industries. It is therefore of considerable interest that the UNCTAD secretariat concluded, on the basis of admittedly limited evidence, that the foreign exchange outlay on current imported inputs into tourism, expressed as a proportion of gross receipts from tourism, is relatively smaller than is the case for most other exports, or at least not above the average for these other exports (UNCTAD, 1973, p.15). Similarly, it was tentatively concluded (UNCTAD, 1973, p.16) that the import proportion of investment in tourism is lower than the equivalent proportion for many other sectors, citing as evidence the fact that in Greece major modern industrial projects have an import content of over 50 per cent, and in Yugoslavia productive investment generally involves a 15 per cent outlay on imports. It was noted that these figures largely reflect the higher share, compared with industrial and other productive investment, that construction has in the total investment costs of hotels. The picture might well, however, be significantly

different if the capital costs of tourism-related infrastructure, such as airports, roads, and public utilities were included in the above calculations, although assessing the proportion of these costs attributable to tourism would admittedly be extremely difficult.

The net foreign exchange returns from tourism have also been related to the cost, in terms of capital and other resources, of achieving those returns, and comparisons made with other exports. Such an analysis was conducted by the UNCTAD secretariat for Yugoslavia, where, making allowance in each case for the import content of production, comparisons were made between gross fixed investment and export proceeds in the hotel and catering sector, on the one hand, and a number of other industries and agriculture (which provides most of Yugoslavia's export earnings) on the other. It was tentatively concluded that for the hotel sector the amount of capital required to provide a unit of net foreign exchange was amongst the lowest in the economy. Mitchell (1968), in a study of the Kenyan tourist industry, came to a similar conclusion. The net foreign exchange earned from resources devoted to tourism was compared with the net foreign exchange savings that the same resources might have made if devoted to import substitution industries. It was calculated that one unit of resources devoted to tourism earned more foreign exchange than would be gained by two units of resources devoted to a wide range of import substitution industries. On the basis of this evidence, limited though it is, it would seem that in terms of the costs of creating the tourist 'product' tourism is a relatively efficient foreign exchange earner.

It thus emerges that the net figure of foreign exchange inflow, especially in the case of developing countries, will be considerably less than the initial gross figure, and that one must therefore be extremely chary

of statements of gross earnings as an expression of the impact of tourism on the balance of payments. Nevertheless, it appears that the contribution of the tourist industry to the balance of payments, and thus to national income, can be significant, and, further, that this contribution is relatively greater than that of other export industries. It is also, however, quite clear that, pending further research, these conclusions must of necessity be somewhat tentative. Meanwhile, it can be postulated that Syria, with her massive balance of payments deficits, stands to gain substantially from an expansion of her tourist trade.

3.2 The Multiplier Effect

Much emphasis is given by those in favour of expanding tourism to the 'multiplier effects' of tourist spending. This refers to the process by which a part of tourist expenditure is spent and re-spent in the local economy on domestically produced goods and services, the value added in each successive round of spending being aggregated and divided by the initial input of tourist expenditure to provide a measure of the indirect increase in national income resulting from an initial input of tourist expenditure. At each round of spending, a proportion of income is 'leaked' out of the local economy by expenditure on imports and other cash flows abroad, and it is primarily the degree of self-sufficiency of the economy in question, and thus the extent of leakages, which determines the size of the multiplier. In developed countries, therefore, the multiplier will almost invariably be higher than in developing countries which produce only a limited range of goods and services domestically.

A number of estimates of the value of the tourist multiplier are presented in Table 13. While one would expect variations in the size of

Table 13 Estimates of the Tourist Multiplier: Various Countries and Regions^a

Country or Region	Tourist Multiplier
Pacific and Far East ^b	3.2 - 4.3
New Hampshire ^c	1.6 - 1.7
Hawaii ^d	0.9 - 1.3
Greece ^e	1.2 - 1.4
Pakistan ^f	3.3
Ireland ^g	2.7
Lebanon ^h	1.2 - 1.4
Caribbean A ⁱ	2.3
Caribbean B ^j	0.58 - 0.88

^a Note that Bryden does not give the full references for many of the sources listed in this table. Only those of Bryden's sources for which the present author was able to obtain full references are included in the list of references at the end of this chapter.

^b Clement, 1961.

^c Economic Impact of Recreation, Vacation and Travel on New Hampshire, 1962.

^d Craig, 1963.

^e Suits, 1964.

^f Master Plan for the Development of Tourism in Pakistan, 1965.

^g Study of the Economics of Tourism in Ireland, 1966.

^h Gorra, 1967.

ⁱ Zinder, H. and Associates, May, 1969.

^j Bryden, 1973.

Source: Bryden, 1973, p.75.

the multiplier between different regions because of variations in the structure of economies and consumption, the extent of the variations exhibited in Table 13 is surprising. As Bryden (1973, p.74) has noted, "it is hard to believe that the structural characteristics of Pakistan, or the Pacific and the Far East, are such as to explain the very high estimates made for these areas as compared with the other countries and regions cited". The high estimate given by Zinder for the Caribbean is certainly not the result of the structural characteristics of the Caribbean economy; it stems from a faulty methodology for the calculation of the multiplier in which the nominal value of transactions at each round of spending, rather than value added, was aggregated (see Gulati and Levitt, 1970; Bryden and Faber, 1971). It is not clear from the literature whether a similar criticism can be levelled at the Pakistan and the Pacific and Far East estimates.

Quite apart from problems arising from the use of mistaken methodologies, however, Bryden (1973, pp.74-77) has severely criticized the concept of the multiplier and the uses to which it has been put on two major counts. Firstly, it has been usual for the income which is aggregated at each round of spending to be the gross domestic product (GDP), derived by summing gross profits, gross wages and salaries, and rent and interest received by each sector, whereas, for developing countries in particular, income to nationals (ITN) is a much more relevant measure. Differences between GDP and ITN arise because of foreign ownership of factors of production and because of the employment of non-nationals in the economy, both of which are significant characteristics of developing countries.

Bryden's second criticism concerns the explicit assumption of basic Keynesian multiplier analysis that factors of production, particularly labour and capital, are under-utilized. This is tantamount to assuming

that resources have no opportunity costs. But "significant underutilisation of the capital stock is not generally thought to be a feature of developing countries. Nor does the thesis that labour is 'costless' nowadays receive much theoretical and empirical support. It must therefore be assumed that, in general, resources in developing countries will have positive opportunity costs" (Bryden, 1973, p.76). It follows that the only circumstances in which the multiplier can measure the benefit to the economy as a whole from tourist expenditure "are quite unreal, namely a zero opportunity cost for all the resources used directly and indirectly in tourism" (Bryden, 1973, p.77). It is true, as Bryden argues, that capital will have high opportunity costs in developing countries, but this will not usually be the case for labour which is commonly abundant in such situations. Nevertheless, it is clear that controversy surrounds both the methods that have been used to calculate the multiplier and the usefulness of the concept when applied to developing countries. The multiplier estimates in Table 13 should thus be treated with considerable caution.

In spite of the difficulties of measuring the indirect impact of tourism on the economies of destination countries, however, it is clear that this impact will be greatest where foreign ownership of the industry is at a minimum and where the greatest possible use is made of domestically produced inputs into the sector. This argument also applies to the extent of the net contribution of tourism to the balance of payments and hence to its direct impact on national income. It follows directly from this that the Syrianization of as many aspects of the tourist trade as possible should be pursued as a fundamental tenet of Syria's tourist policy.

3.3 The Impact of Tourism on Local Agriculture and Industry

The argument that tourism stimulates local agriculture and industry is, of course, closely related to considerations of the extent of the import component of tourist receipts and the size of the tourist multiplier. Evidence for the impact of tourism on agriculture is limited and inconclusive but it is clear that traditional agriculture in destination areas is frequently unable to supply tourism's demands, both because of the poor quality of local produce as compared with imported food, and because of the absence of efficient marketing systems. Thus, the tourist industry has not yet benefitted small farmers in Jamaica and much of the food requirements of hotels is flown in from the United States (Floyd, 1974a, p.429). It is reported that in the Nabeul Governorate of Tunisia local farms supply only 43 per cent of hotels' food needs, although it is not clear what proportion of food imports to the governorate come from outside Tunisia (Brazier, 1971, p.25). In this instance, however, agriculture has not been insensitive to tourism; the relatively low participation of local agriculture in satisfying tourism's demands stems largely from agriculture's inability to adapt rapidly to the high rate of growth of the demands of the tourist industry, rather than from any inherent inability to change at all. Tourism in Nabeul has in fact increased and diversified agricultural production (Brazier, 1971, pp.25-29).

By contrast, tourism has had a severe adverse impact on agriculture in parts of the Alps. In the Breuil-Cervinia area, for example, the number of farms has fallen rapidly in the last decade. Instead of encouraging local agriculture, tourism has led to the import of milk from Lombardy, butter from Piedmont, and vegetables from as far away as Venice (Cosgrove and Jackson, 1972, p.58). Again, in Antigua a decline in agriculture is

occurring which is at least partially the result of competition from tourism for the limited productive resources available (Bryden, 1973, pp.25-26).

It is thus by no means a foregone conclusion that Syrian agriculture, which remains essentially traditional, would benefit from an increased tourist trade. Conscious efforts would have to be made to ensure that increased demand for food is not met by imports.

The effect of tourism on industry in the underdeveloped destination area is mainly confined to the craft sector, in particular that part producing souvenirs. It is often argued that this sector stands to benefit from the expanding market provided by the presence of large numbers of generally affluent tourists. However, in many destinations the local handicraft industry has found itself unable to compete with mass produced, often imported, goods for sale as souvenirs to tourists. This has frequently been associated with a general decline in the quality of local craftwork as the goods produced become less and less geared to the indigenous market, and increasingly aimed at the less discriminating tourist. Such a decline in the handicraft sector may, however, be simply a normal part of the overall economic development of the destination country. The developed countries all went through a similar abandonment of handicrafts in favour of factory production.

Syria currently has a well-developed craft industry and if this industry is to flourish under an expansion of tourism, steps must be taken both to protect it from imported souvenirs and to maintain the existing high quality of production.

3.4 Tourism and Government Revenue

The share of government tax revenue deriving from tourist income is, as might be expected, largely a function of the importance of tourism in the national economy. Where tourism is a major activity, the proportion of total tax revenue it provides will be large, and vice versa. For example, in the Bahamas, where tourism is the dominant economic activity, it was estimated that in 1968 about 8 per cent of visitor expenditure went directly to the government in the form of customs duties, departure taxes, and tax revenue from casinos and other sources, providing about 25 per cent of total tax revenue. If the multiplier effects of tourist spending are taken into account, this proportion rises to about 55 per cent (UNCTAD, 1973, p.21). Similarly, in Antigua, which depends heavily on the tourist trade, direct government tax revenue in 1964 amounted to over 10 per cent of total tourist receipts (UNCTAD, 1973, p.21).

However, just as figures for gross tourist receipts can overstate the contribution of tourism to the balance of payments, simple statements of the size of tax revenue accruing to governments from tourism say nothing about the costs which governments can incur on behalf of the tourist industry. These costs include not only government outlays on publicity and promotion and other direct aid to the tourist industry, such as tax exemptions granted as incentives to tourist enterprises, but also a part of the costs of infrastructure and public utility projects from which tourism benefits, although these are admittedly difficult to ascertain in cases where such projects are not executed specifically for tourist purposes. Much controversy surrounds this question of public outlays on tourism. Young has gone so far as to assert that the situation is being approached

"whereby it will pay everyone to be a tourist because of the subsidies to which he is entitled; and it will pay no-one to be a resident because of the high levels of taxation needed to subsidise the tourist industry" (Young, 1973, p.138). But the only substantive investigation of whether or not the tourist does in fact pay for the government-provided services he receives contradicts Young. In 1968 a study was made of the Hawaiian tourist industry (State of Hawaii, 1970) in which the average revenue per visitor received by the State, including that generated by the multiplier effect, was compared with the average daily cost of the public services used by each tourist. The public costs included indirect costs involved in the training and education of immigrant hotel staff and their dependents and the analysis comprised alternative assumptions about the future share of immigrants in the total hotel labour force. The benefit/cost ratios were found to be positive for all categories of tourist distinguished, regardless of the assumptions concerning immigrant labour, while ratios tended to rise with the size of visitors' incomes.

It is evident that conditions in Hawaii are not typical of those in the developing countries, and certainly there are many instances of potential destination areas where very heavy capital costs in infrastructure would have to be incurred as a prerequisite of tourist development. Such expenses might cause doubts as to the advisability of developing tourism, but as the UNCTAD secretariat noted (UNCTAD, 1973, p.22), the Hawaii study would seem to indicate "that only in an extreme situation might the overall cost to government exceed the benefits accruing to it in the form of tax revenue". Certainly in Kenya, whose economic circumstances are very different from those of Hawaii, it was found that government revenue from foreign tourism, including revenue deriving from incomes created indirectly by tourism,

exceeded by a factor of 2.2 government expenditure on tourist activities (Mitchell, 1968, p.16). Even in instances where the cost to the government would exceed the benefits it might still be justifiable to subsidize the tourist industry if the balance of payments and other benefits to the economy as a whole were particularly large.

In Syria the government has already embarked on a programme of infrastructure development, the costs of which are only very marginally attributable to tourism. Since government outlays on tourism-related infrastructure frequently constitute the major cost of tourism to governments, there is no reason to suppose that, in the event of an expansion of tourism to Syria, the total government outlay on the tourist industry need be excessive.

3.5 Tourism and Employment

Just as the direct effects of tourism on national income can be distinguished conceptually from the indirect effects, so too can employment directly attributable to tourism be distinguished from that indirectly generated by the tourist trade. Thus, employment can be created both directly in 'tourist activities' as such, on the one hand, and indirectly in sectors supplying the tourist industry and in activities sustained by the income generated by the multiplier effects of tourists' spending, on the other. It is difficult, however, to determine the exact magnitude, for a given country, of even direct employment sustained by tourism because tourism-related activities are not distinguished as a separate item in national employment figures and, frequently, detailed information is available only for the hotel and catering sector. This parallels the problems encountered in the representation of tourism-related transactions in balance of payments statistics.

Generally, however, the greater the share of tourism in the formation of GDP, the greater will be the proportion of tourist employment in total employment. In Greece, which has a low dependence on tourism, only about 0.9 per cent of the total labour force is engaged in tourism. In Mexico, which again does not rely heavily on tourism, about 1 per cent of the economically active population was employed in the tourist sector in 1965. In Yugoslavia 2.5 per cent of employment in productive sectors was accounted for by the hotel and catering sector in 1958, and this proportion had risen to 3.3 per cent by 1967, amounting to 2.7 per cent of total employment in that year. Taking into account employment directly generated by domestic and foreign tourism in other branches of the tourist sector, such as transport, it was estimated that employment in tourism in 1967 constituted about 5 per cent of total employment in productive sectors and 4 per cent of employment as a whole (UNCTAD, 1973, p.22). In Kenya, about 10,000 persons were employed in private and government sector activities directly concerned with tourism in 1966/1967, constituting about 1.5 per cent of total non-agricultural employment (UNCTAD, 1973, p.23). At the other extreme, an estimated 50 per cent of total employment in the US Virgin Islands is in service industries connected with tourism, and in the Bahamas as much as 35 per cent of the total labour force in 1968 was engaged in the tourist sector (UNCTAD, 1973, p.23). The above data, however, understates the full impact of tourism on employment as employment generated indirectly by the industry is excluded.

Very little is known about the extent of this employment created indirectly through the impact of tourism on the economy as a whole. Mitchell (1968, p.20) has estimated that in Kenya in 1967, for every 100 persons employed directly in tourist activities, another 70-80 are employed elsewhere in the economy, and that if employment in the construction of tourist facilities

were included the figure for indirect employment would be even higher. For the Turks and Caicos Islands, it has been estimated that indirect employment amounts to 50 per cent of direct employment in the hotel industry, to 10 per cent of direct tourism-related employment in banking and insurance, and to 5 per cent of direct tourism-related employment in construction (Transport and Tourism Technicians Ltd., cited in Elkan and Morley, 1971, p.68). Elkan and Morley, in their study of employment in the British Virgin Islands, assumed that indirect employment would rise at a rate of 50 per cent of the rate of growth of direct employment in the building and manning of hotels, villas, and tourist apartments (Elkan and Morley, 1971, p.68). Finally, the UNCTAD secretariat concluded that the total impact of tourism on employment could be up to two times that of the employment generated directly in the tourist sector, although this estimate appears large in the light of the conclusions of the other studies cited above (UNCTAD, 1973, p.23).

Proponents of tourist development place much weight on the jobs that tourism can create and it is therefore appropriate to ask whether the tourist industry is relatively more, or less, labour intensive than other sectors. Our lack of knowledge on this point is reflected in the extent of disagreement amongst researchers. Young, for example, asserts that "tourism is a highly labour-intensive industry which can offer employment to the semi-skilled and unskilled" (Young, 1973, p.135). By contrast, Floyd, in a study of the Jamaican tourist industry, has stated that "contrary to claims by proponents of the tourist industry, it is not labour intensive" (Floyd, 1974b, p.4). Labour intensity can be measured by at least three criteria (UNCTAD, 1973, p.23): employment created per unit of tourism-induced domestic product; employment created per unit of capital

invested; and value added per employee. Mitchell has estimated for Kenya that in 1966/1967 £1,000 of GDP resulting from tourist expenditure generated at least 1.4 jobs which compares with 1.2 jobs per £1,000 of GDP in the private sector (for the monetary economy) and 1.8 jobs per £1,000 of GDP when the government sector is included. The ratio was found to be highest for agriculture (3.5) and lowest for electricity and water (0.58), with manufacturing being about the same as tourism at 1.3 (Mitchell, 1968, p.20). In Mexico it has been calculated that an investment of \$80,000 in the tourist industry in 1969 created 41 jobs, compared with only 16 in the petroleum industry, 15 in metal trades, and 8 in the electricity industry (Sadler and Archer, 1974, p.18). On the other hand, a study by the UNCTAD secretariat on the Yugoslav tourist industry found that average and marginal capital/employment ratios for the hotel and catering sectors did not appear to be higher than those for other sectors of the economy (UNCTAD, 1973, p.23). Similarly, a comparison of the physical capital per (full-time equivalent) employee for a number of hotels in Hawaii in 1959 with the equivalent figure for the sugar industry revealed that the latter industry was more labour intensive than the hotel industry (Miklius, 1970, pp.12-15). However, when value added per employee was adopted as the criterion, and comparisons made with other industries in Hawaii, the hotel industry did appear to be relatively labour intensive. But, since hotels are almost certainly the most capital intensive part of the tourist industry, expressions of labour intensity based on employment in hotels will understate the true degree of labour intensity of the tourist industry as a whole. The somewhat limited available evidence thus suggests that tourism is relatively labour intensive, but does not have major advantages in this respect over other economic sectors.

Quite apart from questions of labour intensity, however, a major attribute of the tourist trade, at least from the point of view of developing countries, with their large pools of unskilled labour, is the unskilled and semi-skilled nature of most of the employment it offers. A survey of the UK hotel industry conducted by the Hotel and Catering Training Board (the results of which are summarized in Young, 1973, p.146) showed that about 40 per cent of the labour force was accounted for by unskilled kitchen operatives, maids, and cleaners and a further 25 per cent by semi-skilled waiters and barmen together with their female counterparts¹. Thus, only about one third of the labour force was composed of skilled workers. Table 14 shows that this low proportion of skilled labour in the hotel industry is not limited to the United Kingdom. Even if, in Table 14, one classifies only bar-restaurant, kitchen, and room staff as unskilled or semi-skilled, then only 38 per cent of employees in Kenyan hotels and 35 per cent of hotel employees in the British Virgin Islands are skilled. Although these figures apply only to the hotel industry, there is no reason to suppose that employment in the tourist sector outside hotels contains higher proportions of skilled workers. The seasonal nature of much employment in tourism is, on the other hand, a major drawback although it must be said that, particularly for the underdeveloped countries, employment which is largely seasonal is preferable to no employment at all.

The available evidence would certainly seem to suggest that Syria, no less than other developing countries, would benefit from the employment opportunities created by an expansion of tourism. This is particularly the case in view of the relatively large number of unemployed workers, the vast majority of whom are unskilled, which is a characteristic feature of the Syrian labour force.

¹ Young (1973, p.146) in fact considers waiters, waitresses, barmen, and barmaids to be unskilled. This view, however, seems unreasonable.

Table 14 Comparison of the Structure of Hotel Employment in
Kenya and the British Virgin Islands

	Kenya ^a %	British Virgin Islands (1970) %
Managerial and office	10.0	18.0
Bar - restaurant	25.0	25.0
Kitchen staff	19.0	20.0
Rooms	18.0	20.0
Other, including maintenance workers	27.0	17.0
<u>Total</u>	99.0	100.0

^a Elkan and Morley (1971) state the source of the figures for Kenya to be Mitchell (1970). In fact this latter source does not contain these figures. It would seem that the correct source is a table in Mitchell (1968, p.53) which shows the projected increase in tourist staff in Kenya between 1967 and 1973 by category of job. The data for Kenya does not, thus, refer to any specific year.

Source: Elkan and Morley, 1971, p.86.

3.6 Tourism as a Corrector of Regional Imbalances

A great deal, but by no means all, tourist activity takes place in non-industrialized rural locations characterized by their low level of economic development. It is in fact this very underdevelopment that the tourist finds attractive and it is frequently argued that tourism can stimulate the economies of such areas as these which have been by-passed by other modern economic activities. Thus, the relatively backward Adriatic coast of Yugoslavia relies heavily on tourism for its economic well-being. Similarly tourism has played a major role in the economic advancement of the Kenyan coast and the game reserve areas. Again, tourism is a major source of income on many of the Greek islands where there are few other economic opportunities for the local population. A parallel situation exists at the international level, where tourism is seen as a means of transferring wealth from the economically advanced countries to the underdeveloped nations. This question was examined in an earlier section concerned with the flows of international tourist receipts.

Even in cases where tourism is largely urban-based, or takes place in other relatively well-developed areas of a country, its indirect effects can still influence peripheral less developed regions. For example, over 50 per cent of the hotel nights spent by non-resident tourists in Kenya in 1966/1967 were registered in Nairobi, but it has been estimated that over 9 per cent of hotel receipts in that year eventually accrued to farmers and fishermen who lived far from tourist areas. Further, it was reported that curio carvers in areas of Kenya which visitors hardly entered were nevertheless earning substantial incomes from tourism (Mitchell, 1968, p.18; p.20).

On the other hand, Bryden (1973, p.72) has noted that if an underdeveloped region has neither industry nor agriculture, then there is unlikely

to be the requisite infrastructure or labour for tourist development and the development of tourism in such an area would necessitate both a relocation of labour and heavy infrastructure costs, and would not lead to significant indirect income effects locally. Moreover, he argues that in agricultural areas, a development of tourism would lead to competition for productive resources, and hence to a decline in agriculture, as has occurred in a number of Caribbean islands. And yet such competition is by no means inevitable. In agricultural areas tourism may even provide the stimulation of demand that local traditional agriculture needs to modernize itself, thereby releasing one productive resource, labour, from the land for employment in the tourist trade.

Certainly many regions of Syria stand to benefit from an expansion of tourism, particularly the relatively underdeveloped north west which contains large areas of mountainous land of limited agricultural potential. The lack of economic opportunities in this area has caused considerable out-migration over the years which tourism could halt, or even reverse. Meanwhile, a relatively well-developed infrastructure exists which could be put to good use by the tourist industry. This north west region of Syria will be considered in much greater detail later in this thesis.

3.7 The Inflationary Consequences of Tourism

Inflation can arise from tourism in three main ways (Young, 1973, p.150). Firstly, the presence of large numbers of relatively affluent tourists can lead to price increases in shops in the destination area; secondly, a vigorous hotel building programme can cause rises in construction costs, and therefore affect the prices of houses for residents; and finally, land prices can increase through hotel purchase or through the purchase of holiday homes. This third problem can be exacerbated by the speculative

buying of land in tourist areas. As an illustration of the second two points, Young (1973, p.150) cites the case of the Canary Islands where land prices rose by 30 per cent per annum in the 1970-1973 period, mainly because of the popularity of the islands as a place of retirement and as a location for holiday homes. In 1963 a plot of land measuring 736 sq.m. near San Agustin beach was sold for £1,512; in 1968 it changed hands for £8,650, and in 1971 it fetched £27,000. Two-bedroom bungalows in the same area cost from £12,000 to £15,000 in 1971 (Young, 1973, p.150). A similar situation has developed in Kenya. A 5 ha. plot of land 24 km. south of Mombasa was sold in 1958 for £K800. Since then tourism has developed rapidly along the coast and in 1970 1.5 ha. of the same plot was valued at around £K3,000 (Jackson, 1973, p.64). In Bermuda the rapid expansion of tourism created labour shortages which resulted in galloping wage inflation¹ while the prices of land and houses, which were already high, were further increased. The government, "to rescue the economy from the tourist boom" (Young, 1973, p.151), had to freeze all new hotel development for five years.

The way in which land speculation was prevented during the development of the massive Languedoc-Roussillon tourist project in France holds important lessons for developing countries seeking to expand their tourist industries. The scheme involves the creation, at a final cost of £350 million, of six new tourist resorts along 120 miles of the Mediterranean coast in the Languedoc-Roussillon region. The task of inducing private developers into the zone was entrusted to the specially created Mission Interministérielle pour l'Aménagement Touristique du Littoral Languedoc-Roussillon in 1963. The

¹ Wage inflation resulting from labour shortages is not a frequently cited consequence of tourist development. Upward pressure must, however, be placed on wages by tourism-induced price increases.

Mission began by secretly buying up, at low agricultural-land prices, all available land in the project area and before plans for the scheme were publicly announced 9,000 acres of the most important land in the development had been acquired. Speculation after the disclosure of the plans was successfully stopped by a law which gave the Mission first refusal on all sites. If the price was considered to be too high, compulsory purchase powers could be used.

Young (1973, p.151) has described how the growth of tourism locally can price-out shops providing goods and services for residents and replace them with shops providing more expensive goods and services for tourists. Where the former type of shops remain, they have to pay higher rent and rates which are passed on to resident consumers through higher prices for goods. The Overseas Development Administration (Economic Planning Staff, 1972, p.77) has noted, however, that the effects of all tourism-induced price increases can be minimized either by a government-imposed price freeze, or by the government using the tax revenues derived from tourism to offset the price rises for those hardest hit.

The problem of inflation arising from tourism should be given high priority by the Syrian authorities. In particular, if existing plans for the development of tourist resorts along the coast materialize, then steps should be taken, along the lines of those adopted for the Languedoc-Roussillon project, to prevent land speculation.

3.8 Problems relating to an Over-Dependence on Tourism

It is frequently argued that the dependence of an economy on tourism renders that economy unduly vulnerable to the factors that influence the rate of growth of tourism. These factors comprise a) fashion, b) fluctuations

in the national incomes of the tourist generating countries and c) war, natural disasters, or political disturbances. Some comparative data on the dependence on tourism of most 'tourist' countries is presented in Table 15 where the ratio of tourist receipts to national income or visible exports is used as a measure of dependence.

Fluctuations in the growth of tourist arrivals resulting from changes of fashion are less important now, in the age of mass travel, than they were in the past when only the wealthy could afford to travel abroad. Thus, Monaco had 70 hotels and 3,580 rooms in 1939, but 30 years later it had only 31 hotels and 1,650 rooms. "The aristocracy passed it by and the new generation of tourists could not afford it" (Young, 1973, p.155). Nevertheless, destinations catering to the fickle rich are still prone to this problem. Fluctuations in the economic health of tourist generating countries can be particularly significant because of the high income elasticity of demand for tourism, but such fluctuations have not been severe in the post-war period and have only affected the rate of positive growth of total world tourist arrivals rather than having brought about a negative growth rate in these from any one year to the next. In the economic climate of the mid-1970s, however, this factor has assumed a new importance. Item (c) certainly has an immediate negative impact on the growth of tourism although this impact may be relatively short-lived. Mitchell (1968, p.24) has pointed out that all forms of economic activity are retarded by serious and long-lived political instability but it can be argued that tourism is particularly vulnerable in this respect. The development of tourism in the Middle East provides a prime example. Chary of these adverse influences on the growth of tourism, and of some of the more negative aspects of the tourist trade (which are described elsewhere in this chapter), Yugoslavia has accepted UN advice to avoid an over-dominance of tourism in the national economy, while Tunisia has decided to restrict the growth of tourism so that tourist income will never constitute more than 35 per cent of gross national product (Rivers, 1972, p.165).

Table 15 Dependence on Tourism of Tourist Countries, 1965^a.

Country	Tourist Receipts as a Percentage of National Income	Tourist Receipts as a Percentage of Visible Exports
Morocco	2.8	15.3
Kenya	2.5	14.5
Tunisia	2.3	14.6
Hong Kong	11.9	10.9
Lebanon	9.4	94.9
Jordan	6.3	110.0
Mexico	4.5	68.2
Puerto Rico	4.7	n.a.
Bahamas	about 40.0	316.3
Jamaica	5.9	19.9
Barbados	17.8	40.7
Grenada	15.9 ^b	54.4
St. Vincent	5.8 ^b	23.6
St. Lucia	15.0 ^b	14.4
Antigua	40.0 ^b	275.0
Montserrat	14.6 ^b	316.1
British Virgin Islands ^c	49.1 ^b	inf.
Cayman Islands ^c	28.5 ^b	inf.
Turks and Caicos	3.0 ^b	30.4
Malta	5.1	29.2
Greece	2.2	32.8
Spain	6.2	119.8
Portugal	4.8	27.3
Italy	2.8	17.9
Austria	8.0	335.0
Switzerland	4.6	17.8
Ireland	8.5	30.7
Canada	1.9	8.6

^a Tourist countries defined as those in which tourist receipts exceed 5 per cent of national income or 10 per cent of visible exports. Some countries are omitted because of lack of data.

^b GDP at factor cost has been used.

^c 1968 data only available.

Symbols: n.a. = not available
inf. = infinite; visible exports minimal.

Source: Bryden, 1973, p.91.

It should be noted, however, that an over-dependence on any single economic sector can make an economy vulnerable to extraneous factors. Indeed, dependence on tourism may be preferable to dependence on other forms of economic activity for, in spite of the potentially disruptive effects of the three above-mentioned factors, tourism has generally displayed a remarkably constant rate of growth as compared with other exports. Mitchell (1968, p.23) states that "on a world-wide basis, there is no doubt that tourist receipts to all countries have grown more steadily (with less variation about the trend and with fewer year-to-year reversals) than commodity exports as a whole". Growth at the national level, however, is likely to have been somewhat more erratic than the overall world-wide figures for the growth of tourism might suggest.

It is doubtful whether Syria, which has a comparatively diversified economy, will, in the foreseeable future, be in a position where she relies preponderantly on her tourist industry. The political tensions in the Middle East will play a deciding role in the development of tourism in all the countries of the region and it is very unlikely that any significant expansion of tourism to Syria will occur so long as these tensions, notably the Arab-Israeli conflict, continue.

4. The Social Costs and Benefits of Tourism

Arguments in favour of tourism are frequently formulated exclusively in economic terms, but no evaluation of the tourist industry can be complete without consideration being given to its social implications. That these implications can be important stems largely from the unique characteristic of tourism as an economic activity: the fact that the consumer travels in person to the 'producing country' to take direct delivery of his 'goods'.

In so doing, he is brought face to face with the residents of the destination area. Much of the criticism that is levelled at tourism concerns the social frictions that have resulted from this confrontation. And yet, as Bryden (1973, p.2) has noted, "the Catholic Church, the IUOTO, M. Peters, and most other western writers and consultants on the subject consider the social impact of tourism in ethnocentric terms. Social effects are normally discussed exclusively in terms of the benefits to tourists themselves, through seeing and meeting foreigners". These benefits are usually stated to be the widening of interest in world affairs and the greater understanding of foreigners that travel can engender. These arguments may well be, to some extent at least, valid (although even this is not certain), particularly where there are few basic differences between the social, economic, and racial characteristics of the tourists and those of the population of the destination area in question. Thus, the Overseas Development Administration (Economic Planning Staff, 1972, p.72) points out that in Europe, which is the focal point of world tourism, both as a destination area and as a generator of tourists, social problems associated with tourism have been minimal compared to those which have arisen in developing countries. Clearly, social friction is not an inevitable corollary of the confrontation between tourists and residents. Whether or not such friction occurs depends at least as much on circumstances in the destination area as on the fact that a confrontation is involved.

In what ways then, can social problems, both within the host society itself and between tourists and residents, arise from tourism, and why have developing countries been particularly susceptible to these problems? Firstly, and most obviously, the tourist in the developing world is much richer than the mass of the local population. Not only is he usually from an economically advanced country, but he is likely to be from the richer

sections of his society. He thus constitutes a harsh reminder to the less well off residents of destinations of their own low economic status. Optimists have argued that this situation will stir the host population to make greater efforts to improve their own standard of living. The experience of many destinations, however, has shown that a more likely outcome is simply resentment on the part of the local population who, while no doubt wishing for affluence, are frustrated by the conspicuous lack of opportunities for personal economic advancement which is, of course, a characteristic of developing countries.

Secondly, the tourist is normally racially distinct from the resident population of developing countries. This may not, in itself, constitute a source of friction but, for the inhabitants of developing countries, being white is often synonymous with being rich, which is resented. Further, the white tourist is frequently identified with a part of the world loathed for its imperialistic tendencies, both past and present. Specifically racial tensions are bound to be more severe in areas such as the Caribbean which have a history of slavery. The Overseas Development Administration (Economic Planning Staff, 1972, p.72) has noted that "the problem or question of social unrest caused by tourism is very much linked to both the colonial and racial 'hang-up', as having achieved political freedom and independence the people now find themselves having to wait on the white man who this time is in the guise of the tourist".

Thirdly, and this applies to all destinations, whether in developed or developing countries, an influx of tourists causes an increase in the densities at which residents of the destination area must live. In addition to having to suffer the possible adverse psychological effects of high density living, about which little is known, this means that residents must compete with tourists for a finite supply of public services,

a problem exacerbated by the fact that tourists are generally more intensive users of such services than residents. Again, resentment on the part of the locals understandably follows. This can be a particularly acute source of friction in developing countries where public services are often inadequate to meet the demands of the resident population, let alone those of tourists.

Fourthly, tourists' habits and activities may be distasteful to the residents of the destination area. This is particularly likely to occur where, as is frequently the case with tourism in developing countries, the cultural norms of the tourist differ significantly from those of the host population. A striking example of this concerns the position of women in Muslim countries. The presence of large numbers of relatively emancipated Western women tourists with their liberal styles of dress and behaviour, offends, and even shocks many members of these male-dominated societies. A much more extreme example of this problem is provided by the Mexican tourist industry where 60 per cent of the annual tourist revenue is accounted for by the expenditure of US citizens in the red light districts of the border towns of Tijuana, Ciudad Juarez, Nuevo Laredo, and Matamoros (Young, 1973, p.122). The existence of these flourishing tourist towns where the main appeals are drinking, gambling, strip shows, and brothels naturally enough causes many Mexicans to feel great antipathy towards the tourist industry.

Fifthly, and closely related both to the previous point and to the fact that the tourist is normally more affluent than the indigenous population, tourism can have a destructive effect on the distinctive local cultures of developing countries. This problem cannot arise where the tourist's own culture differs little from that of his host, as is the case

with tourist travel between developed countries. The resident of a developing country can easily become envious of the apparently carefree, inexhaustibly rich, tourist, forgetting that the visitor has perhaps had to work hard in a factory for the rest of the year to earn his two weeks in the sun. The attractiveness of the tourist's life style on holiday can cause the local to emulate the visitor's habits. The corollary of this is that the traditional local culture declines. This process can cause considerable conflict within individual residents of the destination area who can become caught in a cultural dilemma, unable to throw off overnight their traditional patterns of thought and behaviour and equally unable to achieve the affluent life of the tourist. But quite apart from this aspect of the demonstration effect of tourism, cultural disintegration can set in simply from the introduction, on a large scale, of a modern commercial activity into a traditional setting. Increasingly, social relationships become geared, as in the West, to new economic realities, and the old social structure, along with its value system, declines.

In defence of tourism, however, it must be noted that cultural change appears to be an inevitable concomitant of all economic development. As the Economist Intelligence Unit (1973, p.66) comments, "it is not easy to measure the benefits of the introduction of new skills, ideas or living standards against the loss of a traditional way of life. Historical change, universally, involves a mixture of gains and losses, the relative weights of which will always remain a subject for individual disagreement. It does, however, seem harsh that tourism should be selected from among the other catalysts of social and cultural change to carry the weight of blame. It is doubly harsh when a moment's reflection must make clear that tourism, above all other industries, has a vested interest in the preservation of the

cultural environment." Tourism, however, has often not merely changed, but has also degraded local cultures. Thus, in Hawaii tourists are welcomed by squads of girls "paid by the hour to throw garlands of plastic petals around tourist necks" (Foley, 1973, p.56). Worse, in Tunisia the demand for local weddings has so outstripped supply that mock weddings are now laid on, at a price, for tourists (Rivers, 1972, p.162). Social change may be an integral part of economic development but the changes introduced by tourism are not only likely to be more rapid, and therefore more painful, than social change brought about by other economic activities, but also frequently involve the worst excesses of commercialism.

Related to this question of cultural change is the dilemma faced by underdeveloped destination countries that their very underdevelopment is often their main attraction. The bedouin tribesman may be a romantic figure to the tourist, but to the educated Arab, intent on developing his country, the bedouin is merely an embarrassing symbol of underdevelopment. It is galling for the development-minded indigene of an underdeveloped country to witness tourists and tourist advertising treating his homeland as a kind of human zoo for the entertainment of foreigners. On the other hand, the development of the tourist industry might be deemed essential on economic grounds. This dilemma inevitably leads to an equivocal attitude towards tourism on the part of many locals.

But probably the most potent source of antagonism is the general feeling which can develop amongst the residents of heavily frequented tourist destinations, whether these areas are in developed or underdeveloped countries, that they are strangers in their own land. For example, allegations have been made in the Madrid newspaper ABC that the 25 million

tourists who visit Spain each year turn large parts of the country into an "alien land where foreign languages are spoken, foreign currency is accepted and Spaniards discriminated against. In a thousand and one small and big things, we detect the existence of a new colonialism - tourism - being imposed on us in a way which is plainly dangerous" (quoted in Young, 1973, p.140).

Finally, it has been alleged that, after soldiers, tourists are the most inconsiderate of visitors, an irresponsible transient population caring little for the long-term needs of the residents of destination areas (Rivers, 1972, p.160). If this is true, however partially, then tourists themselves must directly shoulder a large portion of the blame for the social friction that tourism can generate.

As well as these 'direct' sources of friction which result from the physical presence of the tourist in the destination area, one can also identify a number of causes of social unrest which, although attributable to tourism, do not derive from the confrontation, as such, between tourists and locals. This group of 'indirect' causes of social tension apply to both developed and underdeveloped destinations, although in general developing countries are more susceptible to them.

Firstly, the residents of destination areas can feel resentment towards tourists as the result of tourist facilities not being available for use by locals. Thus, in Russia there are night clubs to which only tourists are admitted, and in Rumania and Syria shops exist where tourists can buy goods at very favourable rates of exchange, and duty-free, respectively. However, tourist facilities, by definition not justifiable without tourist demand, are, in fact, generally available for use by residents and this is an important benefit that tourism bestows on the population of a destination region.

Secondly, and related to the previous point, tourist development has often involved the large-scale alienation of land in destination areas. As

well as causing administrative problems (which are considered in a later section), this constitutes a source of resentment on the part of locals, particularly as the areas to which they are denied access are normally those which they most highly value as locations for their own recreation. Thus, of the 40 beaches on St. Thomas, one of the US Virgin Islands, only two are publicly owned, and the situation is similar on St. Croix. To use a hotel beach the average price is \$2.00 per adult, \$1.00 per child, and some hotels charge considerably more (Lundberg, 1972, p.198). A similar alienation of some of the best beaches has occurred in Jamaica (Floyd, 1974b, p.3).

The inflationary consequences of tourism were described in an earlier section and these constitute a third indirect source of bitterness towards tourists and tourism.

Fourthly, a growing tourist industry frequently requires imports of labour to fill the jobs it creates (both in the construction and running of tourist facilities) and this can be a potent source of unrest. For example, the massive influx of foreign workers into the US Virgin Islands, largely a consequence of the economic activity generated by tourism, has resulted in a situation where foreigners constitute three quarters of the total population. Tensions between different groups of aliens, and between aliens and natives have been considerable (Lundberg, 1972, p.198). Social friction arising from the confrontation between foreign and indigenous workers can be particularly severe where the immigrant labour is of a different creed, colour, or culture to the local population.

Fifthly, social unrest can derive from the socio-economic and racial stratification which characterizes the employment structure of the tourist industry, no less than other modern commercial activities, in developing countries. Hotel managers are often white and rich, and frequently expatriate,

while the lower level staff are black and poor. Economic disparities are thus reinforced by racial differences. In Bermuda, for example, although 60 per cent of the native population is coloured, not one coloured Bermudean is a hotel manager. Only one Bermudean holds a position as high as assistant manager (Lundberg, 1972, p.204). Closely related to this, antagonism towards tourists and tourism are likely to develop amongst the residents of destination areas where the benefits of the tourist industry are seen to be accruing largely to non-nationals. In developing countries, with their high degree of foreign participation in tourist development, this latter is often the case.

Finally, the type of employment sustained by tourism is itself a source of friction. The mass of jobs sustained by the tourist trade are low paid, involve long and inconvenient hours, and hold poor promotion prospects. A survey of the UK hotel industry (the results of which are summarized in Young, 1973, p.143; p.146) showed that two thirds of the labour force had to work on Saturdays and Sundays and that the hours of work were disruptive of family life while 64 per cent of the experienced staff had never progressed beyond the level of operative and 72 per cent of employees had not improved their status at all since entering the industry. Further, because of the largely unskilled and semi-skilled nature of hotel employment, earnings were below the average for the UK as a whole.

Social problems can arise in any destination for any, or all, of the above reasons, but social tensions are most clearly visible in the Caribbean, an economically underdeveloped tourist destination with a predominantly coloured population and a history of slavery and colonialism, which caters to mainly white tourists from North America, the most economically advanced area in the world. Further, the growth of the West Indian tourist industry has generally been rapid and unplanned. Resentment towards

tourists manifests itself most frequently in a general inhospitality to visitors on the part of the local population. As well as recurrent instances of residents being rude to tourists, more serious signs of social unrest are emerging. In the US Virgin Islands, for example, anti-white feeling has strengthened rapidly in recent years. "A number of rapes of white women took place on St. Croix in 1970 and the islands had their first armed bank robbery. Purse snatchings, assaults, and burglaries of hotel rooms, homes, and businesses are on the rise" (Lundberg, 1972, p.199). Tensions have come to such a head in Jamaica that armed guards patrol hotel grounds and the government has felt obliged to recruit 'Courtesy Cops' to reassure tourists and perennially promotes 'Tourism Matters to You' campaigns to encourage the residents to give visitors a warmer welcome. Similarly, by 1970 the Bahamian government was taking action to counteract the prevalent lack of courtesy towards tourists by publicizing the benefits of tourism to the islands. But the most serious manifestation of anti-tourist feeling was the bombing of a number of Puerto Rican hotels by nationalists in 1970 and 1971. The growth of tourist arrivals to many parts of the West Indies has slowed in recent years and undoubtedly a major cause of this is the reputation for inhospitality that the islands have acquired.

It is clear that the figure for total tourist arrivals in a given destination in itself tells us very little about the likely magnitude of the social impact of the confrontation between residents and tourists and it has been suggested that the ratios of tourist nights per 100 resident population and of tourist nights per square mile per annum provide a more useful measure of this aspect of tourism (Young, 1973, p.57). Table 16 presents this information for a number of countries in which tourism is an important industry. Three states in the table, Bermuda, the Bahamas, and Jamaica, are renowned for their tourism-derived social problems but,

Table 16 Density of Tourism in Selected Countries^a.

Country	Tourist Nights per 100 Residents per Annum	Tourist Density (Tourist Nights per Square Mile per Annum)	
Bermuda	3,249	78,918	
Bahamas	2,785	1,120	
Monaco	1,667	800,000	(H) ^b
Austria	798	1,846	
Malta	630	16,473	
Switzerland	333	1,312	(H) ^b
Luxembourg	267	800	(H) ^b
Lebanon	206	1,360	
Spain	156	263	
Italy	127	529	
Jamaica	121	589	
Cyprus	117	200	(H) ^b
Yugoslavia	105	228	
Fiji	101	73	
Hong Kong	74	7,306	
Greece	69	120	
Tunisia	68	76	
Jordan	63	46	
Morocco	46	40	
Portugal	45	120	
Kenya	22	11	

^a Despite all efforts, the author was unable to establish for which year the data in this table applies. From the date of publication of the source, however, it is likely that the data applies to some year in the late 1960s or early 1970s.

^b H denotes that only nights in hotels have been used in the calculation. The table should therefore be interpreted with caution.

Source: Young, 1973, p.59.

although Bermuda and the Bahamas top the list in the first column, Jamaica does not come high up. In the second column several countries which are not noted for the hostility of their residents towards tourists have much higher tourist densities than the three West Indian islands. Evidently such data is of only limited value for, while it does provide some indication of the extent of confrontation between tourists and residents, it says little about the severity of social friction arising from this confrontation since historical, cultural, and racial determinants of the attitude of inhabitants of destination areas towards tourists are not taken into account. Even if the figures in Table 16 were refined to reflect the tourist densities of destinations within the countries, densities which must be much higher than the national figures, they would still suffer from the same weakness.

In spite of the increasing evidence of the disruptive effects of the tourist trade on the societies of destination areas, our knowledge of this aspect of tourism remains in its infancy. Only one study, by Bryden (1973), has systematically incorporated social costs in an evaluation of the overall costs and benefits of tourism. Instructively, this study found that the net social benefits yielded by hotel projects in the Caribbean were very low and that these low social benefits contrasted with very high private rates of return on hotel investments. Fortunately, however, there appears to be a growing awareness of the social implications of tourism. The pros and cons of the industry have recently been the subject of a vigorous debate in the Tanzanian press, in the course of which much emphasis was given to the social disbenefits of tourist development (Shivji, 1973). In 1972 a study was conducted by the Central Statistical Office of Trinidad and Tobago to establish the attitude of residents towards tourism in order to provide a basis for future planning decisions. 42 per cent of those

interviewed favoured tourism but expressed reservations as to whether the benefits involved in an expansion of the industry would outweigh the costs (Trinidad Guardian, 1974). Members of the Fijian government are openly expressing reservations about the desirability of developing tourism as a means of diversifying Fiji's sugar-based economy because of the threat that such development poses to the local culture (Young, 1973, p.144). These signs that the social consequences of tourism are being recognized are encouraging but the tragedy is that for many destinations this realization has come too late.

Syria would be wise to pay heed to the harsh lessons that areas such as the Caribbean have had to learn. As a developing country with a largely coloured (from the point of view of Westerners at least) population, and a bitter colonial experience, she is bound to be prone to the social tensions that tourism can induce. The fact that many Syrians feel intense pride in their Arab heritage and culture potentially renders sections of the population particularly hostile to the tourist trade. The presence of tourists may not only aggravate these people's sense of present socio-economic deprivation, but may also painfully throw into relief the discrepancies which exist between their historical position as a nation during the heyday of the Arab Empire, and their currently more humble circumstances. Finally, Syrian society comprises a number of disparate ethnic and religious groups which only tenuously hold together as a national unit. If the benefits of tourism are seen to accrue to any particular social group, or groups, to the detriment of others, this would threaten the fragile measure of national unity that has been achieved to date.

5. Administrative Problems Arising from Tourism

There are two main ways in which administrative problems can arise from tourism. Firstly, and this is more of a political than an administrative problem, large scale foreign ownership of, and participation in, a country's tourist industry can lead to conflict between the authorities and residents of the destination, on the one hand, and the non-resident owners, on the other, as to the direction that the development of the industry should take.

Such a conflict, described by Young (1973, p.158) took place in Monaco between Aristotle Onassis and the government. Mr. Onassis began buying shares in the Société des Bains de Mer, a company which constitutes the basis of Monaco's economy, owning the casino, several hotels, the beach club, and the sea club. It was felt that Mr. Onassis was influencing the company to make quick profits to the detriment of Monaco as a whole, and the company was accordingly nationalized.

In this instance, the destination country had enough resources to buy up the foreign interest but this is unlikely to be the case in developing countries. Moreover, it is exactly in developing countries that such conflicts are most likely to arise because of the high incidence of foreign participation and ownership which characterizes the tourist industries of these countries. For example, of the 421 hotel and guest house beds in the British Virgin Islands in 1968, fewer than 90 were locally owned, and 45 of these were guest house beds. Similarly, in Antigua, of a total of 1,780 hotel and guest house beds in 1968, under 200 were locally owned, of which about 135 were guest house beds. As most of the increase in accommodation capacity in the Caribbean since 1968 has been in hotels rather than guest houses, these figures almost certainly understate the present extent

of foreign ownership (Bryden, 1973, p.121). The same type of ownership pattern characterizes the accommodation industries of most of the other small islands in the region and conflict between residents and expatriate owners has become an increasingly significant feature of the West Indian tourist industry. Again, in Tunisia hoteliers are resentful of the extremely low prices they are forced to concede to foreign tour operators who control most of the flow of tourists to the country and the same is true in Spain where "foreign tour operators have the Spanish tourist industry and therefore the Spanish economy in the palm of their hands" (Young, 1973, p.159).

Another aspect of this problem involves the question of the planning of tourist development. Frequently, foreign interests have acquired the choicest sites in a destination area and exploited them in such a way as to prevent the implementation of an overall tourist development plan devised at a later date. This has occurred in Mauritius where tourist development was largely left to private, often foreign, interests which developed the industry in an extremely unco-ordinated and fragmented fashion alienating many of the most beautiful sections of the coastline which are now effectively beyond the planning control of the Mauritian authorities. Closely related to this is the general problem of land alienation which was considered in a previous section (see p.56).

The second major tourism-related administrative problem again concerns planning, although in this case not the planning of the tourist industry itself but of services for residents of destination areas. Frequently such planning has been undertaken with the requirements of only the residents in mind while the needs of visitors, who may constitute a significant proportion of those present in these areas, have been ignored. The inevitable results have been an excessive pressure on public services

and a general overcrowding, which, in turn have given rise to resentment towards tourists on the part of the residents.

The argument that Syria should retain control of her tourist industry to the greatest possible extent in order that its growth can be managed as the country sees fit ties in with the argument that a high degree of national ownership of, and participation in, the industry is essential if the economic benefits of tourism are to be maximized. Further, the greater the extent to which these economic benefits accrue to nationals, the less will be the resentment of locals towards tourists and tourism. The administrative reason for aiming at a nationally controlled tourist industry is thus reinforced by economic and social arguments. Meanwhile, in order to avoid the second type of administrative problem identified above, any physical planning that Syria undertakes should take account not only of the needs of residents but also of the requirements of the transient tourist population.

6. The Political Costs and Benefits of Tourism

In some instances, destination countries have derived significant political benefits from tourism. Thus, "East European countries see tourism as a means of breaking down seemingly unjustified prejudices against their way of life" (Young, 1973, p.135). It has been suggested that, quite apart from the economic gains involved, tourism in Israel is promoted for political reasons since the coming of many foreigners to the country is seen as an important source of moral support for Israel's precarious political stance (Peppelenbosch and Tempelman, 1973, p.55). It is doubtful whether Franco's regime in Spain or the colonel's government in Greece would have been treated so tolerantly by more liberal West European governments had Greece and Spain not been such popular destinations for European tourists.

By contrast, the political disbenefits of tourism loom larger in the eyes of some countries than the political benefits. In Tanzania, for example, the government is extremely suspicious of tourism as it fears that the social changes that large numbers of Western tourists can introduce will have political repercussions which will hamper the creation of a socialist system in that country. Thus, the Tanzanian, impressed by tourists' affluence, may become reluctant to adhere to a political system which he perhaps does not see as offering him an opportunity for rapid material gain. The Tanzanian government has gone so far as to locate tourist hotels some distance from towns in order to minimize contact between tourists and residents. While such action was certainly prompted largely by a desire to avoid some of the specifically social problems that tourism can create, there was doubtless also a political motive.

Zionist propaganda has been extremely effective in discrediting Syria, and the country's prestige in the eyes of world opinion is currently very low. An expansion of tourism could do much to remedy this situation.

7. Tourism and the Environment

Tourism, of necessity, has a major interest in the preservation of the environment and yet far too often the untrammelled growth of the industry has had the opposite effect and led, in particular, to the pollution of the sea, with disastrous ecological consequences, and the despoliation of coastlines.

The pumping of untreated sewage from tourist resorts into the sea constitutes the major form of tourism-induced sea pollution and in this respect the Mediterranean has been the major casualty. According to a 1971 survey, 18 per cent of swimmers off Italian beaches contract one or more of the nine diseases known to be caused by faecal pollution, while the

French Riviera and Spanish coasts have disease rates of 11.1 per cent and 10.1 per cent, respectively (Rivers, 1972, p.158). Every one of the 6,000 registered beaches in Italy is dangerously polluted according to Italian Health Ministry standards; some beaches have bacteria counts five times higher than the acceptable limit (Young, 1973, p.156). Tourism is not, of course, the only source of sea pollution. Thousands of tons of oil are discharged into the Mediterranean each year together with huge quantities of untreated sewage (other than that from tourist resorts), industrial effluent, and agricultural run-off, but the tourist industry must take a large part of the blame. One observer has predicted that the Mediterranean "on present trends ... will be a dead sea, murky and poisonous, within thirty years" (Rivers, 1972, p.158).

Unplanned resort development can have a catastrophic effect on the environmental quality of coastlines and, again, this is nowhere more clear than in the Mediterranean. "Hundreds of miles of coastline have been ruined irremediably by virtually uncontrolled building of hotels, restaurants, bars, and houses. Beaches have been divided into unsightly allotments, and noise from juke-boxes, fumes from traffic, and sheer overpopulation pay witness to the chaos man has made of the organization of his leisure" (Young, 1973, p.157). A similar picture emerges from Foley's (1973) account of environmental deterioration in Hawaii.

It was noted above that tourism is by no means the only polluter of the environment. Tourism, however, can pollute exactly where the environment is at its best. In so doing it can destroy the very resources upon which it is based. And yet, such destruction is not an inevitable consequence of tourist development. Pollution can be avoided by the adequate provision of sewage treatment plants and the rigorous planning of

resort development. Encouraging signs are appearing that this imperative need for physical planning is being realized. Tunisia, Portugal, and Yugoslavia, for example, in an attempt to avoid the proliferation of unsightly hotels which has ruined large stretches of the Italian and Spanish coasts, now control the architectural style, size, and height of hotels.

The question of tourism's effect on the environment should be given highest priority by Syrian planners. In particular, efforts should be made to ensure that facilities for sewage disposal are installed as an integral part of any resort development, that future resorts do not sprawl unchecked along Syria's beaches, and that hotels, as a step towards protecting the cultural integrity of resort areas, conform to local traditional styles of building.

8. The Concept of Saturation Levels for Tourism

In the foregoing analysis, the costs and benefits of tourism have been discussed as they apply at the national level. And yet the impact of tourism is felt essentially at the local level. Most of a country's tourist activity takes place in a very small proportion of its total area. The concentration of the British tourist industry in London provides a striking illustration of this fact. 90 per cent of all overseas visitors to the UK spend some time in the capital, and 75 per cent of these never leave it (Young, 1973, p.111). Decisions taken in the national interest, at the national level, to expand tourism may conflict with the interests of the tourist regions within the country that have to absorb the increased flow of tourists. As Young (1973, p.111) has pointed out, "it would of course be wrong to maintain that there is an inevitable conflict between the national interest ... and the interest of the tourist regions ... Often,

the best interests of the region and nation coincide; but sometimes they do not and the region suffers as a result. The national benefits of tourism are easily quantified in terms of expenditure. ... The regional and local disbenefits are less easily quantified, often underestimated and this side of the argument therefore goes by default". Indeed, as Young (1973, pp.111-112) points out, it is clear that "there is a saturation level for tourism in a given locality or region and if that level is exceeded the costs of tourism begin to outweigh the benefits". It should be added that, while Young is primarily concerned with the costs of excessive tourist development for the tourist region, some of these costs can be seen both from the point of view of the region and from that of the tourists themselves, some apply purely to the region, and others purely to the tourists.

Young identifies four main areas in which the transgression of saturation levels can give rise to serious problems at the local or regional level. It naturally follows that saturation levels for a region can be defined in relation to each of these areas. Firstly, an uncontrolled increase in tourist arrivals, due to promotion at the national level, can lead to an excessive diversion of land for hotel building such that the success of other regional objectives involving land can be seriously prejudiced. This problem is at its worst in capital cities where land is usually in short supply and is badly needed for urban motorways, housing, hospitals, schools, recreation, and a host of other purposes. Young, rather vaguely, defines the saturation level in this respect as the point where "land allocated to hotels could produce a greater social benefit if it were allocated to some other use" (Young, 1973, p.115).

Secondly, Young argues that an undue dependence on tourism at the regional level can adversely affect the local employment structure. At the

national level he contends that "if a country's labour force is enticed towards a service industry [tourism] with a poor productivity record, below average earnings, low value added, a high staff turnover, and a large element of seasonal unemployment, then economic growth may well be slower than if that labour was not so enticed" (Young, 1973, p.145)¹. This argument, he maintains, applies even more forcefully at the level of the tourist destination within a country since the proportion of workers engaged in such employment will be greater there than in the country as a whole. Saturation levels for employment are reached "when the unfavourable consequences of further growth in employment to service the tourist industry outweigh the benefits" (Young, 1973, p.117).

Young's third saturation level concerns the increased pressure that tourists can put on general local services and infrastructure. As with the problems created by the diversion of land for hotel development, this problem is mainly confined to the tourist cities rather than being apparent in the newer rural destinations where it has been easier to plan for the needs of tourists in advance. Young defines this saturation level as the point where "the benefits to the last visitor to arrive in a locality are exceeded by the disbenefits to those who are already there" (Young, 1973, p.120).

Finally, the combination of the three preceding factors results in there being a 'psychological' saturation level defined as the point where the goodwill of local residents towards tourists is dissipated and replaced by hostility. Additional reasons for this process were examined in the section on the social costs and benefits of tourism. Young concludes that "the level of acceptability so far as local residents are concerned cannot be accurately

¹ Employment in tourism may well suffer from some of the features that Young ascribes to it but in most developing countries, as Young himself concedes (Young, 1973, p.148), it is a question of tourist development or no development at all, and therefore of employment in tourism or no employment at all. Saturation levels of the 'employment' type are thus generally of no significance for developing countries.

described or defined in advance; it is however much easier to recognize it when it has been exceeded" (Young, 1973, p.123).

The preceeding saturation levels relate essentially to factors which cannot be considered as tourist attractions in their own right, and to these levels can be added administrative and political saturation levels defined in terms of the administrative and political problems, discussed earlier, which can arise from tourism, problems which, incidentally, have a bearing on the attitude of the residents of a tourist destination region towards tourists and hence a bearing on the determination of the above-mentioned 'psychological' saturation level for a region.

It should be said, however, that saturation levels for a region can also be established in terms of the carrying capacities of its tourist attractions, capacities which are broadly of three non-economic types, ecological, perceptual, and physical, and of two economic types. The first non-economic type concerns the capacity of natural habitats to absorb the effects of tourism, the second relates to the degree of overcrowding that tourists find acceptable, and the third concerns the sheer physical, or, more specifically, spatial, requirements of tourist activities. Meanwhile, the first economic carrying capacity relates to the amount of money that the authorities in charge of an attraction are prepared to spend on maintaining that attraction to a certain level of quality and the second to the amount of interference that economic activities other than tourism which exist in or at tourist attractions can tolerate from tourism before damage to those activities from such interference becomes economically unacceptable from the viewpoint of the managers of those activities¹.

¹ It may, however, be considered that non-tourist activities in or at tourist attractions should be allowed to decline in the face of pressure from tourism if those activities, for whatever reasons, are felt to be less important than the tourist trade.

For one tourist attraction, a distinctive local culture, a fifth type of carrying capacity, which can be termed a 'cultural' carrying capacity, can be established. Analogous to an ecological carrying capacity, the cultural carrying capacity relates to the number of tourists that a culture can tolerate without being seriously undermined¹. Which of these types of carrying capacity will be decisive in determining the ultimate carrying capacity of an attraction will depend on that attraction's specific characteristics, on the nature of the activities it sustains, and on the attributes of the participants in those activities. Similarly, the carrying capacity for which element, of all those for which carrying capacities can be determined, will be critical in deciding how many tourists a region can gainfully absorb, that is, its ultimate carrying capacity, will depend on the specific natural and human resource endowment of the region in question and on the type(s) of tourism involved².

1 Note that only one tourist attraction, climate, has an infinite carrying capacity.

2 It must be emphasized that tourist activity within a region is focused on certain sites, or nodes, and along lines of communication. Thus, while Young discusses saturation levels at a regional scale, a region's saturation levels for the non-attraction-specific factors will actually be determined in terms of the carrying capacities of the individual nodes and lines of communication within the region for those factors. On the other hand, although many tourist attractions, and therefore the tourist activity related to these attractions, assume a nodal or linear form, some do not. However, the use to which even those attractions which are not linear or nodal in shape is put (with the possible exception of extensive water surfaces) does assume a nodal or linear form. Thus, the ecological, perceptual, physical, and economic carrying capacities of every tourist attraction will also be determined in terms of the ecological, perceptual, physical, and economic carrying capacities of specific lines of communication and nodes. In turn, the ecological, perceptual, physical, and economic carrying capacities of a region can be established only in terms of the carrying capacities of these nodal and linear parts of its tourist attractions. The essential point is that to establish a region's carrying capacity, of whatever type, one must begin at the level of the specific line of communication and node and work upwards. Meanwhile, it should be noted that

Thus, of all the types of saturation level identified in this section, that of the perceptual type, that is, that which relates to the degree of crowding that tourists will tolerate, and that of the physical type are the only levels the transgression of which will have adverse repercussions on the tourists themselves, by diminishing the quality of their holidays, but have no adverse effect on the tourist destination. Meanwhile, the transgression of levels of the 'psychological' type, that is, of those which relate to the number of tourists that will be welcomed by local residents, of the 'infrastructure and services' type, of the cultural type, and of the economic types, will be undesirable both from the point of view of the region and from that of the tourists. On the whole, the transgression of levels of the other types identified will have an adverse effect on the region only and not, by reducing the quality of their holidays, on the tourists.

Suggested carrying capacities for both water and on-land attractions have been put forward. Those for on-land attractions are listed in Table 17 while those for water attractions are presented, although, as will be seen, not in the context of a further discussion of saturation levels, in Table 85. The great majority of the sources cited in these two tables, however, are not clear as to the exact type of the respective carrying capacities which they put forward, or indeed whether these are mixtures of different types¹.

the location of tourist activity in a region and the location of tourist activity related to tourist attractions will coincide to a very great extent but not necessarily completely. The tourist engaged in touring, for example, is not compelled to spend all his time in close proximity to the attractions he utilizes. Nevertheless, even tourist sites which are not attractions, as such, require the establishment of ecological, perceptual, physical, and economic carrying capacities.

¹ Strictly speaking, Tables 17 and 85 detail criteria against which to evaluate the capability of the attractions involved to support specified activities and not the carrying capacities, as such, of the attractions listed for the activity or activities which depend on these attractions. These criteria are, however, obviously related to carrying capacities although in this respect reference should be made to the footnote on p.270 which applies with equal force to both Tables 85 and 17.

Table 17 The Carrying Capacities of Some On-Land Tourist Attractions

Attraction	Activity	Carrying Capacity	Source ^a
Hunting ground	Small game hunting	8 - 10 acres per hunter.	<u>Recreation in Wisconsin</u> , p.67. Cited in Rogers <u>et al.</u> , 1971, p.90.
Marsh	Water fowl hunting	1 blind for each 9 acres of marsh habitat.	<u>Recreation in Wisconsin</u> , p.67. Cited in Rogers <u>et al.</u> , 1971, p.90.
Hunting ground	Larger game hunting	0.1 square miles per hunter.	FHA Bulletin <u>Facts and Suggestions on Shooting Preserves</u> , pp.1-4. Cited in Rogers <u>et al.</u> , 1971, p.90.
Shooting preserve	Controlled shooting	12.5 acres per hunter.	FHA Bulletin <u>Facts and Suggestions on Shooting Preserves</u> , pp.1-4. Cited in Rogers <u>et al.</u> , 1971, p.90.
Nature trail	Hiking	50 persons per mile of trail; trails are 1-2 miles long with a daily turnover rate of 8.	Wisconsin Conservation Department, 1966, pp.G.7-G.8.
Trail	Hiking	20 hikers per mile capacity with a daily turnover rate of 5.	Louisiana Parks and Recreation Commission, 1966, pp.3.0.17-3.0.18.
Camping ground	Camping: general	4 units per acre (includes parking space).	California Public Outdoor Recreation Plan Committee, 1960, p.84.

Table 17 (Cont'd)

Attraction	Activity	Carrying Capacity	Source ^a
		4-7 camp sites per acre	National Park Service Handbook <u>Special Park Uses: Campground Planning</u> , pp.1-6. Cited in Rogers <u>et al.</u> , 1971, p.101.
Camping ground	Camping: organized	50 persons per acre	California Public Outdoor Recreation Plan Committee, 1960, p.84.
Picnic site	Picnicking	1 developed acre for each 40 picnickers at 8 tables per acre with 20 undeveloped acres; turnover rate of 1-6 persons per table and with over 3 people per table, 40 persons per acre per day.	Wisconsin Conservation Department, 1966, p.G.6.
		25 units per acre; 600 activity days per annum per unit.	California Public Outdoor Recreation Plan Committee, 1960, p.84.
		Maximum capacity an average of 220.1 picnickers per acre per day.	National Recreation and Park Association, <u>Bulletin No. 4</u> , pp.8-22. Cited in Rogers <u>et al.</u> , 1971, p.104.
Snow-shoeing trail	Snow-shoeing	10 persons per acre.	Rogers <u>et al.</u> , 1971, p.109.
Snow mobiling trail	Snow mobiling	A maximum of 10 vehicles per mile of trail; 1-5 persons per vehicle	Rogers <u>et al.</u> , 1971, p.115.

Table 17 (Cont'd)

Attraction	Activity	Carrying Capacity	Source ^a
Ski-slope	Skiing	Average consumer demands 8,000 vertical ft of skiing per day; an average beginner wants 5,000 vertical ft per day.	National Recreation and Park Association, <u>Bulletin No.6</u> , pp.8-11. Cited in Rogers <u>et al.</u> , 1971, p.117.
		1 acre of ski slope per 30 skiers.	California Public Outdoor Recreation Plan Committee, 1960, p.84.
Area of ice	Skating	30 sq ft per skater.	National Recreation and Park Association, <u>Bulletin No.38</u> , pp.1-17. Cited in Rogers <u>et al.</u> , 1971, p.118

^a Note that the author's source for all these carrying capacities was Rogers et al., 1971. Some of the sources cited in Rogers et al.'s study are, however, incompletely referenced and these latter sources are not included in the list of references at the end of this chapter.

Some suggested perceptual carrying capacities in 'average British conditions' for certain attractions have been derived by Professor J.A. Patmore from Countryside Commission data and are listed in Table 18. The Countryside Commission data, however, was not obtained by empirical research (Patmore, 1976) and the carrying capacities in Table 18 obviously cannot therefore, as Patmore (1976) readily admits, be treated as definitive. Meanwhile, it should be noted that the density measures of capacity for 'General Countryside' and 'Enclosed Land' are invalid in their very form. Like tourist activities in general (see p.72, footnote 2), informal recreational activity in the countryside, as Patmore (1970, p.141) has noted, is not randomly distributed but tends to be concentrated at nodes, such as picnic sites, and along lines of communication. Density measures of capacity are thus needed for the nodes while linear measures of capacity are required for the lines of communication but overall density measures of the carrying capacity of countryside as a whole are somewhat meaningless¹.

It does, however, seem clear that, for both water and on-land attractions, no expressions of ecological, perceptual, physical, or economic carrying capacity in relation to specific activities, and therefore, of ultimate carrying capacity in relation to these same activities, will be universally valid, simply because of the unique characteristics of, of the users of, and of the financial resources of the managers of, specific

¹ Rogers et al.'s carrying capacity for snow shoeing trails presented in Table 17 is also unacceptable in form since it should be a linear, not a density, measure.

Table 18 The Perceptual Carrying Capacities of Some Tourist Attractions^a

Resource	Capacity (Persons per Hectare)	Daily Turnover Rate
General countryside	0.5	1
Enclosed land	4	3
Land for informal picnicking	8	3
Golf courses	0.7	2
Urban parks	20	3
Historic homes	20	3
	(persons per kilometre)	
Coastline and cliffs	25	2
Accessible beaches	200	3
Urban resorts and beaches	1,000	3

^a These carrying capacities are, with the exception of that for golf courses, capacities for passive, rather than for active, tourist activities (Patmore, 1976).

Source: Hall, 1974, p.395.

attractions of the same type. The best that can be hoped for is for expressions of the ultimate carrying capacities of either specific or very similar nodes and lines of communication used by tourists. Similarly, expressions of the carrying capacities of the non-attraction specific factors will not be universally applicable.

Increasing numbers of researchers are applying themselves to the question of the ecological impact of leisure activities (Simmons, 1975, p.245) and this is encouraging even though even ecological, let alone ultimate, carrying capacities for specific attractions in relation to specific activities have not yet been established. Meanwhile, there are signs that the perceptual carrying capacities of specific attractions in relation to specific activities will be afforded increasing attention by researchers¹. Unfortunately, however, the carrying capacities which are not attraction-specific have not been investigated at all, nor are there any indications that they will be in the near future. The subject-ion of these carrying capacities to research is as urgent a need as the continued investigation of the ecological carrying capacities of tourist attractions and the need for the investigation of the perceptual carrying capacities of these attractions.

In view of the general ignorance that surrounds the question of carrying capacities, it is perhaps not surprising that the systematic measurement of such capacities is extremely rare in tourist development

¹ The determination of physical and economic carrying capacities for individual attractions in relation to individual activities are also topics worthy of research although the determination of ecological and perceptual capacities is a more urgent need since the ultimate carrying capacity of an attraction for a given activity is likely to be defined primarily in ecological or perceptual terms.

studies. However, the An Foras Forbartha (1966) study of the tourist potential of Donegal is an exception. In this study, the county was first divided into a number of planning areas and for each area the existing and potential capacities of a wide range of resources¹ to support tourism were calculated. Resources included such items as night accommodation, natural resources, local character and heritage, man-made day facilities, water supply, sewage disposal facilities, roads, and labour. Estimates were then made of the amount of each resource that would be demanded by visitors to each area, the existing and necessary capacities were compared, and any shortfalls of capacity thus revealed. It was concluded that natural resources were ultimately in shortest supply since they could not be increased by human action, and the supply of these resources accordingly set an overall limit to the number of visitors that Donegal could gainfully welcome. Many of the assumptions which were adopted in order to arrive at the figures for existing and necessary resource capacities might well be open to question, but clearly the study is a major step in the right direction.

But even if figures for the tourist capacity of each region in a country could be established, there still remains the problem of finding means of ensuring that the flow of tourists to each region is optimal. It is little use establishing the capacity of a region if there is no way either of preventing that capacity from being exceeded, or of encouraging tourists to visit the region in numbers which the area can profitably welcome and which will not reduce the quality of the tourist experience

¹ The word 'resources' is used in this paragraph with a very general meaning. For a discussion of the nature of tourist resources, or attractions, proper see Chapter Three, section 1.

for the tourists. Several possible methods of influencing tourist flows present themselves. Firstly, the regional authorities might be able to persuade the national tourist authority to promote different regions with different intensity, according to the ability of the various regions to absorb tourists. However, there can be no guarantee that tourists will respond appropriately. Old habits die hard and it is difficult to imagine tourists to the United Kingdom, for example, being persuaded by advertising campaigns to visit, in sufficient numbers to make an appreciable difference, areas far from tourist-congested London which is well established in the mind of the international traveller as 'the' place to go when in Britain.

Secondly, local governments could indirectly influence tourist flows by using planning control to limit the amount of hotel building in their regions. Thus, the figure for the optimal or maximum number of tourists that a region can absorb could be converted into a figure for hotel beds, and steps taken to ensure that this number of hotel beds is not exceeded. The main problem with this procedure is that it would have no effect on self-catering tourists (campers and caravanners), those staying with friends and relatives, and day trippers.

Thirdly, a tax could be levied on tourist accommodation by local authorities. By taxing hotels in different regions at different rates, and thereby influencing the cost of hotel accommodation and services, the volumes of tourist flows to those regions could be regulated. Moreover, the import component of tourists' expenditure at the regional level can be extremely high and a hotel tax would increase the proportion of visitors' expenditure that stays in a region as the tourist himself would pay the tax through his hotel bills. However, it is generally agreed (Young, 1973,

p.128) that a hotel tax would have to be very substantial to have any significant effect on patterns of tourist flows, and further, a high level of hotel tax, and thus high hotel prices, could lead to a disproportionate inflow of rich tourists into a region which might be resisted on social grounds. An additional limitation of a hotel tax as a direct regulator of tourist flows is that, as with the use of planning control to limit hotel construction, visitors who do not use commercial accommodation would not be affected at all. A hotel tax has more potential as a means of influencing the supply of accommodation which will, in turn, influence flows of hotel-using tourists. Thus, by varying the rate of taxation for different types of accommodation, and for different localities, the tax could be used to ensure that the correct amounts of the preferred types of accommodation are attracted to the desired localities. Used for this purpose, a hotel tax need not be excessively high.

Fourthly, completely new man-made attractions could be developed in little frequented areas remote from currently congested tourist regions in an attempt to attract tourists away from those regions.

Fifthly, tourists could be taxed on entry to a region, each region levying a tax inversely proportional in size to that region's tourist capacity. For regions with a high capacity, the tax would be low, and vice versa. As with the hotel tax, a tourist tax would increase the proportion of visitors' expenditure that stays in a region. A further merit of a tourist tax is that it would be fair because it would apply to all visitors and not, as would be the case with a hotel tax, just to those staying in commercial accommodation. On the other hand, it could not take into account the different lengths of stay of different tourists. A person on

a day trip would have to pay the same amount as somebody staying in the region for a month. Further, a complicated system of exemptions would have to be adopted to ensure that persons such as residents returning home and people entering the region for business purposes were not taxed.

Finally, it should be emphasized that physical accessibility plays a crucial role in determining the attractiveness of sites and regions to tourists. This is particularly true of accessibility by road in view of the dominance of cars and motor coaches as modes of transport for tourists in their destination areas. The planner can therefore profoundly influence tourist flows by manipulating accessibility. Thus, tourists can be attracted to undeveloped tourist sites and regions by the provision of new or improved roads. Alternatively, by deliberately maintaining the relative inaccessibility of a site or region, tourist flows to that site or area will not be actively encouraged to expand. It may even be desirable, in order to discourage tourists from visiting a region or site, to reduce the accessibility of that site or region by the closure of one or more of the roads leading to it.

Each of these possible methods of influencing flows of tourists to different regions of a country appears to be inadequate when considered in isolation and the best policy might be to adopt some combination of them. For example, the location, quantity, and character of accommodation, and therefore the directions, volumes, and compositions of flows of accommodation - using tourists, could be influenced by differential rates of hotel tax and by planning control, while congested tourist regions could have their existing levels of accessibility from adjacent regions maintained and be played down in national advertising campaigns and regions with a

shortage of visitors promoted with vigour and afforded improvements in accessibility from contiguous regions¹.

Given the present buoyant state of demand for tourism, many areas which do not yet suffer from the adverse effects of an over-development of tourism that characterize many of the more popular tourist regions will soon be encountering similar problems. It would seem that the only practical method of avoiding these problems is to establish in advance of the 'tourist invasion' the capacities of these regions to absorb visitors, their saturation levels for tourism, and to take steps to ensure that these levels are not exceeded. It may be too late for many of the established destinations to profit from the concept of saturation levels, but potential tourist regions, such as those in Syria, should act now to determine their carrying capacities for tourism while there is still time.

9. Conclusion to the Costs and Benefits of Tourism

It is worth stressing that not all the costs, or all the benefits, of tourism apply with equal weight to all destination countries or to all types of tourism. The type of economy and society in a given destination, the type of tourism in question, and the particular policies adopted by the host country towards tourism exert a dominant influence on the overall impact which the tourist trade will have. Nevertheless, several generally applicable conclusions emerge from the foregoing discussion. Firstly, it is clear that the economic benefits of tourism to the host country exceed the economic costs,

¹ Similar methods of ensuring that the carrying capacities of individual nodes and lines of communication used by tourists within the tourist regions are not exceeded would also, of course, be required. Further, such methods would be required at the international level to regulate tourist flows to different countries, for national saturation levels for tourism can obviously be derived from the carrying capacities of the regions within countries. The regulation of international tourist flows would, of course, require a high level of international co-operation.

and that, as a means of increasing national income, tourism appears to have advantages in several respects over other economic activities. The extent to which economic benefits from tourism accrue to the destination country depends upon the extent to which inputs into the tourist sector originate in the host country itself. All countries embarking on a programme of tourist development must therefore ensure that as large a proportion as possible of inputs to tourism are supplied by the domestic economy. To achieve this, however, requires a degree of economic planning. But planning of the national economy is not essential only to ensure that the tourist sector is sustained by domestically produced inputs. There is little doubt that the income which tourism can provide can produce much greater economic benefits if it is put to work in a rationally planned economy. Too often the tourist sector has been allowed to develop in a way quite unrelated to the development of the national economy as a whole, with frequently chaotic results. In Spain, for example, tourism has "galloped ahead, dragging behind it the creaking and swaying structure of the Spanish economy" (Young, 1973, p.149). Self-sustained economic growth based on the massive inflow of foreign exchange from tourism was frustrated in this instance by structural imbalances in the economy, in particular by the backward condition of agriculture (Roman, 1971). Tourism can certainly be economically advantageous to a developing country but it will not by itself automatically bring self-sustained growth. Agriculture, industry, and the other sectors must all be planned in an integrated fashion so that they can all benefit from the income provided by tourism. In this respect it is fortunate that Syria has a relatively lengthy tradition of economic planning.

The second major conclusion that can be drawn is that, in spite of the difficulties of quantifying them, the social problems associated with tourism clearly constitute the major cost of tourism to developing countries. No such country seeking to expand its tourist trade can afford to overlook this factor. Again, however, with foresight and planning, much of the social friction which tourism can engender is avoidable. The environmental, political, and

administrative problems which tourism can create are likewise avoidable if the expansion of tourism is undertaken in a planned, rational manner.

This urgent need for planning is the third major conclusion which emerges from this chapter. But planning, or at least physical planning, should not be simply a matter of making a forecast of the number of tourists which can be attracted to a destination and using this figure as the basis for providing adequate facilities and attractions. Many of the costs of tourism, and in particular the social costs, derive simply for the presence of too many tourists in an area and the fact that facilities and attractions for those tourists have been adequately planned in advance matters little.¹ The essential point is that an open-ended commitment to the expansion of tourism will inevitably result in a situation where the tourist area is so congested that the costs of tourism outweigh the benefits while the quality of the tourist experience for the tourist is downgraded. It is here that the concept of saturation levels for tourism is seen to be indispensable. The planner's tasks should thus be to establish saturation levels for each region in the destination country, and to plan facilities and attractions adequate in capacity to cope only with the demands of that number of tourists that each region can gainfully welcome. This approach obviously implies that action would have to be taken, including, if necessary, action in co-ordination with other countries, to ensure that the designated saturation levels were not exceeded. In our present state of knowledge the difficulties associated with the establishment of saturation levels for a region are formidable, but if tourism is to be more of a blessing than a blight these difficulties must be overcome. Thus, while persuasive reasons have emerged in this chapter why countries such as Syria should not aim at an expansion of their tourist trades, it is the author's view that, on balance, the advantages to be obtained from a planned growth of tourism outweigh the deleterious aspects of the tourist industry. The key word in the preceding sentence, however, is 'planned'. The type of planning required has been described above.

¹ Some of the adverse environmental effects of unplanned resort development on coastlines discussed in section 7 of this chapter, however, and notably that deriving from the adoption of unsuitable architectural styles, result essentially from inadequate planning, as such, rather than from the transgression of any saturation levels.

Appendix I Countries Included in the IUOTO Regions.Europe

Austria	Luxembourg
Belgium	Malta
Bulgaria	Monaco
Cyprus	Netherlands
Czechoslovakia	Norway
Denmark	Poland
Finland	Portugal
France	Rumania
Germany FR	Spain
Greece	Sweden
Hungary	Switzerland
Ireland	Turkey
Israel	United Kingdom
Italy	USSR
	Yugoslavia

North America

Canada	USA

Latin America and Caribbean

Argentina	Ecuador
Bahamas	Jamaica
Brazil	Mexico
Chile	Panama
Colombia	Trinidad/Tobago
Costa Rica	Venezuela

Africa

Algeria	South Africa
Ethiopia	Tanzania
Kenya	Tunisia
Mauritius	Uganda
Morocco	Zaire (Republic of)
Nigeria	Zambia
Senegal	

Asia/Australasia

Afghanistan	Malaysia
Australia	Nepal
China (Republic of)	New Zealand

Hong Kong
India
Indonesia
Iran
Japan
Khmer Republic
Korea

Pakistan
Philippines
Singapore
Sri Lanka
Thailand
Vietnam (Republic of)

Middle East

Egypt (Arab Republic of)
Iraq
Jordan
Kuwait

Lebanon
Libyan Arab Republic
Syrian Arab Republic

Appendix II Countries included in Tables 7 and 8.

<u>Region</u>	<u>Countries</u>
<u>Underdeveloped</u>	
Africa	Burundi, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Senegal, Zaire.
Asia	Afghanistan, China (Republic of), Khmer Republic, Korea (Republic of), Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Vietnam (Republic of).
South America	Argentina, Bahamas, Brazil, Colombia, Grenada, Jamaica, Panama, Peru, Venezuela.
Middle East	Cyprus, Egypt, Iran, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Syria, Turkey.
Europe and Mediterranean	Algeria, Greece, Malta, Morocco, Spain, Tunisia, Yugoslavia.
<u>Developed</u>	
Europe	Austria, Belgium, France, Germany FR , Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Portugal, Scandinavia (Denmark, Finland, Norway, Sweden), Switzerland.
North America	Canada, USA.
Oceania	Australia, Japan.

Appendix III Countries Excluded from Table 9 on Account of
Lack of Data.

<u>Region</u>	<u>Countries</u>
<u>Developing</u>	
Africa	Ethiopia, Congo Republic, Sudan, Morocco, Kenya, Uganda, Malagasy Republic, Cameroon, Angola, Upper Volta, Mali, Malawi, Ivory Coast, Guinea, Senegal, Chad, Niger, Rwanda, Burundi, Dahomey, Somali Republic, Sierra Leone, Togo, Central African Republic, Liberia, Mauretania, Congo (Brazzaville), Lesotho, Mauritius, Botswana, Gabon, Gambia, Swaziland.
Asia	Mainland China, Thailand, Burma, North Vietnam, North Korea, Nepal, Saudi Arabia, Yemen, Laos, Mongolia.
Central and South America	Cuba, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Colombia, Uruguay, Paraguay, Panama, Surinam, French Guyana, Falkland Islands, French West Indies.
Commonwealth Caribbean	Bahamas, St. Vincent, St. Lucia, Montserrat, St. Kitts - Nevis, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Turks and Caicos Islands.
Europe and Mediterranean	Albania, Gibraltar.
<u>Developed</u>	
Europe	East Germany.

Appendix IV Countries Included in Table 11.

<u>Region</u>	<u>Countries</u>
<u>Underdeveloped</u>	
Africa	Algeria, Morocco, Rhodesia, Sudan, Zambia.
Asia	Israel, Jordan, Syria, Malaysia.
Central and South America	Argentina, Chile, Venezuela.
Commonwealth Caribbean	Trinidad/Tobago.
<u>Developed</u>	
Europe	Austria, Belgium, Luxembourg, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany FR, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom.
North America	Canada, USA.
Africa	South Africa.
Asia/Australasia	Japan, Australia, New Zealand.

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CHAPTER TWO

THE SYRIAN TOURIST INDUSTRY1. The Development of Foreign Visitor Arrivals in Syria 1961-1973

Total foreign visitor arrivals¹ in Syria in the years 1961-1973 are shown in Table 19 together with the annual growth rates and average per annum growth rate for the whole period. Three features are immediately striking: firstly, the very modest level of visitor arrivals throughout the period; secondly, the extremely erratic growth rates of arrivals from one year to another; and thirdly, the very low average per annum growth rate of arrivals in the period under review.

The lowly figures for total arrivals are largely explained by the relatively great distance of Syria from West Europe, the world's major tourist generating area, and her great distance from North America, second only to Europe as a generator of international tourists. Damascus is 3,600 km from Paris as the crow flies and 4,800 km distant by road.

¹ Syria adopts the following definitions for the purpose of compiling tourist statistics:

- 1) A Visitor: a foreigner arriving in the country via a frontier post.
- 2) A Tourist: a foreigner who stays in hotels or rented apartments.
- 3) An Excursionist: a foreigner who stays less than 24 hours in the country and who does not use hotels or rented apartments.
- 4) A Tourist Night: a night spent by a tourist at a hotel or rented apartment.

In practice, however, separate data is not available for the number of excursionists visiting Syria. It is for this reason that the term 'visitor arrivals' is used in this chapter rather than the expression 'tourist arrivals' since the IUOTO definition of a 'tourist' excludes persons who do not spend more than 24 hours in the country visited (IUOTO, 1973, p.5). The term 'tourist' is, however, used synonymously with the term 'visitor', except where specified.

Table 19 The Development of Foreign Visitor Arrivals in Syria, 1961-1973.

Year	Total Arrivals	Rate of Growth Over Previous Year %	Average per Annum Growth Rate 1961-1973 %
1961	500,207	-	-
1962	503,046	+ 0.6	-
1963	537,874	+ 6.9	-
1964	684,815	+27.3	-
1965	936,612	+36.8	-
1966	935,392	- 0.1	-
1967	864,600	- 7.6	-
1968	772,452	-10.7	-
1969	797,272	+ 3.2	-
1970	870,276	+ 9.2	-
1971	1,322,862	+52.0	-
1972	1,038,543	-21.5	-
1973	709,626	-31.7	+ 2.9

Source: Statistical Abstract, 1965-1974, supplemented by Ministry of Tourism figures.

Damascus to New York is a distance of approximately 12,000 km. But sheer distance is not the only factor. The period under review was one of great political instability, not only for Syria, but also for the Middle East region as a whole and political disturbances constitute a major deterrent to the growth of tourism. In the 1961-1973 period Syria alone witnessed eight coups d'etat, several attempted coups, and two major wars while disputes with neighbouring countries, disputes which often involved border closures, were frequent. Meanwhile, there were perennial military clashes with Israel, involving both regular and irregular forces.

The erratic yearly growth rates of total visitor arrivals are without doubt a direct consequence of political disturbances, or, more exactly, of tourists' perception of those disturbances.¹ Thus, growth between 1961 and 1966 was generally rapid except in 1966 when a very slight decline occurred possibly associated with the Atassi coup in Syria. Note, however, that growth in 1963 was considerable in spite of the coup of that year which brought the Syrian Baathists to power. The average per annum growth rate in the period 1961-1966 was 13.3 per cent. This initial period of growth was followed by marked declines in 1967 and 1968, the result of the June 1967 war and its aftermath. By 1969 growth had resumed, only to be reversed again in 1972 with the closure of the Syrian-Jordanian border throughout that year. The closure of the Syrian-Lebanese border from May to August 1973, and the war in October, were doubtless the causes of the

¹ The question of tourists' perception of disturbances is of the greatest importance. Often the political disturbances have been of a short-lived nature and in any event would quite likely have had a minimal impact, or no impact at all, on a tourist's holiday. Nevertheless, tourists have clearly perceived these same disturbances as a serious, often long term, disincentive to travel to, or through, Syria. The prime example is the lengthy impact on Syria's tourist trade of the 1967 Arab-Israeli war, a war which lasted only for six days and was essentially confined, at least as far as Syria was concerned, to a small area in the south west of the country. Wherever, in this thesis, the impact of political disturbances on tourism is mentioned, the reader should bear in mind that just as important as the disturbances themselves is the tourists' perception of them.

continued decline in visitor arrivals in 1973. The low average annual growth rate in the period as a whole is similarly the direct result of political upheavals.

Tables 20 and 21 show, respectively, the numbers of visitor arrivals generated by (with some exceptions) Syria's major tourist markets in each year in the period 1961-1973 and the share of each market in total arrivals in each year. The markets are grouped according to geographical and economic criteria. Thus, the Middle Eastern tourist generators are divided into those with oil economies and those without.¹ Non-Middle Eastern countries are divided into those of West Europe, which are distant from Syria and are important world generators of tourists, those of East Europe which, while also far from Syria and economically developed, have lower per capita incomes than West European countries and are not major world tourist generators, and those of Oceania and North America, which are, at least in the case of the USA, Canada, and Japan, important world tourist generators, and are the developed countries most distant from Syria.

It is immediately evident from Table 21 that throughout the period under review the overwhelming majority of Syria's visitors originated in the Middle East region itself and that, in turn, most of these came from the non-oil states. On average 84.2 per cent of total foreign arrivals in Syria in each year in the period was accounted for by Middle Eastern countries, and 79.3 per cent by Middle East non-oil countries. Lebanon, and Jordan and Palestine², were consistently the most important generators

¹ Oil States are defined, arbitrarily, as those whose oil industries contributed in 1974 more than 65 per cent of their GDP's or budget revenues.

² Statistics on Palestinian tourists have been incorporated with those for Jordanian tourists since the majority of Palestinians living outside Israel and the Occupied Territories reside in Jordan and it is those Palestinians who do not live under Israeli rule who constitute the great bulk of international tourists of Palestinian nationality. That many Palestinians are resident in Syria means that a considerable number of Palestinians arriving at Syria's frontiers must be residents of Syria returning home, and not tourists as such.

Table 20 Foreign Visitor Arrivals in Syria by Nationality^a, 1961-1973.

	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973
Libya	554	540	472	1,322	1,498	1,746	2,015	1,194	1,248	2,284	1,960	3,591	2,825
Saudi Arabia	10,671	11,305	11,777	14,653	21,977	25,338	26,619	19,155	22,317	15,091	41,122	27,064	21,837
Kuwait	6,170	5,413	6,332	12,942	17,084	22,541	10,673	13,480	13,708	11,479	31,635	15,885	10,279
Qatar	1,045	1,364	1,158	206	2,422	4,094	3,261	1,458	2,068	2,647	4,304	3,181	3,926
Bahrain	836	1,751	1,276	994	2,935	3,093	3,403	1,976	2,167	4,572	3,269	1,945	4,846
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	19,276	20,373	21,015	30,117	45,916	56,812	45,971	37,263	41,508	36,073	82,290	51,666	43,713
Egypt	-	223	638	842	2,349	6,827	7,788	14,612	18,257	21,352	44,945	30,309	27,009
Lebanon	244,587	195,967	175,407	240,284	337,956	279,108	335,895	256,164	329,166	289,143	730,399	558,203	259,822
Iraq	17,748	23,811	41,309	32,455	56,970	79,706	48,878	67,282	48,680	40,933	66,837	36,171	42,163
Jordan and Palestine	134,245	137,546	134,525	166,422	262,083	227,697	253,517	230,220	218,464	256,286	259,506	197,595	175,249
Turkey	4,138	20,539	41,961	48,341	29,102	45,350	75,900	77,862	51,957	121,270	10,804	12,495	20,137
Iran	947	5,710	5,836	8,754	10,342	5,892	5,203	11,356	8,567	8,306	7,814	7,943	10,033
Cyprus	1,377	2,830	3,206	3,041	4,365	6,491	1,256	648	707	424	844	862	795
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	403,042	386,626	402,882	500,139	703,167	651,071	728,437	658,144	675,798	737,714	1,121,139	843,578	535,208
<u>Total Middle East</u>	422,318	406,999	423,897	530,256	749,083	707,883	774,408	695,407	717,306	773,787	1,203,429	895,244	578,921
West Europe	34,354	43,115	52,160	64,142	93,100	108,514	34,916	29,171	30,645	31,345	46,591	57,240	37,951
East Europe	3,897	5,212	4,545	9,604	11,961	16,689	12,755	17,191	16,044	20,627	15,719	20,617	19,414
North America	17,855	16,557	16,860	20,078	32,628	37,629	8,382	1,501	2,700	5,378	11,722	13,521	9,734
Oceania	1,376	2,403	3,718	5,577	5,629	8,749	2,523	1,682	2,047	2,534	3,327	3,842	3,235
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	57,482	67,287	77,283	99,401	143,318	171,581	58,576	49,545	51,436	59,884	77,359	95,220	70,334
Others	20,407	28,760	36,694	55,158	44,211	55,928	31,616	27,500	28,530	36,605	42,074	48,079	60,371
<u>Grand Total</u>	500,207	503,046	537,874	684,815	936,612	935,392	864,600	772,452	797,272	870,276	1,322,862	1,038,543	709,626

^a West Europe = Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany (East and West are not distinguished in Syrian statistics), Holland, Italy, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom.
 East Europe = Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland, Rumania, USSR, Yugoslavia.
 Oceania = Australia, Japan, New Zealand.

Source: Statistical Abstract, 1965-1974, supplemented by Ministry of Tourism figures.

Table 21 The Percentage Share of Each Market^a in Total Foreign Visitor Arrivals, 1961-1973.

	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973
Libya	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.4
Saudi Arabia	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.1	2.4	2.7	3.1	2.5	2.8	1.7	3.1	2.6	3.1
Kuwait	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.9	1.8	2.4	1.2	1.8	1.7	1.3	2.4	1.5	1.5
Qatar	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.03	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.6
Bahrain	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.7
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	3.9	4.1	3.9	4.4	4.9	6.1	5.3	4.8	5.2	4.2	6.2	5.0	6.2
Egypt	-	0.04	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.7	0.9	1.9	2.3	2.5	3.4	2.9	3.8
Lebanon	48.9	39.0	32.6	35.1	36.1	29.8	38.9	33.2	41.3	33.2	55.2	53.8	36.6
Iraq	3.6	4.7	7.7	4.7	6.1	8.5	5.7	8.7	6.1	4.7	5.1	3.5	5.9
Jordan and Palestine	26.8	27.3	25.0	24.3	28.0	24.3	29.3	29.8	27.4	29.5	19.6	19.0	24.7
Turkey	0.8	4.1	7.8	7.1	3.1	4.9	8.8	10.1	6.5	13.9	0.8	1.2	2.8
Iran	0.2	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.1	0.6	0.6	1.5	1.1	1.0	0.6	0.8	1.4
Cyprus	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	80.6	76.9	74.9	73.0	75.1	69.6	84.3	85.2	84.8	84.8	84.8	81.2	75.4
<u>Total Middle East</u>	84.4	80.9	78.8	77.4	80.0	75.7	89.6	90.0	90.0	88.9	91.0	86.2	81.6
West Europe	6.9	8.6	9.7	9.4	9.9	11.6	4.0	3.8	3.8	3.6	3.5	5.5	5.4
East Europe	0.8	1.0	0.9	1.4	1.3	1.8	1.5	2.2	2.0	2.4	1.2	2.0	2.7
North America	3.6	3.3	3.1	2.9	3.5	4.0	1.0	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.9	1.3	1.4
Oceania	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.9	0.5	0.9	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	11.5	13.4	14.4	14.5	15.3	18.3	6.8	6.4	6.5	6.9	5.9	9.2	9.9
Others	4.1	5.7	6.8	8.1	4.7	6.0	3.7	3.6	3.6	4.2	3.2	4.6	8.5
<u>Grand Total</u>	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.1	100.0	100.1	100.0	100.1	100.0	100.0

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

Source: Derived from Table 20.

of visitors to Syria, together accounting for an average of 65.3 per cent of the yearly totals of visitor arrivals throughout the period.¹ Arrivals from outside the Middle East region remained at a very low level in the 1961-1973 period, accounting for a yearly average of a mere 10.7 per cent of total visitor arrivals. The extremely small absolute and relative contributions of West Europe and North America, the world's major tourist generating areas, to Syria's arrivals statistics express more eloquently than anything else the low level of development of the Syrian tourist trade.

From the point of view of the respective shares of regional and non-regional markets in total visitor arrivals, two phases can be distinguished. In the first, from 1961 to 1966, non-regional arrivals averaged 14.6 per cent of total arrivals in each year, while in the second, from 1967 to 1973, non-regional arrivals averaged only 7.4 per cent of total arrivals in each year. Conversely, the share of Middle East states in total arrivals averaged 79.5 per cent in each year in the 1961-1966 period, but rose to an average of 88.2 per cent per annum in the second phase. This is mainly a consequence of the June 1967 Israeli occupation of the West Bank which curtailed the mainly non-regional tourist trade between Lebanon and the Holy Land via Syria.

The per annum and average per annum growth rates in visitor arrivals generated by each of Syria's tourist markets in the 1961-1973 period are presented in Table 22. Before discussing this data, however, a note of caution should be sounded. Too much emphasis should not be given to the rates of growth achieved by most of the tourist generating countries in view of the very low absolute numbers involved. For example, visitor arrivals from Cyprus increased by 100 per cent from 1970 to 1971 but the actual increase in the number of visitors was only 420.

¹ It must be remembered that political boundaries between Jordan, Syria, and Lebanon did not exist prior to the San Remo Conference of 1920. The magnitude of arrivals of Lebanese and of Jordanians and Palestinians reflects the close social and economic ties which continue to characterize the three countries despite the frontiers between them which were imposed by European powers.

The first feature which emerges from an examination of Table 22 is the unequal average per annum growth rates achieved by different markets in the period under review. The differences between these rates are partly explained by the fact that tourist arrivals from some countries were already at a relatively high level at the beginning of the period and growth for these countries has largely been a function of the development of the normal socio-economic determinants of travel. Note that Lebanon, and Jordan and Palestine¹, Syria's most important tourist markets, both come into this category and the low average per annum rate of growth of total arrivals follows directly from the low average per annum growth rates achieved by these two markets. Tourist flows from other markets, however, were only just beginning to develop in the period and it is normal for the initial rates of increase of visitor arrivals from newly-tapped tourist markets to be rapid. Growth from such markets eventually slows down to become also mainly a function of the development of the socio-economic determinants of travel. These considerations largely explain why arrivals from the Middle East oil states in general grew faster than arrivals from the Middle East non-oil states. However, for a full explanation of the different average per annum rates of growth of visitor arrivals achieved by different markets political factors must again be invoked. The second major feature of the figures in Table 22 is the erratic growth rates from one year to another of visitor arrivals generated by individual markets and this is almost entirely the result of the influence of politics. The overriding importance of politics for both average and year to year growth rates of visitor arrivals during the period can be easily demonstrated by a brief examination of the development of visitor arrivals from Lebanon, Jordan and Palestine, Iraq, Saudi

¹ 'Palestine' is used in this thesis purely in the sense of it being the land from which Palestinians originate. Palestinians not under Israeli rule live in many countries but are most numerous in Jordan, Lebanon, and Syria.

Table 22 Annual Growth Rates of Foreign Visitor Arrivals by Nationality^a, 1961-1973.

	1961-1962	1962-1963	1963-1964	1964-1965	1965-1966	1966-1967	1967-1968	1968-1969	1969-1970	1970-1971	1971-1972	1972-1973	Average per Annual Growth Rate (%), 1961-1973.
Libya	- 2.5	- 12.6	+180.1	+ 13.3	+ 16.6	+ 15.4	- 40.7	+ 4.5	+ 83.0	- 14.2	+ 83.2	- 21.3	+ 14.6
Saudi Arabia	+ 5.9	+ 4.2	+ 24.4	+ 50.0	+ 15.3	+ 5.1	- 28.0	+ 16.5	- 32.4	+172.5	- 34.2	- 19.3	+ 6.1
Kuwait	- 12.3	+ 17.0	+104.4	+ 32.0	+ 31.9	- 52.7	+ 26.3	+ 1.7	- 16.3	+175.6	- 49.8	- 35.3	+ 4.3
Qatar	+ 30.5	- 15.1	- 82.2	+1,075.7	+ 69.0	- 20.4	- 55.3	+ 41.8	+ 28.0	+ 62.6	- 26.1	+ 23.4	+ 11.6
Bahrain	+109.5	- 27.1	- 22.1	+195.3	+ 5.4	+ 10.0	- 41.9	+ 9.7	+111.0	- 28.5	- 40.5	+149.2	+ 15.8
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	+ 5.7	+ 3.2	+ 43.3	+ 52.5	+ 23.7	- 19.2	- 19.0	+ 11.4	- 13.1	+128.1	- 37.2	- 15.4	+ 7.0
Egypt	-	+186.1	+ 32.0	+179.0	+ 90.6	+ 14.1	+ 87.6	+ 24.9	+ 17.0	+110.5	- 32.6	- 10.9	+ 54.6 (1962-1973)
Lebanon	- 19.9	- 10.5	+ 37.0	+ 40.7	- 17.4	+ 20.4	- 23.7	+ 28.5	- 12.2	+152.6	- 23.6	- 53.5	+ 0.5
Iraq	+ 34.2	+ 73.5	- 21.4	+ 75.5	+ 39.9	- 38.7	+ 37.7	- 27.7	- 15.9	+ 63.3	- 45.9	+ 16.6	+ 7.5
Jordan and Palestine	+ 2.5	- 2.2	+ 23.7	+ 57.5	- 13.1	+ 11.3	- 9.2	- 17.3	+ 17.3	+ 1.3	- 23.9	- 11.3	+ 2.2
Turkey	+396.4	+104.3	+ 15.2	- 39.8	+ 55.8	+ 67.4	+ 2.6	- 33.3	+133.4	- 91.1	+ 15.7	+ 61.2	+ 14.1
Iran	+503.0	+ 2.2	+ 50.0	+ 18.1	- 43.0	- 11.7	+118.3	- 24.6	- 3.1	- 5.9	+ 1.7	+ 26.3	+ 21.7
Cyprus	+105.5	+ 13.3	- 5.2	+ 43.5	+ 48.7	- 80.7	- 48.4	+ 9.1	- 40.0	+ 99.1	+ 2.1	- 13.6	- 4.7
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	- 4.1	+ 4.2	+ 24.1	+ 40.6	- 7.4	+ 11.9	- 9.7	+ 2.7	+ 9.2	+ 52.0	- 24.8	- 36.6	+ 2.4
<u>Total Middle East</u>	- 3.6	+ 4.2	+ 25.1	+ 41.3	- 5.5	+ 9.4	- 10.2	+ 3.2	+ 7.9	+ 55.5	- 25.6	- 35.3	+ 2.7
West Europe	+ 25.5	+ 21.0	+ 23.0	+ 45.2	+ 16.6	- 67.8	- 16.5	+ 5.1	+ 2.3	+ 48.6	+ 22.9	- 33.7	+ 0.8
East Europe	+ 33.7	- 12.8	+111.3	+ 64.0	+ 39.5	- 23.6	+ 34.8	- 6.7	+ 28.6	- 23.8	+ 31.2	- 5.8	+ 14.3
North America	- 7.3	+ 1.8	+ 19.1	+ 62.5	+ 15.3	- 77.7	- 82.1	+ 79.9	+ 99.2	+118.0	+ 15.4	- 28.0	- 5.2
Oceania	+ 74.6	+ 54.7	+ 50.0	+ 0.9	+ 55.4	- 71.2	- 33.3	+ 21.7	+ 23.8	+ 31.3	+ 15.5	- 15.8	+ 7.4
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	+ 17.1	+ 14.9	+ 28.6	+ 44.2	+ 19.7	- 65.9	- 15.4	+ 3.8	+ 16.4	+ 29.2	+ 23.1	- 26.1	+ 1.7
Others	+ 40.9	+ 27.6	+ 50.3	- 19.9	+ 26.5	- 43.5	- 13.0	+ 3.8	+ 28.3	+ 14.9	+ 14.3	+ 25.6	+ 9.5
<u>Grand Total</u>	+ 0.6	+ 6.9	+ 27.3	+ 36.8	- 0.1	- 7.6	- 10.7	+ 3.2	+ 9.2	+ 52.0	- 21.5	- 31.7	+ 2.9

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

Source: Derived from Table 20.

Arabia, East Europe, and West Europe.

No reason could be discovered to account for the decline in Lebanese arrivals in 1962 but the further decline in 1963 was possibly related to political uncertainty following the coup which brought the Baathists to power in Syria. Growth was rapid in 1964 and 1965 but, probably as a consequence of the Atassi coup in Syria, a decline of 17.4 per cent occurred in 1966. Growth resumed in the first half of 1967 only to be reversed by the June 1967 war and its aftermath. By 1969 a recovery was in evidence, in spite of the closure of the Syrian-Lebanese border from 21st October to 13th November of that year, but growth was negative in 1970, a year marked both by the civil war in Jordan, which was a severe disincentive to intra-regional travel, and by the 13th November Asad coup in Syria. The more moderate political stance taken by Asad and the ending of the general climate of isolation which had characterized Syria under Atassi brought about a massive 150 per cent increase of Lebanese arrivals in 1971. Lebanese arrivals in Syria in that year totalled 730,000, easily the highest figure for any year in the period under review. The growth was not, however, sustained and 1972 witnessed a 20 per cent decline in Lebanese arrivals. It is difficult to identify the direct causes of this decline but the closure of the Syrian-Jordanian border from July 1971 to December 1972 must have adversely affected the flow of Lebanese travellers transitting Syria en route to Jordan and beyond. The closure of the Syrian-Lebanese border from 8th May to 17th August 1973 and the Arab-Israeli war in October resulted in a further and much more precipitous decrease in Lebanese arrivals in 1973.

After a period from 1960 to 1963 with almost no growth or decline, possibly associated in part with uncertainty following the Baathist take-over in Syria, arrivals in Syria from Jordan and Palestine increased rapidly in

1964 and 1965. The 1966 Atassi coup in Syria was, however, followed by a period of extremely strained relations between Jordan and Syria which is reflected in the decline of Jordanian and Palestinian arrivals in 1966. The only limited increase in 1967 and the decreases in 1968 and 1969 stem from the impact of the June War and the continued friction between the two countries and also, in the latter year at least, from the closure of the Syrian-Lebanese border in October and November, preventing overland travel between Jordan and Lebanon. Arrivals in 1970 jumped by 17 per cent but much of this increase can no doubt be attributed to the influx of refugees from the fighting in Jordan. The closure of the Syrian-Jordanian border from July 1971 to December 1972 accounts for the negligible growth of arrivals in 1971 and the marked decrease in 1972 while the closure of the Syrian-Lebanese border from May to August 1973, preventing transit through Syria from Jordan to Lebanon, and the October War explain the continued decline in 1973.

Syria's border with Iraq was closed from 1959 to April 1961 and this accounts for the very low level of Iraqi arrivals in Syria at the very beginning of the period under review. After the opening of the border there was an immediate and spectacular increase of Iraqi arrivals which continued until 1963 as the repressed demand in Iraq for travel to, and through, Syria was satisfied. This growth was checked in 1964 as relations between Iraq and Syria deteriorated but resumed in 1965 and was maintained until 1966. A ban on all foreign travel was imposed in Iraq from 12th June to 23rd December 1967 and this is reflected in the 39 per cent decrease in Iraqi arrivals in that year. Arrivals recovered in 1968 but in 1969 Iraq's dispute with Lebanon over criticism of the Iraqi regime in the Lebanese press, which culminated in the prohibition of travel by Iraqis to Lebanon

from 11th August to late September, led to a 28 per cent decline in arrivals. This illustrates the important point that, because of Syria's key role as a transit country¹, disputes between neighbouring states can have a severe impact on Syria's tourist trade even if Syria herself is not directly involved in those disputes. A contributory cause of the decline in Iraqi arrivals in 1969 was the closure of the Syrian-Lebanese border in October and November of that year. The decline continued in 1970 and this must be at least partially attributable to the imposition in June of an ID50² fee payable by all Iraqis travelling abroad. This was five times the previous fee. In November this tax was reduced to ID20 but this still constituted a significant deterrent to foreign travel. It is difficult to explain the sudden increase in Iraqi arrivals in 1971 and the decline in 1972 although the latter may be connected with outbreaks of smallpox in north east Syria from March to May 1972 and of cholera in the same area in October and November. It is of interest that Iraqi arrivals in 1973 exceeded by 17 per cent those of the previous year in spite of the closure of the Syrian-Lebanese border from May to August 1973 and the October War. This anomaly is difficult to explain.

From 1961 to 1967 Saudi Arabian arrivals in Syria grew consistently, if at different rates from one year to the next. In August 1968, however, Syria raised the fees levied on goods and vehicles transitting Syrian territory and this inaugurated a period of strained relations with Saudi Arabia which lasted until April 1969 and which no doubt underlies the fall of Saudi arrivals in 1968. Growth resumed in 1969, in spite of the Syrian-Lebanese

¹ See section 14 of this chapter.

² 1970: One Iraqi Dinar = £0.86. Note that all currency exchange rates cited in this thesis apply to the first Monday in June of the relevant year(s).

border closure in October and November of that year which prevented overland travel to Lebanon, but was reversed again in 1970 when, with the rupture of Tapline on Syrian territory, and Syria's refusal to allow repairs, a new period of tension between the two countries was ushered in. Many Saudis travel to Syria via Jordan and the Jordanian civil war was no doubt an important contributory cause of the decline in Saudi arrivals in 1970.

Friction between Syria and Saudi Arabia lasted until early 1971 when Syria at last gave permission for repairs to be carried out. After the Tapline affair, and with the more moderate Asad in power in Damascus, there was a marked growth of Saudi arrivals in 1971. The decrease in 1972 was probably associated with the closure of the Syrian-Jordanian border throughout the year while the continued decline in 1973 was no doubt the result both of the closure of the Syrian-Lebanese frontier from May to August, which prevented transit across Syria from Saudi Arabia to Lebanon, and of the October War.

The development of arrivals in Syria from East Europe shows a much less complicated pattern than that of arrivals from the tourist generating countries within the Middle East region. East Europeans are subjected by their governments to severe limitations on freedom of travel and most of the East European visitors, it is strongly suspected (see p.169), come to Syria for strictly business, military, or political reasons and the development of East European arrivals has therefore been largely a function of the state of political and economic relations between Syria and Eastern Europe. These relations grew very close after the advent to power of the Baathists in 1963 and this is reflected in the rapid increase of arrivals from East Europe from that date until 1966, since when arrivals have fluctuated at around the 15,000-20,000 mark. This market has not, however, been immune from political and military conflicts in the Middle East. Thus, the June War precipitated

a decline in East European arrivals in 1967 while the decline in 1969 can, at least partially, be attributed to the closure of the Syrian-Lebanese border in October and November of that year which must have affected this market as the majority of East European travellers arrive in Syria by road, probably mainly via Lebanon (see p.125). Again, the decline in 1973 was no doubt the result both of the closure of the Syrian-Lebanese border from May to August and of the Arab-Israeli war in October.

The pattern of development of arrivals from West Europe has also been relatively straightforward. An initial period of rapid and sustained growth was dramatically terminated in 1967 and 1968 by the 1967 war and its aftermath. This market was particularly severely hit by the war because the Israeli occupation of the West Bank curtailed the tourist trade from Lebanon to the Holy Land via Syria. Nevertheless, by 1969 growth had resumed, in spite of the closure of the Syrian-Lebanese border in October and November of that year which must have adversely affected this market for the same reasons that it affected East European arrivals. Growth continued strongly until 1973 when the October War and the closure of the Syrian-Lebanese frontier, the latter event preventing overland travel between Lebanon and Syria, caused a second major reversal.

Evidently politics is a major, probably the major, influence on the development of tourist arrivals in Syria and it is this fact which makes predictions of future arrivals in the country impossible. Nevertheless, the rapid increases of arrivals from all markets in years of relative political calm would seem to indicate that there are strong forces at work making for growth and this is encouraging for the long term prospects of Syria's tourist trade. It is clear, however, that Syria can expect no significant and sustained increase in her tourist trade until the Middle Eastern political situation becomes more stable.

2. The Development of the Hotel Arrivals of Syrian Tourists

While this chapter is primarily concerned with Syria's international tourist trade, sections on domestic tourism are included because of the dominant role that this type of tourism currently plays in Syria's tourist trade as a whole. Data on the magnitude of domestic tourism is confined to figures for the number of Syrians arriving at hotels and the number of nights spent in hotels by these visitors. These figures greatly understate the scale of domestic tourism since Syrian tourists and recreationists who do not use hotels are excluded. Statistics on hotel arrivals are available only for 1972, when 1,446,269 Syrians visited hotels, and for 1973 when the figure was 1,422,475¹.

3. The Seasonal Distribution of Foreign Visitor Arrivals

Just as political disturbances have hindered the identification of basic trends in the development of visitor arrivals, so too underlying seasonal trends in visitor arrivals statistics are usually masked by the effects of political disruptions. To identify such trends it is necessary to study the monthly visitor arrivals statistics for a year in which these figures were not seriously affected by political disturbances. The appropriate statistics for 1971, one such year during the period under review, are presented in Tables 23 and 24. The same data is shown graphically in Figure 1.

¹ It should be noted that hotel arrivals statistics tend to overstate the actual number of visitors involved since many tourists stay in more than one hotel during a single visit (see p.129). Note that the word 'hotel' is generally used in this thesis to mean commercial accommodation as a whole. Instances where the word 'hotel' signifies either hotels, as such, or hotels as defined in Syrian statistics (see footnote c to Table 44) will be clear from the context in which the word is used.

Table 23 Foreign Visitor Arrivals by Nationality^a and Month, 1971.

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Libya	309	131	83	113	60	159	456	188	93	170	93	105
Saudi Arabia	660	900	983	708	1,172	2,764	9,396	9,025	5,897	3,899	3,228	2,490
Kuwait	341	393	237	163	279	2,611	11,629	10,641	3,884	564	564	329
Qatar	229	85	63	87	118	382	1,787	1,024	220	150	76	83
Bahrain	140	65	64	105	49	157	1,266	940	177	144	81	81
<u>Total Middle East</u>	1,679	1,574	1,430	1,176	1,678	6,073	24,534	21,818	10,271	4,927	4,042	3,088
<u>Oil States</u>												
Egypt	1,778	1,183	1,062	1,502	1,422	3,263	5,083	2,663	2,033	3,375	2,975	18,606
Lebanon	45,208	23,287	23,558	22,517	63,202	67,985	107,345	88,956	101,835	67,426	60,909	58,161
Iraq	1,947	2,570	1,986	1,540	2,751	3,153	14,699	17,001	8,490	4,731	4,320	3,649
Jordan and Palestine	15,045	14,563	18,825	21,933	25,210	27,045	45,522	23,991	19,272	17,189	16,757	14,154
Turkey	547	735	588	495	889	801	855	853	982	1,451	1,130	1,478
Iran	680	499	601	635	512	606	675	541	1,001	767	595	702
Cyprus	81	53	36	54	63	70	69	96	185	64	37	36
<u>Total Middle East</u>	65,286	42,890	46,656	48,676	94,049	102,923	174,248	134,101	133,798	95,003	86,723	96,786
<u>Non-Oil States</u>												
<u>Total Middle East</u>	66,965	44,464	48,086	49,852	95,727	108,996	198,782	155,919	144,069	99,930	90,765	99,874
West Europe	2,062	1,708	2,351	3,661	3,672	3,505	6,690	7,523	5,134	3,838	3,137	3,310
East Europe	1,037	937	860	1,629	1,247	1,333	1,463	1,350	1,923	1,232	1,251	1,457
North America	453	290	592	889	766	1,096	1,799	1,752	1,267	1,050	874	894
Oceania	587	332	170	248	252	271	292	390	368	322	279	247
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	3,859	3,116	3,973	6,427	5,937	6,205	10,244	11,015	8,692	6,442	5,541	5,908
Others	3,747	2,600	2,706	3,074	3,209	3,601	5,355	4,115	3,595	3,785	2,884	3,403
<u>Grand Total</u>	74,571	50,180	54,765	59,353	104,873	118,802	214,381	171,049	156,356	110,157	99,190	109,185

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

Source: Statistical Abstract, 1972.

Table 24 Foreign Visitor Arrivals by Nationality and Month as Percentages of Total Visitor Arrivals from Each Market^a, 1971.

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Libya	15.8	6.7	4.2	5.8	3.1	8.1	23.3	9.6	4.7	8.7	4.7	5.4
Saudi Arabia	1.6	2.2	2.4	1.7	2.9	6.7	22.9	22.0	14.3	9.5	7.9	6.1
Kuwait	1.1	1.2	0.8	0.5	0.9	8.3	36.8	33.6	12.3	1.8	1.8	1.0
Qatar	5.3	2.0	1.5	2.0	2.7	8.9	41.5	23.8	5.1	3.5	1.8	1.9
Bahrain	4.3	2.0	2.0	3.2	1.5	4.8	38.7	28.8	5.4	4.4	2.5	2.5
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	2.0	1.9	1.7	1.4	2.0	7.4	29.8	26.5	12.5	6.0	4.9	3.8
Egypt	4.0	2.6	2.4	3.3	3.2	7.3	11.3	5.9	4.5	7.5	6.6	41.4
Lebanon	6.2	3.2	3.2	3.1	8.7	9.3	14.7	12.2	13.9	9.2	8.3	8.0
Iraq	2.9	3.9	3.0	2.3	4.1	4.7	22.0	25.4	12.7	7.1	6.5	5.5
Jordan and Palestine	5.8	5.6	7.3	8.5	9.7	10.4	17.5	9.2	7.4	6.6	6.5	5.5
Turkey	5.1	6.8	5.4	4.6	8.2	7.4	7.9	7.9	9.1	13.4	10.5	13.7
Iran	8.7	6.4	7.7	8.1	6.6	7.8	8.6	6.9	12.8	9.8	7.6	9.0
Cyprus	9.6	6.3	4.3	6.4	7.5	8.3	8.2	11.4	21.9	7.6	4.4	4.3
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	5.8	3.8	4.2	4.3	8.4	9.2	15.5	12.0	11.9	8.5	7.7	8.6
<u>Total Middle East</u>	5.6	3.7	4.0	4.1	8.0	9.1	16.5	13.0	12.0	8.3	7.5	8.3
West Europe	4.4	3.7	5.1	7.9	7.9	7.5	14.4	16.2	11.0	8.2	6.7	7.1
East Europe	6.6	6.0	5.5	10.4	7.9	8.5	9.3	8.6	12.2	7.8	8.0	9.3
North America	3.9	2.5	5.1	7.6	6.5	9.4	15.4	15.0	10.8	9.0	7.5	7.6
Oceania	17.6	10.0	5.1	7.5	7.6	8.1	8.8	11.7	11.1	9.7	8.4	7.4
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	5.0	4.0	5.1	8.3	7.7	8.0	13.2	14.2	11.2	8.3	7.2	7.6
Others	8.9	6.2	6.4	7.3	7.6	8.6	12.7	9.8	8.5	9.0	6.9	8.1
<u>Grand Total</u>	5.6	3.8	4.1	4.5	7.9	9.0	16.2	12.9	11.8	8.3	7.5	8.3

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

Source: Derived from Table 23.

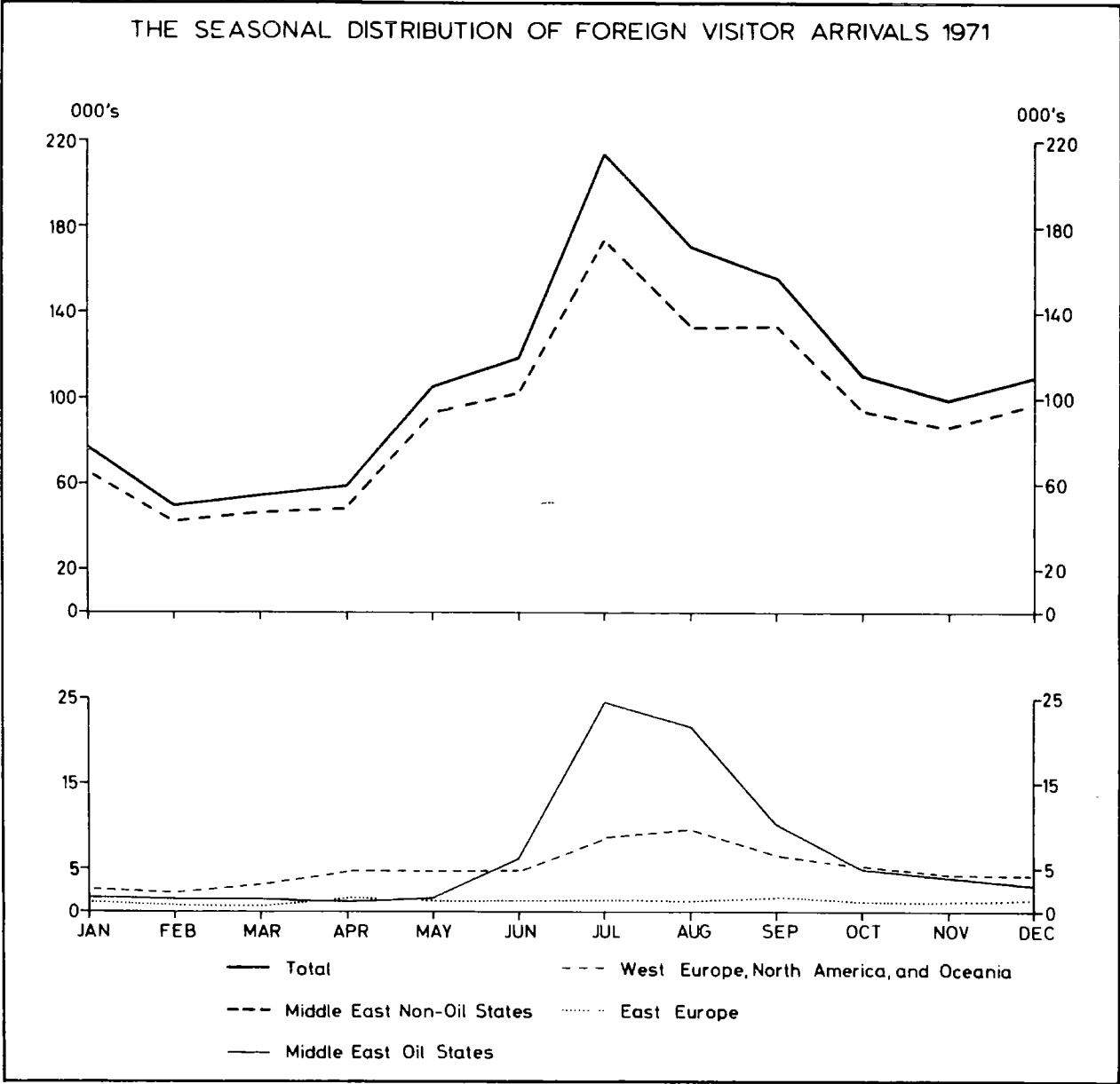


Figure 1

The most notable feature of the distribution curve for total arrivals is the clear peak which develops in the summer holiday period from June to September. 49.9 per cent of Syria's total arrivals in 1971 were registered during these four months. An additional, secondary, peak occurs in December and January, no doubt the result of travel associated with the Christmas, New Year, and 'Id al Hajj¹ (this latter fell in January in 1971) holidays. The seasonal distribution of visitor arrivals from the Middle East non-oil countries corresponds very closely to that for total visitor arrivals. This is to be expected in view of the dominant role played by the Middle East non-oil states in Syrian tourism.

Arrivals from the Middle East oil states show a strong peak in the summer months and remain at a consistently low level for the rest of the year. The winter peak exhibited by total arrivals is absent and this can be attributed to several factors. Firstly, the oil states are overwhelmingly Muslim countries and therefore do not celebrate Christmas; secondly, the oil states do not celebrate the solar new year (or, for that matter, the Muslim lunar new year); and finally, because relatively few nationals of oil states reside outside their own countries, little transiting of Syria is involved either in travel home for the 'Id al Hajj² or in the course of the pilgrimage by residents of these countries to Mecca.

Arrivals from West Europe, North America, and Oceania are relatively evenly distributed throughout the year although a summer peak from June to September is evident. Curiously, however, and for reasons that are not

¹ The Muslim festival celebrating the Prophet's flight from Mecca to Medina in 622 AD. The 'Id al Hajj is the annual time of pilgrimage to Mecca.

² 'Id al Hajj is traditionally a time spent at home by those not undertaking the pilgrimage to Mecca.

clear, there is no sign of a peak during the winter holiday period.

Arrivals from East Europe are distinguished from other non-Middle Eastern arrivals in Figure 1 because they are characterized by their extremely even distribution throughout the year. This is probably explained by the fact that the majority of visitors from East Europe are not, it is suspected, travelling for leisure purposes (see p. 169).

As an illustration of the chaos which political events can wreak on this 'normal' seasonal distribution of arrivals, the appropriate data for 1973 is presented in Tables 25 and 26 and shown graphically in Figure 2. In this situation the winter peak is still recognizable in the curve for total arrivals but it is difficult to say whether this is more the result of the declines in March and October than of any autonomous increase in arrivals in the winter period. No ready explanation is available for the abnormal decline in total arrivals in March, but the major peak in April develops because after that month, instead of the steady increase up to the July peak displayed by the 1971 curve for total arrivals, a sharp drop occurs owing to the closure of the Lebanese border from May to August. A summer peak develops in August and September after the opening of the border but is followed by a dramatic fall with the war in October. The curve for arrivals from the Middle East non-oil states again corresponds very closely with that for total arrivals. The seasonal distribution of arrivals from the oil states is essentially the same as that for total arrivals except that the peaks in April and in summer are not so pronounced. Unlike the equivalent curve for 1971, a winter peak is visible but this can again be largely interpreted as a prelude to the decline in March and as a recovery after the steep decline in October. The distribution of arrivals from West Europe, North America, and Oceania parallels that for total arrivals,

Table 25 Foreign Visitor Arrivals by Nationality^a and Month, 1973.

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Libya	287	308	49	762	262	60	166	248	312	67	81	223
Saudi Arabia	1,447	1,293	829	2,659	1,840	2,160	2,610	2,858	2,479	507	1,099	2,056
Kuwait	1,196	810	167	1,371	1,098	608	848	2,128	1,383	50	109	511
Qatar	326	180	27	641	1,232	104	168	429	558	27	82	152
Bahrain	102	196	50	751	216	63	516	2,259	312	45	57	279
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	3,358	2,787	1,122	6,184	4,648	2,995	4,308	7,922	5,044	696	1,428	3,221
Egypt	2,831	1,591	1,179	3,420	2,211	2,490	1,813	2,102	2,961	1,148	2,845	2,418
Lebanon	32,126	28,987	6,462	56,959	6,646	3,458	4,702	43,339	36,354	6,371	9,017	25,401
Iraq	2,215	1,986	995	5,163	3,035	2,945	6,854	6,660	5,175	1,936	2,416	2,783
Jordan and Palestine	9,554	9,869	9,252	15,504	13,513	18,983	20,884	31,573	14,938	4,801	10,772	15,606
Turkey	1,979	1,282	1,183	1,563	1,349	800	779	1,426	3,337	1,828	2,248	2,363
Iran	784	551	653	1,153	1,116	432	363	2,114	1,220	337	542	748
Cyprus	28	57	22	135	144	34	55	60	135	25	34	66
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	49,517	44,323	19,746	83,897	28,014	29,142	35,470	87,274	64,120	16,446	27,874	49,385
<u>Total Middle East</u>	52,875	47,110	20,868	90,081	32,662	32,137	39,778	95,196	69,164	17,142	29,302	52,606
West Europe	2,729	2,394	1,543	7,641	5,338	1,830	2,537	4,111	4,894	1,305	1,870	1,753
East Europe	1,881	1,469	884	2,612	3,723	996	1,223	1,899	1,671	580	1,164	1,312
North America	2,519	386	294	2,543	1,117	273	338	847	937	141	175	164
Oceania	219	122	124	491	412	140	251	437	455	171	128	285
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	7,348	4,371	2,845	13,287	10,590	3,239	4,349	7,294	7,957	2,197	3,337	3,520
Others	4,607	5,934	2,103	8,278	7,065	2,685	4,109	8,122	6,108	2,622	3,602	5,136
<u>Grand Total</u>	64,830	57,415	25,816	111,646	50,317	38,061	48,236	110,612	83,229	21,961	36,241	61,262

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

Source: Statistical Abstract, 1974.

Table 26 Foreign Visitor Arrivals by Nationality and Month as Percentages of Total Visitor Arrivals from Each Market^a, 1973.

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Libya	10.2	10.9	1.7	27.0	9.3	2.1	5.9	8.8	11.0	2.4	2.9	7.9
Saudi Arabia	6.9	5.9	3.8	12.2	8.4	9.9	12.0	13.1	11.4	2.3	5.0	9.4
Kuwait	11.6	7.9	1.6	13.3	10.7	5.9	8.3	20.7	13.5	0.5	1.1	5.0
Qatar	8.3	4.6	0.7	16.3	31.4	2.7	4.3	10.9	14.2	0.7	2.1	3.9
Bahrain	2.1	4.1	1.0	15.5	4.5	1.3	10.7	46.6	6.4	0.9	1.2	5.8
Total Middle East Oil States	7.7	6.4	2.6	14.2	10.6	6.9	9.9	18.1	11.5	1.6	3.3	7.4
Egypt	10.5	5.9	4.4	12.7	8.2	9.2	6.7	7.8	11.0	4.3	10.5	9.0
Lebanon	12.4	11.2	2.5	21.9	2.6	1.3	1.8	16.7	14.0	2.5	3.5	9.8
Iraq	5.3	4.7	2.4	12.3	7.2	7.0	16.3	15.8	12.3	4.6	5.7	6.6
Jordan and Palestine	5.5	5.6	5.3	8.9	7.7	10.8	11.9	18.0	8.5	2.7	6.2	8.9
Turkey	9.8	6.4	5.9	7.8	6.7	4.0	3.9	7.1	16.6	9.1	11.2	11.7
Iran	7.8	5.5	6.5	11.5	11.1	4.3	3.8	21.1	12.2	3.4	5.4	7.5
Cyprus	3.5	7.2	2.8	17.0	18.1	4.3	6.9	7.6	17.0	3.2	4.3	8.3
Total Middle East Non-Oil States	9.3	8.3	3.7	15.7	5.2	5.5	6.6	16.3	12.0	3.1	5.2	9.2
Total Middle East	9.1	8.1	3.6	15.6	5.6	5.6	6.9	16.4	12.0	3.0	5.1	9.1
West Europe	7.2	6.3	4.1	20.1	14.1	4.8	6.7	10.8	12.9	3.4	4.9	4.6
East Europe	9.7	7.6	4.6	13.5	19.2	5.1	6.3	9.8	8.6	3.0	6.0	6.8
North America	25.9	4.0	3.0	26.1	11.5	2.8	3.5	8.7	9.6	1.5	1.8	1.7
Oceania	6.8	3.8	3.8	15.2	12.7	4.3	7.8	13.5	14.1	5.3	4.0	8.8
Total Non-Middle East	10.5	6.2	4.1	18.9	15.1	4.6	6.2	10.4	11.3	3.1	4.8	5.0
Others	7.6	9.8	3.5	13.7	11.7	4.5	6.8	13.5	10.1	4.3	6.0	8.5
Grand Total	9.1	8.1	3.6	15.7	7.1	5.4	6.8	15.6	11.7	3.1	5.1	8.6

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

Source: Derived from Table 25.

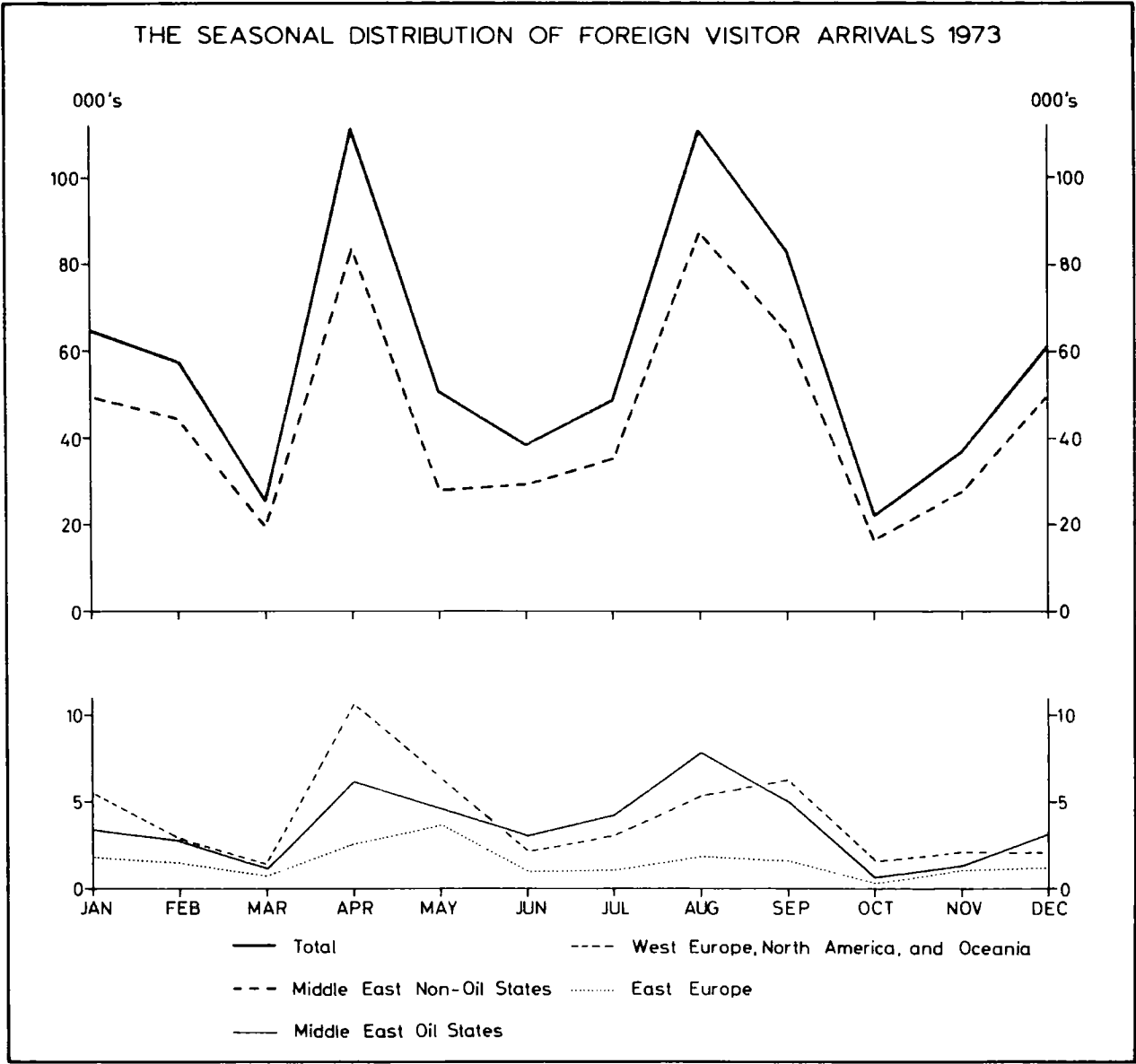


Figure 2

with major peaks in spring and summer. Again the relatively pronounced winter peak is attributable to the declines in March and October. This 1973 curve stands in sharp contrast to the relatively even distribution of this market group's visitor arrivals in 1971. The 1973 curve for East European arrivals, while still more even than that for any other market group in that year, is less even than the equivalent curve for 1971, with spring and, to a lesser extent, summer, peaks being discernible.

4. The Seasonal Distribution of the Hotel Arrivals of Syrians

Data on the monthly distribution of the hotel arrivals of Syrians was available for the first time for 1972, a year free of political disturbances which might have affected domestic tourism. The 1972 distribution, presented in part (a) of Table 27 and shown graphically in Figure 3, may therefore be assumed to represent the typical seasonal distribution of Syrians' hotel arrivals.

A comparison between visitor arrivals data for foreign tourists and hotel arrivals data for Syrian tourists is not, of course, strictly valid but such an exercise is undertaken here since hotel arrivals data is the nearest available equivalent to visitor arrivals data for foreign tourists. It is immediately clear from a comparison of Figures 1 and 3 that the typical (1972) curve for the hotel arrivals of Syrians is much more even than the typical (1971) curve for total foreign visitor arrivals. A peak does, however, develop in late summer, no doubt the result of Syrians travelling during their summer holidays, but this is nowhere near as marked as the summer peak exhibited by foreign visitor arrivals. Possibly because of travel associated with Christmas, the New Year, and 'Id al Hajj¹

¹ 'Id al Hajj fell in January in 1972.

Table 27 The Seasonal Distribution of the Hotel Arrivals of Syrians,
1972 and 1973.

Month	(a) 1972		(b) 1973	
	Hotel Arrivals	%	Hotel Arrivals	%
January	117,488	8.1	124,405	8.8
February	106,029	7.3	109,266	7.7
March	112,037	7.8	122,598	8.6
April	107,008	7.4	109,659	7.7
May	110,825	7.7	109,062	7.7
June	105,833	7.3	118,294	8.3
July	126,603	8.8	129,436	9.1
August	143,875	10.0	127,210	8.9
September	140,086	9.7	116,567	8.2
October	135,772	9.4	96,752	6.8
November	121,287	8.4	120,102	8.4
December	119,426	8.3	139,124	9.8
<u>Total</u>	1,446,269	100.2	1,422,475	100.0

Source : OFA, n.d.a, p.52.

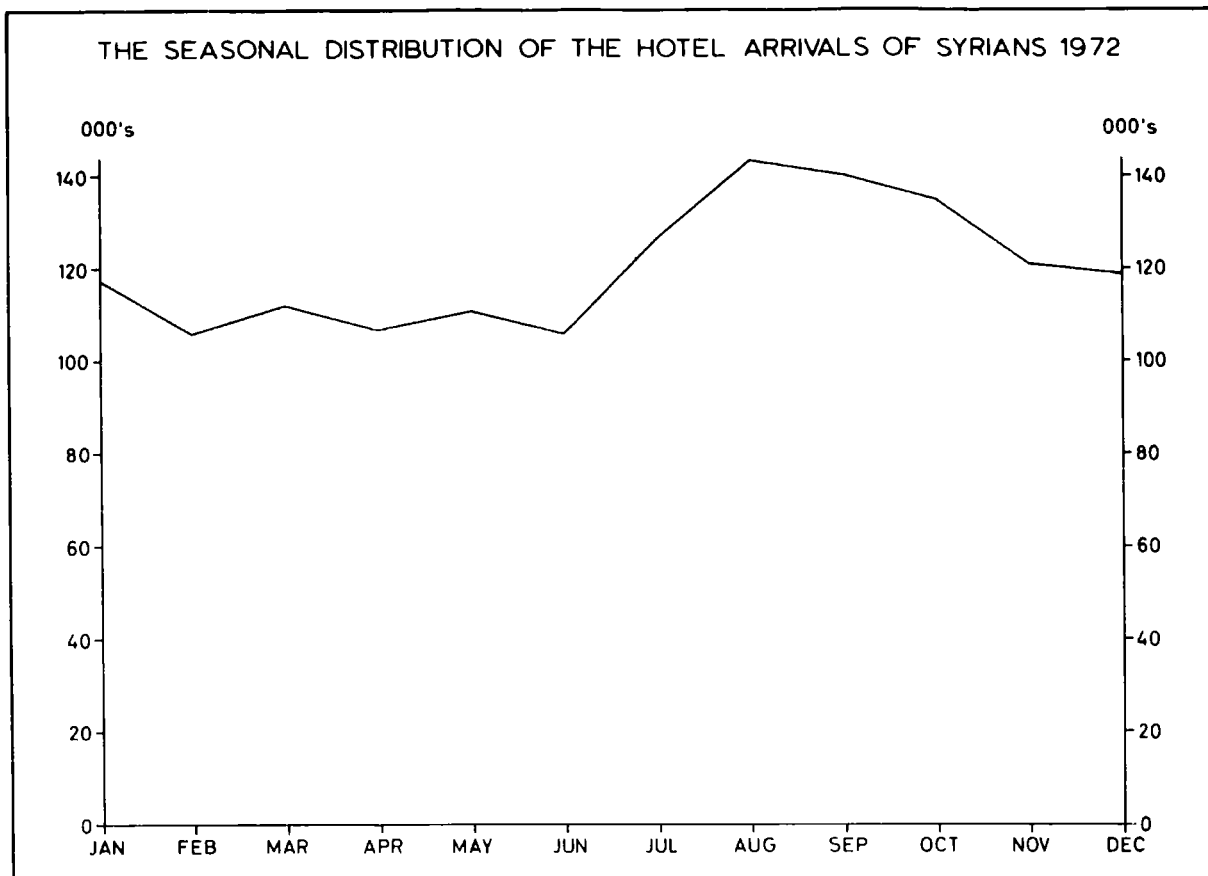


Figure 3

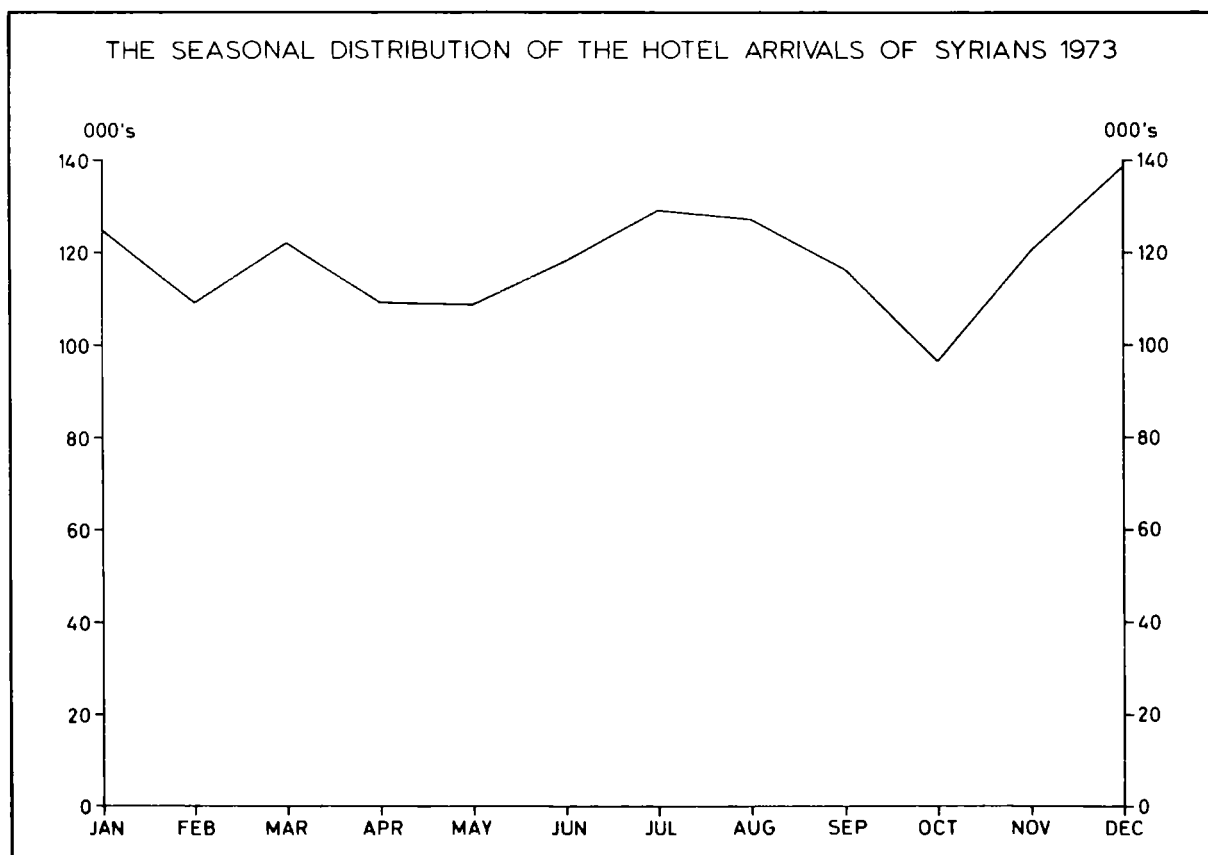


Figure 4

festivities, the curve for the hotel arrivals of Syrians remains at a relatively high level from late summer until January and the slight winter peak which characterizes the curve for foreign visitor arrivals is thus paralleled, partially at least, in the curve for Syrians' hotel arrivals. This latter curve proceeds at a lower than average level in the period between February and June and again this partially parallels the curve for foreign visitor arrivals in 1971.

Domestic tourism, however, is not immune from major political upheavals as a comparison of the seasonal distributions of the hotel arrivals of Syrians in 1972 and 1973, the latter a politically disturbed year, shows (Table 27, parts (a) and (b); Figures 3 and 4). The two distributions are essentially similar in the January-September period although there is a peak in March 1973, for which no ready explanation is available, which is only evident to a much lesser extent in the 1972 curve, and the decline in September 1973 is much more marked than that in September 1972. In the last quarter of the year, however, the two distributions differ significantly. Thus, with the war in October 1973 the hotel arrivals of Syrians decline dramatically whereas in the 1972 curve October is included in the summer peak, and in November and December 1973 a marked peak occurs which is absent from the 1972 curve as the tourists who would anyway have travelled in these months are joined by those who would have preferred to travel in October but had been unwilling to do so because of the war.

A comparison of Figures 2 and 4 reveals that, as would be expected, the irregularities in the curve for total foreign visitor arrivals in the first three-quarters of 1973 are not paralleled in the curve for Syrians' hotel arrivals in the same period, but that in the last quarter of the year the two curves are remarkably similar.

5. Foreign Visitor Arrivals by Mode of Transport

Data on arrivals by nationality and mode of transport for 1973 is presented in Tables 28 and 29. The proportion of visitors from each market and market group arriving by each mode of transport in 1973 is fully representative of the equivalent figures for all the other years in the period under review. It is immediately evident that the vast majority of Syria's visitors in 1973, over 93 per cent, arrived by road¹, that air travel was relatively unimportant, accounting for only 5.7 per cent of total arrivals, and that travel by sea was of negligible significance.²

The relative importance of the three main travel modes was not, however, the same for all market groupings or for all markets. The share of arrivals by air in total arrivals from the oil states rose to 12.4 per cent and air transport was of similarly greater than average importance for non-Middle Eastern visitors, 12.1 per cent of whom arrived by air in 1973. Air transport was of much less importance to travellers from the non-oil states of the Middle East, accounting for a mere 4.7 per cent of non-oil states' visitor arrivals. In general, and as would be expected, the greater the distance of a market from Syria, and the greater the obstacles to over-land travel between it and Syria, the greater the proportion of visitors from that market that travelled by air, and, conversely, the smaller was the proportion that travelled by road. Thus, the proportion of Libyans arriving by air was 22.2 per cent, of Egyptians 29.2 per cent, of Iranians 20.5 per cent, of West Europeans 10.8 per cent, and of East Europeans 18.8 per cent.

¹ The data in the third columns of Tables 28 and 29 refers to both arrivals by rail and by road but arrivals by rail must have been insignificant in view of the known popularity of road transport amongst tourists.

² The only market for which travel by sea attained any importance at all was East Europe. This is most likely a reflection of the extent of sea-borne trade between East European countries and Syria. Many of the East European visitors who arrived in Syria by sea were quite probably seamen.

Table 28 Foreign Visitor Arrivals by Nationality^a and Mode of Transport, 1973.

	Air	Sea	Land
Libya	627	8	2,190
Saudi Arabia	2,019	10	19,808
Kuwait	2,305	8	7,966
Qatar	187	-	3,739
Bahrain	265	1	4,580
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	5,403	27	38,283
Egypt	7,878	476	18,655
Lebanon	1,321	103	258,398
Iraq	2,763	43	39,357
Jordan and Palestine	7,413	155	167,681
Turkey	284	27	19,826
Iran	2,060	-	7,973
Cyprus	157	37	601
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	21,876	841	512,491
<u>Total Middle East</u>	27,279	868	550,774
West Europe	4,110	93	33,748
East Europe	3,658	1,385	14,371
North America	468	7	9,259
Oceania	258	38	2,939
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	8,494	1,523	60,317
Others	4,853	278	55,240
<u>Grand Total</u>	40,626	2,669	666,331

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

Source: Statistical Abstract, 1974.

Table 29 Foreign Visitor Arrivals by Nationality^a and Mode of Transport
as a Percentage of Total Arrivals from Each Market, 1973.

	Air	Sea	Land
Libya	22.2	0.3	77.5
Saudi Arabia	9.3	0.1	90.7
Kuwait	22.4	0.1	77.5
Qatar	4.8	-	95.2
Bahrain	5.5	0.02	94.5
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	12.4	0.1	87.6
Egypt	29.2	1.8	69.1
Lebanon	0.5	0.04	99.5
Iraq	6.6	0.1	93.4
Jordan and Palestine	4.2	0.1	95.7
Turkey	1.4	0.1	98.5
Iran	20.5	-	79.5
Cyprus	19.8	4.7	75.6
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	4.1	0.2	95.8
<u>Total Middle East</u>	4.7	0.2	95.1
West Europe	10.8	0.3	88.9
East Europe	18.8	7.1	74.0
North America	4.8	0.1	95.1
Oceania	8.0	1.2	90.9
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	12.1	2.2	85.8
Others	8.0	0.5	91.5
<u>Grand Total</u>	5.7	0.4	93.9

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

Source: Derived from Table 28.

Nevertheless, the extremely high proportion of arrivals by road in arrivals from markets which are either distant or possess poor overland links with Syria, or both, is surprising. Over 85 per cent of non-regional visitors, for example, arrived by road. Clearly, for many tourists at least, Syria was but one of several countries being visited in the course of a single trip. Indeed, many tourists were probably merely transitting Syria en route to their main destination.¹ For many, Syria might have been the main destination but it was more convenient to travel to Syria via some neighbouring country, probably Lebanon, which has better air connections than Syria. It is worth noting, however, that Lebanon has a large number of foreign residents and many of the arrivals registered in Syria by nationals of distant countries with poor overland links with Syria must have been attributable to these people taking trips outside Lebanon by road. It is because so many of Syria's visitors arrive by road that border closures have had such a disruptive impact on Syria's tourist trade. Similarly, the importance of overland travel to both regional and non-regional visitors explains why the impact of border closures has been equally marked on the seasonal distributions of the visitor arrivals accounted for by both market groups.

Data on the hotel arrivals of Syrians by means of transport is not available but it can safely be assumed that travel by road overwhelmingly predominates. Relatively small numbers travel by air on the domestic services operated by Syrian Arab Airlines and by rail, although travel by this latter form of transport is probably of least significance for domestic tourists.

¹ See section 14 of this chapter.

6. Foreign Visitor Arrivals by Frontier of Entry

Table 30 presents the numbers and proportions of Arab and non-Arab visitors arriving at each of Syria's frontier posts in 1973. The majority of Arab visitors, 37.5 per cent, entered Syria overland from Jordan while a further 35.4 per cent entered overland from Lebanon, suggesting the importance of the Beirut - Damascus - Amman transit route. A significant proportion, however, 13.9 per cent, of Arab visitors entered Syria overland from Iraq. 45.2 per cent of non-Arab tourists entered Syria overland from Lebanon, while the overland route from Turkey was second in importance, accounting for 23.4 per cent of non-Arab visitor arrivals. A further 11.2 per cent and 9 per cent, respectively, of non-Arab visitor arrivals were registered at check-points on overland routes leading from Iraq and Jordan. Only 10.1 per cent of non-Arab, and 8.3 per cent of Arab arrivals were recorded at airports while the numbers of both Arab and non-Arab arrivals at sea ports were negligible.

Again these figures illustrate the almost total dependence of the Syrian tourist trade on the flow of travellers overland across the national borders, and particularly on the flow emanating from Lebanon. The crucial importance for the tourist trade of the maintenance of good relations and open borders with neighbouring states, and particularly with Lebanon, cannot be over-stressed.

7. The Proportion of Foreign Visitors that Uses Hotels

Data on the proportions of visitors that used hotels in 1971, 1972, and 1973, the only years in the period under review for which such information is available, is presented in Table 31. Before discussing this data, however, a word of caution is in order. The figures in Table 31 were

Table 30 Foreign Visitor Arrivals by Frontier of Entry, 1973.

Frontier Post	Arab Arrivals	Arab Arrivals at Each Post as a % of Total Arab Arrivals	Non-Arab Arrivals	Non-Arab Arrivals at Each Post as a % of Total Non-Arab Arrivals
1) <u>Lebanese Border</u>				
a) Dabusia	6,811	2.2	8,594	5.9
b) Arida	2,579	0.8	5,139	3.6
c) Jousia	916	0.3	1,366	0.9
d) Jadida	97,672	32.0	50,278	34.8
2) <u>Jordanian Border</u>				
a) Der'a	114,465	37.5	12,974	9.0
3) <u>Iraqi Border</u>				
a) Abu Shamat	35,597	11.7	13,965	9.7
b) Ya'aruba	4,531	1.5	1,565	1.1
c) Abu Kamal	2,264	0.7	564	0.4
4) <u>Turkish Border</u>				
a) Salama	394	0.1	11,484	7.9
b) Qamishli	731	0.2	1,806	1.3
c) Kassab	4,682	1.5	5,972	4.1
d) Baghdad Station	2	-	117	0.1
e) Jerablus	308	0.1	2,724	1.9
f) Midan Ekbez	788	0.3	1,763	1.2
g) Bab El Hawa	7,683	2.5	9,945	6.9
5) <u>Sea Ports</u>				
a) Lattakia	619	0.2	1,598	1.1
b) Tartous	77	-	204	0.1
c) Banias	24	-	44	-
6) <u>Air Ports</u>				
	25,244	8.3	14,541	10.1
<u>Total</u> ^a	305,387	99.9	144,643	100.1

^a The aggregation of the figures given in this table for total Arab and total non-Arab arrivals produces the figure of 450,030. This differs from the figure for total foreign arrivals in 1973 given in Table 19. Although the figure in this latter table is correct, there is no reason to doubt that the proportions, given in Table 30, of visitors arriving at each frontier post are correct, at least in order of magnitude.

Source: Ministry of Tourism figures.

Table 31 Percentages of Foreign Visitor Arrivals which used Hotels by Nationality^a.

	1971	1972	1973
Libya	80.1	189.6	119.7
Saudi Arabia	39.5	87.6	95.5
Kuwait	28.0	80.8	50.0
Qatar	28.2	42.0	30.9
Bahrain	46.7	114.6	32.5
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	35.7	90.8	73.6
Egypt	64.8	109.1	149.5
Lebanon	10.2	12.8	21.8
Iraq	75.6	69.0	134.5
Jordan and Palestine	72.5	73.5	80.6
Turkey	95.1	120.9	69.9
Iran	41.1	60.0	82.6
Cyprus	34.5	48.0	68.8
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	31.8	34.9	59.4
<u>Total Middle East</u>	32.1	38.2	60.5
West Europe	61.7	69.6	72.0
East Europe	106.4	114.4	118.6
North America	37.2	46.2	39.7
Oceania	45.7	52.7	51.7
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	66.4	75.3	79.5
Others	46.5	54.4	58.7
<u>Grand Total</u>	34.5	42.3	62.2

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

Source: Statistical Abstract, 1972-1974.

derived by expressing the number of hotel arrivals recorded by each market as a percentage of each market's total visitor arrivals. Now, visitor arrivals statistics are collected at frontier check-points but data on hotel arrivals is compiled at hotels. Thus, an individual visitor who stays, for example, in three different hotels during a single visit to Syria will generate three hotel arrivals but only one frontier arrival. This can lead to a considerable overstatement of the proportion of visitors that uses hotels. It is obvious, for example, that the proportions of Libyan, Egyptian, Iraqi, and East European visitors staying at hotels in 1973 have been overstated in this way.

Nevertheless, certain conclusions can be drawn from a perusal of Table 31. Firstly, there appears to be a tendency for the proportion of total visitors that uses hotels to be increasing, but even in 1973 this proportion was only about 60 per cent and even this is probably an overstatement (see preceding paragraph). Secondly, there appear to be differences in the propensity to use hotels between the three main market groups. Thus, visitors from the Middle East oil states and from the non-regional markets use hotels to a much greater extent than visitors from the Middle East non-oil states. Differences are also apparent between individual markets within the three main market groups. Thus, of the oil state visitors, Libyans and Saudis are generally the most intensive hotel-users. The most striking feature of the figures for the Middle East non-oil states is the very low propensity of the Lebanese, who account for the majority of visitor arrivals in Syria, to use hotels. Indeed, it is the dominance of the Lebanese in the Middle East non-oil states market group that explains the low proportion of hotel-users in total visitors from this group. In turn, the dominance of the Middle East non-oil states as generators of visitors to Syria explains the low proportion of total visitors that uses hotels.

Two main features characterize the figures for the non-regional markets: firstly, the very high proportion of hotel-users amongst East Europeans and, secondly, the low propensity of North Americans to use hotels.

The data in Table 31 raises more questions than can be fully answered at present. Firstly, it must be asked why the propensity of visitors from a given market to use hotels varies significantly from one year to the next. Is this in fact because different proportions of visitors from the specified market use hotels in different years, or rather because, while the same proportion of visitors uses hotels in each year, the propensity of these hotel-users to stay in more than one hotel differs in different years? Secondly, why do visitors from different markets have different propensities to use hotels? Is this because visitors from certain markets have more friends or relatives to stay with while in Syria than have visitors from other markets? Or is it that the propensity of visitors to spend less than a day in Syria, and therefore to have no need of hotels, is greater for visitors from some markets than for those from others? Thirdly, if, as seems certain, many visitors to Syria use more than one hotel in the course of a visit, then are the hotels at which they stay all in the same location, and if so, why do the visitors move from one hotel to another within a single destination, or could it be that visitors from certain markets are more mobile than those from other markets, in the sense that they travel more widely in Syria? That the vast majority of foreign visitor nights are recorded in Damascus and Aleppo (see p.193) suggests that if in fact tourists from certain markets travel more widely in Syria than visitors from other markets, then this travel must be between the two major urban centres. In the absence of more refined data, however, one can do little more than pose the relevant questions, although a partial attempt will be made in section 14 of this chapter to relate the propensity of visitors to stay in hotels with their motives for visiting Syria.

8. The Development of Foreign Visitor Nights in Syria

Visitor arrivals are a relatively crude indicator of the scale of a country's tourist industry as they take no account of visitors' lengths of stay. For this reason visitor nights statistics provide a more effective measure. However, a major weakness of these latter statistics, at least so far as Syria is concerned, is that they refer only to nights spent in registered commercial accommodation. Nights spent by visitors staying, for example, with friends and relatives, are thus excluded. That the proportion of tourists that does not stay in commercial accommodation is significant in Syria was shown in the previous section.

Bearing in mind this important reservation, Table 32 shows that foreign visitor nights registered in Syria, like foreign visitor arrivals, remained at a low level in the 1961-1973 period compared with the equivalent figures for countries with developed tourist industries.¹ The growth of total foreign visitor nights, however, has been generally less erratic from year to year than the equivalent growth of visitor arrivals during the same period. Reversals and decelerations of growth do occur and, as might be expected, these generally coincide with years of political upheaval. It is, however, of interest that in some years, such as 1968, a strong decline in visitor arrivals was not paralleled by a decline in visitor nights. In fact the reverse occurred. This, together with the generally less erratic growth rates of visitor nights than of visitor arrivals from year to year, strongly suggests that, for reasons which are not entirely clear, the hotel-staying visitor is much less affected by political disturbances than is the visitor who does not

¹ 1973: Spain: 34,558,943 foreign visitor arrivals
69,698,227 foreign visitor nights
Italy: 35,489,300 foreign visitor arrivals
46,730,307 foreign visitor nights
Greece: 3,177,682 foreign visitor arrivals
15,731,535 foreign visitor nights

Table 32 The Development of Foreign Visitor Nights in Syria, 1961-1973.

Year	Total Foreign Visitor Nights	Rate of Growth Over Previous Year %	Average per Annum Growth Rate 1961-1973 %
1961	435,985	-	-
1962	494,110	+13.3	-
1963	505,656	+ 2.3	-
1964	567,263	+12.2	-
1965	664,888	+17.2	-
1966	677,951	+ 2.0	-
1967	532,292	-21.5	-
1968	698,895	+31.3	-
1969	807,950	+15.6	-
1970	838,615	+ 3.8	-
1971	993,350	+18.5	-
1972	952,795	- 4.1	-
1973	990,678	+ 4.0	+ 7.1

Source: Statistical Abstract, 1965-1974, supplemented by Ministry of Tourism figures.

use hotels¹. Meanwhile, an important characteristic of the development of total foreign visitor nights is that these have displayed a more pronounced tendency to growth than total foreign visitor arrivals, having expanded at an average rate of 7.1 per cent per annum during the period under review.

The number of visitor nights generated by each of Syria's tourist markets in each year in the period 1961-1973, and the share of each market in total visitor nights registered in each year are presented in Tables 33 and 34, respectively. Just as Middle Eastern states accounted for the largest proportion of total visitor arrivals, so too these countries were the major generators of foreign visitor nights spent in Syria, accounting for an average of 72.7 per cent of total visitor nights in each year. This compares with their average per annum share of 84.2 per cent of total visitor arrivals. The non-oil states dominated the Middle East market, contributing an average of 65.9 per cent of total visitor nights in each year, compared with the oil states' average per annum share of 6.9 per cent. Visitor nights generated by non-Middle Eastern markets constituted, on average, 19.8 per cent of total visitor nights in each year. This proportion is about twice as large as their equivalent share of visitor arrivals, a fact largely accounted for by the greater propensity of non-regional visitors to use hotels (see Table 31).

These average figures, however, mask changes during the period in the relative importance of the two main market categories (i.e. Middle East states and non-Middle East states). As was the case with visitor arrivals, and for the same reason, two broad phases can be distinguished. In the first,

¹ Later in this chapter, however, a probable explanation is advanced for this feature, or at least for its presence in the impact on visitor arrivals and visitor nights, of a specific political disturbance, the 1973 closure of the Lebanese border. See section 14. It cannot, however, be certain, without a detailed analysis of the effect of each border closure on visitor arrivals and visitor nights, that the equivalent impact of the 1973 closure, and the explanation for this, will have been the same in the case of every border closure that has occurred in Syria during the period under review.

Table 33 Foreign Visitor Nights Registered in Syria by Nationality^a, 1961-1973.

	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973
Libya	1,744	755	519	570	761	1,007	2,988	1,367	1,388	2,171	4,484	6,810	6,291
Saudi Arabia	23,483	21,344	22,088	30,629	31,205	29,116	16,851	20,399	34,048	13,014	38,935	23,708	46,031
Kuwait	7,778	3,977	5,078	11,029	11,478	18,423	5,653	14,777	17,045	13,128	18,467	12,836	12,341
Qatar	936	785	846	1,210	821	1,063	1,008	1,038	905	1,711	2,106	1,337	2,361
Bahrain	2,055	1,724	1,931	2,291	2,938	2,512	1,018	2,016	2,483	2,559	4,064	2,228	3,233
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	35,996	28,585	30,462	45,729	47,253	52,121	27,498	39,597	55,869	32,583	68,056	46,919	70,257
Egypt	-	1,841	1,884	993	1,823	8,560	12,170	29,324	60,675	62,974	102,666	33,052	150,140
Lebanon	99,093	95,120	84,772	100,979	107,521	93,945	89,704	104,903	106,697	109,468	124,809	71,228	86,627
Iraq	31,765	48,530	78,932	41,492	86,727	112,027	48,323	133,396	117,016	83,261	112,082	24,947	121,381
Jordan and Palestine	113,230	127,293	116,655	146,928	165,902	160,167	153,305	198,807	262,563	347,796	392,404	145,147	268,164
Turkey	8,127	23,630	30,336	18,630	24,626	25,700	28,358	31,212	27,286	27,023	20,641	15,100	24,784
Iran	301	4,764	2,992	8,745	14,503	4,716	4,989	10,288	19,173	15,278	7,425	4,769	20,897
Cyprus	373	525	564	592	1,535	1,236	1,010	712	542	534	757	414	873
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	252,889	301,703	316,135	318,359	402,637	406,351	337,859	508,642	593,952	646,334	760,784	294,657	672,866
<u>Total Middle East</u>	288,885	330,288	346,597	364,088	449,890	458,472	365,357	548,239	649,821	678,917	828,840	341,576	743,123
West Europe	43,113	49,257	55,630	73,587	88,051	90,295	52,905	43,524	45,954	44,157	54,722	39,830	54,653
East Europe	35,206	36,314	28,686	22,720	40,302	48,287	62,567	67,661	65,923	67,121	49,490	23,581	103,709
North America	23,312	28,085	27,788	42,029	28,989	25,325	8,637	911	3,255	4,147	7,727	6,241	6,837
Oceania	1,230	1,830	2,379	2,963	3,059	3,640	2,431	2,348	2,523	2,168	2,706	2,023	3,561
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	102,861	115,486	114,483	141,299	160,401	167,547	126,540	114,444	117,655	117,593	114,645	71,675	168,760
Others	44,239	48,336	44,576	61,876	54,597	51,932	40,395	36,212	40,474	42,105	49,865	26,159	78,795
<u>Grand Total</u>	435,985	494,110	505,656	567,263	664,888	677,951	532,292	698,895	807,950	838,615	993,350	439,410	990,678

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

Source: Statistical Abstract, 1965-1974, supplemented by Ministry of Tourism figures.

Table 34 The Percentage Share of Each Market^a in Total Foreign Visitor Nights, 1961-1973.

	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973
Libya	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	1.6	0.6
Saudi Arabia	5.4	4.3	4.4	5.4	4.7	4.3	3.2	2.9	4.2	1.6	3.9	5.5	4.7
Kuwait	1.8	0.8	1.0	1.9	1.7	2.7	1.1	2.1	2.1	1.6	1.9	2.7	1.3
Qatar	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Bahrain	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.3
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	8.3	5.8	6.0	8.1	7.1	7.7	5.2	5.7	6.9	3.9	6.9	10.5	7.1
Egypt	-	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.3	1.3	2.3	4.2	7.5	7.5	10.3	13.9	15.2
Lebanon	22.7	19.3	16.8	17.8	16.2	13.9	16.9	15.0	13.2	13.1	12.6	12.0	8.7
Iraq	7.3	9.8	15.6	7.3	13.0	16.5	9.1	19.1	14.5	9.9	11.3	5.4	12.3
Jordan and Palestine	26.0	25.8	23.1	25.9	25.0	23.6	28.8	28.5	32.5	41.5	39.5	31.1	27.1
Turkey	1.9	4.8	6.0	3.3	3.7	3.8	5.3	4.5	3.4	3.2	2.1	2.9	2.5
Iran	0.1	1.0	0.6	1.5	2.2	0.7	0.9	1.5	2.4	1.8	0.7	1.3	2.1
Cyprus	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	58.0	61.1	62.5	56.1	60.6	59.9	63.5	72.8	73.5	77.1	76.6	66.6	67.9
<u>Total Middle East</u>	66.3	66.9	68.5	64.2	67.7	67.6	68.6	78.4	80.4	81.0	83.4	77.1	75.0
West Europe	9.9	10.0	11.0	13.0	13.2	13.3	9.9	6.2	5.7	5.3	5.5	7.0	5.5
East Europe	8.1	7.4	5.7	4.0	6.1	7.1	11.8	9.7	8.2	8.0	5.0	7.6	10.5
North America	5.4	5.7	5.5	7.4	4.4	3.7	1.6	0.1	0.4	0.5	0.8	1.1	0.7
Oceania	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	23.6	23.4	22.6	24.9	24.1	24.7	23.8	16.4	14.6	14.0	11.5	16.1	17.0
Others	10.2	9.8	8.8	10.9	8.2	7.7	7.6	5.2	5.0	5.0	5.0	6.9	8.0
<u>Grand Total</u>	100.1	100.1	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9	100.1	100.0

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

Source: Derived from Table 33.

from 1961 to 1967, the Middle East states generated a smaller share of total visitor arrivals than in the second phase. Thus, from 1961 to 1967 a yearly average of 67.1 per cent of total visitor nights was accounted for by the Middle East states, and 23.9 per cent by non-regional markets. From 1968 to 1973 the Middle East states increased their share to an average of 79.2 per cent per annum, while that of the non-regional markets declined to a per annum average of only 14.9 per cent. Nevertheless, the difference between the non-regional shares of visitor nights before and after the 1967 war is not so great as is the equivalent difference in the non-regional shares of visitor arrivals. This again suggests that visitor nights are less affected by politics than are visitor arrivals. In this respect it is also of interest that whereas the effect of the June War on the respective shares of the regional and non-regional markets in total visitor arrivals was immediately evident in the 1967 statistics, the equivalent effect of the war on visitor nights did not, curiously, become apparent until 1968.

During the 1961-1973 period there were also significant changes in the proportion of total annual foreign visitor nights accounted for by individual countries and groups of countries within the two major market categories. Throughout the period Jordan and Palestine constituted the major source of visitor nights but while second place was held by Lebanon from 1961 to 1965, in 1967, and in 1970 and 1971, this position was held by Iraq in 1966, 1968, and 1969 and by Egypt in 1972 and 1973. The third most important generator of tourist nights was West Europe in 1961, 1962, 1964, and 1965, Iraq in 1963, 1970, 1971 and 1973, Lebanon in 1966 and East Europe in 1967. Fourth place was held by East Europe in 1961, 1968 to 1970, 1972, and 1973, by Iraq in 1962, 1964, and 1965, by West Europe in 1963, 1966, and 1967, and by Egypt in 1971.

The per annum and average per annum growth rates of visitor nights achieved by each of Syria's tourist markets during the period under review are presented in Table 35. As in the equivalent figures for visitor arrivals (Table 22), different markets achieved very different average per

Table 35 Annual Growth Rates of Foreign Visitor Nights by Nationality^a, 1961-1973.

	1961-1962	1962-1963	1963-1964	1964-1965	1965-1966	1966-1967	1967-1968	1968-1969	1969-1970	1970-1971	1971-1972	1972-1973	Average per Annual Growth Rate (%), 1961-1973.
Libya	- 56.7	- 31.3	+ 9.8	+ 33.5	+ 32.3	+196.7	- 54.3	+ 1.5	+ 56.4	+106.5	+239.5	- 58.7	+ 11.3
Saudi Arabia	- 9.1	+ 3.5	+ 38.7	+ 1.9	- 6.7	- 42.2	+ 21.2	+ 66.9	- 61.8	+199.2	+ 33.8	- 11.7	+ 5.8
Kuwait	-151.1	+ 27.7	+117.2	+ 4.1	+ 60.5	- 69.3	+161.4	+ 15.4	- 23.0	+ 40.7	+ 37.7	- 51.5	+ 4.0
Qatar	- 16.1	+ 7.8	+ 43.0	- 32.2	+ 29.5	- 5.2	+ 3.0	- 12.8	+ 89.1	+ 23.1	- 6.5	+ 19.9	+ 8.0
Bahrain	- 16.1	+ 12.0	+ 18.6	+ 28.2	- 14.5	- 59.5	+ 98.0	+ 23.2	+ 3.1	+ 58.8	+ 28.8	- 38.2	+ 3.9
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	- 20.6	+ 6.6	+ 50.1	+ 3.3	+ 10.3	- 47.2	+ 44.0	+ 41.1	- 41.7	+108.9	+ 46.9	- 29.7	+ 5.7
Egypt	-	+ 2.3	- 47.3	+ 83.6	+369.6	+ 42.2	+141.0	+106.9	+ 3.8	+ 63.0	+ 28.6	+ 13.7	+ 49.2 (1962-1973)
Lebanon	- 4.0	- 10.9	+ 19.1	+ 6.5	- 12.6	- 4.5	+ 16.9	+ 1.7	+ 2.6	+ 14.0	- 8.7	- 24.0	- 1.1
Iraq	+ 52.8	+ 62.7	- 47.4	+109.0	+ 29.2	- 56.9	+176.1	- 12.3	- 28.9	+ 34.6	- 54.2	+136.3	+ 11.8
Jordan and Palestine	+ 12.4	- 8.4	+ 26.0	+ 12.9	- 3.5	- 4.3	+ 29.7	+ 32.1	+ 32.5	+ 12.8	- 24.5	- 9.5	+ 7.4
Turkey	+190.8	+ 28.4	- 38.6	+ 32.2	+ 4.4	+ 10.3	+ 10.1	- 12.6	- 1.0	- 23.6	+ 31.4	- 8.6	+ 9.7
Iran	+148.3	- 37.2	+192.3	+ 65.8	- 67.5	+ 5.8	+106.2	+ 86.4	- 20.3	- 51.4	+ 68.8	+ 66.8	+ 42.4
Cyprus	+ 40.8	+ 7.4	+ 5.0	+159.3	- 19.5	- 18.3	- 29.5	- 23.9	- 1.5	+ 41.8	+ 41.1	- 18.3	+ 7.4
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	+ 19.3	+ 4.8	+ 0.7	+ 26.5	+ 0.9	- 16.9	+ 50.6	+ 16.8	+ 8.8	+ 17.7	- 16.6	+ 6.1	+ 8.5
<u>Total Middle East</u>	+ 14.3	+ 4.9	+ 5.1	+ 23.6	+ 1.9	- 20.3	+ 50.1	+ 18.5	+ 4.5	+ 22.1	- 11.4	+ 1.2	+ 8.1
West Europe	+ 14.3	+ 12.9	+ 32.3	+ 19.7	+ 2.6	- 41.4	- 17.7	+ 5.6	- 3.9	+ 23.9	+ 22.2	- 18.3	+ 2.0
East Europe	+ 3.2	- 21.0	- 20.8	+ 77.4	+ 19.8	+ 29.6	+ 8.1	- 2.6	+ 1.8	- 33.7	+ 45.8	+ 43.7	+ 9.4
North America	+ 20.5	- 1.1	+ 51.3	- 31.0	- 12.6	- 65.9	- 89.5	+257.3	+ 27.4	+ 86.3	+ 35.8	- 34.9	- 10.8
Oceania	+ 51.0	+ 30.0	+ 24.6	+ 3.2	+ 19.0	- 33.2	- 2.3	+ 7.5	- 14.1	+ 24.8	- 25.2	+ 76.0	+ 9.2
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	+ 12.3	- 0.9	+ 23.4	+ 13.5	+ 4.5	- 24.5	- 9.6	+ 2.8	- 0.1	- 2.5	+ 33.7	+ 10.1	+ 4.2
Others	+ 73.9	- 42.1	+ 38.8	- 11.8	- 4.9	- 22.2	- 10.4	+ 11.8	+ 4.0	+ 18.4	+ 30.9	+ 20.7	+ 4.9
<u>Grand Total</u>	+ 13.3	+ 2.3	+ 12.2	+ 17.2	+ 2.0	- 21.5	+ 31.3	+ 15.6	+ 3.8	+ 18.5	- 4.1	+ 4.0	+ 7.1

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

Source: Derived from Table 33.

annum growth rates of visitor nights, but, while there is generally a high correlation between the average per annum growth rates of visitor arrivals and visitor nights achieved by each market, this correlation is by no means perfect. Indeed, the non-oil states, surprisingly in view of their average per annum growth rate of visitor arrivals, together recorded the highest average per annum growth rate of visitor nights of any market group, while the lowest rate was again exhibited by the non-regional group. From a comparison of Tables 22 and 35 it can be seen that there is also a close correlation between the year to year growth rates of each market's visitor nights and visitor arrivals, with erratic growth from one year to the next being the dominant feature. It is, however, again encouraging that visitor nights generated by all markets tend to increase rapidly in years of political calm. Since politics have been the major influence on the development of visitor arrivals, it can thus be concluded that political events have also been the major determinant of the development of visitor nights.

It was noted that the development of total foreign visitor nights from one year to the next was less affected by political disturbances than was the equivalent development of visitor arrivals, and it is of interest that this situation is paralleled in the year to year growth rates of visitor arrivals and visitor nights generated by each market¹. For example, in 1968 visitor arrivals registered by Lebanese decreased by 23.7 per cent over the previous year while visitor nights increased by 16.9 per cent. Again, a 17.3 per cent decrease in visitor arrivals from Jordan and

¹ It follows that the average per annum growth rates of visitor nights achieved by the various markets, and the differences in these rates between the markets, have also been less influenced by politics than have the equivalent rates for visitor arrivals.

Palestine in 1969 was accompanied by a 32.1 per cent increase in visitor nights. Certainly the relatively frequent lack of correlation between visitor arrivals and visitor nights statistics is a function of the length of stay characteristics of visitors and of the extent to which they use commercial accommodation. Without a detailed and comprehensive analysis of the characteristics of visitors from each market, however, the information for which is unfortunately lacking, and without more reliable statistics on length of stay and propensity to use commercial accommodation, a full exposition of the exact nature and causes of the relationship between visitor arrivals and visitor nights is precluded. The discussion of visitors to Syria by purpose of visit in section 14 of this chapter, on the other hand, does have a bearing on the problem.

9. The Development of the Visitor Nights of Syrians 1963-1973

Table 36 shows the development of the visitor nights of Syrians in the years 1963-1973, the only period for which data was available at the time of writing. It is clear from a comparison of Tables 32 and 36 that the visitor nights of Syrians have been consistently much more numerous than those of foreigners. Further, while different positive and negative rates of growth occur from year to year in Syrians' visitor nights, these fluctuations have not been nearly so extreme as those experienced by foreigners' visitor nights. This is no doubt because domestic tourism is largely immune from the political tensions between Syria and her neighbours, and between her neighbours, that constitute the major influence on the development of foreign visitor nights, and is developing mainly as a function of socio-economic conditions inside Syria. On the other hand, the two years in the 1963-1973 period with the largest negative growth rates in Syrians'

Table 36 The Development of the Visitor Nights of Syrians, 1963-1973.

Year	Visitor Nights	Rate of Growth over Previous Year %	Average Per Annum Growth Rate, 1963-1973 %
1963	1,760,336	-	-
1964	1,954,380	+11.0	-
1965	1,885,674	- 3.5	-
1966	1,722,053	- 8.7	-
1967	1,694,687	- 1.6	-
1968	2,086,471	+23.1	-
1969	2,213,486	+ 6.1	-
1970	2,224,235	+ 0.5	-
1971	2,140,574	- 3.8	-
1972	2,275,406	+ 6.3	-
1973	2,146,425	- 5.7	+2.0

Source: Ministry of Tourism figures.

visitor nights were 1966 and 1973, the former year being marked by great internal political instability and the latter by the most recent Arab-Israeli war¹. The development of the visitor nights of Syrians, then, has not been totally unaffected by politics. It is, however, difficult to explain why the 1967 war had such a minimal impact on the development of Syrians' visitor nights and why such a pronounced growth, 23.1 per cent, was recorded in 1968.

Syrians' visitor nights in the 1963-1973 period displayed a general tendency towards growth but the average per annum growth rate was lower than that of foreign visitor nights in the same period: 2 per cent compared with 6.9 per cent. A small percentage increase in the visitor nights of Syrians, however, involves a very large increase in the actual number of visitor nights registered because of the high level of Syrians' visitor nights.

10. The Seasonal Distribution of Foreign Visitor Nights

It was argued during the discussion of the seasonal distribution of visitor arrivals that, because of the disruptive effects of politics, it was essential in order to identify the typical distribution to single out for study a year in which the effect of political disturbances on monthly visitor arrivals statistics was minimal. 1971 was identified as being a suitable year from that point of view. The same procedure is adopted in the present discussion of the seasonal distribution of foreign

¹ It is of interest that foreign visitor nights were actually more numerous in 1973 than in 1972, in spite of the October War, since this came too late in the year to affect the bulk of foreign visitor nights which is recorded in the summer months. By contrast, Syrians' visitor nights are more evenly distributed throughout the year and the October War therefore had a greater impact on the annual total.

visitor nights. Monthly visitor nights statistics for 1971 are presented in Tables 37 and 38. The seasonal distributions of total visitor nights, and of visitor nights for each of the major categories into which Syria's tourist markets can be divided, are shown graphically in Figure 5.

It is immediately apparent from Figure 5 that total foreign visitor nights exhibit a strong peak in the summer months from June to September and decline regularly in spring and autumn. 44.9 per cent of total visitor nights in 1971 fell in the June-September period. There is some slight evidence of a secondary peak in December, probably associated with people taking winter holidays, but this is not marked. The basic elements of this distribution for total visitor nights are closely paralleled in the curve for visitor nights generated by the Middle East non-oil states. This is to be expected since the bulk of total foreign visitor nights is accounted for by these countries. The curve for the oil states' visitor nights is also basically the same as that for total foreign visitor nights, with a strong summer peak, but in this instance there is no sign at all of a secondary peak in winter. Visitor nights generated by West Europe, North America, and Oceania again display essentially the same distribution as total visitor nights except that the summer peak is not so pronounced and there is no evidence of a winter peak. The seasonal distribution of East Europeans' visitor nights is shown separately from those for other non-Middle East markets in Figure 5 because of its remarkable evenness. A slight summer peak in August and September is, however, visible.

The seasonal distributions of visitor nights generated by each of the groups into which Syria's tourist markets have been divided thus closely parallels those for visitor arrivals generated by these groups (see p. 109). Note, however, that the January peak exhibited by Middle East non-oil states'

Table 37 Foreign Visitor Nights by Nationality^a and Month, 1971.

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Libya	171	275	160	1,199	121	228	543	593	401	322	186	285
Saudi Arabia	536	792	1,406	1,681	1,659	5,094	9,697	8,085	3,621	2,426	1,910	2,028
Kuwait	188	502	168	188	475	2,072	6,153	5,378	2,159	494	372	318
Qatar	64	34	51	142	120	172	421	441	329	197	39	96
Bahrain	66	71	88	155	73	258	841	1,151	693	263	270	135
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	1,025	1,674	1,873	3,365	2,448	7,824	17,655	15,648	7,203	3,702	2,777	2,862
Egypt	5,559	5,470	5,731	6,929	6,712	10,828	11,190	11,516	9,719	9,060	9,091	10,861
Lebanon	8,025	7,323	7,745	10,799	10,690	19,174	8,318	10,544	16,908	9,094	8,327	7,862
Iraq	5,054	6,822	4,710	4,626	5,011	6,275	21,095	28,692	12,033	6,848	5,071	5,845
Jordan and Palestine	23,518	35,605	28,791	35,903	32,881	40,503	49,398	35,407	32,404	27,413	25,387	25,194
Turkey	1,124	1,111	951	1,203	1,406	1,188	1,382	1,455	1,618	2,943	2,777	3,483
Iran	433	800	717	519	642	455	471	571	741	593	598	835
Cyprus	68	50	35	94	114	47	50	101	30	23	63	82
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	43,831	57,161	48,680	60,073	57,456	78,470	91,904	88,286	73,453	55,974	51,314	54,162
<u>Total Middle East</u>	44,856	58,855	50,553	63,438	59,904	86,294	109,559	103,934	80,656	59,676	54,091	57,024
West Europe	2,803	3,149	3,274	4,196	4,127	3,565	6,208	9,284	5,122	4,475	4,579	3,950
East Europe	2,893	4,044	3,759	4,121	4,073	2,823	2,658	5,928	6,415	4,029	3,423	5,324
North America	355	342	299	835	592	739	935	996	535	698	803	598
Oceania	122	144	243	150	296	146	188	213	195	216	376	417
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	6,173	7,679	7,575	9,302	9,088	7,273	9,989	16,421	12,267	9,418	9,181	10,289
Others	3,996	3,505	3,187	3,923	3,377	3,887	5,105	5,707	4,499	4,131	4,081	4,457
<u>Grand Total</u>	55,025	70,039	61,315	76,663	72,369	97,454	124,653	126,062	97,422	73,225	67,353	71,770

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

Source: Statistical Abstract, 1972.

Table 33 Foreign Visitor Nights by Nationality^a and Month as Percentages of Total Visitor Nights from Each Market, 1971.

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Libya	3.8	6.1	3.6	26.7	2.7	5.1	12.1	13.2	8.9	7.2	4.2	6.4
Saudi Arabia	1.4	2.0	3.6	4.3	4.3	13.0	24.9	20.8	9.3	6.2	4.9	5.2
Kuwait	1.0	2.7	0.9	1.0	2.6	11.2	33.3	29.1	11.7	2.7	2.0	1.7
Qatar	3.0	1.6	2.4	6.7	5.7	8.2	20.0	20.9	15.6	9.4	1.9	4.6
Bahrain	1.6	1.8	2.2	3.8	1.8	6.4	20.7	28.3	17.1	6.5	6.6	3.3
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	1.5	2.5	2.8	4.9	3.6	11.5	25.9	23.0	10.6	5.4	4.1	4.2
Egypt	5.4	5.3	5.6	6.8	6.5	10.6	10.9	11.2	9.5	8.8	8.9	10.6
Lebanon	6.4	5.9	6.2	8.7	8.6	15.4	6.7	8.5	13.6	7.3	6.7	6.3
Iraq	4.5	6.1	4.2	4.1	4.5	5.6	18.8	25.6	10.7	6.1	4.5	5.2
Jordan and Palestine	6.0	9.1	7.3	9.2	8.4	10.3	12.6	9.0	8.3	7.0	6.5	6.4
Turkey	5.5	5.4	4.6	5.8	6.8	5.8	6.7	7.1	7.8	14.3	13.5	16.9
Iran	6.5	10.8	9.7	7.0	8.7	6.1	6.3	7.7	10.0	8.0	8.1	11.3
Cyprus	9.0	6.6	4.6	12.4	15.1	6.2	6.6	13.3	4.0	3.0	8.3	10.8
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	5.8	7.5	6.4	7.9	7.6	10.3	12.1	11.6	9.7	7.4	6.7	7.1
<u>Total Middle East</u>	5.4	7.1	6.1	7.7	7.2	10.4	13.2	12.5	9.7	7.2	6.5	6.9
West Europe	5.1	5.8	6.0	7.7	7.5	6.5	11.3	17.0	9.4	8.2	8.4	7.2
East Europe	5.9	8.2	7.6	8.3	8.2	5.7	5.4	12.0	13.0	8.1	6.9	10.8
North America	4.6	4.4	3.9	10.8	7.7	9.6	12.1	12.9	6.9	9.0	10.4	7.7
Oceania	4.5	5.3	9.0	5.5	10.9	5.4	7.0	7.9	7.2	8.0	14.0	15.4
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	5.4	6.7	6.6	8.1	7.9	6.3	8.7	14.3	10.7	8.2	8.0	9.0
Others	8.0	7.0	6.4	7.9	6.8	7.8	10.2	11.4	9.0	8.3	8.2	8.9
<u>Grand Total</u>	5.5	7.1	6.2	7.7	7.3	9.8	12.6	12.7	9.8	7.4	6.8	7.2

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

Source: Derived from Table 37.

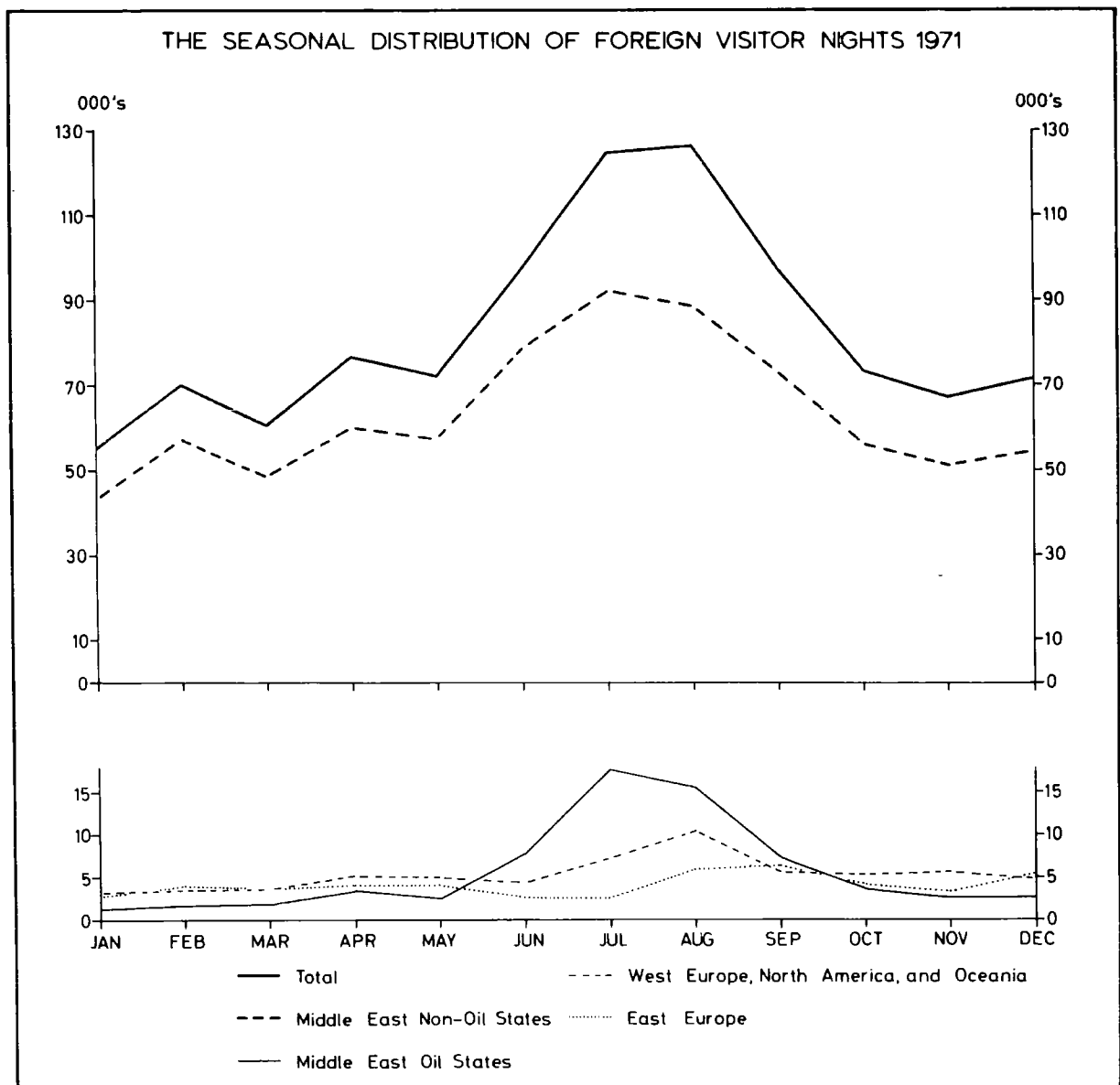


Figure 5

visitor arrivals (and therefore by total foreign visitor arrivals) is absent from the visitor nights curve for this market. Evidently a very large proportion of tourists from the Middle East non-oil countries do not use hotels in the course of their winter travels, either because they stay with friends and relatives or because they are merely transitting Syria, a journey which can be accomplished in a single day. Alternatively, they use hotels but spend only a very few nights in them.

As an illustration of the impact of politics on the seasonal distribution of visitor nights, the appropriate data for 1973, a particularly disturbed year politically, is presented in Tables 39 and 40 and portrayed graphically in Figure 6. The curve for total foreign visitor nights again displays a strong peak in summer and a slight peak in December and January. However, the curve departs from the normal (i.e. 1971) pattern in two major respects. Firstly, there is a peak in April, a consequence of the decline of visitor nights in May following the closure of the Lebanese border, and, secondly, there is an abnormal drop in October accounted for by the outbreak of war in that month. The curve for Middle East non-oil countries' visitor nights again corresponds very closely to that for total visitor nights. The seasonal distribution of visitor nights generated by the Middle East oil states exhibits a marked summer peak and a decline in October but is unaffected by the closure of the Syrian-Lebanese border from May to August. As with the 1971 oil state curve, there is no sign of a winter peak in the 1973 distribution. Visitor nights generated by West Europe, North America, and Oceania are much more evenly distributed throughout the year than are visitor nights accounted for by Middle Eastern markets although the April and summer peaks are evident, as is the decline in October. There is no sign, however, of a winter peak. The distribution of East European visitor nights is very even throughout the year although there are slight peaks in spring and summer.

It was suggested earlier that visitor nights are less sensitive to political events than are visitor arrivals and this is substantiated by a

Table 39 Foreign Visitor Nights by Nationality^a and Month, 1973.

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Libya	1,443	1,357	253	412	451	304	493	525	597	70	193	193
Saudi Arabia	1,768	1,501	2,012	2,015	2,771	5,505	11,800	8,200	4,565	1,227	2,287	2,380
Kuwait	214	707	383	277	593	1,877	3,495	2,310	1,001	212	694	578
Qatar	137	54	30	214	177	145	490	402	369	65	167	111
Bahrain	66	72	90	311	244	202	743	769	441	111	98	86
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	3,628	3,691	2,768	3,229	4,236	8,033	17,021	12,206	6,973	1,685	3,439	3,348
Egypt	10,842	9,869	11,843	12,768	15,749	18,387	15,964	13,788	13,773	9,296	8,770	9,091
Lebanon	6,904	7,350	8,232	14,542	4,111	4,752	3,521	8,988	12,229	4,269	5,035	6,694
Iraq	3,285	2,768	2,887	4,391	7,151	9,289	27,845	32,143	14,838	6,010	5,312	5,462
Jordan and Palestine	19,018	16,586	15,715	15,860	18,543	30,458	38,835	39,846	26,013	12,439	17,303	17,547
Turkey	2,189	2,647	2,607	1,946	1,250	1,880	1,413	1,982	3,192	1,952	1,814	1,912
Iran	1,817	1,397	4,825	4,966	1,682	1,117	737	1,147	1,684	452	457	616
Cyprus	17	67	103	70	39	41	150	153	54	63	64	52
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	44,072	40,684	46,212	54,543	48,525	65,924	88,466	98,047	71,783	34,481	38,755	41,374
<u>Total Middle East</u>	47,700	44,375	48,980	57,772	52,761	73,957	105,487	110,253	78,756	36,166	42,194	44,722
West Europe	2,879	3,065	3,777	8,086	4,256	3,976	6,311	8,531	5,643	2,802	2,123	3,104
East Europe	6,601	6,916	8,671	9,730	13,093	7,336	9,542	10,039	9,288	7,619	7,397	7,477
North America	434	527	1,023	902	561	413	784	841	642	290	148	272
Oceania	205	320	297	417	194	293	291	496	261	288	167	332
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	10,119	10,828	13,768	19,135	18,104	12,018	16,928	20,007	15,834	10,999	9,835	11,185
Others	7,103	5,648	6,859	5,764	6,052	6,177	8,607	7,039	6,654	4,058	6,740	8,094
<u>Grand Total</u>	64,922	60,851	69,607	82,671	76,917	92,152	131,022	137,299	101,244	51,223	58,769	64,001

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

Source: Statistical Abstract, 1974.

Table 40 Foreign Visitor Nights by Nationality^a and Month as Percentages of Total Visitor Nights from Each Market, 1973.

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Libya	22.9	21.6	4.0	6.6	7.2	4.8	7.8	8.4	9.5	1.1	3.1	3.1
Saudi Arabia	3.8	3.3	4.4	4.4	6.0	12.0	25.6	17.8	9.9	2.7	5.0	5.2
Kuwait	1.7	5.7	3.1	2.3	4.7	15.2	28.3	18.7	8.1	1.7	5.6	4.7
Qatar	5.8	2.3	1.3	9.1	7.5	6.1	20.8	17.0	15.6	2.8	7.1	4.7
Bahrain	2.0	2.2	2.8	9.6	7.6	6.3	23.0	23.8	13.6	3.4	3.0	2.7
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	5.2	5.3	3.9	4.6	6.0	11.4	24.2	17.4	9.9	2.4	4.9	4.8
Egypt	7.2	6.6	7.9	8.5	10.5	12.3	10.6	9.2	9.2	6.2	5.8	6.1
Lebanon	8.0	8.5	9.5	16.8	4.8	5.5	4.1	10.4	14.1	4.9	5.8	7.7
Iraq	2.7	2.3	2.4	3.6	5.9	7.7	22.9	26.5	12.2	5.0	4.4	4.5
Jordan and Palestine	7.1	6.2	5.9	5.9	6.9	11.4	14.5	14.9	9.7	4.6	6.5	6.5
Turkey	8.8	10.7	10.5	7.9	5.0	7.6	5.7	8.0	12.9	7.9	7.3	7.7
Iran	8.7	6.7	23.1	23.8	8.1	5.4	3.5	5.5	8.1	2.2	2.2	3.0
Cyprus	2.0	7.7	11.8	8.0	4.5	4.7	17.2	17.5	6.2	7.2	7.3	6.0
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	6.6	6.1	6.9	8.1	7.2	9.8	13.2	14.6	10.7	5.1	5.8	6.2
<u>Total Middle East</u> ^c	6.4	6.0	6.6	7.8	7.1	10.0	14.2	14.8	10.6	4.9	5.7	6.0
West Europe	5.3	5.6	6.9	14.8	7.8	7.3	11.6	15.8	10.3	5.1	3.9	5.7
East Europe	6.4	6.7	8.4	9.4	12.6	7.1	9.2	9.7	9.0	7.4	7.1	7.2
North America	6.4	7.7	15.0	13.2	8.2	6.0	11.5	12.3	9.4	4.2	2.2	4.0
Oceania	5.8	9.0	8.3	11.7	5.5	8.2	8.2	13.9	7.3	8.1	4.7	9.3
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	6.0	6.4	8.2	11.3	10.7	7.1	10.0	11.9	9.4	6.5	5.8	6.6
Others	9.0	7.2	8.7	7.3	7.7	7.8	10.9	8.9	8.5	5.2	8.6	10.3
<u>Grand Total</u>	6.6	6.1	7.0	8.4	7.8	9.3	13.2	13.9	10.2	5.2	5.9	6.5

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

Source: Derived from Table 39.

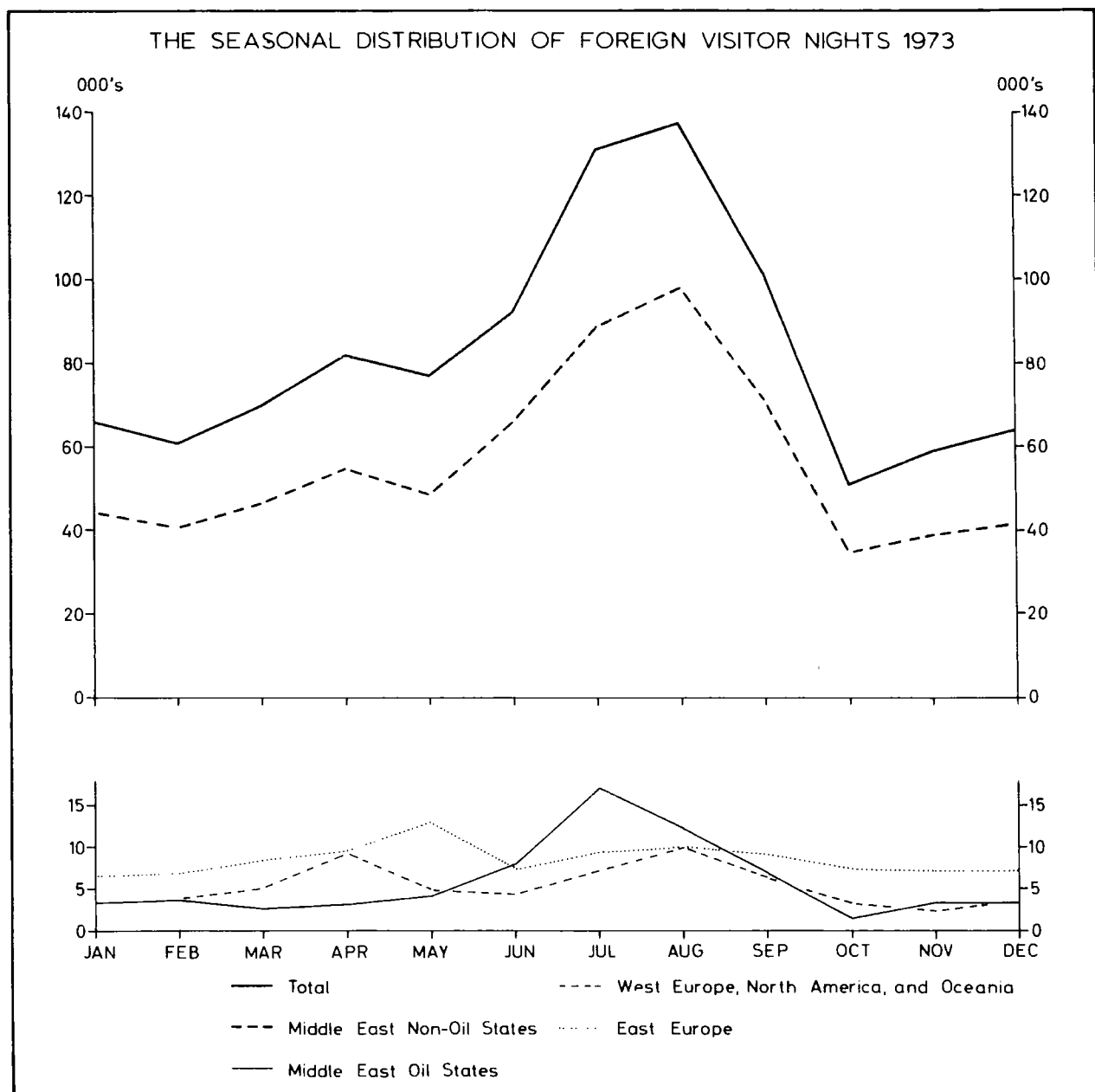


Figure 6

comparison of the 1973 visitor arrivals and visitor nights curves shown in Figures 2 and 6, respectively. The major decline of total arrivals in March is not reflected at all in the curve for total visitor nights and whereas the spring peak is very pronounced in the arrivals curve, it is only moderately marked in the visitor nights curve¹. Further, the steep decline of visitor arrivals in May and June is not paralleled by an equally steep decline of visitor nights in the same months. The October War, however, does seem to have had an equally adverse effect on both arrivals and visitor nights. These comments apply with equal force to a comparison of the 1973 distribution curves of visitor arrivals and visitor nights accounted for by the Middle East non-oil countries and to a comparison of the equivalent curves for West European, North American, and Oceanian markets.

A comparison of the 1973 arrivals and visitor nights curves for the oil states reveals that the March decline in arrivals is absent from the visitor nights curve and that the April peak of arrivals preceding the closure of the Lebanese frontier is not paralleled by any equivalent peak in the visitor nights curve¹. The distribution of East European visitor nights corresponds closely to the distribution of visitor arrivals for this market group, except that the slight decline of arrivals in March is not matched by a parallel decline of visitor nights¹. For all markets, then, the seasonal distribution curves for arrivals in 1973 are generally much more jagged than the equivalent curves for visitor arrivals.

¹ It is argued later (see section 14 of this chapter) that the reason why visitor nights were more affected by the 1973 closure of the Lebanese border than were visitor arrivals is probably the result, at least so far as all market groups except East Europe are concerned, of the great numbers of visitors to Syria that enter the country for the purpose of transit and, for certain markets, both of this and of the large numbers of tourists that visit Syria for day trips. It is, however, difficult to explain why visitor nights generated by East Europeans, for whom transit is probably not a major reason for visiting Syria, were less affected by this border closure than were visitor arrivals generated by these tourists.

11. The Seasonal Distribution of the Visitor Nights of Syrians

Data on the seasonal distributions of the visitor nights of Syrians in 1972 and 1973 is given in parts (a) and (b), respectively, of Table 41 and presented graphically in Figures 7 and 8, respectively. It is evident from Figure 7 that the distribution curve of Syrians' visitor nights in 1972, a year chosen for analysis because of the absence of political disturbances which might have affected this distribution, was remarkably even. Indeed, no month contained less than 7 per cent, and no month more than 9.9 per cent, of total visitor nights for the year. While there is some tendency towards peaking in summer, the marked summer peak displayed by the typical (1971) curve for total foreign visitor nights (Figure 5) is absent. The December peak displayed by foreign visitor nights is paralleled by a small peak in December and January, no doubt the result of travel associated with the Christmas, New Year, and 'Id al Hajj holidays¹ which occur in these months. A comparison of Figures 3 and 7 shows that, as would be expected, the curves for Syrians' hotel arrivals and visitor nights in 1972 closely parallel each other although the summer peak in hotel arrivals is more pronounced than the equivalent peak in visitor nights.

In 1973, a year of political turbulence, the seasonal distribution of Syrians' visitor nights again displayed remarkable evenness (see Figure 8). No month had less than 6.2 per cent and none more than 10.2 per cent of total visitor nights for the year. A summer peak, more pronounced than the late summer peak of 1972 and associated with Syrians travelling during their summer holidays, was apparent in June, July, and August, and again there was a peak in January. The most notable departure from the 1972 pattern,

¹ 'Id al Hajj fell in January in 1972.

Table 41 The Seasonal Distribution of the Visitor Nights of Syrians,
1972 and 1973.

Month	(a) 1972 Visitor Nights	%	(b) 1973 Visitor Nights	%
January	189,178	8.3	180,363	8.4
February	159,773	7.0	161,619	7.5
March	182,017	8.0	180,582	8.4
April	175,683	7.7	166,895	7.8
May	181,552	8.0	169,568	7.9
June	193,598	8.5	189,626	8.8
July	213,340	9.4	206,295	9.6
August	201,271	8.9	218,485	10.2
September	224,358	9.9	177,527	8.3
October	178,985	7.9	133,055	6.2
November	181,946	8.0	181,398	8.5
December	193,705	8.5	181,012	8.4
<u>Total</u>	2,275,406	100.1	2,146,425	100.0

Source: OFA, n.d.a, p.39.

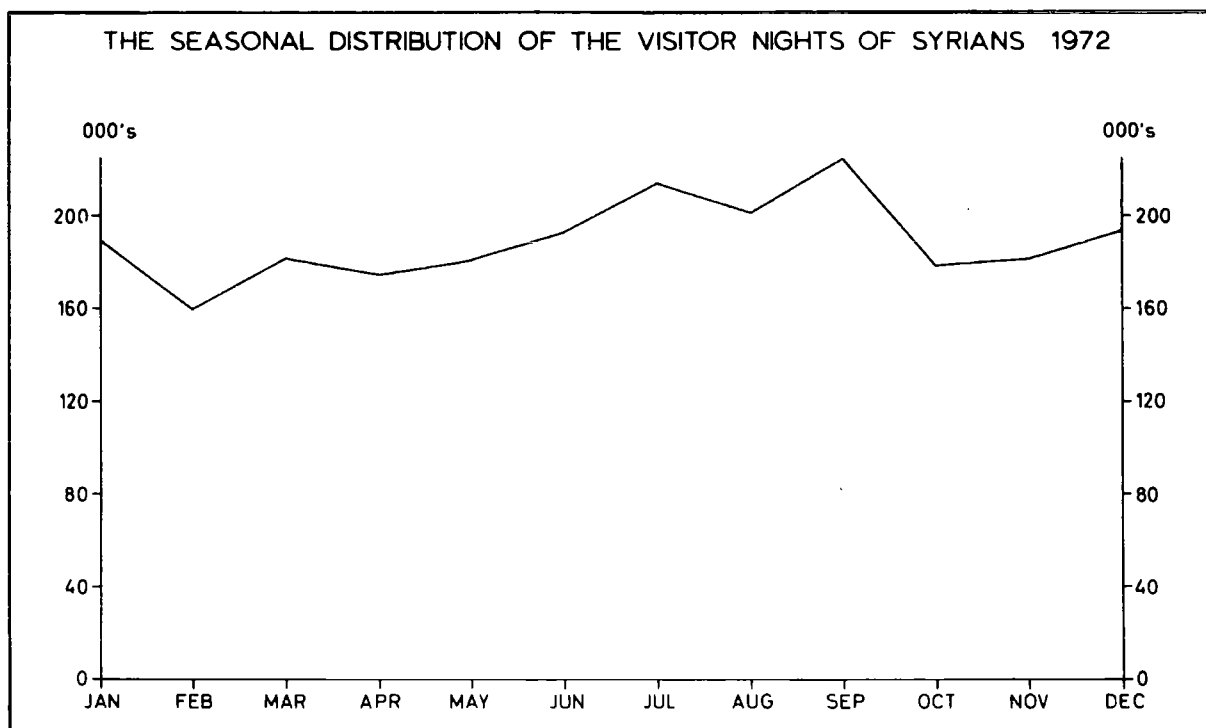


Figure 7

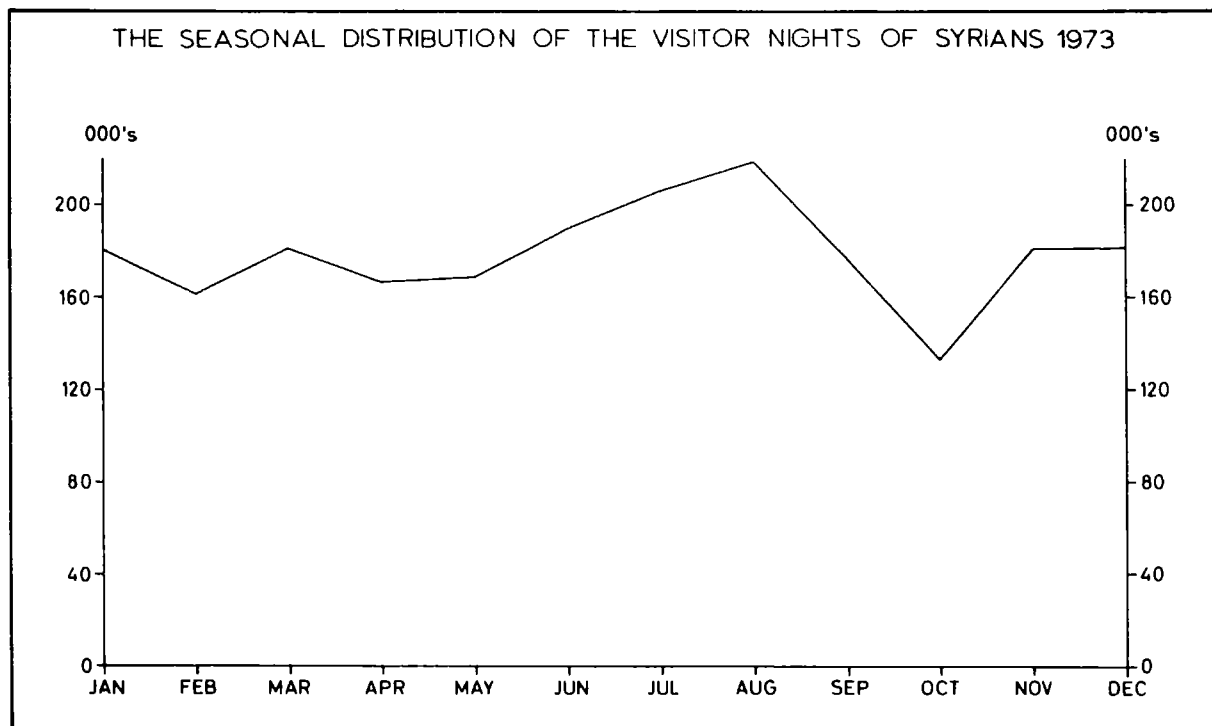


Figure 8

however, was the sharp decline in October caused by the war in that month. Clearly, the seasonal distribution of Syrians' visitor nights, like the year to year development of these nights, is not totally unaffected by political upheavals.

A comparison of Figures 6 and 8 shows that the curve for Syrians' visitor nights in 1973 was more even than that for foreign visitor nights in the same year. The decline in foreign visitor nights as a result of the closure of the Syrian-Lebanese border from May to August is not, of course, paralleled by a corresponding decline in Syrians' visitor nights and, although there are summer and winter peaks, and an October decline, in the curves for both Syrians' and foreigners' visitor nights, these are not so marked in the former curve. The 1973 seasonal distribution of Syrians' visitor nights does, however, conform closely to that of the hotel arrivals of Syrians in the same year (compare Figures 4 and 8) except that the December peak in hotel arrivals is more marked than the equivalent peak in the visitor nights curve.

12. The Length of Stay Characteristics of Visitors to Syria

The average lengths of stay by nationality of visitors using commercial accommodation in the years 1971-1973 are presented in Table 42. These figures should, however, be approached with some caution. They were derived by dividing the total visitor nights generated by visitors of each nationality in each year by the total number of visitors of each nationality using commercial accommodation in each year, and it has already been noted (p.129) that the numbers of visitors using commercial accommodation are probably overstated in the available statistics. To that extent the length of stay figures are understated¹.

¹ The length of stay figures in each of Tables 43-50 are also understated since they too were derived by dividing visitor nights figures by those for arrivals at commercial accommodation.

Table 42 Visitor Nights per Foreign Tourist^a by Nationality^b.

	1971	1972	1973
Libya	2.9	2.2	1.9
Saudi Arabia	2.4	2.2	2.2
Kuwait	2.1	2.0	2.4
Qatar	1.7	1.5	2.0
Bahrain	2.7	2.4	2.1
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	2.3	2.1	2.2
Egypt	3.5	4.0	3.7
Lebanon	1.7	1.6	1.5
Iraq	2.2	2.1	2.1
Jordan and Palestine	2.1	2.0	2.0
Turkey	2.1	1.8	1.8
Iran	2.3	2.6	2.5
Cyprus	2.6	2.6	1.6
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	2.1	2.2	2.1
<u>Total Middle East</u>	2.2	2.1	2.1
West Europe	1.9	1.7	2.0
East Europe	3.0	3.1	4.5
North America	1.8	1.7	1.8
Oceania	1.8	1.8	2.1
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	2.2	2.1	3.0
Others	2.6	2.5	2.2
<u>Grand Total</u>	2.2	2.2	2.3

^a 'Tourist' here means hotel-user.

^b West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

Source: Derived from Table 33 and from Statistical Abstract, 1972-1974.

Even taking this into account, however, it is immediately striking that average lengths of stay for visitors of all nationalities are very short. The average length of stay for all visitors in 1973 was 2.3 visitor nights but there were noticeable, if slight, differences between nationalities. Thus, Egyptians and East Europeans tended to stay longer than average while Lebanese, Turks, West Europeans, North Americans, and Oceanians tended to stay a shorter than average time in Syria.

Table 43 shows that, while there are small month by month variations in the lengths of stay of different groups of foreign tourists, these variations differ for different groups and for foreign tourists as a whole no clear trends, for example towards longer stays in the summer months, emerge.

An inspection of the data on lengths of stay by hotel class in Table 44 reveals that for most nationalities average length of stay varies according to class of hotel although these variations are different for different nationalities. For foreign tourists as a whole, however, there is a tendency for stays to be slightly longer than average in first class hotels and shorter than average in hostels.¹

Table 45 presents length of stay data for total foreign visitors according to mohafaza (first order administrative unit; plural: mohafazat). Foreign tourists stay longest, 2-2.8 visitor nights, in hotels in Tartous, Damascus, Aleppo and Idlib, while in all other mohafazat average lengths of stay vary between 0.8 and 1.7 visitor nights.

Data on the average lengths of stay of total foreign visitors to Syria in 1973 by hotel class and mohafaza is given in Table 46. As would

¹ For the types of accommodation included in the category 'hostels' see footnote c to Table 44.

Table 43 Visitor Nights per Foreign Tourist^a by Nationality^b and Month, 1971.

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Libya	3.6	2.4	0.9	6.6	2.2	2.0	2.5	2.5	2.7	2.6	1.8	2.1
Saudi Arabia	1.6	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.3	3.1	2.8	1.9	2.2	2.1	2.2
Kuwait	2.3	2.9	2.3	2.7	2.2	2.0	1.9	2.4	1.8	2.1	2.2	2.2
Qatar	1.4	1.2	1.3	2.2	1.3	1.4	2.1	2.1	1.3	2.4	1.3	2.0
Bahrain	2.6	1.7	2.3	2.7	1.1	3.4	2.4	3.0	2.5	3.3	3.8	2.2
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	1.9	2.2	2.0	2.9	1.9	2.2	2.5	2.6	1.9	2.3	2.1	2.2
Egypt	3.0	3.6	4.2	3.1	3.4	2.9	4.0	3.7	3.2	3.2	4.1	4.6
Lebanon	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.5	2.9	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.6
Iraq	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.4	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.3
Jordan and Palestine	1.4	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.2	2.1	3.1	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.3
Turkey	1.9	1.8	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.7	2.3	2.7	2.3
Iran	1.9	2.9	2.2	1.8	3.4	2.7	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.6
Cyprus	3.0	3.1	2.2	2.9	5.7	2.9	3.1	2.1	1.4	0.7	2.7	3.2
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	1.6	1.9	2.0	1.9	1.9	2.4	2.2	2.6	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4
<u>Total Middle East</u>	1.6	1.9	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.4	2.2	2.6	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4
West Europe	2.3	2.1	2.1	1.8	2.0	2.0	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.1
East Europe	2.7	2.5	2.7	2.4	2.7	2.2	2.5	4.3	4.7	3.1	3.2	2.9
North America	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.5	1.8	2.0	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.8	2.0
Oceania	1.9	2.0	1.9	1.4	2.0	1.9	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.5	1.8	2.2
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	2.4	2.3	2.3	1.9	2.3	2.1	1.8	2.3	2.7	2.2	2.3	2.5
Others	2.8	2.3	2.4	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.7	3.0	2.3	2.7	2.7
<u>Grand Total</u>	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.4	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.4

^a 'Tourist' here means hotel-user.^b West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

Source: Statistical Abstract, 1972.

Table 44 Visitor Nights per Foreign Tourist^a by Nationality^b and Grade of Hotel, 1973.

	Hostel ^c	Third	Second	First	De Luxe
Libya	0.2	2.6	1.7	2.0	2.2
Saudi Arabia	1.3	2.4	2.6	2.0	2.1
Kuwait	2.2	1.9	2.5	2.8	2.2
Qatar	1.6	1.9	2.5	1.7	2.1
Bahrain	1.8	2.4	1.7	1.8	2.8
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	1.2	2.3	2.4	2.1	2.2
Egypt	2.5	4.0	4.7	2.6	3.1
Lebanon	1.2	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.6
Iraq	1.4	2.1	2.2	2.4	1.9
Jordan and Palestine	1.6	2.0	1.8	1.9	1.7
Turkey	0.8	1.7	2.2	2.3	2.1
Iran	1.3	2.7	2.3	2.4	3.6
Cyprus	0.5	2.1	0.4	2.3	2.4
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	1.6	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.0
<u>Total Middle East</u>	1.6	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.0
West Europe	1.1	1.3	2.0	2.3	2.2
East Europe	3.0	2.1	3.5	6.4	3.2
North America	1.0	1.3	2.1	2.0	1.8
Oceania	1.4	1.4	1.9	2.9	2.3
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	2.0	1.6	2.6	4.9	2.4
Others	2.5	2.0	2.4	2.0	3.1
<u>Grand Total</u>	1.7	2.2	2.2	2.5	2.3

^a 'Tourist' here means hotel-user.

^b West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

^c This category comprises furnished apartments, and hotels with less than ten rooms in Damascus and Aleppo mohafazat, less than eight rooms in Lattakia mohafaza, and less than six rooms in other mohafazat.

Source: Statistical Abstract, 1974.

Table 45 Length of Stay of Total Foreign Tourists^a by Mohafaza, 1973.

Mohafaza	Length of Stay (Visitor Nights)
Damascus ^b	2.4
Aleppo	2.1
Lattakia	1.6
Homs	1.2
Hama	1.3
Deir ez Zor	1.7
Hasakeh	1.3
Tartous	2.8
Idlib	2.0
Raqqa	1.3
Der'a	1.7
Sweida	0.8

^a 'Tourists' here means hotel-users.

^b Note that wherever in this thesis data is given for a list of mohafazat which excludes Damascus City mohafaza then data for this latter mohafaza is included with that for Damascus mohafaza.

Source: OFA, n.d.a, pp.44-47; 53-57.

Table 46 Length of Stay (Visitor Nights) of Total Foreign Tourists^a
by Mohafaza and Hotel Class, 1973.

	Hostel ^b	Third	Second	First	De Luxe
Damascus	1.9	2.2	2.2	2.7	2.5
Aleppo	1.6	2.1	3.1	2.0	1.6
Lattakia	1.2	1.6	1.8	1.8	-
Homs	1.3	1.1	1.2	-	-
Hama	1.8	1.2	1.3	-	-
Deir ez Zor	0.9	2.0	1.0	-	-
Hasakeh	0.4	1.6	0.9	-	-
Tartous	2.8	2.5	7.3	-	-
Idlib	-	2.0	-	-	-
Raqqa	-	1.3	-	-	-
Der'a	-	1.7	-	-	-
Sweida	-	0.8	-	-	-

^a 'Tourists' here means hotel-users.

^b For accommodation included in this category see footnote c to Table 44.

Source: OFA, n.d.a, pp.44-47; 53-57.

be expected in the light of the data on lengths of stay by mohafaza discussed above, lengths of stay in all hotel classes tended to be greatest in Tartous, Damascus, Aleppo and Idlib mohafazat. Note also that while it has been shown that lengths of stay differ with mohafaza, lengths of stay in the same mohafaza also differ with hotel class.

Length of stay data must, before any firm conclusions can be drawn, be studied over a period of years and the current investigation has had the limited aim of illustrating that average length of stay figures for total visitors mask significant variations in length of stay by nationality, month, hotel class, etc. It is difficult in the absence of a special study of the issue to identify the exact reasons for all the variations in length of stay distinguished but some implications of these variations are discussed in section 14 of this chapter.

13. The Length of Stay Characteristics of Syrian Tourists

In 1972 and 1973 the average lengths of stay of Syrian tourists using commercial accommodation were 1.6 and 1.5 visitor nights, respectively. These are even lower than the equivalent figures for foreign tourists. From an inspection of Tables 47 and 48 it is evident that there is a slight tendency for Syrians to stay longer in commercial accommodation in the summer months, and a more marked tendency for the lengths of stay of Syrians to increase with grade of hotel. Further, from Table 49 it can be seen that Syrians tend to stay longest, 1.6 visitor nights, in Damascus, Aleppo, Lattakia and Tartous mohafazat. Table 50 shows that, as would be expected in view of the separate data on length of stay by mohafaza, there is a general tendency for Syrians using all classes of hotel to stay longest in Damascus, Aleppo, Lattakia and Tartous mohafazat. While length of stay in each

Table 47 Length of Stay of Syrian Tourists^a by Month, 1973

Month	Length of Stay (Visitor Nights)
January	1.5
February	1.5
March	1.5
April	1.5
May	1.6
June	1.6
July	1.6
August	1.7
September	1.5
October	1.4
November	1.5
December	1.3

^a i.e. hotel-users.

Source: OFA, n.d.a, pp.39; 52.

Table 48 Length of Stay of Syrian Tourists^a by Grade of Hotel, 1973

Hotel Grade	Length of Stay (Visitor Nights)
De Luxe	1.8
First	2.0
Second	1.8
Third	1.5
Hostel ^b	1.5

^a i.e. hotel-users.

^b For accommodation included in this category see footnote c to Table 44.

Source: OFA, n.d.a, pp. 44-47; 53-57.

Table 49 Length of Stay of Syrian Tourists^a by Mohafaza, 1973.

Mohafaza	Length of Stay (Visitor Nights)
Damascus	1.6
Aleppo	1.6
Lattakia	1.6
Homs	1.2
Hama	1.2
Deir ez Zor	1.0
Hasakeh	1.2
Tartous	1.6
Idlib	1.0
Raqqa	1.4
Der'a	0.8
Sweida	0.4

^a i.e. hotel-users.

Source: OFA, n.d.a, pp. 44-47; 53-57.

Table 50. Length of Stay (Visitor Nights) of Syrian Tourists^a by Mohafaza and Hotel Class, 1973.

	Hostel ^b	Third	Second	First	De Luxe
Damascus	1.5	1.5	1.7	2.2	1.9
Aleppo	1.7	1.6	2.1	1.6	1.6
Lattakia	1.4	1.5	2.2	2.8	-
Homs	1.3	1.1	1.2	-	-
Hama	1.3	1.2	2.0	-	-
Deir ez Zor	0.9	1.1	0.4	-	-
Hasakeh	0.9	1.1	1.8	-	-
Tartous	1.4	1.6	3.0	-	-
Idlib	-	1.0	-	-	-
Raqqa	-	1.4	-	-	-
Der'a	-	0.8	-	-	-
Sweida	-	0.4	-	-	-

^a i.e. hotel-users.

^b For accommodation included in this category see footnote c to Table 44.

Source: OFA, n.d.a, pp.44-47; 53-57.

mohafaza tends to increase with hotel class, which would be expected in the light of the data on length of stay by hotel class, this is not always the case. For example, in Aleppo mohafaza longest stays are in second class hotels followed by hostels, while the average lengths of stay were lower in de luxe, first class, and third class hotels.

14. Visitors to Syria by Purpose of Visit

A survey conducted by the OTAM consultant company during the preparation of one of their reports on Syrian tourism is the only investigation which has been undertaken into tourists' motives for visiting Syria (OTAM, 1972b, p.104). The survey took the form of a frontier interrogation of visitors leaving Syria in August 1972 at three frontier posts. 150 persons, 85 of Arab nationalities and 65 non-Arabs, were interviewed. However, quite apart from the small number of interviewees, which in any case renders the results of the survey somewhat insignificant, OTAM's investigation is of limited value since their conclusions on the interviewees' motives for visiting Syria were restricted to the statement that of the 150 respondents, 73 visited Syria for 'purely tourist reasons', 25 to visit their families, nine for business and five for study. It is not clear what is meant by 'purely tourist reasons' as persons travelling abroad to visit relatives or for business purposes and spending at least one night or longer than 24 hours in the country visited are, according to the IUOTO definition (IUOTO, 1973, p.5), classified as tourists. Possibly the phrase refers to those who visited the country for purposes of leisure but who did not visit friends or relatives. Even so, the motives of only 112 of the 150 interviewees are accounted for in OTAM's report. The reasons why the other 38 respondents visited Syria are anybody's guess.

A possibly more fruitful approach to the question of tourists' motives for visiting Syria is via an examination of the seasonal distributions of visitor arrivals and visitor nights, supplemented by a consideration of the length of stay characteristics of visitors and of their propensity to use commercial accommodation. It was shown earlier that visitor arrivals generated by all the Middle Eastern markets in 1971 displayed a marked peak in the summer months, with a small secondary peak in winter. Peaks of visitor arrivals in the summer and winter holiday periods are generally a sure sign that the travel being undertaken in these periods is for purposes of leisure. However, while travel undertaken by visitors from these markets may be predominantly for leisure purposes, the actual destination for the enjoyment of this leisure may not be Syria itself.

It was noted in an earlier section that the closure of the Lebanese border in 1973 had a much greater impact on visitor arrivals from the Middle Eastern markets than on visitor nights generated by these countries. Since the traveller transitting Syria en route to and from Lebanon will spend few, if any, nights in Syria this strongly suggests that a very large proportion of Middle Eastern tourists visit Syria purely for purposes of transit. This is substantiated by the very short periods of time spent in Syria by (with the exception of Egyptians) visitors from these countries (see Table 42). That a large proportion of Middle Eastern tourists does not use commercial accommodation lends further weight to the argument that transit is a prime motive for many of these tourists' visits to Syria.¹ The important role played by Syria as a transit country stems naturally from its geographical position

¹ Further evidence for this argument is provided by the importance of road transport for tourists from many regional countries which are distant from, or possess poor overland links with, Syria. See p.125.

athwart the major east-west and north-south routes across the Middle East. Nevertheless, while it can be postulated that transit is a major travel motive for regional tourists, the fact that the peak of visitor nights generated by these visitors in the summer months was only very slightly affected by the 1973 closure of the Lebaneses border from May to August indicates that for many Syria is itself the destination country. Further, it is evident from the presence of mountain resorts in Syria that a significant proportion of Middle Eastern visitors, and in particular a large proportion of oil state tourists who are especially eager to escape from the summer heat and humidity at home, visits Syria in summer in order to enjoy the cool climate of the mountains¹.

The seasonal distribution of visitor arrivals generated by non-Middle Eastern markets (East European arrivals are excluded from consideration at this point) is more even than that of arrivals from the Middle Eastern countries but summer, and to a lesser extent winter, peaks do occur. It can be inferred from this that, while a large proportion of tourists from these markets visits Syria for leisure purposes, a significant proportion visits for business reasons since, unlike the leisure traveller, the businessman does not confine his visits to the holiday periods. On the other hand, the fact that visitor arrivals from West Europe, North America, and Oceania were more affected by the 1973 closure of the Syrian-Lebanese border than were visitor nights generated by these markets strongly suggests that for visitors from these markets too transit is an important motive for visiting Syria. This conclusion is again substantiated by the short periods of time spent by these visitors in Syria².

¹ The Syrian climate, even in non-mountainous regions, is cooler in summer than that in many other areas of the Middle East. It is thus probable that many visitors from these latter areas who do not actually stay in the mountains also visit Syria in summer in order to experience the Syrian climate although this will not necessarily be their primary travel motive.

² Further evidence for this argument is provided by the importance of road transport for tourists from many non-regional countries which are distant from, or possess poor overland links with, Syria. See p.125.

It is probable that a large proportion of visitors from North America and Lebanon does not visit Syria for purposes of transit, but for day trips. There are three main factors which point to this. Firstly, visitor arrivals accounted for by these markets were affected more severely by the 1973 closure of the Lebanese border than were visitor nights generated by these countries. Secondly, it was noted in an earlier section that the lengths of stay in Syria of visitors from these countries were amongst the lowest for all markets. Finally, it has been shown that the proportion of visitors from these markets which stays in commercial accommodation in Syria is very low. The day trips, taken mainly for sightseeing and shopping purposes, would mostly be from Beirut to Damascus and return.

The extremely even seasonal distribution of both visitor arrivals and visitor nights generated by East European countries and Syria's close ties with these states suggest that the majority of visitors from this market group travel to Syria for business, military, or political purposes. That business travel is important for visitors from this market is substantiated by the large proportion of East Europeans that uses commercial accommodation, a feature typical of business travel.

It can be tentatively concluded that transit, particularly to and from Lebanon, is by far the most important single reason for foreigners' visits to Syria and this will probably remain the case for many years to come. Business travel is currently at a low level and may be expected to grow at a rate similar to that of the Syrian economy. Leisure travel, with Syria as the destination, is at present very underdeveloped being confined essentially to day trips from Lebanon undertaken mainly by Lebanese and by North Americans resident in Lebanon or visiting the country, and to a small, but nevertheless important, estivage tourist trade based on the mountain resorts of western Syria, with

the Middle East states and notably the Arab oil states bordering the Arabian Gulf, as the major markets. It is in the sphere of leisure tourism that Syria has the brightest long term prospects but there will be no significant expansion of such tourism until the political situation in the Middle East has stabilized.

The extremely even seasonal distribution of Syrians' visitor nights and hotel arrivals suggests that Syrians using commercial accommodation are mainly business travellers, although it can be implied from the small peaks in summer and winter that a sizeable proportion of travel in these periods is for leisure purposes.

15. The Hotel Industry in Syria

The numbers of hotels¹, hotel rooms, and hotel beds in Syria in each year in the 1969-1973 period are shown in Table 51. 1969 is the first year for which such data is available. Two features are immediately striking: firstly, the very small numbers involved, and, secondly, the fact that the numbers of hotels, rooms, and beds have remained static over the years. These features stem directly from the relatively small numbers of arrivals and visitor nights registered in Syria each year and from the erratic development of arrivals and visitor nights from one year to the next. Table 52 shows the distribution of hotels, rooms, and beds by mohafaza and by class of hotel in 1973. Table 53 presents the same data in percentages. It is immediately apparent that accommodation facilities in Syria are overwhelmingly concentrated in Damascus and Aleppo, these two mohafazat together accounting for 57.5 per cent of total hotels, 68 per cent of total rooms, and 64.8 per cent of total hotel beds. Lattakia mohafaza lies in third place with 9.8 per cent of hotels, 9.1 per cent of rooms, and 9 per cent of beds.

¹ i.e. of 'hotels' as defined in Syrian tourist statistics. See footnote c to Table 44.

Table 51 Numbers of Hotels, Hotel Rooms, and Hotel Beds in Syria^a.

Year	Hotels	Rooms	Beds
1969	468	7,892	17,529
1970	444	7,549	17,052
1971	462	7,897	17,659
1972	462	7,897	17,659
1973	461	7,900	17,871

^a These figures refer only to de luxe, first, second and third class hotels.

Source: Statistical Abstract, 1969-70 to 1974.

Table 52 Numbers of Hotels, Hotel Rooms, and Hotel Beds by Mohafaza and Class of Hotel, 1973.

	Total	Quneitra	Tartous	Der'a	Sweida	Raqqa	Hasakeh	Idlib	Deir ez Zor	Lattakia	Hama	Homs	Aleppo	Damascus
<u>De Luxe</u>														
Hotels	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	5
Rooms	565	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	150	415
Beds	891	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	212	679
<u>First Class</u>														
Hotels	29	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	2	-	2	6	18
Rooms	1,134	-	-	-	20	-	-	-	-	82	-	140	193	699
Beds	2,162	-	-	-	40	-	-	-	-	156	-	332	308	1,326
<u>Second Class</u>														
Hotels	69	-	4	-	-	3	4	2	1	8	1	7	9	30
Rooms	1,360	-	63	-	-	33	66	32	21	142	18	111	215	659
Beds	2,772	-	136	-	-	77	132	58	40	300	40	259	373	1,357
<u>Third Class</u>														
Hotels	356	-	21	2	2	6	23	12	21	35	20	19	90	105
Rooms	4,841	-	204	16	11	63	299	79	232	491	180	228	1,374	1,664
Beds	12,046	-	579	61	30	182	804	211	653	1,155	457	606	3,315	3,993
<u>Grand Total</u>														
Hotels	461	-	25	2	3	9	27	14	22	45	21	28	107	158
Rooms	7,900	-	267	16	31	96	365	111	253	715	198	479	1,932	3,437
Beds	17,871	-	715	61	70	259	936	269	693	1,611	497	1,197	4,208	7,355

Source: Statistical Abstract, 1974.

Table 53 Percentages of Hotels, Hotel Rooms, and Hotel Beds by Mohafaza and Class of Hotel, 1973.

	Total	Quneitra	Tartous	Der'a	Sweida	Raqqa	Hasakeh	Idlib	Deir ez Zor	Lattakia	Hama	Homs	Aleppo	Damascus
<u>De Luxe</u>														
Hotels	1.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	28.6	71.4
Rooms	6.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	26.6	73.5
Beds	4.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	23.8	76.2
<u>First Class</u>														
Hotels	4.9	-	-	-	3.4	-	-	-	-	6.9	-	6.9	20.7	62.1
Rooms	13.0	-	-	-	1.8	-	-	-	-	7.2	-	12.4	17.0	61.6
Beds	10.8	-	-	-	1.9	-	-	-	-	7.2	-	15.4	14.3	61.3
<u>Second Class</u>														
Hotels	11.7	-	5.8	-	-	4.3	5.8	2.9	1.5	11.6	1.5	10.1	13.0	43.5
Rooms	15.6	-	4.6	-	-	2.4	4.9	2.4	1.5	10.4	1.3	8.2	15.8	48.5
Beds	13.8	-	4.9	-	-	2.8	4.8	2.1	1.4	10.8	1.4	9.3	13.5	49.0
<u>Third Class</u>														
Hotels	60.5	-	5.9	0.6	0.6	1.7	6.5	3.4	5.9	9.8	5.6	5.3	25.3	29.5
Rooms	55.6	-	4.2	0.3	0.2	1.3	6.2	1.6	4.8	10.1	3.7	4.7	28.4	34.4
Beds	60.0	-	4.8	0.5	0.3	1.5	6.7	1.8	5.4	9.6	3.8	5.0	27.5	33.2
<u>Grand Total</u>														
Hotels	100.2	-	5.4	0.4	0.7	2.0	5.9	3.0	4.8	9.8	4.6	6.1	23.2	34.3
Rooms	100.1	-	3.4	0.2	0.4	1.2	4.6	1.4	3.2	9.1	2.5	6.1	24.5	43.5
Beds	100.1	-	4.0	0.3	0.4	1.5	5.2	1.5	3.9	9.0	2.8	6.7	23.6	41.2

Source: Derived from Table 52.

It is also clear from Table 53 that the bulk of Syrian hotels, rooms, and beds are in the third class category, while an examination of the data in Table 54 reveals that, as would be expected, the numbers of rooms and beds per hotel are directly proportional, and the number of beds per room is inversely proportional, to hotel grade. Thus, the bulk of hotel accommodation available in Syria is in small establishments with, frequently, more than two beds per room. More important than sheer size or bed/room ratio, however, is the quality of tourist accommodation and in this respect the majority of hotels in Syria leave much to be desired. A first class hotel in Syria is by no means up to the same standard as a first class hotel in, say, Europe. Indeed, only the de luxe hotels and a minority of the first class hotels meet the requirements of the majority of tourists from developed countries.

In addition to the hotels as such, a number of furnished apartments and 'hostels'¹ are available as tourist accommodation. The amount and distribution by class and mohafaza of this supplementary accommodation is presented in Table 55. The same data is presented in percentages in Table 56. A marked concentration in Damascus and Aleppo mohafazat is again apparent. Also the Syrian Youth Hostels Association maintains seven youth hostels, with a total of 120 beds, located for the most part in the major towns of Syria². Finally, there are a number of organized camp sites, two on the outskirts of Damascus, and one each at Aleppo, Hama, Tartous (this latter being open only in summer), and Ras Bassit on the coast near the Turkish border.³

¹ Defined in footnote c to Table 44.

² It is not clear whether these are included in the statistics on hotels as such or in the data on supplementary accommodation.

³ It is not clear whether arrivals at camp sites are included in the available data on arrivals at commercial accommodation.

Table 54 Some Data on Syrian Hotels, 1973

Hotel Grade	Rooms per Hotel ^a	Beds per Hotel ^a	Beds per Room ^a
De Luxe	80.7	127.3	1.6
First Class	39.1	74.6	1.9
Second Class	19.7	40.2	2.0
Third Class	13.6	33.8	2.5

^a All figures are averages for each grade of hotel.

Source: Derived from Table 52.

Table 55 Furnished Apartments and Hostels^a and Rooms and Beds Therein by Mohafaza, 1973.

	Quneitra	Tartous	Der'a	Sweida	Raqqa	Hasakeh	Idlib	Deir ez Zor	Lattakia	Hama	Homs	Aleppo	Damascus	Total
Furnished apartments and hostels	-	5	-	-	-	1	2	3	22	8	5	35	46	127
Rooms	-	16	-	-	-	2	12	20	107	41	29	260	317	804
Beds	-	51	-	-	-	6	30	68	316	107	98	672	866	2,214

^a For accommodation included in this category see footnote c to Table 44.

Source: Statistical Abstract, 1974.

Table 56 Percentages of Furnished Apartments and Hostels^a and of Rooms and Beds Therein by Mohafaza, 1973.

	Quneitra	Tartous	Der'a	Sweida	Raqqa	Hasakeh	Idlib	Deir ez Zor	Lattakia	Hama	Homs	Aleppo	Damascus	Total
Furnished apartments and hostels	-	3.9	-	-	-	0.8	1.6	2.4	17.3	6.3	3.9	27.6	36.2	100.0
Rooms	-	2.0	-	-	-	0.3	1.5	2.5	13.3	5.1	3.6	32.3	39.4	100.0
Beds	-	2.3	-	-	-	0.3	1.4	3.1	14.3	4.8	4.4	30.4	39.1	100.1

^a For accommodation included in this category see footnote c to Table 44.

Source: Derived from Table 55.

The numbers of visitors using commercial accommodation in 1973 by nationality and grade of hotel are shown in Table 57, while Table 58 shows, for the same year, the proportions of hotel-users of each nationality according to the class of hotel stayed at. It can be seen that whereas only 27.1 per cent of Middle Easterners stayed at de luxe and first class hotels, the proportion rises to 63.2 per cent in the case of tourists from the developed world¹. The numbers of visitor nights registered by grade of hotel in 1973 and the proportions of visitor nights registered by grade of hotel in the same year are presented in Tables 59 and 60, respectively. Again, the demand from non-Middle Eastern visitors for the two highest hotel grades is apparent. 26.1 per cent of visitor nights generated by Middle Eastern visitors was accounted for by de luxe and first class hotels, while this proportion rises to 73.6 per cent in the case of non-regional tourists.

Tables 61 and 62 show for 1973 the numbers and proportions of Syrian hotel-users by grade of hotel and of Syrians' visitor nights by grade of hotel, respectively. Clearly the distribution of Syrian hotel-users and visitor nights by grade of hotel conforms to the Middle Eastern pattern with 86.8 per cent of arrivals at commercial accommodation and 83.7 per cent of visitor nights being accounted for by the two lowest grades of hotel. All the foregoing 1973 statistics on visitor arrivals and visitor nights by grade of hotel are fully representative of those for other years in the period under review.

¹ Note, however, that the figures for some individual markets within the two main categories differ from the overall figures for these major categories. The limitations of the data in Tables 57 and 58 have already been mentioned (see p.129).

Table 57 Foreign Hotel-Users by Nationality^a and Grade of Hotel, 1973.

	Hostel ^b	Third Class	Second Class	First Class	De Luxe
Libya	476	748	850	754	553
Saudi Arabia	763	5,750	5,189	7,801	1,348
Kuwait	280	1,210	1,092	1,755	806
Qatar	23	413	167	418	191
Bahrain	101	604	409	386	75
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	1,643	8,725	7,707	11,114	2,973
Egypt	5,056	20,831	7,301	5,075	2,101
Lebanon	5,335	18,348	13,096	12,013	7,844
Iraq	2,413	26,784	12,451	12,077	2,989
Jordan and Palestine	9,107	64,637	35,214	27,695	4,538
Turkey	1,544	8,140	1,722	1,819	857
Iran	178	2,218	2,145	2,967	782
Cyprus	8	184	183	65	107
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	23,641	141,142	72,112	61,711	19,218
<u>Total Middle East</u>	25,284	149,867	79,819	72,825	22,191
West Europe	891	3,845	6,041	4,771	11,772
East Europe	830	2,425	4,637	10,007	5,127
North America	111	560	612	725	1,854
Oceania	61	248	306	211	847
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	1,893	7,078	11,596	15,714	19,600
Others	3,086	17,205	5,232	6,010	3,893
<u>Grand Total</u>	30,263	174,150	96,647	94,549	45,684

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

^b For accommodation included in this category see footnote c to Table 44.

Source: Statistical Abstract, 1974.

Table 58 Foreign Hotel-Users by Nationality^a and Grade of Hotel as a Proportion of Total Foreign Hotel-Users of Each Nationality, 1973.

	Hostel ^b	Third Class	Second Class	First Class	De Luxe
Libya	14.1	22.1	25.1	22.3	16.4
Saudi Arabia	3.7	27.6	24.9	37.4	6.5
Kuwait	5.4	23.5	21.2	34.1	15.7
Qatar	1.9	34.1	13.8	34.5	15.8
Bahrain	6.4	38.4	26.0	24.5	4.8
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	5.1	27.1	24.0	34.6	9.2
Egypt	12.5	51.6	18.1	12.6	5.2
Lebanon	9.4	32.4	23.1	21.2	13.9
Iraq	4.3	47.2	22.0	21.3	5.3
Jordan and Palestine	6.5	45.8	24.9	19.6	3.2
Turkey	11.0	57.8	12.2	12.9	6.1
Iran	2.2	26.8	25.9	35.8	9.4
Cyprus	1.5	33.6	33.5	11.9	19.6
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	7.4	44.4	22.7	19.4	6.1
<u>Total Middle East</u>	7.2	42.8	22.8	20.8	6.3
West Europe	3.3	14.1	22.1	17.5	43.1
East Europe	3.6	10.5	20.1	43.5	22.3
North America	2.9	14.5	15.9	18.8	48.0
Oceania	3.7	14.8	18.3	12.6	50.6
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	3.4	12.7	20.8	28.1	35.1
Others	8.7	48.6	14.8	17.0	11.0
<u>Grand Total</u>	6.9	39.5	21.9	21.4	10.4

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

^b For accommodation included in this category see footnote c to Table 44.

Source: Derived from Table 57.

Table 59 Foreign Visitor Nights by Nationality^a and Grade of Hotel, 1973.

	Hostel ^b	Third Class	Second Class	First Class	De Luxe
Libya	96	1,966	1,472	1,532	1,225
Saudi Arabia	1,016	13,642	13,328	15,257	2,788
Kuwait	624	2,338	2,680	4,909	1,790
Qatar	36	795	419	705	406
Bahrain	183	1,438	710	693	209
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	1,955	20,179	18,609	23,096	6,418
Egypt	12,603	83,597	34,033	13,388	6,519
Lebanon	6,562	28,320	18,969	19,937	12,839
Iraq	3,470	55,926	27,603	28,713	5,669
Jordan and Palestine	14,242	131,125	61,500	53,482	7,815
Turkey	1,171	13,796	3,840	4,182	1,795
Iran	236	6,014	4,870	6,998	2,779
Cyprus	4	393	73	152	251
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	38,288	319,171	150,888	126,852	37,667
<u>Total Middle East</u>	40,243	339,350	169,497	149,948	44,085
West Europe	1,014	5,128	11,870	11,141	25,500
East Europe	2,478	5,154	16,017	63,690	16,370
North America	115	718	1,249	1,424	3,331
Oceania	84	335	580	618	1,944
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	3,691	11,335	29,716	76,873	47,145
Others	7,718	34,736	12,460	12,002	11,879
<u>Grand Total</u>	51,652	385,421	211,673	238,823	103,109

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

^b For accommodation included in this category see footnote c to Table 44.

Source: Statistical Abstract, 1974.

Table 60 Foreign Visitor Nights by Nationality^a and Grade of Hotel as a Proportion of Total Foreign Visitor Nights of Each Nationality, 1973.

	Hostel ^b	Third Class	Second Class	First Class	De Luxe
Libya	1.5	31.3	23.4	24.4	19.5
Saudi Arabia	2.2	29.6	29.0	33.2	6.1
Kuwait	5.1	19.0	21.7	39.8	14.5
Qatar	1.5	33.7	17.8	30.0	17.2
Bahrain	5.7	44.5	22.0	21.4	6.5
<u>Total Middle East Oil States</u>	2.8	28.7	26.5	32.9	9.1
Egypt	8.4	55.7	22.7	8.9	4.3
Lebanon	7.6	32.7	21.9	23.0	14.8
Iraq	2.9	46.1	22.7	23.7	4.7
Jordan and Palestine	5.3	48.9	22.9	19.9	2.9
Turkey	4.7	55.7	15.5	16.9	7.2
Iran	1.1	28.8	23.3	33.5	13.3
Cyprus	0.5	45.0	8.4	17.4	28.8
<u>Total Middle East Non-Oil States</u>	5.7	47.4	22.4	18.9	5.6
<u>Total Middle East</u>	5.4	45.7	22.8	20.2	5.9
West Europe	1.9	9.4	21.7	20.4	46.7
East Europe	2.4	5.0	15.4	61.4	15.8
North America	1.7	10.5	18.3	20.8	48.7
Oceania	2.4	9.4	16.3	17.4	54.6
<u>Total Non-Middle East</u>	2.2	6.7	17.6	45.6	28.0
Others	9.8	44.1	15.8	15.2	15.1
<u>Grand Total</u>	5.2	38.9	21.4	24.1	10.4

^a West Europe, East Europe, and Oceania are constituted as in Table 20.

^b For accommodation included in this category see footnote c to Table 44.

Source: Derived from Table 59.

Table 61 Syrian Hotel-Users by Grade of Hotel, 1973.

Hostel ^a	%	Third Class	%	Second Class	%	First Class	%	De Luxe	%
213,658	15.0	1,021,170	71.8	116,409	8.2	63,707	4.5	7,531	0.5

^a For accommodation included in this category see footnote c to Table 44.

Source: OFA, n.d.a, pp.53-57.

Table 62 The Visitor Nights of Syrians by Grade of Hotel, 1973.

Hostel ^a	%	Third Class	%	Second Class	%	First Class	%	De Luxe	%
317,257	14.8	1,479,076	68.9	206,522	9.6	130,128	6.1	13,442	0.6

^a For accommodation included in this category see footnote c to Table 44.

Source: OFA, n.d.a, pp.44-47.

The lack of suitable accommodation has been a major constraint on Syria's ability to attract international tourists, particularly tourists from the developed countries. That this problem is recognized is evident from the spate of hotel projects either recently completed or currently under way. The 42 room Damascus International Airport Hotel, which contains a casino, was opened in August 1972 and the Grand Hotel in the summer resort of Bludan was renovated in time for the summer season of 1974. In February 1975 the 133 room Damascus International Hotel was opened. All these hotels are luxury establishments. In August 1973 Inter-G, a French company, began the construction of an \$11 million, 400 room, luxury hotel in Damascus which is being funded by, and will be operated by, the M ridien company, a subsidiary of Air France. In September of the same year it was reported that Inter-G had won a £\$35 million¹ contract to build a further three international class hotels in Palmyra, Aleppo and Lattakia (MEED, Vol. 17, No.37, 14th September, 1973, p.1078). These hotels are also to be financed and operated by M ridien and construction of the first, at Palmyra, began in March 1975. On 25th January, 1974 it was announced that a 350 room Sheraton hotel, costing about \$15 million, was to be built in Damasucs (MEED, Vol.18, No.5, 1st February, 1974, p.134). Construction began in March 1974. Finally, construction began in 1973 of 42 second class category motel units with a total of 140 beds at Jdeidat al Wadi on the Beirut road on the outskirts of Damascus, although in mid-1975 these were still not complete. Clearly the current severe shortage of high quality tourist accommodation in Syria will soon be eased, to some extent at least.

¹ 1973: One Syrian Pound = £0.10.

The total numbers of visitor nights registered in commercial accommodation in the years 1969-1973, the proportions of these nights accounted for by Syrians and foreigners and the overall annual bed-occupancy rates in the same years are presented in Table 63. It is quite clear that the Syrian hotel industry currently depends primarily on the domestic market. In the 1969-1973 period an average of 70.6 per cent of total visitor nights (i.e. those of foreigners plus those of Syrians) in each year was accounted for by Syrians. At first sight the bed-occupancy rates appear low but it must be borne in mind that a number of summer mountain resort hotels close for a part of the year and the true occupancy rates will thus be considerably higher.

A major problem which faces the hotel industries of many countries with developed tourist industries is the marked peaking of visitor nights in the summer season. Thus, in summer hotels are utilized to capacity and in some years there are even summer shortages of accommodation. By contrast, in the off season there is a severe under-utilization of hotel capacity. Monthly total visitor nights (i.e. those of foreigners plus those of Syrians) statistics for 1971 are presented in Table 64, shown as percentages in Table 65, and shown graphically in Figure 9. It was demonstrated in an earlier section that the severe peaking which characterizes foreign visitor nights during the summer season is not a feature of the seasonal distribution of the visitor nights generated by Syrians. Further, it was noted that the visitor nights of Syrians are much more numerous than those registered by foreigners. It therefore follows that while the occupancy rates of commercial accommodation in the summer season are higher than in the rest of the year there is at present no serious problem of seasonality. Thus, in the four summer months from June to September 1971,

Table 63 Visitor Nights Registered in Commercial Accommodation and Bed Occupancy Rates, 1969-1973.

Year	Total Visitor Nights	% of Visitor Nights Accounted for by Foreigners	% of Visitor Nights Accounted for by Syrians	Annual Bed Occupancy Rate ^a %
1969	3,021,436	26.7	73.3	41.5
1970	3,062,850	27.4	72.6	43.2
1971	3,133,924	31.7	68.3	43.1
1972	3,228,201	29.5	70.5	44.3
1973	3,137,103	31.6	68.4	42.8

^a Total beds in hotels, hostels, and furnished apartments were used in the calculation of the figures in this column.

Source: Derived from Tables 32 and 36 and from Statistical Abstract, 1969-70 to 1973.

Table 64 The Seasonal Distribution of Visitor Nights, 1971

Month	Visitor Nights of Syrians	Visitor Nights of Foreigners	Total Visitor Nights
January	196,168	55,025	251,193
February	158,708	70,039	228,747
March	171,831	61,315	233,146
April	169,052	76,663	245,715
May	168,993	72,369	241,362
June	177,365	97,454	274,819
July	174,673	124,653	299,326
August	175,901	126,062	301,963
September	200,791	97,422	298,213
October	188,450	73,225	261,675
November	170,599	67,353	237,952
December	188,043	71,770	259,813
<u>Total</u>	2,140,574	993,350	3,133,924

Source: Table 37 and Ministry of Tourism figures.

Table 65 Percentages of Visitor Nights Recorded by Month, 1971

Month	Visitor Nights of Syrians	Visitor Nights of Foreigners	Total Visitor Nights
January	9.2	5.5	8.0
February	7.4	7.1	7.3
March	8.0	6.2	7.4
April	7.9	7.7	7.8
May	7.9	7.3	7.7
June	8.3	9.8	8.8
July	8.2	12.6	9.6
August	8.2	12.7	9.6
September	9.4	9.8	9.5
October	8.8	7.4	8.4
November	8.0	6.8	7.6
December	8.8	7.2	8.3
<u>Total</u>	100.1	100.1	100.0

Source: Derived from Table 64.

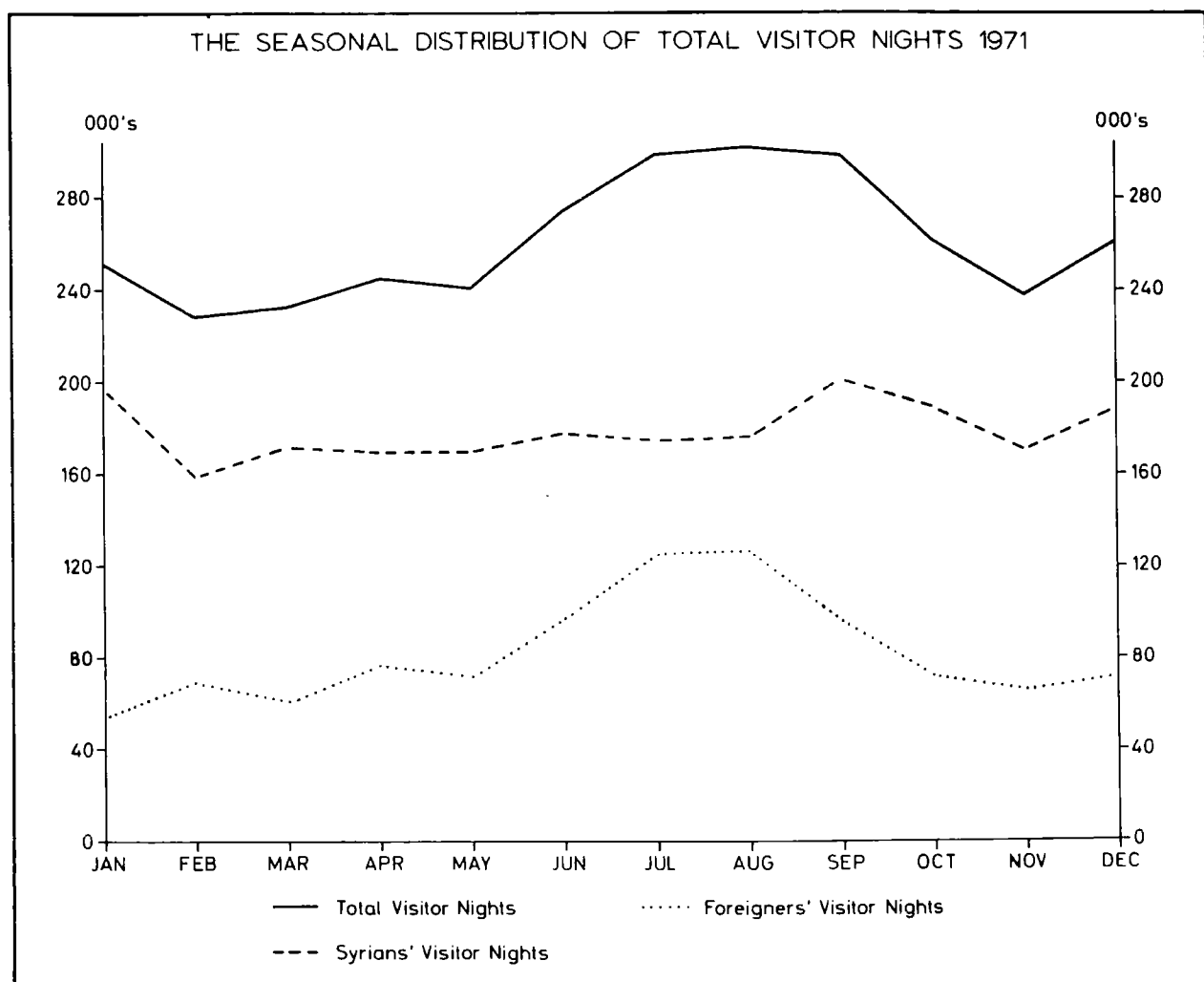


Figure 9

for example, 48.3 per cent of the total supply of 2,429,508 bed-nights in commercial accommodation was utilized. In the other eight months of the same year 40.5 per cent of the available capacity of 4,839,102 bed-nights was utilized¹. The figures for 1971 are, it must be stressed, for a year in which the seasonal distribution of total visitor nights was free from abnormalities. In politically disturbed years the typical (1971) distribution can be distorted so that an element of 'political seasonality' is introduced. In 1973, for example, the average bed-occupancy rate in the June-September period was 51.2 per cent while for the rest of the year it was only 38.6 per cent. Nevertheless, should the situation develop where international tourists were the major market for Syrian tourist accommodation there is little doubt that even in politically calm years the seasonality of visitor nights would become a major problem.

An inspection of Table 66 reveals that occupancy rates differ between the different classes of hotels. Thus, higher than average bed-occupancy rates were achieved in 1971 by first class hotels and the accommodation coming under the category 'hostels' while third class hotels achieved about average occupancy rates and de luxe and second class hotels recorded below average rates. This pattern is repeated in other years but available information allows no conclusions to be drawn as to the reasons for these different occupancy rates.

Table 67 shows the geographical distributions of total visitor nights and of visitor nights registered by Syrians and foreigners in 1971. Table 68 presents the same data in percentages. It would be expected that the spatial distributions of commercial accommodation and of total visitor nights would show a close correspondence and a comparison of Tables

¹ The calculation of the occupancy rate for these eight months took no account of the fact that a number of mountain summer resort hotels close during the off season. The true occupancy rate for the 1973 off season would thus have been higher than the figure cited here.

Table 66 Bed Occupancy Rates by Hotel Class, 1971

Hotel Class	Bed Occupancy Rate %
De Luxe	38.1
First	44.1
Second	35.5
Third	43.3
Hostel ^a	52.0

^a For accommodation included in this category see footnote c to Table 44.

Source: Statistical Abstract, 1972 and Ministry of Tourism figures.

Table 67 Visitor Nights by Mohafaza^a, 1971.

Mohafaza	Visitor Nights of Syrians	Visitor Nights of Arab Foreigners	Visitor Nights of Non-Arab Foreigners	Visitor Nights of All Foreigners	Total Visitor Nights
Damascus	870,407	663,618	107,165	770,783	1,641,190
Aleppo	683,431	95,547	41,930	137,477	820,908
Lattakia	137,922	16,468	8,373	24,841	162,763
Homs	107,175	14,349	6,868	21,217	128,392
Hama	70,078	4,173	1,474	5,647	75,725
Deir ez Zor	67,968	2,147	524	2,671	70,639
Hasakeh	101,672	4,323	1,520	5,843	107,515
Raqqa	38,631	3,466	1,000	4,466	43,097
Idlib	17,753	303	14	317	18,070
Sweida	3,809	338	-	338	4,147
Der'a	2,251	3,962	48	4,010	6,261
Tartous	39,477	13,624	2,116	15,740	55,217
<u>Total</u>	2,140,574	822,318	171,032	993,350	3,133,924

^a Note that, because the majority of hotels are located in the mohafaza capital towns and cities, the majority of visitor nights are actually registered in those same capitals.

Source: Ministry of Tourism figures.

Table 68 Percentages of Visitor Nights by Mohafaza, 1971.

Mchafaza	Visitor Nights of Syrians	Visitor Nights of Arab Foreigners	Visitor Nights of Non-Arab Foreigners	Visitor Nights of All Foreigners	Total Visitor Nights
Damascus	40.7	80.7	62.7	77.6	52.4
Aleppo	31.9	11.6	24.5	13.8	26.2
Lattakia	6.4	2.0	4.9	2.5	5.2
Homs	5.0	1.8	4.0	2.1	4.1
Hama	3.3	0.5	0.9	0.6	2.4
Deir ez Zor	3.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	2.3
Hasakeh	4.8	0.5	0.9	0.6	3.4
Raqqa	1.8	0.4	0.6	0.5	1.4
Idlib	0.8	0.04	0.01	0.03	0.6
Sweida	0.2	0.04	-	0.03	0.1
Der'a	0.1	0.5	0.03	0.4	0.2
Tartous	1.8	1.7	1.2	1.6	1.8
<u>Total</u>	100.0	100.1	100.0	100.1	100.1

Source: Derived from Table 67.

67 and 68 with Tables 52 and 53 shows that this is the case. Nevertheless, the geographical distributions of visitor nights and beds in commercial accommodation do not correspond exactly. Thus, Damascus mohafaza, with 41.3 per cent of beds in 1971¹ recorded 52.4 per cent of visitor nights, and Aleppo mohafaza, with 24.4 per cent of total beds, recorded 26.2 per cent of total visitor nights. On the other hand, Lattakia mohafaza, with 9.6 per cent of beds received only 5.2 per cent of visitor nights, and Homs mohafaza, with 7.1 per cent of beds, received only 4.1 per cent of nights. This 1971 pattern is reflected in the equivalent statistics for other years. Clearly, while tourist accommodation is heavily concentrated in Damascus and Aleppo, tourist activity is even more concentrated in these two mohafazat.

In 1971 much greater proportions, 40.7 per cent and 31.9 per cent, respectively, of visitor nights generated by Syrians were registered in Damascus and Aleppo mohafazat than in any other mohafazat although appreciable proportions (over 3 per cent) were also recorded in Lattakia, Homs, Hama, Hasakeh, and Deir ez Zor mohafazat. In sharp contrast, the visitor nights of foreign tourists were overwhelmingly concentrated in Damascus, to the extent of over 77 per cent, while a further 13.8 per cent were registered in Aleppo. Of the other mohafazat, only Lattakia and Homs received proportions as great as 2 per cent. Evidently the two groups of tourists identified, Syrians and foreigners, display different patterns in the geographical distributions of their visitor nights and these patterns are repeated in other years. However, in the absence of a special study of the issue it is difficult to isolate the reasons behind these contrasting

¹ Data on the spatial distribution of visitor nights in 1971 is used here as this was a politically untroubled year. The proportions of beds referred to are the proportions of all beds in commercial accommodation in Syria.

distributions.

Because the proportions of total visitor nights registered by mohafaza differ from the proportions of total beds in the various mohafazat, bed-occupancy rates also differ from one mohafaza to another. Table 69 shows the bed-occupancy rates achieved by accommodation establishments in 1971 by mohafaza. These 1971 rates are representative of those for other years. Hotels in Damascus and Aleppo achieved higher than average (1971 average: 43.1 per cent) occupancy rates whereas all other mohafazat, except Der'a and Raqqa, achieved rates well below average. The high occupancy rates for Der'a and Raqqa should not be accorded too much significance as only ten hotels are involved. Because the economic benefits of the Syrian tourist industry are currently concentrated in the two parts of Syria which are in any case the most developed in the country, a major long term objective of the Syrian tourist authorities must be to plan the future development of the industry in such a way that areas away from Damascus and Aleppo, such as the north west coastal region, receive greater benefits from tourism.

In the foregoing analysis of visitor arrivals, visitor nights, and the hotel industry, an attempt has been made to present only an overall view of the major characteristics of Syria's tourist trade. It is recognized that there has, as a result, been some sacrifice of detail. For example, the visitor nights of the various nationalities and market groups by mohafaza, by month and mohafaza, by hotel class and month, and by hotel class and mohafaza could have been investigated. Similarly, a detailed analysis of the length of stay characteristics of visitors from the various markets by mohafaza, by hotel class, by hotel class and mohafaza, and by month and mohafaza could have been undertaken as well as detailed studies of other aspects of Syrian tourism. It is felt, however, that the inclusion of such detailed studies would have detracted from the clarity of presentation of the overall view of Syria's tourist trade.

Table 69 Bed Occupancy Rates by Mohafaza, 1971.

Mohafaza	Rate ^a (%)
Damascus	54.7
Aleppo	46.3
Lattakia	23.4
Homs	24.8
Hama	36.4
Deir ez Zor	24.0
Hasakeh	34.5
Raqqa	45.6
Idlib	17.8
Sweida	37.9
Der'a	95.3
Tartous	21.7

^a Total beds in hotels and supplementary accommodation were used in the calculation of the figures in this column.

Source: Derived from Statistical Abstract, 1972 and from Table 67.

16. The Economic Significance of Syria's Tourist Trade

Syria's gross receipts from international tourism in the years 1965-1973, her gross credits in the goods and services sector of the current account of the balance of payments in the same years, and the annual share of gross tourist income in the total credits of the goods and services sector are presented in the first four columns of Table 70. Balance of payments statistics at constant prices are available only for the years 1970-1973 and it is thus difficult to comment on the development of real gross income from tourism over the years. It would seem, however, that there has been a tendency to a real growth in tourist credits, but that this growth has not been regular from one year to the next. It is clear, for example, that real credits from tourism declined sharply in 1967. It is very probable that annual variations in real gross income from tourism are mainly a consequence of annual variations in the levels of visitor arrivals and visitor nights and are therefore caused mainly by political events.¹ What does emerge clearly from Table 70 is that tourism has played an increasingly important role in the balance of payments in recent years, having expanded its share of total goods and services credits from 3.7 per cent in 1965 to 9 per cent in 1973.

It was noted in Chapter One, however, that statements of gross tourist receipts as expressions of the magnitude of tourist income are somewhat misleading as the import component of tourist spending is not taken into account. If it is assumed that for Syria net receipts from tourism constitute at least 70 per cent of gross receipts² (see p.27).

¹ Note, however, that while total visitor arrivals and visitor nights in 1971 were at a higher level than in 1972 or 1973, income from tourism in 1971 was at a lower level than in 1972 or 1973. This suggests strongly that the data in Table 70 should be approached with some caution.

² OTAM (1972a, p.122) assumed the import component of Syria's receipts from international tourists in 1970 to be 57 per cent. This figure, however, seems unreasonably high.

Table 70 Syria's Tourist Income (Millions of Syrian Pounds at Current Prices)

Year ^a	Credits in the Travel and Tourism Sector of the Balance of Payments	Total Credits in the Goods and Services Sector of the Balance of Payments	Travel and Tourism Credits as a Percentage of Total Goods and Services Credits	Net Income from Tourism
1965	28.4	778.6	3.7	19.9
1966	31.9	993.7	3.2	22.3
1967	28.0	961.5	2.9	19.6
1968	50.0	1,145.6	4.3	35.0
1969	65.0	1,325.6	4.9	45.5
1970	100.1	1,432.9	7.0	70.1
1971	108.7	1,641.6	6.6	76.1
1972	206.8	2,309.8	9.0	144.8
1973	216.0	2,412.6	9.0	151.2

^a 1965: One Syrian Pound = £0.08
 1966: " " " = £0.09
 1967: " " " = £0.09
 1968: " " " = £0.10
 1969: " " " = £0.10
 1970: " " " = £0.10
 1971: " " " = £0.10
 1972: " " " = £0.09
 1973: " " " = £0.10

Source: 1965: Statistical Abstract, 1966.
 1966-1969: Central Bank of Syria, 1970, pp.8-9.
 1970-1973: Central Bank of Syria, 1974, pp.46-47.

then the net inflow of foreign exchange attributable to tourism in each year of the 1965-1973 period was as shown in the fifth column of Table 70.

In order to obtain an idea of the magnitude of the direct contribution of international tourism to national income, the share of gross receipts from tourism in national income (Net Domestic Product at Market Prices) was calculated for each of the years 1970-1973¹. The results are presented in Table 71. It is immediately apparent that tourism's contribution to national income has to date been extremely small. As well as making a direct contribution to national income, however, the tourist trade also contributes indirectly by creating a demand for inputs which can be supplied by other domestic sectors. In the absence of an input-output matrix for the Syrian economy this indirect contribution is difficult to quantify, but it is likely that, in Syria, agriculture, handicrafts, and commerce are the sectors which indirectly benefit most from an injection of tourist revenue into the national economy. The figures in Table 71 thus represent a minimum estimate of tourism's total contribution to national income.

No detailed survey of tourist employment in Syria having been conducted, it is difficult to state with any precision the amount of employment which the Syrian tourist trade currently sustains. OTAM (1973, p.33) assumed that in 1970 one person was directly employed in the tourist sector for every 1.5 hotel beds and one for every three beds in supplementary accommodation; that employment attributable to tourism in restaurants and in catering amounted to 52 per cent of total employment sustained in the

¹ All national income statistics given in the Statistical Abstracts are at constant prices of 1963. Statistics for tourist receipts at constant 1963 prices were only available to the author for the years 1970-1973. No information is available on the contribution of domestic tourism to national income.

Table 71 Tourism's Direct Contribution to National Income (Millions of Syrian Pounds at Constant Prices of 1963^a).

Year	Gross Income from Tourism ^b	Net Domestic Product at Market Prices ^c	Gross Income from Tourism as a Percentage of Net Domestic Product
1970	92.1	5,363.8	1.7
1971	85.9	5,908.8	1.5
1972	136.5	6,521.0	2.1
1973	118.8	6,452.1	1.8

^a 1970: One Syrian Pound = £0.10
 1971: " " " = £0.10
 1972: " " " = £0.09
 1973: " " " = £0.10

Source: ^b Supplied by Central Bureau of Statistics.
^c Statistical Abstract, 1974.

accommodation sector; that other employment in the tourist trade as such amounted to 10 per cent of employment in accommodation, restaurants and catering; and that employment sustained indirectly by tourism in the non-tourist sectors amounted to 50 per cent of that supported directly by the tourist trade. Performing the calculations, this yields a total figure for the number of jobs attributable to the tourist trade in 1970 of 30,504¹. As the number of rooms available in commercial accommodation has remained virtually static since 1969, the first year for which data on the supply of accommodation is available, it can be postulated that employment figures for years other than 1970 will not be substantially different from the 1970 figure. The total employed labour force (i.e. persons aged ten years and over who were economically active) in 1970 numbered 1,524,552 and employment in tourism in that year thus amounted to a mere 2 per cent of total employment. Again, the small role which tourism currently plays in the Syrian economy is evident.

17. Tourism and the Five Year Plans

Syria has had three Five Year Plans for the periods 1960/1961-1964/1965, 1966-1970 and 1971-1975. Tourism hardly figured in the First Plan but was accorded much more attention in the Second and Third Plans.

Only a very few of the planned projects in the Second Plan were in fact realized. Thus, a General Organization of Tourism was created as the national body responsible for tourism, a handicraft centre was established

¹ Note, however, that using completely different assumptions, which are not stated, OTAM elsewhere (1972a, p.123) conclude that the Syrian tourist trade directly and indirectly employs a total of 41,700 persons. It is not clear to which year this figure refers. Note that both of OTAM's employment figures refer to employment sustained by both international and domestic tourism.

in Damascus, the Azem Palace in Damascus was expropriated and made into a folklore exhibition, and hotels at Der'a and Sweida were completed. Eight other projects were not realized.

More success was achieved during the Third Plan (see Table 72). The Damascus International Airport Hotel was completed, a master plan for the development of tourism in Syria was prepared which included a survey of Syria's tourist potential (see p.205), the Meridien company began the construction of four luxury hotels (see p.183), work began on the Damascus Sheraton Hotel, and the Grand Hotel at Bludan was renovated. In addition, a start was made on the construction of motel units at Jdeidat al Wadi on the outskirts of Damascus along the Beirut-Damascus road and on the establishment of a hotel school. Plans for a new hotel in Damascus (the Mouhajreen) were, however, abandoned, the planned rest house and swimming pool at Palmyra were not constructed, and the project to build a new hotel in Homs was transferred to the Fourth Plan. None of the reserve projects in the tourist sector of the Third Plan were executed.

18. State Aid to the Tourist Sector

While the state has assumed control over many sectors of the Syrian economy, the tourist sector, or at least the establishment of tourist facilities, is recognized as being an area where private enterprise can operate side by side with state enterprise. Apart from itself investing in tourist facilities, such as the Damascus International Airport Hotel and the Grand Hotel at Bludan, the state also accords a number of incentives to private investors. Most of the regulations governing state aid to the tourist sector are embodied in Law No. 36 of 23rd August 1971¹. The most

¹ For the full text of this and other laws relating to tourism and investment in Syria see OFA, n.d.c.

Table 72 Tourist Projects in the Third Five Year Plan.

a) Projects under Implementation.

- 1) Damascus International Airport Hotel.
- 2) Establishment of a Hotel School.
- 3) Tourist Survey of Syria.

b) New Projects.

- 1) Mouhajreen Hotel.
- 2) Rest house and Swimming Pool at Palmyra.
- 3) Hotel in Homs.
- 4) Tourist Installations, camps and villages.

c) Reserve Projects.

- 1) Motel at Busra.
- 2) Hotel at Hama.
- 3) 4 rest houses in the Euphrates basin.
- 4) Tourist installations, camps and villages.

Source: OFA, n.d.b, pp.74-75.

important points of this law are:

1. 'International' class, 'hors classe'¹, and first class hotels, and 'hors classe' and first class restaurants and 'places de spectacle' operating inside those hotels are granted the following facilities:
 - (a) Exemption from all taxes and duties relating to their authorization and construction.
 - (b) Authority to import construction materials free of all taxes and duties, provided there is no domestic production of the same goods. This latter condition does not apply to 'international' class and 'hors classe' hotels.
 - (c) Authority to import, free of all taxes and duties, all materials and equipment necessary for their operation, so long as no domestic production of the same goods exists. Advantage can be taken of this concession once only. 'International' and 'hors classe' hotels can import such goods regardless of whether or not the same type of goods are produced domestically.
 - (d) Authority to import goods which are on the list of prohibited imports so long as these are necessary for renewing equipment and furnishings. Such imports are not exempt from taxes and duties.
2. Hotels of 'international' class are exempted from all taxes for a period of seven years following their entry into operation.
3. 'Hors classe' and first class hotels, and restaurants and 'places de spectacle' of the same two classes operating within hotels are exempted from all taxes for a period of five years following their entry into operation.

Under Article Seven of Legislative Decree No. 46 of 15th June 1966, a condition of receiving these benefits is that the relevant establishments must remain in operation for a period of at least 15 years.

Other important regulations designed to encourage the tourist industry are contained in the last-mentioned legislative decree which stipulates that

¹ 'Hors classe' establishments are apparently establishments of the very highest quality. The French expression is used as there is no exact English equivalent. See OFA, n.d.c. p.40.

subsidies can be extended to tourist establishments with low incomes located in areas with little tourist activity and in Legislative Decree No. 198 of 11th December 1961, under the terms of Article 20 of which 'hors classe' and first class hotels, as well as 'hors classe' restaurants are entitled to medium term loans from the Industrial Bank. These loans can be extended both for the construction of new establishments and for the extension, repair, or renewal of furnishings, of existing establishments.

The flight of capital from Syria since the accession to power of the Ba'athist regime and particularly since the nationalization measures of 1965, together with the reluctance of Syrian capitalists to invest in the country, a reluctance again brought about by a lack of confidence on their part in the socialist economic policies of the regime means that much of the investment in tourist facilities that an expansion of the tourist trade would necessitate would have to come from abroad. The above-mentioned exemptions and benefits which the state accords the tourist sector must thus be evaluated primarily in terms of their efficacy in attracting foreign capital. In this respect it is of great interest that the British Overseas Development Administration has stated that "in general, investment incentives are much less important in attracting investment than are a) a positive attitude by the recipient government to tourism development, b) absence of red tape, c) governmental provision of adequate infrastructure" (Economic Planning Staff, 1972, p.63). Clearly, the investment incentives currently offered by Syria will not, by themselves, be a major factor in attracting foreign capital into the tourist industry. Investment incentives must also be evaluated in terms of the loss of government income from tourism, and thus the reduction of the overall economic benefits of tourism, that they represent. In the Syrian case, however, it would not appear that the incentives are so over-generous that they would detract severely, in the long term at least, from the government's revenue from tourism.

Finally, in the context of this discussion of state aid to tourism it is worth noting that the government operates tourist information offices

in all the mohafaza capitals although it must be said that much of the tourist literature available in these offices is of extremely poor quality.

19. The OTAM Tourist Development Plan

One of the first acts of the Ministry of Tourism after its creation in May 1972 was the engagement, in July 1972, of a French company, Omnium Technique d'Aménagement (OTAM)¹ to prepare a comprehensive plan for the development of Syrian tourism up to the year 1990. The plan (OTAM, 1972a, b, c, 1973; OTU, 1973) envisages a growth of foreign visitor arrivals to 3,560,000 by 1990, a growth of the hotel arrivals of Syrians to 900,000, and a growth of visitor nights to 16,241,000 (including visitor nights generated by Syrians). To accommodate the increased number of tourists a total of 39,290 beds will be needed in new hotels and 97,110 in new complementary accommodation such as motels, holiday villages, villas, etc. The largest share, 49.8 per cent, of this new accommodation will be for estivage tourism (see Table 73). Of the total of 67,966 beds destined for this category of tourism, 40,966 (60.3 per cent) will be located at Kassab and Slenfeh in Lattakia mohafaza and 27,000 (39.7 per cent) in the Zebdani-Bludan area of Damascus mohafaza. The second largest share of the total planned accommodation, 26.2 per cent, amounting to 35,665 beds, is destined for seaside resorts in the mohafazat of Lattakia and Tartous.

Execution of the OTAM plan will go some way towards reducing the current extreme concentration of tourist accommodation in Damascus and Aleppo mohafazat. Thus, about 60 per cent of the new accommodation,

¹ OTAM ceased to exist in the second half of 1972 and work on the Syrian tourist plan was completed by Omnium Technique de L'Urbanisme (OTU). OTU itself ceased to exist in 1976. Both companies were subsidiaries of Omnium Technique Holding.

Table 73 New Accommodation to be Established by 1990 by Mohafaza and Type of Tourism (Figures Refer to Beds).

Mohafaza Type of Tourism	Deir ez Zor										Raqqa	Hasakeh	Total
	Damascus	Aleppo	Hama	Homs	Lattakia	Tartous	Quneitra	Der'a	Sweida	Idlib			
Week-end	175	140	70	160	200	60	-	100	100	60	260	70	1,455
Transit	1,089	320	130	-	701	260	200	260	40	200	330	80	3,650
Excursion	1,000	490	50	900	260	220	-	110	-	-	460	-	3,490
Congress	300	150	-	-	150	100	-	-	-	-	100	-	800
Religious	600	-	450	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,050
Hunting	-	-	-	250	-	-	-	-	350	-	-	400	1,000
Business	11,186	2,600	300	1,950	650	694	-	-	-	540	1,300	-	19,230
Estivage	27,000	-	-	-	40,966	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	67,966
Spa	-	200	-	440	214	200	1,040	-	-	-	-	-	2,094
Seaside resort	-	-	-	-	17,199	18,466	-	-	-	-	-	-	35,665
<u>Total</u>	<u>41,350</u>	<u>3,900</u>	<u>1,000</u>	<u>3,700</u>	<u>60,350</u>	<u>20,000</u>	<u>1,240</u>	<u>470</u>	<u>140</u>	<u>450</u>	<u>800</u>	<u>2,450</u>	<u>136,400</u>

Source: OTU, 1973, p.8.

80,350 beds, will be located in the coastal mohafazat of Lattakia and Tartous and by 1990 these two mohafazat will constitute the most important tourist region in Syria, while Damascus mohafaza will lie in second place and Aleppo mohafaza third (see Table 73). The OTAM plan calls for a total investment up to 1990 of 3,715,451 million French Francs distributed amongst the various tourist sectors as shown in Table 74.

OTAM estimate that annual gross receipts from foreign tourists will total some £S620 million at 1973 exchange rates¹ in 1990 and it is assumed that the import content of tourist receipts will be about 55 per cent (for this latter figure see OTAM, 1973, p.145). The annual net direct contribution of tourist receipts to national income will thus amount to about £S341 million in 1990. Further, it is projected that tourism will, by the end of the plan period, provide direct employment for 55,000 people and will sustain an additional 27,000 jobs indirectly through its impact on the economy as a whole. These employment figures relate to jobs provided by both international and domestic tourism.

20. Communications

No study of a country's tourist industry can be complete without adequate attention being accorded to communications since, while transport facilities may not have actually been constructed primarily for purposes of tourism, they nevertheless play a vital role in the exploitation of a country's tourist potential.

¹ 1973: One Syrian Pound = £0.10.

Table 74 Total Investment in the Syrian Tourist Industry up to 1990
(in Thousands of French Francs, 1973 Exchange Rates^a).

Investment in accommodation	1,789,912
Investment in tourist services and equipment	364,539
Investment in national and regional infrastructure	950,000
Investment in local infrastructure	250,000
Investment in education	140,000
Investment in protection of monuments	106,000
Investment in green spaces	35,000
Investment in promotion and publicity	80,000
 <u>Total</u>	 3,715,451

^a 1973: One French Franc = £0.11

Source: OTU, 1973, p.119.

20.1 Road Transport

The prime importance of road transport for tourists visiting Syria was emphasized in an earlier section. There can be little doubt that with an expansion of tourism in Syria road transport will continue to be the major means of travel to Syria, at least for regional tourists, while for both regional and non-regional visitors it will remain the principal means of transport within the country.

In the early 1950s Syria's road network was extremely underdeveloped. In 1952, for example, there were only 3,800 km of surfaced road and a considerable proportion of this was in a poor state of repair. In the same year about 60 per cent of all Syrian roads, by length, consisted of dirt roads or tracks which in winter could be used only with difficulty or not at all. Since then, however, the government has devoted continuing attention to the development of the road system (see Table 75) and from 1960 to 1973 the total length of surfaced road increased at an average rate of 6.7 per cent per annum. By 1973 there were 11,212 km of surfaced road, constituting 82.6 per cent of the total length of road in Syria. A comparison of Figure 10, which shows the Syrian road network in 1974, with Figure 11, which shows the network in 1945, renders the progress that has been achieved readily apparent.

Syria currently possesses four main roads which link the country with neighbouring states. The first of these, 180 km in length, runs north-south along the coast between Lebanon and Turkey. The second, also orientated north-south, and with a total length of 470 km, links Turkey to Jordan, passing through Aleppo, Hama, Homs, Damascus, and Der'a. This route continues through Jordan to Saudi Arabia, providing a link between this latter country and Syria. The third major road runs east-west from Lattakia

Table 75 The Development of Syria's Road Network.

Year	Unsurfaced but Levelled Roads Km	Surfaced Roads Km	Total Km
1960	2,780	4,830	7,610
1961	1,970	5,303	7,173
1962	1,879	5,551	7,430
1963	2,062	5,824	7,886
1964	1,878	6,511	8,389
1965	2,179	7,013	9,192
1966	1,925	7,361	9,286
1967	1,875	7,746	9,621
1968	1,828	8,118	9,946
1969	1,879	8,654	10,533
1970	2,091	9,596	11,687
1971	1,554	10,154	11,708
1972	1,439	10,397	11,836
1973	2,363	11,212	13,575

Source: Statistical Abstract, 1974.

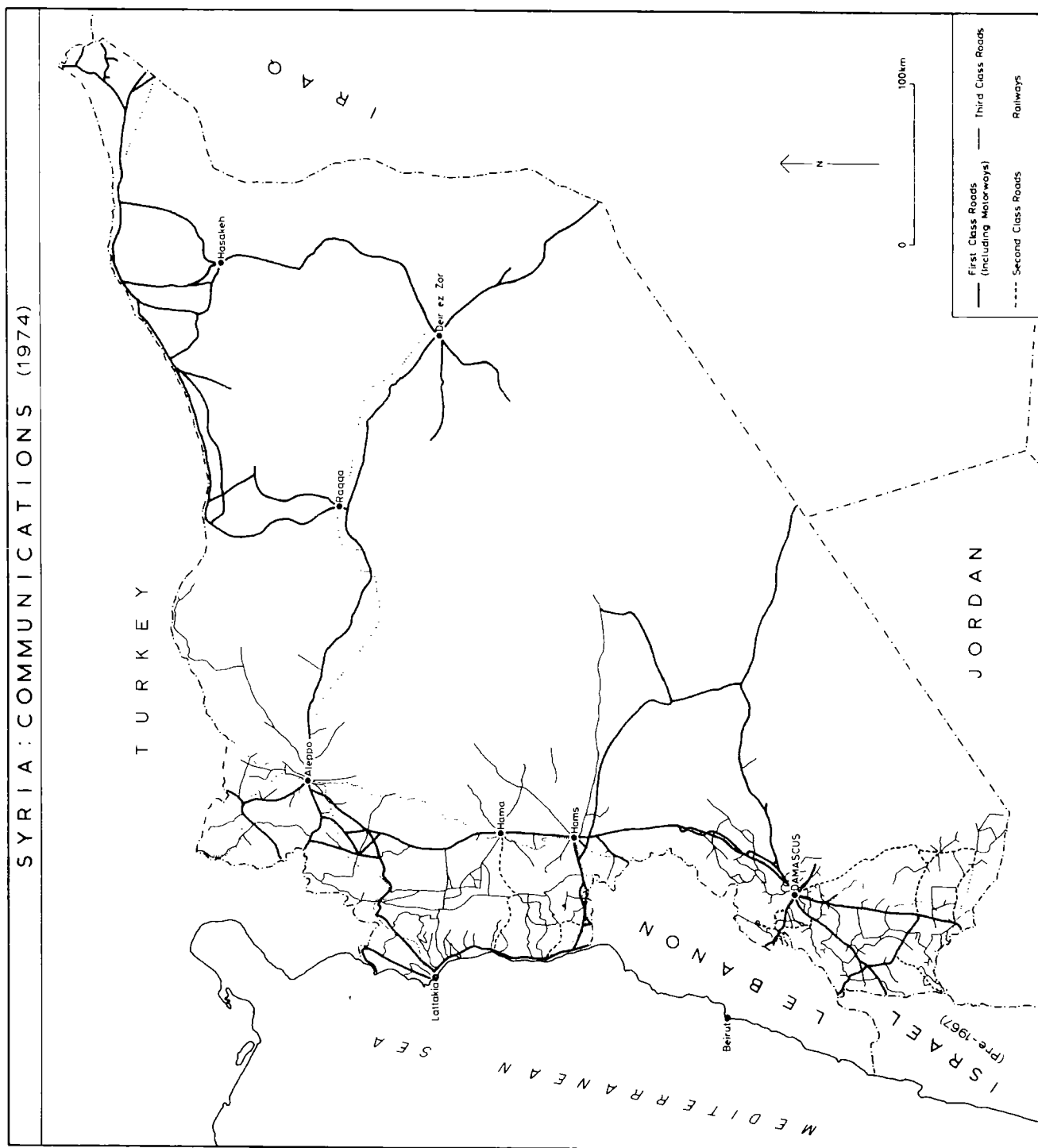


Figure 10

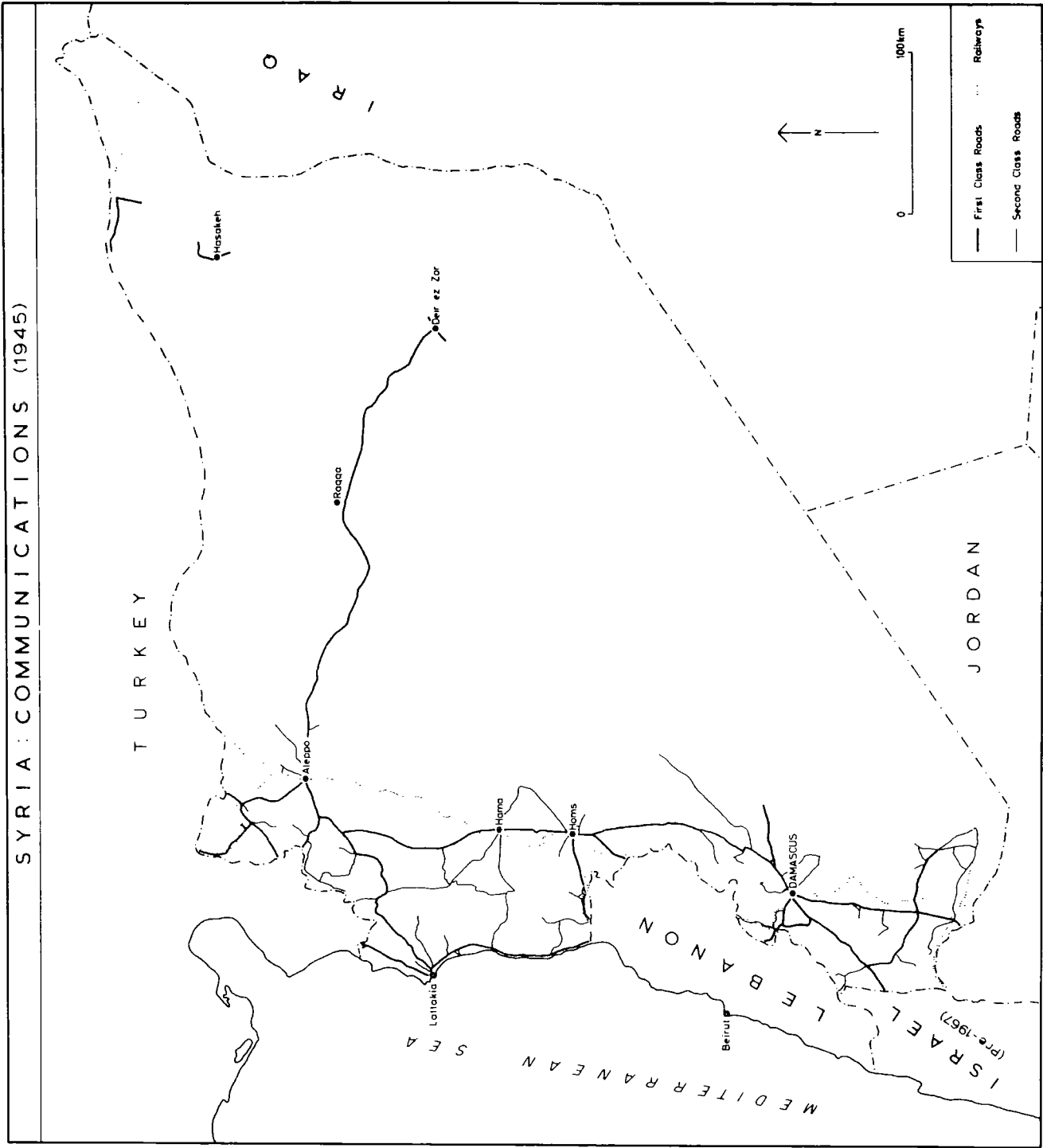


Figure 11

to Aleppo and Deir ez Zor and thence to Abu Kamal on the Iraqi border. Finally, a 300 km road links Lebanon to Iraq via Damascus. This route provides a link between Lebanon and Syria, on the one hand, and between Syria and Iraq, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, and Iran, on the other. In addition to these major international roads, Syria possesses a relatively well-developed secondary road system, as can be seen from Figure 10. While the four major international roads permit easy access to, and transit across, Syria there is no doubt that for those tourists staying any length of time in Syria the secondary road system is of crucial importance. It is by means of this system that the tourist can explore the region in which he is staying and visit sites of interest which may be located well away from the international routes.

It must, however, be stressed that the government's interest in developing the road network stems primarily from a desire to stimulate the transit trade in goods across Syria and from the need of the domestic economy for an efficient goods distribution system. The costs of the road developments which have taken place are thus only very marginally attributable to tourism.

20.2 Air Transport

In the event of a major expansion in the number of visitors to Syria from the non-regional markets (and from those regional markets which are distant from, or possess poor overland links with, Syria) air transport can be expected to assume a much more important role than at present in transporting tourists from these markets to Syria. In the context of an expanded tourist trade air transport will also constitute an important supplementary means of tourist travel within the country.

Syria currently has five airports open to civilian traffic: an international airport at Damascus and four non-international airports at Aleppo¹, Deir ez Zor, Qamishli and AthThawra near Tabqa. In addition, a new airport is under construction at Lattakia (MEED, Vol. 18, No.42, 18th October, 1974, p.1232; Vol. 19, No.11, 14th March, 1975, p.26). Syrian Arab Airlines operate regular services between Damascus, Aleppo, Deir ez Zor, and Qamishli while Damascus International Airport was in 1973 served by over 20 international carriers (including Syrian Arab Airlines).

Statistics on passenger traffic at Syria's airports are presented in Table 76. It can readily be seen that Damascus airport is by far the most important airport, handling 89.8 per cent of total passenger traffic in 1973. Deir ez Zor comes in second place followed by Aleppo, Qamishli, and Ath Thawra. Table 77 presents data on arrivals at Syrian airports by nationality. The fact that in 1970 Syrians accounted for 76.6 per cent of all airport arrivals constitutes a further reminder of the present underdeveloped state of Syria's international tourist trade.

Syria is thus well-equipped to handle an increase in airborne tourist traffic. The new airport at Lattakia will be of particular significance since it is well placed to serve an expansion of tourism in the coastal region, the area with the greatest potential in Syria for the future growth of tourism. This is especially so since an expansion of tourism in this area would quite likely depend on a growth in CIT (Charter Inclusive Tour) traffic. Certainly, however, since the encouragement of the tourist trade was an important motive behind airport construction, a part of the costs of such construction must be attributed to tourism.

¹ It was reported in September, 1974 that Aleppo airport is to be developed into an international airport (MEED, Vol.18, No.39, 27th September, 1974, p.1136).

Table 76 Passenger Traffic at Syria's Airports, 1973.

Airport	In Transit	Number of Passengers		Total	% of Total
		Embarked	Disembarked		
Damascus	78,558	176,975	157,084	412,617	89.8
Aleppo	4,245	6,877	6,040	17,162	3.7
Qamishli	-	5,442	4,597	10,039	2.2
Deir ez Zor	-	9,737	8,401	18,138	4.0
Ath Thawra	643	363	560	1,566	0.3
<u>Total</u>	83,446	199,394	176,682	459,522	100.0

Source: Statistical Abstract 1974.

Table 77 Arrivals at Syrian Airports by Nationality, 1970.

Airport	Number of Passenger Arrivals			Total	% of Total
	Arab	Non-Arab	Syrians ^a		
Damascus	23,511	12,566	80,163	116,240	75.3
Aleppo	-	-	13,971	13,971	9.1
Qamishli	-	-	9,741	9,741	6.3
Lattakia ^b	-	-	53	53	0.03
Deir ez Zor	-	-	14,414	14,414	9.3
<u>Total</u>	23,511	12,566	118,342	154,419	100.0

^a Foreigners using internal flights are included in this column, although their numbers must be very limited.

^b Lattakia (Hmaimeen) airport was open to civilian traffic in 1970 but has since been taken over by the Syrian Air Force. Ath Thawra airport was not yet operational.

Source: OTAM, 1972a, p.150.

20.3 Rail Transport

It has been noted that with a major expansion of tourism in Syria the motor car and aeroplane will be the major means of travel to Syria for regional and non-regional tourists, respectively, and that for tourists from both markets road transport will be the principle means of travel within the country. Nevertheless, the railway has potential firstly, as a supplementary means of transporting regional tourists to Syria, and, secondly, as a secondary mode of transport within the country for tourists from all markets.

At the time of Syrian Independence in 1943 there were three railways in Syria, the privately owned Northern Railway and DHP (Chemin de Fer Damas, Hama, et Prolongements), and the Hedjaz Railway, a waqf, or Moslem religious endowment, all of which are still in use¹ (see Figure 11). The Northern Railway is the Syrian section of the international standard gauge railway linking Iraq with Europe. It traverses a portion of north east Syria then enters Turkey and proceeds westwards along Syria's northern frontier until it turns south to Aleppo from whence it runs north westwards to re-enter Turkey. The Northern Railway links at Aleppo with the DHP. This latter system has both narrow and standard gauge lines. A standard gauge line runs from Aleppo via Hama and Homs to Tripoli on the Lebanese coast. From Homs another standard gauge line runs south into Lebanon to Rayak where it joins with the DHP's narrow gauge railway linking Beirut with Damascus. At Damascus the DHP narrow gauge line joins the narrow gauge Hedjaz Railway which runs south to Ma'an in Jordan via Der'a. Two short branches extend from Der'a, the first running east to Basra, and the second west along the Syrian-Jordanian border.

¹ The Northern Railway was nationalized in 1948, the DHP railway in 1955. The Hedjaz Railway remains a waqf although, like all Syrian railways, it is under the administration of the Ministry of Transport.

In the mid-1960s, however, and in contrast to most Middle Eastern countries, Syria embarked on an ambitious on-going programme of railway construction. A 42 km standard gauge line from Tartous to Akarri, linking with the Homs-Tripoli track, was completed in 1968 and by early 1975 the 750 km Lattakia-Aleppo-Qamishli line, Syria's major rail project, was nearing completion (MEED, Vol. 19, No.4, 24th January, 1975, p.20). By 1973 Syria's rail network consisted of 1,112 km of standard gauge, and 307 km of narrow gauge, track. The Syrian railway system in 1974 is shown in Figure 10. Two other major rail projects were either under way or in the design-study stage in 1975: firstly, a 208 km line linking Damascus with Homs, and, secondly, a 175 km line joining Homs to the phosphate mines near Palmyra.

It must be stressed that Syria's railway system is being extended primarily in order to facilitate the distribution of goods; passenger traffic is currently minimal. The costs of railway development cannot thus, even partially, be attributed to tourism.

20.4 Sea Transport

It was shown earlier that tourist travel to Syria by sea is currently of negligible significance. Even in the event of a major expansion of Syria's tourist trade there is no reason to suppose that this situation would be radically different since regional tourists would travel to the country mainly by road, while non-regional tourists would primarily use air transport. Nevertheless, cruise traffic could develop and OTAM (1972a, p.154) have suggested that there is potential for car ferry services operating from Europe and North Africa. Should such sea-borne tourist traffic develop it could easily be accommodated by Syria's major ports of Lattakia, Tartous, and Baniyas, especially after the expansion of the ports of Lattakia

and Tartous, the plans for which were announced in 1975 (MEED, Vol. 19, No.9, 28th February, 1975, p.19), has been completed.

21. Conclusion to the Syrian Tourist Industry

The creation of the Ministry of Tourism in May 1972 and the subsequent engagement of the OTAM company to produce a master plan for the development of Syrian tourism provide firm evidence of Syria's intention of developing her tourist sector. It is clear, however, that no major and sustained expansion of tourism in Syria can be expected until political frictions in the Middle East, and notably the Arab-Israeli conflict, are resolved. While the Ministry of Tourism has no control over political disruptions, it is in a position to ensure that plans for the development of tourism do not ignore the negative influence of these disruptions and are not thereby unrealistically over-ambitious. OTAM's suggested tourist development programme must be heavily criticized exactly for its failure to give full recognition to Syria's current political circumstances. If embarked on immediately it would almost certainly prove a failure. On the other hand, in the context of a peaceful Middle East the plan appears more realistic. Execution of the plan should therefore be postponed until after a sustained period of peace and political stability has elapsed. Until such a time, priority should be given to an upgrading of the quality of existing accommodation and to a modest expansion of luxury and first class accommodation. In addition, the training of tourist personnel of all levels deserves a major effort, for many of the current deficiencies of the Syrian tourist trade, and particularly the poor service in many hotels, stem directly from the employment of labour which lacks the necessary skills.¹

¹ That a hotel school, Syria's first, is currently being established in Damascus, provides encouraging evidence that the need for the training of tourist personnel is recognized by Syria's tourist authorities.

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CHAPTER THREE

POTENTIAL RESOURCES FOR TOURISM AND THEIR EVALUATION

The economic, environmental, and social chaos which can result from an unplanned growth of tourism was illustrated in Chapter One and the need for rational planning of tourist development stressed. The preparation of an ideal tourist development plan basically involves six interdependent tasks: the inventory and qualitative analysis of existing and potential tourist resources; the establishment of saturation levels for these resources; the inventory and qualitative analysis of existing tourist facilities¹; the establishment of the carrying capacities of these facilities; the investigation of the tourist market, of the potential demand for the resources and facilities; and the formulation of recommendations on the development of facilities and attractions in the light of conclusions drawn from the first five tasks. In preparing a tourist development plan for Syria, however, it is clear that the execution of the fifth task, the analysis of potential tourist demand, is impossible because of the influence of unpredictable political events on this demand. Further, in the light of the paucity of our existing knowledge of saturation levels, the second task cannot be attempted while, for the same reason, carrying capacities for Syria's existing tourist facilities, or for many of them at least, cannot be determined either. Thus, the final task, the formulation of recommendations on the development of tourist facilities, also cannot be undertaken. All that can

¹ The contrasting nature of tourist facilities and tourist resources will be discussed below.

be hoped for is the execution of the first phase of the fifth task, the analysis of the past development of Syria's tourist trade, of the first task and of the third task. In spite of the preparation by OTAM (1972a, b,c; 1973; OTU, 1973) of a tourist development plan for Syria, meanwhile, the country's need for the execution of these three tasks remains acute in view of the shortcomings, noted in the Introduction to this thesis, of OTAM's treatment of the topics with which the tasks are concerned.¹ It was clear, however, that to execute all three tasks (in addition to undertaking the review of the costs and benefits of tourism to developing countries which was deemed necessary in order to encourage those concerned with planning Syrian tourism to adopt a balanced approach to the development of the country's tourist industry) would be beyond the scope of a single study. The analysis of the past development of Syria's tourist trade undertaken in the previous chapter, was felt to be imperative in view of the current lack of any sound base of the type which such an analysis could provide for planning Syria's tourist industry. The choice thus had to be made between concentrating upon Syria's tourist facilities or her tourist resources and it was decided that Syria's tourist facilities, if only because of their scarcity when compared to the country's tourist resources, would be afforded no more than the limited attention they were given in Chapter Two. The present and subsequent chapters are thus primarily devoted to the inventory and qualitative analysis of Syria's tourist resources although the emphasis will be on the qualitative analysis of resources where inventories of these already exist.

¹ These shortcomings will not, except in passing, be discussed in any greater detail in this thesis than that in which they were reviewed in the Introduction. They are abundantly evident from even the most cursory examination of OTAM's reports.

1. The Identification of Syria's Tourist Resources

An immediate distinction should be made between resources for tourism, that is, tourist attractions, on the one hand, and factors determining the exploitation of those attractions, that is, tourist facilities, on the other. A number of studies contain checklists of factors to be considered in assessing an area's tourist potential which serve to illustrate this distinction. One such checklist is reproduced in Table 78 and it can readily be appreciated that whereas 'Folklore', 'History', 'Natural Scenery', 'Manufactured Scenery', and 'Sports Availability and Facilities' may be regarded as tourist resources, 'Tourist Aids' and the last eight items listed as 'Practical Considerations' are tourist facilities¹. Similarly the comprehensive checklist produced by the IUOTO (IUOTO, n.d.) contains elements such as 'Climate', 'Relief', and 'Archaeological Sites', that is, tourist attractions, as well as items such as 'Access', and the 'Opinions of the Population Regarding Tourism'², which have an important bearing on the exploitation of those attractions. While the importance of these latter factors, that is, of tourist facilities, cannot be overstated, attention in this and subsequent chapters will be focused on Syria's potential tourist attractions.

¹ Note, however, that, since all tourists are attracted to destinations by features which are not found in their home areas, 'Food', which appears in Table 78 as a 'Practical Consideration', can also be a tourist attraction if the food in a tourist destination region is sufficiently different from that found in the origin areas of the tourist flows to that region. The 'Attitudes of the Local Population' towards tourists and tourism, a factor which is listed under 'Tourism Approach', can also be a tourist attraction. See next footnote.

² It is worth noting, however, that a friendly attitude on the part of the residents of a tourist destination towards tourists can be seen as an important tourist resource in its own right as well as being a tourist facility.

Table 78 Factors to Check in Assessing Tourist Potential.Practical Considerations:

Climate	Sunshine, rainfall, wind; monthly records.
Topography	Nature of country, sea coast, beaches, inland, mountains, hills, plains, towns, streets, buildings.
Accessibility	Air, sea ports, roads, transportation facilities, charter flight rights, stopover facilities, internal travel facilities - train, coach, car and motor bike hire, boat hire possibilities and rates, places where one can walk.
Bureaucracy	Passports, visas, customs and tax regulations, special taxes, immigration and departure procedures. Tourist entry controls, health controls.
Political stability	Freedom from obvious oppression, revolt or political or economic upheavals.
Tourism approach	Attitudes of local officials, attitudes of local population, government approach, national and local tourist office network and services, controlled prices on hotels and other services.
Language	Ability of local people and officials to speak and communicate to visiting tourists.
Accommodation	Adequacy of hotel and other accommodation facilities, hygiene standards, and cleanliness.
Food	Palatability and cleanliness of local food, availability of meals to suit tourist palates, sufficient restaurants, bars, etc.
Personnel	Adequate numbers of trained and competent staff in accommodation, transport, and other services in the holiday area. Attitude towards tourists.

Entertainment:

Folklore	Local people, local towns, villages, parades, customs, local merchandise, music, songs, dancing, museums, local industries, e.g. winemaking, plantations, local produce.
Cultural	Festivals, plays, theatres, concerts, art works, fine buildings, churches.

Table 78 (Cont'd)Entertainment (Cont'd)

Historical	Background history, monuments, historical buildings and other structures, e.g. pyramids, famous areas and objects, archaeological sites.
Natural scenery	Mountains, forests, seashore, flowers, towns, animals, waterfalls, streams and rivers, trees.
Manufactured scenery	Gameparks, botanical gardens, zoos, aquaria, flower gardens.
Sports availability and facilities	Swimming, fishing, boating, golf, tennis, riding, hunting, walking, climbing, skiing, sailing.
Tourist aids	Organisation for sightseeing tours, availability of guides with appropriate language, taxis, coaches.

Source: Economic Planning Staff, 1972, pp.68-69.

The identification of exactly which elements may properly be regarded as resources for tourism in the context of a specific study area is by no means straightforward for, as Lundberg (1972, p.39) has noted, "tourist attractions take many forms, limited only seemingly by the imagination". The following list of possible tourist attractions that a country might possess was prepared by Peters (1969, pp.148-149) and serves to illustrate just how diverse tourist attractions may be:

1) Cultural

Sites and areas of archaeological interest.
Historical buildings and monuments.
Places of historical significance.
Museums.
Modern culture.
Political and educational institutions.
Religion.

2) Traditions

National festivals.
Arts and handicrafts.
Music.
Folklore.
Native life and customs.

3) Scenic

Outstanding panoramas and areas of natural beauty.
National parks.
Wild life.
Flora and fauna.
Beach resorts.
Mountain resorts.

4) Entertainments

Participation and viewing sports.
Amusement and recreation parks.
Zoos and oceanariums.
Cinemas and theatres.
Night life.
Cuisine.

5) Other Attractions

Climate.

Health resorts and spas.

Unique attractions not available elsewhere.

Checklists of tourist resources are, however, of limited value in the identification of which resources should be singled out for study in a detailed assessment of the tourist potential of a specific region as it is by no means certain which, or what combinations of, the listed items will be of relevance in terms of the demands of potential visitors to the area. Now, a tourist attraction may only be considered as such to the extent that it is demanded by tourists. The identification of relevant attractions may thus only be approached via a study of such demand, or, more specifically, via a study of the demand for the various activities engaged in by tourists, for while there may be an expressed demand for resources such as historical monuments or beaches this may be interpreted as being, in reality, a demand to participate in the activities which utilize these resources, in this example sightseeing and beach activities, respectively.

Tourists' activities may be conveniently divided into those which are 'resource-based' and those which are 'demand-based'. The former include all those activities which depend upon the presence of specific resources, either natural or man-made, which cannot be fundamentally altered to suit demand and which cannot be spatially transferred. Typical of resource-based activities is sightseeing which is usually associated with such immovable resources as historic sites and areas of outstanding scenic beauty. Similarly, sea bathing depends on, and is specific to, the sea. The resources upon which this group of activities are based may be both tangible entities such as lakes and mountains, or more intangible features such as distinctive national or local cultures. By contrast, demand-based activities comprise

those which depend upon resources which have been created in response to demand. These activities are thus not tied to specific locations. Typical resources for demand-based activities are casinos, night clubs, and certain sports facilities such as golf courses. Modern technology is causing the distinction between resource- and demand-based activities to become blurred. Artificial lakes may be created specifically for water-based activities such as fishing or sailing; ski resorts can be developed based on snow making equipment. Whether a visit to London Bridge at its new location in the USA is a resource- or demand-based activity is debatable. Nevertheless, these are exceptional cases, and in general the distinction between the two types of activity remains valid.

While recognizing the indispensable value of demand-based activities to the international tourist, there can be little doubt that tourists will not travel to Syria purely to participate in such activities when the opportunities for so doing are abundantly available in all the countries which may in the future be expected to generate significant numbers of visitors to Syria, with the notable exceptions of some of the Middle Eastern oil states. But tourists from these latter states seeking participation solely in demand-based activities are already well catered for regionally by Beirut, Cairo, and Istanbul and it is doubtful whether Damascus could compete with these cities in the foreseeable future. Attention is thus focused in this and subsequent chapters on those resources required to support resource-based activities as it is the opportunities to participate in these activities which will be the deciding factor in attracting international tourists to Syria.

The resource-based activities engaged in by tourists thus provide the key to the identification of the specific resources with which the present study will be concerned, but our knowledge of these activities and of their

relative importance to different groups of tourists is extremely limited. Most of the surveys of tourists that have been conducted have approached the question of demand in terms of such factors as tourists' motives for visiting a particular destination, the experiences they found satisfying on holiday, and the types of places they visited. While such information can be useful in the identification of tourist attractions, the absence of specific information on the activities engaged in by tourists is a major limitation of most of these studies.

An exception is the British National Travel Survey, a questionnaire survey of British holidaymakers conducted annually on behalf of the British Tourist Authority. This survey contains a wealth of data on the characteristics of British tourists, but of particular significance in the present context is the detailed information provided on the reasons why those tourists holidayed abroad rather than in the United Kingdom, the types of places in which they spent their vacations, and the activities in which they engaged while on holiday. Table 79 illustrates the reasons why Britons holidayed abroad rather than in the UK and shows that, of those reasons related to tourist resources as such, the three most important were the desire for sunshine and beaches, for beautiful scenery, and to visit places of historic interest. It is worth reiterating that attention here is focused only on evidence contributing to the identification of attractions for resources-based activities and the reasons given in Table 79 which are not relevant in this respect are thus excluded from consideration although they should certainly not be ignored in planning for tourism. Meanwhile, it can be seen from Table 80 that the overwhelming majority of British tourists spent their holidays by the seaside, in cities and towns, in mountainous or hilly country, and by lakes and rivers. Tables 79 and 80 basically substantiate each other, both suggesting the strong attraction of

Table 79 British Tourists: Reasons for Holidaying Abroad Rather than in Britain.

Reason	% of Respondents Mentioning Reason ^a
Sunshine, beaches	49
Scenery	20
Historic interest	10
Festivals, concert	3
Visit friends	20
Food, drink	7
Night life	6
Meeting the people	10
For a change	29
No more expensive	10
Other	13

^a The sum of these figures is greater than 100 per cent because many respondents mentioned more than one reason.

Source: British Tourist Authority, 1971, p.38.

Table 80 British Tourists: Types of Place Stayed at on Holiday.

Type of Place	% of Respondents Mentioning Type of Place ^a
Seaside	61
Lakeside/river	16
Mountains/hills	23
Cities and towns	34
Other inland	10
On ship-coastal	4
On ship-inland	1
Other	1

^a The sum of these figures is greater than 100 per cent because many respondents mentioned more than one type of place.

Source: British Tourist Authority, 1971, p.34.

sunny climates, water, attractive scenery, and historic monuments.

Table 81 shows the relative importance of a variety of holiday activities engaged in by British tourists, the five most important resource-based activities being marked with X's. This table gives meaning to the information contained in Tables 79 and 80. The features noted as being significant attractions on the basis of the data in the latter two tables are seen to be no more than the resources required to support the specific activities listed in Table 81.

By contrast to the British National Travel Survey, the annual survey of French holidaymakers, conducted by the Commissariat Général au Tourisme in conjunction with the Institut National de la Statistique et des Etudes Economiques is much less comprehensive. A good deal of information is provided on the socio-economic characteristics of French tourists, but only the data presented on the types of holidays enjoyed by these vacationers is of relevance to the identification of the tourist resources demanded by French tourists. Table 82 shows that during the 1964-1973 period the relative importance of the respective types of holiday remained essentially unchanged although there were some fluctuations from year to year. This information, however, while it does suggest the importance of scenery and the sea as resources for tourists' activities, is unfortunately so general as to be of little value to the task in hand.

In 1967, the findings were published of a wide-ranging survey conducted for the Pacific Area Travel Association into the characteristics of US tourists travelling to the Pacific beyond Hawaii, to Hawaii alone, and to Europe. Table 83 shows the kinds of experience considered satisfying by tourists who visited these respective destinations. Many of the kinds of experience listed are of little help in the identification of resources

Table 81 British Tourists: Activities Engaged in on Holidays Abroad.

Activity	% of Respondents Mentioning Activity ^a
Boat trip	25
Sailing/boating	13
Winter sports	2
Mountain climbing	11
Swimming	52 X
Fishing	5
Golf	2
Putting, golf	7
Tennis	3
Watched sport event	14
Walk along sea front	51 X
Sunbathing	67 X
Sightseeing	86 X
Adult education course	2
Museums, galleries	31
Historic buildings	52 X
Festivals, the arts	14
Cinema, concert	20
Visited hotel bar	60
Visited night club	42
Visited bar	46
Watched TV	27
Shopped for gifts	85
Visited friends	27

^a The sum of these figures is greater than 100 per cent because many respondents mentioned more than one activity.

Source: British Tourist Authority, 1971, p.40.

Table 82 Days Spent on Holiday Abroad by French Tourists According to Type of Holiday, as a Proportion of Total French Vacation - Days Abroad.

Type of Holiday	1964	1969	1973
Touring	19.7	21.1	20.2
Sea	28.6	37.1	37.7
Mountain	11.7	11.9	14.2
Countryside	15.2	14.8	13.4
Town	24.8	15.1	14.5
<u>Total</u>	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Commissariat Général au Tourisme, 1974, p.21.

Table 83 Kinds of Experience Considered Satisfying by US Tourists.

	% of Tourists to the Pacific that Mentioned Experience	% of Tourists to Hawaii that Mentioned Experience	% of Tourists to Europe that Mentioned Experience
<u>Educational, Interesting</u>			
<u>New Experience</u>			
New experience, saw new places, new things	15	9	18
Educational, broadening, interesting	13	4	11
Different cultures, way of life	11	2	11
Interesting sights, buildings	5	3	4
<u>Satisfactory Personal Contacts</u>			
Met, made contact with interesting people	22	23	15
Travelled with congenial, friendly people	8	5	4
Visited home, family, friends	7	4	12
<u>Good Tour Management</u>			
Well planned, well organized tour	19	14	16
Excellent tour leader, guide	4	1	-
<u>Physical Comfort and Satisfaction</u>			
Good hotels and accommodation	7	8	4
Beautiful scenery, beaches	8	17	7
Good weather	4	25	7
Relaxed atmosphere, casual living	3	16	1
Good food	3	4	5
<u>Miscellaneous Satisfaction</u>			
Enjoyable (no further explanation)	13	24	20
Like to travel	14	7	13

Source: Lundberg, 1972, p.109.

of the type with which this thesis is concerned but the appeal of 'Different Cultures, Way of Life', 'Beautiful Scenery, Beaches', 'Good Weather', and, to a lesser extent, 'Interesting Sites, Buildings' clearly emerges, these four 'experiences' obviously being related to attractions for resource-based activities. While it is certainly more useful in the present context than the French survey described above, the Pacific Visitors Survey¹ remains inferior to the British National Travel Survey in that the specific activities engaged in by US tourists are not explicitly investigated.

If comprehensive and comparable survey data were available on the activities of tourists from all of Syria's market, then the identification of the appropriate resources required to support those activities would be a relatively easy matter. As has been shown, however, available survey material is far from being adequate for this task. The surveys of Western tourists, apart from being few in number, mostly provide only very general information on tourists' pursuits while no information at all is available on the activities of tourists from important sections of the Syrian market, notably the Middle Eastern states. Further, even if a detailed survey were made of the activities of current tourists to Syria, the results would not necessarily be of great value in the identification of potential resources for tourism in Syria since these tourists are most probably not representative of the types of tourist that may be expected to visit the country in the future. For these reasons a more efficacious approach to the identification of which resources should be analyzed in an assessment of Syria's tourist potential is via an examination of the principal types of tourism which Syria might be expected to cater for. The major resource-based

¹ Or at least that limited part of the results which was available to the author.

activities involved in each type of tourism may then be identified and, in turn, the resources required to support each of these activities may be defined.

A related approach has been adopted by a number of recent studies on international tourism. Thus, the IUOTO's Prospects for the Development of Tourism in the Middle East (IUOTO, 1972) considers the tourist potential of the Middle East as a whole in terms of the region's potential for multi-centre touring; for special interest tourism; for sun, sand, and sea tourism; for 'climate escaping' holidays; for cruising; for car touring; and for break-of-journey tourism. These categories, however, are of value only in generalized, large scale surveys. A more appropriate classification for use at the national scale is adopted in a report by the Transport Development Unit and the Shankland Cox Partnership (1973a, b) on Togo's prospects for tourism¹. Potential visitors are divided into ten groups on the basis of whether they are migrating or travelling for reasons of business, health, family, 'securite', 'foyer', education, leisure, culture or politics/diplomacy. This classification of visitors underlies the whole report; tourist zones are defined on the basis of their attractiveness to each group, transport requirements are identified according to the specific needs of each of the groups, and so on. A similar procedure is adopted by OTAM in their report on Syrian tourism (OTAM, 1972a, b, c; 1973; OTU, 1973). All of these studies, however, have been less systematic in the process of resource identification than they might have been, for all, instead of focusing attention on the activity components of each category of tourism distinguished, as a means of identifying the resources required

¹ This classification, although actually of tourists, in effect is also a classification of types of tourism.

to support each of those categories, have assumed that the classification of tourism into types itself gives sufficient indication of the resource base of each type.

The major types of tourism which Syria may be expected to cater for in years to come, the activities involved in each type of tourism, and the basic resources required to support those activities are shown in Table 84. Some of these categories of tourism are already, to some extent, developed in Syria as was noted in Chapter Two. For example, a substantial estivage tourist trade has grown up at Zebdani-Bludan, Kassab, and Slenfeh. It has been noted that the emphasis of this and subsequent chapters will be on the resources required to support resource-based tourist activities and accordingly only the main types of tourism whose activity components are primarily resource-based are listed in Table 84. Thus, although certain types of tourism whose activity components are essentially demand-based, such as business travel, are, and will undoubtedly continue to be, of major importance in Syrian tourism, these are not listed in the table. Similarly, although all the resource-based types of tourism listed in Table 84 have sizeable demand-based activity components, a listing of the activities involved and the resources upon which these depend does not appear. The list of resources which are of relevance in an assessment of Syria's potential for tourism thus reduces to: scenery; the water bodies required to support a wide range of active and passive fresh water-based and coastal pursuits¹; historic sites; and climate. In addition, adequate consideration must be given to accessibility since, while it cannot be considered to be a tourist resource in its own right, it exerts a dominant influence on the ease with which tourist resources proper can be exploited.

¹ Of course passive fresh water-based and passive coastal activities, taking place as they do on the shores of water bodies, depend only indirectly on the presence of water.

Table 84 Resources Required to Support Tourism in Syria.

Type of Tourism	Activity Components	Resources Required to Support Activities
Seaside resort	Coastal active (i.e. on-water) pursuits, e.g. swimming, boating	Sea; suitable climate; access to sea.
	Coastal passive (i.e. beach orientated) pursuits, e.g. sun-bathing, strolling by sea.	Sea; suitable climate; beaches; beautiful scenery; access to beach.
	Sightseeing excursions.	Historic sites; accessibility; beautiful scenery. ^a
Estivage	Enjoying cool climate in pleasant surroundings.	Suitable climate; beautiful scenery; accessibility.
	Sightseeing excursions.	Historic sites; accessibility; beautiful scenery. ^a
Touring	Sightseeing.	Historic sites; accessibility; beautiful scenery. ^a
	Coastal and fresh water-based active and passive pursuits.	Suitable climate; suitable water bodies.

^a This table includes only those activities the distribution of whose resources by quality in north west Syria will be examined in detail later in this thesis and only those resources, for the activities which are listed, whose distribution by quality will be similarly examined. Thus, the cultures of north west Syria, which manifest themselves in innumerable ways, are important resources for sightseeing, at least for non-regional tourists, but are not included in the table. This is because it is considered by the author that all cultures within Syria, excepting perhaps that of the educated urban elite, are sufficiently distinct from those existing outside the Middle East to render them equally attractive to non-regional tourists, all tourists being attracted to destinations by features which are not found in their home areas, and the analysis of the distribution of the cultures of north west Syria by quality, that is, by attractiveness to tourists, will thus not be attempted. North west Syria's cultures will probably not be a major attraction for regional tourists because these cultures, at least superficially, do not contrast markedly with those found in most other parts of the Middle East.

Again, it is recognized that meeting local people is an important resource-based activity component of all three types of tourism listed in the table. However, this activity, and its resource, the attitude of the resident population towards tourists, are not included in the table because the Syrian population is, on the whole, extremely friendly towards tourists and to

2. The Assessment of Potential Resources for Tourism

Having identified the relevant resources to be considered in an assessment of Syria's tourist potential, the next step is the selection of techniques for their quantitative and qualitative evaluation. Owen (1973, p.61) has noted in the context of the assessment of countryside resources for recreation that "the countryside doesn't lend itself easily to objective analysis and, while it is generally accepted that objectivity should be retained wherever possible, the means of achieving it are far from universally agreed". The same considerations are equally valid in the context of the evaluation of resources for tourism. The selection of techniques of evaluation should be guided by the overriding need for objectivity and this implies not only that the criteria against which the individual resources are evaluated should be precisely defined, but also that methods of data collection should be satisfactory. This latter point is crucial, for, to quote Owen again, "even if objectives have been carefully and methodically defined, they may never be achieved if the data from which they must emanate cannot be relied upon" (Owen, 1973, p.61).

attempt an analysis of the distribution by quality of 'friendliness towards tourists' would thus also be superfluous and will not be attempted in the present study.

Note, also, that transit tourism, certainly a type of resource-based tourism, is not included in the table since, although it will continue to be important for Syria, the major international transit routes which are either wholly or in part present in north west Syria are already well established and there would obviously be no point in attempting to 're-identify' them in the course of a detailed analysis on the tourist potential of the area. Meanwhile, to the extent that leisure activities are engaged in while on a transit journey, the most desirable locations for such activities will be identified during the investigation of the distribution of sites with potential for touring.

Source: Derived from OTAM, 1972b, pp.10-11.

Data collection in the field, as well as being costly of manpower, time, and finance, can be hampered by weather conditions and, more importantly, by problems of physical access. The use of air photographs by-passes the pitfalls of field surveys but in politically sensitive areas, such as the Middle East, air photos are not available to the researcher. Data collection from maps, however, also offers a viable alternative to field surveys although this procedure can, of course, only be adopted where accurate and sufficiently detailed maps are available. Duffield and Owen (1970), in their study of recreational resources in Lanarkshire, worked exclusively from maps, successfully gathering information on landform, land use, accessibility, potential sites for a variety of recreational activities, and ecological conditions. Similarly, it was recommended that data collection for a proposed classification of potential resources for informal recreation in south east England (Country-side Commission, 1971) should be undertaken from map sources. It should be noted, however, that while, because it obviates the necessity for field surveys, data collection from maps is felt to be the most efficacious method of compiling data for a study of tourist resources, adequate information about certain resources cannot be obtained from the types of maps which are likely to be available to the researcher and for information on these resources recourse must be taken to other data sources, although not necessarily to field surveys.

The need for objectivity in, and therefore for a systematic approach to, resource evaluation having been stressed, it is now pertinent to critically examine the most important techniques which have been devised to date for assessing the resources specified as being of relevance in the present study.

3. The Evaluation of Scenery

In spite of the importance of scenery as one of the major physical bases of recreation and tourism, no generally accepted technique for the

aesthetic evaluation of landscapes has yet been devised. This springs both from the relatively recent recognition of landscapes as being valuable resources in their own right, requiring protection and conservation no less than other more tangible resources, and also, perhaps more fundamentally, from the lack of objective criteria for the assessment of scenic beauty. Lowenthal (1962/1963, p.22) has succinctly highlighted this latter problem:

The concept of scenic beauty, formerly tied to specific attributes, has since the 18th Century lost all precise meaning; it now promiscuously denotes anything that gives pleasure. "We talk about a 'sublime' or 'lovely' landscape," as Fenichel says, "because we feel sublime or lovely when seeing a landscape of this kind." No longer captives of the picturesque, we do not require that scenery look like a painting; and we can enjoy landscapes that point no meaning or moral.

In such an uncertain situation it is perhaps not surprising that none of the techniques for landscape evaluation that have been devised to date would claim to be definitive.

The totally subjective assessment of landscape in the field is the basis of a number of the earlier techniques of landscape evaluation.¹ The most notable British example of this approach is the work undertaken by Murray for the National Trust for Scotland (Murray, 1962). His objectives were to make a landscape survey of the Highland Counties, to delineate Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty, and to report on the distinguishing character of these areas. Murray, an experienced mountain climber with an intimate knowledge of, and a passionate concern for, Scottish landscape, covered much of the region on foot and identified 21 areas of outstanding beauty.

¹ It is noteworthy that of a number of recently prepared tourist development reports examined by the author, all, to the varying degrees that they give emphasis to scenery as a distinct tourist resource, adopt this purely subjective approach to landscape evaluation. See, for example, Transport and Tourism Technicians, 1963, and OTAM, 1972a.

The major problem with such subjective surveys is, of course, that their conclusions can at best only represent the opinions of the individuals undertaking the field work. Moreover, what constitutes the field workers' personal criteria for scenic quality is commonly left unspecified. The confusion which can ensue is well illustrated by the Scottish experience described by Owen (1973, p.8). Local planning authorities were required to prepare maps showing areas of high landscape value with a view to improving facilities in those areas for recreationists and tourists. Subjective methods of assessment were employed, utilizing opinions ranging from those of elected members of the local councils to those of professional planners, sometimes with advice from foresters, landscape architects, and other experts. The resultant map was curious in that the situation often arose where the boundary between two adjacent areas of different landscape quality, each of which lay in a different local authority area, coincided with the boundary between the two local authority areas. Significantly, Murray's areas of outstanding beauty bore little resemblance to those delineated on the planning authorities' map¹. Murray himself admitted that he found difficulty in deciding whether five areas should be designated as Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty and therefore did not so designate them.

The fact that they can perhaps best be undertaken only by people with an intimate knowledge of the specified study area, the necessity for good weather and clear visibility during the field survey, and the length of time needed for their execution are additional major limitations of the subjective techniques. On the other hand, it is the total effect of landscape which

¹ On the other hand, Linton (1968), comparing the results of his more objective method with Murray's conclusions, found a fair degree of correlation.

is being assessed in the subjective methods, and this, after all, is what all techniques ultimately seek to evaluate. Many of the more subtle aspects of landscape are not measureable and are therefore precluded from consideration in the quantified methods.

With the growth of public concern about the quality of the environment during the 1960s came a growing conviction of the need for more objective, rational, methods of assessing the value of scenery considered as a limited resource. It was clear that the subjective, often emotional, arguments of conservationists could make little headway against the counter-arguments of industrialists and others whose projects could detract from scenic beauty who were able to quantify the benefits of their schemes. The search, then, was for techniques which would allow the scenic value of landscape areas to be stated objectively and precisely and it was felt that such techniques would best succeed if they attempted to quantify landscape quality. Most studies approached the problem by first attempting to identify the fundamental character forming elements of landscape (many of which are eminently measureable) and then using the presence, or degree of presence, of these basic elements to assess landscape quality. This approach seems sound as quality does, presumably, depend upon character. A common weakness of most of the quantified techniques, however, a weakness that, without a prior investigation of people's landscape preferences, is unavoidable, is that they assume that interval scale values can be subjectively assigned to landscape elements according to the respective contributions of those elements to landscape quality in spite of the fact that only the rank order of the magnitudes of these contributions are known or suspected.

Linton, in his scheme for the quantitative assessment of Scottish scenery (Linton, 1968), considered landform and land use as constituting the two fundamental elements of landscape character and quality. Accordingly

he used six landform categories, ranging from Mountains to Lowlands, to produce a 'landform landscape' map, and seven categories of land use to produce a 'land use landscape' map. A set numerical value was assigned to each of the 13 categories as a measure of its particular contribution to scenic quality. The two maps were then combined, the scenic quality scores for landform and land use landscapes being aggregated, to produce composite scores on which to base a final landscape classification map of Scotland. While being far from definitive, Linton's technique has been of particular significance in the development of landscape evaluation methods. The recognition of landform and land use as the two fundamental components of landscape, and the use of relative relief (the difference in height between the highest and lowest points in an area) and variety, respectively, as the criteria for the evaluation of these two components, are features which have had a profound influence on a number of later techniques.

It is of interest that Linton's technique was recently field-tested by Gilg (1974) in a survey of the Lomond Hills area in Fife to establish firstly, whether, as Linton had claimed, his method would produce essentially the same results when applied to the same area by different observers, and, secondly, whether the technique was capable of defining an area which had already been designated as a Country Park. The field work was undertaken by groups of geography students who, using Linton's technique, evaluated the scenic content of each of 200 1 km x 1 km grid squares into which the study area had been divided.¹ The scenic scores assigned to the grid squares were found to be generally higher than would have been expected

¹ Linton had omitted to specify the survey units which should be adopted in the application of his technique although it appears from his maps that he used irregularly shaped tracts of land.

from a strict adherence to Linton's methodology. Gilg attributed this largely to misclassification of land use and landform by the student surveyors, but it can be argued that this misclassification itself stemmed directly from the relative lack of precision of Linton's definitions of his land use and landform categories. Out of the total of 200 squares, 64 were judged independently by two groups of students and it was found that the scores for 55 of the 64 differed from each other by only two points or less. Finally, the squares were grouped into four classes on the basis of their scenic values and a map was produced which demonstrated that the squares in the highest value class clearly defined the Country Park from the surrounding areas of lower scenic beauty.

Duffield and Owen (1970) devised a landscape evaluation technique which is essentially a refinement of Linton's method and employs the same basic concepts of landform landscape and land use landscape. Various combinations of relative relief and absolute relief are used to define six landform landscape categories ranging, in order of scenic excellence, from Lowlands to High Hills. Grid squares are employed as the basic survey units, each square in the study area being allocated to one of the six categories and given a score ranging from 0 to 5. Similarly, six land use categories are specified and assigned values in the range 0 - 5, these scenic scores being based on the assumptions that people prefer 'natural' landscapes to those where man's influence is most evident and that the greater the diversity of a view the greater its attractiveness. Grid squares are allocated to the various land use landscape categories by means of a least squares statistical technique developed by Weaver (1954). As in Linton's

method, each square's landform landscape and land use landscape scores are combined to create composite landscape quality scores in the range 0 - 10 and a final landscape quality map, based on the composite scores, is produced.

Linton's and Duffield and Owen's methods have the major advantage that all requisite measurements can be taken from maps and the consequent elimination of the need for field work means that the evaluation can be performed relatively rapidly and without the problems commonly associated with field surveys. Duffield and Owen's technique, however, is much the easier of the two to apply because the landform and land use categories adopted are much more tightly defined than those used by Linton. The assumptions which all three authors make concerning the scenic quality of land use and landform landscapes are subjective but the assumptions relating to the quality of land use landscapes are defended on the grounds that they are not based on the authors' personal preferences with regard to scenic quality but on the judgements of our own society in a particular day and age. Both techniques employ absolute relief as an evaluative criterion in the assessment of the scenic quality of landform landscapes but the relevance of this criterion is debatable; relative relief by itself is probably a more realistic indicator of attractiveness. A further limitation of these techniques is the relatively small number of landscape elements considered.

By contrast to Linton's and Duffield and Owen's techniques the landscape classification and evaluation method devised by Land Use Consultants (1971) was regressive because of the totally subjective nature of the suggested procedure for the assessment of scenic quality. The first step in their proposed technique is the definition of 'areas of visual enclosure', landscape tracts, which serve as the basic survey and mapping units. The primary landscape elements are identified as landform and ground cover, supplemented by relative relief, and precise measurement of these features

from maps allows the allocation of each tract to one of 84 possible primary landscape types, themselves defined in terms of various combinations of the three basic elements. Secondary landscape elements are then identified and measured¹ in order to generate sub-types within the primary landscape types. The classification stage is thus logically developed and relatively objective in that precise measurement of the primary and secondary elements is possible. But in the next stage, the assessment of scenic quality, work is transferred to the field, scores being assigned totally subjectively for the respective contribution to aesthetic quality of each of a number of elements specified on a checklist. This methodological discontinuity between the classification and evaluation stages is a basic weakness and the technique must be rejected as likely to yield unreliable results.

In Tandy's (1971) technique grid squares are used as the survey units and Surface Cover, Undulation, Trees in Mass, Trees Singly, Water, Artifacts, and Views Out are considered to be the principal elements that determine scenic quality. In each square each element is given a quantity score ranging from 0 (none) to 2 (all), and a quality score ranging from -2 (intolerable) to +2 (highly desirable). The quantity and quality values are multiplied together to give a score for each element and these scores totalled to give a score for each survey unit. The necessity for field work, the lack of precise measurement of the landscape elements, and the entirely subjective nature of the quality scores assigned to those elements give cause for concern but the technique is noteworthy for its attempt to incorporate a measure of the quality of the views which can be obtained from a survey unit.

¹ Land Use Consultants suggest two possible methods for measuring secondary landscape elements, one involving precise measurement from maps, the other subjective measurement in the field. Which method is preferable is not specified.

The much more sophisticated system employed in the Coventry-Solihull-Warwickshire study (Coventry County Council et al., 1971a) represented a major advance over earlier methods. 1 km x 1 km grid squares were used as the basic survey units and in each square landscape was assessed using two indices, a Landscape Value Index, and an Inter-Visibility Index. To obtain values of the Landscape Value Index, a list was made, under the major headings of landform, land use, and land features, of all those elements, both human and natural, thought to be most significant in landscape composition and in determining landscape quality and the presence or absence, or degree of presence, of these elements in each square was recorded from maps and the measurements subsequently checked in the field. It was recognized that not all of these elements were of equal importance as determinants of landscape quality and a weighting system was therefore adopted to give an appropriate emphasis to the contribution of each element to the Landscape Value scores. To obtain the appropriate weights, each square was subjectively scored in the field for its scenic quality and a step-wise multiple regression was then performed of scenic scores on element measurements. The regression coefficients thereby derived were adopted as the weights¹ and for each grid square the sum of the weighted measurements for those elements present constituted a value of the Landscape Value Index. To derive values of the Inter-Visibility Index each square was scored on the basis of the number of other squares which could be seen from it, the assumption being that the greater the number of such squares

¹ Blacksell and Gilg (1975) recently applied the Coventry-Solihull-Warwickshire technique in an area in south east Devon in order to test the general validity of these weights. They concluded (p.140) that "the original weights proved capable of simulating reasonably accurately the visual quality surface produced by a completely independent team of researchers in a different area."

the better the views obtainable from the square being scored, and on the basis of the degree of slope of the square, as measured by the sum of the differences in height between each end of the four sides of the square, the assumption in this case being that the greater the slope the greater the visual impact, when viewed from another square, of the landscape within the square. An indication of the total landscape significance of any square can thus be obtained by multiplying the values of both indices together, while, conversely, the quality of a view can be found by adding together the Landscape Values of all its component units. While it is clear that the weightings applied to the landscape elements have an important subjective content, and that the Inter-Visibility Index provides only relatively crude measures of intervisibility, this method is more logically developed than earlier approaches, involves little work in the field, and does allow the precise and systematic measurement of a much wider range of landscape components in order to derive visual quality scores for each survey unit than is possible using earlier techniques.

In view of the extent to which sightseeing involves road transport, and of the significance of driving for pleasure as a leisure activity, it is of interest that a number of techniques have been devised for the assessment of scenery as seen from a road. It should be noted, however, that the four such methods to be reviewed here suffer a common weakness, the necessity for considerable field work. Sargent (1966) has evolved a technique based on the assumptions that the greater the distance one can see the better the view, and the greater the variety of topography, ground cover, natural phenomena, or man-made objects, the more scenic the vista. At specified intervals along a road the view is appraised and scored for its extent and variety of content as well as for the presence or absence of any 'points of special interest' and 'eyesores'. The locations of the observation points together with their scenic values can then be mapped. Regrettably, however, this technique

incorporates an inherent source of bias as in general the further one can see, the greater will be the likely degree of variety in the view. An additional major deficiency is that the criteria for the scoring of each component of the view are often so loosely defined that decisions on scores become largely a matter of personal judgement.

Two of the major aims of Clouston's (1967) investigation of 22 miles of the route of the Durham motorway, prior to the road's construction, were to assess the quality of the landscape through which the motorway was to pass and how improvements could be made to the scenic quality of areas visible from the road. The study was executed in two parts. First, a desk study was conducted, using all the relevant sources available, to gather as much information as possible on the land use pattern of the areas bordering the motorway. Subsequently a field survey was carried out, two of the aims of which were to check the results of the desk work and to compile maps showing the extent of the views obtainable by road users from the road (termed the 'visual corridor') and the number of times each part of those views would be seen by road users (termed 'vision frequencies'). The visual corridor and vision frequencies were found by plotting on a map recordings taken at different stations set up along the line of the projected motorway. As part of the analysis of the data derived from the surveys, landscape quality was then determined on the basis of the presence of "landscape features which are generally acknowledged as constituting pleasant lowland landscape" (Clouston, 1967, p.15) and features considered as anomalous or undesirable in such a landscape, with the quality of landscapes being categorized as 'good', 'fair', or 'poor'. Finally, recommendations on landscape improvement along the route of the projected road were made with priority areas for such improvement being identified as those which would be seen most often from the motorway and having poor quality landscapes. Clouston's work must be praised for

its employment of visual corridors and vision frequencies to simulate, with good effect, the scenic spectacle presented to the mobile road user, but the looseness of definition of the criteria against which landscape quality was assessed constitutes a fundamental weakness.

Burke et al. (1968) based their technique for evaluating scenery from a road upon the use of what they term the 'characteristic landscape', that is, the landscape that occurs most frequently along a given route, as a control landscape. The view from the road is divided into three zones, the Roadside Zone, Outer Zone, and Far Zone, and, to evaluate a given view, the contents of each of these zones are subjectively scored on the basis of a comparison with the characteristic landscape along the route. The resultant ratings can be recorded on maps or photographs and used as an aid in road management decisions, as a guide to the efficacious location of roadside facilities, or as useful summaries of the scenic qualities of routes. Again, however, in common with most of the earlier techniques of landscape evaluation, this method is highly subjective and in addition depends largely upon the surveyor's familiarity with the 'characteristic landscape' of a road.

Simpson and Zetter (1971), as part of a comparative evaluation of the costs and benefits of two alternative schemes for developing the same road, went a step further than other researchers by incorporating, in their evaluation of the scenic merits of each scheme to road users, a calculation of the impact of speed of travel on the views obtainable by road users. The authors based their evaluative technique on the assumptions that motorists would wish to see as much landscape as possible and experience the greatest possible variety of views. The route was accordingly divided into mile long segments and for each division measures were taken of the area of countryside which could be seen while driving at

60 mph, the design standard adopted by one of the proposed schemes, and while driving at 40 mph, the design standard of the second proposal. It was calculated that at 60 mph the area seen could be determined by using a 400 yd wide visual corridor, a 40° angle of vision, and a 1,800 ft focusing distance, and at 40 mph, a 500 yd wide visual corridor, a 74° angle of vision, and a focusing distance of 1,100 ft. For each segment, the area of highway which would be seen on the completion of each scheme was then subtracted from the total area which would be visible when each scheme had been executed. As an indication of the diversity of views which the road user would experience after the completion of each scheme the difference in height between the highest and lowest points on each mile long segment of each proposed road, the aggregate of all height changes on each segment of each road, and the sum of the horizontal angles of deviation of all bends on each segment of each road were measured. Finally, the length of road which, in each segment, would be in cuttings after each scheme's completion was determined and considered as a detracting quality. These measures were then tabulated, allowing a comparison of the scenic implications, from the point of view of road users, of the two alternative development proposals over the whole length of the route. Simpson and Zetter's study is of particular relevance as an example of the greater emphasis which can be given to amenity factors in planning when those factors are quantified. Moreover, while the authors recognized the experimental nature of their technique, its attempt to take account of the effect of speed of travel on the views obtainable by road users is, in this motorized age, highly commendable.

The lack of objective criteria for the assessment of scenic beauty and the difficulties associated with the subjective, personal, techniques of landscape evaluation have prompted a number of studies to employ the

subjective landscape preferences of a representative group of people as criteria against which to assess the aesthetic quality of landscapes. This is a perfectly valid approach as landscape can, and need, only be considered as a resource requiring analysis and management in the context of the demands placed upon it by its 'users'. In turn it is the landscape preferences of the users, of the tourists, recreationists, and other groups that observe and appreciate landscape, which condition these levels of demand and which are thus the only relevant basis for an analysis of landscape quality. The problem, then, hinges on the identification of the 'average', or most widely held, landscape preferences of the users.

An early example of research in this area is the work undertaken by Fines (1968) in East Sussex. A representative group of 45 people was selected, each of whom was independently asked to rank in terms of scenic beauty 20 colour photos of landscapes and townscapes. One of the photos was pre-selected as a control view with a scenic value of 1, and each person was asked to assign a score for aesthetic quality to each of all the other photos on the basis of comparisons with the control view. The major conclusion of the test was that those people with experience in the design disciplines have a more acute capability for evaluating landscape than those with no such experience, although the scenic preferences of both groups are highly similar¹. A landscape survey of East Sussex was then undertaken, based on an assessment of the aesthetic quality of 'total landscape', as opposed to an evaluation of its component parts, and employing a scale of scenic values derived from the mean scores given to each of the test views by the group with design experience.

¹ It is noteworthy that Jacobs and Way (1968) reached the same conclusion in their investigation of the comparative ability of observers with and without visual training to assess the capacity of different landscapes to visually absorb development.

A more sophisticated research project, conducted in the USA by Shafer, Hamilton, and Schmidt (1969), was directed at the identification of which variables in photos of landscapes were significantly related to public preferences for the depicted landscapes. The first step was to investigate the landscape preferences of a randomly selected sample of campers, a landscape 'user group' chosen because of the wide variety of outdoor recreational activities pursued by, and of socio-economic characteristics of, its members. The choice of such a heterogeneous group ensured the widest possible applicability of the test's results in recreational resource management. Each camper was asked to rank a number of black and white photographs of landscapes according to his or her preference for each of the scenes depicted. The photographs included representative views of typical wildlands in the USA. Meanwhile, the researchers precisely defined the composition of each photo in terms of the presence of landscape zones, such as vegetation zones and water zones, the dimensions and areas of these zones, and the tonal variation within, and area of, each sky, land, and water area present. This data set was then subjected to factor analysis and a regression analysis performed with mean rank of photograph as the dependent variable and certain items in the photographs, these items being chosen on the basis of their loadings on each factor, as possible predictor variables. The final result was an equation which indicated that the campers' landscape preferences depended on the area or perimeter measurements of six items within each photograph. This model was field-tested and found to be "usually ... applicable for predicting landscape preferences for a wide range of outdoor recreationists in different areas of New York State" (Shafer et al., 1969, p.15).

The Landscape Evaluation Research Project undertaken by the Centre for Urban and Regional Studies at the University of Manchester (Robinson et al., 1976) constitutes the most comprehensive work in the field

of landscape evaluation to date. The study team devised two new methods of assessing the visual quality of landscape, both using grid squares as the basic survey units, and both utilizing the landscape preferences of observers drawn from the environmental and design professions to derive a quality score for the landscape within each of the grid squares.

In Method One, two control squares are assigned arbitrary scores and the observers, having thoroughly inspected the landscapes within the control squares, appraise in the field all the other grid squares in the study area in turn, assigning to each a visual quality score, the value of which depends on the extent to which the quality of the landscape in each square differs from, or is similar to, that within the two control squares. Having completed the field survey, each observer gives a score for the best and worst landscapes he believes exist in the UK. The UK best and worst landscape scores for each observer are then set at 100 and 0, respectively, and the scores assigned to each grid square in the field by each observer are converted to a common 0 - 100 scale. The mean score for each survey unit is obtained¹, the results are grouped into quality classes, and a map showing the distribution of landscapes by visual quality produced. This technique has the advantage that it is the landscape in its totality which is being assessed, rather than its component parts. On the other hand, the technique's dependence on survey work in the field is a major drawback.

The second method devised by the Manchester team is similar to the Coventry-Solihull-Warwickshire method described earlier in that a regression equation is employed with landscape quality as the dependent variable and

¹ The distribution of the observers' scores for each grid square is rigorously tested to ensure that the mean score effectively represents the opinions of the observers.

landscape components as independent variables. Having decided which components of the landscape are to form the independent data set, the amount of each component in each grid square in the study area is measured from maps. A factor analysis of the independent data is then performed with each factor indicated in the output being identified in terms of the landscape components with which it is correlated and the value of each factor in each survey unit is determined. The factors and external variables constitute the controlling variables in the regression equation. To obtain values for the dependent variable, landscape quality scores are derived exactly as in Method One, but in this case for only a sample of the grid squares in the study area. The regression analysis is then performed and scores for the visual quality of each survey unit derived. As in Method One, the scores are grouped into quality classes and a map of landscape quality produced. Method Two is preferable to Method One in that the need for field work is reduced to a minimum. On the other hand, a disadvantage is that the quality of the landscape in each grid square is not, in Method Two, evaluated in its totality, but is predicted from the amount of each landscape component contained in each square.

The efficacy of a landscape survey which derives its aesthetic criteria from the identification of peoples' landscape preferences clearly depends on the extent to which the preferences of the people studied are truly representative of those of the group, or groups, of landscape users to whom the results of the survey will be most relevant. Sonnenfeld's (1967), Peterson and Neuman's (1969) and Hope's (1971) studies, while none are strictly concerned with the aesthetic quality, as such, of landscapes, all provide illustrations of the significant differences which can exist between people's landscape preferences.

Sonnenfeld (1967), in his study of environmental perception among Arctic populations, attempted to arrive at a measure of the levels of adaptation to the Arctic environment achieved by different groups by a comparison of their landscape preferences with the actual landscapes amongst which they were living, the assumption being that the greater was the similarity between a group's preferred and actual environments, the greater its level of adaptation, and vice-versa. To identify the groups' environmental preferences a paired slide test was devised using slides depicting a wide variety of landscapes which differed along one or more of the four major dimensions of: ruggedness of topography; abundance of water; richness of vegetative cover; and temperature conditions, as suggested by such factors as the presence of snow in the view. In the test, each subject was asked to choose which of the two slides projected depicted the most preferable environment in which to live for a year or two. This test was given to Eskimo adults at three Alaskan villages; to Eskimo youngsters and their teachers in elementary and junior high schools in the same villages; to staff of the Arctic Research Laboratory at Barrow; to a US Army Special Forces group; to employees of one of the DEW Line stations; and to college and junior high school students in Delaware. The results showed significant differences in landscape preferences between the populations of different villages, between the sexes in the native groups, between native and non-native groups, and between the different non-native groups¹.

Peterson and Neumann's (1969) study aimed at the derivation of equations, comparable in type to that obtained by Shafer et al., that would permit

¹ Sonnenfeld advanced possible reasons for these differences but these reasons, like the exact nature of the differences themselves, are not, for the sake of brevity, discussed here.

the prediction of people's preferences for different recreational environments and/or the establishment of the relative importance, with respect to these preferences, of the various elements within the environments. The study involved an investigation of the perceptions and preferences of a sample of Lake Michigan beach users who were asked to evaluate a series of black and white photographs of beaches, all of these scenes differing from each other in a number of major respects such as in the amount of natural vegetation present, and in the degree of crowding on, and extent of urbanization around, the beach. The results showed that two beach user-groups with distinctly different preferences were identifiable. A larger group preferred scenic natural beaches, was attracted by vegetation, and found crowding distasteful, while a smaller group preferred city swimming beaches, was sensitive to the quality of beach sand and the attractiveness of buildings, but was insensitive to the degree of crowding on the beach and the amount of natural vegetation present. The reasons for the differences between the preferences of the two groups could not be determined precisely, but it was tentatively concluded that each group in fact used beaches for different purposes, the larger group, which of the two tended to be older and better educated, seeking solitude and pleasant scenery, while the smaller group was more interested in seeing people and activity and in cooling off in the water.

Hope (1971) went a step further than other researchers in that he attempted not only to identify which elements of landscape attracted or repelled people, but also to establish why those elements were liked or disliked. In accordance with the 'semiotic' school of psychology, he concentrated on "the relationships between people and those objects of their environment which they perceive and interpret as signs, i.e., objects which under certain conditions or in certain contexts act as media, carrying

meanings or implications about other objects or people and thus stimulating in their interpreters predispositions to particular reactions and responses" (Hope, 1971, p.1). Hope thus argued that the factors determining landscape preferences broadly fell into three groups: the physical attributes of landscapes; the feelings and thoughts evoked by particular landscapes in observers; and the activities, such as fishing and climbing, which certain landscape elements signified to observers.

Edinburgh schoolchildren were asked to choose, and to state their reasons for choosing, the most and least preferred of 24 photographs of landscapes, having first been instructed to assess each scene for its attractiveness as a place in which to spend the day. It was found that important variations in preferences existed, particularly between the two sexes. For example, the photograph which was most preferred by the great majority of boys in one class depicted mountainous moorland with water, while the girls of the same class overwhelmingly chose as their most preferred photograph a view of a flat wooded lowland area with water and flowers. The subjects' verbal responses were then rigorously analysed and the relationships between observable, physical, landscape elements (that is, signs), on the one hand, and intangible positively and negatively preferred properties (termed 'referents'), such as 'peace', 'solitude', and 'ugliness', on the other, were established, as were the relationships between observable landscape elements and the activities they signified to the subjects. It was shown how, having identified landscape signs and their meanings, or referents, from such analyses, the relative attractiveness, for a specified activity, and in terms of intangible scenic properties, of any given landscape to different groups, or of various landscapes to a single group, can be assessed on the basis of the nature of the observable signs present. Hope's study, even more than those of Sonnenfeld and Peterson and Neumann, is

commendable for its attempt to penetrate beyond the mere identification of people's landscape preferences to the meanings of those preferences.

Nevertheless, in the light of the paucity of our knowledge regarding the correlation between verbal and non-verbal responses to stimuli (Berlyne, 1971, p.30), the reliability of a technique based solely on the verbal responses of subjects must be called into question.

The researcher is thus confronted with seemingly conflicting evidence as to the extent of agreement on environmental attractiveness among observers. Those in each of Fine's, Shafer et al.'s, and the University of Manchester team's studies displayed marked similarities between their landscape preferences while the opposite was true of those in each of Sonnenfeld's, Peterson and Neumann's, and Hope's. Some light, however, is shed on this apparent dilemma by the results of Coughlin and Goldstein's (1970) work. These authors conducted a series of tests in which observers were asked to score slides showing landscapes according to the relative beauty of the scenes depicted. In all of these tests the judges exhibited a high level of agreement. Moreover, it was found from a series of re-tests a month after the first test series that the slide scores were little affected by either the time interval or by an intervening in-depth analysis of the scenes by the judges. In two other tests, however, the same judges were instructed to score the scenes on the basis of their desirability as places in which to live and according to their attractiveness as areas to drive through, respectively. In these two tests the level of agreement between the observers was much lower than it had been in any of the other tests. It was tentatively postulated that the judges had much more uniform standards for evaluating the aesthetic quality of landscapes than they had for assessing the value of particular environments for specific uses.

Taking this into account, it is perhaps significant that Fines, Shafer et al., and the University of Manchester team had all asked observers to evaluate scenic beauty whereas Sonnenfeld had required the assessment of his test scenes as places in which to live, Peterson and Neumann had asked for the evaluation of the scenes depicted in their test photographs as locations for beach activities¹, and Hope had required the assessment of his test scenes as places in which to spend a day. While research in this area is in its infancy, the available evidence would thus seem to suggest that the extent to which a test group's landscape preferences may be taken as representative of those of a larger group is much more limited when the test subjects are asked for assessments of landscapes in terms of their value for specific purposes than when they are asked to evaluate landscapes for their aesthetic quality in the abstract.

The problems of expense and logistics posed by the direct appraisal by test observers of scenery in the field, and the contrasting cheapness and convenience of photographs, as well as the more standardized presentation of scenes that they allow, have prompted most studies of people's landscape preferences to employ photographs as a means of displaying landscapes to observers. However, it is pertinent to ask whether the use of such indirect media of presentation is an adequate substitute for direct observation in the field. Specifically the question is whether people's responses to photographs of landscapes are comparable to their responses to the same landscapes when these are appraised directly. Coughlin and Goldstein's (1970) work is one of the few studies to have explored this problem. 92 locations were first scored

¹ Peterson and Neumann did not actually specify to their test subjects that the photographs of beaches which those subjects were asked to evaluate should be assessed in terms of the attractiveness of the scenes depicted for beach activities. However, since all the subjects were beach users and all the photographs depicted beaches, it can safely be assumed that the subjects did in fact judge the scenes in this way.

in the field for their attractiveness by two observers and in subsequent tests it was found that the mean scores for attractiveness given by nine judges to slides depicting those same locations were significantly correlated with the mean scores originally given by the two on-site observers. This result, while its significance is limited by the small number of field observers involved, nevertheless provides some evidence that responses to slides depicting landscapes are in fact consistent with responses to those same landscapes when viewed in the field.

In a more recent study by White and Dunn (see Dunn, 1974) respondents at six sites in the West Midlands were asked to rank in terms of attractiveness five photographs of scenery, one of each site except that at which the interview took place, and were then asked to rank the interview site in comparison with the photographs. It was found that the mean rank achieved by four of the six sites via on-site observation corresponded very closely with the mean rank achieved by photographs depicting the same sites, while there were exceptional circumstances which explained the lower level of correlation between the mean on-site and photo-ranks for the other two sites. Again, this strongly suggests that photographs are indeed an adequate substitute for field observation but it is clear that research into this whole question is urgently needed.

From this brief survey of the most important techniques of landscape evaluation which have been devised to date it is clear that considerable progress has been achieved. Nevertheless, it is contended that almost all the techniques¹ which use grid squares as survey units suffer from the same fundamental weakness, namely that they are limited to the evaluation only of the contents of the grid squares. In the real life situation a view, or scenery, is the product of the interaction between the observer, located at

¹ The discussion here refers only to those techniques designed to evaluate the scenic quality of areas, as opposed to those designed to assess the quality of views from points along a road. In the context of a study of a country's landscape resources only the former techniques are of relevance since the quality of the landscape in many areas may, by the use only of techniques for evaluating views from roads, be precluded from assessment because those areas are not traversed by roads.

a viewpoint, and what can be seen from that point. It is therefore contended that the evaluation of a grid square should not relate only to the topographical elements within the square, but should be based on a consideration of the quality of the views which can be obtained from it.

The point has been succinctly made by John Thornes (in Crofts and Cooke, 1974, p.27) commenting on a study which compared Linton's and Fines' techniques, the former having been applied with grid squares as survey units. "It is surely obvious that when a person (e.g. Fines) is looking at a landscape he is invariably looking out of the kilometre square in which he is standing, especially in undulating countryside. A better Linton estimate for each kilometre square would be given by integrating the scores of surrounding squares, with perhaps some distance decay weighting. The number of squares considered being a function of the distance of the effective horizon, which could be worked out from the map."

Only two existing methods of landscape evaluation which use grid squares as survey units even appear to recognize the importance of views out of the grid squares, although neither are actually based on the evaluation of such views. Thus, the Coventry-Solihull-Warwickshire technique incorporates an (admittedly crude) Inter-Visibility Index, and Tandy's method includes an assessment of the quality of "Views Out" as part of the evaluation. On the other hand, the Coventry-Solihull-Warwickshire and Manchester University methods do involve the evaluation of views by observers, but only those parts of views contained within individual grid squares. No attention is given by the observers to those parts of a given view lying outside a particular grid square, and the assumption that observers are capable of assessing only parts of views in this way is dubious.

All landscape evaluation techniques using grid squares as survey units and which seek to evaluate only the contents of those squares are thus contended to be of little value as they can give highly misleading results. This is not, however, a problem with evaluative techniques which utilize tracts as survey units since, either implicitly or explicitly,

these tracts are defined on the basis of the views which can be obtained from a variety of points within them. While a view is, strictly speaking, tied to a specific point, it does seem reasonable that tracts can be defined on the basis of their containing adjacent viewpoints from which an observer can obtain views of essentially similar quality. The techniques involving the use of tracts, based as they are on the evaluation of views and not simply topographic elements, thus show an understanding of the true nature of landscape or scenery. That is, they recognize that scenery consists of what can be seen from a viewpoint by an observer and not of the contents of a survey unit considered without regard to the location of the observer.

However, as will be argued later, grid squares are superior to tracts as survey units in resource evaluation. It is thus strongly felt that future research in the field of landscape evaluation should be directed towards the derivation of evaluative techniques founded on assessments of what can be seen from grid squares. Such a technique is developed later in this thesis.

4. The Evaluation of Water Bodies

Water bodies support a very wide range of activities which vary significantly in their resource requirements. A major decision to be made is thus whether to attempt separate assessments of the attractiveness of water bodies as locations for each of those activities, or whether the evaluation should be based on their attractiveness as locations for a limited number of activities whose demands on water resources are representative of the range of demands made by the whole group of water-based activities. Underlying the latter approach is the assumption that a water body suitable for one activity will be equally suitable for a range of activities making similar demands upon water resources. For example, a body of water deemed suitable for sailing would be considered equally able to support a wide range of activities involving boats. This assumption appears to be eminently valid. Because this approach is the more economical of the two, it would seem to be the most desirable for use in an overall assessment of water bodies as resources for leisure activities.

Proof of its efficacy comes from Duffield and Owen's (1970) study of Lanarkshire's recreational resources, in which water bodies were assessed in terms of an evaluation of five separate factors. The technique not only enables the demands of a wide range of activities, both active and passive, to be represented in the assessment, but also allowed the difference in the nature of coastal and inland waters to be taken into account. The five factors were: suitability for freshwater angling; for other active pursuits on fresh water; for informal recreation orientated towards fresh water; for active sea-based pursuits; and for informal sea-based activities.¹ The authors felt that conflicts arising from the incompatibility of certain activities when pursued simultaneously at the same location, for example possible conflicts between water skiing and swimming, were problems to be resolved at a later, more detailed stage in the process of resource assessment.

Whichever approach is adopted, however, an essential step is the establishment of evaluative criteria, or standards, against which water resources are to be assessed for their attractiveness as locations for the activities concerned. But standards, for active water-based pursuits at least, are "by and large rudimentary, at best derived from the cumulative experience of participants, and at worst little more than inspired guesses" (Owen, 1973, pp. 74-75). A major obstacle which has hindered the establishment of standards, both optimal and minimal, for active pursuits on water is the fact that participants are prepared to accept a wide range of conditions. As Owen (1973, p.75) has noted, "some activities ... depend on the existence of limited and particular resources. More commonly, though, a range of sites can be used differing chiefly in the quality of the recreational experiences that they can provide ... Active recreationists tend, often, to be highly motivated towards their particular interests and will frequently 'make do' and put up with poor facilities and great inconvenience". Another major reason why so little is known about the suitability of water resources for active recreation is the relative lack

¹ The evaluative criteria used to assess the first four of these factors are specified in Table 85 and those used to assess the last are detailed later in this section.

Table 85 Recommended Standards for Active Water-Based Pursuits.

Activity	Standard	Source ^a
Fishing	Fishing boats need 8 acres of water each.	Louisiana Parks and Recreation Commission, 1966, p.3.0.16.
	Fishing from boats on lakes: 1 boat per 10 acres.	Threinen, 1964, p.357.
	Fishing from trolling boats: 2-4 boats per acre.	Soil Conservation Service, n.d. Cited in Jaakson, 1970, p.33.
	Fishing from anchored boats: 4-7 boats per acre.	Soil Conservation Service, 1964. Cited in Jaakson, 1970, p.33.
	Stream fishing: 1 fisherman per mile of stream.	Placer County Recreation Commission, 1963, pp.1-9.
	River fishing: 1 fisherman per quarter mile of river. Approx. 3 acres per fisherman.	Wisconsin Conservation Department, 1966, pp. G.10-G.11.
	Fishing in a reservoir: favourable habitats; fish; more than 3 acres of water for lake fishing; proximity to stream entries into reservoir; diverse shoreline; spatial separation from other water activities.	Rogers <u>et al.</u> , 1971, p.93.
	Each casting fisherman needs a minimum of 0.4 acres of water.	Threinen, 1964, p.357.
	Freshwater angling: polluted rivers, and rivers, streams, and canals less than 8 m in width not suitable; lakes and reservoirs over 5 ha in area suitable.	Duffield and Owen, 1970, p.167.
Swimming	100 sq ft of shore space per person for a public beach in a metropolitan area; a beach 30 ft deep could then accommodate 3 swimmers for each 10 ft of shoreline.	ORRRC. Cited in Threinen, 1964, p.356.

Table 85 (Cont'd)

Activity	Standard	Source ^a
	25 'effective feet' of shoreline per 50 swimmers.	California Public Outdoor Recreation Plan Committee, 1960, pp.48; 84.
	50 sq ft of beach per person.	US Army Corps of Engineers, 1967. Cited in Rogers <u>et al.</u> , 1971, p.95.
	Clean water over 3 ft deep; a lake bottom free of obstacles; water temperature of 50°F or more; southward orientation; spatial separation from boating and fishing; proximity to picnic facilities; less than 4 per cent slope; proximity to other activities; natural sand areas; adequate sub-surface slopes.	Rogers <u>et al.</u> , 1971, p.95.
Water skiing	40 acres per boat.	Louisiana Parks and Recreation Commission, 1966. Cited in Jaakson, 1970, p.34.
	1 person per 13 acres of water; 20 acres of water per rig may be adequate, but 40 acres is more desirable.	Wisconsin Conservation Department, 1966, pp.G.10-G.11.
	At least 10 acres per rig; area needed can be 10 ha or more for competitive events.	Institution of Water Engineers, 1972, p.7.
	5 acres per boat.	Soil Conservation Service, 1964. Cited in Jaakson, 1970, p.34.
Power boating	1 person per 8 acres of water surface; estimated 20 acres per boat.	Wisconsin Conservation Department, 1966, pp.G.10-G.11.
	No power boating on lakes smaller than 100 acres.	Jaakson, 1971, p.385.

Table 85 (Cont'd)

Activity	Standard	Source ^a
Canoeing	1 person per quarter mile of stream.	Wisconsin Conservation Department, 1966, pp.G10-G.11.
	Water body of at least 9 in depth and 2 ft width.	Littlewood, 1971, p.88.
Rowing	1 boat per acre of water.	T. Murray. Cited in Rogers <u>et al.</u> , 1971, p.105.
	For competitive events, a minimum stretch of water 880 yds by 11 yds with a depth of 3.5 ft.	Littlewood, 1971, p.89.
	An area of up to 2,100 m by 100 m required for adult competitive rowing.	Willis, 1971, p.97.
Sailing	An area of open water with a minimum depth of 4-5 ft, depending on the class of dinghy to be sailed. Much depends on the type of sailing: 8-10 boats per acre is acceptable for recreational sailing but 2 boats per acre is preferable for racing.	Littlewood, 1971, p.89.
General boating (all on-water activities except fishing and water skiing)	1 boat per acre of water surface.	US Army Corps of Engineers, n.d. Cited in Jaakson, 1970, p.35.
	20 acres of water surface per boat.	Louisiana Parks and Recreation Commission, 1966. Cited in Jaakson, 1970, p.35.
	20 acres of water surface per boat.	Wisconsin Conservation Department, 1966. Cited in Jaakson, 1970, p.35.
	3 acres per boat.	California Public Outdoor Recreation Plan Committee, 1960. Cited in Jaakson, 1970, p.35.
	3 acres per boat.	Soil Conservation Service, 1964. Cited in Jaakson, 1970, p.35.

Table 85 (Cont'd)

Activity	Standard	Source ^a
	5 acres per boat.	Candeub, Cabot, and Associates, n.d. Cited in Jaakson, 1970, p.35.
	5 acres per boat.	Placer County Recreation Commission, 1963. Cited in Jaakson, 1970, p.35.
Sub-aqua	Exclusive use of a water body preferably deeper than 20 ft and with dimensions of at least 100 yds by 20 yds.	Littlewood, 1971, p.89.
Active recreation on fresh water (except angling)	All unpolluted water bodies, provided length at least 1 km, width at least 200 m, and area at least 20 ha.	Duffield and Owen, 1970, p.167.
Active pursuits on sea water	All coastal areas.	Duffield and Owen, 1970, p.167.

^a The author was unable to obtain the complete references for a number of the sources listed in this table. None of these sources are included in the list of references at the end of this chapter.

of attention which has been afforded this topic by researchers. A search through the literature produced the list of recommended standards for active water-based pursuits shown in Table 85. This list illustrates just how limited is the extent, and extreme the fragmentation, of our knowledge of the requirements of those activities¹.

Criteria for the assessment of water bodies as resources for passive activities, on the other hand, are less difficult to establish because these activities are less demanding in their resource requirements than are active pursuits on water although rigorous definitions of such criteria are rare in the literature. Duffield and Owen, in the above-mentioned study considered all unpolluted freshwater bodies within 400 m of a metalled road as suitable for informal recreation orientated towards fresh water, and all coastal areas containing a stretch of sandy or shingle beach and within 400 m of a metalled road as being suitable for informal recreation orientated towards the sea. In a study of an area's recreational resources the use of access by road as the major constraint on a water body's suitability for informal water-based activities is well justified in view of the dominance of the motor car as a means of transport for recreationists.

At present, then, Duffield and Owen's (1970) technique of evaluating the recreational capability of water bodies is the only such technique available comprehensive enough to allow assessments to be made of the suitability for different types of water-based recreational activities of different types of water surfaces. The technique, meanwhile, is characterized by its ease of application and by its capacity to be applied at the desk using maps as data sources.

¹ It is not specified in the great majority of the sources listed in Table 85 whether the standards cited in them represent the minimum conditions under which the respective activities with which those standards are concerned can be practised or the optimum conditions necessary for the pursuit of those activities.

5. The Evaluation of Climate

A pleasant climate is a fundamental resource for most types of tourism and it is of considerable interest that a number of researchers, instead of simply describing climate in terms of temperature, rainfall, humidity, and so on, have gone a step further by attempting to combine data on some of these elements to produce indices expressing climatic conditions in terms of their effect upon human comfort. It must be noted, however, that the majority of these indices have been empirically derived from the sensations of large numbers of people of North American or West European culture and reaction to environment. It is therefore quite possible that the various formulae will not apply to, say, Africans or Asians.

Perhaps the most simple measure of climatic comfort is the Discomfort Index (or the Temperature-Humidity Index) developed by Thom (1959; see also Gates, 1972, pp.94-95 and Griffiths, 1966, p.74). Values of the index are obtained by using either of the following equations:

$$DI = 0.4(T+Td) + 15$$

$$DI = T - 0.55(1-0.01rh)(T-58)$$

where: T is the air temperature,

Td is the dew point temperature,

rh is the relative humidity,

DI is the Discomfort Index value.

In conditions in which DI values below 70 prevail no discomfort is felt; in conditions where values are between 70 and 75 some people feel uncomfortable; 50 per cent of people feel discomfort when the value reaches 75; and when values reach above 80 most people are showing signs of discomfort. The major weakness of the index is that, since it was designed to evaluate the degrees of discomfort felt by the average office worker, the

effects of solar radiation and wind flow are excluded from consideration. Nevertheless, the Discomfort Index does successfully relate the impacts of temperature and humidity which are generally recognized as being the two major climatic determinants of human comfort. Further, its ease of computation is a major attribute.

A more sophisticated system for classifying climates according to their effect on human comfort has been devised by Terjung (1966). This technique is, however, too complex to be described in detail here. Suffice it to say that the classification makes use of two indices: a Comfort Index, values of which are derived by the application of dry bulb and relative humidity data to a comfort chart (itself a device for relating dry bulb temperatures to relative humidity values); and a Wind Effect Index, values of which are obtained by applying the wind chill relation of Siple and Passel (described by Mather, 1974, p.246) with an adjustment for the effect of solar radiation. Each of these indices consists of two parts, one for daytime conditions and one for nighttime conditions. Maps showing physio-climatic regions can be produced by delimiting areas displaying similar values of the two indices for a given month. It is noteworthy that Terjung considers the Comfort Index to be the more important of the two indices, a view he holds both because, of all climatic elements, temperature and humidity have the most noticeable effect upon human comfort, and because the Wind Effect Index is not operative in certain conditions, for example when skies are overcast, at night, or when there is no wind.

In spite of the progress that has been made in the derivation of measures of climatic comfort, the only tourist or recreational resource survey to date which has attempted the systematic incorporation of any such measures is that conducted by Vedenin and Miroschnichenko (1970) of the natural resources for tourism and recreation in the USSR. For summer

tourism the authors identified eight basic natural factors which had the greatest influence on the suitability of an area for tourism. Three of these, the length of the period with favourable temperatures, the duration of sunlight, and relative humidity were climatic elements. For winter tourism six natural factors were identified, of which four were climatic. These latter were winds, snow cover, the length of the period with favourable temperatures, and the duration of sunlight. Each of the physical-geographic regions of the USSR defined by G.D. Richter was then assigned 14 separate scores in the range 0 - 4 according to the suitability for tourism of the eight summer and six winter natural factors in each area. The five classes, to each of which a score in the range 0 - 4 was assigned, into which each climatic factor had been divided were defined on the basis of the effects of those factors on human physiology. Finally, the individual scores attained by each region for summer factors were combined, as were those for winter factors, and the two resultant data sets used, respectively, to construct maps showing the overall potential of the regions to support summer and winter tourism. It is to be hoped that future tourist or recreational resource surveys will follow Vedenin and Miroschnichenko's lead in including objective measures of climatic comfort as part of the overall assessment of a region's potential for tourism or recreation.

6. The Evaluation of Historic Sites

Our ignorance of exactly which aspects of historic sites tourists find attractive severely hinders the definition of objective criteria for use in the assessment of such sites as tourist attractions. In this situation it is not surprising that the most frequent method of evaluating an area's historic sites as tourist resources has been to simply grade them entirely

subjectively on the basis of their estimated appeal to tourists, a procedure which suffers not only from its subjectivity but also from the necessity for considerable field work. OTAM, for example, adopted this approach in their survey of Syria's historic monuments (OTAM, 1972a, pp.86-89).

A possibly more fruitful approach is, however, suggested by a method developed by Hunt (1969) for the assessment of the tourist value of settlements. Hunt devised an index based on the length of written description in guide books about each village or town. Thus, places allocated less than ten lines in guide books received a score of 0, places afforded 10 - 20 lines scores 25 and so on up to a maximum score of 100 achieved by places allocated over 200 lines of description. Hunt (1969, p.41) admitted that "the technique is subject to the obvious failing of author or editor bias and even an average for several guides may not produce an effective compromise. This is so because many inferior guides tend to be little more than precis of earlier works and will therefore follow with a similar emphasis on selected settlements." Nevertheless, to the extent that one would expect a broad correlation between the length of written description about places in guide books and the degree of tourist interest of those places, the method is objective. Further, the technique has the major advantages of being simple to apply and of not requiring work in the field. While Hunt used the method to evaluate the tourist interest of settlements, the technique is clearly eminently applicable to the assessment of individual historic sites as tourist resources.

7. The Evaluation of Accessibility

Physical access to tourist resources, and in particular, in view of the prime importance of motor coaches and motor cars as modes of transport for tourists in their destination areas, access to these resources by road,

may not, in itself, be a resource for tourism but there can be little doubt that it has a fundamental impact on the ease with which tourist resources can be exploited. An area of great scenic beauty, for example, is of little value as a tourist resource if tourists are unable to reach it. Similarly, an historic monument will contribute nothing to a country's tourist potential if means of access are absent. Indeed, it is arguable that no evaluation of an area's tourist resources can be complete without an assessment of physical access to those resources and a number of techniques for evaluating accessibility which have been successfully incorporated in recreational resource surveys, all of these methods being dependent on maps as data sources, are reviewed in this section.

Blacksell (1971), in his study of the recreational resources of Dartmoor National Park, scored grid squares, which he adopted as the areal units of assessment, 5, 4, or 3, according to whether an A, B, or C class road, respectively, was present. If a square contained no road the distance to the nearest road of any class was measured and the following values assigned to the square: if a road was up to two miles distant: 1; two to three miles distant: 0; three to four miles distant: -1; and four to five miles distant: -2. A drawback of this system, however, is that it is somewhat imprecise.

It was suggested in an investigation of the form that a projected study of resources for informal recreation in south east England should take (Countryside Commission, 1971) that the Alpha Index, which provides measures of the connectivity of road networks, should be used to assess the accessibility of the area within each of the 5 km x 5 km grid squares which it was suggested should be employed, in that part of the study concerned with evaluating recreational resources, as survey units. However, while the Alpha Index could probably be used with good effect in an area which, like south east England, has a dense road network, it should be stressed that it is not applicable in areas with sparse road networks.

By contrast, the Coventry-Solihull-Warwickshire study (Coventry County Council et al., 1971b) aimed at the identification of areas where priority should be given to conservation and considered that the freedom from the deleterious effects of mass motorized recreation that certain areas enjoyed because of their inaccessibility to the motor car was a positive asset which should be maintained. Accordingly, scores were assigned to grid squares on the basis of their remoteness from main roads, with the highest scores going to those squares most distant from such roads. On the other hand, recreationists who leave their cars behind were not considered to be a threat to the environment and each square was scored for the density of its footpath network, measured by the number of times paths intersected the edge of the square, with highest values being received by those squares with the densest networks. As far as roads are concerned, then, the Coventry-Solihull-Warwickshire method essentially measures inaccessibility by road and could not be used where measures of accessibility, as such, by road were required.

Finally, Duffield and Owen (1970), in their study of Lanarkshire's recreational resources, rather than evaluating accessibility as a separate factor, incorporated accessibility constraints in the criteria they used to assess the suitability of land and water to accommodate a variety of recreational activities. For example, all areas within 400 m of a metalled road were considered to be suitable for camping and caravanning, and all unpolluted fresh water bodies within 400 m of a metalled road were considered suitable for informal recreational activities orientated towards fresh water. Duffield and Owen's measures of accessibility, however, obviously could not be employed in a situation where it was required to assess accessibility as a separate factor.

8. Conclusion to the Assessment of Potential Resources for Tourism

It emerges from the preceding review of resource evaluation methods that objective techniques which can be applied at the desk using maps as primary data sources are, with the exception of techniques for landscape evaluation, available for use either directly or in modified form in a study of Syria's tourist resources. Thus, Duffield and Owen have evolved the only comprehensive method for the evaluation of different types of water body as tourist resources and efficacious methods of assessing the suitability of climate for tourism exist although these latter have been largely ignored by studies of tourist resources to date. Hunt's technique for assessing the tourist value of settlements has potential for the evaluation of historic sites as tourist attractions while several successful measures of accessibility have been devised.¹

9. The Potential Surface Technique

Available techniques for the evaluation of the relevant tourist resources have thus been reviewed but it was shown in Table 84 that it is combinations of these resources which are required to support the various types of tourism which Syria can expect to cater for in the future. It follows that a method of systematically evaluating an area's resources in combination is required. Direct evaluations of resource combinations can, however, by contrast to evaluations of individual resources, only be undertaken unsystematically. The best approach is thus to evaluate the area's individual resources first and then to systematically combine the individual assessments into composite

¹ It should be said, however, that these accessibility measures are only successful in the sense that they met the requirements of the studies in which they were employed, or, in the case of the Alpha Index, of a projected study. It will be seen in Chapter Five that in certain circumstances none of the accessibility measures reviewed in the preceding section can be used with good effect.

assessments of those resources in combination. There is therefore a need not only for techniques with which to evaluate the area's individual resources but also for a method which will allow the necessary systematic combination of the separate assessments of those resources.

In this respect it is of great interest that a number of studies have recently been undertaken which examine the development potential of combinations of resources, both human and physical, by means of overlaying a series of 'factor surfaces'. This method has been variously named the Development Potential Technique (Coventry County Council et al., 1971a), the Potential Surface Technique (Standing Conference on Regional Planning in South Wales and Monmouthshire, 1971), and Potential Surface Analysis (Zetter, 1973; Countryside Commission, 1974). Works utilizing the same method include Duffield and Owen's study of Lanarkshire's recreational resources (Duffield and Owen, 1970), Rogers et al.'s study of the Honey Hill area of New Hampshire (Rogers et al., 1971), Forbes' study of developable land in west Scotland (Forbes, 1969), and the Hertfordshire Countryside Plan (Kitching, 1970). Meanwhile, the method was suggested for use in a projected study of informal recreational resources in south east England (Countryside Commission, 1971).

The Potential Surface Technique is essentially a rationalization of the conventional sieve map approach. In the latter method separate maps are produced, using differently shaped and sized areal survey units in the construction of each map, showing the distribution by quality in an area of each of a number of resources, and the separate maps are then simply superimposed. Meanwhile, in the former method separate resource quality maps, in this method termed 'factor surfaces', are again produced but in this case

identical survey units are employed in the construction of each map. The separate maps are not, however, simply superimposed. Instead, the individual assessments of each resource in each survey unit are compounded into new measures of the quality of these resources in combination and a final map of these new measures is produced. It is this fusion of assessments of individual resources into assessments of those resources in combination that is the major advantage of the Potential Surface Technique over the sieve map approach. No other methods which involve, in the course of evaluating resources in combination, this fusion exist.

Zetter (1973, p.24) listed the most important attributes of the Potential Surface Technique as follows:

- a) It can be used to compare on a uniform basis the potential of different areas for the same type of development, thus enabling locational priorities to be established.
- b) It is adaptable, in that changed weightings of the component parts can be incorporated as policies change¹. As knowledge increases new indices can be incorporated; existing indices can be refined or omitted.
- c) It can, by constructing surfaces for a sequence of time periods, be used to monitor changes.
- d) It can be used to project situations forward in time by building surfaces for future years based on assumptions and predictions about the factors that contribute to the surfaces.
- e) It can be used to identify conflicting interests in the use of an area by the construction of surfaces for a variety of interests. These surfaces can be compared and if an area has potential for use by two or more activities a situation of likely conflict can be identified and subjected to closer study.
- f) It can be relatively economical in the use of staff time as field work is not always required and the data requirements need not be exacting.

¹ For a critique of the use of formal numerical weights in the Potential Surface Technique, however, see section one of Chapter Six.

- g) It can be used in a positive way to involve members of the public in the initial stages of the planning process by using their participation to formulate and weight objectives.
- h) It can be used at either the generation or the evaluation stage of the plan-making process; but, because of a lack of other available methods, its use at the former stage is probably more valuable.

As Zetter noted (see (g) above), the opinions of the public, that is, at least in the case of some types of development, the resource users, can be employed in applications of the Potential Surface Technique. It is worth emphasizing that ultimately the opinions of the resource users, whether, for a given type of development, these be the public at large or not, provide the only truly valid guide to the initial choice of the resources for which factor surfaces should be constructed, to the choice of evaluative criteria for those resources, to the definition of the relative value of elements within any one surface, and to the variable weightings which should be given to different factor surfaces. To obtain these opinions, however, requires a major research effort in its own right and most studies have therefore found it necessary to proceed largely on the basis of assumptions. Recourse to such assumptions inevitably reduces the reliability of results obtained using the Potential Surface Technique.

10. The Scale and Stages of Evaluation

In surveying the tourist resources of a large area using the Potential Surface Technique it is logical to proceed in two stages. First an attempt should be made to identify broad areas with different potential for tourism. This stage is essentially concerned with the provision of information for strategic planning and also aims to narrow down the area of search as a prelude to the second stage. More detailed studies aimed at the identification and planning of specific sites can then be made of the broad zones

identified as having a high tourist potential. The first stage can be undertaken using relatively large survey units while the second stage should utilize smaller areal units in order that differences of potential over small distances can be effectively monitored.

As well as requiring different sizes of survey unit, however, the two stages will almost certainly employ different criteria for the evaluation of each of those factors, whether these factors be resources or elements other than resources, for which a potential surface is created in both stages. In general the second stage, local, survey will utilize more rigorous evaluative criteria than those used at the broader national or regional level since it is evident that while spatial contrasts in the quality of a resource or other element may be unimportant at the large scale, they might well be crucial at the local level. While the second stage survey will probably involve the creation of surfaces for the same set of factors for which surfaces were constructed at the broader scale, it is also likely to require the creation of surfaces for a range of factors which only become relevant at the local level. Thus, potential surfaces may be created for landscape quality at both stages of investigation but surfaces for factors such as land availability and ownership, which only become critical determinants of tourist potential at the level of individual tourist sites, would be required only in the second stage survey. From this it can be argued that the results of a large scale survey which focused attention specifically on resources for tourism will be of longer lasting value than those of a detailed local survey, however valuable the latter may be in the short term, because, whereas fundamental changes to tourist resources are unlikely over short periods of time, constraints which become relevant at the local level upon the exploitation of those resources may be less permanent.

11. The Areal Unit of Assessment

If potential surface maps are to be comprehensible a common areal survey unit must be adopted for the construction of each surface. Irregularly shaped and sized tracts can be used (see, for example, Kitching, 1970) but it is now generally agreed that grid squares constitute the most efficacious survey units. Owen (1973, p.106) has stated the major advantages of grid squares to be that they "provide a convenient and objective basis for classification, they free the surveyor from any subjective definition of areas and illusory boundaries need not be suggested". Two other major attributes of grid squares as survey units have been identified by Forbes (1969): firstly, the obviation of the necessity for calculating densities, and, secondly, the fact that the locations of squares can be expressed in terms of x and y co-ordinates which means that the cells are amenable to computer mapping.

It is important, however, to choose a size of grid square appropriate to the degree of detail required of the results of a survey¹. For their detailed study of the Honey Hill area Rogers et al. (1971) employed 10 m x 10 m grid squares, while Blacksell's (1971) study of Dartmoor and the Coventry-Solihull-Warwickshire study (Coventry County Council et al., 1971a) adopted 1 km x 1 km squares. Duffield and Owen (1970), working at the county scale, used a 2 km x 2 km grid and a 5 km x 5 km grid was recommended for use in that part of the projected study of informal recreation in south east England concerned with the evaluation of recreational resources.

¹ This was, of course, acknowledged in the previous section.

13. Conclusion to Potential Resources for Tourism and their Evaluation

The resources which are of relevance in an assessment of Syria's tourist potential have been identified and existing techniques for their individual evaluation reviewed. Further, the Potential Surface Technique, the only available method involving the fusion, in the course of evaluating the development potential of an area's resources in combination, of separate assessments of that area's individual resources into composite assessments of those resources in combination, has been described. It has been argued that the grid square provides the most efficacious areal unit of assessment and that resource evaluation should proceed in two stages, an initial 'broad brush' approach to narrow down the area of search and to provide information for strategic planning preceding more detailed local surveys. In the following chapters a variation of the Potential Surface Technique is applied to a large area of north west Syria in an attempt to identify the potential of the various parts of the region for the different types of tourism which this area can expect to cater for in the future.

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CHAPTER FOUR

THE REGIONAL GEOGRAPHY OF NORTH WEST SYRIA

Given the time limits within which this thesis had to be prepared, it would have proved impossible to adequately evaluate the tourist resources of the whole of Syria. Instead, an area of approximately 13,400 sq km in north west Syria was selected for detailed study, a region chosen as it had emerged from OTAM's investigations as the region with the greatest potential of any in Syria for the expansion of tourism and was therefore worthy of investigation before any other part of Syria.¹ In the north, the area is bounded by the Turkish border from the coast to a point north of Jisr ash Shughour and thence by a line running eastwards to a point east of Idlib (Figure 12). The eastern border runs south from that point to a point south east of Homs, while the southern border follows the Lebanese frontier from the sea to a point south west of Homs and thence runs east to join the eastern border. The area is limited on the west by the sea. It will become apparent that maps were the primary data sources for the evaluation of the study area's tourist resources and it is worth noting that the location of the eastern limit of the study area was determined by the availability of map coverage. No maps of suitable scale to meet the needs of the study exist for the regions to the east of the study area. That part of the northern limit of the study area which does not correspond to the Turkish frontier and that part of the southern limit of the study area which does not correspond to the Lebanese border were chosen arbitrarily. Included in the region are the whole of the mohafazat of Lattakia and Tartous, a large part of Idlib mohafaza, and the western parts of Hama and Homs mohafazat.

¹ It is important, however, to note at the outset that the types of tourism this area could cater for are very different from the essentially demand based tourism of Damascus and Aleppo which are currently the tourist centres of Syria.

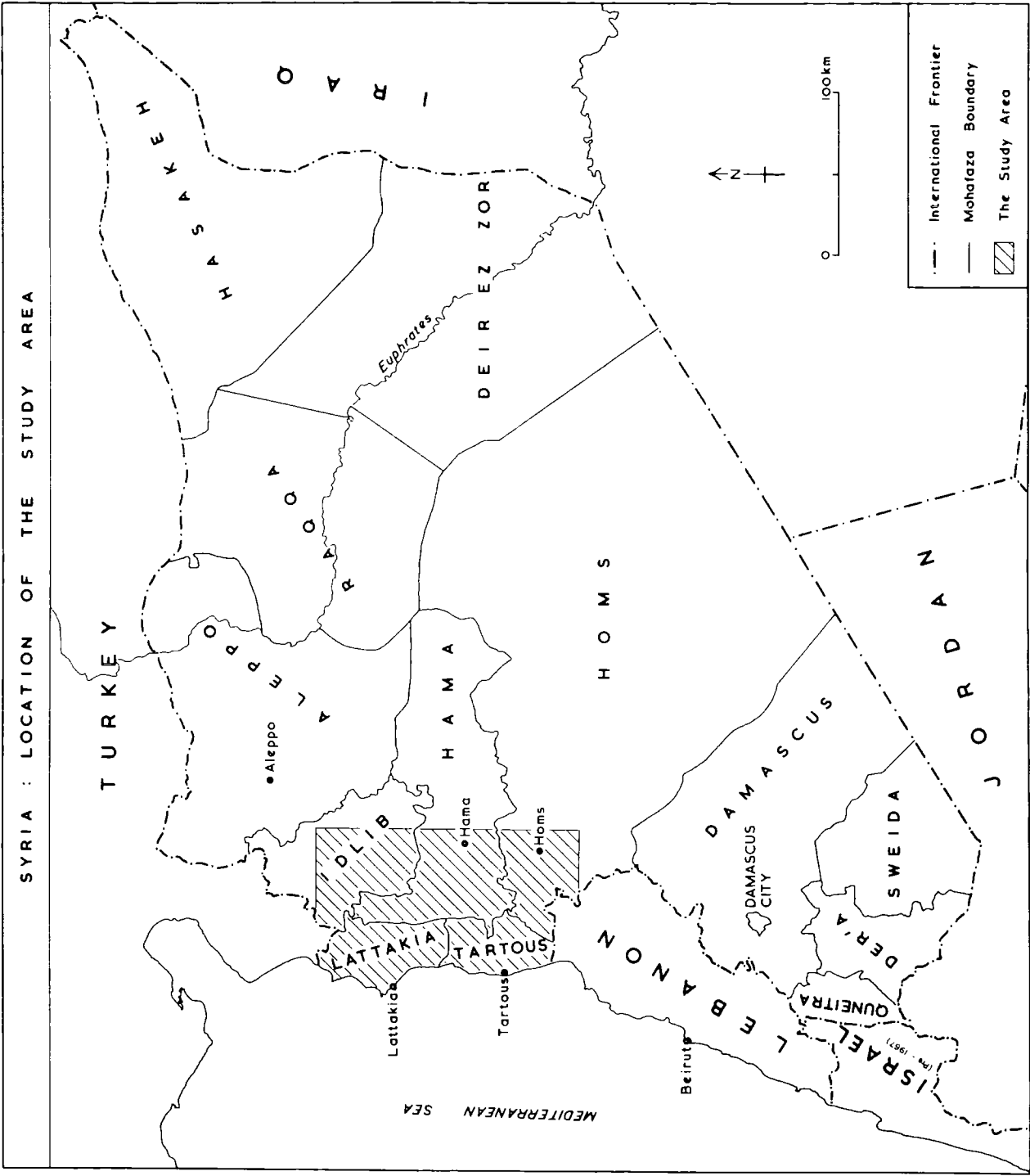


Figure 12

Before embarking on any survey of the region's tourist resources, however, it is essential, both in order to familiarize the reader with the area, and as a means of establishing which, if any, benefits tourism has to offer the region, to briefly consider the natural and socio-economic conditions that prevail in the study area¹.

1. Relief and Structure of the Study Area

The most prominent relief feature in the study area is the Jebel Ansarieh, a broad limestone horst aligned north - south parallel with the coast and dissected by east - west orientated gorges (Figures 13 and 14). Rising gently from west to east, its crest line lies well over on its eastern edge. The peak of Nebi Younes (1,583 m) is the highest point of the massif and of the whole study area. The crest line is continuous, losing height very gradually to the south but remaining above 1,400 m until the latitude of Banias. Only south of Massiaf do the summits descend below 1,000 m. South of a line between Banias and Massiaf, where the Jebel is at its widest and lowest, and its easterly increase in height is most gradual, relief is gentle, the Jebel often giving the impression of being a vast plateau dissected by deep gorges. Further north, however, as the Jebel narrows, as the increase in altitude from west to east becomes more rapid, and as absolute altitudes increase, relief becomes more dramatic with striking contrasts between alternating steep rocky ridges and small plateaux, on the one hand, and gorges, often up to 500 m deep, on the other.

¹ Those parts of Weulersse's (1940a, b) studies concerned with the physical geography of north west Syria remain by far the best general work that has appeared on this topic. Several of the sections that follow describing the physical conditions in the study area draw heavily from these publications. Other sources used appear in the Bibliography. Note, however, that there is no section on soils in this chapter as no comprehensive soil survey of the study area has ever been undertaken.

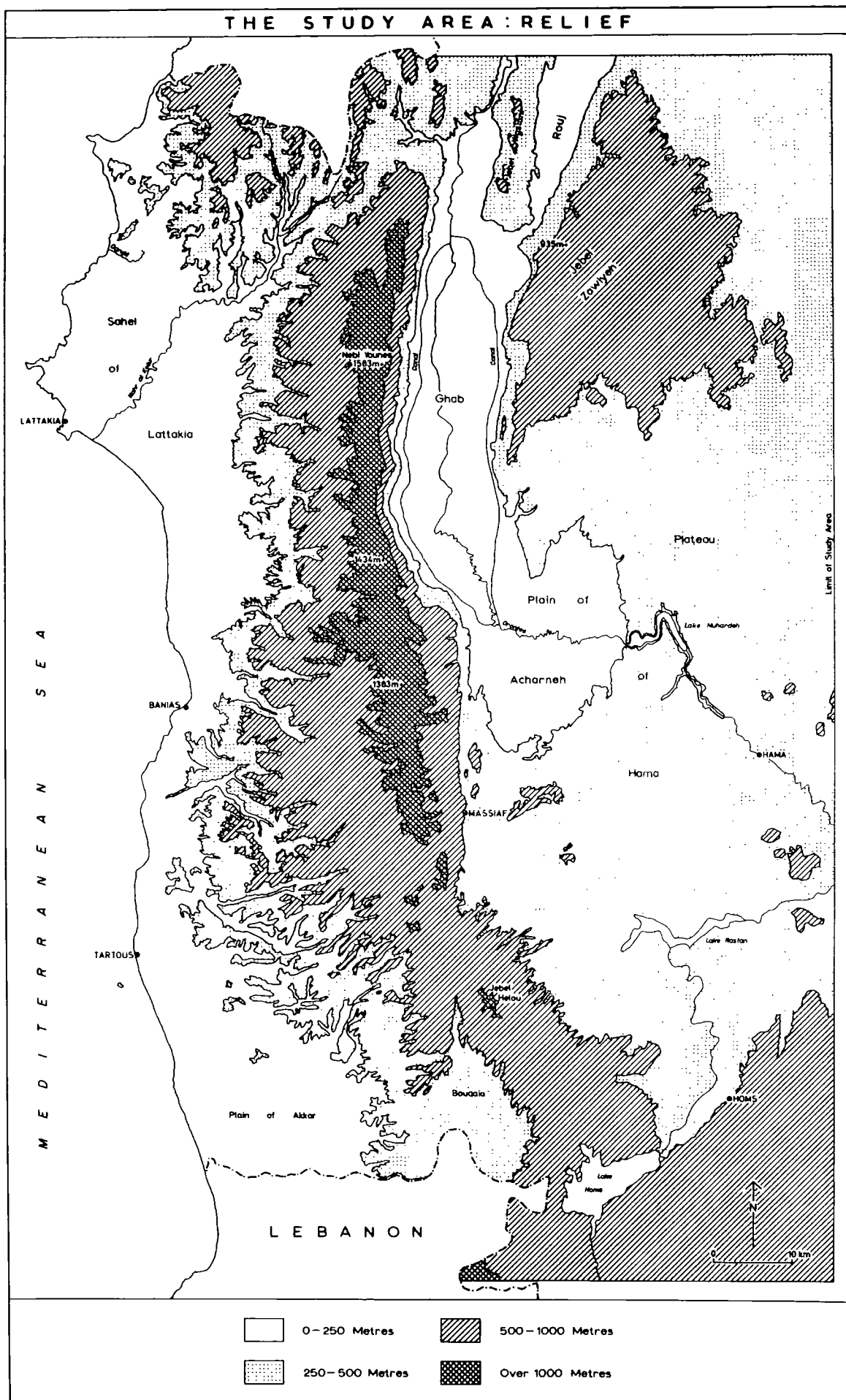


Figure 13

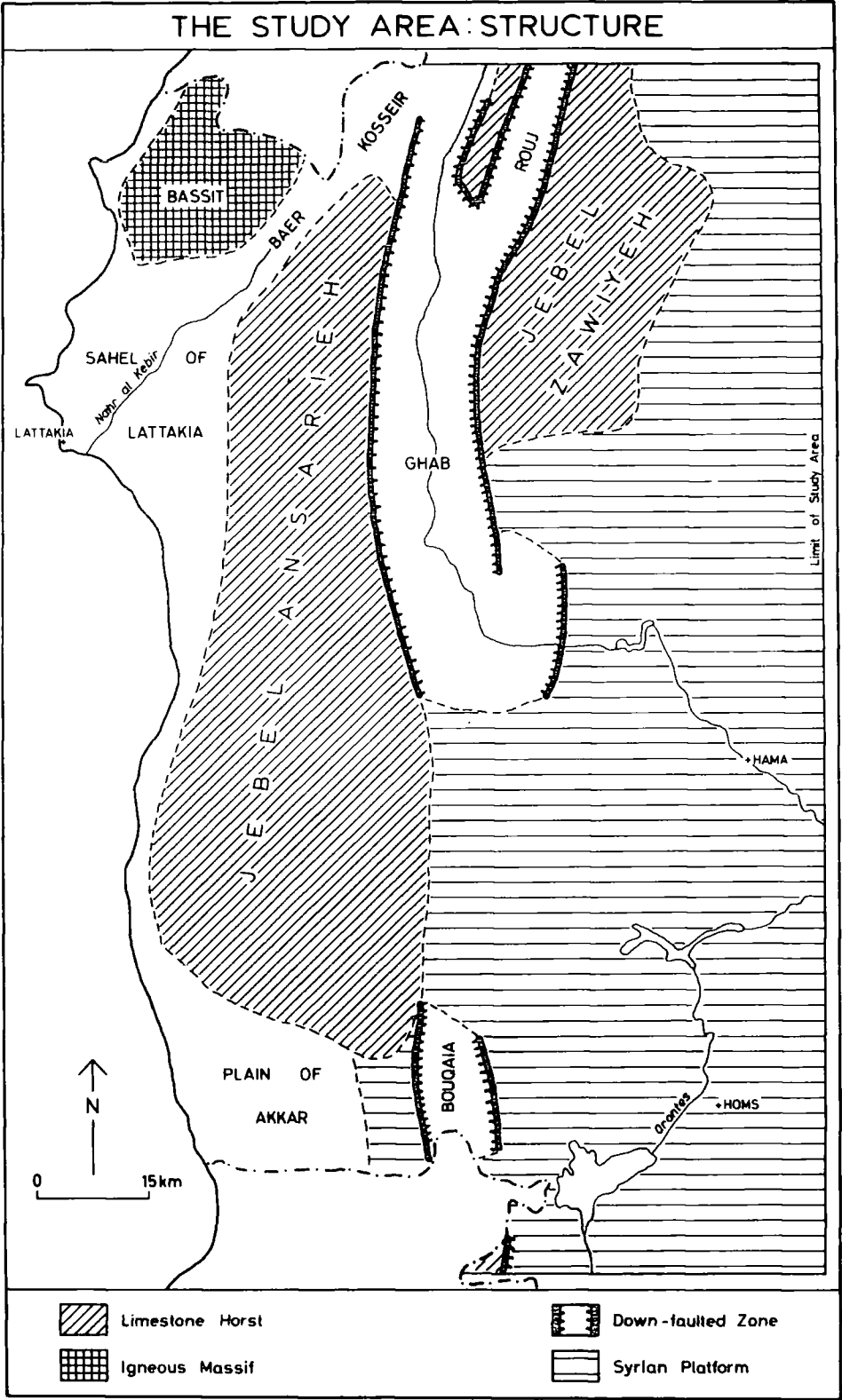


Figure 14 (after Weulersse, 1940a, p.19)

On its western edge, between Banias and Tartous, spurs of the Jebel reach the sea but north of Banias and south of Tartous the mountains recede, leaving two large coastal plains, the Sahel of Lattakia in the north and the Plain of Akkar in the south. This latter is a homogeneous low lying plain, but the Sahel of Lattakia is more diversified and may be divided into three sub-regions, the Plateau of Bahloulieh, the Hills of the Sahel, and the Plain of Jebleh. The low chalky-limestone Plateau of Bahloulieh, tilted upwards to the north east, extends from Lattakia to the Nahr Qandil and is bounded in the south east by the northern Nahr al Kebir. At its highest points, overlooking the steep sided valley of the Nahr Qandil, it attains altitudes of over 230 m. The Hills of the Sahel, lying between the Nahr al Kebir and the Ansarieh horst (but not extending to the sea), is an area of deeply dissected hills developed in Pliocene clays. South of the Hills of the Sahel and west of the Jebel Ansarieh the low lying Plain of Jebleh extends along the coast from Banias to the northern Nahr al Kebir.

By contrast to the relatively gentle increase in altitude of the Ansarieh horst from west to east, its eastern edge, following a major line of faulting, falls precipitously to the Ghab Plain, a tectonic depression 80 km long by about 16 km wide now occupied by the middle course of the Orontes River. The average height of the Ghab is only 170 m and the drop from the crest of the Ansarieh range thus consistently exceeds 1,000 m and sometimes reaches 1,400 m. To the east the Ghab is bounded by the western edge of the Jebel Zawiyeh, this latter massif a limestone horst raised in the west and north but falling away gradually southwards and eastwards to merge with the Plateau of Hama.¹ The Jebel Zawiyeh rises to a maximum altitude of 935 m and has marked escarpments on its faulted north western and western edges.

¹ For convenience the Plateau of Hama is, in this thesis, taken to include the plateau lands to the north and east of the Jebel Zawiyeh.

In the north the Ghab is bounded by a broad, upstanding, basalt sill which extends from the Jebel Ansarieh to the Jebel Zawiyeh skirting the southern tip of the Jebel Wastani. To the north of this sill, between the Kosseir (which will be described below) and the Jebel Wastani, the latter a fault-bounded horst attaining heights of over 500 m, the Orontes flows through a down-faulted region of hilly country¹. Further north still this region of hilly country narrows and the Kosseir and Jebel Wastani abut directly against each other. To the north east of the Ghab, and again to the north of the basalt sill, but between the Jebel Wastani in the west and the Jebel Zawiyeh in the south east, extends a small tectonic depression, the Rouj, of average altitude 220 m. In the south the Ghab merges indistinguishably into the Plain of Acharneh, also a down-faulted depression, which lies between 180 and 220 m and is bounded in the east by the faulted western edge of the Plateau of Hama and in the west by the fault scarp of the Jebel Ansarieh.

To the south the Plain of Acharneh is replaced firstly by a region of low limestone hills around Massiaf and then by an enormous basaltic massif, the Jebel Helou, which flanks the eastern edge of the Jebel Ansarieh and attains altitudes of over 1,000 m. In this central part of the study area the rift valley formations of the north are absent and the Plateau of Hama abuts directly onto the Massiaf Hills and the Jebel Helou. South of the Jebel Helou, however, lies a further rift valley formation, the Bouqaia Plain, a small trough of average altitude 250 m.

The Jebel Ansarieh is separated from the massif of Mount Lebanon, which lies to its south, by a lowland corridor comprising the Plain of Akkar, the valley of the southern Nahr al Kebir, and the Bouqaia and known as the Tripoli-Homs Gap.

¹ This region of hilly country, structurally linked to the Ghab, but of quite different relief, has, as far as the author could discover, no name of its own. In this study, for convenience, that part of this region lying to the east of the Orontes will be considered to constitute the foothills of the Jebel Wastani, that part to the west of the Orontes the foothills of the Kosseir.

To the south and east of an axis between Lake Homs and Homs, the northern slopes of Mount Lebanon in the west, and of the Anti-Lebanon range in the east¹, extend into the study area, those of the former attaining heights of well over 1,000 m. Between these two upland areas lies the northern extremity of the broad, down-faulted, Bekaa valley², the most southerly rift valley formation in the study area. This valley merges indistinguishably into the Plateau of Hama which, beginning south of Homs and extending over most of the eastern part of the region under study, constitutes, together with the Hills of Massiaf, that part of the Syrian Platform which lies in the study area. The Syrian Platform is itself the north western section of the Arabian Shield.

The Ansarieh range terminates in the north west at the valley of the northern Nahr al Kebir. North west of this valley lies the Jebel Akra, the highest peak of which, Mount Cassius (1,760 m), is actually located in Turkey. The Jebel Akra comprises three separate upland areas, the Bassit, Baer, and Kosseir. The Bassit massif lies in the extreme north west of the study area and is formed of igneous rocks, mainly peridotite and gabbro. The impermeable nature of these rocks has meant that, unlike on the karstic Ansarieh horst, surface water is abundant and streams have cut the region into a labyrinth of sharp crested hills. The Baer lies in an intermediate zone between the Ansarieh horst to the south east and the igneous rocks of the Bassit to the north west and is a region of sandstone hills lying between 300 and 700 m. North east of the Baer, directly north of the Jebel Ansarieh, and lying mostly outside the study area, is the Kosseir, a dissected tableland of Eocene and Miocene limestones.

¹ Note that the northern slopes of the Anti-Lebanon range are, curiously, shown by Weulersse (see Figure 14) to be structurally part of the Syrian Platform.

² The fault which defines the western edge of the Bekaa enters the study area. By contrast, the fault which marks the eastern edge of the valley dies out to the south of the southern edge of the study area.

2. The Coast

The capability of the Syrian coast to support tourist activities is the subject of a detailed examination later in this thesis. At this point only a brief description of the major physical characteristics of the coastline is attempted (see Figures 15a and b).

From the Turkish border in the north the coast trends south westwards and for about the first four kilometres the forested slopes of the Bassit massif plunge steeply into the sea from heights of up to 1,040 m. These steep cliffs are succeeded by a wide bay with sandy beaches backed by low hill country. This bay extends to Ras Bassit, a rocky low lying promontory 13 km as the crow flies from the Turkish frontier. Between Ras Bassit and the Nahr Qandil the coastline trends south south eastwards and is backed by broken wooded hill country. Along much of this stretch, hill slopes fall directly into the sea, but these rocky sections alternate with sandy coves while in the south two beaches of considerable extent occur, one at Trounjeh, the other across the mouth of the Nahr Qandil.

From the mouth of the Nahr Qandil the coast trends south westwards to Ras Fasori, the hill country of Bassit being replaced by the coastal plateau of Bahloulieh which ends seawards in low white cliffs 6 - 30 m high. Ras Fasori, about 20 km south of Ras Bassit, is a conspicuous cape which, 1.5 km inland, reaches an altitude of 89 m. Between Ras Fasori and Ras Ibn Hani, the latter a peninsula about one kilometre wide and projecting seawards for about three kilometres, lies a broad bay, approximately 10 km across, with a shore of alternating sandy coves and low cliffs. From Ras Ibn Hani to the promontory of Ras Ziyarat, on which stands the town of Lattakia, the coast trends, for the most part, south eastwards and consists of sandy coves, that lying immediately south of Ras Ibn Hani being by far the largest, separated by stretches of low flat rocks.

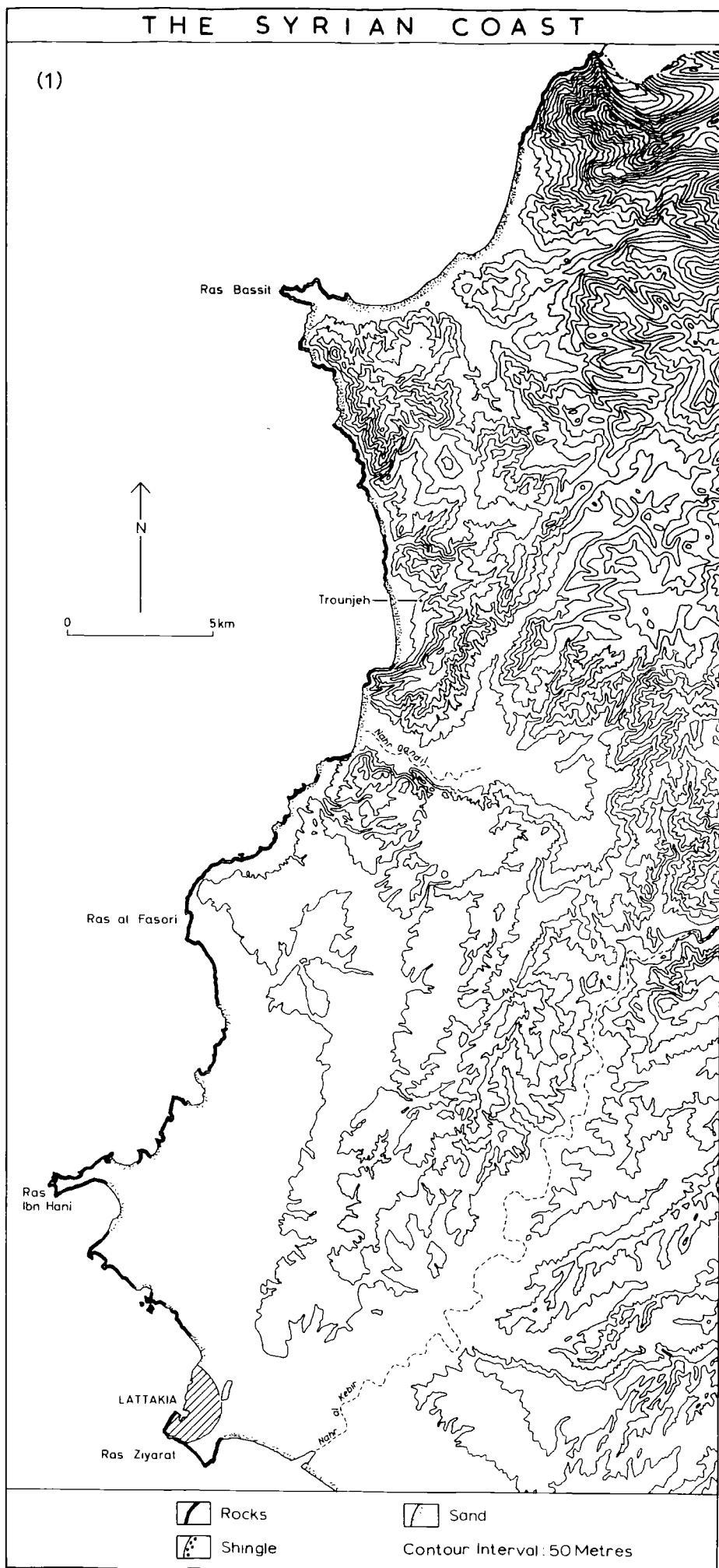


Figure 15a (after OTAM, 1973, Map 6)

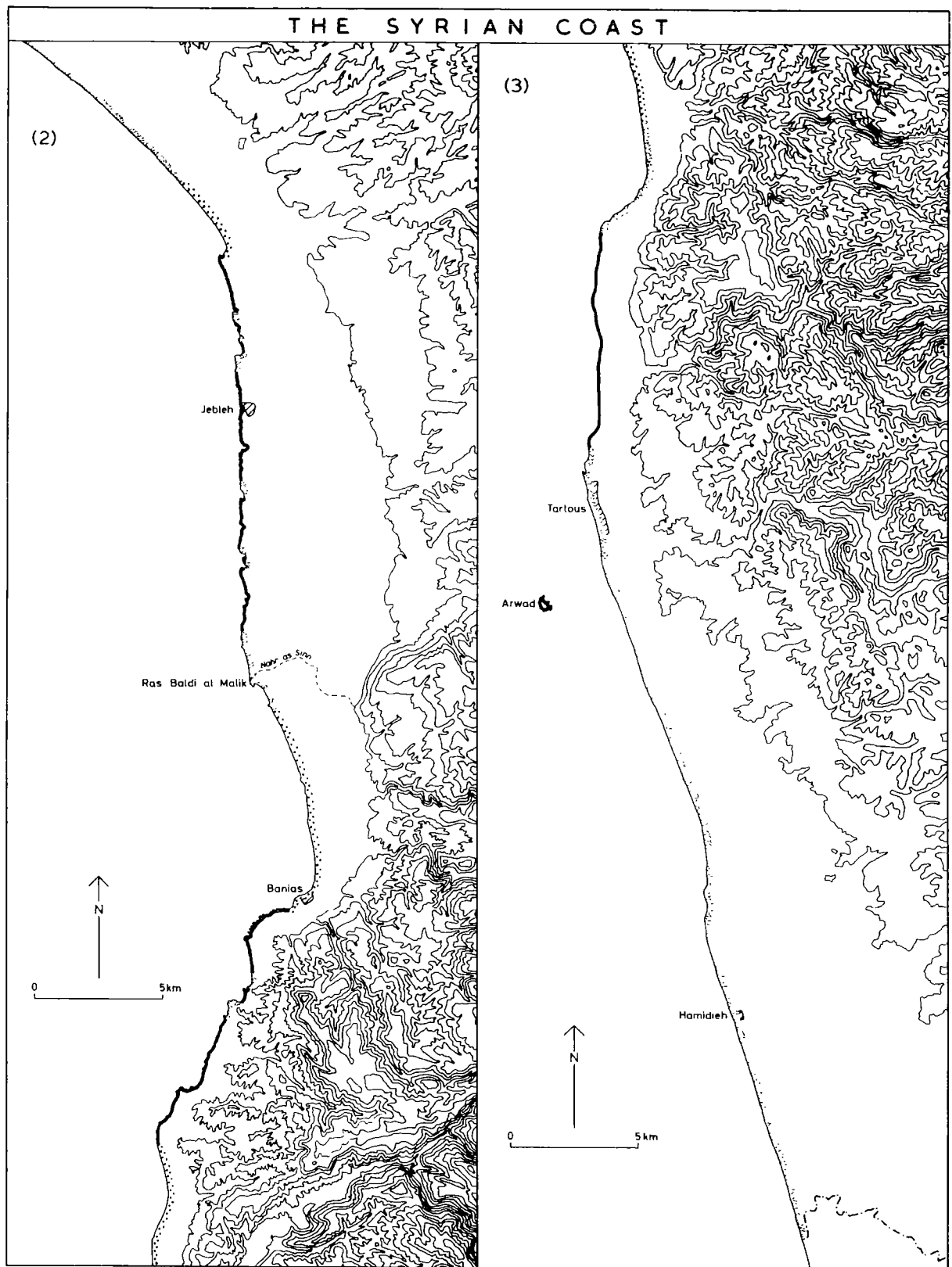


Figure 15b (after OTAM, 1973, Map 6)

Immediately south of Lattakia, Ras Ziyarat has been cut by the sea into low cliffs but these give way to a dune backed beach, 50 - 60 m wide, which extends south eastwards for about 13 km. For most of its length it is composed of fine yellow sand but in the south this is replaced by shingle. This beach is succeeded southwards by low cliffs from 9 to 27 m high with off-lying rocks. These cliffs, interrupted only by a few sandy coves, extend for over 18 km past Jebleh to Ras Baldi al Malik. Above the cliffs the Plain of Jebleh extends inland for about seven kilometres but at the latitude of Ras Baldi al Malik the western slopes of the Ansarieh range approach the sea and the coastal plain narrows to a width of about four kilometres. A sandy beach stretches for a little over one kilometre on either side of the mouth of the Nahr as Sinn but is replaced southwards by a shingle beach which extends for about nine kilometres to Banias.

South of Banias the spurs of the Ansarieh horst reach closely to the shore and the coast, trending south south westwards, remains essentially low and rocky for about 12 km, although a few sandy coves do occur. This section gives way to a shingle beach approximately eight kilometres long and aligned north-south which is, in turn, succeeded by a sandy beach about five kilometres in length and curving to the south west. A low rocky section of shore extends north-south from the southern edge of this beach to a point about 1.5 km north of Tartous. South of this point the Ansarieh massif recedes from the shore and the longest sandy beach of the Syrian coast stretches for about 35 km along the seaboard of the Plain of Akkar, past the small rocky island of Arwad, a few kilometres offshore. This beach, which continues into Lebanon, is bounded by a sand dune belt that extends inland for over one kilometre.

3. Geology of the Study Area

The study area is formed largely of relatively recent sedimentary rocks, the oldest only dating from the Jurassic (Figure 16). It is, in fact, hard

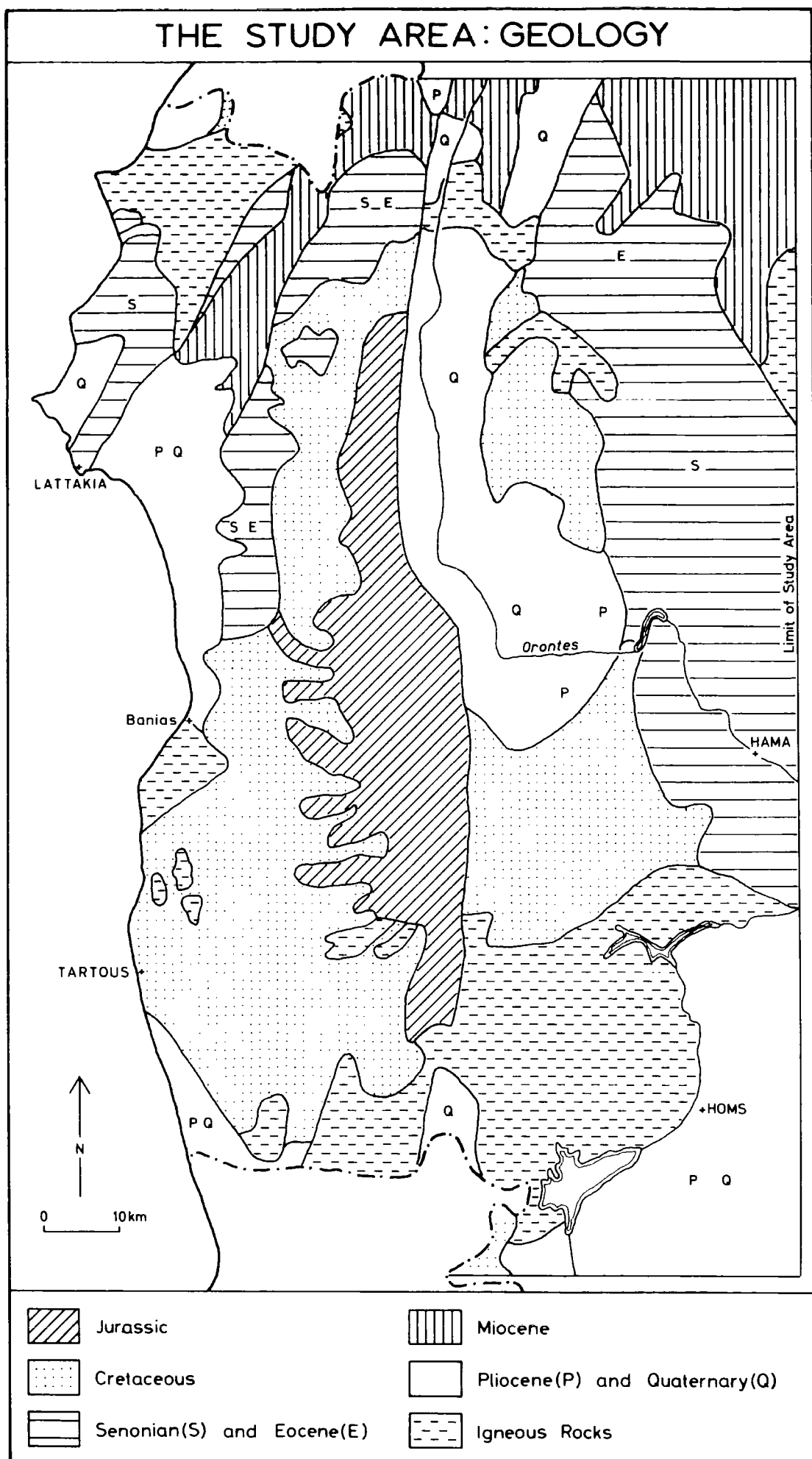


Figure 16 (after Weulersse, 1940a, p.20).

Jurassic limestone which constitutes the core of the Jebel Ansarieh, the major relief feature in the region. As well as outcropping extensively on this latter massif, where they lie immediately above the Jurassic, except where this has been exposed on the highest parts, Cretaceous rocks occur on the Jebel Zawiyeh, in the Hills of Massiaf area, and in the extreme south centre of the study area on the Lebanon range. Of the deposits of this system, however, it is those of the Cenomanian stage, mainly limestones, which outcrop most extensively in the study area, attaining thicknesses of 350 to over 500 m. The Cenomanian limestones are less homogeneous than those of the Jurassic and consist of alternating layers of hard, compact, strata and softer, marly, beds. Senonian age rocks outcrop mainly on the Sahel of Lattakia, on the northern and western edges of the Jebel Ansarieh and on the Plateau of Hama around, and to the north of, Hama. The thickness of the Senonian is variable but its facies consistently comprises a white, soft, limestone.

The Eocene outcrops on the eastern borders of the Sahel of Lattakia, on the extreme north of the Ansarieh horst, and on the Jebel Zawiyeh; its facies consists of a very hard, compact, limestone. The Miocene appears on the Baer and Kosseir, on the Jebel Wastani, on the north eastern edges of the Jebel Zawiyeh and on that part of the Plateau of Hama lying to the north and east of this latter massif. It includes varied facies but comprises mostly sandstones and limestones.

Pliocene and Quaternary rocks outcrop extensively on both sides of the Ansarieh range. On the seaward side, the facies comprise marine deposited clays and calcareous sandstones while in the interior, in the Ghab, Rouj, and Bouqaia depressions and on the Plain of Akkar, and south east of Homs in the Bekaa and on the northern slopes of the Anti-Lebanon range, the Pliocene and Quaternary rocks consist of conglomerates and clayey, or clayey sandstone, lacustrine deposits.

There are two groups of volcanic rocks in the study area: the peridotite and gabbro of the Bassit, and the much more widespread outcrops of basalt. These latter occur across the northern edge of the Ghab and south of Banias on the western slopes of the Jebel Ansarieh, but are most extensive in the southern part of the study area where basaltic lava flows extend from the coastal plain to the Orontes.

4. Climate of the Study Area

Three major climatic zones can be distinguished in the study area: firstly, a coastal belt of typical Mediterranean climate; secondly, a region with a special 'mountain' climatic regime extending over the Jebel Ansarieh, Jebel Helou, Jebel Akra, and Lebanon range; and finally, east of the Jebel Ansarieh and Jebel Helou, a zone of steppe climate. This latter zone approaches the coast so closely because of the barrier of the Levantine coastal mountains which prevents true maritime conditions from penetrating far inland¹.

In the coastal zone winters are mild, summers are hot and sunny, and rainfall is relatively abundant (see diagrams for Mina al Beida in Figures 17 and 18). Average annual temperatures in this region attain 20°C (Mina al Beida: 19.5°C; Tartous: 19.7°C) but this figure obscures important seasonal variations. January and February are the coldest months of the year with temperatures averaging 12.5°C. During the winter months bright sunshine prevails on about half the days resulting in fairly wide diurnal temperature ranges. The mean daily maximum at Mina al Beida in January reaches 15.4°C, the mean daily minimum 8.4°C (Tartous: mean daily maximum in January: 15.8°C; mean daily minimum: 9.1°C). In March, however, temperatures begin to increase rapidly. In winter and spring a notable feature is the occurrence of khamisin

¹ Note, however, that the Tripoli-Homs Gap allows maritime conditions to extend some considerable distance inland along the southern edge of the study area. The Bouqaia Plain, for example, experiences a typical Mediterranean climate.

TEMPERATURE - RAINFALL DIAGRAMS FOR SELECTED WEATHER STATIONS
IN THE STUDY AREA (Average Monthly Data for the Period 1955 - 1969)

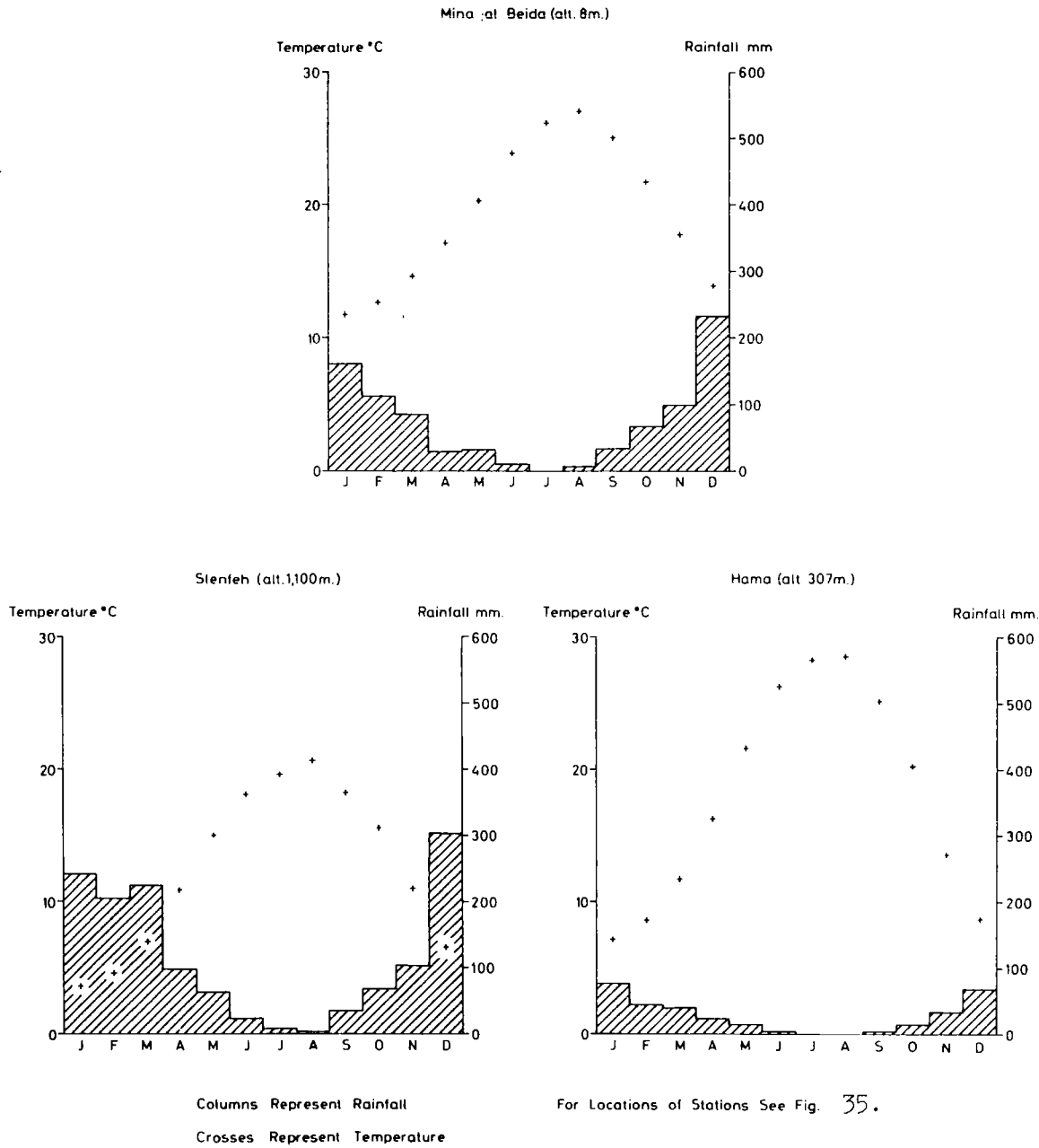


Figure 17

ANNUAL VARIATION OF MEAN MONTHLY RELATIVE HUMIDITY
FOR SELECTED WEATHER STATIONS IN THE STUDY AREA
(Average Monthly Data for the Period 1955-1969)

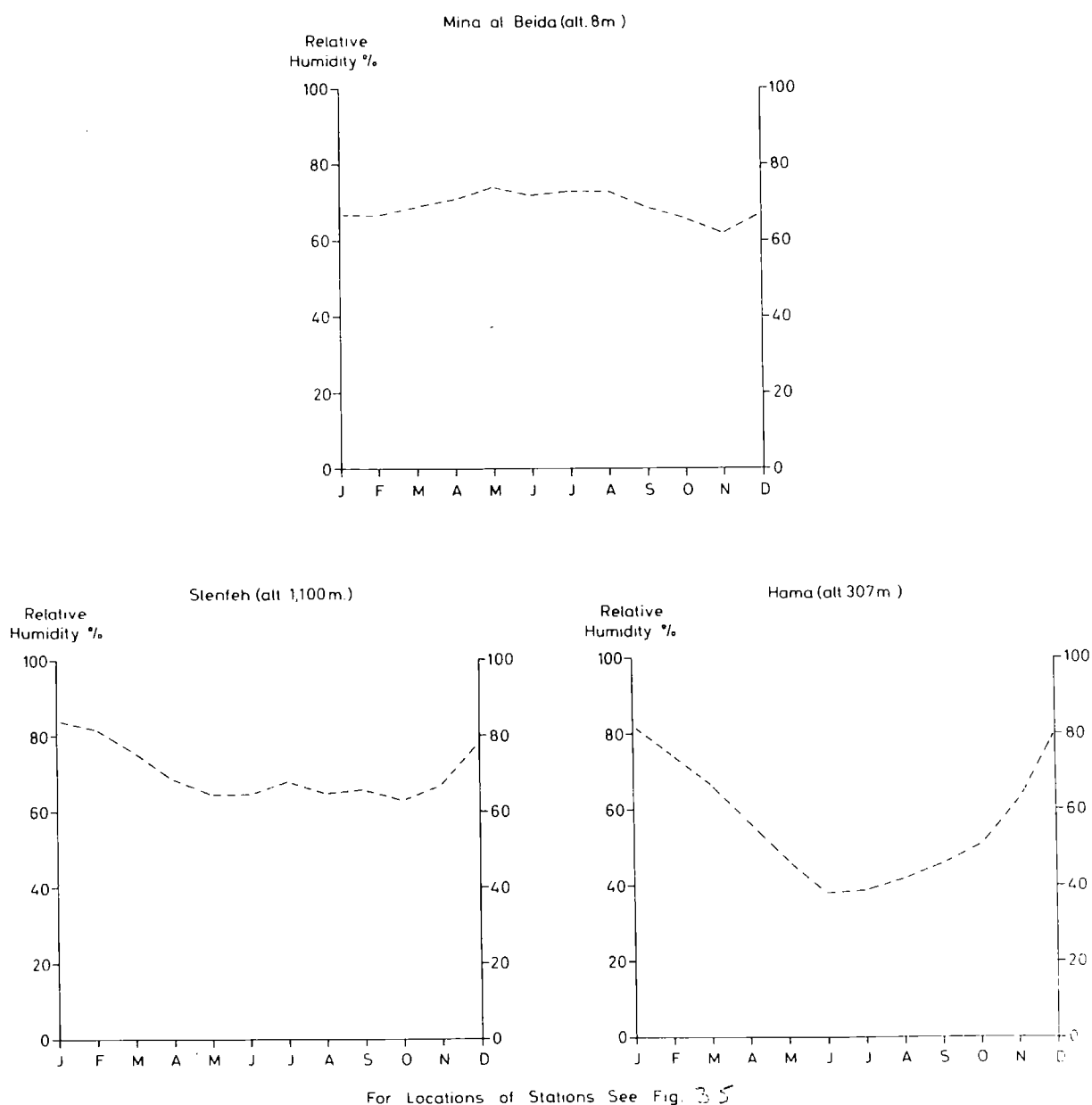


Figure 18

(local name: shlouq) conditions¹. August, with a mean temperature of about 26.5°C, is the hottest month in the coastal zone. Diurnal temperature ranges in summer are similar to those of winter. At Mina al Beida, for example, the mean daily maximum in August is 30.9°C, the mean daily minimum 22.7°C (Tartous: mean daily maximum in August: 30.2°C; mean daily minimum: 22.5°C). Hot weather continues until late November, while temperatures in December are markedly higher than in January or February.

Rainfall on the coast is plentiful, averaging more than 850 mm per annum² (Mina al Beida: 859 mm; Tartous: 862 mm), but its seasonal distribution follows that typical of a Mediterranean climate with a winter maximum and a summer drought. December and January are the wettest months but rainfall, which mainly occurs as heavy downpours, with the total number of rain days remaining low, generally ceases by mid-June and from then until mid-September aridity is virtually absolute. In summer, however, the coastal zone experiences high humidity (Mina al Beida: 73 per cent relative humidity in August; Tartous: 72 per cent) which results in very heavy dew falls at night. This high humidity, combined with high temperatures, renders the region uncomfortable in summer.

Inland, in the mountain zone (see diagrams for Slenfeh in Figures 17 and 18), mean annual temperatures decline to 12-15°C. Winters are cold, the average January temperature at Slenfeh, for example, being 3.7°C, about 8°C colder than on the coast in the same month. Summers, by contrast, are warm and sunny; highest temperatures, although again these are lower than on the coast, occur, as in the coastal zone, in August and average over 20°C

¹ These conditions also occur in the two other climatic zones during the same seasons.

² It should be stressed, however, that rainfall in all three climatic zones of the study area can be extremely capricious and precipitation figures frequently vary greatly from one year to the next.

(Slenfeh: 20.7°C ; Qadmous: 21.8°C). The lower temperatures, together with lower humidity than on the coast (Slenfeh: 65 per cent relative humidity in August; Qadmous: 66 per cent), render the mountain climate extremely comfortable in summer. This latter quality is further enhanced by the wide diurnal temperature ranges in summer, which are similar to those experienced on the coast. At Slenfeh, for example, the mean daily maximum in August is 25.9°C , the mean daily minimum only 16.8°C . Thus, while the daytime is moderately hot, nights are pleasantly cool.

Rainfall in the mountain zone is super-abundant, attaining well over 1,000 mm per annum on the highest parts (Slenfeh: 1,381 mm; Qadmous: 1,387 mm). The seasonal distribution of rainfall again follows that typical of a Mediterranean climate, with December and January being the wettest months, although the dry season is not quite so arid as it is on the coast. Slenfeh, for example, in the December-January period receives an average of 547 mm of rain whereas in July and August, taken together, an average of only 10 mm falls. Rain occurs, however, on an average of only 80 - 85 days per annum, a mere five to ten more than in the coastal areas. Rainfalls can thus be described as really intense. A final characteristic of the mountain climate is the occurrence of slight snow falls on the highest areas in winter.

In the steppe region, to the east of the Jebel Ansarieh and Jebel Helou (see diagrams for Hama in Figures 17 and 18), temperatures are more extreme, both in annual and diurnal range, than in the maritime zones. At Hama, which has a mean annual temperature of 19.5°C , the coldest month, January, has an average temperature of only 9.3°C while temperatures in August, the hottest month, average 28.5°C . This gives an annual range of 21.2°C , compared with only 15.2°C at Mina al Beida on the coast. The average diurnal temperature

range at Hama in January is 8.5°C and in August 16.5°C . These compare with average diurnal ranges at Mina al Beida in January and August of 7°C and 8.2°C , respectively. Summers, as in the other zones, are extremely sunny, and daytime temperatures can be very high. At Hama, for example, temperatures of 38°C and more occur regularly in July and August. Summers are thus uncomfortably hot, but at least relative humidity is lower than in the coastal zone and conditions are thus more bearable than they might be. By contrast, winter temperatures can fall very low. The mean minimum temperature at Hama in January, for example, is only 3.5°C . In winter the steppe zone often experiences extremely cold north east winds, frost, and sometimes even snow.

Rainfall in the steppe region, while similar to that of the coastal and mountain zones in seasonal distribution, is much lower than in these latter two zones, and diminishes rapidly from west to east. Thus, Qal'at al Mudiq receives on average 516 mm of rain per annum and Hama only 325 mm^1 . The total number of rain days is also much lower than in the maritime zones. December and January are the wettest months, while total drought prevails in June, July, and August.

5. Hydrology of the Study Area

The only rivers in the study area (Figure 19) with a substantial perennial surface flow are the Orontes, the two Nahrs al Kebir, the Banias River, and the Sinn River. The other major rivers of the region are reduced in the dry summer months to tiny sub-surface trickles through the alluviums of their beds while the rest of the drainage network consists of wadis, completely dry in the arid season from May to September, but carrying torrents in the

¹ It should be said, however, that while the relatively high rainfall figure for Qal'at al Mudiq is largely the consequence of this weather station's location in the western half of the steppe zone, it is also partially the result of the station's comparatively exposed site on the western edge of the Syrian Plateau where this descends to the Ghab. Note that the Jebel Zawiyeh, that part of the Bekaa which lies in the study area, and the northern slopes of the Anti-Lebanon range share some of the characteristics of both the steppe and mountain climates.

THE STUDY AREA: HYDROLOGY

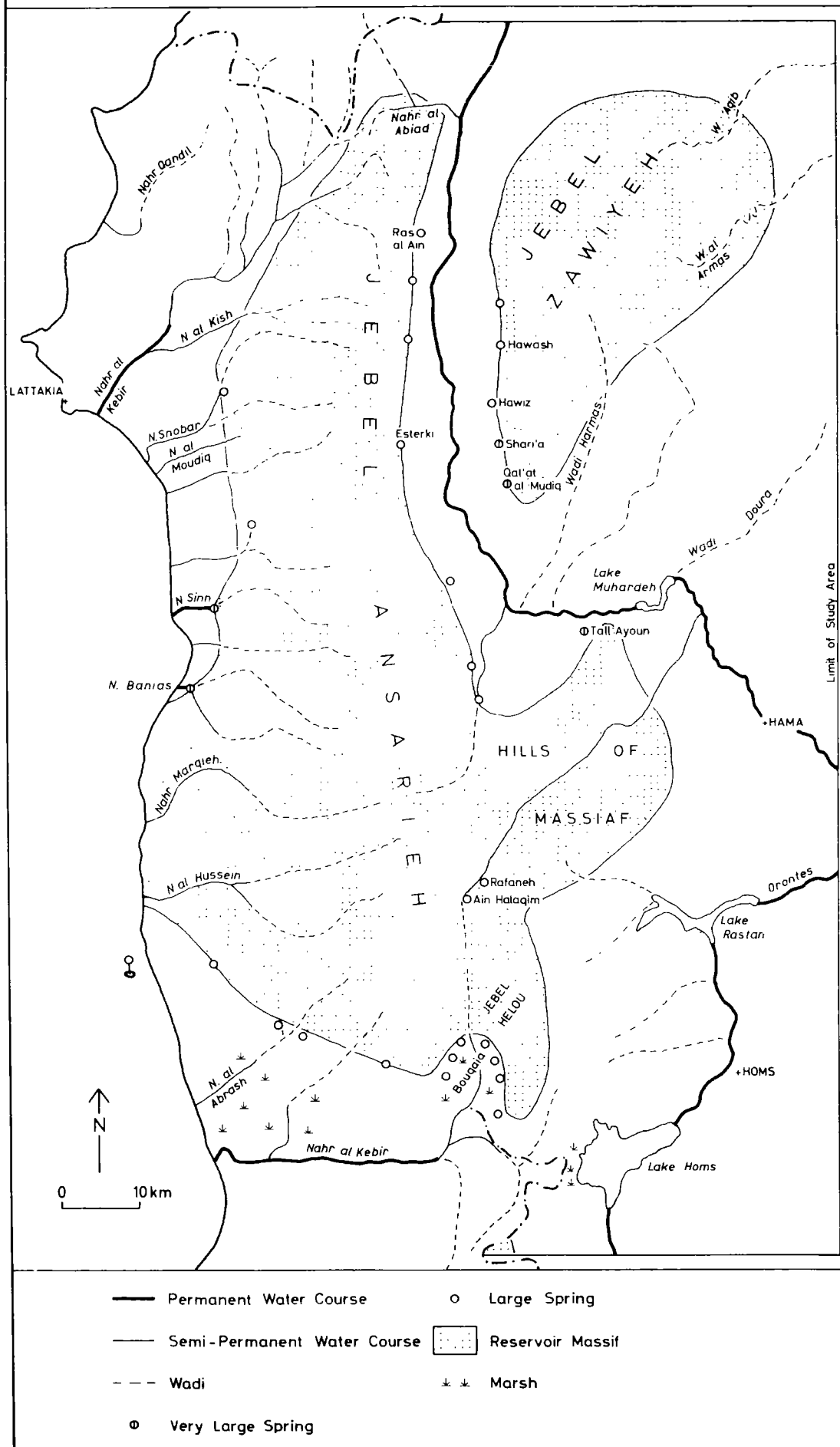


Figure 19 (after Weulersse, 1940a, p.37)

rainy season from November to April. The extremely close correlation between the seasonal distribution of rainfall and the seasonal variations of water flow in streams and rivers thus constitutes a basic feature of the drainage system of the study area.

A second major characteristic of the area's hydrology is the great importance of ground water. Extremely permeable rocks, mainly limestones and basalt, outcrop over vast expanses of the study area and much of the rainfall percolates directly into the rocks. These permeable rocks, particularly where they form mountain massifs, constitute vast reservoirs of underground water. Because the rocks are largely homogeneous this subterranean water does not generally flow out at the higher levels of the massifs, but seeps down to emerge in the form of springs along the junction between the permeable rocks of the highlands and the less permeable strata of the lowlands. These springs can be very large. In the south of the Plain of Jebleh, for example, at the point where the Cenomanian limestone of the slopes of the Jebel Ansarieh meets the Quaternary strata of the plain, the Sinn River, with an average annual flow of 8 cub m per second, emerges directly from the rocks. As well as being copious, the study area's springs maintain a constant flow regardless of season. In the Ghab, for example, the Shari'a spring only changes its flow from an average of 4.065 cub m per second in November, in the early part of the rainy season, to an average of 4.733 cub m per second in March, towards the end of the period of rains (Weulersse, 1940b, p.33). On the other hand, if winter rains fail for a series of successive years, the emission of the springs does diminish considerably.

There thus emerges the somewhat paradoxical situation where the highlands, which have abundant winter rainfall, are largely destitute of surface water in the dry season, while the lowlands, which receive much less rainfall, have more

than adequate supplies of water during the summer drought. Indeed, large parts of the Plain of Akkar and of the Bouqaia depression contain marshes while swamp also occupied most of the Ghab and Rouj and of the lower parts of the Plain of Acharnah until the recent execution of drainage and reclamation projects¹.

The study area contains three main lakes, Lake Homs, Lake Rastan, and Lake Muhardeh. One of these, Lake Homs, was originally natural but has been enlarged by the construction of a dam, while the other two are entirely man made, having been created behind dams as part of the Ghab reclamation and irrigation project. All three lakes lie in the valley of the Orontes, the major river in the study area, and, indeed, in the whole of western Syria. In mid-1974 firm plans were announced for the construction of a dam across the northern Nahr al Kebir near Lattakia which will create an additional lake (MEED, Vol. 18, No. 35, 30th August, 1974, p.1007).

Even in areas where, or for tourists for whom, water-based leisure activities assume little or no importance, water for non-leisure uses constitutes a basic requirement of the tourist industry². However, from this brief survey it would not appear that in north west Syria, with its abundant rainfall and copious springs, lack of water will seriously constrain the development of the tourist trade.

6. Vegetation of the Study Area

The coastal lowlands, the Ghab, the Rouj, the Bekaa, and the Plateau of Hama are for the most part under cultivation. Little natural vegetation therefore exists in these regions although scrub, and, in the poorly drained

¹ Small areas on the western shores of Lake Homs are also marshy in winter but this is the result of the encroachment of the lake over these lands during this season and not a consequence of the presence of numerous perennial springs.

² It is noteworthy that in the Zarsis and Djerba areas of Tunisia lack of water presents a major obstacle to the continued development of tourism (Tempelman, 1974, p.5).

southern parts of the Plain of Akkar, marsh, occur on uncultivated land. Scrub also predominates on the mostly uncultivated Jebel Zawiyeh and Anti-Leganon range while most of the Bouqaia is under marsh.

The Jebel Ansarieh, Jebel Helou, Jebel Wastani, Hills of Massiaf, Kosseir, and that northern part of the Lebanon range which lies in the study area were originally completely forested but, through the actions of man and his animals, now carry an extensive cover of maquis and garrigue. Limited areas of oak forest with an undergrowth of ferns are, however, found in the middle altitudes of the Jebel Ansarieh and similarly restricted areas of cedar and fir forest along its crest line. The Baer and, excepting those limited parts of it which are cultivated, the Bassit are the only extensively forested regions of the study area and carry thick stands of Aleppo pine with a rich undergrowth of heather, myrtle, arbatus, and terebinth.

7. Population of the Study Area

At the time of the 1970 Census the study area's population numbered 1,857,778, distributed amongst the nawahi (third order administrative units; singular: nahia) of the region as shown in Table 86.

Because of boundary changes it is unfortunately not possible to make comparisons between the population of the study area at the time of the 1960 Census and at the time of the 1970 Census. It is, however, possible to compare the 1960 and 1970 populations of the five mohafazat of north west Syria which either wholly or in part constitute the study area (see Table 88). In 1960 the combined population of the mohafazat of Homs, Hama, Tartous, Lattakia, and Idlib totalled 1,585,000 and in 1970 2,132,000. The average per annum rate of growth of population in these five mohafazat in the intercensal period was thus three per cent. While this rate is near the Syrian

Table 86 The Population of the Study Area by Nahia^a, 1970.

Nahia	Population	Nahia	Population
Homs Centre	256,930	Dweir Ruslan	9,506
Tareen	16,182	Safita Centre	44,813
Taldo	26,251	Mashta al Helou	17,625
Tall Kalakh Centre	21,451	Sheikh Badr Centre	17,599
Jebel Helou	15,036	Brimanet al Mashaiek	8,501
Wadi Nadara	29,833	Lattakia Centre	165,309
Wa'er	8,886	Ain al Beida	23,114
Rastan Centre	38,370	Qastal Ma'af	10,856
Qosseir Centre	41,061	Kabaliyeh	6,861
Hama Centre	186,525	Kassab	3,048
Hurbnafso	17,190	Jebleh Centre	38,891
Suran	21,086	Hisan	28,592
Muhardeh	46,914	Ain ash Sharqieh	24,662
Skelbiyeh Centre	28,838	Haffeh Centre	15,649
Tall Salhab	12,486	Slenfeh	12,192
Ziyara	13,156	Kinsibba	14,962
Shatha	9,589	Muzeir'a	11,288
Qal'at al Mudiq	28,156	Qirdaha Centre	21,791
Massiaf Centre	44,856	Fakhoura	12,337
Ain Halaqim	20,907	Idlib Centre	54,193
Wadi al Eyoun	9,674	Saraqib	24,844
Tartous Centre	52,090	Ar Riha Centre	37,089
Arwad	4,133	Insem	18,748
Hamidia	12,595	Jisr ash Shughour	42,765
As Soda	18,975	Bdama	9,562
Safsafteh	13,503	Darkoush	10,144
Banias Centre	46,334	Ma'arra Centre	36,438
'Annazeh	13,016	Khan Shaikhoun	22,555
Qadmous	18,146	Kafr Nubl	16,446
Dreikeesh Centre	14,880		
Jneinet Ruslan	10,349	<u>Total</u>	1,857,778

^a For locations of nawahi see Figure 20.Source: 1970 Census.

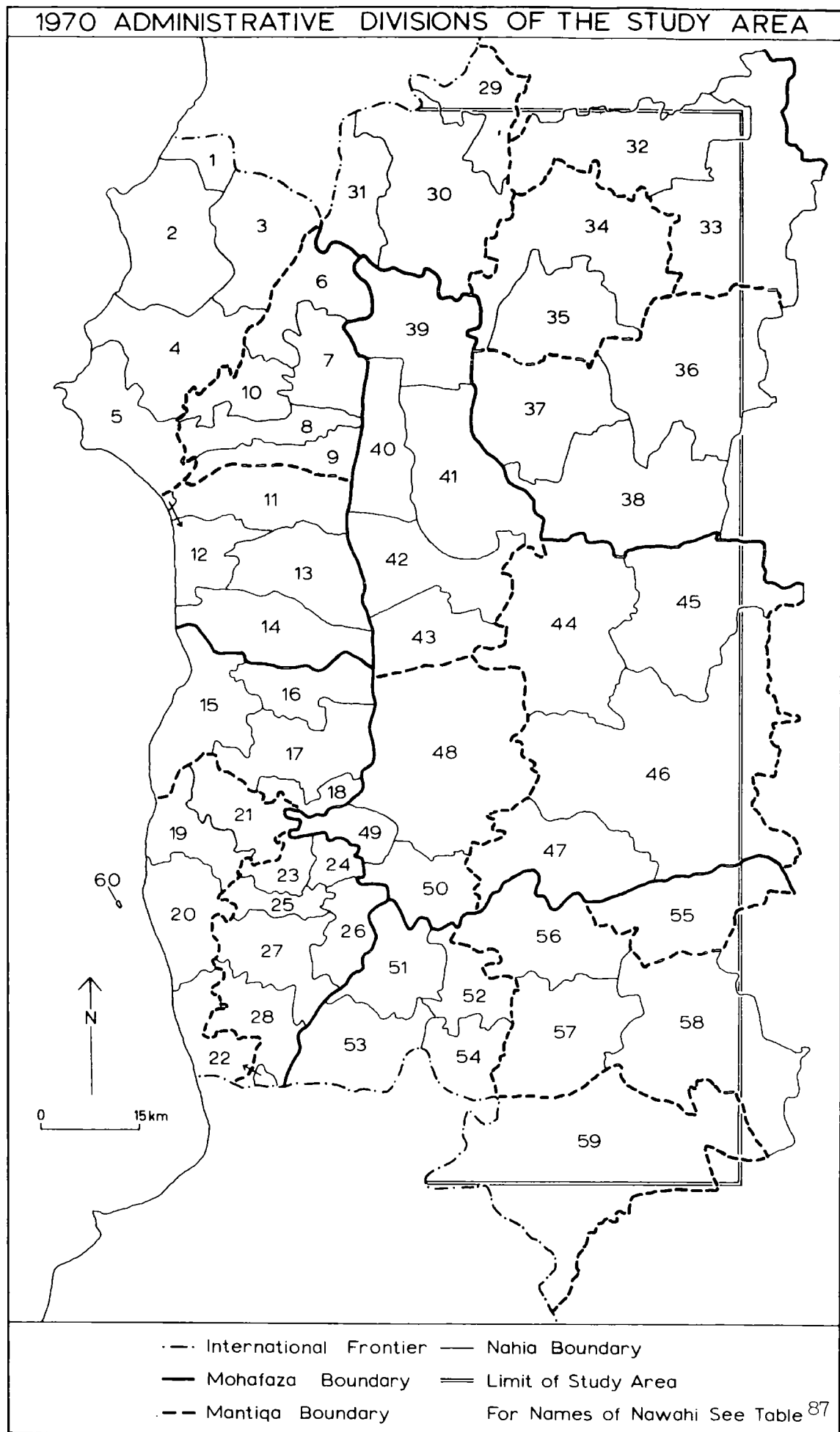


Figure 20

Table 87 The Study Area Nawahi: Key to Figure 20.

1. Kassab	31. Bdama
2. Qastal Ma'af	32. Idlib Centre
3. Kabaliyeh	33. Saraqib
4. Ain al Beida	34. Ar Riha Centre
5. Lattakia Centre	35. Ihsem
6. Kinsibba	36. Ma'arra Centre
7. Slenfeh	37. Kafr Nubl
8. Muzeir'a	38. Khan Shaikhoun
9. Fakhoura	39. Ziyara
10. Haffeh Centre	40. Shatha
11. Qirdaha Centre	41. Qal'at al Mudiq
12. Jebleh Centre	42. Skelbiyeh Centre
13. Ain ash Sharqieh	43. Tall Salhab
14. Hisan	44. Muhardeh
15. Banias Centre	45. Suran
16. 'Annazeh	46. Hama Centre
17. Qadmous	47. Hurbnafso
18. Brimanet al Mashaiek	48. Massiaf Centre
19. As Soda	49. Wadi al Eyoun
20. Tartous Centre	50. Ain Halaqim
21. Sheikh Badr Centre	51. Wadi Nadara
22. Hamidia	52. Jebel Helou
23. Jneinet Ruslan	53. Tall Kalakh Centre
24. Dweir Ruslan	54. Wa'er
25. Dreikeesh Centre	55. Rastan Centre ^a
26. Mashta al Helou	56. Taldo
27. Safita Centre	57. Tareen
28. Safsafeh	58. Homs Centre
29. Darkoush	59. Qosseir Centre
30. Jisr ash Shughour	60. Arwad

^a Note that Rastan Centre is actually a mantiqa (second order administrative unit; plural: manatiq).

Table 88 Syria's Population, 1960 and 1970.

Mohafaza	Population 1960 (thousands)	Population 1970 (thousands)	Average per Annum Growth Rate 1960-1970 %
Damascus City	557	835	+ 4.1
Damascus	368	621	+ 5.4
Homs	401	546	+ 3.1
Hama	370	512	+ 3.3
Tartous	221	302	+ 3.1
Lattakia	292	389	+ 2.9
Idlib	301	383	+ 2.4
Aleppo	957	1,316	+ 3.2
Raqqa	178	243	+ 3.1
Deir ez Zor	231	292	+ 2.8
Hasakeh	353	467	+ 2.8
Sweida	100	139	+ 3.4
Der'a	140	233	+ 5.2
Quneitra	106	16	- 20.8
<u>Total</u>	4,565	6,294	+ 3.3

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, n.d.

national average of 3.1 per cent per annum, and does not compare with the 5.4 per cent per annum rate achieved by Damascus mohafaza or the 4.1 per cent per annum recorded by Damascus City, it is nevertheless high, at least by the standards of developed countries.

The average density of population in the study area¹, based on 1970 data, is 127.1 per sq km but there are significant variations from one part of the area to another (Figure 21). With the exception of Idlib Centre nahia, which does not rank amongst the most densely populated nawahi of the study area, high densities are attained by the nawahi containing the capital cities of the five mohafazat². Outside the five major cities, the population is overwhelmingly agricultural and there is generally a close relationship between population density and the agricultural capability of the land. Thus, high densities occur along the fertile coastal plain (except in the poorly drained southern parts of the Plain of Akkar), on the southern slopes of the Ansarieh massif, which are almost completely cultivated, and on the fertile basaltic areas of the Jebel Helou and its environs³.

¹ i.e. of the area covered by the nawahi shown in Figure 20.

² There are two separate nawahi with the name of Hama Centre. One lies in the study area, containing the city of Hama, while the other lies beyond the study area to the east. Unfortunately data for these two nawahi is aggregated in the 1970 Census. All figures in this thesis relating to Hama Centre nahia thus comprise aggregated data for the two identically named nawahi. The population density figure for Hama Centre nahia used in the construction of Figure 21 was obtained by dividing the total population figure for the two nawahi by the two regions' combined area. Since the Hama Centre nahia which is not located in the study area has a large area and is in a poorly populated zone, this population density figure for Hama Centre nahia was certainly an understatement. Note that in the calculation of the overall study area population density figure of 127.1 persons per sq km the single population figure for, and the combined area of, the two Hama Centre nawahi were used.

³ It is probable that the Plateau of Hama also generally has high population densities although this cannot be stated with certainty since much of the plateau lies within the nawahi of Homs Centre and Hama Centre and the high densities in these nawahi might be primarily the result of the presence within each of a major city. Meanwhile, some of the other nawahi which contain parts of the plateau have high densities and some have low densities.

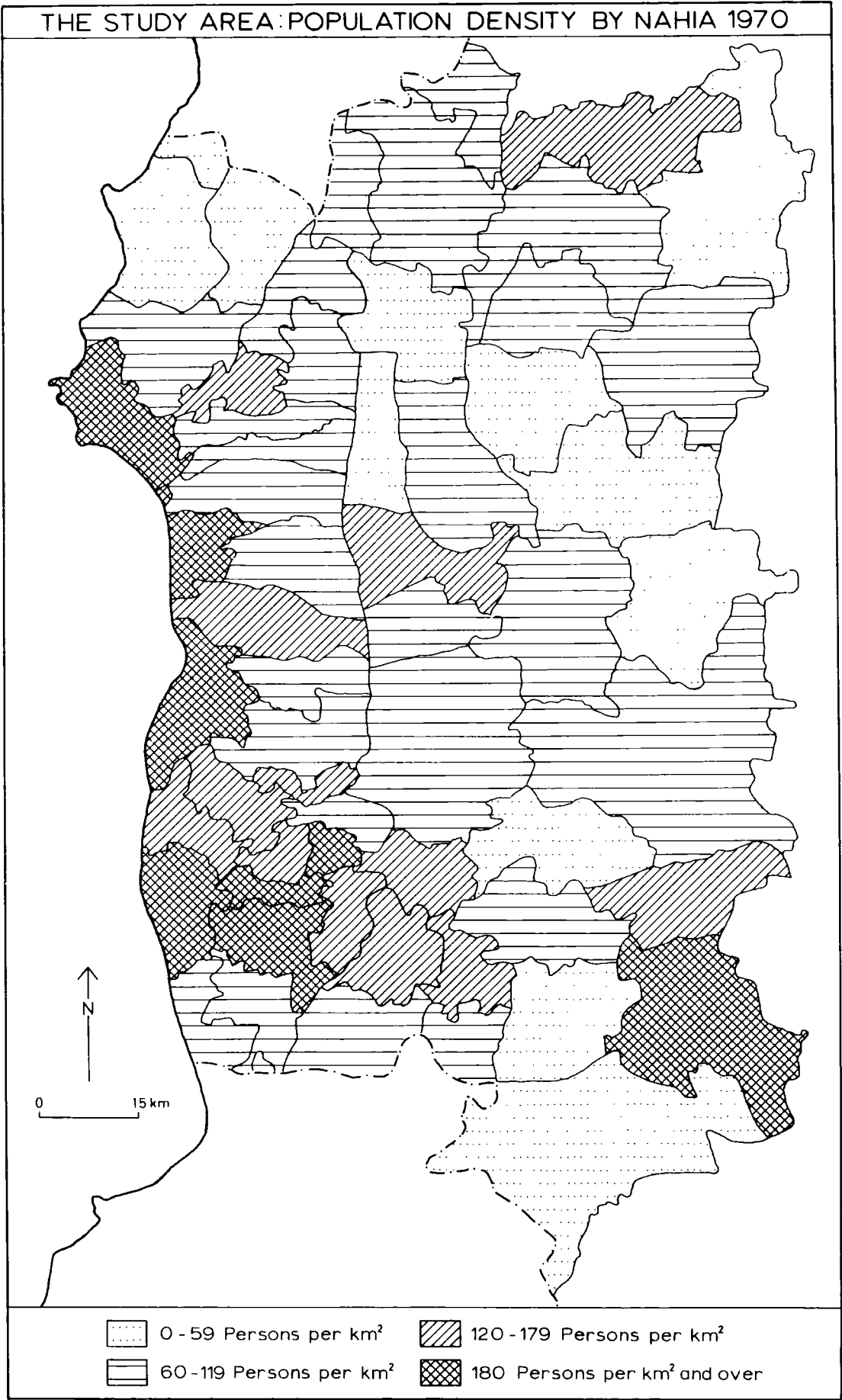


Figure 21

The lower population densities of the Kosseir, Jebel Zawiyeh, and of the north and central parts of the Jebel Ansarieh are the direct consequence of the very limited agricultural potential of these areas. Although the Ghab and the Plain of Acharneh, both of which areas formerly contained malarial marshes, have been reclaimed for agriculture, population densities in the nawahi in which they lie remain generally low as the new agricultural scheme has not yet involved any large scale in-migration of settlers. The lowest population densities in the study area, however, are found in the Bassit and Baer regions of the north west which, because of their infertile soils, are almost wholly incapable of supporting agriculture¹.

Migration has played a major role in determining the existing characteristics of the study area's population. Unfortunately, data on migration in the 1970 Census is only available at the mohafaza level and accordingly, in the analysis which follows, the five mohafazat of Homs, Hama, Tartous, Lattakia, and Idlib will be taken as constituting the study area.

Over the years the study area has lost to the rest of Syria 118,372 people and has gained from the rest of Syria 59,366 people (Table 89)². There has thus been a net out-migration of 59,006 people.

¹ Unfortunately, nawahi are the smallest areal units for which population data is available, and the boundaries of the study area nawahi do not always correspond to the boundaries between regions of different relief. Therefore, to the extent that structure, geology, climate, hydrology, and relief are interdependent and determine agricultural potential, nawahi boundaries do not follow the boundaries between regions of different agricultural potential. This precludes an examination of the population densities of some parts of most of the physical regions with high, of some parts of most of the physical regions with low, agricultural potential, and of any part of some of the physical regions of low agricultural potential. Generally, however, it is likely that those areas of unknown population density within physical regions of high agricultural potential have high population densities and those areas of unknown population density within physical regions of low agricultural potential have low population densities. Similarly, it is likely that physical regions with low agricultural potential whose population densities cannot be determined have low population densities.

² The 1970 Census classifies population simply by 'Place of Usual Present Residence' and 'Place of Usual Previous Residence'. The 'Places' referred to are 'urban' and 'rural' locations in the various mohafazat. The definitions of 'urban' and 'rural' are not stated in the census.

Table 89 Net Migration Between the Study Area and the Rest of Syria.

In the urban to urban flow the study area gained:	31,666
" " urban to rural " " " " " :	12,077
" " rural to urban " " " " " :	7,634
" " rural to rural " " " " " :	7,967
In-migrants who did not state whether they came from urban or rural places:	22
<u>Total</u>	59,366
In the urban to urban flow the study area lost:	55,062
" " urban to rural " " " " " :	3,749
" " rural to urban " " " " " :	48,592
" " rural to rural " " " " " :	10,907
Out-migrants who did not state whether they came from urban or rural places:	62
<u>Total</u>	118,372

The Study Area's Net Gains (+) and Losses (-).Flow:

Urban to urban:	-23,396
Urban to rural:	+ 3,925
Rural to urban:	-36,515
Rural to rural:	- 2,940
<u>Total Net Loss:</u>	-59,006

Source: Derived from Tables 90 and 91.

The largest out-going migratory stream, involving 55,062 people, has been from urban places within the region to urban places outside the area (Table 90). Almost as important, and involving 48,592 people, has been the stream from rural places within the region to urban places in the rest of Syria. The flows from rural places within the region to rural places outside the area, and from urban places in the region to rural places in the rest of Syria, have been much less significant, involving 10,907 and 3,749 people, respectively.

The largest flow of in-migrants to the study area, involving 31,666 people, has been from urban places in the rest of Syria to urban places within the region (Table 91). The second largest in-migratory flow has been from urban places outside the study area to rural places within the region although this flow has only involved 12,077 people. The flows from rural places outside the area to rural places within the region and from rural places outside the area to urban places in the area have both been small and of the same magnitude, involving 7,967 and 7,674 people, respectively.

The most significant migratory movements between the study area and the rest of Syria, in terms of population loss to the study area, have thus been between rural places in the area and urban places in the rest of Syria, and between urban places in the area and urban places in the rest of Syria (Table 89). In the former flow the study area has, on balance, lost 36,515 people, while in the latter flow it has made a net loss of 23,396 people.

Important migratory movements have also occurred between the five mohafazat of the study area with Homs mohafaza having made the largest net population gain and Idlib mohafaza the largest net loss (Table 92). Data on migratory flows between urban and rural places within the region is given in Table 93. The flows from urban to urban, rural to urban, and from rural to rural places within the study area have all been of the same magnitude, each

Table 90 Migration from the Study Area to the Rest of Syria.

From urban places in Homs mohafaza to urban places outside							
the study area:							13,900
"	"	"	"	Hama	"	"	14,275
"	"	"	"	Tartous	"	"	3,974
"	"	"	"	Lattakia	"	"	10,501
"	"	"	"	Idlib	"	"	12,412
<u>Sub-Total</u>							55,062
From urban places in Homs mohafaza to rural places outside							
the study area:							953
"	"	"	"	Hama	"	"	1,183
"	"	"	"	Tartous	"	"	227
"	"	"	"	Lattakia	"	"	459
"	"	"	"	Idlib	"	"	927
<u>Sub-Total</u>							3,749
From rural places in Homs mohafaza to urban places outside							
the study area:							9,899
"	"	"	"	Hama	"	"	6,288
"	"	"	"	Tartous	"	"	5,590
"	"	"	"	Lattakia	"	"	10,858
"	"	"	"	Idlib	"	"	15,957
<u>Sub-Total</u>							48,592
From rural places in Homs mohafaza to rural places outside							
the study area:							1,775
"	"	"	"	Hama	"	"	1,996
"	"	"	"	Tartous	"	"	403
"	"	"	"	Lattakia	"	"	1,018
"	"	"	"	Idlib	"	"	5,715
<u>Sub-Total</u>							10,907
Out-migrants who did not state whether they came from urban							
or rural places:							62
<u>Total</u>							118,372

Source: 1970 Census.

Table 91 Migration to the Study Area from the Rest of Syria.

To urban places in Homs mohafaza from urban places outside								
the study area:								12,264
"	"	"	"	Hama	"	"	"	4,710
"	"	"	"	Tartous	"	"	"	2,621
"	"	"	"	Lattakia	"	"	"	7,472
"	"	"	"	Idlib	"	"	"	4,599
<u>Sub-Total</u>								31,666
To rural places in Homs mohafaza from urban places outside								
the study area:								2,307
"	"	"	"	Hama	"	"	"	1,658
"	"	"	"	Tartous	"	"	"	1,613
"	"	"	"	Lattakia	"	"	"	3,627
"	"	"	"	Idlib	"	"	"	2,872
<u>Sub-Total</u>								12,077
To urban places in Homs mohafaza from rural places outside								
the study area:								3,598
"	"	"	"	Hama	"	"	"	1,164
"	"	"	"	Tartous	"	"	"	431
"	"	"	"	Lattakia	"	"	"	1,549
"	"	"	"	Idlib	"	"	"	892
<u>Sub-Total</u>								7,634
To rural places in Homs mohafaza from rural places outside								
the study area:								1,600
"	"	"	"	Hama	"	"	"	1,243
"	"	"	"	Tartous	"	"	"	596
"	"	"	"	Lattakia	"	"	"	1,131
"	"	"	"	Idlib	"	"	"	3,397
<u>Sub-Total</u>								7,967
In-migrants who did not state whether they came from urban								
or rural places:								22
<u>Total</u>								59,366

Source: 1970 Census.

Table 92 Net Migration Between the Mohafazat of the Study Area.

Homs mohafaza has gained: 16,993 people; Hom's mohafaza has lost: 10,799 people

Hama	"	"	"	:	15,590	"	;	Hama	"	"	"	:	15,518	"
Tartous	"	"	"	:	8,610	"	;	Tartous	"	"	"	:	7,989	"
Lattakia	"	"	"	:	11,689	"	;	Lattakia	"	"	"	:	10,030	"
Idlib	"	"	"	:	4,303	"	;	Idlib	"	"	"	:	12,849	"

Net Gains (+) and Losses (-).

Homs mohafaza	:	+ 6,194
Hama	"	: + 72
Tartous	"	: + 621
Lattakia	"	: + 1,659
Idlib	"	: - 8,546

Source: 1970 Census.

Table 93 Migration Between the Mohafazat of the Study Area.

To urban places in Homs mohafaza from urban places within	
the four other mohafazat of the study area :	6,364
" " " " Hama " " " " :	2,614
" " " " Tartous " " " " :	3,051
" " " " Lattakia " " " " :	4,690
" " " " Idlib " " " " :	1,420
<u>Sub-Total</u>	18,139
To urban places in Homs mohafaza from rural places within	
the four other mohafazat of the study area :	7,191
" " " " Hama " " " " :	1,926
" " " " Tartous " " " " :	1,522
" " " " Lattakia " " " " :	4,689
" " " " Idlib " " " " :	709
<u>Sub-Total</u>	16,037
To rural places in Homs mohafaza from urban places within	
the four other mohafazat of the study area :	631
" " " " Hama " " " " :	1,621
" " " " Tartous " " " " :	1,566
" " " " Lattakia " " " " :	1,112
" " " " Idlib " " " " :	746
<u>Sub-Total</u>	5,676
To rural places in Homs mohafaza from rural places within	
the four other mohafazat of the study area :	2,802
" " " " Hama " " " " :	9,426
" " " " Tartous " " " " :	2,469
" " " " Lattakia " " " " :	1,192
" " " " Idlib " " " " :	1,422
<u>Sub-Total</u>	17,311
Migrants who, although they stated their mohafaza of origin, did	
not state whether they came from urban or rural places	22
<u>Total</u>	57,185

Source: 1970 Census.

involving over 16,000 people while, by contrast, that from urban to rural places has been of only negligible significance.

Migration has also been an important feature within, as opposed to between, the individual mohafazat of the region. In all five mohafazat except Homs, which contains Syria's third largest city, the population remains dominantly rural (Table 94) but an inspection of the data in Table 95 reveals that there have been strong rural to urban migrations within all the mohafazat, while urban to rural flows have been very weak¹.

While it is recognized that economic pressure is only one of several motives for migration, the net out-migration that the study area has experienced strongly suggests that the economy of the region is unable to absorb the area's large annual natural increases in population. Further, the population flows within the region itself provide evidence for the existence of similar imbalances between population growth and economic opportunity at the local level.

Migration can, of course, be economically beneficial to the migrants if productive jobs are available for them at their destinations. Unfortunately, however, this is not the situation in Syria where migrants tend to be attracted away from their homes largely by the illusion of prosperity in other areas rather than by the real possibility of productive employment. Having arrived at their destinations, they often find themselves unable to find work, and the social problems attendant on unemployment inevitably ensue. These problems, in themselves, together with further pressure on already inadequate infrastructure and services are the major consequences of migration for the destination areas. Meanwhile, the economic potential of the origin areas of migratory flows, areas which in any case tend to be the least developed, economically, in the country, is reduced by their population loss, particularly since it is the young and educated, the most valuable members of their labour

¹ A further discussion of migration within the region is contained in section 10 of this chapter.

Table 94 The Population of North West Syria, 1970^a.

Mohafaza	Urban	Rural	% Urban	% Rural	Total
Homs	242,270	242,212	0.5	0.5	484,482
Hama	173,380	289,898	37.4	62.6	463,278
Tartous	44,868	235,050	16.0	84.0	279,918
Lattakia	130,730	226,559	36.6	63.4	357,289
Idlib	106,484	255,947	29.4	70.6	362,431
<u>Total</u>	697,732	1,249,666	35.8	64.2	1,947,398

^a Excludes bedouins and those absent abroad.

Source: 1970 Census.

Table 95 Migration Within the Mohafazat of the Study Area.

To urban places in Homs mohafaza from rural places in that mohafaza: 26,712										
"	"	"	"	Hama	"	"	"	"	"	" : 7,802
"	"	"	"	Tartous	"	"	"	"	"	" : 11,076
"	"	"	"	Lattakia	"	"	"	"	"	" : 19,710
"	"	"	"	Idlib	"	"	"	"	"	" : 6,242
<u>Sub-Total</u>										71,542
To rural places in Homs mohafaza from urban places in that mohafaza: 2,991										
"	"	"	"	Hama	"	"	"	"	"	" : 4,913
"	"	"	"	Tartous	"	"	"	"	"	" : 1,128
"	"	"	"	Lattakia	"	"	"	"	"	" : 4,239
"	"	"	"	Idlib	"	"	"	"	"	" : 2,565
<u>Sub-Total</u>										15,836
Migrants who did not state whether they came from urban or rural places										11
<u>Total</u>										87,389

Source: 1970 Census.

forces, who have the greatest propensity to migrate. In addition, the origin areas suffer socially from the disruption of their communities which an outflow of population entails.

On balance, however, it is the author's view that were productive employment available to migrants in their destination areas then the negative effects of migration on the origin areas¹ could be regarded as a necessary evil, although one which should be mitigated by all available means. It follows that migration out of, and within, the study area need only be regarded as a problem so long as adequate productive employment to meet the needs of migrants is not available in the destination areas. A sufficient expansion of employment opportunities in regions outside the study area to meet the employment needs of all the out-migrants from the study area as well as the employment needs of those regions' own residents is, however, unlikely in the foreseeable future, and a reduction of the population loss that the study area is experiencing must therefore be seen as a desirable objective. Such a reduction can only be achieved by the provision of employment in the region and it is here that tourism could contribute most to the socio-economic well-being of the study area's inhabitants. Meanwhile, the study area's need for the employment that a significant expansion of tourism could bring will become more pressing as time goes on for the migratory flows out of the region are, year by year, gaining in magnitude. The accelerating rate of migration in Syria is evident from the data in Table 96. The great majority of new residents in all the mohafazat in the country have been resident in those mohafazat for less than nine years and, although data on new residents in each mohafaza by mohafaza of birth and length of present residence is not

¹ These negative effects of migration on origin areas would, of course, occur even if jobs were available to migrants at their destinations.

Table 96 Duration of Residence of Syria's Population, by Mohafaza, 1970^a.

Mohafaza	Resident Since Birth	Resident 9 Years and Less	Resident 10 Years and Over	Not Stated	Total
Damascus City	615,411	147,554	70,902	1,178	835,045
Damascus	463,832	106,457	35,550	1,581	607,420
Homs	449,895	51,022	29,135	1,018	531,070
Hama	448,809	26,480	14,176	1,292	490,757
Tartous	266,868	21,918	10,425	187	299,398
Lattakia	331,415	34,767	20,559	437	387,178
Idlib	351,678	20,703	7,358	427	380,166
Aleppo	1,146,890	89,492	71,504	1,543	1,309,429
Raqqa	184,154	46,629	9,820	1,543	242,146
Deir ez Zor	271,495	13,797	4,525	481	290,298
Hasakeh	399,662	32,384	31,429	732	464,207
Sweida	107,270	20,975	4,956	239	133,440
Der'a	197,110	27,362	4,566	293	229,331
Quneitra	16,179	125	74	17	16,395
<u>Total</u>	5,250,668	639,665	314,979	10,968	6,216,280

^a The figures for new residents in this table were derived by summing, for each mohafaza, total new residents in the nahia containing the mohafaza's capital city, total new residents in other urban nawahi, and total new residents in rural nawahi. Since the data in the table shows more new residents in all mohafazat than are obtained by aggregating the numbers of migrants in rural to urban and urban to rural migrations within the individual mohafazat and in-migrants from the rest of Syria to the respective mohafazat, it must be assumed that there are substantial unrecorded rural to rural and urban to urban flows within all mohafazat although the exact sizes of these is impossible to determine.

Similarly, the number of people recorded as resident since birth in the above table was obtained by aggregating those persons resident since birth in the nawahi containing the capital cities of the respective mohafazat, those resident since birth in each other urban nahia in each mohafaza, and those resident since birth in each rural nahia in each mohafaza. In each of the five mohafazat the total of persons 'Resident Since Birth' is less than the figure given elsewhere in the 1970 Census for the number of persons living in each mohafazat who stated that the mohafaza in which they currently resided was their 'Place of Usual Previous Residence'. It must be assumed that the discrepancies between these figures is because of the unrecorded urban to urban and rural to rural population flows within the individual mohafazat.

Source: 1970 Census.

available in the 1970 Census, there is no reason to suppose that migration from the study area has been proceeding at a slower pace than that from other parts of Syria.

On the other hand, it can be postulated that while, in the event of an expansion of tourism, the spatial stabilization of population within the region by the creation of jobs in the industry in the origin areas of migratory flows will also be a desirable objective, it will be one which will be unattainable. It will not be attainable simply because, as will become apparent in later chapters, the study area's potential for tourist development is considerable and if, as seems probable, a major, rather than a limited, development of tourism occurs, then the tourist trade will itself trigger population movements within the region, largely replacing, and with a different pattern to, those already extant. These new population movements will be acceptable only to the extent that the migrants involved in them will find productive employment in the tourist trade at their destinations. The extent of this acceptability, however, will probably be limited simply because the pace of migration is likely to outstrip the rate of job creation in tourism. Meanwhile, it must be emphasized that as well as initiating internal population movements, a significant development of tourism in the study area would be likely to trigger movements of population into the region from the rest of Syria. These movements would probably be on such a scale that not all the in-migrants would be able to gain employment in the tourist trade while those that were would be taking the jobs that could have gone to residents of the study area¹. To the extent

¹ It should be noted that potential migrants into the study area do not constitute a homogeneous socio-economic group who will all be seeking jobs requiring the same level of skill. It is probable that in-migrants to the region will be competing with residents of the study area both for the lower level jobs in tourism and for the more remunerative top level jobs. The chances of residents and in-migrants in the market for lower level jobs will be equal. Persons with sufficient education and skills to compete for the higher level jobs are, however, concentrated in Syria's two major cities of Damascus and Aleppo and if the majority of the top level jobs are not to go to in-migrants, the establishment of institutions for training residents of the study area in tourist trades is essential.

that these circumstances occurred, the tourism-initiated migrations into the study area would be of the same undesirable type that Syria is currently experiencing, while the migrations within the study area would be rendered even less acceptable than they already were.

It is, however, difficult to see how migrations into the study area could be prevented or, in terms of the number of people involved, optimized since only a major expansion of employment opportunities in the origin areas of migratory flows could prevent, or significantly reduce the magnitudes of, these flows and, as noted previously, no such major expansion of employment opportunities in that part of Syria outside the study area is foreseeable. Similarly, if the number of migrants in the population flows within the region should exceed the number of jobs available in tourism, whether this be because the tourist industry does not create enough jobs to fulfill the employment needs of the study area or because, while it creates enough jobs it does not create them rapidly enough, or because, while again it does create enough jobs, some of these are taken by in-migrants from outside the region, it is difficult to see how, without a major expansion of employment opportunities in sectors other than tourism, an expansion which, as will be seen, is unlikely, the magnitudes of these internal flows can be optimized.

If only a minor development of tourism could be foreseen then the spatial stabilization of population within the study area would, at least to some extent, be possible. Thus, the limited number of employment generating tourist facilities to be developed in the region could be concentrated, to the extent that the distribution of sites with tourist potential allowed, in regions experiencing out-migration in an attempt to halt these areas' population loss. It must be said, however, that only a development of tourist facilities in an area of out-migration on a scale sufficient to meet that area's employment needs could fully halt out-migration to other parts of the

study area. On the other hand, that the magnitudes of the employment needs, needs which must be measured both in terms of the actual unemployment rates of the regions of out-migration and in terms of the number of migrants that have moved away from these areas in search of work, of all but the smallest regions of out-migration will be considerable means that tourist development in these regions on the necessary scale to halt out-migration would quite likely initiate population movements into most of the regions and the objective of spatially stabilizing the study area's population would thus become unattainable. Only a development of tourism in the areas of out-migration on a scale which would not satisfy their employment needs would stem out-migration, to some extent, and at the same time not lead to new and undesirable flows of in-migrants, undesirable because these flows would probably be on such a scale that the majority of the migrants would not find work in the tourist trade. Meanwhile, it is worth noting that if only a limited development of the tourist industry in the study area were envisaged, then a significant in-migration of workers from outside the region would be unlikely. Thus, new jobs created in the areas of out-migration would not be taken by migrants from outside the region, and continued migration by the residents of these areas of out-migration would thus be avoided.

Now, in the early stages of a major development of tourism only a limited number of facilities will be developed and it might seem possible to attempt the spatial stabilization of the population within the study area by locating these facilities in areas of out-migration in order to reduce these regions' population loss. However, it would only be a matter of time before development reached the point where in-migrants were attracted to these areas and thus before the spatial stabilization of the population became impossible.

Meanwhile, a deliberate development of tourism on a scale sufficient only to reduce population movements within the region without initiating new

movements would be unacceptable simply because the scale of such development would no doubt be inadequate to significantly reduce the population loss that the study area as a whole will no doubt still be experiencing at the time when such development could be envisaged.

Nevertheless, possible future tourism-induced population movements within and into the study area are primarily long term considerations, although certainly ones which should be borne in mind when planning the development of tourism in the region. They in no way render the initial task of tourism, that is, a reduction of the out-migration of the study area's population through the provision of employment, any the less urgent.

It was noted in Chapter One that severe social tensions can arise where the benefits of tourism are seen to accrue to one or more social groups to the exclusion of others, or where two or more mutually antagonistic groups are brought into close contact with each other through population movements triggered by a development of the tourist industry, or both. In this context it must be stressed that the population of the study area is by no means homogeneous but consists of a number of distinct groups which, although defined primarily on the basis of religion, have acquired cultural differences which are far greater than would be expected to have arisen purely from theological sources. This is because the various groups have traditionally occupied separate parts of the study area and have thus largely developed in isolation from each other.

Sunni, or orthodox, Muslims constitute the largest religious group in the study area and dominate in all parts of the region except on the Jebel Ansarieh. One group of Sunnis, however, the Turcomans, a Turcic speaking people of central Asian origin, although becoming increasingly assimilated with the Arab Sunni majority, retain a separate identity. Numbering only a few thousands in the study area, the Turcomans are located mainly in the Jebel Akra.

Shiites, who believe in the divinity of Ali, Muhammad's son-in-law, and maintain his right, and that of his successors, to spiritually lead the Muslim community, make up the second largest Muslim group in the area. Most Shiites are 'Twelvers' who recognize a succession of 12 imams, the last of whom disappeared in AD 878 and is expected to return as Mahdi, or 'divinely inspired one', to establish his divine rule on earth. Twelvers are concentrated in the area of Homs. Followers of two offshoots of Shiism are found in the study area: the Ismailis, or 'Seveners', who dispute the identity of the seventh imam, and the Alawites, who deify Ali as the incarnation of God and whose religion, while essentially Muslim, also includes Christian and pagan elements¹. The Ismailis are concentrated in the most inaccessible parts of the Ansarieh range, along its crest, where they originally sought refuge from persecution by the Crusaders. The Alawites, the study area's largest religious minority, have also found refuge in the Jebel Ansarieh where they constitute the majority group. There has, however, in recent years been a considerable movement of Alawites away from their mountain fastnesses to the lowlands bordering the Jebel. The social and economic position of the Alawites is generally lower than that of any other group in the study area.

Greek Orthodox Christians form the largest non-Muslim religious group in the area. They mainly inhabit the southern parts of the Jebel Ansarieh, the Jebel Helou, and the volcanic region which dominates the coastal plain between Tartous and Banias, but also constitute significant minorities in all the cities. The distribution of Greek Catholics, who are much less numerous than their Orthodox counterparts, tends to mirror that of the latter group. Maronite Christians, few in number, are located on the southern slopes of the

¹ Conservative Sunnis, however, do not always regard Alawites as being true Muslims.

Jebel Ansarieh while a few thousand Armenians, mainly Gregorians, are found in the Jebel Akra, notably in the region of Kassab. In addition, the study area contains small numbers of Syrian Orthodox and Syrian Catholics. On the whole, the Christians tend to be more urbanized, better educated, and more prosperous than the Muslims.

Even from this cursory account it should be evident that a potential for inter-communal strife exists within the study area. The realization of this potential, either through tourism-induced population movements within and into the region, these latter movements involving either members of social groups already represented in the study area or members of groups not already present in the area, or members of both type of group, or through the accrual of the benefits of tourism to one or more groups to the exclusion of others, or through both of these processes, is perhaps the greatest single danger inherent in an expansion of the tourist trade in the region. Meanwhile, it is worth noting that the potential for inter-communal strife in Syria as a whole is perhaps greater than it is elsewhere in the Arab world since the ruling elite for many years has been Alawite and representatives of a Muslim minority group have thus held away not only over Muslim and Christian minorities but also over the Sunni Muslim majority.

8. Agriculture in the Study Area

Agriculture is by far the most important economic activity in the study area. Of the region's total labour force of 455,559 in 1970 244,968, or 53.8 per cent, were engaged in agriculture. If the figures for the nawahi containing the five mohafaza capital cities are excluded then the proportion of the labour force engaged in agriculture rises to 70.7 per cent.

As is evident from the figures in Table 97, this dominance of agriculture in economic life is characteristic of all parts of the study area, excepting

Table 97 Agricultural Employment in the Study Area, 1970.

Nahia	Labour Force ^a	Number Employed in Agriculture ^b	% Employed in Agriculture
Homs Centre	60,971	10,966	18.0
Tareen	3,557	2,454	69.0
Taldo	4,813	3,189	66.3
Tall Kalakh Centre	5,234	2,751	52.6
Jebel Helou	2,944	2,156	73.2
Wadi Nadara	6,445	3,649	56.6
Wa'er	1,843	1,211	65.7
Rastan Centre	12,726	10,638	83.6
Qosseir Centre	9,290	6,654	71.6
Hama Centre	43,618	13,230	30.3
Hurbnafso	3,827	3,237	84.4
Suran	4,019	2,449	60.9
Muhardeh	11,136	8,525	76.6
Skelbiyeh Centre	9,250	8,564	92.6
Tall Salhab	3,273	2,900	88.6
Ziyara	5,116	4,997	97.7
Shatha	2,999	2,884	96.2
Qal'at al Mudiq	9,786	9,033	92.3
Massiaf Centre	12,674	10,009	79.0
Ain Halaqim	4,567	3,480	76.2
Wadi al Eyoum	2,317	1,819	78.5
Tartous Centre	12,574	4,170	33.2
Arwad	1,158	309	26.7
Hamidia	3,073	2,637	85.8
As Soda	4,643	2,551	54.9
Safsafteh	2,837	2,172	76.6
Banias Centre	10,004	5,210	52.1
'Annazeh	3,199	2,841	88.8
Qadmous	4,857	4,050	83.4
Dreikeesh Centre	3,189	1,878	58.9
Jneinet Ruslan	2,370	1,705	71.9
Dweir Ruslan	1,821	1,235	67.8
Safita Centre	10,949	6,737	61.5
Mashta al Helou	4,319	2,362	54.7
Sheikh Badr Centre	4,097	3,033	74.0
Brimanet al Mashaiek	2,351	2,102	89.4
Lattakia Centre	42,336	8,146	19.2
Ain al Beida	6,197	4,309	69.5
Qastal Ma'af	2,600	2,272	87.4
Kabaliyeh	1,727	1,401	81.1

Table 97 (Cont'd)

Nahia	Labour Force ^a	Number Employed in Agriculture ^b	% Employed in Agriculture
Kassab	851	416	48.9
Jebbleh Centre	8,678	4,798	55.3
Hisan	6,166	5,297	85.9
Ain ash Sharqieh	8,093	7,417	91.7
Haffeh Centre	4,122	2,828	68.6
Slenfeh	3,499	2,887	82.5
Kinsibba	4,363	3,389	77.7
Muzeir'a	3,269	2,796	85.5
Qirdaha Centre	5,003	3,935	78.7
Fakhoura	2,968	2,280	76.8
Idlib Centre	13,271	4,674	35.2
Saraqib	5,210	3,458	66.4
Ar Riha Centre	8,402	4,972	59.2
Ihsem	4,374	3,621	82.8
Jisr ash Shughour	10,910	5,307	48.6
Bdama	2,710	1,874	69.2
Darkoush	2,884	2,502	86.8
Ma'arra Centre	8,244	3,215	39.0
Khan Shaikhoun	4,659	3,106	66.7
Kafr Nubl	3,177	2,281	71.8
<u>Total</u>	455,559	244,968	53.8
<u>Total</u> excluding the nawahi containing the five mohafaza capital cities	282,789	199,782	70.7

^a Economically active persons aged ten years and over.

^b Actually the number employed in agriculture, fishing, and forestry.
Note that fishing attains some importance at Tartous, Jebbleh, Lattakia,
and on the island of Arwad, while the well-wooded Bassit supports a small
scale forestry industry.

Source: 1970 Census.

the nawahi containing the mohafaza capitals. Thus, if one excludes the nahia containing the city of Hama, then all 11 of the remaining study area nawahi in Hama mohafaza have over 60 per cent of their labour forces engaged in agriculture, ten of these have over 75 per cent of their labour forces in agriculture, and five over 85 per cent. Similarly, excluding Homs Centre nahia, of the eight study area nawahi in Homs mohafaza, six have over 60 per cent of their labour forces engaged in agriculture. Of the nine study area nawahi in Idlib mohafaza (excluding Idlib Centre nahia), six have over 60 per cent of their labour forces in agriculture. Again, of the 14 nawahi in Tartous mohafaza (excluding Tartous Centre nahia), nine have over 60 per cent of their labour forces in agriculture, five of these have over 75 per cent of their labour forces in agriculture, while for three the proportion rises to over 85 per cent. Finally, of the 13 nawahi in Lattakia mohafaza (excluding Lattakia Centre nahia), 11 have over 60 per cent of their labour forces engaged in agriculture, ten of these have over 75 per cent in agriculture, and four over 85 per cent.

The dry cultivation of wheat and barley is the predominant agricultural activity in all parts of the study area but three distinct agricultural zones, the boundaries of which essentially parallel those of the study area's three major climatic zones, may nevertheless be distinguished. In the well-watered coastal lowlands and in those better drained parts of the Bouqaia Plain where cultivation is possible, cotton, tobacco, and legumes are grown as well as vegetables, olives, figs, and citrus fruits. Livestock rearing is of little importance. Intensive polyculture, then, is the essential characteristic of agriculture in this zone. Inland, on the Kosseir, Jebel Ansarieh, Jebel Helou, and on the Lebanon range, steep slopes, absence of surface water in spite of high annual rainfall, thin soils, lower temperatures, and a shorter growing season combine to severely constrain agriculture. Wheat and barley cultivation,

with only one crop a year, remains basic but vines and tobacco, the former particularly in the regions of Haffeh and the Jebel Helou, the latter in all habitable areas, assume great importance, while olives and mulberries flourish on the southern slopes of the Jebel Ansarieh. Goat and sheep raising, based on the vast areas of scrub and scrub forest which occur in this zone, is of greater significance in this zone than in any other part of the study area. The Bassit and Baer, however, although they also lie in the zone of mountain climate, have, because of their infertile soils, very little potential for agriculture and remain largely under forest.

East of the Ansarieh range and the Jebel Helou, in the plateau and lowland areas, soil, climate, and relief combine to render conditions highly suitable for cereal cultivation although periodic droughts, which become more frequent the further east one moves in the study area, have a disastrous impact on dry farming in this zone. By contrast to the polyculture which characterizes the two western zones, the dry farming of wheat and barley assumes paramount importance although the irrigated cultivation of other crops, especially cotton and sugar beet, and this notably in the Ghab, Rouj, and Plain of Acharneh and to the west of the Orontes between Lake Homs and Hama, has become increasingly significant in recent years. Around the cities of Homs and Hama, on the other hand, a very wide variety of crops, notably fruits and vegetables, is cultivated under irrigation to supply the needs of the two urban centres. The uplands east of the Jebel Ansarieh and Jebel Helou, meanwhile, are, for the most part, unsuited, because of their relief and thin soils, to the cultivation of field crops. These areas are largely covered by scrub vegetation although the slopes of the Jebel Zawayeh, particularly in the Idlib area, support extensive olive groves, groves which constitute the only major areas of tree crops in the steppe zone. While livestock rearing is of some significance in the upland parts of this zone, this activity is of little importance on the lowland

and plateau areas. The steppe zone, however, as a transitional belt between the humid areas to the west and the desert to the east, experiences a large scale seasonal influx of nomads who spend each summer on the plateau and lowland areas near water sources grazing their herds on the stubble in the harvested fields.

Until the Second World War irrigated agriculture was confined to small and dispersed areas in the coastal lowlands and to the Homs and Hama regions. In the last named area the famed norias, massive water wheels with bucket-like cavities built into their rims, were employed to raise water from the Orontes, whose bed is here incized, to the fields. Since the Second World War, however, the study area has witnessed a massive expansion of irrigated agriculture. In the 1947-1959 period, for example, the area of irrigated land in Homs and Hama mohafazat increased by 300 per cent. Most of the expansion has been the result of small scale developments, usually on the part of individuals. Thus, an increase in the number of pumps in operation, improvements in pumping techniques, and the reduction of seepage by lining canals have all contributed to the expansion of irrigation.

In addition, however, a number of government irrigation schemes have been executed in the study area. The earliest of these was actually effected between 1930 and 1934 during the French Mandate. The project involved reconstructing, and raising the level of, the ancient dam which helps retain Lake Homs and the cutting of a canal for 70 km along the western side of the Orontes from Lake Homs northwards towards Hama. The 22,000 ha irrigated by this canal currently produces wheat, barley, maize, cotton, sugar beet, and fodder crops, notably alfalfa, as well as vegetables around Homs and Hama.

On the coastal plain the perennial Sinn River has been dammed to irrigate an area of 5,000 ha. In addition, experimental ponds for fish breeding have been constructed.

Inland, work was completed in 1965 on the Rouj Project which involved the reclamation of 4,300 ha for irrigated agriculture by the regulation of a number of mountain streams, the drainage of a swamp area, and the construction of a network of drainage and irrigation canals.

The Ghab Project, however, the drainage and irrigation works for which were executed between 1954 and 1967, is by far the most ambitious government irrigation project undertaken to date. To allow the drainage of the Ghab marshes, and of those in the lower parts of the Plain of Acharneh, the Orontes' bed was widened and deepened between Karkor and Kifr where the river cuts through the basalt sill which extends across the northern edge of the Ghab. This sill was the cause of the former poor drainage in the lowlands to its south. To improve drainage further, a new and shorter course for the Orontes was cut to the west of the river's old course through the Ghab from Acharneh northwards. Near Acharneh a concrete diversion dam was constructed to lead the river's waters into the two main irrigation canals which extend along the edges of the Ghab, one on either side. Meanwhile, upstream from the Ghab, the Orontes' flow was regulated by the construction of two rock-fill storage dams, one at Rastan, the other at Karma near Muhardeh. These dams have so lowered the water level in the Orontes as to render many of the norias useless. Side by side with the development of the irrigation system, as such, in the Ghab went the construction of new roads and settlements.

By 1967 over 40,000 ha of swamp had been reclaimed and irrigation had been extended to 48,000 ha in the Ghab itself and to a further 24,000 ha on the Plain of Acharneh. The newly irrigated land supports winter crops of wheat, barley, and legumes (clover and vetch) and summer crops of cotton, rice, sugar beet, and peas. In addition, one cattle station has been established and three more are planned while several chicken farms are in operation. A further interesting development has been the establishment of two fish ponds, one, at Qal'at al Mudiq, commercial, and the other, at Bab at Tarka, experimental.

In mid-1975 the following agricultural projects were being considered for inclusion in the Fourth Five Year Plan for the years 1976-1980¹:

- 1) Modification of the Homs-Hama irrigation system in order to allow the irrigation of a further 10,000 ha on the Plateau of Hama.
- 2) A dam on the northern Nahr al Kebir² to store water for the irrigation of an area of 25,000 ha which will be planted with fruit trees and vegetables.
- 3) A dam on the southern Nahr al Kebir to store water for irrigation.
- 4) A dam on the Nahr Abrash to store water for irrigation.
- 5) A dam on the Nahr Arous to store water for irrigation³.
- 6) Drainage and irrigation of 40,000 ha on the Plain of Akkar to be planted with citrus fruits and vegetables.
- 7) Reclamation of a further 4,000 ha in the Rouj.
- 8) Irrigation of 3,000 ha of already reclaimed land in the Ghab.

Table 98 shows statistics on land use for the manatiq which wholly or in part constitute the study area. It is evident from these figures that almost all cultivable land is currently utilized and that land reclamation projects therefore provide the key to any further expansion of the cultivated area in the region. The scope for such expansion is, however, limited by the extremely adverse physical conditions that prevail in most of the uncultivated parts of the region. It therefore seems likely that agriculture will not by itself be able to absorb the study area's rapid natural increases

¹ Note, however, that, on the basis of past experience, many of the projects which will actually be included in the plan are unlikely to be executed during the plan period.

² Firm plans for the construction of this dam were announced in mid-1974 (MEED, Vol. 18, No. 35, 30th August, 1974, p.1007).

³ Both the Nahr Abrash and the Nahr Arous flow across the Plain of Akkar.

Table 98 Land Use in North West Syria^a, 1974.

Mantiqa	Total Area	Forests	Steppe and Pasture	UNCULTIVABLE LAND				Buildings and Public Roads	Total	Un-culti-vated	CULTIVABLE LAND			Total	Under Crops	
				Total	Other e.g. Rocky Land	Marshes and Lakes	CULTIVATED LANDS				Pallow	Dry	Irrigated			
Homs	860,124.0	43.2	410,142.1	267,633.2	256,344.8	376.0	10,912.4	182,305.5	-	182,305.5	46,730.7	135,574.8	123,368.8	12,186.0		
Tall Kalakh	53,776.0	1,318.6	6,760.6	4,655.0	2,549.4	90.0	2,015.6	41,041.8	-	41,041.8	3,783.8	37,258.0	31,276.3	5,981.7		
Qosseir	68,138.0	1,323.0	2,384.5	13,628.1	7,923.2	1,894.8	3,810.1	50,852.4	-	50,852.4	18,962.4	31,890.0	24,786.0	7,104.0		
Rastan	33,340.0	31.3	2,207.4	2,537.6	864.7	345.3	1,327.6	28,563.7	-	28,563.7	8,804.8	19,758.9	9,479.2	10,279.7		
Hama	285,789.7	433.8	13,166.4	63,253.9	44,822.7	1,868.8	16,562.4	208,935.6	-	208,935.6	71,428.4	137,507.2	120,723.8	16,783.4		
Massiaf	67,205.1	23,918.4	3,268.2	10,599.1	8,386.6	96.0	2,116.5	29,419.4	1,076.4	28,343.0	9,435.0	18,908.0	16,349.0	2,559.0		
Chab	133,504.0	36,041.0	2,428.0	11,447.0	3,199.0	1,880.0	6,368.0	83,588.0	-	83,588.0	1,127.0	82,461.0	57,161.0	25,300.0		
Lattakia	59,067.0	4,547.6	1,204.3	7,931.1	2,414.2	1,020.5	4,496.4	45,384.0	5,038.9	40,345.1	2,580.0	37,765.1	32,166.0	5,599.1		
Haifeh	39,593.0	14,839.0	1,579.0	4,427.0	2,973.0	227.0	1,227.0	18,748.0	1,676.0	17,072.0	695.0	16,377.0	15,494.0	883.0		
Qirdaha	24,051.0	6,408.6	226.0	5,261.6	4,852.2	43.8	335.6	12,154.8	2,088.2	10,066.6	1,247.8	8,818.8	8,452.6	366.2		
Jebleh	31,194.0	3,581.0	419.0	5,116.0	4,278.0	226.0	612.0	22,078.0	822.0	21,256.0	1,101.0	20,155.0	11,425.0	8,730.0		
Ain ash Sharqiyyeh	34,851.0	12,500.0	-	13,196.0	12,906.0	-	290.0	9,155.0	2,140.0	7,015.0	1,866.6	5,148.4	5,148.4	-		
Tartous	57,261.0	4,396.0	558.0	5,397.0	2,076.0	316.0	3,005.0	46,910.0	-	46,910.0	-	46,910.0	36,366.0	10,544.0		
Barias	58,526.0	14,350.0	21.0	14,565.0	11,375.0	300.0	1,890.0	29,590.0	-	29,590.0	-	29,590.0	25,990.0	3,600.0		
Safita	34,735.0	2,300.0	-	2,498.0	1,689.0	159.0	650.0	29,937.0	-	29,937.0	-	29,937.0	27,987.0	1,950.0		
Dreikeesh	18,819.0	2,630.0	456.0	3,782.0	3,228.0	10.0	544.0	11,951.0	-	11,951.0	-	11,951.0	11,165.0	786.0		
Sheikh Badr	19,883.0	7,138.0	-	1,499.0	870.0	160.0	469.0	11,246.0	-	11,246.0	-	11,246.0	11,096.0	150.0		
Idlib	132,692.0	10.0	4,786.0	17,743.0	12,037.0	168.0	5,538.0	110,153.0	300.0	109,853.0	20,545.0	89,308.0	81,798.0	7,510.0		
Jisr ash Shughour	125,000.0	45,514.0	3,247.0	32,221.0	29,796.0	260.0	2,165.0	44,018.0	1,445.0	42,573.0	-	42,573.0	40,743.0	1,830.0		
Ma'arra	200,773.0	4.0	25,773.0	23,469.0	17,181.0	-	6,288.0	151,527.0	-	151,527.0	45,787.7	105,739.3	104,704.3	1,035.0		
Ar Riha	60,000.0	-	5,702.0	25,806.0	23,332.0	-	2,474.0	28,492.0	-	28,492.0	5,695.0	22,797.0	22,517.5	279.5		
Total	2,439,204.8	181,327.5	484,278.5	536,665.6	453,121.8	5,441.2	74,096.6	1,196,050.2	14,586.5	1,181,463.7	234,095.2	941,673.5	818,216.9	123,456.6		

^a all figures relate to hectares.

Source: Ministry of Agriculture figures.

of population and thereby stem out-migration. This is particularly so since increased mechanization and improved techniques, while no doubt leading to production increases, are also likely to release agricultural workers and thus add to the number of people who will either have to be absorbed in other sectors within the region or migrate to other parts of Syria. The study area's agriculture, however, stands to benefit from the demands for its produce that an expanded tourist trade within the region would make, especially since the types of foods, notably fruits and vegetables, which are typically demanded by tourists are already produced on a large scale in the area.

9. Industry in the Study Area

Compared with agriculture, industry plays a minor role in the economic life of the study area. Thus, of the region's total 1970 labour force of 455,559 only 45,284, or 9.9 per cent, were engaged in industry. It is evident from Table 99 that industry is largely confined to the seven nawahi containing the towns of Homs, Hama, Lattakia, Idlib, Jisr ash Shughour, Ma'aret an Nu'aman, and Tartous. These seven nawahi alone contain 80.7 per cent of the region's total industrial workers. Of the seven, Homs Centre nahia, with 14,262 workers engaged in industry in 1970, contains by far the greatest number of industrial workers while Hama Centre and Lattakia Centre lie in second and third place, respectively. Only in the first six of the seven above-named nawahi, however, does industry engage a significant proportion, over 15 per cent, of the labour force. Outside these six nawahi industry employs ten per cent or more of the labour force only in the three nawahi of Tall Kalakh Centre, Mashta al Helou, and Ar Riha Centre.

Figures on industrial employment by industrial sector, obtained from the Syrian Ministry of Industry in mid-1975 and shown in Table 100, are at

Table 99 Industrial Employment in the Study Area, 1970.

Nahia	Labour Force ^a	Number Employed in Industry	% Employed in Industry
Homs Centre	60,971	14,262	23.4
Tareen	3,557	120	3.4
Taldo	4,813	74	1.5
Tall Kalakh Centre	5,234	630	12.0
Jebel Helou	2,944	54	1.8
Wadi Nadara	6,445	226	3.5
Wa'er	1,843	119	6.5
Rastan Centre	12,726	313	2.5
Qosseir Centre	9,290	328	3.5
Hama Centre	43,618	7,968	18.3
Hurbnafso	3,827	285	7.4
Suran	4,019	77	1.9
Muhardeh	11,136	448	4.0
Skelbiyeh Centre	9,250	77	0.8
Tall Salhab	3,273	22	0.7
Ziyara	5,116	3	0.1
Shatha	2,999	5	0.2
Qal'at al Mudiq	9,786	44	0.5
Massiaf Centre	12,674	347	2.7
Ain Halaqim	4,567	72	1.6
Wadi al Eyoun	2,317	46	2.0
Tartous Centre	12,574	1,107	8.8
Arwad	1,158	35	5.8
Hamidia	3,073	67	2.2
As Soda	4,643	223	4.8
Safsafteh	2,837	96	3.4
Banias Centre	10,004	585	5.9
'Annazeh	3,199	23	0.7
Qadmous	4,857	75	1.5
Dreikeesh Centre	3,189	93	2.9
Jneinet Ruslan	2,370	70	3.0
Dweir Ruslan	1,821	39	2.1
Safita Centre	10,949	771	7.0
Mashta al Helou	4,319	477	11.0
Sheikh Badr Centre	4,097	108	2.6
Brimanet al Mashaiek	2,351	23	1.0
Lattakia Centre	42,336	7,839	18.5
Ain al Beida	6,197	398	6.4
Qastal Ma'af	2,600	45	1.7
Kabaliyeh	1,727	56	3.2

Table 99 (Cont'd)

Nahia	Labour Force ^a	Number Employed in Industry	% Employed in Industry
Kassab	851	66	7.8
Jebleh Centre	8,678	665	7.7
Hisan	6,166	68	1.1
Ain ash Sharqieh	8,093	71	0.9
Haffeh Centre	4,122	195	4.7
Slenfeh	3,499	37	1.1
Kinsibba	4,363	129	3.0
Muzeir'a	3,269	47	1.4
Qirdaha Centre	5,003	125	2.5
Fakhoura	2,968	91	3.1
Idlib Centre	13,271	2,076	15.6
Saraqib	5,210	316	6.1
Ar Riha Centre	8,402	933	11.1
Ihsem	4,374	90	2.1
Jisr ash Shughour	10,910	1,677	15.4
Bdama	2,710	50	1.9
Darkoush	2,884	58	2.0
Ma'arra Centre	8,244	1,633	19.8
Khan Shaikhoun	4,659	202	4.3
Kafr Nubl	3,177	105	3.3
<u>Total</u>	455,559	45,284	9.9

^a Economically active persons aged ten years and over.

Source: 1970 Census.

Table 100 Industrial Employment by Mohafaza and Industrial Sector, 1974.

	H O M S				M O H A F A Z A				H A M A				M O H A F A Z A				T A R T O U S				M O H A F A Z A			
	Estab- lishments	%	Perma- nent	Seasonal	Estab- lishments	%	Perma- nent	Seasonal	Estab- lishments	%	Perma- nent	Seasonal	Estab- lishments	%	Perma- nent	Seasonal	Estab- lishments	%	Perma- nent	Seasonal	Estab- lishments	%	Perma- nent	Seasonal
<u>PRIVATE SECTOR</u>																								
Food and drinks	191	23.6	441	18.3	-	-	172	45.5	319	34.2	-	-	342	68.3	1,433	81.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Engineering and allied metal-based industries	107	13.2	374	15.5	-	-	80	21.2	198	21.2	-	-	33	6.6	72	4.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Wood-cutting and wood-based industries	123	15.2	476	19.9	-	-	56	14.8	125	13.4	-	-	49	9.8	37	2.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Chemicals, fertilizers, and plastic-based industries	19	2.3	102	4.2	-	-	18	4.8	94	10.1	-	-	7	1.4	13	0.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Oil refining	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Construction materials	45	5.6	286	11.9	-	-	33	8.7	129	13.8	-	-	14	2.8	47	2.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Printing and paper industries	20	2.5	73	3.0	-	-	10	2.7	42	4.5	-	-	5	1.0	3	0.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Textiles and clothing	249	30.7	427	17.7	-	-	1	0.3	10	1.1	-	-	3	0.6	95	5.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Furniture	17	2.1	66	2.7	-	-	4	1.1	10	1.1	-	-	46	9.2	50	2.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Domestic goods and appliances	15	1.9	85	3.5	-	-	2	0.5	7	0.8	-	-	1	0.2	4	0.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other	25	3.1	75	3.1	-	-	2	0.5	n.a.	-	-	-	1	0.2	n.a.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<u>Total</u>	811	100.2	2,407	99.8	-	-	378	100.1	934	100.2	-	-	501	100.1	1,754	100.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 100 (Cont'd)

PRIVATE SECTOR (Cont'd)	LATAKIA				MOHAFZA				IDLIB				MOHAFZA				NORTH WEST SYRIA			
	Establishments	%	Permanent Workers	%	Seasonal Workers	%	Establishments	%	Permanent Workers	%	Seasonal Workers	%	Establishments	%	Permanent Workers	%	Establishments	%	Permanent Workers	%
Food and drinks	236	45.2	1,165	57.3	-	-	227	69.2	1,008	86.0	-	-	1,168	46.0	4,366	52.6	-	-	-	-
Engineering and allied metal-based industries	72	13.8	239	11.8	-	-	28	8.5	45	3.8	-	-	320	12.6	928	11.2	-	-	-	-
Wood-cutting and wood-based industries	43	8.2	107	5.3	-	-	34	10.4	29	2.5	-	-	305	12.0	776	9.4	-	-	-	-
Chemicals, fertilizers, and plastic-based industries	25	4.8	79	3.9	-	-	1	0.3	4	0.3	-	-	70	2.8	292	3.5	-	-	-	-
Oil refining	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Construction materials	39	7.5	180	8.9	-	-	8	2.4	36	3.1	-	-	139	5.5	678	8.2	-	-	-	-
Printing and paper industries	10	1.9	33	1.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	45	1.8	151	1.8	-	-	-	-
Textiles and clothing	1	0.2	5	0.2	-	-	1	0.3	12	1.0	-	-	255	10.0	549	6.6	-	-	-	-
Furniture	92	17.6	222	10.9	-	-	21	6.4	23	2.0	-	-	180	7.1	371	4.5	-	-	-	-
Domestic goods and appliances	2	0.4	2	0.1	-	-	8	2.4	15	1.3	-	-	28	1.1	113	1.4	-	-	-	-
Other	2	0.4	3	0.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	30	1.2	78	0.9	-	-	-	-
Total	522	100.0	2,035	100.2	-	-	328	99.9	1,172	100.0	-	-	2,540	100.1	8,302	100.1	-	-	-	-

Table 100 (Cont'd)

	H O M S M O H A F A Z A				H A M A M O H A F A Z A				T A R T O U S M O H A F A Z A			
	Establishments	%	Permanent Workers	%	Seasonal Workers	%	Establishments	%	Permanent Workers	%	Seasonal Workers	%
<u>PUBLIC SECTOR</u>												
Food and drinks	3	50.0	1,148	18.4	215	100.0	3	50.0	655	23.0	893	100.0
Engineering and allied metal-based industries	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	16.7	430	15.1	-	-
Wood-cutting and wood-based industries	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Chemicals, fertilizers, and plastic-based industries	1	16.7	887	14.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Oil refining	1	16.7	2,089	33.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Construction materials	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	16.7	619	21.8	-	-
Printing and paper industries	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Textiles and clothing	1	16.7	2,103	33.8	-	-	1	16.7	1,141	40.1	-	-
Furniture	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Domestic goods and appliances	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<u>Total</u>	6	100.1	6,227	100.0	215	100.0	6	100.1	2,845	100.0	893	100.0

Table 100 (Cont'd)

	LATAKIA MOHAFZA						IDLIB MOHAFZA						NORTH WEST SYRIA					
	Establishments	%	Permanent Workers	%	Seasonal Workers	%	Establishments	%	Permanent Workers	%	Seasonal Workers	%	Establishments	%	Permanent Workers	%	Seasonal Workers	%
PUBLIC SECTOR (Cont'd)																		
Food and drinks	1	50.0	102	14.2	125	100.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	53.3	2,019	20.4	2,188	100.0
Engineering and allied metal-based industries	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	6.7	430	4.3	-	-
Wood-cutting and wood-based industries	1	50.0	616	85.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	6.7	616	6.2	-	-
Chemicals, fertilizers, and plastic-based industries	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	6.7	887	9.0	-	-
Oil refining	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	6.7	2,089	21.1	-	-
Construction materials	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	6.7	619	6.3	-	-
Printing and paper industries	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Textiles and clothing	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	13.3	3,244	32.8	-	-
Furniture	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Domestic goods and appliances	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	2	100.0	718	100.0	125	100.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	15	100.1	9,904	100.1	2,188	100.0

Table 100 (Cont'd)

N O R T H W E S T S Y R I A						
PRIVATE AND PUBLIC SECTORS	Establishments	Permanent Workers		Seasonal Workers		%
		%		%		
Food and drinks	1,175	46.0	6,385	35.1	2,188	100.0
Engineering and allied metal-based industries	321	12.6	1,358	7.5	-	-
Wood-cutting and wood-based industries	306	12.0	1,392	7.7	-	-
Chemicals, fertilizers, and plastic-based industries	71	2.8	1,179	6.5	-	-
Oil refining	1	0.04	2,089	11.5	-	-
Construction materials	140	5.5	1,297	7.1	-	-
Printing and paper industries	45	1.8	151	0.8	-	-
Textiles and clothing	257	10.1	3,793	20.8	-	-
Furniture	180	7.1	371	2.0	-	-
Domestic goods and appliances	28	1.1	113	0.6	-	-
Other	30	1.2	78	0.4	-	-
<u>Total</u>	2,555	100.2	18,206	100.0	2,188	100.0

Source: Ministry of Industry figures.

variance with those given in the 1970 Census. Thus, the ministry data gives a total of 18,206¹ persons employed in industry in 1974 compared with the census figure of 45,284 industrial workers in 1970, even though the former data refers to the whole of the five mohafazat of Homs, Hama, Lattakia, Tartous, and Idlib, while the latter figure refers only to the nawahi contained in the study area. There is certainly no reason to suppose that there has been a massive decline in industrial employment in the study area in the 1970-1974 period and it must therefore be assumed that either the two sets of data employ different definitions of industrial employment or that the ministry data is incomplete; or both².

Nevertheless, on the basis of the data in Table 100, of the five mohafazat which wholly or in part constitute the study area, Homs mohafaza, with 8,634 industrial workers, or 47.4 per cent of the total for the five mohafazat, contains by far the greatest number of workers engaged in industry, while Hama mohafaza, with 3,779 industrial workers, or 20.8 per cent of the total, and Lattakia mohafaza with 2,753 workers in industry, representing 15.1 per cent of the total, rank second and third, respectively. Tartous and Idlib mohafazat, with only 3,040 industrial workers between them (constituting 16.7 per cent of total industrial workers) emerge as the least important mohafazat in terms of industrial employment.

¹ Unless otherwise specified, all the ministry figures on industrial employment mentioned in the text refer to permanent workers only.

² Certainly there is evidence that the ministry figures are not complete. For example, the author has seen a cement factory on the coast north of Lattakia but no mention is made of employment in this factory in the figures supplied by the Ministry of Industry. Similarly, Nyrop *et al.* (1971, p.263) refer to a modern sugar refinery at Jisr ash Shughour in Idlib mohafaza but employment in this plant is not included in the ministry data. Both these factories are no doubt publicly owned; see next paragraph but one. In this context note that the raw data supplied by the ministry consisted of a list of industrial establishments with the type(s) of product manufactured, and the number of employees, at each specified although where a mohafaza contains a number of establishments manufacturing the same product only an aggregate figure for employment in these is given. Where this latter occurs, however, the number of establishments involved is stated. Establishments were assigned, with their employees, to the industrial sectors specified in Table 100 by the author.

It can be seen from Table 100¹ that industrial employment in 1974 was roughly equally divided between the public and private sectors; 8,302 persons were employed in privately owned enterprises and 9,904 in publicly owned industries. On the other hand, the private sector accounted for 99.4 per cent of industrial establishments and the public sector for only 0.6 per cent. Clearly the two sectors differ significantly in their modes of production. Thus, in the private sector an average of only 3.3 persons were employed in each industrial establishment whereas in the public sector the corresponding figure was 660.3. Evidently the private sector is overwhelmingly composed of small scale artisinal enterprises while industry in the public sector is characterized by large scale factory production.

'Food and Drinks' industries, employing a total of 4,366 people, or over half of all private sector industrial workers, dominate the private sector. A wide variety of activities is encompassed in the 'Food and Drinks' category but most important are flour milling and olive oil extraction, the former being practised in all parts of the study area, the latter attaining its greatest importance in Idlib, Lattakia, and Tartous, the major olive growing mohafazat.

The 'Engineering and Allied Metal-Based Industries' category, employing 928 persons, or 11.2 per cent of total private sector industrial workers, is the second largest employer in the private sector. Again the category includes a wide range of activities but fashioning metal objects, notably spare parts for machinery, by lathe dominates. This latter industry is particularly important in Lattakia, Homs, and Hama mohafazat.

¹ No more detailed information on industry in the study area is contained in the 1970 Census than that which is presented in Table 99. The data obtained from the Ministry and presented in Table 100 is the only such information available and any but the most superficial examination of industry in the region under study must therefore employ it in spite of its probably being incomplete and its referring only to mohafazat and not to smaller administrative units.

While the major forested regions of the study area are in Lattakia mohafaza, 'Wood Cutting and Wood-Based Industries', which employ 776 persons, or 9.4 per cent of private sector workers, are equally important in Lattakia, Hama, and Homs mohafazat, but are of little significance in Tartous and Idlib mohafazat.

'Construction Materials' industries, comprising stone crushing and cutting, marble cutting and polishing, and tile and brick manufacture, employ 678 workers, or 8.2 per cent of total private sector industrial workers. This group of industries attains its greatest importance in Homs, Hama, and Lattakia mohafazat.

The 'Textiles and Clothing' category, the industries of which are centred in Homs mohafaza and employ 549 persons, or 6.6 per cent of total private sector industrial workers, is the fifth largest employer in the private sector. All other industrial categories employ less than 5 per cent of total private sector workers.

The 'Textiles and Clothing' category, employing 3,224 workers, and thus accounting for 32.8 per cent of total public sector industrial workers, dominates public sector industrial employment. Nevertheless, this employment is accounted for by only two factories, one at Homs, the other at Hama.

The 'Oil Refining' category contains Syria's only oil refinery. Located near Homs, and producing a wide variety of oil products, the refinery employs 2,089 persons, or 21.1 per cent of total public sector industrial workers.

'Food and Drinks' industries employ 2,019 persons, representing 20.4 per cent of total permanent workers in the public sector industries, and are also important employers of seasonal labour. This industrial category contains two sugar refineries, one at Homs, the other at Hama¹, two vegetable

¹ See footnote 2 on p.353.

oils factories, one at Hama, the other at Lattakia, an onion dehydration plant at Homs, a peanut factory at Tartous, a dairy products plant at Homs, and a fruit and vegetable preserves factory at Jebleh in Lattakia mohafaza.

The 'Chemicals, Fertilizers, and Plastic-Based Industries' category contains only one publicly owned factory, a nitrogenous fertilizer plant at Homs. The 'Construction Materials' category also contains only one plant, a cement factory at Hama¹, as do the 'Wood Cutting and Wood-Based Industries' category (a saw mill at Lattakia) and the 'Engineering and Allied Metal-Based Industries' category (a steel mill at Hama).

Electricity generation is excluded from consideration in Table 100 but, while it sustains only very little employment, this industry is, of course, vital to the development of manufacturing in the study area and an adequate supply of electricity is also an important pre-requisite for the development of tourism. The electricity needs of the region are currently met by one power station of 20 megawatts capacity at Lattakia, a three megawatts capacity station at Tartous, two stations of 20 megawatts capacity each at Hama, a thermal station of 30 megawatts capacity at Qattineh on the shores of Lake Homs, two power stations of 20 megawatts capacity each near Homs, and an HEP plant at the Rastan dam which currently produces about seven megawatts. In addition, two HEP units of 150 megawatts capacity each are installed at the Muhardeh dam, but are not yet operational. Plans exist to establish another 20 megawatts capacity station in Lattakia and three new power stations in Tartous mohafaza. As well as these publicly operated stations, most larger factories have their own power plants.

¹ See footnote 2 on p.353. Note that the only mineral extraction industries of any significance in the study area are limestone quarrying, mainly to supply the needs of the cement industry, and the small scale mining of asphalt at Kafriyeh, north east of Lattakia. Neither are important in terms of the employment they sustain. Iron ore deposits are located in the Massiaf area but these are not at present under exploitation.

A major project currently under way in Syria is the creation of a national electricity grid based on the HEP station at the Tabqa Dam and the Qattineh thermal station. The first section, between Damascus, Homs, Hama, and Aleppo, was completed in 1967 and in 1971 links between Aleppo and Lattakia and between Homs and Tartous were amongst several sections under construction or planned. Idlib mohafaza, which has no power station of its own, receives all its electricity via the grid. Another important project is a rural electrification programme, the ultimate aim of which is to bring electricity to all villages with over 2,000 inhabitants as well as to all places near the national grid, to tourist sites, and to frontier zones.

In mid-1975 a total of 32 industrial projects to be located in the study area were being considered for incorporation in the Fourth Five Year Plan for the period 1976-1980. These projects included schemes both for the expansion of some existing public sector factories and for the establishment of new publicly owned plants to produce a wide variety of products, and, if all were realized, would create a total of 16,000 new jobs by the end of the plan period. In terms of employment generated, the most important projects were: the expansion of the textile plants in Homs and Hama; a textile factory in Lattakia; a cement factory at Tartous¹; a car wheels factory at Hama; a canning factory in Lattakia; a citric acid factory in Lattakia; the expansion of the vegetable oils plant in Lattakia; the expansion of the Homs oil refinery; and the establishment of a new refinery at Banias². It must be stressed, however, that most of the 32 projects will be excluded from the plan and even those which are included may not, if past experience of plan execution is any guide, all be realized during the plan period.

¹ In 1975 this cement factory, along with another in Hama, was already under construction (MEED, Vol. 19, No. 35, 29th August, 1975, p.20).

² The Banias refinery was already under construction in 1975 (MEED, Vol. 19, No. 29, 18th July, 1975, p.24).

It is unlikely that there will be any significant expansion either of artisanal industries¹, in view of the inability of their products to compete with cheaper factory produced goods, or, given the government's policy of fostering a state owned industrial sector, of modern private sector industries. The initiative for the expansion of modern industry must therefore be taken by the government, and certainly the government, which looks to manufacturing industry as the key to Syria's economic development, is very active in this field. The difficulties facing the establishment of a modern industrial sector in any Third World country are, however, legion. Most important are the scarcity of skilled manpower, shortage of capital, absence of a domestic market, inefficient production techniques leading to high production costs and therefore to high prices, and the low quality of the goods produced compared with that of those manufactured in industrialized countries. In view of these obstacles it is unlikely that industry, like agriculture, will be able to expand rapidly enough in the study area to create by itself sufficient jobs to meet the future employment needs of the region and thereby slow or halt out-migration from the area.

An expansion of tourism in the study area would, however, increase the demand for the region's industrial products although, after an initial period when the construction materials industries would benefit from the demand for their output created by the establishment of tourist facilities, tourism's demands would probably be almost exclusively for the products of the food and drinks industries and, to a greater extent, for handicrafts. In view of the current lack of information concerning the present characteristics of the study area's handicraft industry, and of the great scope for expansion, not least in terms of employment sustained, which tourism would offer this industrial sector, above all others, a detailed survey of the region's handicraft industries would be well worth undertaking.

¹ This is true except, given an expansion of tourism, for those artisanal industries producing the types of handicrafts which would be in demand from tourists. See next paragraph.

10. Unemployment in the Study Area

Of the study area's total labour force of 455,559, some 28,846, or 5.5 per cent, were unemployed at the time of the September 1970 Census. This average unemployment rate is not excessive by the standards of Third World countries and is, in any case, probably higher than the average annual rate since employment in agriculture, in which the majority of the region's labour force is engaged, is seasonal and September lies in the slack season after harvesting. In spite of this, however, the average annual unemployment rate in the region must be unacceptably high.

Unemployment rates by nahia are shown in Table 101 and presented graphically in Figure 22. From an examination of Table 101 it is evident that the overall figure of 5.5 per cent unemployed masks great differences in unemployment rates between nawahi, while an inspection of Figure 22 reveals that these variations assume a clear spatial pattern. Generally the nawahi located in the central parts of the region have the lowest rates but are surrounded by an almost unbroken zone of nawahi with higher unemployment rates, typically between 4 and 7.9 per cent. Three areas of this outer zone, however, the first comprising the nawahi located on the southern slopes of the Jebel Ansarieh, the second the two nawahi of Suran and Khan Shaikhoun, and the third consisting of Fakhoura nahia, have much higher unemployment rates, ranging between 8 and 16.3 per cent.

The core of the central area of low unemployment includes the Hills of Massiaf and the higher parts of the Jebel Ansarieh and of the Jebel Zawiye'h while a tongue of low unemployment extends from this core over the Bassit and Baer regions in the north west of the study area. All these areas have limited agricultural potential and, although detailed figures are not available, have traditionally been areas of marked population out-migration. The generally low

Table 101 Unemployment in the Study Area, 1970.

Nahia	Labour Force ^a	Number Unemployed	% Unemployed
Homs Centre	60,971	3,521	5.8
Tareen	3,557	191	5.4
Taldo	4,813	293	6.1
Tall Kalakh Centre	5,234	306	5.9
Jebel Helou	2,944	128	4.4
Wadi Nadara	6,445	589	9.1
Wa'ar	1,843	133	7.2
Rastan Centre	12,726	522	4.1
Qosseir Centre	9,290	632	6.8
Hama Centre	43,618	2,410	5.5
Hurbnafso	3,827	74	1.9
Suran	4,019	348	8.7
Muhardeh	11,136	420	3.8
Skelbiyeh Centre	9,250	181	2.0
Tall Salhab	3,273	35	1.1
Ziyara	5,116	44	0.9
Shatha	2,999	33	1.1
Qal'at al Mudiq	9,786	215	2.2
Massiaf Centre	12,674	439	3.5
Ain Halaqim	4,567	338	7.4
Wadi al Eyoum	2,317	236	10.2
Tartous Centre	12,574	892	7.1
Arwad	1,158	44	3.8
Hamidia	3,073	92	3.0
As Soda	4,643	527	11.4
Safsafah	2,837	226	8.0
Banias Centre	10,004	736	7.4
'Annazeh	3,199	100	3.1
Qadmous	4,857	119	2.5
Dreikeesh Centre	3,189	260	8.2
Jneinet Ruslan	2,370	386	16.3
Dweir Ruslan	1,821	152	8.4
Safita Centre	10,949	443	4.1
Mashta al Helou	4,319	237	5.5
Sheikh Badr Centre	4,097	253	6.2
Brimanet al Mashaiek	2,351	38	1.6
Lattakia Centre	42,336	3,314	7.8
Ain al Beida	6,197	321	5.2
Qastal Ma'af	2,600	36	1.4
Kabaliyeh	1,727	60	3.5

Table 101 (Cont'd)

Nahia	Labour Force ^a	Number Unemployed	% Unemployed
Kassab	851	24	2.8
Jebleh Centre	8,678	614	7.1
Hisan	6,166	254	4.1
Ain ash Sharqieh	8,093	207	2.6
Haffeh Centre	4,122	243	5.9
Slenfeh	3,499	64	1.8
Kinsibba	4,363	118	2.7
Muzeir'a	3,269	102	3.1
Qirdaha Centre	5,003	246	4.9
Fakhoura	2,968	265	8.9
Idlib Centre	13,271	738	5.6
Saraqib	5,210	218	4.2
Ar Riha Centre	8,402	330	3.9
Ihsem	4,374	138	3.2
Jisr ash Shughour	10,910	515	4.7
Bdama	2,710	107	4.0
Darkoush	2,884	82	2.8
Ma'arra Centre	8,244	565	7.1
Khan Shaikhoun	4,659	504	10.8
Kafr Nubl	3,177	188	5.9
<u>Total</u>	455,559	24,846	5.5

^a Economically active persons aged ten years and over.

Source: 1970 Census.

THE STUDY AREA:
UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY NAHIA 1970

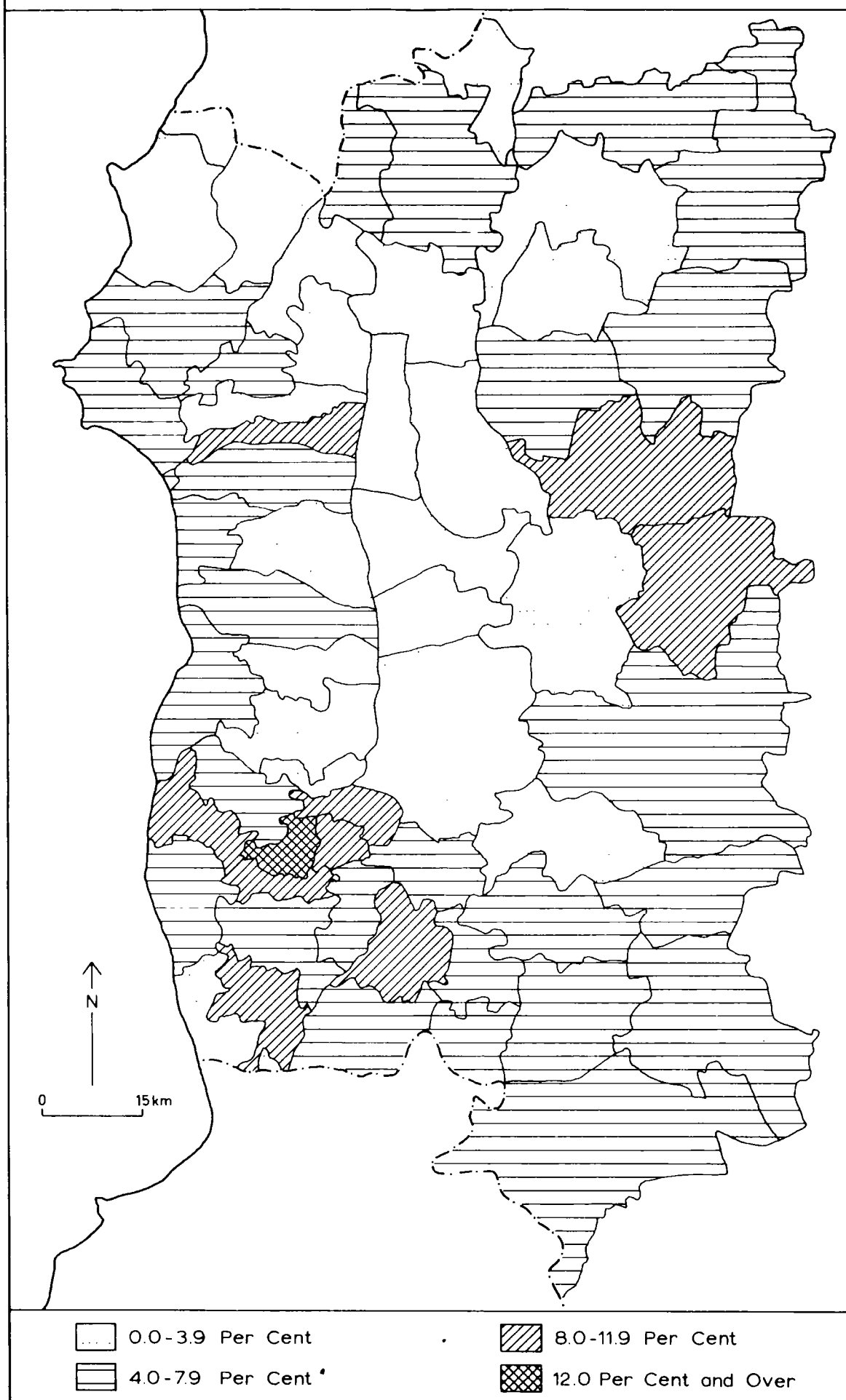


Figure 22

unemployment rates of the nawahi containing these regions would seem to indicate that migration has, to a great extent, resulted in a satisfactory balance between the supply of, and demand for, employment, although at what cost in terms of social upheaval can only be speculated. The Ghab and the lower parts of the adjoining Plain of Acharneh, areas which lie at the centre of the region of low unemployment similarly offered very little scope for agriculture, and consequently also witnessed serious out-migration, until the recent completion of the reclamation project. The low unemployment rates in the nawahi containing these areas are probably both the result of the employment impact of the agricultural scheme and of the out-migration which preceded the execution of the project. At present the Ghab and the lower lying parts of the Plain of Acharneh are probably witnessing some degree of in-migration, both from within and from outside the study area, although the low unemployment rates of the nawahi in which these areas are located would suggest that the employment impact of the reclamation and irrigation project is, and has been, such as to meet the employment needs of the in-migrants.

By contrast, the coastal lowlands, the Jebel Helou, the southern slopes of the Jebel Ansarieh, and the Plateau of Hama have always offered much greater scope for agriculture and in addition contain all the major towns and cities in the study area. In consequence these areas have attracted migrants from surrounding poorer regions, notably from the areas specified in the preceding paragraph, but also from areas outside the study area, although again detailed figures on these migratory flows are not available¹. It seems clear, however,

¹ Nawahi are the smallest areal units for which data on unemployment is available. Unfortunately, however, nawahi boundaries do not, for the most part, correspond to the boundaries between areas of different relief. Thus, to the extent that relief, structure, geology, climate, and hydrology are interdependent and determine agricultural potential, and therefore unemployment rates, an examination is precluded of these rates in some parts of most of the physical regions of high agricultural potential, in some parts

from the generally high unemployment rates of the nawahi containing these regions that the demand for jobs in these areas has outstripped the capacity of their economies to create employment. The unemployed of the poorly endowed regions have moved to the richer areas only to find no work there¹. For many the next step must have been to quit the study area altogether to search, quite likely in vain, for employment in Damascus or Aleppo.

It was argued in section 7 of this chapter that the inability of the study area's economy to create adequate jobs in relation to the demand for employment was the single greatest cause of the net out-migration that the region as a whole has experienced over the years. The foregoing analysis of unemployment within the region provides further evidence for this view.

At this point it is well worth noting that the possible existence of so-called 'disguised unemployment' within the region is not a major issue since the concept of disguised unemployment itself cannot be accepted as valid. A once widely held view was that "In the overpopulated countries with extreme overcrowding on land, the marginal product of labour in agriculture

of most of the physical regions of low agricultural potential, and in any part of some of the physical regions of low agricultural potential. It can be postulated, however, that an area of unknown unemployment rate within a physical region of high agricultural potential has a high unemployment rate and that an area of unknown unemployment rate within a physical region of low agricultural potential has a low unemployment rate. Similarly, it is probable that physical regions of low agricultural potential and unknown unemployment rates have low unemployment rates. Meanwhile, it is likely that all the physical regions of low agricultural potential that have not been identified as areas of out- or in-migration in the main text are experiencing out-migration. All the physical regions of in-migration have been identified in the main text.

¹ The common influence of migration on population densities and unemployment rates means that areas with low unemployment rates tend to have low population densities and areas with high unemployment rates high population densities; compare Figures 21 and 22.

is zero; a considerable amount of rural surplus labour can therefore be removed without reducing total agricultural output and can be put to use in the construction of productive capital goods, such as road and irrigation works. Since total agricultural output is not reduced by the removal of surplus labour, there will be more food left for those remaining on the land, and a food surplus can be extracted without reducing the per capita consumption of those who remain behind. This food surplus can then be used to feed those engaged in productive construction work. 'Disguised unemployment' therefore provides 'concealed savings' which can be used to build productive capital goods in a 'costless' way, and this without any fundamental improvements in agricultural techniques"(Myint, 1968, p.86).

Myint, however, shows (Myint, 1968, pp.87-88) that if a given number of agricultural workers are removed from the land, and this with no change in agricultural techniques, then it is by no means certain that those left on the land will in fact work longer hours than they did before in order to maintain an unchanged agricultural output. Indeed, it is quite likely that agricultural production will fall. Thus, although one estimate (Petran, 1973, p.208) puts disguised unemployment in agriculture in Syria as high as 33 per cent "of the agricultural population"¹, agricultural workers who can be costlessly removed from agriculture for employment in tourism or any other sector do not exist in Syria. Workers should only be deliberately transferred from one economic sector to another where it is certain that extra productivity in the new sector will more than compensate for the losses incurred by the workers' removal from the original sector².

¹ In spite of the fact that only limited parts of Syria can be regarded as 'overpopulated ... with extreme overcrowding on land'.

² Note in this context that the concept of 'disguised unemployment' is not confined to agricultural employment.

There is, however, no doubt that an expansion of tourism could do much to alleviate genuine unemployment in the study area. It must, on the other hand, be noted that the seasonality of employment in tourism is a potentially major problem, especially since the off season for tourism coincides with the slack period of the agricultural year when seasonal unemployment in agriculture is itself at its height. Clearly, Syria should take all possible steps to ensure that seasonality in her tourist trade is minimized. However, it has been noted that touring, estivage, and seaside resort tourism are the three major types of tourism which the study area can expect to cater for in the future and, of these three, estivage tourism is strictly confined to the summer months while seaside resort tourism must be considered, in the context of the climatic conditions along Syria's coast, to be essentially a summer activity, although an examination of the relevant climatic data suggests that there is some limited scope for this type of tourism outside the summer period. Touring, meanwhile, can definitely be encouraged throughout the year. It is the author's contention, however, that the creation of new employment, even if it is to some extent seasonal, employment which would do much to halt the out-migration of the region's population, is the greatest single benefit that the study area could gain from an expansion of the tourist trade. In this respect, it is of interest that the majority of the unemployed in the study area have little education and very few skills (see Table 102¹) and would thus be suited, with only limited training, to many of the types of employment which the tourist trade can offer.

¹ The author was able to obtain data on unemployed persons by educational status for the whole of Syria only. There is no reason, however, to suppose that the distribution by educational status of all of Syria's unemployed persons differs significantly from that of the unemployed of the study area.

Table 102 Syria's Unemployed by Educational Status, 1970.

	Number Unemployed	%
Illiterate	45,924	47.9
Literate	24,642	25.7
Primary Certificate	14,061	14.7
Intermediate Certificate	3,294	3.4
Secondary Certificate	6,238	6.5
Vocational Certificate	314	0.3
University graduate and Master's Degree	1,259	1.3
Doctorate	55	0.1
Not stated	8	0.01
<u>Total</u>	95,795	99.9

Source: 1970 Census.

11. Conclusion to the Regional Geography of North West Syria

It is clear from the description of the natural conditions that prevail in the study area that the region is characterized by its physical diversity and tourists generally find this feature attractive in a region. It emerged that the major problem facing the study area is population loss, mainly a consequence of the inability of the region's economy to provide adequate employment for the area's inhabitants. It was concluded that neither agriculture nor industry can individually be expected to provide sufficient jobs to meet the future employment needs of the region, needs which, because of the large annual increments to the area's population, will become greater with each passing year, and it is the author's opinion that even in combination they will be unable to meet the future demand for jobs from the study area's inhabitants. Tourism, however, quite apart from its other economic benefits, is felt, in view of the study area's considerable tourist potential, which will be examined in the following chapters, to be the only sector which can offer employment on a sufficient scale to meet, or even overcome, the expected future shortfall of jobs in industry, agriculture, and their related services. The tourist trade could thus contribute massively to the reduction of the out-migration of the region's population, out-migration which, in view of the poor prospects for a major expansion of employment opportunities in sectors other than tourism, can be expected to continue until tourist development on a significant scale occurs. Unfortunately, however, it must again be stressed that a significant expansion of Syria's tourist trade is unlikely until the country has witnessed a prolonged period of internal political stability and until more settled political conditions prevail in the Middle East as a whole. Meanwhile, the danger of social strife

resulting from different religious groups being brought, in the process of tourism-induced population movements, into close contact with each other, or from an accrual of the benefits of tourism to one or more of the groups to the exclusion of others, or from both processes, should be recognized as the greatest potential disbenefit of an expansion of tourism in the study area.

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CHAPTER FIVE

THE TOURIST RESOURCES OF NORTH WEST SYRIA

It was concluded in Chapter Three that a survey of Syria's, and therefore of the study area's, tourist resources should include assessments of landscape, water bodies, climate, historic sites, and accessibility. Further, it was argued that work at the desk, using maps as the primary data sources and grid squares as survey units, was the most effective study procedure.

1. The Primary Data Sources

It was felt that topographical maps at a scale of 1:50,000 would provide adequate detail for the study, and two series of maps at this scale exist. The first was published by the French during, and immediately after, the mandate period. Unfortunately, however, while some of the maps of this series are of excellent quality, many are the opposite and all are, of course, out of date. Further, while the coverage for the study area and its immediately adjacent areas¹ is almost complete (see Figure 23), six sheets which it had been planned to publish were never in fact produced. These are the Safita, Qalaat el Hosn, Rastane, Mecherfeh, Rayane and Hassié sheets².

¹ As will be seen, a map coverage for the immediate environs of the study area was required for the execution of certain stages of the resource survey.

² A sheet named Rastane-Mecherfeh was, however, produced and covers half the area of the Rastane sheet and half that of the Mecherfeh sheet while a section of the Rayane sheet is covered by a part of the Environs d'Homs map.

In the 1960s, however, the Syrians produced their own Qalaat el Hosn, Safita, Rayane, and Hassié sheets. The information shown on these maps was derived solely from the 1:200,000 French map entitled Homs and these four sheets are accordingly of exceedingly poor quality.

The second series of 1:50,000 maps was prepared by the Syrian Military Survey Administration and published during the early 1970s. These maps are of very high quality but a complete coverage for the study area was not extant at the time of the resource survey's execution. However, a more extensive coverage of new maps at a scale of 1:25,000 did exist. The only part of the study area for which new series maps, either at scales of 1:50,000 or 1:25,000, had not yet been published at the time the resource survey was undertaken was a small area in the extreme north west, corresponding to the area covered by the old series sheets¹ of Kessab and Ordu and the western half of that covered by the old series sheet of Jisr ech Chorhour.

As will be seen, maps of both the old series and of the new 1:50,000 and 1:25,000 scale series were employed in different stages of the study since, while the old series maps were constantly available to the author², this was not the case with the new series maps.

2. The Survey Units

The purpose of the study was to define, for each of a number of different types of tourism, broad areas with different potential for development and it was felt that for this aim grid squares measuring 5 km x 5 km would provide

¹ For convenience, the four maps specified in the preceding paragraph which were produced by the Syrians in the 1960s are taken in this chapter to constitute old series maps. Where these 1960s Syrian sheets are referred to individually, the spellings (shown in Figure 23) of their names are employed which the French would have used had they published these maps.

² Note, however, that the Environs de Hama and Environs d'Homs sheets, while permanently available for consultation, were not always readily accessible to the author in the way that all the other old series maps were.

THE STUDY AREA : THE 1:50,000 OLD SERIES MAP COVERAGE

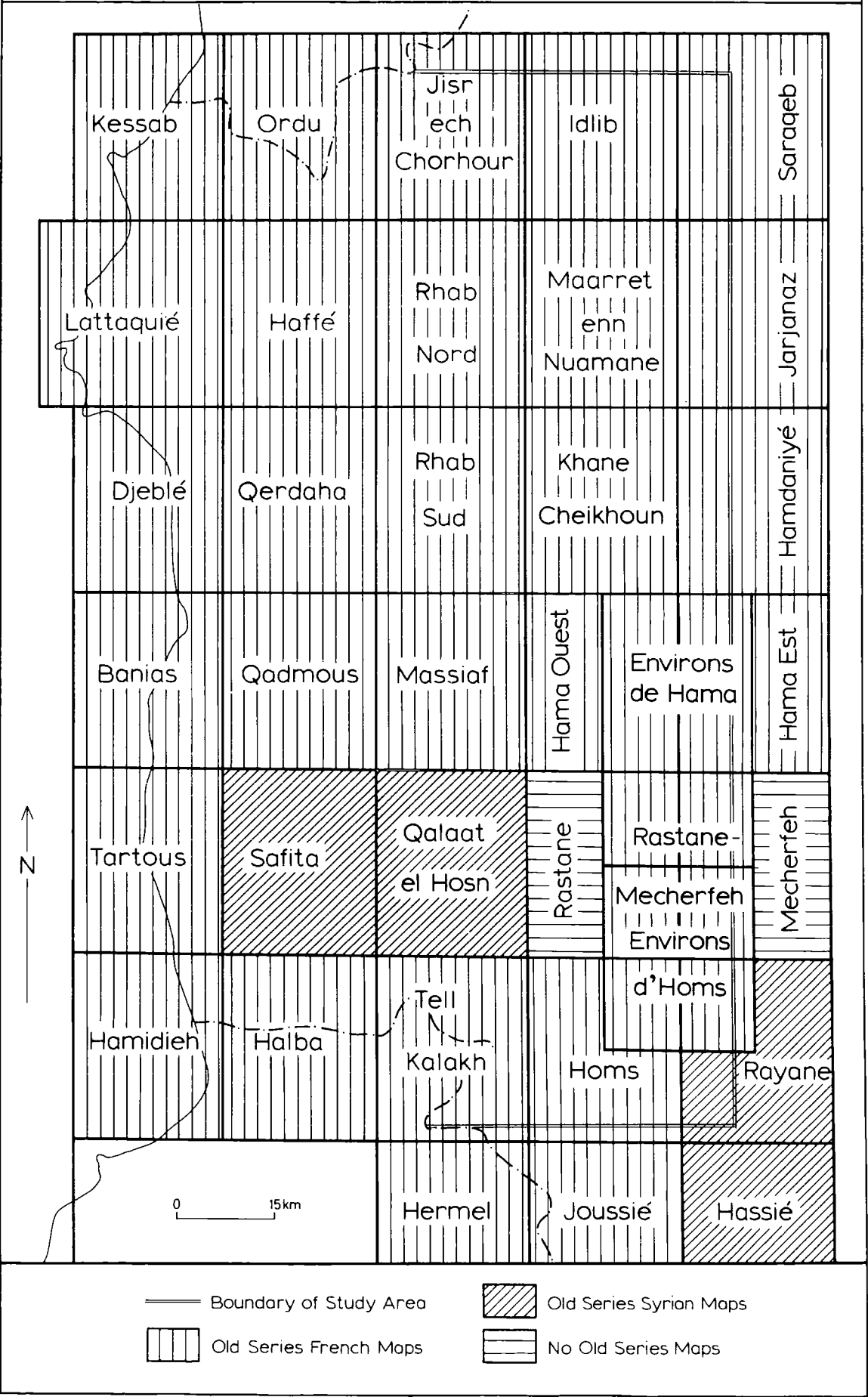


Figure 23

survey units which were neither so large as to introduce an unacceptable degree of generalization nor so small as to provide unnecessary detail. The new series maps, which have a different grid to the French Levant Grid used on the old series maps, were not made available to the author, and then only briefly, until relatively late in the study and accordingly the lines of the latter grid were, for convenience, adopted to delimit the 5 km x 5 km survey squares.

The grid cover of the study area is shown in Figure 24. The numbering of the grid applies to the spaces between the grid lines and the location of each of the 536 grid squares is given by an easting followed by a northing. The study area grid squares can be located on the 1:50,000 and 1:25,000 maps in the following way¹. To find the easting of the Levant Grid line which forms the eastern edge of a study area grid square, the easting for that square on the study area grid is multiplied by five and 125 added to the product. To find the northing of the Levant Grid line which forms the southern edge of a study area grid square, the northing for that square on the study area grid is multiplied by five and 40 added to the product. For example, study area grid square 10,80 can be located on the 1:50,000 or 1:25,000 maps by multiplying its easting, 10, by five, which gives 50, and adding 125 to make 175. This is the easting of the Levant Grid line which forms the eastern edge of the square. Secondly, the northing, 80, is multiplied by five which gives 400, and to this 40 is added to make 440. This is the northing of the Levant Grid line which forms the southern edge of the grid square.

The study area grid is, of course, only a part of a wider grid which covers the whole of Syria, the spaces between the two western-most and two

¹ The locations of the Levant Grid lines are marked on the edges of the new series maps.

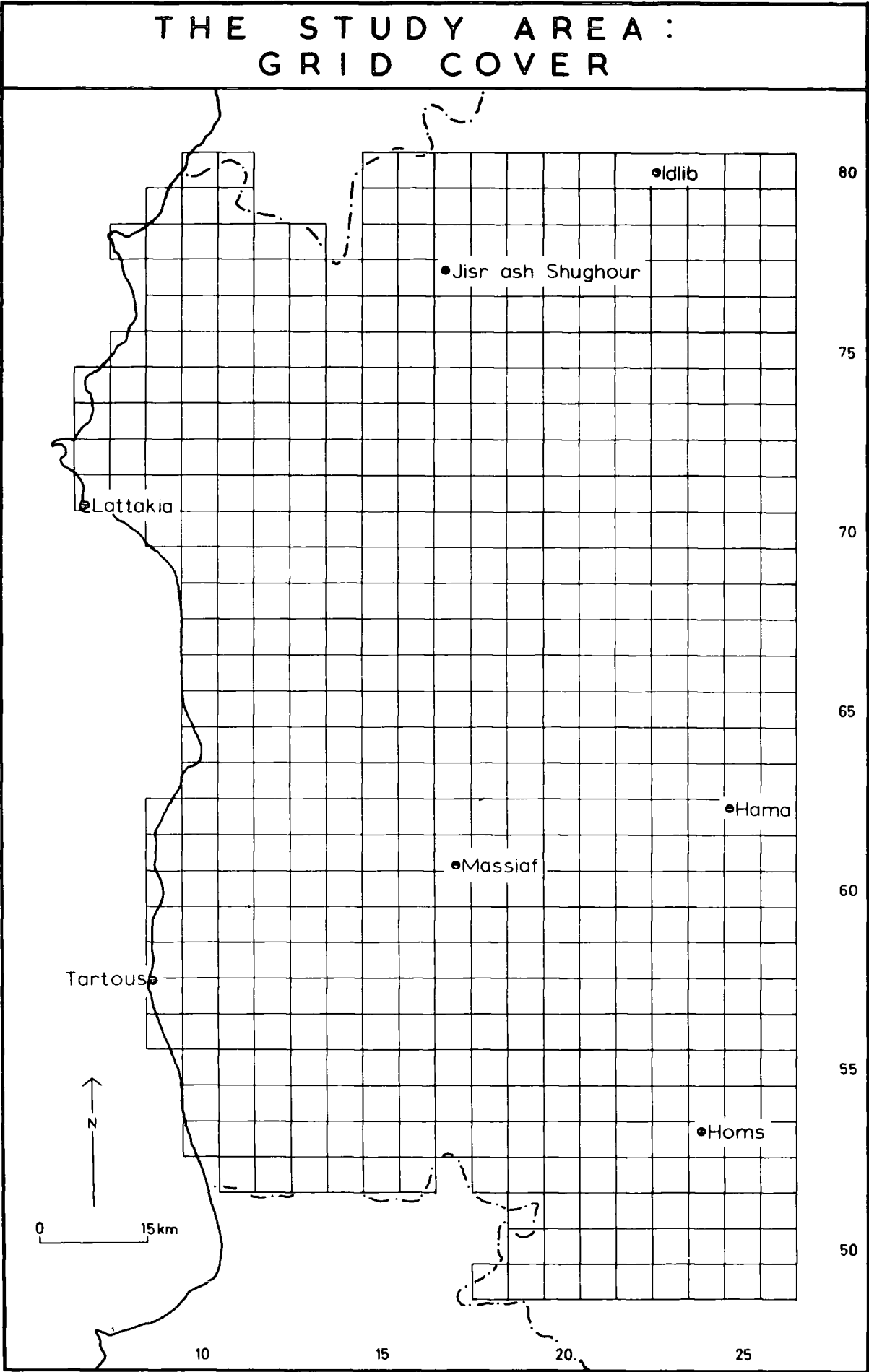


Figure 24

southern-most grid lines of this larger grid both being numbered 1. It was decided not to consider the study area grid in isolation from the wider grid covering Syria and the spaces between the study area grid lines were therefore numbered from 7 to 26 from west to east and from 49 to 80 from south to north, in accordance with their locations in the wider grid covering the whole country. Thus, if at some future date the study is extended to embrace, eventually, the whole of Syria, as would be desirable, a re-numbering of the spaces between the study area grid lines will be unnecessary.

Note should be taken that certain areas on the west, south, and north edges of the study area are not covered by the grid. This is because for a 5 km x 5 km square which was not completely composed of Syrian land territory to qualify for inclusion in the study area grid it was decided that at least 50 per cent of its area should consist of Syrian land. Whether or not 50 per cent or more of the area of such a 5 km x 5 km square consisted of Syrian land was determined in the following, admittedly somewhat crude, way. A 500 m x 500 m grid drawn on transparent plastic film was placed over the square and the number of cells in which Syrian land appeared was counted. If Syrian land occurred in 50 or more of the hundred 500 m x 500 m cells then the 5 km x 5 km grid square was included in the study area grid. Measurements for those parts of the study area which lie outside the grid were allocated to adjacent grid squares according to the following system:

- i) For areas within the line of squares 12,52 - 12,53 - 20,53 - 20,49:

measurements for an area within a 5 km x 5 km square outside the grid were aggregated with the measurements for the study area grid square immediately to the north of that square. If there was no study area grid square to the north, then the measurements were included with those of the grid square to the east. If there was no study area grid square to the north or east, then the measurements for the area within the excluded square were incorporated with those for the study area grid square immediately to the south of it.

- ii) For areas to the west of the line of squares 11,50 - 11,76 - 10,76 - 10,80: measurements for an area within a square outside the grid were aggregated with the measurements for the study area grid square immediately to the east of the external square. If there was no study area grid square to the east, then the measurements for the area in the excluded square were included with those for the study area grid square to the north.
- iii) For areas east of the line of squares 11,77 - 11,80: measurements for an area within a square outside the study area grid were aggregated with the measurements for the study area grid square immediately to the south of the external square. If there was no study area grid square to the south, then the measurements were aggregated with those for the study area grid square immediately to the east. If study area grid squares were located both to the south and east of the external square, then measurements for that square were included with those for the study area grid square to the south.

All the islands off the Syrian coast were, however, excluded from consideration in this study since none of them fulfilled the area conditions for inclusion in the study area grid, while aggregation of measurements for these islands with the measurements for the nearest study area grid squares lying to their east would, it was felt, lead to an unacceptable distortion of the true values for tourism of the resources in these latter squares.

3. Surface One: Landscape

It was concluded in Chapter Three that no existing technique of landscape evaluation was available for immediate application in the present study. Accordingly a new technique was developed in which the emphasis is placed upon evaluation of the views which can be obtained from a grid square, rather than on assessment of the landscape elements contained within a square.

The method, which was thus christened the Vistometric technique of landscape evaluation, is founded on the hypotheses that the greater the extent of view, the greater the amount of relative relief visible, and the greater the variety of land use visible, the better the view, and that different land use types make different contributions to landscape quality. As was shown in Chapter Three, the first of these concepts was adopted by Sargent (1966) in his system of evaluating scenery from a road and by the Coventry-Solihull-Warwickshire technique (Coventry County Council et al., 1971a) while the last three have been adopted by a variety of previous landscape evaluation techniques.

The first step is to establish for each survey unit the extent of view and the magnitude of visible relative relief. These two features are essentially determined by relief and their measurement may therefore be conceived as the equivalent of measurements of the landform landscape in some existing techniques. Now, a view is tied to a specific point of land rather than to an area of land and it was therefore necessary to decide which point within each survey unit was to be used as the observation point from which visible relative relief and extent of view values which would apply to the grid square as a whole were to be obtained. The highest point within each grid square was chosen as the viewpoint as it was felt that generally the best views in a square would be obtainable from its highest point and the visible relative relief and extent of view values for all squares would thus be comparable in that they would be the highest such values attainable by each square.

To measure the magnitude of visible relative relief and the extent of view a device, christened a Vistometer, was designed. This instrument (see Figures 25 and 26) consists of a perspex disc on which 24 'lines of sight', numbered clockwise from 1 to 24 and radiating from the central point, each

Figure 25 The Vistometer: Oblique View.

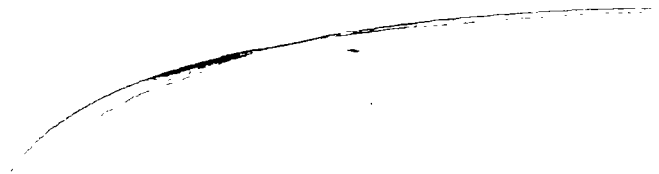
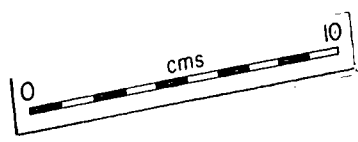
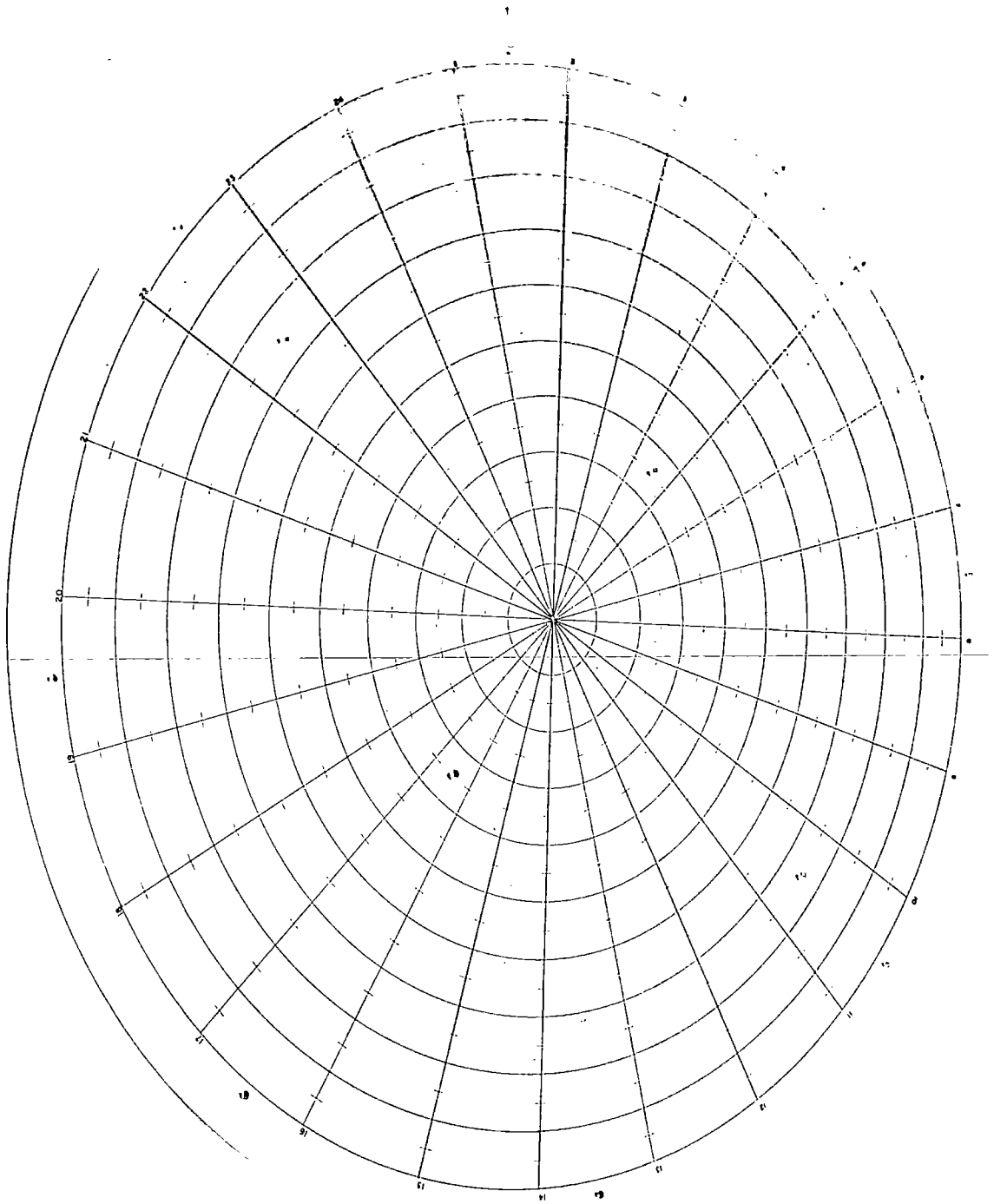
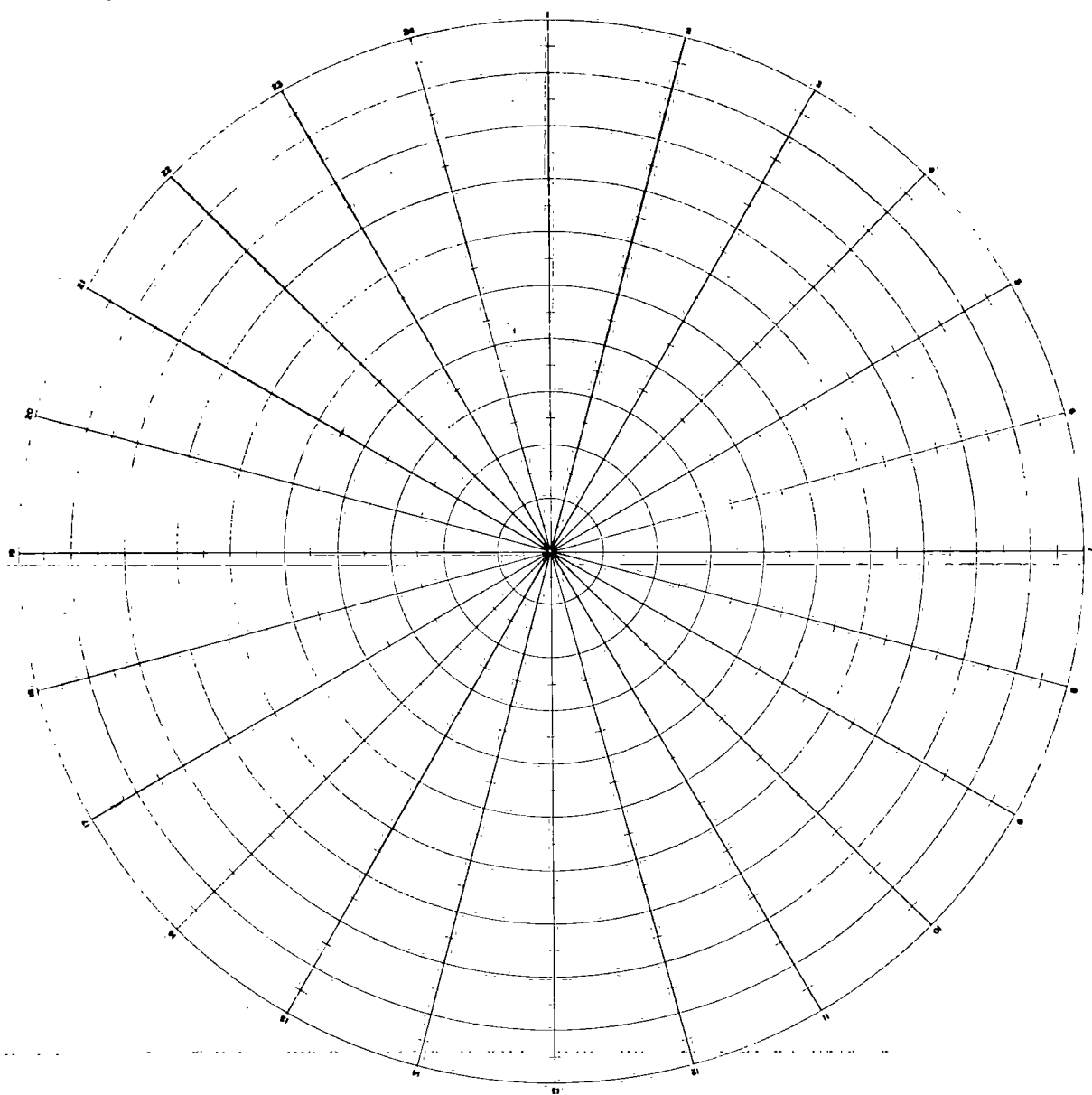


Figure 26 The Vistometer: Plan View.



0 10 cms

at an angle of 15 degrees to the next, are engraved. Each sight line is 20 cm long, a length which, if one is working at a scale of 1:50,000, represents a distance of 10 km. Concentric circles are engraved to intersect each sight line at 2 cm (i.e. 1 km at a scale of 1:50,000) intervals and short lines are also engraved at the mid-points between each concentric circle and between the central point and the innermost circle, along each sight line. Each sight line is thus marked off at 1 cm (i.e. 0.5 km at a scale of 1:50,000) intervals.

In use, the Vistometer is placed flat onto the 1:50,000 map such that the instrument's central point is located at the highest point in a grid square and sight line number one is pointing due grid north. To determine the extent of view and amount of visible relative relief along a given sight line, use is made of formulae derived from the similar triangles theorem. Thus, an observer is able to see over an obstacle to a point lower than the observation point if:

$$\frac{(b - a) AD}{AC} < E - a$$

where: b is the altitude of the observation point,

a is the altitude of the low point,

AD is the distance between the low point and the
intervening obstacle,

AC is the distance between the observation point and the
low point,

E is the altitude of the obstacle.

Similarly, an observer can see over an obstacle to a point higher than the observation point if:

$$\frac{(b - a) AD}{AC} < E - a$$

where: b is the altitude of the high point,

a is the altitude of the observation point,

AD is the distance between the observation point and the obstacle,

AC is the distance between the observation point and the high point,

E is the altitude of the obstacle.

It was originally intended to derive the final extent of view and visible relative relief values for a given grid square by respectively averaging the 24 individual visible relative relief values and 24 individual extent of view values achieved by the Vistometer sight lines. Test runs with the Vistometer, however, soon revealed that a great deal of tedious and time consuming work was involved in determining the distance it was possible to see, and the magnitude of relative relief visible, along sight lines. It was therefore decided to investigate the possibility of taking extent of view and visible relative relief measurements only for the 12 unevenly numbered Vistometer sight lines and to derive the final scores for a grid square by respectively averaging these two sets of 12 values.

Accordingly, a ten per cent random sample of the grid squares in the study area was taken (see Figure 27) and for each of the 54 sampled squares measurements for extent of view and visible relative relief were made along all 24 sight lines on the Vistometer. The average score achieved by each square for each of these two features derived from 24 measurements was then plotted against the average score achieved by using the measurements for the 12 sight lines numbered 1, 3, 5, 7, ... 23. The results are shown in Figures 28a and b. If the final scores achieved by a square by averaging 12 sight

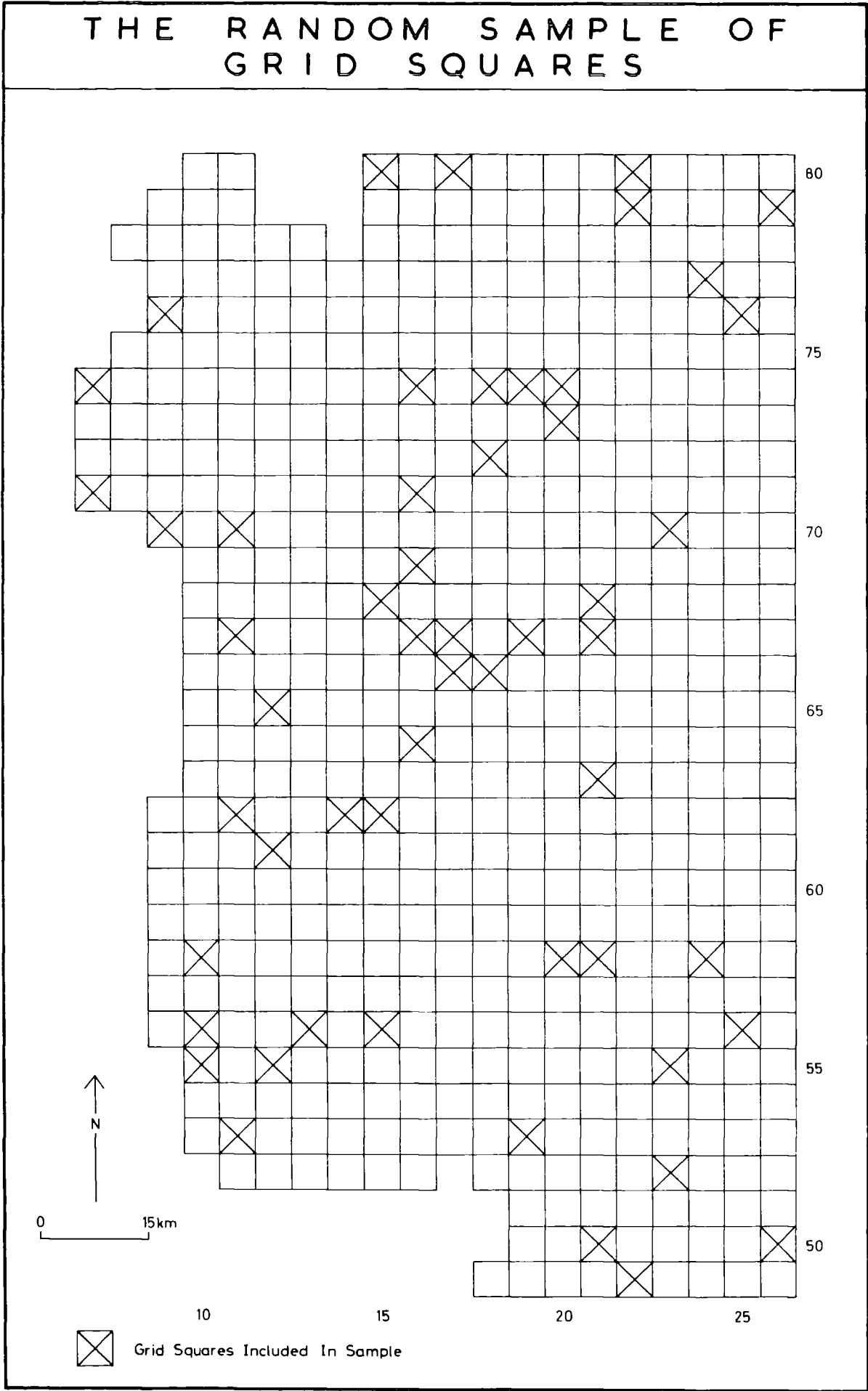


Figure 27

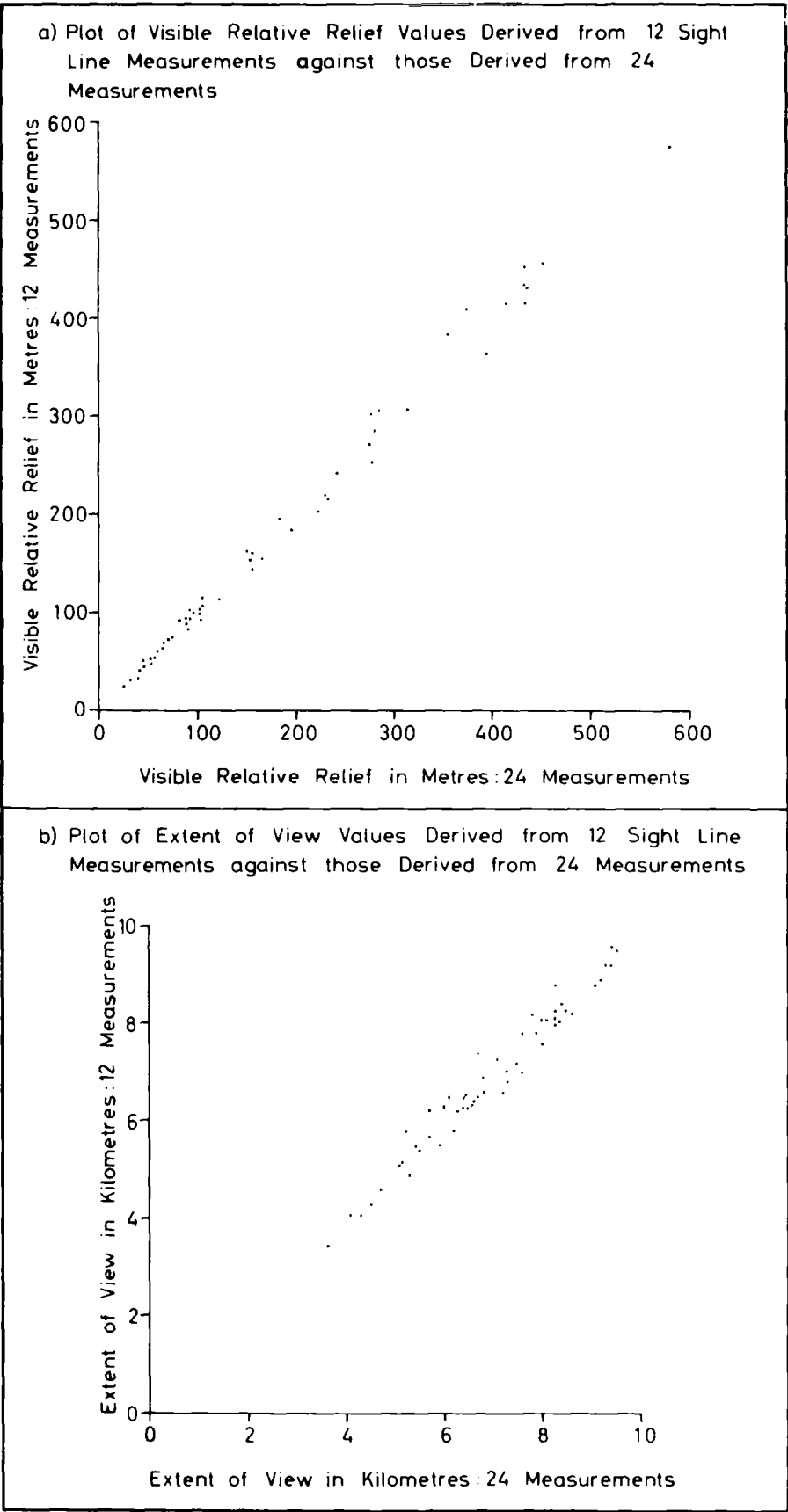


Figure 28

line values were exactly the same as the scores achieved by averaging the values obtained by using 24 sight lines then the plotted points for that square in each of Figures 28a and b would lie midway between the respective sets of axes of the two graphs. Thus, if the results from using only 12, instead of 24, sight line measurements were identical then lines joining the plotted points in Figures 28a and b would extend through the origins at 45 degrees to the horizontal. An inspection of Figures 28a and b shows that the points cluster closely around such lines, indicating that very little loss of precision is introduced in the derivation of scores for both visible relative relief and extent of view by using only 12 sight lines in the measurement of these features. This contrasts with a 50 per cent saving of work and time achieved by adopting this procedure. Accordingly, only the 12 unevenly numbered sight lines on the Vistometer were used for the derivation of scores for the 482 unsampled grid squares, while for the sampled squares the scores obtained by averaging the measurements for 12 sight lines were retained as the final scores achieved by those squares.

It should be noted that at the time of undertaking the measurements for visible relative relief and extent of view, only the old French maps were available to the author. On the great majority of these maps contour lines at 10 m intervals are marked, but on the Qerdaha, Qalaat el Hosn, Safita, Rayane, Joussié, and Hermel sheets contours at only 50 m intervals are shown while on the Tartous sheet the contour interval is 10 m up to 100 m and 50 m above 100 m and on the Massiaf sheet the contour interval is 10 m on gentle slopes and 20 m on steep slopes. Visible relative relief and extent of view measurements taken from all parts of the first six of these eight latter maps and from certain parts of the last two of the eight are no doubt correct only

in order of magnitude. It was not, however, felt that the relative relief and extent of view values obtained for the areas covered by these eight maps were so inaccurate that it was necessary to await the availability of the new series maps covering the same areas and to derive a new set of values using these maps as data sources. In this respect it should be noted that all the new series maps have a contour interval of 10 m¹. Relative relief and extent of view measurements for those areas for which no old series maps were produced were, however, taken from the new series maps, which cover these areas, when these maps became available to the author.

It is also worth noting a number of conventions which were adopted in the measurement of visible relative relief and extent of view. Firstly, those areas within the study area lying outside the grid cover did not receive independent treatment. Instead, these areas were considered together with the study area grid squares to which they were linked according to the system described above. Thus, the highest point in a study area grid square and the Syrian land area associated with it, combined, was found, and this was used as the point from which visible relative relief and extent of view values were measured for the study area grid square.

Secondly, in cases where there were two or more points of equal height in a grid square, and those points were the highest in the square, then that point nearest to the centre of the grid square was used as the observation point.

Thirdly, in grid squares containing completely flat land, the central point of the square was used as the observation point.

¹ Similarly, while the Environs d'Homs sheet, which has a 10 m contour interval, was not readily available at the time values for the south eastern corner of the study area were being obtained, it was felt unnecessary to await its immediate availability and to derive new values from it for that area commonly covered by it and the Rayane sheet. This was again because of the reasonable degree of confidence the author had in the values obtained from the Rayane sheet.

Fourthly, if two or more adjacent squares had a common highest point located on the common edge of those squares, then the values obtained from that point were applied to all squares involved. If, however, one of those squares had a point nearer its centre, of equal height to the point on its edge, then the former point was adopted as the observation point for that square.

Fifthly, if the land surface along a sight line was completely flat then it was assumed that the extent of view along the sight line was 4.8 km, this distance being the approximate extent that a 1.8 m (5 ft 8 ins) high person can see when located on, and looking over, an extensive flat area. At approximately 4.8 km the view will be terminated by the effect of the Earth's curvature.

Finally, it should be noted that in taking relative relief and extent of view measurements for grid squares on the edges of the study area, some Vistometer sight lines extended outside the study area. This meant that in order to take a full set of measurements a map coverage for regions adjacent to the study area was essential. Map coverage (old series maps) was available for the Lebanese and Syrian territory adjacent to the study area but no maps at all were available to the author for the Turkish territory neighbouring the study area to the north west. No readings could thus be taken for Vistometer sight lines which extended from the highest points of grid squares on the edges of the study area into this latter territory. Accordingly, final visible relative relief and extent of view scores for the grid squares concerned were derived by averaging the measurements only for those sight lines which extended over the areas for which map coverage was available.

The data sets for average visible relative relief and for average extent of view, each containing 536 values, were respectively standardized by converting their member values into standard scores and each data set was divided into four classes, a number felt to be appropriate to the needs of the study,

using the median and upper and lower quartiles as class limits, with the stipulation that standard scores which lay on class boundaries were assigned membership of the class with higher values. This method of classifying the values was adopted since an examination of the frequency distributions of the two data sets in neither case revealed a major tendency towards clustering into four 'natural' classes nor any major discontinuities on which to base this number of classes. Two maps were then produced, the first showing the distribution of the study area grid squares according to their membership of the four visible relative relief classes (Figure 29), the second showing their distribution according to their membership of the four extent of view classes (Figure 30).

A clear pattern is evident in the distribution of visible relative relief by magnitude. Squares of 'Very High' and 'High' categories are grouped together in the western half of the study area over the dissected uplands of the Jebel Akra, Jebel Ansarieh, Jebel Helou, and Jebel Wastani, over the Hills of Massiaf, and over the dissected north western parts of the Jebel Zawiyeh. High value squares also cover small areas in the eastern part of the study area around grid squares 25,64 and 26,60 and in the south centre, on the Lebanon range, around grid square 19,49. Note, however, that squares in the Ghab, Rouj, Plain of Acharneh, Bouqaia, and on those parts of the plateaux and other lowlands immediately adjacent to the upland massifs also receive high visible relative relief values. Using most previous techniques of landscape evaluation squares in these flat or gently undulating areas, in spite of the fine views which can be obtained by observers located in them, would have received very low landform landscape values. On the other hand, those parts of the plateau, plain, and upland areas which do not afford the observer views with a high relative relief content, comprising the western areas of the Sahel of Lattakia and of the Plain of Akkar, the northern slopes of the Anti-Lebanon range, the

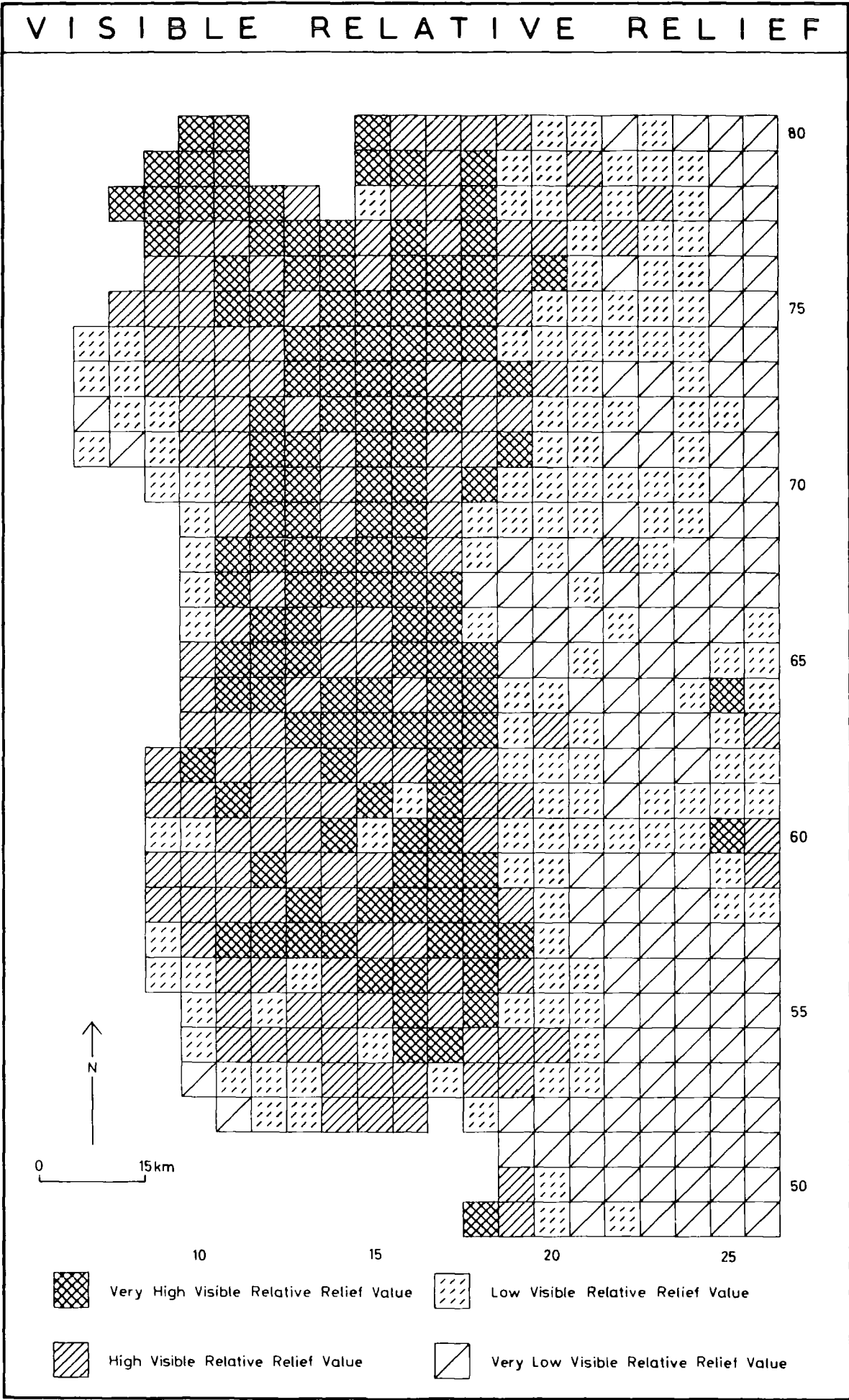


Figure 29

EXTENT OF VIEW

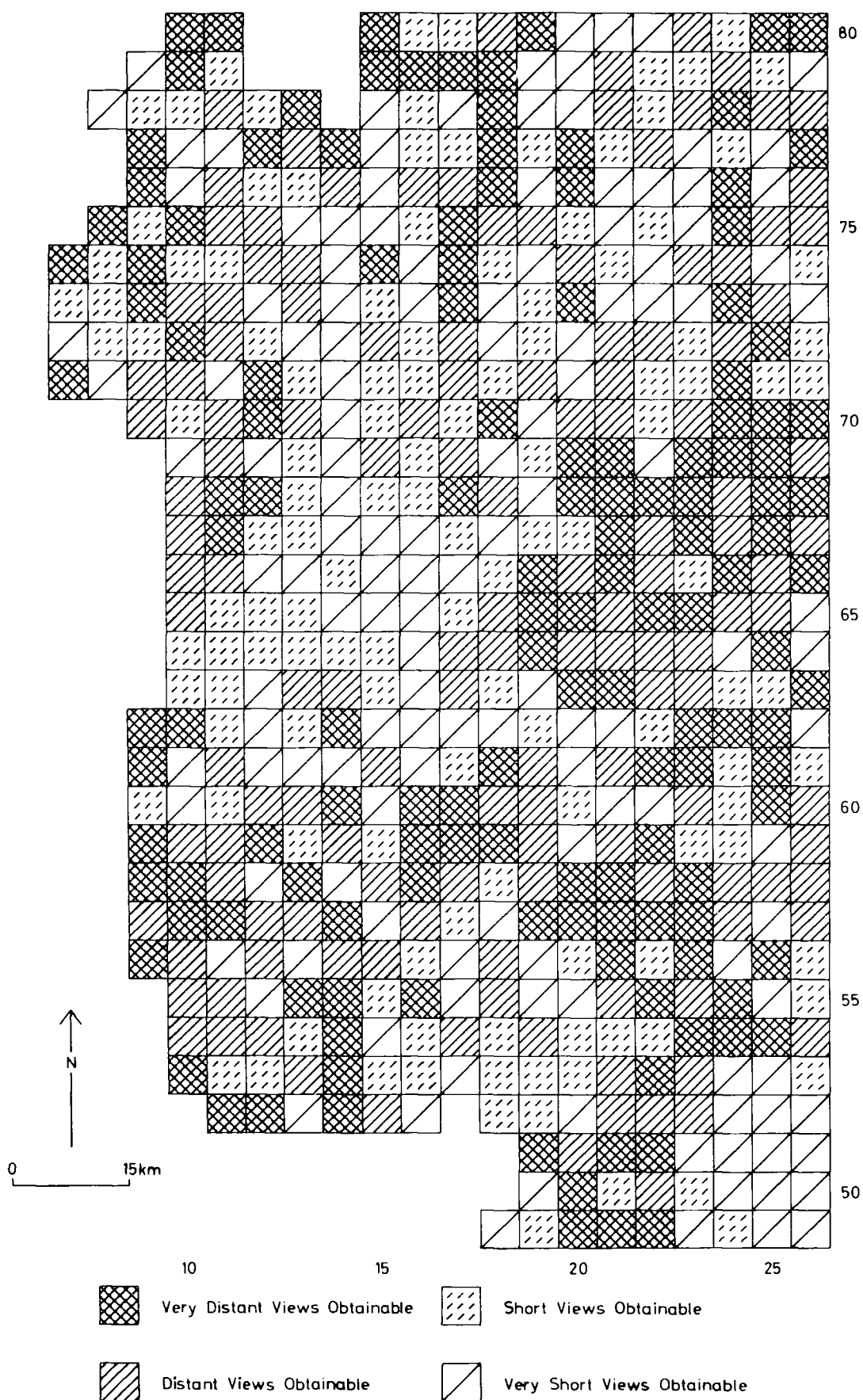


Figure 30

Bekaa, and the mass of the Jebel Zawiyeh, and of the Plateau of Hama are well distinguished on the map from the areas with high visible relative relief values.

By contrast, the distribution of grid squares according to the extent of view obtainable from their highest points is very random. There is some tendency for grid squares with 'High' and 'Very High' values to be located in the east and south east parts of the study area, corresponding to the plateau regions, but this is not marked. Now, it is a matter of common experience that views differ in quality from one part of the study area to another, and that there are broad areas where similar qualities of view can be obtained. The dispersed distribution over the study area of grid squares belonging to the same extent of view class thus leads one to question the validity of the extent of view from the highest point of a grid square as an indicator of the quality of views which can be obtained from the grid square as a whole. It would seem likely that the average extent of view which can be obtained from an observation point in a survey unit is extremely specific to that point and that therefore the extent of view value cannot realistically be applied to the survey unit as a whole. By contrast, the visible relative relief value for a grid square is probably not so specific to the observation point. Accordingly, the extent of view measurements were excluded from any further consideration. No unnecessary work had been undertaken, however, since it was essential in any case to determine the extent of view along the Vistometer sight lines in order to derive the visible relative relief values.

The next step in the method is to evaluate the land use landscape and this proceeds in two stages. Firstly, an inherent land use landscape quality score is derived for each grid square. Each land use type which occurs in the study area is assigned a set score intended to reflect its contribution to landscape quality. Each of these scores is applied to each square metre of the land use type the visual quality of which it represents. The area

in square metres of each land use type in each grid square is measured and the total inherent land use landscape quality score for each square derived by summing the areas, weighted by land use quality scores, of the different land use types. To render subsequent data manipulation easier the total inherent land use quality score for each square is divided by the area of each square expressed in square metres. The resultant scores are termed intermediate inherent land use landscape quality scores. This procedure is for application where detailed land use maps are available. As will be seen, a variant of this method was used in the present study.

Unfortunately, no land use map of the study area exists and inherent land use quality scores had to be derived from information on land use shown on the new series topographical maps, which were available for use in this stage of the resource survey. The following land use types are shown on these maps: forest, oak forest, coniferous forest, citrus groves, olive groves, woodland with high grass, fig trees, vineyards, palm trees, fruit trees, scrub, and rice fields. In addition, built up land and water bodies are shown. Large areas of these maps, however, are left blank but from the distribution of these areas it seems very probable that they comprise, for the most part, land under cultivation and land with a very light cover of scrub¹.

It is worth noting that the vegetation of many of the areas shown as forested on the maps consists of little more than a dense scrub, or 'grand maquis', that cannot be considered as true forest. Nevertheless, forest, oak forest, coniferous forest, citrus groves, olive groves, woodland with

¹ The task of identifying the exact distribution and nature of the land use types in these blank areas on the maps would, of course, have been far too formidable for the author to have undertaken in the field. Similarly, all the other deficiencies, which will be noted, in the available information on current land use could not, for the same reason, have been made good by field work.

high grass, palm trees, fig trees, and fruit trees were grouped, because of their essentially similar visual impact in a view, to form a land use category 'trees'.

By the peak summer tourist season field crops have been harvested in Syria and the fields have been scorched by the fierce sun so that unirrigated cultivated areas almost resemble the desert in appearance. Accordingly, the blank areas on the maps which, as noted above, very probably comprise cultivated land and areas covered with light scrub, were combined with scrub vegetation, which during the peak tourist season looks very similar to the harvested fields and to light scrub, to form a land use category 'scrub'.¹ The major weakness of this procedure is the inclusion of irrigated farmland in this land use category, but unfortunately no information is directly available as to exactly which parts of the blank areas on the maps are under irrigation. Vineyards, not so visually dominant as trees, but more so than harvested fields or scrub, were treated as a separate land use category. Water surfaces and built up areas constituted two further land use categories. A total of five distinct land use types were thus distinguishable on the new series topographical maps.

It was noted above that only the old series maps were available for a region in the extreme north west of the study area. Woods, brushwoods, olive groves, orchards, gardens, vineyards, and rough pasture are distinguished on these maps as well as water surfaces and built up areas, while again some areas are left blank. Five of these land use types do not exactly correspond to any of the land use categories shown on the new series maps and were treated in the following way. Woods, brushwoods, and orchards were included in the

¹ It is recognized that the land use of north west Syria changes radically in appearance with the seasons. It was decided, however, to evaluate the study area's land use landscape as it appears in the dry summer months which are, and will no doubt continue to be, the peak season for foreign tourists in Syria.

category 'trees', rough pasture was included in the category 'scrub', while, in order to preserve consistency in the procedure adopted for assessing land use from the new maps and from the old series maps, gardens, which appear to constitute irrigated farmland, were also included in the category 'scrub'. It is worth bearing in mind that some land use changes may have occurred in this north west region since the French maps were produced but it is certain that none of these changes have been major.

Each 250,000 sq m¹ of each of the five land use types defined was assigned a score as follows:

Water surfaces:	4
Trees:	3
Vineyards:	2
Built up land:	2
Scrub:	0

The scoring of vegetated and cultivated areas was based on the assumption that the more visually dominant the vegetation, the greater is its contribution to landscape quality. This assumption derives from the author's experience of Middle Eastern landscapes which are characterized by their dearth of vegetative cover. Vegetation in the Middle East, because of its comparative rarity, takes on a visual significance which it does not have in, say, Europe, and generally the more visually dominant the vegetation, the greater is its attractiveness. The assumption is, however, supported by the results of the landscape preference tests used as the basis for the Coventry-Solihull-Warwickshire landscape evaluation technique. Apart from this latter method no previous landscape evaluation technique assesses land use on the basis of the visual dominance of different land use types. Built up areas were scored 2 because,

¹ This differs from the ideal procedure, described above, for application where detailed land use maps are available, in which each square metre of each land use type is assigned a score. See next paragraph.

while probably not as attractive to tourists as forests, they are almost certainly more visually attractive than barren scrub land. This is the author's assumption, and has neither been shown to be true by tests of people's landscape preferences, nor been adopted in other landscape evaluation techniques. It has, however, been shown by tests of landscape preferences, such as that used as the basis for the Coventry-Solihull-Warwickshire landscape evaluation technique, that water surfaces are more highly valued in a view than any other land use type. Most landscape evaluation techniques which assess the total landscape by evaluating its component parts, whether based on landscape preference tests, such as the Coventry-Solihull-Warwickshire technique, or not, assign water surfaces higher scores than any other land use type. Indeed, the visual appeal of water to the tourist visiting an area such as north west Syria during the dry summer months, and particularly to the Arab tourist coming as he does from an arid region, is most likely to be even greater than it is to the tourist visiting more humid regions, such as West Europe, in the same season. It is thus clear that water surfaces should be allocated the highest score of any land use type found in the study area.

Because of the limited value of information on land use on the available maps, and notably the absence of information on the exact distribution of cultivated land, it was felt to be unnecessary to measure the areas of the land use types which occurred in each grid square with a high degree of precision. Thus, a 500 m x 500 m grid drawn on transparent plastic film was placed over each 5 km x 5 km grid square in turn and each cell in this grid was assigned a score for one land use type only. If more than one land use category occurred in a 500 m x 500 m cell then the higher value land use type took precedence. Where vineyards and built up land, both worth 2 points,

occurred together in a cell, either alone or with scrub, then the cell was assigned a score of 2. Mixtures of land use categories, such as vineyards interspersed with trees, were scored on the basis of the highest value land use category present, in this example trees. Note that only perennial rivers wider than 10 m, canals wider than 10 m, perennial lakes, and the sea were, for the purpose of scoring, considered to constitute water surfaces since other water bodies are either dry (seasonal rivers and lakes) during the peak tourist season in summer, or too small, regardless of time of year (canals and rivers less than 10 m wide and lakes less than 100 sq m in area), to make a significant contribution to the landscape. Canals and rivers less than 10 m wide are distinguished on the new series maps from those with a greater width while no perennial lake of a size such that it was considered by the author to contribute nothing to a view was shown on the new series maps¹. If different parts of a single water body of the type considered as constituting a water surface for the purpose of scoring appeared in two or more adjacent 500 m x 500 m cells, then each of those cells gained the water surfaces score of 4 even if that part of the body which appeared in any single cell did not satisfy the size requirements for being scored as a water surface. The presence of perennial rivers less than 10 m wide, of canals less than 10 m wide and of lakes less than 100 sq m in area were simply ignored while seasonal water bodies were included in the land use category 'scrub' since dry lake and river bottoms, where they are not devoid of vegetation, usually support a sparse cover of scrub.

¹ Note that Lake Muhardeh is not shown on the new series map covering the area in which it lies and, in the evaluation of the inherent visual quality of land use, the land now covered by this lake was considered to constitute a water surface.

Further, it should be noted that only built up areas of at least $10,000 \text{ m}^2$ were considered as being present for the purpose of assessing land use quality. Smaller built up areas were simply ignored. As with water bodies, where different parts of a single built up area $10,000 \text{ m}^2$ in extent or more appeared in two or more adjacent $500 \text{ m} \times 500 \text{ m}$ cells then the built up area was considered as being present in each of those cells. The other three land use types occur very frequently compared with water bodies and built up areas and it would thus have been extremely tedious and time consuming to ensure that each area of each of these land use types satisfied certain areal conditions before it was considered to be present. Accordingly, all areas of these land use types were considered as present in the assessment of the inherent visual quality of land use. To derive the intermediate inherent land use quality score for a given $5 \text{ km} \times 5 \text{ km}$ grid square, the values achieved by each of the hundred $500 \text{ m} \times 500 \text{ m}$ grid cells were summed and, to render subsequent data manipulation easier, divided by 100. It was thus theoretically possible for a single $5 \text{ km} \times 5 \text{ km}$ square to achieve a maximum intermediate land use landscape score of 4.

It was assumed that all eight squares adjacent to a given square were visible from some point in that square and, accordingly, the final inherent land use quality score for the square was derived by averaging the intermediate land use quality scores for the square itself and its eight neighbouring squares¹. The complete data set of inherent land use quality scores for all the grid squares in the study area was then standardized and divided into four classes, a number again felt to be appropriate to the needs of the study, and the results mapped. The method used to divide the data set

¹ This method of deriving the final inherent land use quality scores should also be employed in applications of the technique where detailed land use maps are available. Note that those areas of Turkish territory covered by the old series maps of Kessab, Ordu, and Jisr ech Chorhour were not surveyed by the French and are left blank on these maps, while no other coverage of either land use or topographical maps for these areas

was identical to, and was adopted for exactly the same reasons as was, that employed to divide each of the data sets for visible relative relief and extent of view into four classes.

The distribution of the study area grid squares according to their membership of the four inherent land use landscape quality classes is shown in Figure 31. The most notable feature is the complete concentration of 'Very High Quality' squares in the western part of the study area over the Jebel Ansarieh, Bassit, and Baer, all heavily forested regions. This area of highest quality squares is surrounded by a zone of 'High Quality' squares which extends over the Kosseir, along the eastern edge of the Jebel Ansarieh and over the Hills of Massiaf and the Jebel Helou, regions which, although themselves mainly forested, afford views of the agricultural lands to their east. An additional major group of 'High Quality' squares, associated with the presence of vast olive groves, is found on the Jebel Zawiyeh. A further group, admittedly small, of 'High Quality' squares is located on the Jebel Wastani around grid square 18,80. 'Low' and 'Very Low' quality squares are located almost exclusively in the eastern part of the study area which comprises lowlands and plateaux and also uplands which, apart from the tree-cropped areas of the Jebel Zawiyeh, carry scrub. However, the squares on the western edges of the Ghab, of the Plain of Acharneh, and of the Plateau of Hama attain higher values since the forested uplands to their west are visible from them. Similarly higher values are obtained by squares on the northern and western edges of the Bouqaia because, while these squares actually contain marsh¹ or cultivated land, adjacent forested uplands are again visible from them.

was available to the author. Accordingly, for the grid squares along the Turkish border, the intermediate land use quality scores for each square and those of its immediately adjacent squares for which a map coverage was available were thus averaged to obtain the final inherent land use quality scores even though this meant that the intermediate scores for less than nine squares were used to obtain the final score for a given square.

¹ Note that marshy areas are left blank on the new series topographical maps.

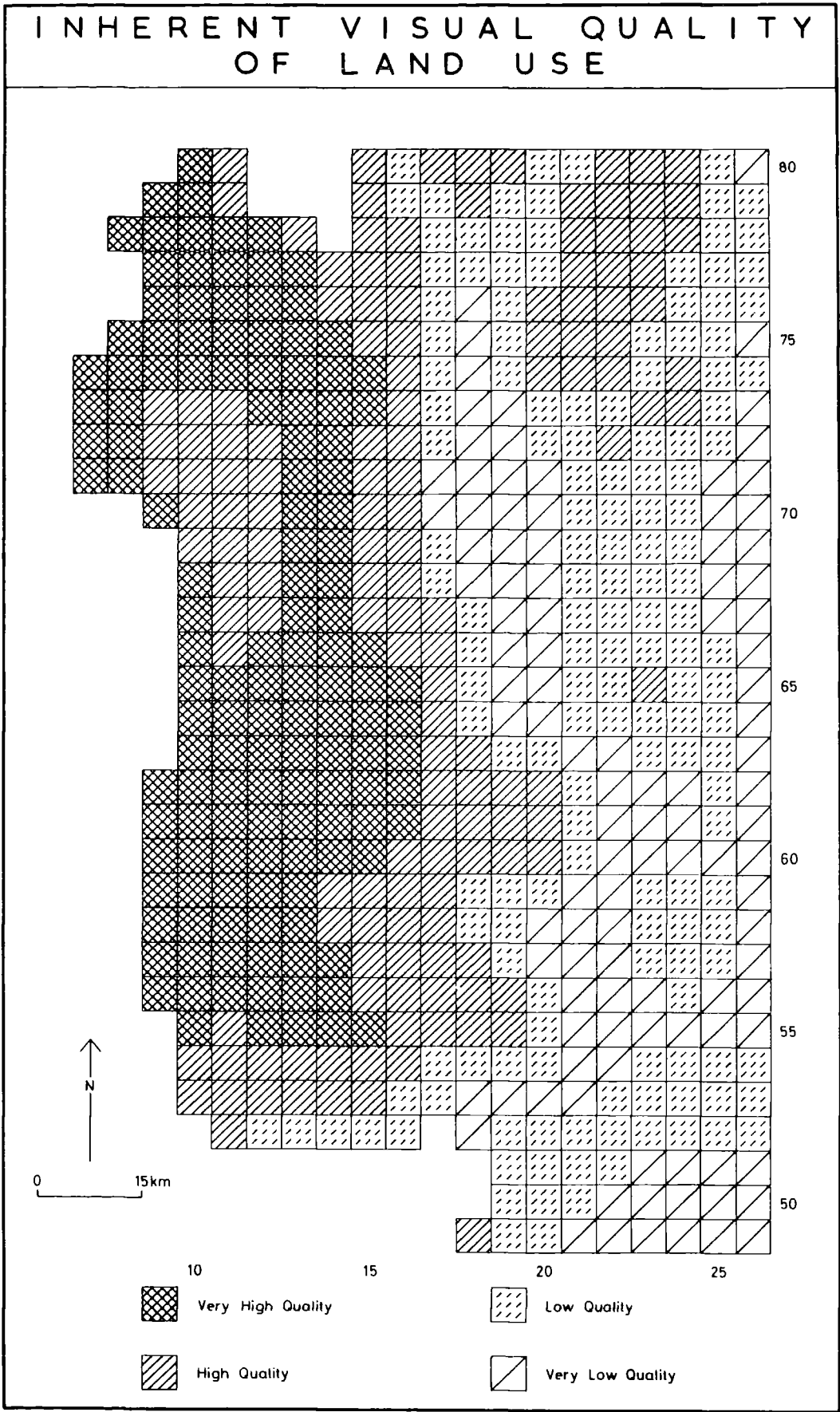


Figure 31

The Plain of Akkar (except in its extreme south) and the Sahel of Lattakia, in spite of their being important regions for field crops, as well as the unforested lower slopes of the uplands which border them, also attain high values for inherent visual quality of land use because the sea to their west and the forested uplands to their north and east are visible from them. The high values attained by the Sahel of Lattakia also reflect the presence, at least in the northern parts of this lowland, of large areas of tree crops.

The second stage in the assessment of the land use landscape involves the derivation for each square of scores for land use diversity. This proceeds in two stages. In the first, the 500 m x 500 m grid, drawn on transparent plastic film, which had been employed in the assessment of the inherent visual quality of land use is placed over each 5 km x 5 km square and the average number of land use types (i.e. of the five types which were distinguished for the purpose of evaluating the inherent visual quality of land use¹) in each cell is determined. These scores, which are known as the first stage intermediate land use diversity scores, each provide a measure of land use diversity over the whole area of a 5 km x 5 km square.²

Again it was assumed that all eight 5 km x 5 km squares adjacent to a given grid square were visible from some point in that square and what was called the final first stage land use diversity score for the square in question was derived by averaging the first stage intermediate land use landscape diversity scores for that square and its eight neighbours. A maximum final first stage diversity score of 5 could thus be attained by a single square.

¹ The same groupings of the land use types shown on the French maps as was employed where these maps were used in the assessment of the inherent visual quality of land use were employed where maps of this series were used in the assessment of land use diversity.

² The average number of land use types occurring, in the case of a given 5 km x 5 km square, in each cell of the grid overlay, rather than the sum of the number of different land use types occurring in each, was adopted as the first stage intermediate land use diversity score for the 5 km x 5 km square in order to render subsequent data manipulation easier.

The second stage in the evaluation of land use diversity involved the determination of the total number of different land use types which occurred in each 5 km x 5 km grid square. Again, the same five land use types were recognized in this stage of the assessment of land use diversity as had been defined for the assessment of the inherent visual quality of land use. The resultant scores, which are known as second stage intermediate land use diversity scores, are thus qualitatively different from the first stage intermediate diversity scores in that each does not reflect the consistency of land use diversity over the whole area within a 5 km x 5 km square¹.

Once more it was assumed that all eight 5 km x 5 km squares adjacent to a given grid square were visible from some point in that square and what was termed the final second stage diversity score for the square in question was obtained by averaging the second stage intermediate scores for the square and its eight neighbours. A maximum final second stage land use landscape diversity score of 5 could thus be achieved by a single square².

¹ Exactly the same methods for deriving first and second stage intermediate and final land use diversity scores are recommended for use where detailed land use maps are available.

² Note that, because no land use or topographical maps of the Turkish territory adjoining the study area were available to the author (see footnote p.397) the first and second stage final land use diversity scores for the study area grid squares along the Turkish border were derived by respectively averaging the first and second stage intermediate diversity scores for each square and those of its immediate neighbours for which map coverage was available, even though this meant that the intermediate scores for less than nine squares were utilized to obtain the final first and second stage diversity scores for each of these frontier squares.

Those squares bordering the study area but located in Turkish territory were not, however, the only ones neighbouring the study area for which intermediate diversity scores could not be obtained. As will be seen, with the exception of a few new series sheets covering certain areas in the northern part of the study area, only the old series maps were available to the author as data sources for the assessment of land use diversity. In view of this, intermediate diversity scores for squares 17-27, 48, 27, 49-53, and 27, 54-59 could not be obtained for use in the derivation of the final diversity scores for their neighbours in the study area since the first two of these sets of squares are located on old series maps on which,

At the time of the investigation of land use diversity only those new series maps covering the Ghab, the Plain of Acharneh and the areas to its east and north east, the Rouj, the northern part of the Jebel Ansarieh, and the areas around Lattakia and Idlib were available to the author. Recourse thus had to be taken to the old series maps for the evaluation of land use diversity in those parts of the study area not specified in the preceding sentence. This, however, presented the author with a number of problems. Firstly, the information on land use provided by the old series maps is obviously dated and there was no way of taking account, in the evaluation of land use diversity, of individually minor, but cumulatively possibly important, changes in land use which will have occurred since the old series maps were published. This was fortunately not the case with major land use changes since these have been, for the most part at least, the result of the Ghab and Rouj projects, and are limited to the Ghab, the Rouj, and the Plain of Acharneh, areas for which, as noted above, a coverage of new series maps was available. On the other hand, Lake Rastan, created as part of the Ghab project, is a major new land use feature in an area for which only old series maps were available. However, in the evaluation of land use diversity, the area of land now covered by this lake was considered to constitute a water body¹.

like the Rayane sheet (see p.403), this being itself one of the maps in which these squares lie, the recording of land use is so poor that the maps were useless as sources of information on land use diversity, while squares 27,54 - 59 lie in an area for which no old series map coverage had been produced (see Figure 23).

¹ In fact, as will be seen, no old series maps were produced covering part of the area now occupied by Lake Rastan. Lake Muhardeh, also a water body of considerable size created recently as part of the Ghab project, is located in the area, for which a new series map coverage was available, to the east of the Plain of Acharneh. This lake is not, however, shown on the new series map on which it should appear and, in the evaluation of land use diversity, the land now covered by the lake was also considered to constitute a water body.

The second problem involved in the use of the old series maps was that on many of them the exact locations of the boundaries between areas of different land use types are exceedingly difficult to determine. Clearly, the recording of land use on the new series maps has been undertaken with much more care than on many of the old series maps.

There were, however, even greater problems than the two noted above. Thus, on three of these maps, Qerdaha, Safita and Qalaat el Hosn, land use is not recorded, while on a fourth, Rayane, the recording of land use is so poor as to render the map useless as a data source for evaluating land use diversity. Meanwhile, no map coverage at all was available for that half of the Rastane sheet and that half of the Mecherfeh sheet not covered by the Rastane-Mecherfeh sheet. These obstacles to the derivation of land use diversity scores for a large number of the study area grid squares were overcome as follows:

- i) That area, for which no map coverage showing land use was available, enclosed by lines joining grid squares 11,54, 11,70, 75,70, 15,59, 19,59, and 19,54 comprises the Jebel Helou and the central and southern parts of the Jebel Ansarieh. The author had had, during the evaluation of the inherent visual quality of land use, which was undertaken prior to the assessment of land use diversity, access to all those new series maps covering the study area which existed at the time this resource survey was undertaken and the relevant maps had shown that land use on all parts of the Jebel Ansarieh and Jebel Helou was very similar. Accordingly, each of the squares in those parts of these upland areas for which no land use data was available was assigned a first and second stage intermediate land use diversity score which equalled, respectively, the average of the 25 first stage and the average of the 25 second stage intermediate diversity scores attained by the squares in the rectangle enclosed by lines joining squares 11,71, 11,75, 15,75 and 15,71, these latter squares being located on the northern part of the Jebel Ansarieh for which a coverage of new series maps was available, as noted above, as a source of information on land use.

- ii) Squares 21,58 and 22,58, which lie in an area for which no old series maps had been published, were each assigned the same first stage and second stage intermediate diversity scores attained by grid square 23,58, for which information on land use was available. This procedure was adopted since all three squares contain parts of Lake Rastan and were known, from the author's perusal of the new series maps to have, in those parts of their areas not covered by the lake, similar land use patterns. In the same way, grid squares 21,57 and 22,57 were each assigned the first and second stage intermediate land use diversity scores attained by grid square 23,57, for which land use information was available, these three squares also containing parts of Lake Rastan and also being known from the author's consultation of the new series maps to have similar land use patterns in those parts of their areas over which the lake does not extend.
- iii) From the author's consultation of the new series maps it was known that the land use patterns in grid squares 20-22,58, 20,54-57, 21,54-56 and 22,54-56, squares for which no information on land use was available, were similar to those in squares 20-23,53, 23,54-56, and 20-23,59, the diversity scores for these squares having been derived using the old series maps as sources of information on land use. Accordingly, each of the former squares was assigned a first and second stage intermediate land use diversity score which equalled, respectively, the average of the first stage and the average of the second stage intermediate diversity scores attained by the latter squares.
- iv) It was known from the author's perusal of the new series maps that the land use patterns in squares 25,49-51 and 26,49-51, squares for which no adequate information on land use was available since they are located on the Rayane sheet, were similar to those in grid squares 24,49-51 and 24-26,52, the intermediate diversity scores for which had been derived

using the old series Environs d'Homs sheet as the source of information on land use. Accordingly, each of the former squares was assigned a first stage and second stage intermediate land use diversity score which, respectively, equalled the average of the first stage and the average of the second stage intermediate diversity scores attained by the six latter squares.

Water bodies and built-up areas were considered to be present for the purpose of scoring land use diversity only where they had been considered as present in the scoring of the inherent visual quality of land use. All areas of the other three land use types were considered as present in the assessment of land use diversity for the same reason that they were so considered in the evaluation of the inherent visual quality of land use.

Finally, it should be noted that where an area of mixed land use, such as an area of vines interspersed with trees, occurred on any of the maps used in this part of the study, each land use type in that area was considered to be present for the purpose of scoring for land use diversity.

A set of 536 first stage and a set of 536 second stage diversity scores were thus derived and the final steps were to convert the values in each data set into standard scores, to sum the two scores for each square, to convert the resultant values themselves into standard scores, and to divide this data set into four classes, this number as before being felt to be appropriate to the needs of the study. The same method of dividing this data set was adopted as was employed in the division of the data sets of visible relative relief, extent of view, and inherent land use quality values. Again this was because an examination of the frequency distribution of the diversity scores revealed no major tendency towards clustering into four 'natural' classes and no major discontinuities on which to base this number of classes. Finally, a map was produced showing the distribution of squares by land use diversity class (Figure 32).

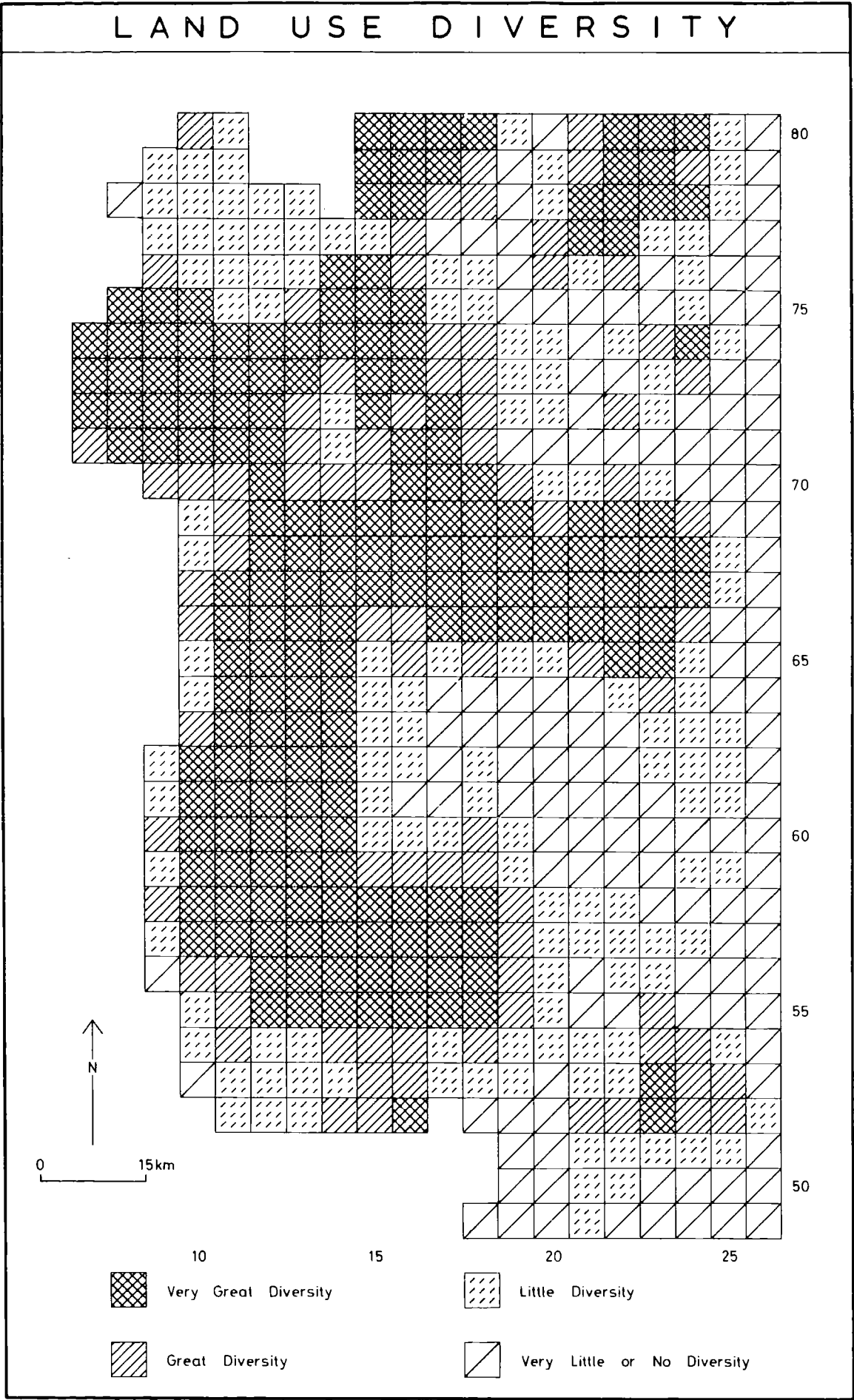


Figure 32

Squares of the two highest diversity categories tend to be concentrated in the western half of the study area, over the Jebel Ansarieh, Jebel Helou, and the northern and central parts of the Sahel of Lattakia. Significant numbers of squares of these categories do, however, occur in the central and eastern parts of the area, firstly, in a cluster centred on grid square 16,79, secondly, along an axis between squares 14,76,15,70 and 23,65, and, finally, in a small cluster between squares 25,53 and 21,52. Squares with 'Little' land use diversity occur in all parts of the study area, generally surrounding concentrations of squares of the two highest diversity categories. A number of minor concentrations of squares with 'Little' land use diversity do, however, occur, for example, that centred on grid square 22,56, but there is only one major cluster of these squares, this extending over the Bassit and Baer. Squares with 'Very Little or No' land use diversity are widely distributed in the areas to the east of the Jebel Ansarieh and Jebel Helou; indeed, only three squares of this category are found to the west of these uplands.

Obviously, however, in view of the way in which diversity scores were assigned to areas for which no information on land use was available and of the use of the old series maps as the main data sources for the assessment of land use diversity, the distributions in Figure 32 must be treated with some circumspection. It is clear, for example, that those squares whose land use diversity scores were derived using the new series maps tend to belong to the two highest diversity categories. This is no doubt a direct reflection both of the greater diversity of land use that exists in the study area in the 1970s than existed in the mandate period, and of the greater precision with which land use is recorded on the new series maps than on many of the old series maps.

In assessing the land use landscape, then, and in contrast to the procedure for evaluating the landform landscape, no view, or series of views, from a specific viewpoint is evaluated. Instead, the viewpoint 'floats' within

the grid square and the maximum possible extent of view only reaches to the edge of the squares adjacent to the square being evaluated. It may be objected that in the real life situation an observer located in a given grid square may experience views which extend well beyond the adjacent grid squares. It is felt, however, that while the visual effect of landform remains important at great distances in a view, the visual effect of land use is limited, because of the effects of atmosphere and distance, to the nearer parts of views. At the more distant parts of a view all land uses tend to appear similar.

The possibility of evaluating the land use landscape in a similar way to the landform landscape, that is, by limiting the assessment only to that which can be seen from a specific viewpoint, was considered. Thus, an inherent land use quality score might be obtained by scoring each land use type on the basis of its respective visible extent along the sight lines of the Vistometer and a land use diversity score could be derived by counting the number of different land use types which occurred within views along the sight lines. This approach was, however, rejected, for to determine for each of 12 sight lines for each square in the study area exactly which parts of the land surface within the view are actually visible to an observer, and which parts consist of 'dead ground', hidden from sight, would involve a phenomenal amount of tedious work.

Standard scores have thus been derived for each grid square for visible relative relief, inherent land use quality, and land use diversity. The next steps in the technique were to divide the inherent land use quality scores and land use diversity scores by two, and add all three scores for each square together in order to obtain a composite landscape quality score for each of the 536 study area grid squares. The scores were thus combined in such a way that those for the land use landscape and those for the landform landscape received equal weighting. Each of these 536 composite landscape quality scores

was then assigned to one of four landscape quality classes, a number once more being felt to be appropriate to the needs of the study. For the same reasons as before, the median and upper and lower quartiles were adopted as class limits and again it was stipulated that values which corresponded to class boundaries belonged to the class with higher values. Finally, a map was produced showing the distribution of the study area grid squares according to their membership of the four landscape quality classes (Figure 33).

It should, however, be borne in mind that because the land use diversity scores, for reasons noted earlier, cannot be regarded as definitive, the distributions in Figure 33 must be approached with a degree of caution. On the other hand, since the relative relief values carry greater weight than either the inherent visual quality of land use scores or the land use diversity scores the impact of the diversity scores on the final landscape quality scores is limited.

'Very High' and 'High' quality squares are concentrated in the western part of the study area on the Sahel of Lattakia, Jebel Ansarieh, Baer, Bassit, Kosseir, Jebel Helou, and Jebel Wastani, as well as in the Ghab, on the plateaux and other lowlands where these approach the upland massifs and on the western edge of the Hills of Massiaf. No 'Very High' quality squares occur in the eastern part of the study area although there is a small cluster of 'High' quality squares over the northern part of the Jebel Zawiyeh. This is the only true cluster of squares of this latter quality in the eastern part of the region. 'Low Quality' squares predominate on the Plain of Akkar but occur much more extensively in the eastern parts of the study area, and particularly in the north eastern parts, the major cluster in these latter areas being centred on grid square 21,68. 'Very Low Quality' squares are, without exception, located in the eastern half of the study area with a particular concentration south of a line joining squares 19,65 and 26,61.

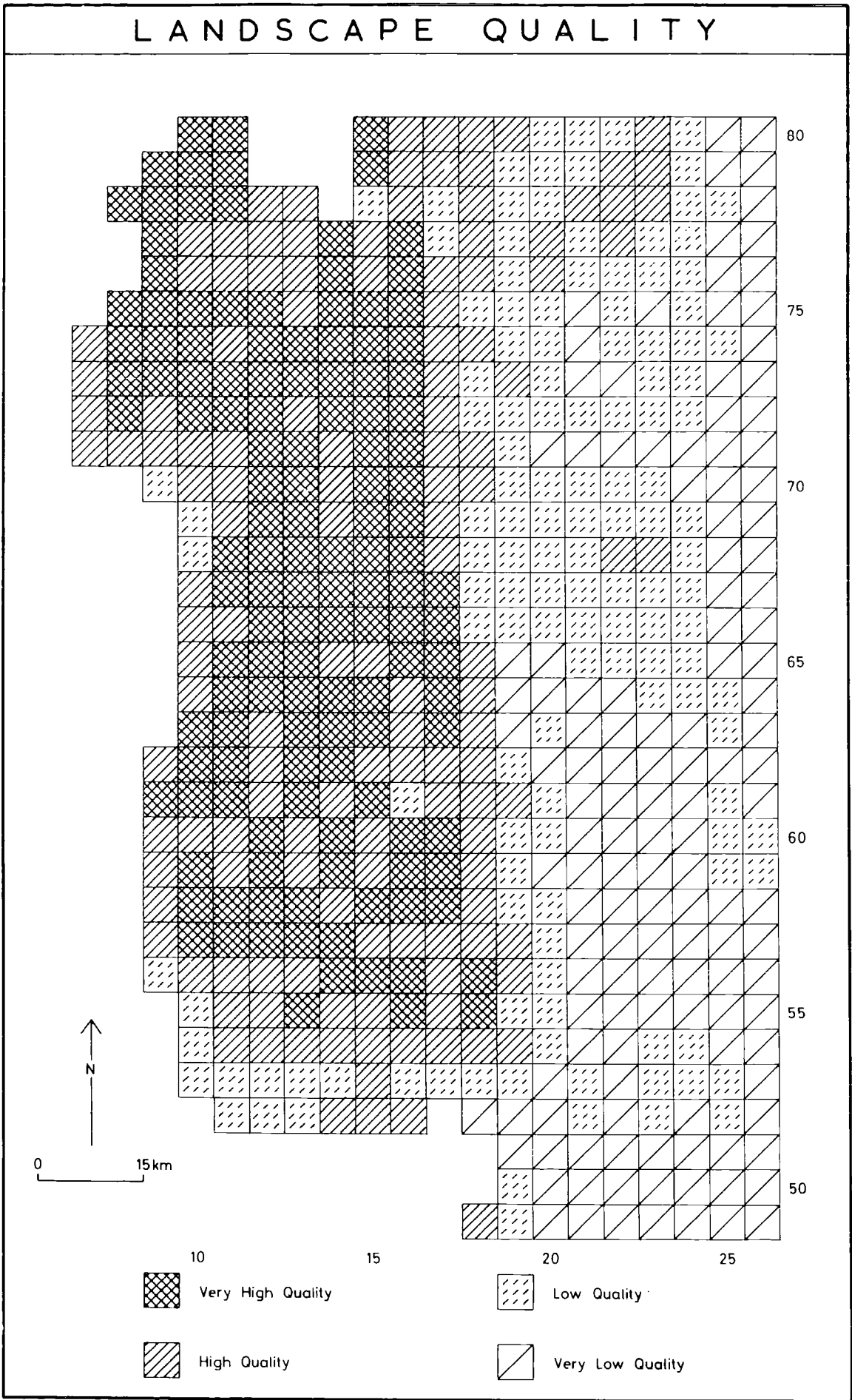


Figure 33

The Vistometric technique of landscape evaluation incorporates a number of assumptions and possible weaknesses and therefore cannot be offered uncritically.

Firstly, in the measurement of visible relative relief the assumption is made that the observer's view is not obstructed by vegetation. This assumption is valid in most parts of the study area, which is on the whole devoid of tall vegetation, but may not be acceptable in more heavily forested regions than that under investigation in this study.

Secondly, in the measurement of visible relative relief a basic assumption is made that the magnitude, for each view, of the average relative relief visible along the 12 Vistometer sight lines is fully representative of that in the total 360° view. This assumption, however, seems reasonable since if, as was shown to be the case, the average visible relative relief value for a view obtained using 12 sight lines is very similar to that obtained using 24 sight lines, then it seems highly probable that the 12-line value will in fact be of the same order as that which would be obtained using an infinite number of sight lines, that is, that it will in fact be fully representative of that for the total view.

Thirdly, the validity of considering only the visible relative relief within a maximum distance of ten kilometres from the viewpoint may be questioned since in the real life situation many views extend further than this distance. It was decided, however, to ignore the landform landscape beyond a distance of ten kilometres in a view as it was the author's experience that in Syria during the late summer when most tourists visit the country ten kilometres was the average maximum distance at which relief features appeared clearly in a view.

Fourthly, the use of the highest point in a grid square as the observation point from which a value for visible relative relief applicable to the whole grid square is measured may be criticized. The highest point

in a grid square was selected on the grounds that it will generally provide views with a greater relative relief content than could be obtained from any other point in the square, and therefore that the visible relative relief values for all squares will be directly comparable. It may not, however, always be the case that such views are in fact obtainable from the highest point in a square.

Fifthly, and related to the previous point, since the landform landscape score for a square is derived by assessing the relative relief visible only from the highest point in that grid square, the relative relief visible from all other points in the square is not taken into consideration in the evaluation of the landform landscape, even though the landscape observer may be located at one of those points. This is, of course, an inevitable circumstance in a technique which is based on the evaluation of that which can actually be seen from a given point. It is not, however, felt to be a serious weakness since, in general, the relative relief visible from all points within a square even as large as 5 km x 5 km is comparatively homogeneous in magnitude and consequently the amount of relative relief visible from the highest point is likely to be comparable to that visible from all other points in the square.

Sixthly, in the derivation of scores for visible relative relief, the visual effect of relative relief near the observer is assumed to be the same as that of relative relief distant from the observer. This may be an invalid assumption. It is possible that relative relief in the more distant parts of a view is of less significance visually than is relative relief in the foreground and middle-ground of a view.

Seventh, it is worth noting that the derivation of visible relative relief values is an extremely tedious and time consuming matter, involving as it does a great deal of trial and error work. In rugged mountain country on the topographical map, for example, the measurement of the magnitude of visible

relative relief along all 12 Vistometer sight lines to obtain a final average score for a grid square often took around one hour. This led the author to wonder whether it might not be possible to obtain a relative relief value for a given grid square which was of the same order of magnitude as that obtained by the determination of average visible relative relief along the 12 Vistometer sight lines by simply placing the centre point of the Vistometer at the centre of the square and finding the average relative relief which occurred along the 12 sight lines, regardless of whether or not this relative relief was actually visible to an observer in the square. If this were, as a result of future research, found to be the case, a vast reduction in the amount of time and work expended in the derivation of relative relief values, compared with that which was expended in the present study, could be achieved in future application of the technique.

Eighth, the inherent land use quality scores assigned to the different land use types are, if not arbitrary, at least somewhat subjective.

Ninth, the method for deriving the land use quality and diversity scores can be criticized for not being strictly 'vistometric' in the sense that it is not based on an assessment of what can actually be seen from a given point within a square. That part of a grid square's final composite landscape quality score contributed by the land use landscape may thus bear little relation to what the landscape user can actually see from his observation point within the grid square. This is not, however, felt to be a serious weakness since a given land use type, or combination of land use types, tends to occur over a relatively large area and therefore the land use quality and diversity scores which the majority of actual views obtainable from within a square would attain if those scores were derived on the basis only of the land uses which could actually be seen will generally not differ over much from the land use quality and diversity scores assigned to the grid square according to the method used in this technique. Further, to evaluate the land use landscape vistometrically would be extremely tedious and time consuming (see p.408).

Tenth, in the assessment of the land use landscape of a given square,

views which extend beyond the edges of the adjacent squares are excluded from consideration. This may be a weakness since in the real life situation views may extend well beyond these edges. This point was discussed above (p.408).

Eleventh, the equal weight given to each of the two land use diversity scores for a square when these are combined to produce the final land use diversity score for the square is arbitrary.

Twelfth, the equal weighting of the landform landscape and land use landscape scores to obtain the composite landscape quality scores is arbitrary.

Thirteenth, it must be questioned whether relative relief, the inherent quality of land use, land use diversity, and the two measures of land use diversity are all independent variables. If any of these measures are inter-dependent then final landscape quality scores will be distorted by double counting.

Fourteenth, and this is the most fundamental question, are relative relief, the inherent visual quality of land use, and land use diversity the most important determinants of the quality of scenery or is it the case that other features should be taken into account?

Finally, and closely related to points eight, eleven, and twelve, the technique urgently needs to be refined by an investigation of the landscape preferences of the relevant landscape user groups. In the case of the present study, these user groups comprise the different types of tourist that Syria can expect to cater for in the future. Many of these groups, however, are spatially widely separated from each other, and from Syria too, and the researcher's most formidable problem would no doubt be to find a method sufficiently economical of time and finance of investigating the landscape preferences of all the groups. Nevertheless, such an investigation, which is unfortunately beyond the scope of the present study, could yield fascinating insights into the respective landscape preferences of different groups. To take only one example, it is quite likely that the preferences of Kuwaitis and Saudi Arabians, who live in largely desert areas, differ from those of West Europeans, and separate scoring systems for the landscape evaluation technique could thus be derived for each group, and separate maps of landscape quality, reflecting the respective preferences of each group, thereby produced.

4. Surfaces Two and Three: Water Bodies

Duffield and Owen's (1970) method of evaluating the capability of water bodies to support recreational activities (see Chapter Three, section 4) was adopted as the basis of the technique used to assess the tourist potential of the water bodies of the study area. This latter method, however, differs in two major respects from Duffield and Owen's technique. Firstly, separate surfaces were constructed for the potential for coastal (i.e. sea-based) activities and for the potential for fresh water-based activities. This was because of the need in a later stage of the study to construct separate surfaces for the study area's potential for different types of tourism, not all these categories of tourism having an activity mix including both coastal and fresh water-based pursuits. Secondly, access was not included in the evaluative criteria used to assess the potential either for coastal or fresh water-based tourist activities since, unlike in Duffield and Owen's study, it was necessary, for reasons which will become self-evident, to construct a separate surface for accessibility and any constraints that access might place on the potential of a water body for aquatic pursuits will emerge from the superimposition of the accessibility surface upon those showing the potential for water based activities.

For the assessment of the study area's potential for fresh water-based activities, then, the following system was adopted. All squares containing perennial water bodies with a minimum length of 1 km, a minimum width of 200 m, and a minimum area of 25 ha were considered to be capable of supporting both freshwater fishing and all other pursuits on fresh water and were designated as squares with 'High Potential' for freshwater activities. All squares containing perennial rivers of at least 10 m width, and reservoirs and perennial lakes over 5 ha in area were considered to be capable of supporting freshwater angling only and were designated as squares with 'Low Potential'

for freshwater activities. All squares not satisfying either of these sets of criteria were designated as having 'No Potential' for freshwater activities. It is assumed that all squares falling into the first two of these three categories will also be suitable for active and passive lakeside and riverside tourist activities.

The assumption is thus made in the case of all activities except fishing that since these pursuits make broadly similar demands on water bodies, only one set of criteria need be used to assess the capability of water bodies to support them. For a further discussion of this point see Chapter Three, section 4. Note that if a single water body of either minimum area 5 ha or 25 ha fell into two or more 5 km x 5 km grid squares then both or all squares in which the water body appeared were considered capable of supporting fishing, and fishing and other water-based pursuits, respectively, in spite of the fact that the actual area of water in one or more of the squares might be less than 5 ha or 25 ha. Note also that the assessment of the potential of squares in the north west part of the study area to support freshwater activities may not be completely accurate since only the old French 1:50,000 maps were available for this area and any man-made water bodies in this region which were created after the publication of these maps have therefore escaped attention. It is, however, certain that no extensive water bodies have been created in this area since the old series maps were published. The new series maps were used in the assessment of the potential of the squares in all the other parts of the study area to support freshwater activities.

The distribution of the study area grid squares according to their potential for supporting fresh water-based activities is shown in Figure 34. Only 23 squares belong to the category 'High Potential', the great majority of these being located over the study area's three large lakes of Homs, Rastan,

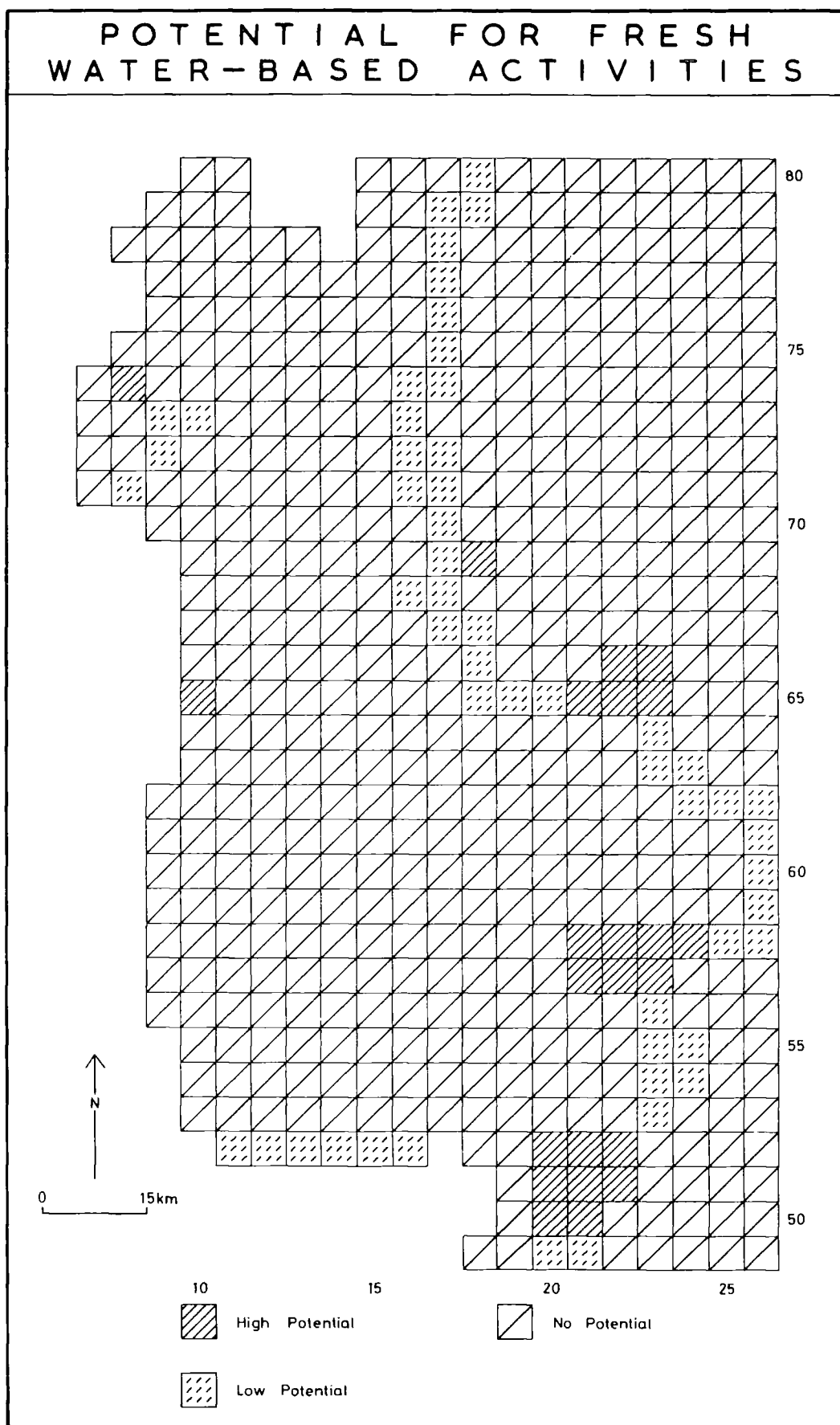


Figure 34

and Muhardeh. 'Low Potential' squares, numbering 53 altogether, occur the length of the Orontes river, and along the perennial sections of the two Nahrs al Kebir. The great majority, 460 out of 536, of the study area's grid squares, however, fall into the category 'No Potential'.

The assessment of the study area's potential for sea-based, or coastal, activities proceeded as follows. All squares with a section of coast and a sandy beach were considered capable of supporting both on-water and beach-orientated coastal activities and were designated as squares of 'High Potential' for coastal activities. All squares with a section of coastline, but no sandy beach, were considered capable of supporting on-water pursuits only, and were designated as squares of 'Low Potential' for coastal activities. All inland squares were designated as squares with 'No Potential' for coastal activities. The distribution of the study area grid squares according to their membership of these three categories is shown in Figure 35. Of the 30 coastal squares no less than 26 have a 'High Potential' for coastal activities. Figures 15a and b constituted the data sources for the evaluation of the study area's potential for coastal activities.

5. Surface Four: Climate

Reference to Table 83 indicates that climate plays an important role in all three types of resource-based tourism which Syria can expect to cater for in the future. Thus, seaside resort tourism and touring both require hot, but not too hot, weather, estivage tourism requires a cool, comfortable, climate while all three types require abundant sunshine and an absence of rain. From the description of the climate of the study area in Chapter Four it is evident that sunny, dry, weather prevails in all parts of the region during the summer, which will no doubt continue to be the major tourist season in Syria, and two of the specified requirements for all three types of tourism are thus met.

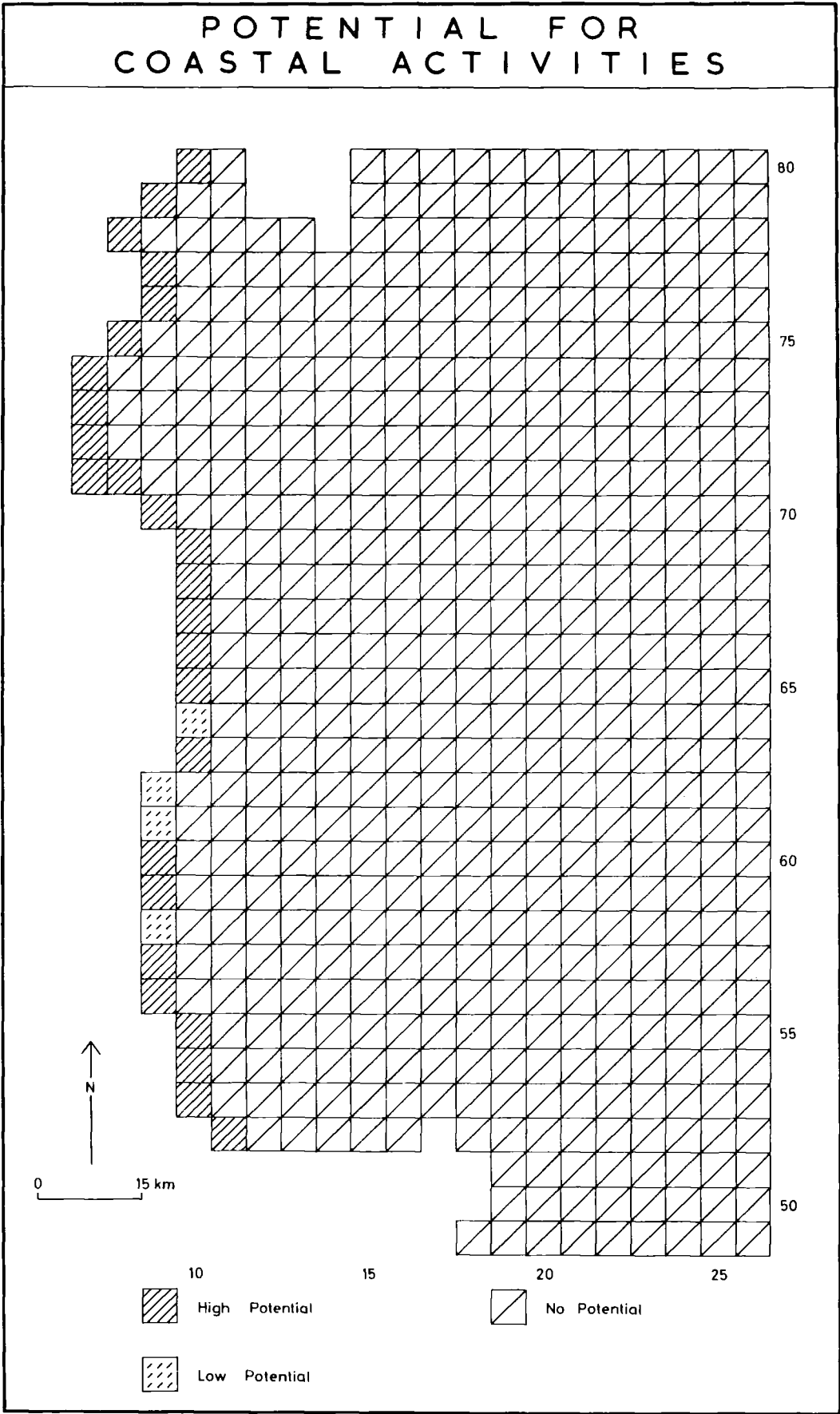


Figure 35

To state that there is abundant sunshine and no rain, however, says very little about the attractiveness of the study area's climate in terms of human comfort. To determine this, mean values of the Discomfort Index¹ for the June-September period were computed for each of the 27 weather stations in the study area, using as input data the mean temperature in degrees Fahrenheit and the mean relative humidity for the months June-September, the period corresponding to the peak summer tourist season. These average figures are meaningful since temperature and relative humidity conditions in all parts of the study area are relatively stable during this period. The temperature, relative humidity, and Discomfort Index data for each station, as well as the altitude of the stations, are shown in Table 103. It is recognized that Terjung's (1966) measures of climatic comfort (see p.272) are more reliable than those produced by the Discomfort Index formula, but this latter index was employed in this study because of the ease with which values of it can be computed. Terjung, in any case, considered that temperature and relative humidity were the two most important elements involved in his method.

An examination of the Discomfort Index values in Table 103 reveals that, although the lowlands and plateaux tend to attain rather high Discomfort Index values, indicating slightly uncomfortable conditions, no part of the study area experiences a climate in summer that is completely unsuitable, in terms of human comfort, for seaside resort tourism and touring. There is thus no need to attempt any definition of zones climatically suitable for these two types of tourism. By contrast, the cool, comfortable, conditions required by estivage tourism are not present in all parts of the region during summer. The task, then, was to identify those areas in which such conditions

¹ The Discomfort Index was described in Chapter Three, section 5.

Table 103 Climatic Data for the Weather Stations in the Study Area^a.

Weather Station	Altitude in Metres	Mean Temperature June-September		Mean Relative Humidity June-September	Mean Discomfort Index Value June-September
		°C	°F		
Kassab	730	21.7	71.1	67.0	68.7
Mina al Beida	8	25.5	78.0	71.8	74.9
As Sinn	40	25.7	78.2	71.5	75.8
Tartous	15	25.5	77.9	72.5	74.9
Qastal Ma'af	657	22.9	73.1	75.0	71.0
Slenfeh	1,100	19.2	66.6	66.0	65.0
Jawbet Bourghal	950	20.8	69.4	65.3	67.2
Qadmous	750	20.8	69.4	65.5	67.3
Sheikh Badr	550	23.3	73.9	69.0	71.2
Safita	350	24.3	75.7	69.8	72.8
Arida	240	24.8	76.6	65.8	73.1
Jisr ash Shughour	200	27.5	81.4	47.8	74.7
Al Karim	170	26.6	79.9	46.3	73.4
Qal'at al Mudiq	250	26.5	79.6	48.3	73.4
Hawret Amoureen	175	26.8	80.2	44.3	73.7
Massiaf	530	25.1	77.1	48.5	71.7
Ma'aret an Nu'aman	496	26.7	80.0	37.8	72.5
Hama	307	27.1	80.7	41.3	73.3
Rastan	300	26.1	78.9	46.3	72.7
Homs	487	24.5	76.0	58.5	71.9
Qattineh	500	23.2	73.7	70.5	71.2
Qosseir	525	22.9	73.2	62.3	70.0
Idlib	446	26.2	79.1	49.3	73.2
Joureen	500	28.1	82.5	41.5	74.7
Bouka	50	25.7	78.3	72.3	75.2
Ain al Kroum	550	27.7	81.9	42.8	74.4
Hmaimeem	45	25.3	77.5	71.5	74.5

^a For the locations of the stations see Figure 36.

Source: Ministry of Defence, n.d., supplemented by Syrian Ministry of Defence, Meteorological Department, figures.

THE STUDY AREA: LOCATION OF WEATHER STATIONS

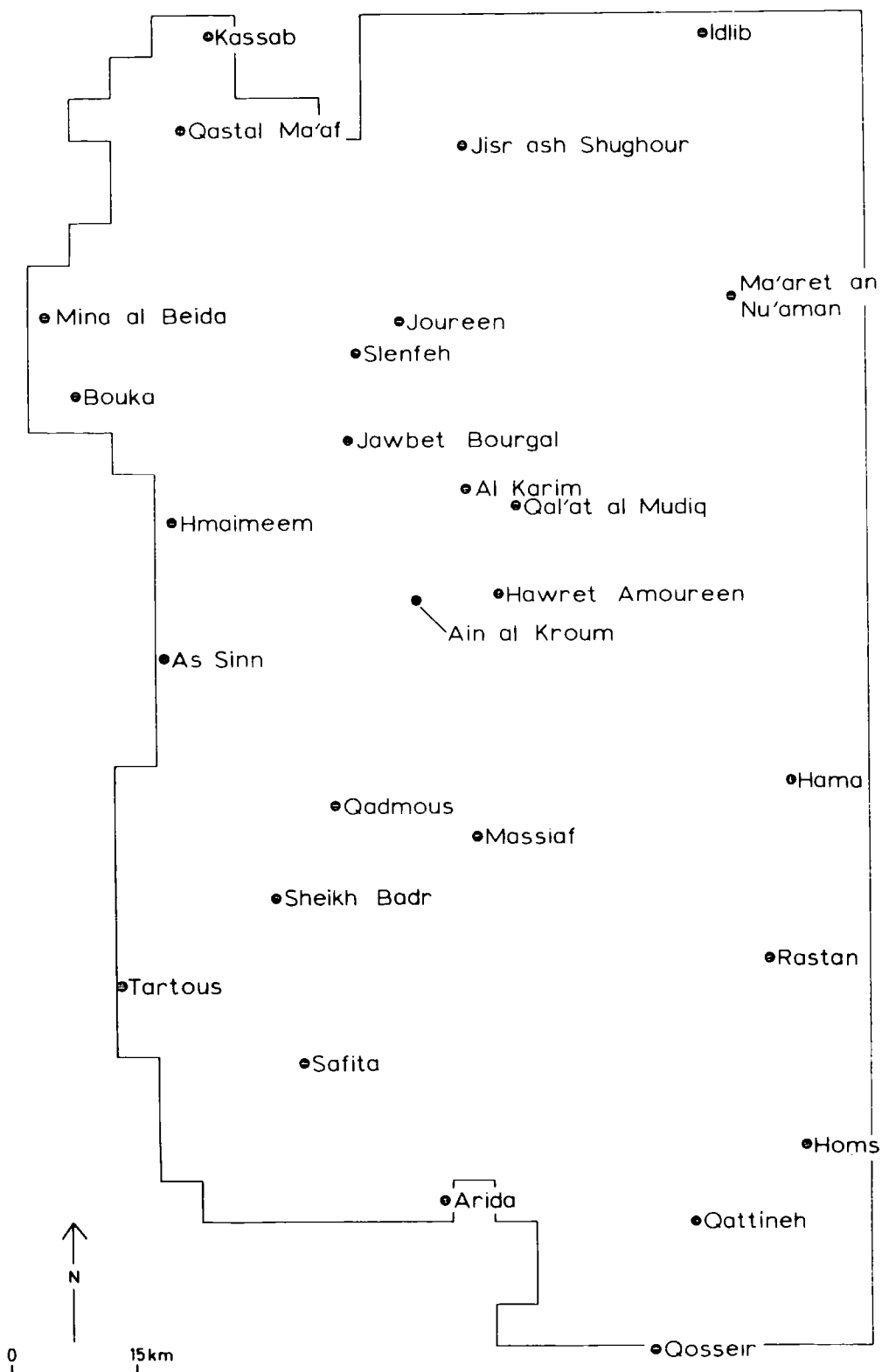


Figure 36

do occur.

To accomplish this task, an effective method had to be devised for finding the Discomfort Index value for each grid square. Now, the form of the equation for deriving values of the Discomfort Index is such that temperature is the major determinant of the Discomfort Index value and an inspection of the temperature data for all the weather stations in the study area revealed that mean temperatures during summer vary significantly with altitude. It follows that Discomfort Index values should also vary significantly with altitude. Indeed, an r of -0.9 was computed between the 27 Discomfort Index values and the altitudes of the 27 weather stations. It was therefore concluded that altitude could be used as a surrogate for Discomfort Index values, and a simple regression of Discomfort Index values on altitude, using data for the 27 weather stations, was performed to discover the exact nature of the relationship between the two variables. This produced the equation:

$$y = 76.4 - 0.01x$$

where y is the Discomfort Index value

and x is the altitude in metres.

Thus, the Discomfort Index values decrease by 1 with every 100 m increase of altitude.

Recall from Chapter Three, section 5 that below a Discomfort Index value of 70 no discomfort is felt. It can be calculated from the regression equation that a Discomfort Index value of 70 occurs at an altitude of 640 m. All grid squares below 650 m (used instead of 640 m for convenience) will thus, on average, be unsuitable for estivage tourism during the June-September period. Squares located in the altitude range 650 - 950 m will, on average, have Discomfort Index values of 70 - 67 and may be considered as suitable for estivage tourism. Squares in the range 950 - 1,250 m will, on average, have Discomfort Index values of 67 - 64 and may be described as moderately suitable

for estivage tourism. Finally, squares located at 1,250 m and above will on average, experience Discomfort Index values of 64 and below and may be described as highly suitable for estivage tourism.

To determine to which of these four categories of suitability a given grid square belonged, it was necessary simply to measure the prevailing altitude of the land within the square. This was done in the following manner. The 500 m x 500 m grid drawn on transparent plastic film which had been used in the evaluation of the study area's land use landscape, was placed over each grid square and the number of 500 m x 500 m cells belonging to each altitudinal zone described in the previous paragraph was counted.¹ For convenience, if two altitudinal zones appeared in the same grid cell then that cell was considered to belong to the higher zone. The 5 km x 5 km grid square was assigned to whichever altitude zone the greatest number of 500 m x 500 m grid cells in the square belonged. In cases where 50 of the hundred 500 m x 500 m cells belonged to one zone and 50 to another, then the 5 km x 5 km square was assigned to the higher zone. The distribution of the study area grid squares according to their climatic suitability for estivage tourism was then mapped (Figure 37).

This distribution, of course, closely follows the pattern of relief in the study area. Thus, the eight squares in the category 'Very Suitable' and the 20 squares in the category 'Moderately Suitable' occur in a north-south belt along the highest parts of the Jebel Ansarieh. 63 squares belong to the category 'Suitable'. The majority of these are located on the Jebel Ansarieh and Jebel Helou while notable concentrations also occur on the Jebel Zawiyeh and on the northern slopes of the Anti-Lebanon range south east of Homs. Three additional squares of this category are located in the extreme

¹ Note that the old series maps were used in this part of the study.

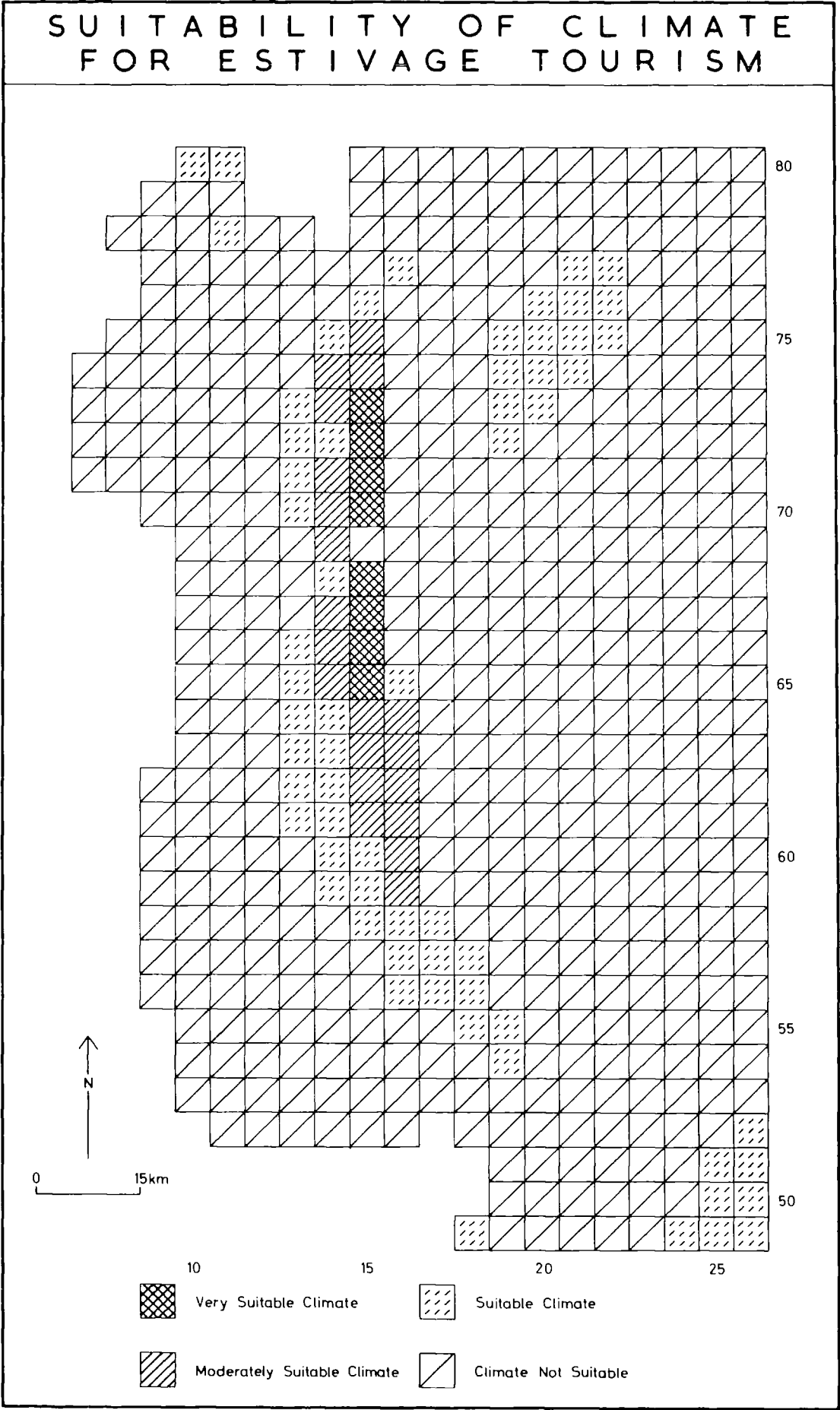


Figure 37

north west of the study area on the Bassit while a single square of the same category is located in the extreme south centre of the study area on the flanks of the Lebanon range. Clearly, however, the great majority of the study area grid squares are not capable of supporting estivage tourism.

6. Surface Five: Historic Sites

The study area is exceptionally well endowed with historic sites of all ages. These include the ruins of the Phoenecian city of Ugarit (grid square 7,73), of Amrit, a town pre-dating Alexander the Great (grid square 9,56); and of the Graeco-Roman city of Apamea (grid square 18,69). Numerous impressive castles scatter the study area of which the magnificent Krak des Chevaliers (grid square 16,54) and the castle of Sahyoun (grid square 12,73), both dating from the time of the Crusades, the Arab castles of Shaizar (grid square 21,65) and Marqab (grid square 10,63), and the Ismaili castles of Maniqa (grid square 13,65), Kahf (grid square 12,60), and Ollaiqa (grid square 13,63) are only the most notable. In addition, there are ancient monasteries, churches, mosques, khans, and massive water wheels, or 'norias' (described in Chapter Four, section 8), these latter along the Orontes near Hama, as well as a great number of less spectacular monuments of all descriptions. The towns and cities of the region, most of which have been inhabited for many centuries, contain particularly large concentrations of historic sites. Boulanger (1966), in the sections on Syria in his guide book to the Middle East, which constitute the only comprehensive guide to Syria's historic sites, mentions no less than 138 separate historic sites located in the study area¹.

¹ Not all of these sites, however, are of strictly historic interest and buildings or monuments are not actually found at all of them. See next paragraph.

The method adopted to assess the attractiveness of the study area's historic sites stems directly from Hunt's (1969) technique for evaluating the tourist value of settlements and involved the derivation of a historic interest score for each study area site by counting the number of lines of writing about each of these in Boulanger's (1966) guide book. The advantages of this extension of Hunt's technique over the subjective grading of historic sites, the only alternative method available for the evaluation of these resources, will be evident from the review of Hunt's technique given in Chapter Three, section 6. It should be noted, however, that, while Boulanger's book contains information almost exclusively of a strictly historic nature, it also devotes limited attention to some cultural features of settlements, such as sugs (markets) and distinctive village architecture, which would interest tourists. For convenience, since the references to these non-historic elements are generally intermingled in the guide book with the strictly historical information, the number of lines written about a place, provided the place was either of historic or cultural interest, or both, rather than only the number of lines written about its strictly historical aspects, were counted. Thus, although the present study is overwhelmingly concerned with historic sites, as such, it also incorporates an evaluation of some of the cultural aspects of settlements, aspects which would interest most tourists. Note also that at a number of the locations mentioned in the guide book no actual buildings or monuments exist and the written description is purely about the historic associations of these places. These locations were nevertheless assessed for their tourist interest in the same way as were sites with actual edifices.

Having scored the historic sites of the study area, the next step was to assign the historic interest scores to the grid squares in which the sites

were located¹. Where two or more sites occurred in a single square their scores were simply aggregated. The possibly questionable assumption is therefore made that separate groups of historic sites containing different numbers of individual attractions are of equal interest to tourists, provided that the respective total historic interest scores attained by the groups are equal. A single very impressive site can thus theoretically be of equal attractiveness to tourists as a group of, say, five less spectacular sites. In our present state of knowledge, however, this assumption is unavoidable.

Each square containing at least one historic site was then assigned, on the basis of its total historic interest score, to one of three historic interest categories, designated 'Great Historic Interest', 'Moderate Historic Interest', and 'Little Historic Interest', this number of categories being felt to be appropriate to the needs of the study. The tertiles of the data set of historic interest scores for all squares containing at least one historic site were adopted as class boundaries while it was specified that scores on class boundaries belonged to the class with higher values. This method of classifying the historic interest scores achieved by the grid squares was adopted for the same reasons that quartiles and medians were chosen to delineate classes in the construction of the surfaces created in section 3 of this chapter, although in this case three, and not four, classes were involved. Squares with no historic sites were assigned to a fourth category designated 'No Historic Sites'. Finally, the distribution of the study area grid squares according to their membership of the four historic interest categories was mapped (Figure 38).

¹ Note that the new series maps, together with those old series maps covering the extreme north west of the study area were employed, in combination with Boulanger's guide book, to establish in which grid square each historic site was located. Only three historic sites mentioned in the guide book could not be located precisely on the maps but all of these sites had extremely low historic interest scores.

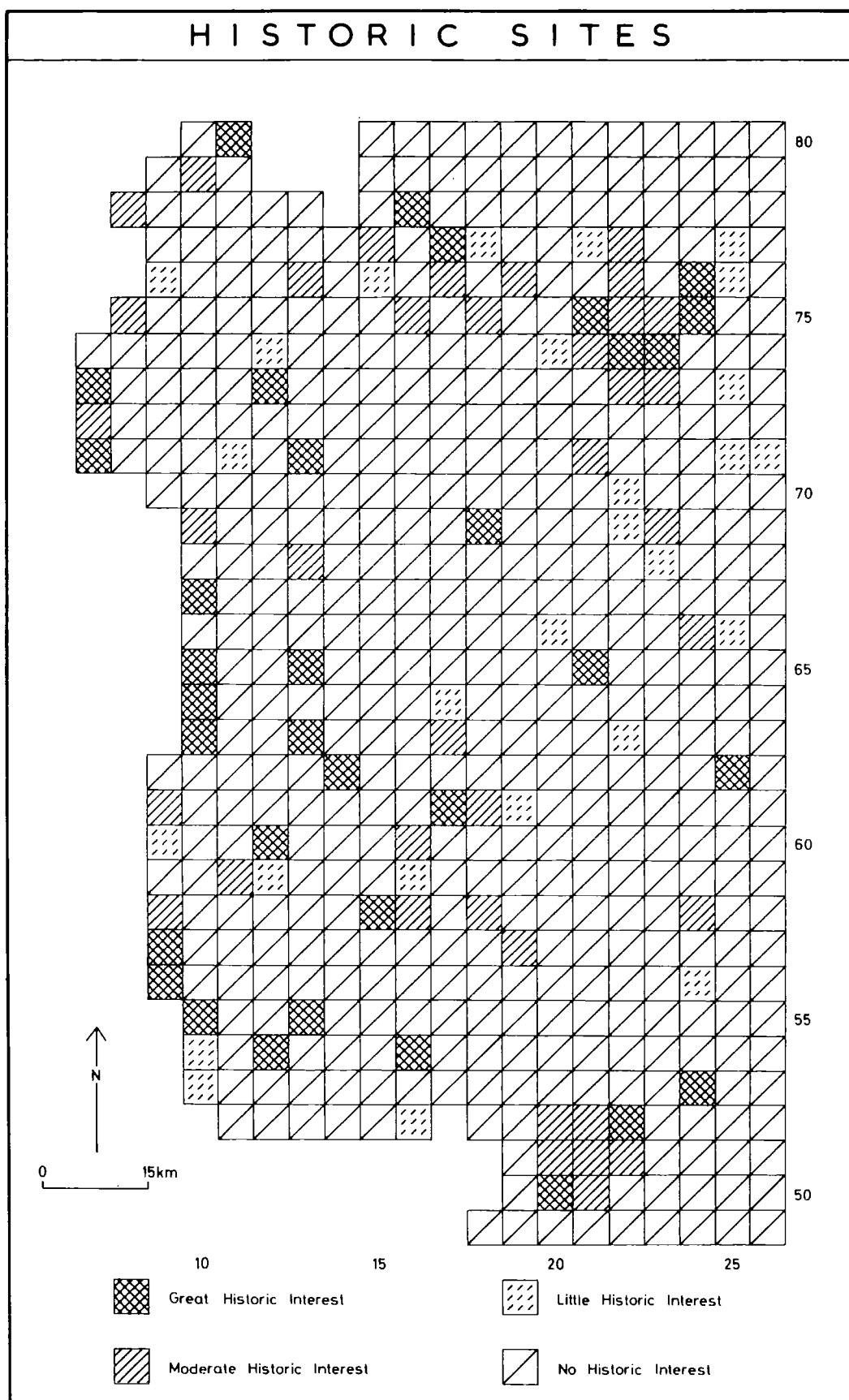


Figure 38

Of the 536 study area grid squares, a total of 99 contain at least one historic site but an inspection of Figure 38 reveals that, while there is some tendency for squares of categories 'Great' and 'Moderate' to concentrate along the coast and along an axis between squares 15,77 and 24,75, the distribution of the grid squares by historic interest category shows no clear pattern¹.

7. Surface Six: Accessibility

None of the measures of accessibility which were reviewed in Chapter Three, section 4 was considered appropriate for use in the present study since measures of accessibility as a separate factor, rather than measures of the type employed by Duffield and Owen (1970), and which were more precise than Blacksell's (1971) measures, and were applicable, unlike the Alpha Index (Countryside Commission, 1971), in an area without a very dense road network were required. Finally, measures of accessibility by road were required which, unlike those used in the Coventry-Solihull-Warwickshire study (1971b), expressed accessibility by road rather than inaccessibility by road. Accordingly, the following straightforward technique was adopted for the assessment of accessibility in the study area. The length of surfaced road in each grid square was measured, using a map measure, and each square containing a length of road was assigned, on the basis of the length of that stretch of road, to one of three accessibility categories designated 'Highly Accessible', 'Moderately Accessible', and 'Slightly Accessible', this number of categories again being considered to be appropriate to the needs of the study. The

¹ The concentration of squares of 'Great' and 'Moderate' historic interest in the Lake Homs area is mainly the result of the lake itself attaining a relatively high historic interest score, and of the lake's large extent. The several squares containing parts of the lake all received the same high score for its presence.

limits of these classes were defined in exactly the same way as were those of the three historic interest categories in the previous surface since again an examination of the frequency distribution of the road length values revealed no major tendency towards clustering into three 'natural' classes and no major discontinuities on which to base this number of classes. All squares containing no surfaced road were assigned to a fourth category designated 'Inaccessible'. A road map at a scale of 1:50,000 and dated 1971, which was provided by the Syrian Ministry of Communications, was used as the data source for the assessment of accessibility in the north west part of the study area for which no new series maps at scales of either 1:50,000 or 1:25,000 were available, while the new series maps were used as data sources for the evaluation of accessibility in all other parts of the study area. Railways were not considered in the analysis of accessibility since the vast majority of future tourists to the region will most likely travel by road.

The distribution of the study area grid squares according to their membership of the four accessibility categories is shown in Figure 39. 'Highly Accessible' and 'Moderately Accessible' squares are found throughout the study area although there is some tendency towards their concentration firstly, in a broad crescent bounded on the west by the coast and on the east approximately by a line joining grid squares 26,55, 17,59, and 12,78, secondly, along a curved axis running parallel to the eastern edge of the first area between grid squares 26,62, 18,67, and 17,80, and, thirdly, in the north east of the study area, east of a line joining grid squares 23,80, 20,75, and 26,70. It follows that the 'Slightly Accessible' and 'Inaccessible' squares are mainly located in the regions between these concentrations. 126 squares, about one quarter of the study area's total, belong to the 'Inaccessible' category. This is a remarkably small proportion when it is considered that the study area is part of a Third World country.

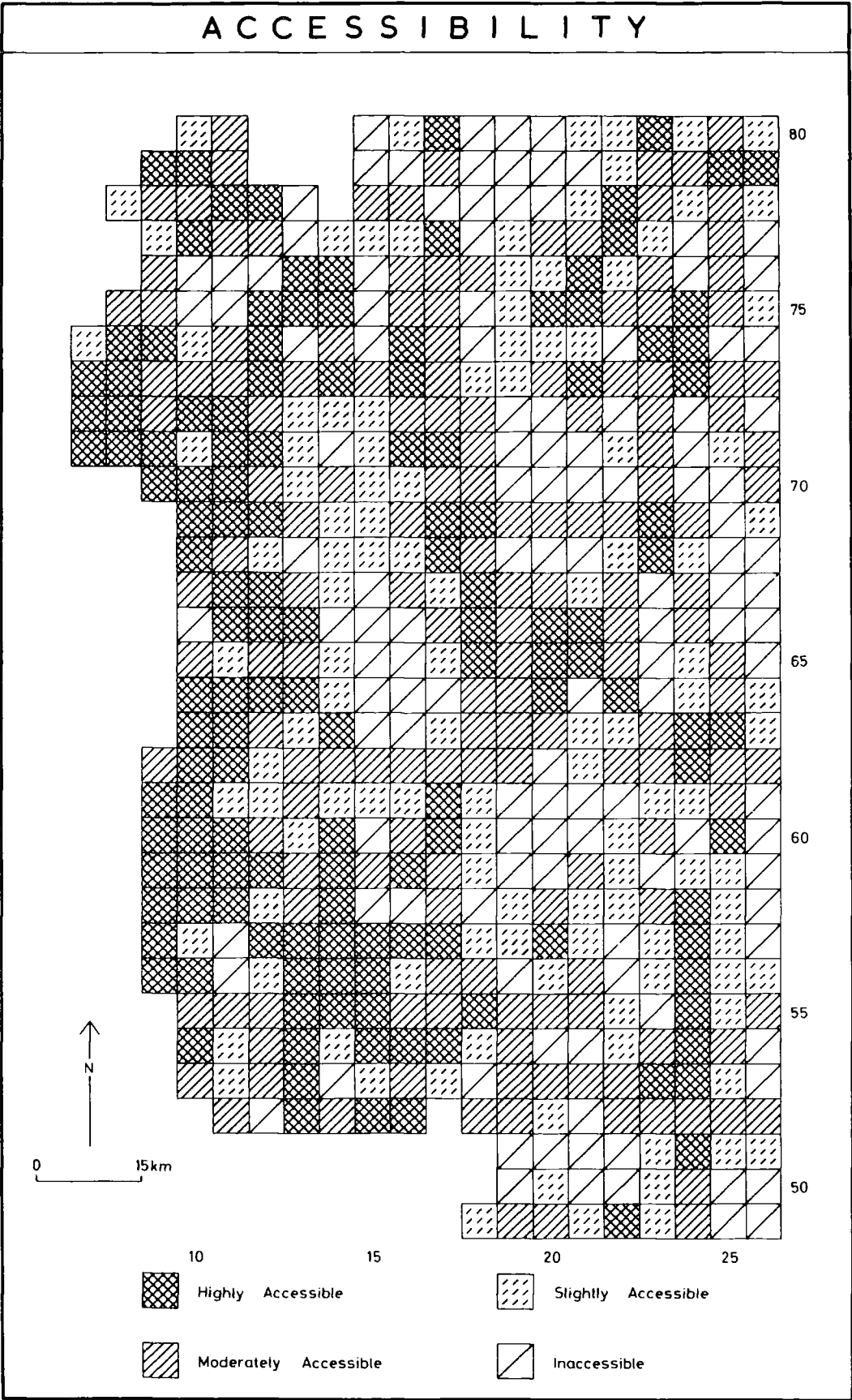


Figure 39

8. Conclusion to the Tourist Resources of North West Syria

The Spatial distribution by quality of each of the tourist resources of north west Syria has thus been analyzed by the construction of six factor surfaces, one of these, for landscape quality, itself being a composite of four separate surfaces. It is now possible to superimpose these various surfaces in various combinations to assess the potential of different parts of the study area to support each of the three types of tourism with which this study is concerned. The resultant implications for the location of tourist facilities and attractions and, in turn, the implications of this for the socio-economic development of the study area, can then be examined. First, however, the results of a field test of the vistometric technique of landscape evaluation will be described.

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CHAPTER SIX

THE FIELD TESTING OF THE VISTOMETRIC TECHNIQUE OF LANDSCAPE EVALUATION

The results and any assumptions of any new map-based technique of landscape evaluation must be tested in the field to assess their validity. To this end the author visited north west Syria in August 1977, the time of the year when certain assumptions made in the technique regarding land use and visibility are valid. It must be emphasised, however, that the results of this field test, in so far as they relate to assumptions about landscape quality will be valid only in terms of the author's landscape references. They do not obviate the need, mentioned earlier, for the technique to be refined by testing the landscape preferences of a wide range of landscape user groups.

Testing the results and assumptions of the technique involved gaining answers to 14 specific questions, namely:

- 1) Are views in the study area obstructed by vegetation?
- 2) Is the magnitude, for a given 360° view, of the average relative relief visible along the 12 Vistometer sight lines fully representative of that in the total view?
- 3) Is a consideration only of visible relative relief within a maximum distance of ten kilometres from the view-point valid?
- 4) Is the magnitude of relative relief visible from the highest point in a grid square similar to that visible from other points in the square?
- 5) Is the extent of a view more specific to a given viewpoint in a grid square than visible relative relief?
- 6) Is the visual effect of relative relief near the observer the same as that of relative relief distant from him?
- 7) Are the scores assigned to different land use types for their

- inherent visual quality realistic?
- 8) Does the visual effect of land use diminish with distance from the observer?
 - 9) Is it valid to give equal weight to the two types of land use diversity score?
 - 10) Is it valid to give equal weight to the land form and land use scores?
 - 11) Are the landscape variables used independent of each other?
 - 12) Are land use and relative relief appropriate determinants of landscape quality?
 - 13) Does the technique yield realistic measures of landscape quality?
 - 14) Does the technique yield more reliable results than other methods, and particularly than Duffield and Owen's, of which it is a development, which use grid squares as survey units?

To answer these questions 12 grid squares, or 2 per cent of the total in the study area, were visited by the author, and the 360° view from each of their highest points was examined. The 12 grid squares visited were:

21,51	12,73
9,57	17,74
10,61	17,76
10,68	24,79
24,68	25,79
11,73	25,80

The grid squares were not chosen randomly. Only accessible squares were visited although it was ensured that three squares belonging to each of the four landscape quality classes were included in the sample.

TABLE 104 THE RESULTS OF THE FIELD TEST

Question Square	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	Quality Class of Square
21,51	NO	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO RELATIVE RELIEF	YES	YES	?	YES	NO	YES, GENERALLY	YES	YES	Very Low
25,79	NO	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO RELATIVE RELIEF	YES	YES	?	YES	NO	YES, GENERALLY	YES	YES	Very Low
25,80	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	?	YES	NO	YES, GENERALLY	YES	YES	Very Low
10,68	NO	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	?	YES	NO	YES	YES	YES	Low
24,68	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	?	YES	?	YES, GENERALLY	YES	YES	Low
24,79	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	?	YES	?	YES	YES	YES	Low
9,57	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	?	YES	YES	YES, GENERALLY	YES	YES	High
17,74	NO	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	?	YES	NO	YES, GENERALLY	YES	YES	High
17,76	NO	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	?	YES	NO	YES, GENERALLY	YES	YES	High
10,61	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	?	YES	NO	YES, GENERALLY	YES	YES	Very High
11,73	NO	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	?	YES	NO	YES, GENERALLY	YES	YES	Very High
12,73	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	?	YES	NO	YES	YES	YES	Very High

To provide proof of the validity of the answers to the fourteen questions, the total view from the highest point in each square was photographed and these photographs are presented in Figures 40-51. For technical reasons it was not possible to present a large scale photograph of each view in this thesis. Accordingly, it was decided that the total view from each square would be presented at a small scale while a selected part of each would be shown at a larger scale, the part to be shown at a large scale being chosen on the basis of its efficacy in illustrating points to be discussed. Note that each of the photographs of a total view begins and ends with the view due north of the observation point.

If the technique's assumptions were all valid and the possible weaknesses not evident then for all 12 views the answer to question one should be 'NO' and to all the other questions 'YES'. To what extent is this the case? An examination of the test results, summarized in Table 104, reveals that for all 12 views the answers to questions two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight ten, 13 and 14 are in the affirmative without any qualifications.

That the magnitude, for a given 360° view, of the average relative relief visible along the 12 Vistometer sight lines is in fact fully representative of that in the total view (question two) is readily apparent from an examination of Figures 40-51.

It is, of course, not possible to demonstrate in Figures 40-51, that the answers to question four, shown in Table 104, are valid. The positive answers derive from the author's field observations.

The validity of the positive answer to question three is well shown in the view from grid square 11,73. Thus in the magnified section of the view in Figure 50 the most distant ridge visible is about 10 km distant from the viewpoint. Again, in the magnified section of the view from square 17,76 (Figure 48) the westernmost part of the scarp slope of the

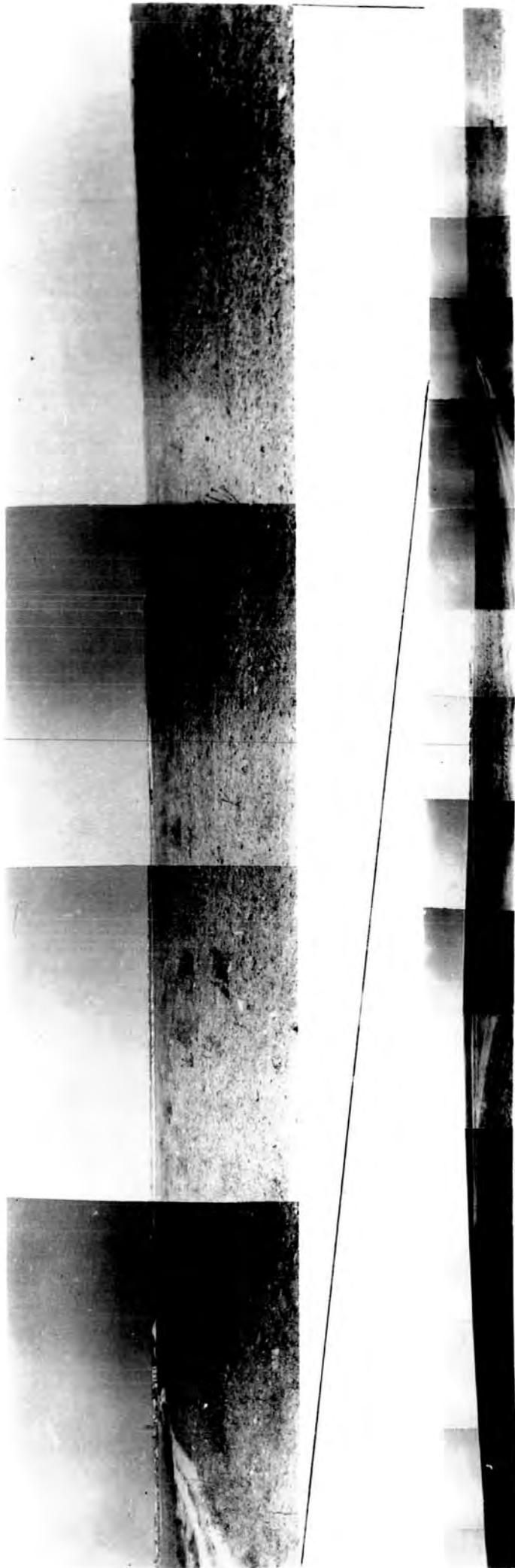


Figure 40 The View from Grid Square 21,51
Quality Category : Very Low

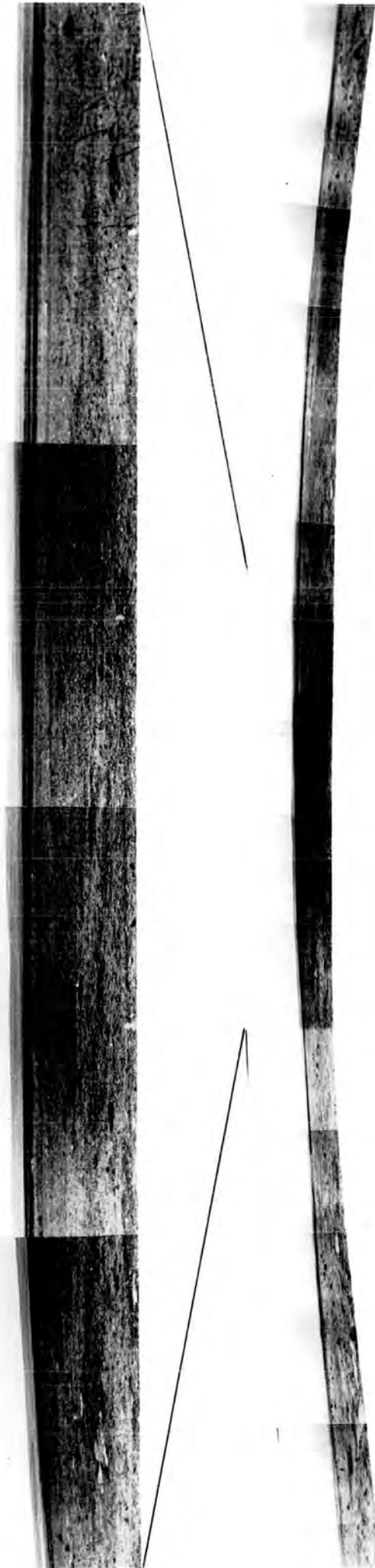


Figure 41 The View from Grid Square 25,79
Quality Category : Very Low

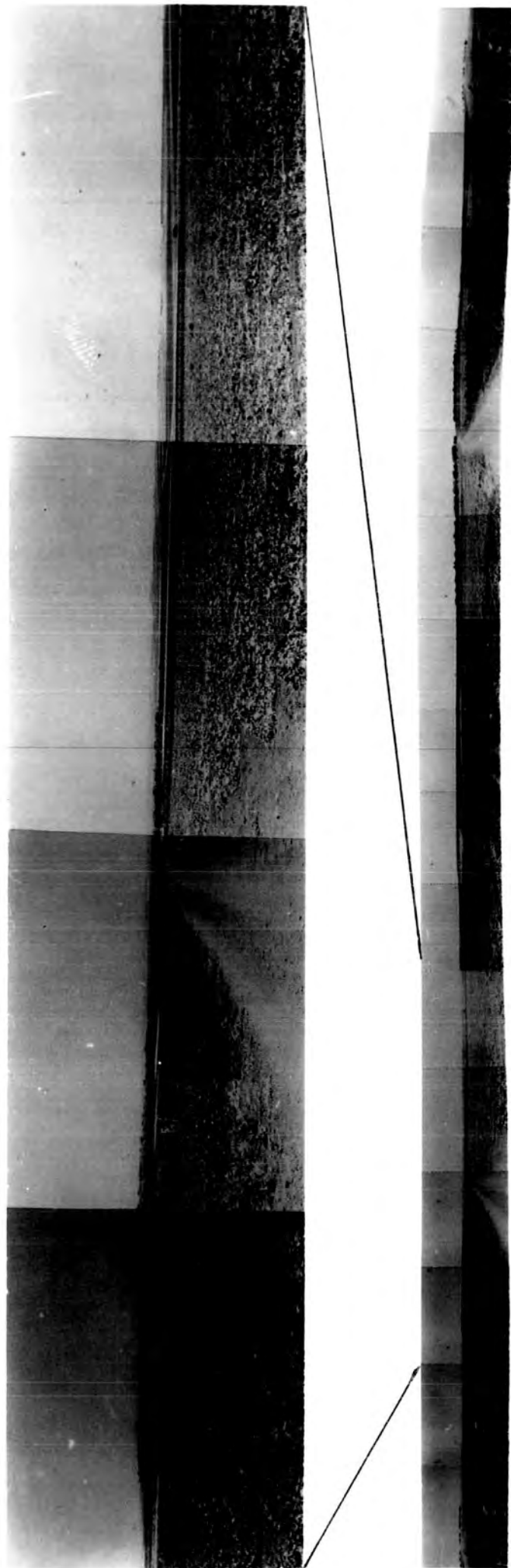


Figure 42 The View from Grid Square 25,80
Quality Category : Very Low

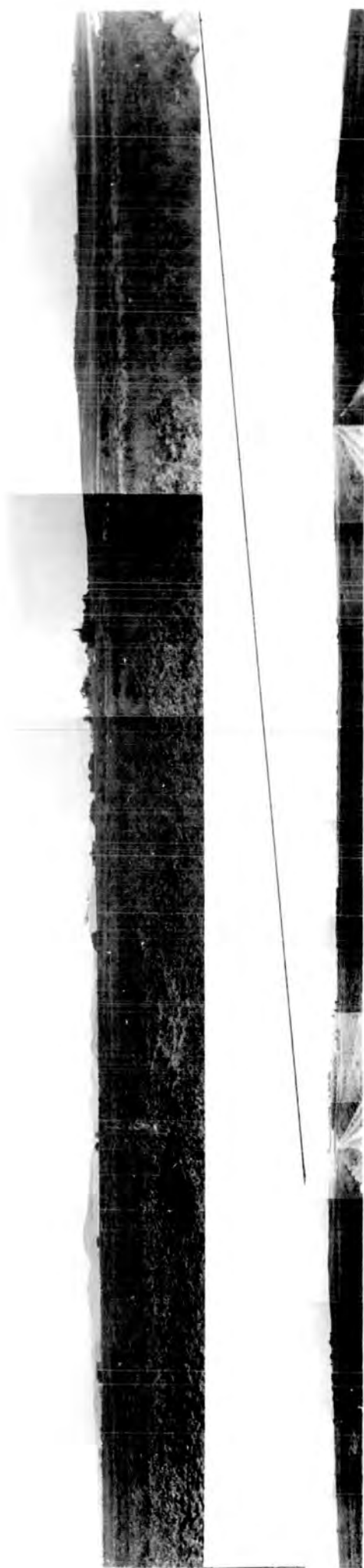


Figure 43 The View from Grid Square 10, 68
Quality Category : Low

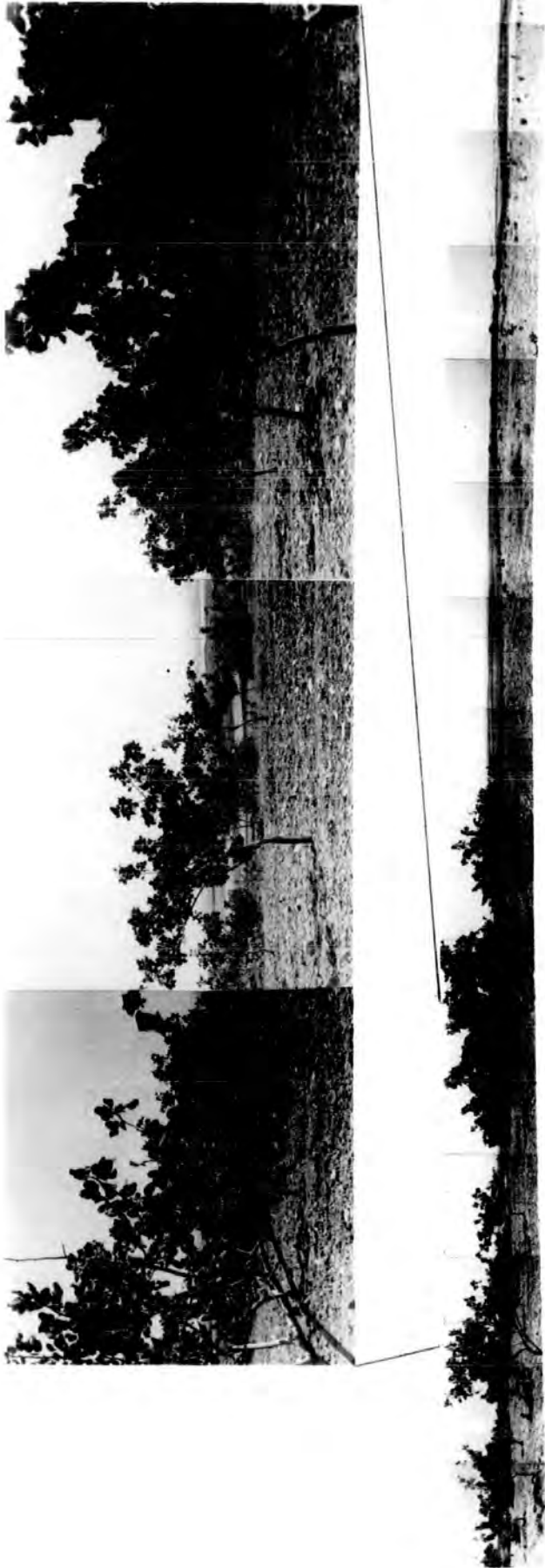


Figure 44 The View from Grid Square 24, 68
 Quality Category : Low

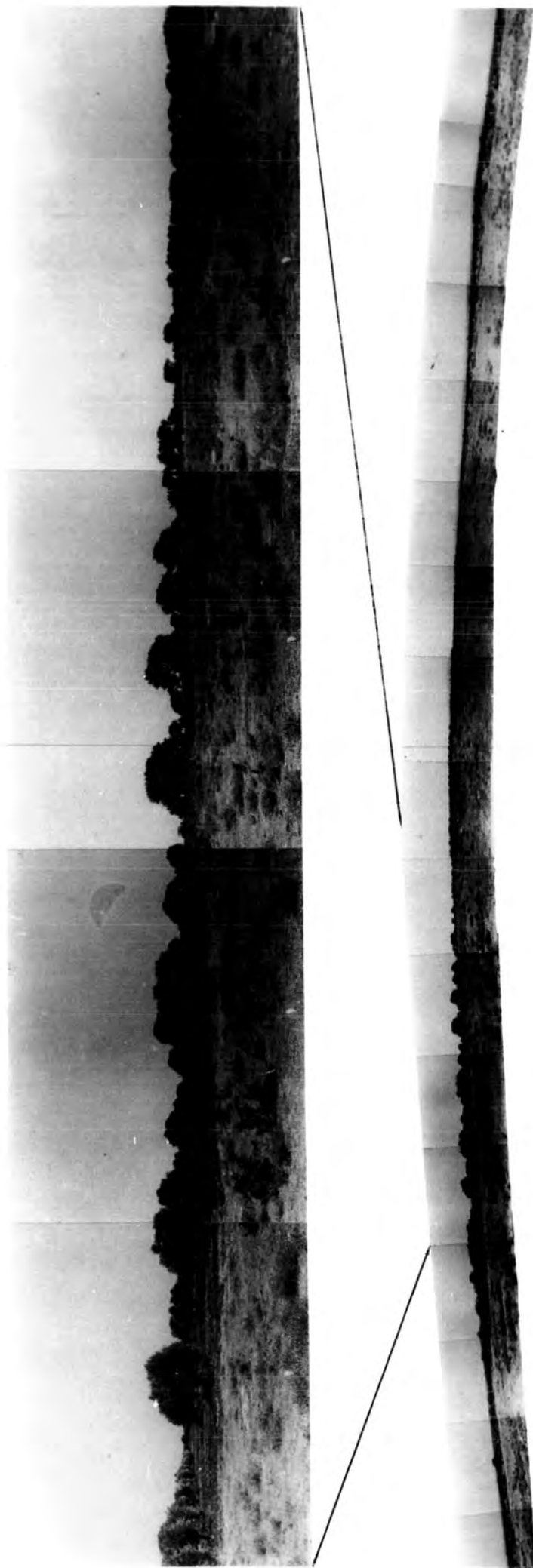


Figure 45

The View from Grid Square 24,79

Quality Category : Low

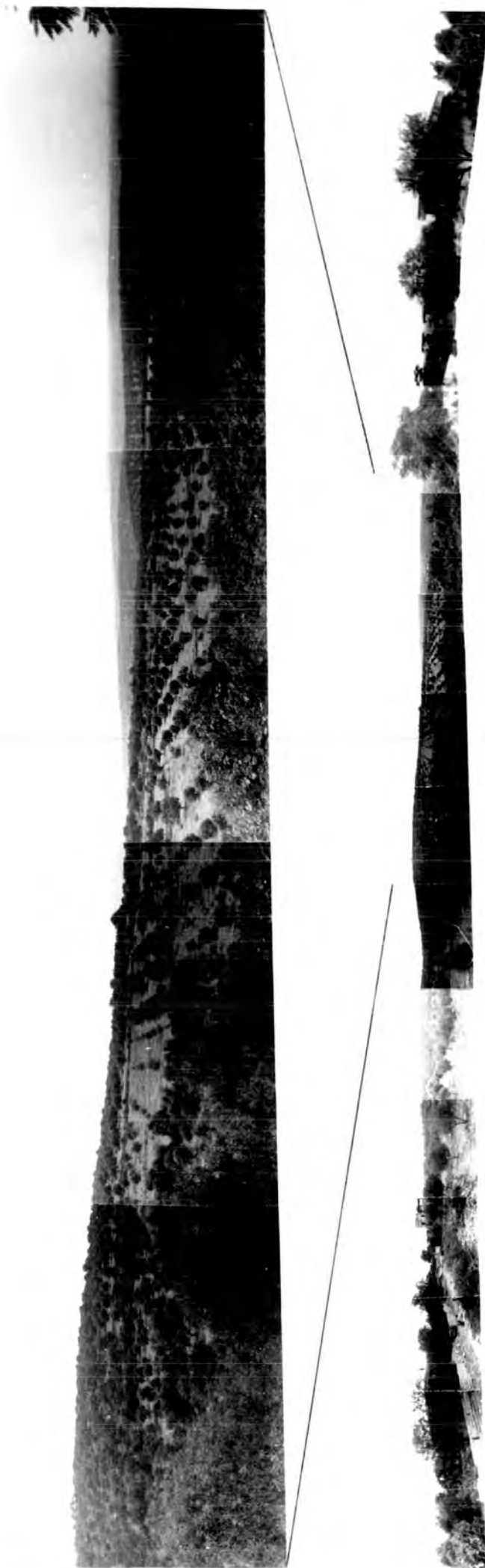


Figure 46 The View from Grid Square 9,57
Quality Category : High

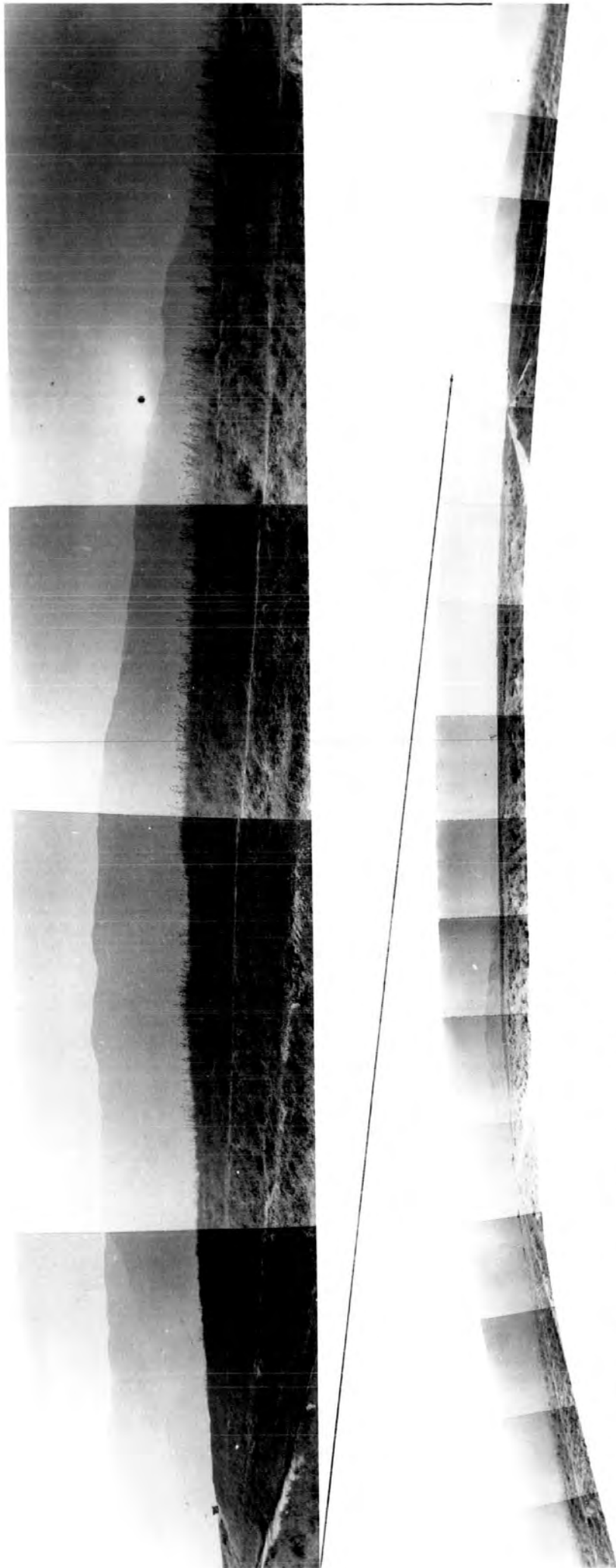


Figure 47 The View from Grid Square 17,74
Quality Category : High

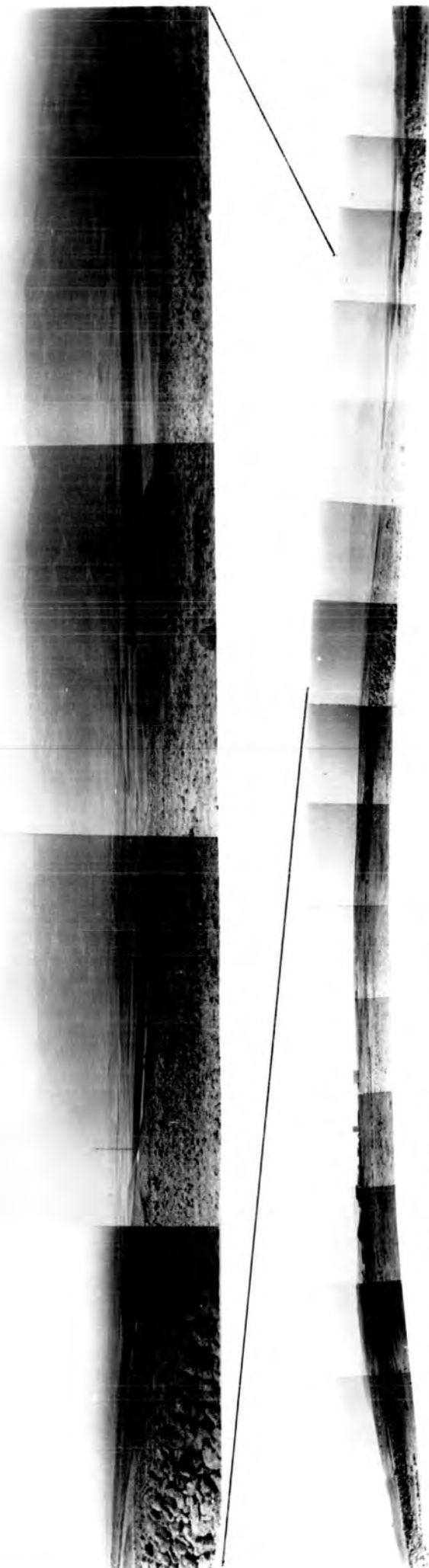


Figure 48 The View from Grid Square 17,76
Quality Category : High

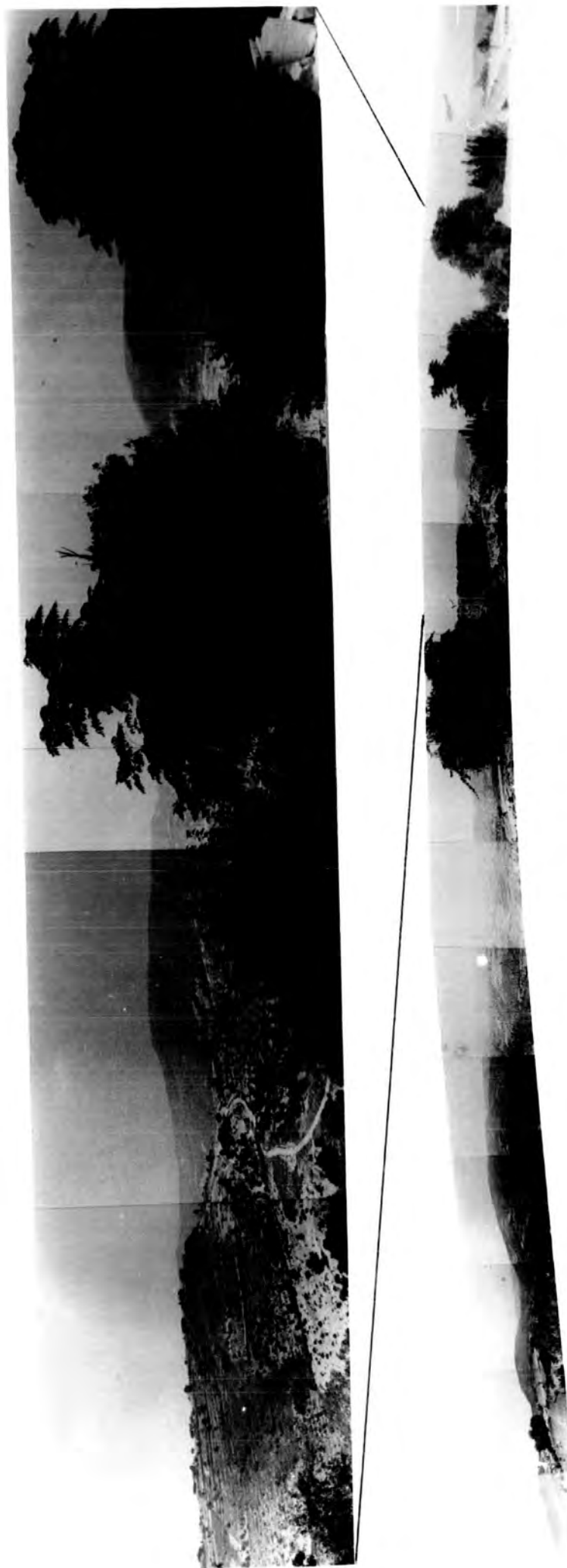


Figure 49 The View from Grid Square 10,61
Quality Category : Very High



Figure 50 The View from Grid Square 11,73
Quality Category : Very High

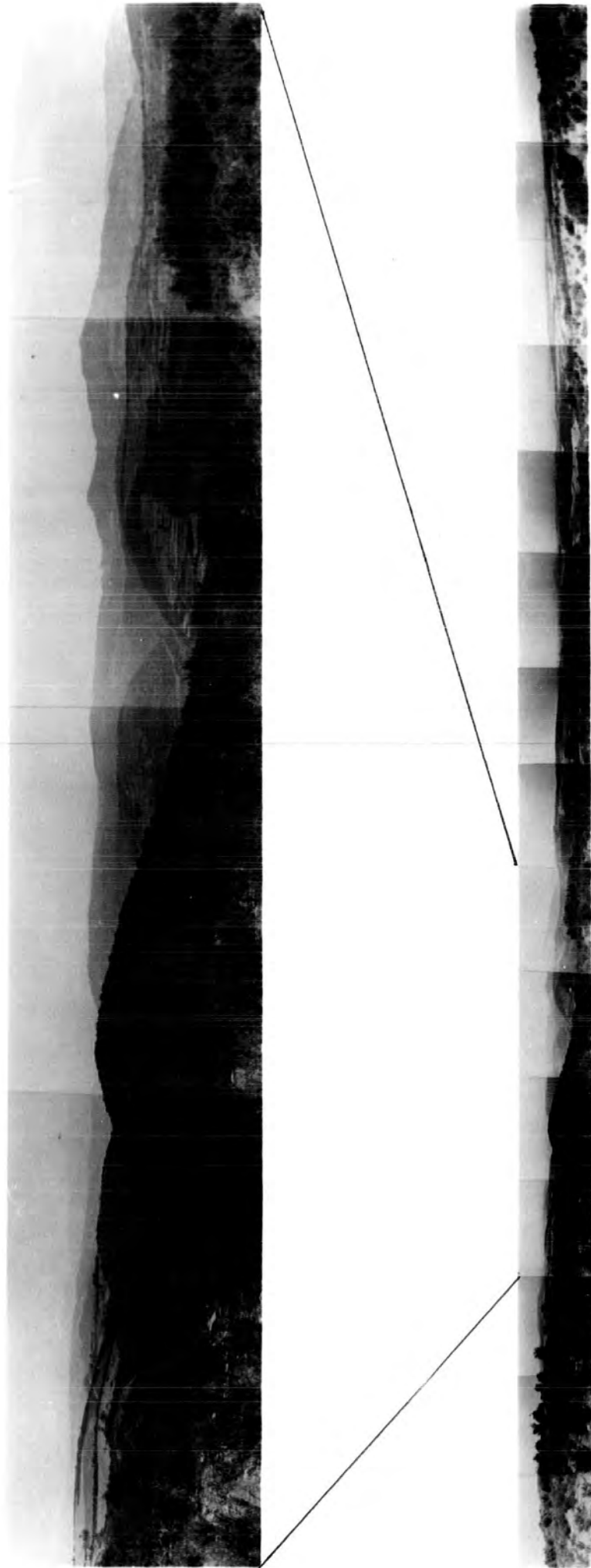


Figure 51 The View from Grid Square 12,73
Quality Category : Very High

Jebel Ansarieh, which forms the horizon, is again about 10 km distant from the viewpoint. In both cases it is clear that scenery at greater distances from the viewpoint would be largely obscured by haze.

The positive answer to question five for all views is only to be expected. It is clear that for an observer to see a long way without physical features obstructing the view requires the observer to be at a specific high point commanding the surrounding countryside. The view he has may contain much relative relief in the foreground, while the furthest parts of the view contain less relative relief than that close to him. The relative relief in the foreground may be just as great when viewed from points other than the high vantage point. That this was generally the case in fact was confirmed during the course of the field survey. Situations were encountered, however, where the extent of a view and the magnitude of visible relative relief were equally determined by the exact location of the viewpoint, but these situations were rare.

That the visual effect of visible relative relief near an observer is the same as that of relative relief distant from him (question six) is clear from an examination of the photographs of all those views which contain relative relief.

It is evident from a perusal both of the magnified parts of the views in Figures 40-51 and from an examination of the full 360° views shown in these figures that the positive answers to question seven in the case of all the views are valid. Unfortunately, however, none of the views contain water bodies, but in the light of other researchers' work it is safe to say that water bodies are more attractive than any other land use type.

The validity of the positive answers to question eight is well illustrated by the magnified section of the view from grid square 9,57 shown in Figure 46. Thus, in the foreground, the individual trees in

olive groves are clearly distinguishable while with increasing distance it becomes first impossible to distinguish individual trees, until finally, at the extremities of the view, haze obscures the nature of land use completely. This effect would be even more clear in a colour photograph of the same section of the view. The same situation is quite clear in many of the other views shown in Figures 40-51.

The answers to question ten must, of course, be subjective but it is clear from all the views presented in Figures 40-51 that land use contributes just as much as the landform landscape to the quality of the scenery. This is exemplified in the magnified section of the view from grid square 12,73 (Figure 51). Again, the magnified section of the view from grid square 24,79 (Figure 45) shows land use to be as important as landform in determining the quality of scenery.

It is indeed encouraging that the answers to question 13 were in the affirmative in the case of all the grid squares visited. The reader can easily judge for himself the validity of these answers by examining Figures 40-51.

It is, however, the consistently positive answers to question 14 that demonstrate the technique's importance. That it is a major advance over Duffield and Owen's method (which was never even subjected to field tests), and over other techniques using grid squares as survey units, is particularly apparent from the magnified section of the views obtainable from grid squares 17,74 (Figure 47) and 17,76 (Figure 48) located, respectively, in the Ghab and on the eastern edge of the Ghab. Using Duffield and Owen's method both squares would obtain low quality scores because of the limited (square 17,76) or lack (square 17,74) of relative relief within their confines. The Vistometric technique, however, allocates the views from these squares to a high quality category since the mountains visible from the squares, but lying well

beyond their edges, are taken into account in the evaluation. The superiority of the technique over other methods using grid squares as survey units, and notably over Duffield and Owen's, is also readily apparent in the quality categories to which squares which were visited in the field survey, other than the aforementioned, were assigned.

Meanwhile, the answers to questions one, nine, 11, and 12 were not consistently what they would have been if the technique had no invalid assumptions or possible weaknesses.

From Table 104 it can be seen that in some cases views were obstructed by vegetation, although it must be said that in all cases where this occurred the obstruction was only partial. An example of vegetation obstructing a view is shown in the magnified section of the view from square 10,61 (Figure 49) and it can be seen that the obstruction is not total. Again, in the magnified section of the view from square 24,68 (Figure 44) the vegetation does not entirely obscure the view. Never was the situation encountered where it was impossible because of the presence of vegetation to gain a clear impression of the quality of the view from a square. Effectively, then, the argument that views in the study area are not obscured by vegetation holds good.

It was simply not possible to establish from subjective field observations whether it was valid to give equal weight to the two types of land use diversity score (question nine).

Generally, it seems that the landscape variables used are not independent of each other (question 11). It is clear, for example, from the magnified sections of the views from squares 25,80, 10,68, 10,61, and 12,73 (shown respectively in Figures 42, 43, 49 & 51) that land use is intimately related to relief, with the plains supporting field crops and the mountains, while partly cultivated, carrying scrub, tree crops or forest on their steeper slopes. The relationship between relief and land use was, however, less clear in the cases of the views

from squares 24,68 and 24,79 (shown respectively in Figures 44 and 45) while there appeared to be no direct relationship between the two variables in the view from square 9,57 (Figure 46). Clearly, however, that the landscape variables used are generally not independent is a weakness of the technique.

It is clear from Table 104 that landform and land use are, on the whole, appropriate determinants of landscape quality. The answers are qualified, however, in the cases of all the tested views, except that from square 24,79 (Figure 45), by the impact of land features on scenic quality. That such features are significant in determining the quality of a view can be readily demonstrated. Thus, in the magnified section of the view from square 10,61 (Figure 49) the terraces and the track in the left hand part of the view evidently influence the nature and quality of the scenery. Again, in the view from grid square 17,76 (Figure 48), but not in the magnified section of this view, the stone walls contribute to the quality of the scenery, but are not taken account of in the technique. Further examples of land features influencing the quality of scenery are easy to find in Figures 40-51. Obviously this is a weakness of the Vistometric technique of landscape evaluation but, as discussed in the previous chapter, one which is difficult to overcome.

Generally, however, the results of the field test are extremely encouraging. Of the 14 questions no less than 11 were consistently answered in a way which supported the technique's efficacy while it was not possible to answer question nine. Only two weaknesses were identified. The field test demonstrated to the author's satisfaction that the technique produces valid results and that it represents a major advance over other methods which employ grid squares as survey units, and notably over Duffield and Owen's technique.

The value of the field test cannot be over-emphasised. Too many techniques have been produced which contain basic flaws which even the most simple field tests would have revealed. Indeed, any technique which has not been tested in the field must be regarded with suspicion.

CHAPTER SEVEN

THE TOURIST POTENTIAL OF NORTH WEST SYRIA1. The Combination of the Factor Surfaces

In all previous applications of the Potential Surface Technique scoring systems have been used in the construction of each factor surface and the usual procedure in combining the surfaces has been for the data sets for each surface to be standardized, for the values in the respective surfaces to be weighted according to the importance of each surface for the type of development under consideration, for the weighted scores achieved by each areal unit on each surface to be aggregated to produce a set of composite development potential scores, for these scores to be assigned to different classes, and, finally, for a map showing the distribution of areal units by development potential class to be produced.¹ The weighting of the various surfaces is by far the most critical aspect of this procedure for on this the final composite scores can depend almost entirely. That this is the case can easily be verified by a perusal of the final chapter of Owen's (1973) study.

In some studies numerical weights were assigned to different surfaces purely subjectively while in others such weights were derived from questionnaire surveys of people's opinions. The first method must, however, be rejected simply because it is subjective and thus ignores the opinions of potential resource users, opinions which, after all,

¹ It is worth noting that a number of these previous applications have probably yielded less reliable results than they might have because, even where at least interval scale measurements could have been used, ordinal scale data to which interval scale values had been subjectively assigned was employed in the construction of individual factor surfaces. It is recognized, on the other hand, that where only ordinal scale measurements are available for a given surface it is necessary to assign them interval scale values if an aggregation of the values achieved by each areal unit on each surface is to be successfully accomplished. See, however, the fifth paragraph in this section.

are the only true determinants of the respective importance of a number of resources for a given form of development. The second method, by contrast, is likely to yield more reliable results although the weights derived will appear more precise than in reality they are for it is dubious whether people can express their opinions with any exactitude on an interval scale of measurement.

A basic problem with the use of numerical weights, however, a problem which calls into question the very use of such weights in the combination of factor surfaces, is that there can be no guarantee that a weight assigned to a surface as a whole applies with equal force to the whole range of values within that surface. For example, if, in the present study, the Historic Sites surface was deemed to be twice as important for touring as the Landscape surface there could be no certainty that both high and low historic interest scores were twice as important as landscape quality scores. It could be that, while high historic interest scores were in fact two times more important than landscape scores, low historic interest scores were actually of equal importance to landscape quality scores. If this was the case then it is clear that the use of weights which, respectively, applied to the whole range of values within each of the two surfaces would yield highly misleading results.

Nevertheless, it remains clear that different resources are of different importance for a given type of development and even if numerical weights for the factor surfaces cannot be used with confidence the need for the surfaces to be combined in a way which takes accurate account of their respective importance to resource users remains imperative. In the present study the following method of achieving such a combination was adopted.

As there is little point in aggregating the values achieved by

each areal unit on each surface to produce composite development potential scores if numerical weights for the various surfaces cannot be used, and to aggregate the values assigning equal weight to each surface would be entirely arbitrary, it was felt to be best not to attempt an aggregation of values (even if at least interval scale values had been used to express the quality of all the resources) at all, but to deal entirely in terms of combinations of the quality categories which were derived and mapped for each resource.¹ Thus, if the surfaces for each of the five resources required by touring (see Table 84, p. 238), for example, are overlaid, then each grid square has a combination of resources, each of these latter classified by quality. A given square might have a 'Very High' landscape quality, contain sites of 'Great Historic Interest', be 'Moderately Accessible', have a 'High Potential' for coastal activities, and 'No Potential' for freshwater activities. It is then possible to subjectively² assign squares with different combinations to one of a number of classes of potential and to produce a final composite map showing the distribution of squares according to their potential for touring. The same procedure can be adopted in the construction of composite maps showing the potential of different squares for seaside resort and estivage tourism. In this way each surface is successfully weighted according to its respective importance for each type of tourism

¹ It is for this reason that interval scale expression of resource quality were not derived for all the resources for which factor surfaces were constructed. Techniques of resource evaluation yielding such expressions were only used where it was felt that they would give more reliable results than methods yielding ordinal scale expressions of resource quality.

² It should be noted that only the author's opinions are available as to the relative importance of each resource for each type of tourism since no other directly comparable work is available to provide evidence on this question, while a questionnaire survey to establish people's views on the issue is beyond the scope of this study.

although the weights used remain unknown and do not assume a numerical form. This weighting technique, because it allows judgements to be made of the importance for a given type of tourism of a resource of specified quality vis à vis different resources, also classified by quality, successfully circumvents the major problem, identified previously, inherent in the use of numerical weights.

Of all the resources under consideration only accessibility can be altered with relative ease by the actions of man and it was desired to examine the extent to which the tourist potential of the study area could be increased by the provision of even a minimum of access to currently inaccessible grid squares. For this purpose two separate sets of maps were required, one showing the existing potential for each type of tourism, the other showing the potential for each type of tourism which would obtain given the specified improvement of access. The two sets of maps can then be compared and recommendations for future road construction projects thereby derived. Now, all squares designated 'Inaccessible' on the Accessibility surface were deemed incapable of supporting any of the three types of resource-based tourism under consideration because of the absolute dependence of these types of tourism on access by road. All the different combinations which occurred for these currently inaccessible squares from the superimposition of the relevant factor surfaces for a given type of tourism were, however, assigned tourist potential classes with each of these combinations being assigned the lowest quality of accessibility. In this way the necessary information for the construction of both of the required sets of maps was made available.

2. The Study Area's Potential for Touring

The assessment of the study area's potential for touring involved the evaluation of the different combinations of resources, these latter classified by quality, which occurred from the superimposition of the Fresh Water-Based Activities, Coastal Activities, Accessibility, Landscape Quality and Historic Sites surfaces (see Table 84 p.238). It was decided to assign all squares with both the highest grade of historic interest and any of the top three grades of accessibility distinguished on the Accessibility surface to the category 'High' quality for touring since it is a matter of common observation that tourists of all cultures are strongly attracted to major historic sites regardless of the quality of the landscape surrounding those sites or of whether the sites are located on the coast or by lakes and rivers. For obvious reasons all squares which were inaccessible were assumed to have no potential as places to visit while touring by car¹ and all squares with both a 'Very High' or 'High' landscape quality and any of the top three grades of accessibility distinguished on the Accessibility surface were deemed to have no potential as places to visit, as such, while touring but to have value for scenic driving. Landscape is thus considered to be of paramount importance for scenic driving and of no importance in squares which contain major historic sites. Between these two extremes, landscape

¹ Note that this section of this chapter is concerned basically with the potential of the study area grid squares as places to visit while touring, not with their potential as places to drive through. Rather than assessing squares on the basis of their quality as places to visit while touring by motor car or motor coach, it was decided to consider only their quality as places to visit while touring by car. This was because the types of site which a tourist in his own car might visit would probably be more varied in quality than those which would be visited if a motor coach were being used for transport. It can reasonably be assumed that locations which have 'Medium' and 'High' potential as places to visit while touring by car would have the same potential as places to visit while touring by coach but that places with 'Low Potential' for touring by car would not be visited at all in the course of a coach tour.

POTENTIAL FOR TOURING

Including Accessibility Surface

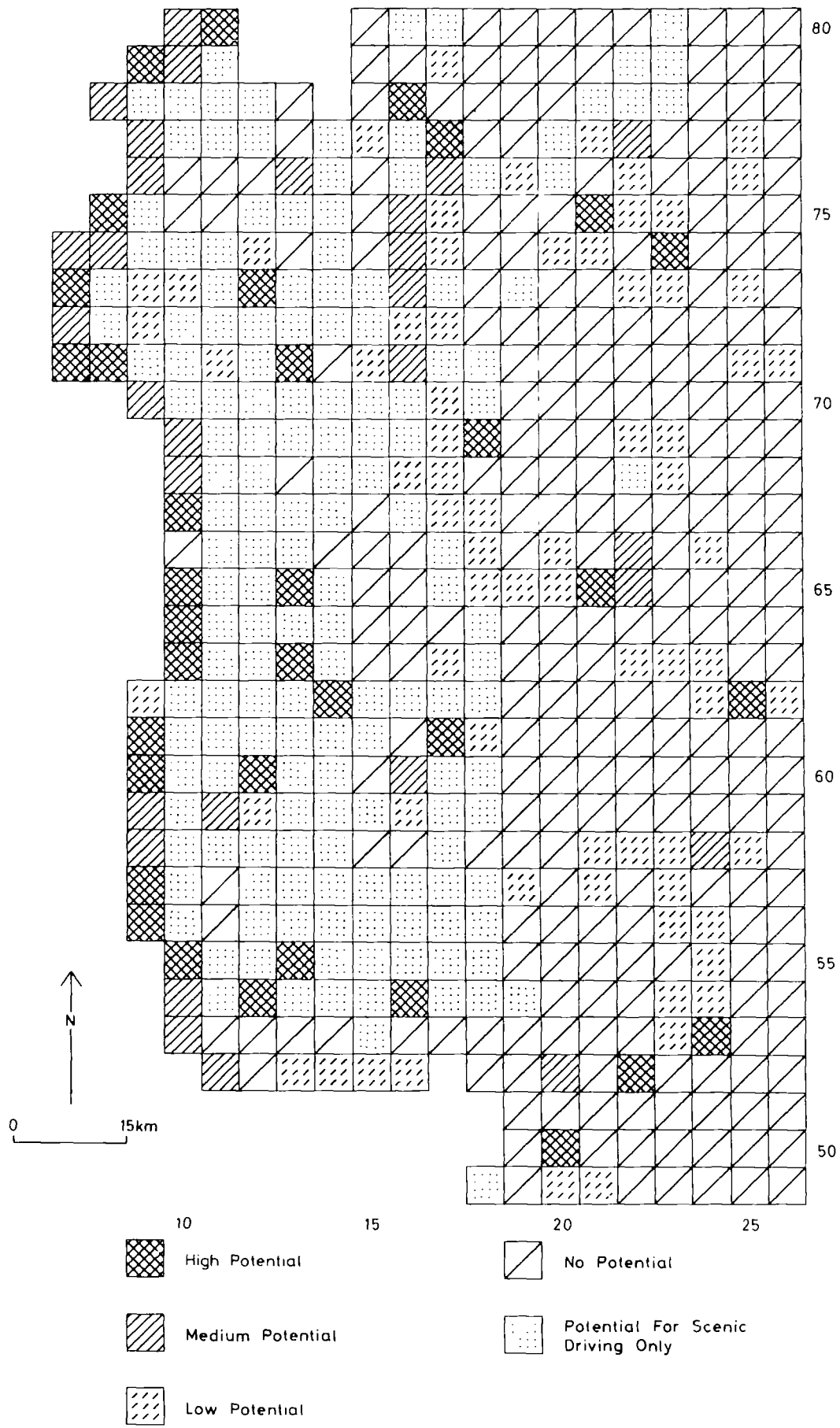


Figure 52

is considered, in the author's subjective assessment of those combinations for touring which were not pre-assigned to quality categories, to be as important as the Historic Sites and as the Fresh Water Based and Coastal Activities surfaces, but to be more significant than the Accessibility surface. Indeed, once a square was found to have some degree of accessibility, this factor only influenced the final assessment of that square's combination to a limited extent.

The distribution of the study area grid squares according to their potential for touring is shown in Figure 52. Note that the Accessibility surface was included in the construction of this map.

The study area as a whole has great potential for touring. Thus, 35, or 6.5 per cent, of the 536 study area grid squares have 'High Potential' as places to visit while touring, 29, or 5.4 per cent, have 'Medium Potential', and 70, or 13.1 per cent, have 'Low Potential'. A further 155 squares, or 28.9 per cent of the total number of study area grid squares, have potential only for scenic driving. Only 247 squares, less than half the total number of study area grid squares, have no potential either as places to visit while touring or for scenic driving.

The major concentration of 'High' and 'Medium' potential squares is along the coast while lesser concentrations occur along an axis between grid squares 25,62, 16,71, and 16,78; in the area centred on grid square 22,75; on an axis between squares 24,53 and 20,50; within a triangle whose corners are squares 16,54, 12,54, and 13,55; and within a triangle whose corners are squares 13,65, 12,60 and 18,60. The vast majority of 'Low Potential' squares lie along the perennial rivers and in the north east of the study area within a triangle whose corners are squares 19,76, 26,70, and 26,80. Squares with 'Potential for Scenic Driving Only' are, of course, concentrated in the western half of the study area where the majority of squares of 'Very High' and 'High' landscape quality occur.

POTENTIAL FOR TOURING

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Excluding Accessibility Surface

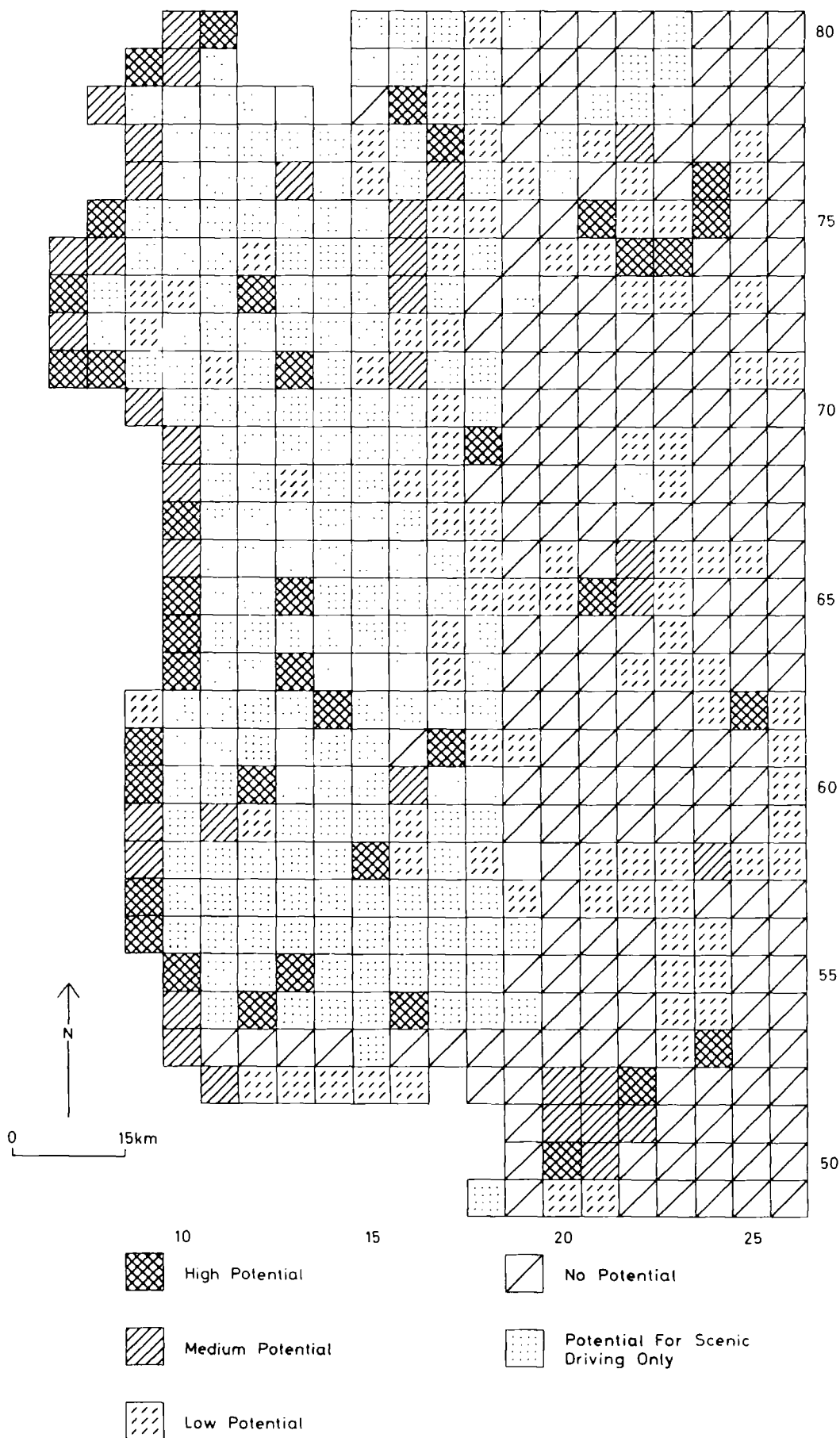


Figure 53

The number of squares which, with a minimum provision of access to all currently inaccessible squares, would fall into each category of potential differs little from the number which, on the basis of the current provision of access, falls into each of these categories. Thus, in Figure 53, 'High Potential' squares number 39, an 11.4 per cent increase over the equivalent number in Figure 52, 'Medium Potential' squares number 34, a 17.2 per cent increase over the number of 'Medium Potential' squares in Figure 52, and the number of 'Low Potential' squares is 91, a 30 per cent increase over the equivalent number in Figure 52. Meanwhile, squares with 'Potential for Scenic Driving Only' number 187 in Figure 53, representing a 20.7 per cent increase over the number of such squares in Figure 52.

The distribution of squares according to their potential for touring in Figure 53 also differs little from the equivalent distribution in Figure 52. Thus, by far the greatest concentration of squares of 'High' and 'Medium' potential is along the coast while lesser clusters occur in the area centred on grid square 22,75; in the Lake Homs area round grid square 21,51; along an axis between squares 25,62, 16,71, and 16,78; within a triangle whose corners are squares 13,55, 12,54, and 16,54; and within a rectangle whose corners are squares 13,65, 12,60, 15,58, and 17,61. As in Figure 52 the majority of 'Low Potential' squares lie along the perennial rivers and in the north east of the study area within a triangle whose corners are squares 19,76, 26,70, and 26,80. Meanwhile, squares with 'Potential for Scenic Driving Only' are again concentrated in the western half of the study area where the majority of squares of 'Very High' and 'High' landscape quality are located.

It should be noted that the tourist engaged in seaside resort tourism or estivage tourism spends his holiday, for the most part, at a single site and the attractiveness to the tourist of the study area for these two types of tourism could not therefore be increased by an immediate

provision of access to all squares which, with such a provision, would have potential for seaside resort or estivage tourism except insofar as the tourist would have a greater choice as to the site at which he could spend his holiday.¹ By contrast, the tourist engaged in touring utilizes a great number of sites with potential as places to visit while touring and, if they are present in the region the tourist is visiting, of areas with potential for scenic driving. Further, excursions to such sites and through such areas are an important aspect both of a seaside resort holiday and of an estivage holiday. Accordingly, the attractiveness of the study area for all three types of tourism could be increased by an immediate expansion through road construction of the number of squares with potential as places to visit while touring and of the extent of the area with potential for scenic driving. Tourist demand might thereby be stimulated.

This policy on road construction is not, however, recommended since it is essentially political circumstances and, as will be clear from Figure 52, not a scarcity of sites with potential as places to visit while touring or of areas with potential for scenic driving which are currently rendering the study area unattractive to tourists who engage in the three types of tourism under consideration and in any event the study area's potential for touring could only be increased to a limited extent by the provision of access to squares which, with such provision, would have potential for this type of tourism. Further, this limited increase in potential would entail, in the context of restricted finance, considerable expenditure on road construction.²

¹ That the number of sites in the study area with current potential for seaside resort, and of those with current potential for estivage, tourism is such as to render the study area attractive, in terms of the choice the tourist would have as to the site at which he could spend his holiday, to seaside resort and estivage tourists will be demonstrated in subsequent sections of this chapter.

² Recommended policies on road construction to serve the tourist industry are advanced in section 5 of this chapter.

3. The Study Area's Potential for Seaside Resort Tourism

The evaluation of the study area's potential for seaside resort tourism involved the assessment of the combinations which occurred from the super-imposition of the Coastal Activities, Accessibility, Landscape Quality, and Historic Sites surfaces (see Table 84 p. 283). By definition, the tourist engaged in seaside resort tourism is concerned mainly that he has access to a good quality beach. Accordingly, the Coastal Activities surface was given more weight than the others in assessing potential for seaside resort tourism. In addition, however, all inaccessible coastal squares, because of the primary importance of access by road for this type of tourism, were pre-assigned to the category 'No Potential' for seaside resort tourism.

The Landscape surface was considered to be less important than the Coastal Activities surface but more important than the Historic Sites surface. Faced with the choice of staying at a location with a good beach backed by impressive scenery and a good beach with an adjacent high quality historic site, it is the author's opinion that most tourists would choose the former. Nonetheless, in some cases squares with low potential for coastal activities were assigned to the category 'Medium' potential for seaside resort tourism owing to the presence of beautiful scenery together with interesting historic sites. The validity of this procedure is not, however, certain in view of the primary importance of coastal activities for seaside resort tourists. Least weight, meanwhile, was given to accessibility. Once a square was found to have some degree of accessibility, this factor played only a limited role in determining that square's potential for seaside resort tourism.

It is recognised that excursions for sightseeing, picnics, etc., are an important aspect of a seaside resort holiday but it is considered that places with high potential as destinations for such trips will be identical to the places already identified as having 'High Potential'

POTENTIAL FOR SEASIDE RESORT TOURISM

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Including Accessibility Surface

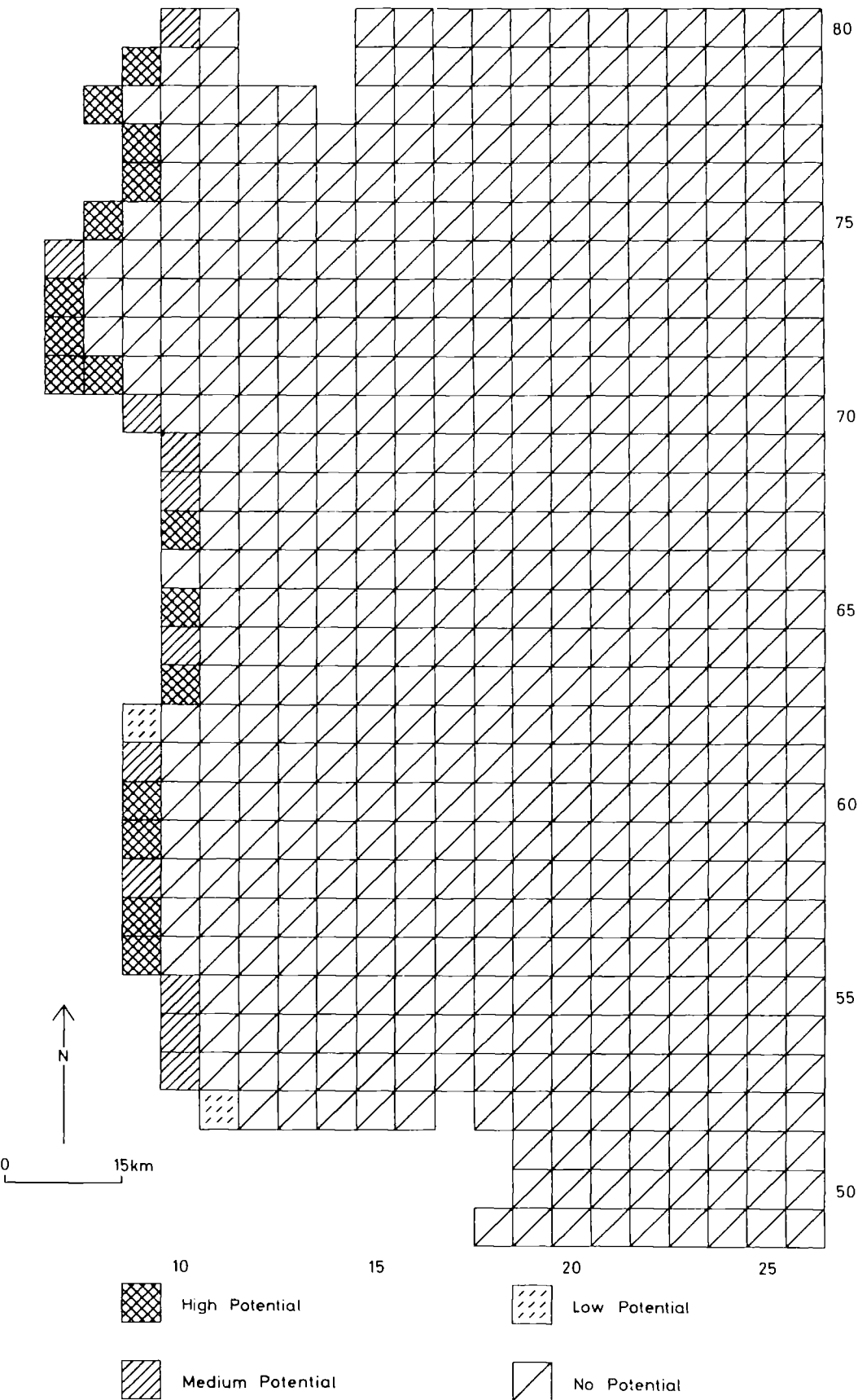


Figure 54

as places to visit while touring by car. No consideration was therefore given to the potential of squares for excursions taken as part of a seaside holiday.

The distribution of the study area grid squares according to their potential for seaside resort tourism is shown in Figure 54. This map, it must be stressed, included the Accessibility surface in its construction.

Of the 30 coastal grid squares no less than 16 are of 'High' and 11 of 'Medium' potential for seaside resort tourism. Only two squares are of 'Low Potential', and only one, grid square 10,66, has, on account of its being inaccessible, 'No Potential' for this type of tourism.

Series of squares of 'High Potential' occur the length of the coast, being separated from each other mainly by single squares of 'Medium Potential'. The greatest concentrations of 'High Potential' squares, however, lie between grid squares 9,78 and 8,75, and between squares 7,73 and 8,71, while the only major concentrations of 'Medium Potential' squares lie, respectively, between squares 10,55 and 10,53 and between squares 10,68 and 9,70.

A map showing the potential for seaside resort tourism that the study area would possess if all currently inaccessible coastal squares were provided with a minimum of access was not constructed since only one square, 10,66, would, with such a provision, be of different potential from that which it currently possesses. If access were provided to this square it would be of 'Medium Potential' for seaside resort tourism.¹

4. The Study Area's Potential for Estivage Tourism

Establishing the study area's potential for estivage tourism involved the evaluation of the combinations which occurred from the superimposition of the Climate, Accessibility, Landscape Quality, and Historic Sites

¹ As argued in the previous section, the study area's attractiveness to seaside resort tourists would not be significantly enhanced by the immediate construction of a road into this square.

surfaces. All squares which were climatically incapable of supporting estivage tourism, for obvious reasons, and, because of the vital role that access by road plays in this type of tourism, all inaccessible squares, were pre-assigned to the category 'No Potential' for estivage tourism. Estivage tourism is like seaside resort tourism in that the tourist engaged in both is primarily concerned with the use of a single resource, a beach and a pleasant climate, respectively. Accordingly, the greatest weight was given to the Climate surface. It is the author's view that the estivage tourist, faced with a choice between spending his holiday in a cool climate in beautiful scenery or in a cool climate close to a major historic site, will normally choose the former. Therefore, the Landscape surface was given greater weight than the Historic Sites surface. It is worth noting, however, that, despite the greatest weight being given to the Climate surface, certain squares with a low climatic quality attained 'Medium' potential for estivage tourism on the basis of their having beautiful scenery or important historic sites, while certain squares with high climatic quality were assigned only to the category 'Medium' potential for estivage tourism since their landscape was not outstanding and no historic sites were present. As with seaside resort tourism and touring, the Accessibility surface was given least weight. Once it was established that a square had some degree of accessibility, this factor was given only minor consideration. Again, no consideration was given to the potential of squares for excursions by road for sightseeing, picnics, etc., since, although such trips may be an important facet of an estivage holiday, the squares with high potential as destinations for these excursions will have already been identified in the assessment of the potential of the study area grid squares as places to visit while touring by car.

POTENTIAL FOR ESTIVAGE TOURISM

Including Accessibility Surface

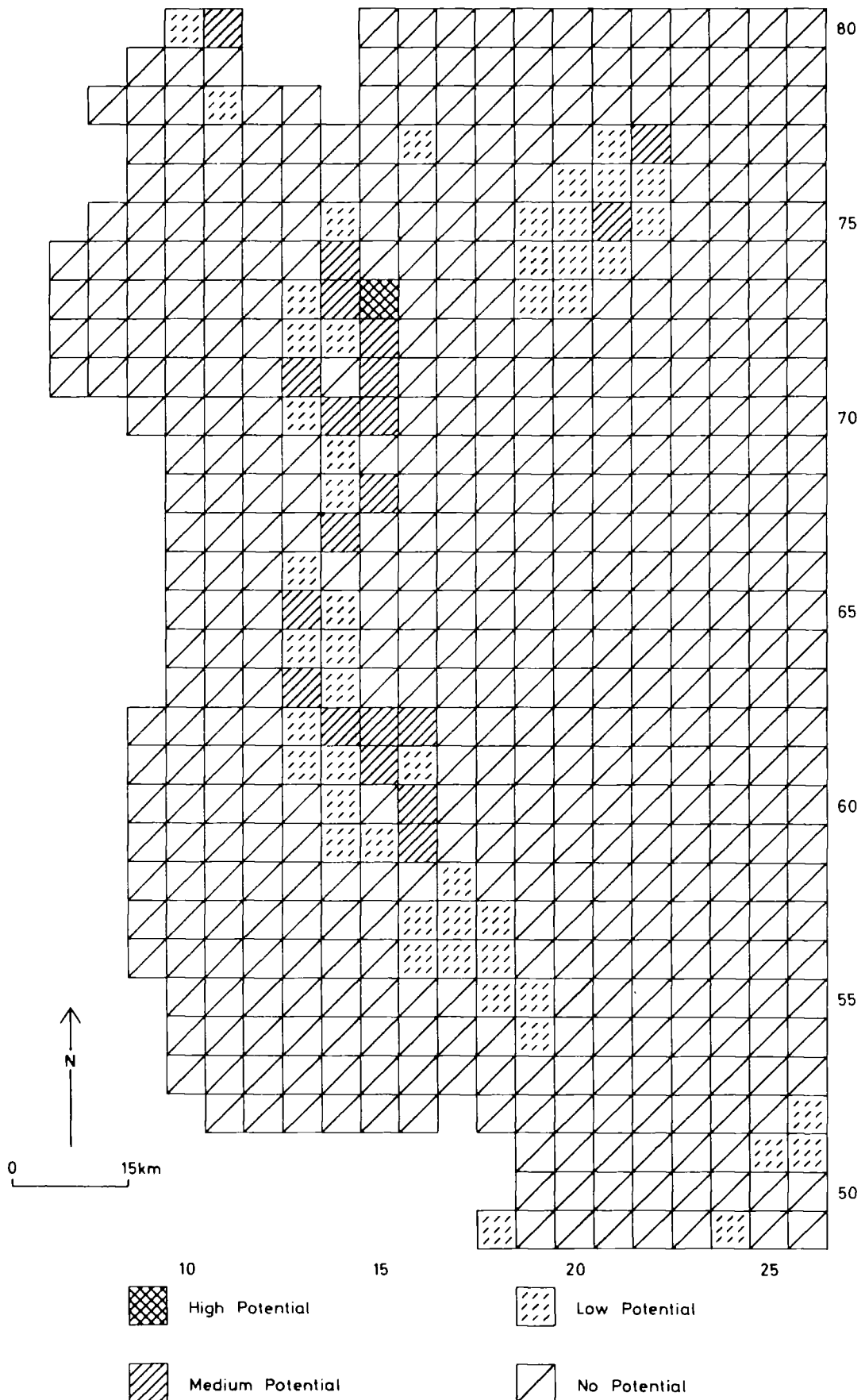


Figure 55

The distribution of the study area grid squares according to their potential for estivage tourism is shown in Figure 55. Note that this map included the Accessibility surface in its construction.

The great majority of those squares which have climatic potential for estivage tourism also have potential for this type of tourism in terms of the other resources they contain. Thus, although of the 91 squares which are climatically capable of supporting estivage tourism only one, grid square 15,73, has 'High Potential' for this type of tourism, a further 20 have 'Medium', and 49 'Low', potential.

The single 'High Potential' square and the great majority of the 'Medium Potential' squares are concentrated along the highest parts of the Jebel Ansarieh. Two additional 'Medium Potential' squares, 27,77 and 21,75, are located on the Jebel Zawayeh and one, 11,80, on the Bassit. The great majority of 'Low Potential' squares occur in two major clusters, the first on the Jebel Ansarieh and on the adjoining Jebel Helou, and the second on the Jebel Zawayeh. Meanwhile, a minor cluster of 'Low Potential' squares occurs on the northern slopes of the Anti-Lebanon range to the south east of Homs, two squares of the same potential are located on the Bassit, and one, 18,49, in the extreme south centre of the study area, on the flanks of the Lebanon range.

Figure 56 shows the potential for estivage tourism that the study area would have if all currently inaccessible squares were provided with a minimum of access. Again only one square is of 'High Potential' for this type of tourism but in this instance 'Medium Potential' squares number 29,9, or 45 per cent, more than the number of equivalent squares in Figure 55. 'Low Potential' squares in Figure 56 number 61, 12, or 24.5 per cent, more than the number of such squares in Figure 55. Meanwhile, the general spatial

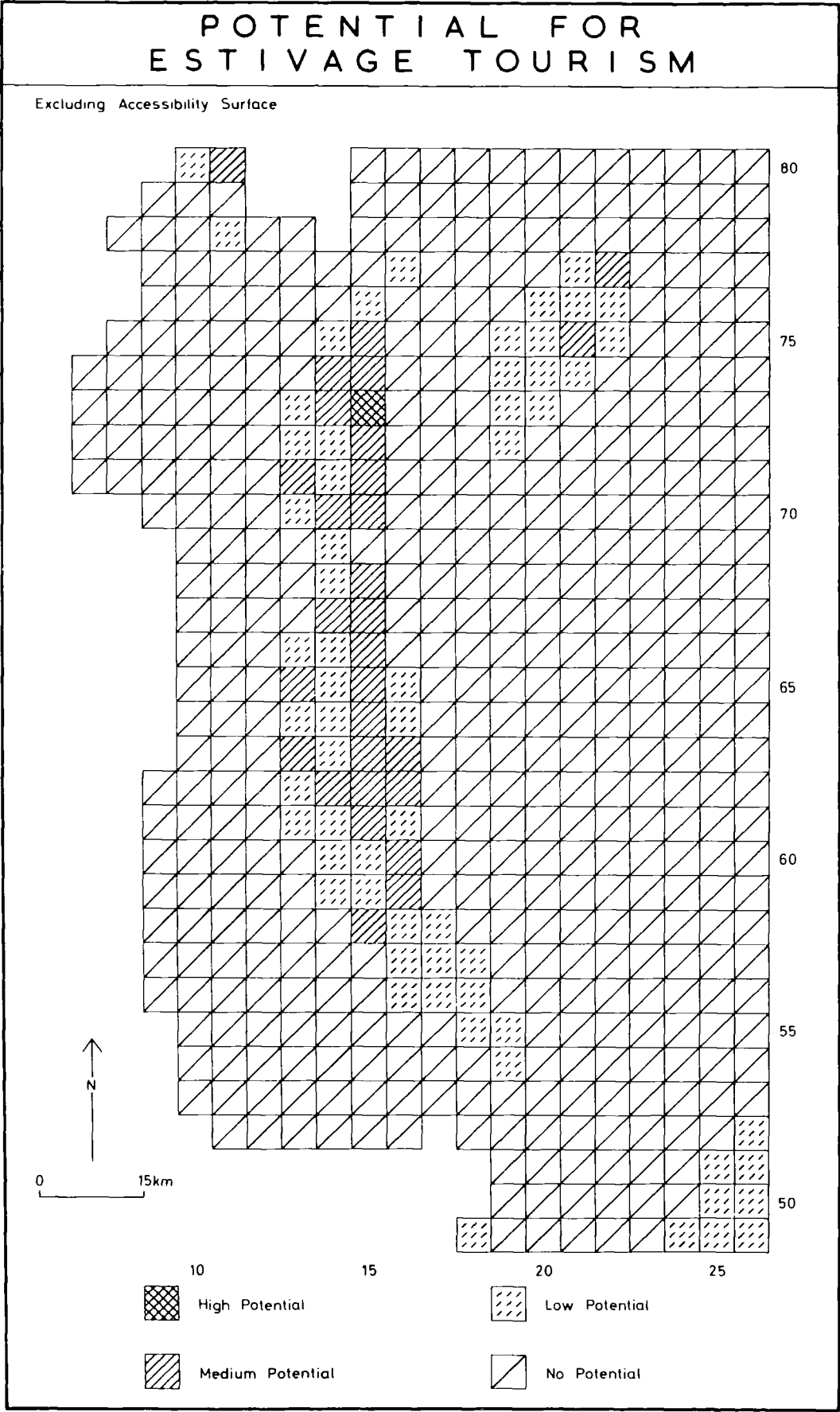


Figure 56

distribution of squares by category of potential is identical in both maps.¹

5. The Location of Tourist Facilities²

Facilities, notably hotels and restaurants, for resource-based tourism must, of necessity, be located close to sites with potential for this type of tourism. Resources, such as casinos and night clubs, and facilities, notably hotels and restaurants, for demand-based tourist activities, activities which play an important role in all three types of resource-based tourism with which this study is concerned, must, by contrast, be located where a demand for them exists. However, it was noted in an earlier chapter that tourists will be attracted to Syria mainly by the opportunities that the country offers for resource-based tourist activities. Hence, the distribution of sites with potential for resource-based tourist activities will coincide. Essentially, then, the distribution of sites with potential for resource-based tourism will determine the possible locations for both facilities for resource-based tourism and facilities and resources³ for demand-based tourist activities.

¹ As argued earlier, the study area's attractiveness for estivage tourism could not be significantly increased by the immediate construction of roads into any of the squares which, with access, would have potential for this type of tourism.

² Note that because this study has concentrated on the identification of areas with different potential for tourism, as a first step to the identification of specific sites with different categories of tourist potential, it might be argued, bearing in mind that tourist facilities will be developed at specific sites, that a discussion of the location of these facilities is not of relevance at this stage of investigation. However, a discussion of the location of facilities within the study area will, even at this stage of enquiry, certainly be of interest to those concerned with tourist development in north west Syria. See, however, p. 478

³ The single word 'facilities' will henceforth be used to simultaneously denote resources and facilities for demand-based tourism and facilities, but not resources, for resource-based tourism. Similarly, the word 'facilities' linked to the name of a type of resource-based tourism, as in 'facilities for touring', will henceforth denote both the facilities for the type of tourism named and the facilities and resources required by the demand-based tourist activities in which tourists engaging in the type of resource-based tourism will participate, facilities and resources which will be justifiable only in terms of the presence of tourists engaged primarily in the type of resource-based tourism and which will therefore be located close to the facilities for

However, while the location of tourist facilities is constrained by the distribution of sites with potential for resource-based tourism, there will clearly be a choice available at each stage in the development of tourist facilities in the study area as to which sites within the areas capable of supporting each type of tourism should be provided with facilities. The location of facilities for touring is, however, less constrained by the distribution of resources for this type of tourism than is the location of facilities for the other two types of tourism under consideration simply because the tourist engaged in touring is mobile and therefore does not have to eat or sleep in close proximity to the resources he utilizes. Even if one considers only squares with current potential as places to visit while touring, their extensive distribution, and the short distances between different parts of the study area, mean that facilities for this type of tourism can be freely located in all parts of the region. Now tourist facilities are the major supporters of direct tourism-related employment in a tourist destination area and the creation of employment was identified in Chapter Four as the primary role that tourism could play in the study area. However, in terms of this role, facilities for seaside resort and estivage tourism can be located with equal effectiveness in all parts of the areas with potential for these types of tourism and facilities for touring in all parts of the study area, since it can reasonably be assumed that, as at present, all parts of the study area either will have, or will be close to, large pools of unemployed labour at the time when political circumstances allow a significant expansion of tourism in the region. Further, it should be re-iterated¹ that, since the magnitude of the study area's tourist potential will clearly allow an expansion of the tourist trade on a significant scale,

¹ See section 7 of Chapter Four.

the spatial stabilization of population within the study area will not be a realizable objective. It will thus be fruitless to concentrate tourist facilities in areas experiencing out-migration¹ in an attempt to halt population flows within the region.

Given that facilities for touring can, at each stage in the development of tourism in the study area, be located freely in all parts of the region, it must be asked on what basis the sites to be provided with facilities for seaside resort and estivage tourism at each stage in the development of these types of tourism should be selected. The answer, it would seem, is that they should be chosen primarily in terms of their categories of tourist potential. Thus, facilities for each of these types of tourism could be developed, as demand justified, successively at sites of current 'High', 'Medium', and 'Low' potential and then roads constructed successively to, and facilities provided successively at, sites which, with access, would be of 'High', 'Medium', and 'Low' potential.² Alternatively, sites of current 'High Potential' could be developed first and, as these became fully developed, roads could be constructed to, and facilities provided at, sites which, with access, would be of 'High Potential'. When all the sites of 'High Potential' had been developed attention could be turned to sites of current 'Medium Potential' and then to sites which, with access, would be of 'Medium Potential'. Finally, when all 'Medium Potential' sites had been developed facilities could be provided at sites of current 'Low Potential' and then, when demand justified, roads could be constructed to, and facilities developed at, sites which, with access, would be of 'Low Potential'.² Whichever of these two equally efficacious approaches

¹ These areas, incidentally, are likely to be essentially the same, at least during the early stages of a future major development of tourism in the study area, that is, before tourism-induced population movements begin, as they are today.

² For seaside resort tourism, however, only one square is currently without access. This square would, with access, be of 'Medium Potential'. For estivage tourism, meanwhile, no squares would, with access, be of 'High

is adopted, meanwhile, the order in which sites of the same category of potential for either type of tourism are developed matters little.

These suggested procedures as to the order in which sites of different potential for seaside resort and estivage tourism could be developed also apply to sites with potential for touring. In this case, however, the order in which sites are developed refers not to the order in which sites are provided with facilities, or roads and facilities, but to the order in which sites with potential as places to visit while touring are promoted, or provided with roads and promoted.

Squares with current potential for scenic driving, meanwhile, are, in this study, all considered to be of the same category of potential, as are squares which, with access, would have potential for scenic driving. In line with the suggested procedures for road construction, roads should thus be provided to squares which, with access, would have potential for scenic driving only when the supply of scenic routes in squares with current potential for scenic driving proves to be inadequate to cope with the demand for such routes.¹

6. Conclusion to the Tourist Potential of North West Syria

To summarize, then, and bearing in mind that facilities for touring can be located in all parts of the study area, the western edge of the Bassit will be provided with employment by seaside resort tourism and touring while its highest parts, and those of all the other uplands (excepting the Jebel Wastani and Hills of Massiaf), will be provided with employment by estivage tourism and touring. Meanwhile, the western edges of the coastal lowlands will

¹ Roads could, of course, if they would bestow significant benefits on sectors other than tourism or if they were deemed desirable on social grounds, be constructed to the single square which, with access, would have potential for seaside resort tourism and to the squares which, with access, would have potential for estivage tourism without tourist facilities being constructed in these squares while such roads could be constructed to squares which, with access, would have potential as places to visit while touring or for scenic driving, but the promotion of the sites in the former squares and of the new scenic routes in the latter could be delayed, if this were felt to be desirable, until justified by tourist demand.

be provided with employment by seaside resort tourism and touring. Finally, employment will be provided in the inland lowlands and in the plateau areas, on the lower parts of the upland areas (but in all parts of the Jebel Wastani and Hills of Massiaf), and in the eastern parts of the coastal lowlands exclusively by touring.

The magnitude of the study area's potential for each of the three types of tourism under consideration augers well for the future development of tourism on a scale sufficient to have a significant impact on unemployment in the region and hence on the out-migration of the region's population, unemployment and out-migration which are almost certain, in view of the limited scope for the expansion of employment opportunities in sectors other than tourism, to be, as at present in the study area, the major problems facing the region at the time when political circumstances allow this tourist development to proceed. Further, in view of the magnitude of the study area's tourist potential, this impact is likely to be significant even if, as would be desirable, saturation levels for tourism in the study area could be established.

It was argued in Chapter Three that a search for sites with tourist potential should proceed in two stages, an initial broad survey to be followed by a more detailed investigation of the areas identified in the large scale survey as containing tourist sites. It must be emphasized that only the first stage of investigation has been attempted in this study. Further, this was attempted for only one part of Syria. The next step should be to undertake a broad survey of the potential for touring and estivage tourism¹ of the other regions of Syria.² Then, in a second stage of enquiry the Potential

¹ The whole of Syria's coastline has been surveyed in the present study and it would thus obviously be fruitless to search for sites with potential for seaside resort tourism in regions other than that subjected to study in this thesis.

² The old series 1:50,000 maps do not, however, cover the whole of Syria and the national coverage of new series 1:50,000 and 1:25,000 maps is not yet complete. The Potential Surface Technique thus cannot be immediately employed in a survey of the tourist potential of all parts of Syria.

Surface Technique should be employed to identify sites with potential for touring, for seaside resort tourism, and for estivage tourism in those areas identified in the first stage of investigation as containing such sites. This will entail the construction of new factor surfaces for the resources considered in the first stage of enquiry, but using evaluative criteria more appropriate to a detailed study. Further, there will no doubt be a need for the construction of surfaces for factors, such as the availability of adequate water supplies for facilities, for which surfaces were not constructed in the first stage of enquiry. Meanwhile, in this second stage of enquiry much smaller areal survey units should be employed than were used in the large scale survey, perhaps grid squares measuring 0.5 km x 0.5 km.

It should be noted that this second stage of enquiry would no doubt reveal that some of the areas identified in the first stage of investigation as containing sites with a given category of current potential for one of the types of tourism under consideration, or a given category of latent potential, in the sense that they would have this category of potential if provided with access, for that type of tourism did not in fact contain sites with those categories of potential. This could arise simply because it is implicit in the methodology of the first stage of enquiry that all the resources contained in each 5 km x 5 km square are located together at the same point while in reality, of course, the resources within each such square are often spatially separated from each other. It is nevertheless unlikely that the basic distribution of sites with potential for tourism which was revealed by the second stage of enquiry would be radically different from the distribution of these sites suggested by the first stage of investigation.

A further need is for the Potential Surface Technique to be applied as a tool for the identification of locations with potential for other

sectors,¹ notably for agriculture and for industry, in order that integrated spatial plans for each region can be formulated. Such plans are vital. So far, integrated spatial planning in Syria has been largely confined to the areas of large scale development schemes such as the Ghab and Euphrates projects. Outside areas such as these, spatial plans for each sector continue to be largely unrelated to each other with the inevitable result that resources are wasted and a waste of resources is even more serious for developing, than for developed, regions since the resource endowment of these former areas is rarely as great as it is of the latter.

¹ See, however, the preceding footnote.

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CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSION

In Chapter One, which is essentially concerned with tourism's costs and benefits to developing countries, it is concluded that Syria stands to gain economically from an expansion of her tourist trade but that if this gain is to be maximized, her tourist industry should be 'Syrianized' to the greatest possible extent, and be developed in harmony with other economic sectors. Meanwhile, the country, in common with many others, is extremely susceptible to the deleterious social effects of tourism. If these are to be avoided, it is argued that saturation levels, maximum acceptable levels of tourist development, should be established for each region in the country and methods devised to ensure that these levels are not exceeded. For both economic and social reasons, then, the case for a planned development of Syria's tourist trade is argued.

In Chapter Two the recent development of the Syrian tourist industry is reviewed and it is convincingly demonstrated that politics have been the major determinant of that development and the view is advanced that no major expansion of the Syrian tourist trade can be expected until political conditions in the Middle East become more stable.

Chapters Three to Seven are concerned with the evaluation of the tourist potential of north-west Syria. In Chapter Three the resources which are of relevance in such an assessment are identified and existing techniques for their evaluation reviewed. It is concluded that only for landscape are existing evaluative techniques inadequate. Meanwhile, the Potential Surface Technique is identified as the only available method of systematically combining for a unit area individual assessments of separate resources into composite assessments of those resources in combination.

In Chapter Four the reader is introduced to the study area of north-west Syria, the role that tourism might play in the region is examined, and it is concluded that this role should be the stemming of the population loss which the area is experiencing.

Chapter Five is devoted to the construction of maps showing the distribution by quality in the study area of each of the resources identified in Chapter Three as being of relevance in a study of Syria's tourist potential. The most important section, however, is that concerned with landscape evaluation. As noted above, no existing technique was deemed capable of providing a realistic assessment of the study area's landscape resources and a new technique, christened the Vistometric technique of landscape evaluation, is developed.

In Chapter Six the results of the field test of the Vistometric technique of landscape evaluation are described and it is demonstrated that, while the method has a number of limitations, the results obtained using maps as data sources concur with subjective evaluation in the field and that the technique is capable of providing meaningful measures of landscape quality.

Chapter Seven is concerned with the potential of combinations of the resources under consideration to support the three types of resource-based tourism which the study area may be expected to cater for. Particular emphasis, however, is given to the relative importance of landscape for each of these types of tourism and it is concluded that this resource, while being of considerable importance for all three types of tourism, is of greatest significance for scenic driving.

That part of the thesis concerned with resource evaluation has thus revolved around the evaluation of landscape. This emphasis stemmed naturally from the author's contention that existing techniques of

assessing scenic quality were likely to yield unreliable results and from the consequent need for the development of a new method. That the Vistometric technique was successfully applied in the context of a systematic study of Syria's tourist resources is of critical importance in demonstrating its usefulness. To quote Dunn (1974, p.27), in a review of existing landscape evaluation techniques, "It might ... be appropriate ... to question the relevance of the results of the landscape evaluation techniques ... to the plan-making process which generated the need for them the production of an analysis of landscape quality has often been taken as an end in itself, and the information has simply not contributed to strategy evaluation or plan preparation." This criticism, as has been demonstrated, certainly cannot be levelled at the Vistometric technique of landscape evaluation.

At the same time it is imperative to understand the nature of the merits which the technique, or any other, could be expected to possess. As Farr (in Crofts and Cooke, 1974, p.21) has noted with respect to psychology, in regard to any particular technique (whether a psychometric test or an attitude scale) it is customary to distinguish between its "reliability" and its "validity" ... "Reliability" relates to the consistency with which an instrument or technique measures whatever it measures. The same technique applied to the same sample at two different points in time should yield highly comparable data. This type of measure would be called test-retest reliability and measures consistency over time." There are no grounds for believing that the Vistometric technique of landscape evaluation is unreliable in this sense.

Farr, however, (in Crofts and Cooke, 1974, p.21) goes on to consider the validity of a test, i.e., "the extent to which a test measures what it purports to measure It is a sine qua non of any test that it be reliable - having a high reliability is no guarantee that it is

valid In regard to landscape evaluation validity would seem to be ultimately tied up with the subjective evaluations of people. Beauty is said to reside in the eye of the beholder".

The field testing of the Vistometric technique of landscape evaluation demonstrated clearly that, in terms of the author's subjective landscape preferences, the technique is able to accurately distinguish between views of different quality. The need for a test of people's landscape preferences as a means of refining the technique was acknowledged earlier but the field tests provide encouraging evidence that the technique as it stands is likely to be generally valid, unless the author's landscape preferences are severely abnormal.

It will be clear from Chapter Seven that the author makes no claim that the Vistometric technique of evaluation is definitive. Its weaknesses have been clearly stated. What is claimed, however, is that the technique's basis in the evaluation of the views which the observer within a grid square can obtain is a much sounder approach to the evaluation of scenery when using grid square survey units than any attempt to evaluate the quality of the contents of the squares can ever be.

The key factor to be borne in mind is that landscape consists of what an observer, located at a specific viewpoint, can see and that views will very often extend beyond the edges of the grid square within which the observer is located. Strictly speaking, it is meaningless to apply an assessment of scenic quality to any other spatial unit than a viewpoint. On the other hand, the field tests undertaken as part of the study demonstrated that, with the exception of the extent of view, the components of adjacent views tend to be generally similar. Accordingly, it is valid to delineate areas of homogeneous landscape quality but when doing so it must always be remembered that the areas have been defined

on the basis of the views they offer and not on the basis of their own physical contents.

As noted in Chapter Three, grid squares are superior to tracts as survey units for landscape evaluation; yet the techniques using grid squares as survey units have generally failed to take any, or full, account of views. It is the techniques employing tracts as survey units which have either implicitly or explicitly displayed an appreciation of the true nature of scenery.

Despite the centrality of the fact, and simplicity of the concept, that landscape is nothing more than what is contained in a view, or views, there is much evidence in the literature on landscape evaluation of confused thinking as to the nature of scenery. Dunn (1974), for example, in the course of a review of landscape evaluation techniques, states (p.47) that "any total landscape evaluation must include views". This clearly implies that views are merely one facet of landscape whereas in fact views and landscape are identical. Again, Dunn (1974, p. 47) states that "Views from a point form an intrinsic part of the landscape value of that point; views to the point, on the other hand, should enhance or detract from the value only of the landscape from which the view is taken, since logically they are of no value to that particular point". This shows an understanding of the locations to which values for views should be applied but once more the implication is clear that views constitute only a part of landscape. Another example of this error is provided by Crofts and Cooke (1974, p.2) who state that "Few methods account both for scenic quality of a point or area and the quality of scenery seen from that location".

Ultimately, however, it is the author's opinion that landscape, and people's reaction to it, are so complex and subtle as to defy any but the crudest attempt at the development of a generally applicable

system of evaluation. This opinion is shared by others, even though these others generally refer, erroneously, to scenery as if this consisted of the contents of areas rather than being a view or views. Thus, Dunn (1974, p.45) notes that "To quantify the objective environment by means of measuring particular factors cannot be the aim of landscape evaluation, and any study which claims objectivity should perhaps be treated with some caution." Again, Crofts and Cooke (1974, pp. 2-3) note, when considering the obstacles to the derivation of an effective method of evaluating landscape quality, that "it might seem reasonable to reject all the techniques as unsound - perhaps even spurious - and to concede that such methods are dangerous and insecure foundations on which to build the case for landscape quality in the face of concerted and often persuasive arguments from competing land use interests. We incline towards this view". However, as they rightly say, "the uncomfortable fact remains: planners must be able to compare the relative scenic merits of landscape - often in a region too large for an individual to know comprehensively - when land is under severe pressure from competing developers. An areal prospectus of landscape quality within planning regions is thus highly desirable".

The point has not yet arrived in Syria, or in the majority of other developing countries, where planners are obliged by law, as they are in Britain, to consider landscape quality in their plans. That is not to say that they should not.

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¹ Note that data for nawahi is only given in the mohafaza volumes of the census reports and that at the time of writing volumes of the 1970 Census for Idlib, Lattakia, and Tartous mohafazat had not yet been published. The data for nawahi in these mohafazat which appears in this thesis and for which the 1970 Census is cited as the source was supplied to the author by the Central Bureau of Statistics.

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