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Introduction

Destinations are a key feature of the tourism industry and their evolution, structure, operation, image, economy and marketing have featured widely in the research literature. Destinations are also one of the key building blocks for developing both domestic and international tourism through their function of providing a focus for visitors and investment in tourism-related activities. Over time, and as growth occurs, some destinations will also become generators of visitors. This chapter examines a range of transport issues involved in destination development and demonstrates how the transport system can stimulate tourism by analysing the emergence of Cairns (Queensland, Australia) as an international destination. The chapter draws together previous research in this area to build a theoretical basis of future study of the role of transport in destination development. Given the significant impact that new transport technologies have had on the shape, structure and economics of travel and tourism since Thomas Cook’s addition of rail as the third passenger mode (road and sea being the first and second respectively), and the significance of that journey as the start of the contemporary tourism era\(^1\) (Prideaux 2002a), an understanding of the central position that transport occupies in the tourism industry is important if the future evolution of destinations is to be comprehensively understood.

This chapter looks at the impact of transport on destination development but the term destination is not clearly defined in the literature either in a spatial sense, functional sense, political sense, or economic sense. Often, the literature uses the terms destination and resorts interchangeably. Thus, a seaside tourist city such as Brighton in the U.K. is referred to as a resort in the literature emanating from the U.K. but a similar size seaside tourist city in Australia and parts of Asia is often referred to as a destination. Given this lack of definitional clarity this chapter combines two views of destinations. The broad view refers to any definable spatial area where tourism is an established industry and draws visitors from regions or countries outside that destination. A destination in this sense can be as small as a seaside village or mountain vacation town or, as large as a region, state or nation. The second view of destinations is much narrower and combines the European concept of resort used to describe a specific urban area specialising in tourism, with the term

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destination when used to describe a similar area, to create the term resort destination. Used in this sense, the term resort destination describes a specific urban locality that specialises in tourism and is defined by the functions that are provided including: a designated area set aside for human leisure consumption; provision of leisure services for short term visitors; contain a range of touristic attractions; and provide commercial accommodation. Irrespective of size, the destination’s visitors must travel from their home, in an origin or generating region, to the destination via some form of transport.

To add clarity to the concept of destination and the variety of senses in which the term is applied in the literature and in practice, Figure 6.1, The Destination Classification Matrix, was developed. The Matrix illustrates destinations on a spatial scale commencing with a resort and growing in scale to encompass a continent. On the vertical axis destinations are identified according to their political boundaries. In many areas of the world political boundaries transect spatial areas that exhibit the features of a tourism destination (Timothy 1995, 2001). Thus, Niagara Falls is divided between the USA and Canada in the same manner that Victoria Falls sits astride the Zambian-Zimbabwe border.

In the destination matrix the following classes of destinations are identified by political and spatial boundaries. The designation of destination status to a specific tourism orientated locality is often a function of the perspective of the visitor or tour operator. Thus, in Japan, France may be marketed as a single destination. The French, however, would see France as a series of discrete destinations.

**Resort Destinations**

These are the smallest destinations and include towns and cities that focus on beach, spa, lake, mountain, marine, heritage, city life (Hong Kong and Singapore) and ski tourism.
Region/District  Regions and districts are areas bound together by at least one physical or cultural characteristic that differentiates them from surrounding areas. For example, the Lake District of the U.K. is a region where the physical landscape (i.e. a series of lakes) is the focus of tourist activity. In the USA, Washington, DC is a city which comprises the District of Columbia and is a separate political region/entity from the states that surround it.

State/Province  This term refers to a nation, or country, and in some cases to political units within a nation. Thus, while the USA is a state, it is also comprised of 50 states. In Australia, also a state, there are sub-national entities known as states while in Canada sub-national units of this structure are known as provinces.

Nation  From the perspective of a foreigner visitor a nation may be seen as a single destination. While small nations may have only one major focus of tourism activity, Monaco for example, larger nations may be generally regarded as having many destinations.

Continent  The Antarctic is a continent and usually regarded as a destination. Australia falls in to a similar category for many non-Australian visitors.

The Role of Transport

In the twenty-first century travel has become safe, comfortable, fast and relatively inexpensive. The journey from a point of origin to a destination has become routine and if complaints are made it is often about the comfort of seats or the service quality offered by transport operators. But travel was not always safe, fast, comfortable or inexpensive and history has left us many accounts of the adventures and hardships that early travellers had to endure as they explored the world in the pre-contemporary era (Prideaux 2002a). Historical records give us some understanding of the role played by transport in the past. Herodotus, history’s first recorded travel writer, has left us with many fascinating insights into life and travel in the Mediterranean and Middle East in the fifth century BC (Casson 1974). In the third century BC, a list of the Seven Wonders of the World (Casson 1974) was compiled by an unknown scholar for the travellers of that era. Most of these sites were old even in the third century BC and constituted the icons of the contemporary traveller of that era. In the Christian Bible a harrowing account of sea travel in the Mediterranean was recorded by the Apostle Paul (1984 edn) (Acts of the Apostles, Chapter 27). Prideaux (2000a) provides a detailed account of the development of transport and its impact on the development of tourism from Herodotus to the present and emphasises the significance of the transport system and its technology as a facilitator of travel in the past, in the present and also into the future.

A number of researchers have recognised that efficient transport networks are a necessary precondition for the development of the tourism industry (Abeyratne 1993; Chew 1987; Page 1999; Prideaux 2000b) and play a critical role in the development of domestic and international tourism (Teye 1992). However, the relationship between tourism and transport, and more specifically the relationship between transport and destination growth, has been largely ignored. This is surprising, however, as Prideaux (2000b) observed that the
operation of the transport system is often taken as a given and the impact that transport can exert over the shape and welfare of the tourism industry is often ignored. History illustrates the role of transport in destination development. The massive expansion of seaside resorts in nineteenth century Britain was made possible by the building of rail networks that offered fast and comfortable travel arrangements (Gilbert 1939; Kaiser & Helber 1978). In a similar manner, the enhanced mobility offered by the automobile and aeroplane underpinned the development of both domestic and international tourism in the twentieth century. Chew (1987) described the impact of railway, cars and planes as the three transport revolutions that shaped tourism.

The role of transport in destination growth can be measured from a number of perspectives that involve consideration of the location of origin and destination regions, the transport infrastructure that is required to connect them and contemporary economic production systems. From an origin perspective, distance and the type of transport services that connect the origin to the destination are important factors and can be described by application of the concept of peripherality. From a destination perspective, the distance that separates it from the various origin markets that it draws visitors from will have a significant impact on the structure of the destination’s infrastructure and the classification of visitor segments that it services. From another perspective the mass tourism phenomenon of the twentieth century, and the sand and sun destinations that characterise mass tourism, was underpinned by a juxtaposition of new transport technology and Fordist patterns of production and consumption. In the future emerging forms of tourism (Torres 2002) such as neo-Fordist tourism described as niche market mass tourism and post-Fordist tourism described as specialised/individualised niche mass tourism will become more popular and require new responses by the transport sector.

The Origin Perspective

The structure, operation and role of peripheries have attracted some attention in the tourism literature and is a suitable concept around which to commence a discussion of the place of transport in destination development. Essentially, a periphery is a spatial concept that measures the location of a point of interest in a remote location by the distance, or perception of distance, that separates it from the core. In tourism, the core is taken to be a tourism generating region and the further the periphery is from the core the more difficult it is to encourage flows of visitors from the core to the periphery. Periphery can be determined by a number of factors including accessibility, distance, visitor perceptions and scale. Researchers, including Oppermann (1993), Pearce (1995) and Weaver (1998), have developed a range of interpretations of the concept including an international core-periphery dynamic, an internal core-internal periphery dynamic (Weaver 1998), “plantation tourism model” (Weaver 1988) and the distinction between formal and informal tourism space (Oppermann 1993).

As transport technology has reduced travel times and costs, the concept of periphery has changed and areas that were once regarded as inaccessible have become accessible. Frontier regions such as the Antarctic, once the preserve of explorers and well-funded expeditions, now attract a limited number of travellers although travel remains expensive.
and difficult and for travellers without either the time or funds required to travel to this region, it remains a periphery. Before the introduction of commercial jet passenger services, countries in Asia and the Caribbean lay in Europe’s periphery. This is no longer the case for many Asian and Caribbean destinations where suitable transport infrastructure has been established to minimise the time and cost of travel from the origin region to the destination region. Where adequate transport infrastructure has not been established the constraints of periphery remain. Thus, while Beijing is directly accessible from many European capital cities, Tibet, over which many China-Europe flights pass, remains a difficult and expensive locality to travel to. Factors that determine the scale or degree of the periphery from the core include actual distance, perceived distance and the cost of travel.

Figure 6.2 illustrates the impact of transport as a factor that influences travel decisions by reducing the degree of peripherality of a destination through enhanced transport infrastructure.

In Figure 6.2, the horizontal axis represents the distance of travel while the vertical axis represents the cost of travel. The visitor origin point is represented by Point A and points H, G and F represent destinations that receive visitors from A. Discretionary expenditure is represented by DE while accommodation cost is represented by AD. Tourist may substitute between these expenditure categories. For example, a tourist may trade expenditure on discretionary goods and services (such as shopping, tours and entertainment) for superior accommodation. EC represents transport access costs which can be grouped into three categories:
• The actual fare cost;
• Time taken to travel from the origin to the destination (where the individual places a cost on the time taken to travel between the origin and destination); and
• The cost of comfort (an example in rail travel is first class air vs. economy seats).

Because transport costs increase with distance from an origin point they are treated as a variable cost. In Figure 6.2, CC₁ represents a maximum personal holiday budget. For the purpose of this chapter, CC₁ is assumed to represent the travel budget of all travellers from origin A but in reality each individual will have their own unique budget which will determine their individual travel decisions. In this example, travellers to destinations G and F have two travel options with ET₁ being the least expensive while ET is the most expensive. Travellers to H have no options of this nature and because of the structure of the transport system servicing the destination, incur the higher transport cost T₂ which is greater than the maximum holiday budget CC₁. Although G and F are physically more distant they are cheaper to travel to. Tourists travelling to destination G have the option of selecting the least expensive transport option and reallocating the savings to other classes of expenditure. Travel to destination F is affordable if mode T₁ is used but not if mode T is used. Because of the high cost of travel, destination H is unlikely to attract visitors unless they can increase their maximum travel budget. This example illustrates the significance of transport in travel decision making. Thus, while H is physically closer to the origin point, it occupies a peripheral position because of the high access cost compared to more distant, but cheaper to access, destinations G and F.

This paradox is explained by viewing peripheries as more than distance-based and as suggested by Prideaux (2002b: 381), the concept of periphery should include a range of factors including “distance, accessibility, visitor perceptions, and scale which can be measured from slightly peripheral to very peripheral, or exhibit location characteristics which describe the periphery as near or far.” In addition to these factors, the concept of origin push and destination pull should also be considered. Thus, while a destination may be physically closer to the origin, a destination may be perceptually more peripheral because of the cost or difficulty of access. The location of a destination in either a near or far periphery will effect investment decisions, marketing strategies, public subsidies and management strategies. There is also a relationship between the major attractions of a destination and the degree of its remoteness. As the degree of remoteness increases the scale and uniqueness of its attractions must be enhanced if the destination is to attract visitors who might otherwise confine their travel to less remote sites.

A further explanation for the paradox of H’s peripheral status relative to the location of origins and other destinations can be found in the concept of push and pull (Dann 1977; Laws 1995). Push factors refer to the combination of factors that encourage travel beyond the locality where potential tourists live and work. As personal income increases, and this can be measured on a national scale by GDP, there is an increased propensity to travel although other factors including personal and national security, length of annual holidays, and attitudes to travel may be constraints. In destinations, a range of pull factors encourage visitors to select one specific destination over its competitors. Pull factors include the uniqueness of a destination’s attractions, its cost structure, security, image and ease of access. In the case of destination H, if its attractions were considered to be unique
or even iconic in nature, tourists may be encouraged to increase the size of their travel budgets beyond CC1 to fund travel. This could be achieved in a number of ways including sacrificing other non travel expenditure, or by changing their holiday cycle from one trip per year to a trip cycle of one trip every two years. Either of these strategies enables H to become affordable and the magnitude of its pull factors become sufficiently large, at least for some tourists, to outweigh the negative impact of its peripheral status.

The Destination Perspective

The distance of origin markets from a destination also has a significant impact on destination development regardless of the destination’s spatial or physical size. The Resort Development Spectrum (RDS) developed by Prideaux (2000d) is a multi dimensional model that takes into account the impact of location of the resort destination relative to its major origin markets by measuring the relationship between the expansion of destination infrastructure, the local economy and the emergence of market segments. The RDS identifies the role of economic forces, origin markets and infrastructure on growth and argues that the resort destination’s micro-economy influences the investment decisions made by suppliers, and through these decisions, the path and format that growth will take over time. Commencing with visitors from nearby areas, the RDS traces the impact of expansion into new market sectors (see Figure 6.3) on the resort destination’s infrastructure including transport, hotels and commercial facilities (see Figure 6.4). The markets that a resort destination may target include regional, national and international. Prideaux (2000d) observed that the capacity of resorts is essentially a locality specific factor and is determined by the juxtaposition of a number of elements including the availability of land, specific environment factors, the aspirations of the host community, perceptual (psychological) components, sustainability, public sector responses, infrastructure, provision of support services and transport access’.

Figure 6.3: The resort development spectrum. Source: Prideaux (2000a).
| Major Characteristics       | Phase 1 Local Tourism                  | Phase 2 Regional Tourism                          | Phase 3 National Tourism                          | Phase 4 International Tourism                      |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------|
| **Tourist Types**           | * Locals                               | As per phase 1 plus                              | As per phase 2 plus                              | As per phase 3 plus                                |
|                             | * People from nearby towns              | * Tourists travelling from areas within the state or region | * Tourist who travel long distances from all parts of the nation | * Emphasis on international tourism               |
|                             |                                        | * Possibly limited interstate tourist traffic passing through the area on route to a larger resort | * State capital cities become primary markets |                                                   |
| **Accommodation**           | * Beach houses                          | * Unit and apartment development occurs          | * 3-4 star hotels                                | * International hotel chains establish resort hotels |
|                             | * Caravan parks                         | * 2-3 star resort motels appear                  | * Integrated resorts                             | * Numerous 5 star hotels which may incorporate golf courses, casinos and stage shows |
|                             | * Licensed hotels (not resorts)         | * Caravan parks still important                   | * Internationally known hotel chains commence hotel development i.e. Hilton, Ramada  |
|                             | * Inexpensive motels                    | * Outside investment commences in hotels          | *                                                |                                                   |
|                             | * Backpackers Hostels                   |                                                  |                                                  |                                                   |
| **Marketing**               | * Undertaken by local progress and/or Tourist associations | * Establish professionally staffed promotion body | * May attract significant government funds       | * Very professional approach                      |
|                             | * Limited funds                         | * Joint campaigns with state & local government and local businesses | * Corporate advertising very significant         |                                                   |
|                             | * Limited professionalism                | * Hotels and major attractions fund significant campaigns in national media | * Well developed marketing strategy              |                                                   |
|                             | * Emphasis on selling not marketing      |                                                  |                                                  |                                                   |
| **Attractions (Major attractions are either natural or built)** | Limited to beach and nearby areas of scenic beauty such as National Parks | * First man-made attractions built, generally on a small scale. | * Large theme Parks or similar attractions will be constructed. These attractions will feature active rather than passive participation | * The focus of attention will shift from the beach to non-beach activities such as theme parks and up market shopping |
| **Transport**               | * Very limited in scope                 | * Road access is significantly enhanced          | * Scheduled interstate air services commenced by national operators or affiliates | * International air services commence |
|                             | * Main mode is road                     | * Other modes may be assisted by infrastructure development | * Road access continue to be improved i.e. Freeways | * Other modes continue to be developed |
|                             | * Possibly some traffic from rail if the resort is located close to rail services | * Limited (if any) scheduled air services operated by local airlines | * Other modes may be significantly redeveloped, i.e. sea terminals & rail services | * Depending on distance to source markets, air may become the dominant mode, |
|                             | * No scheduled air services              |                                                  |                                                  |                                                   |
| **Policy**                  | * Generally ignored by local government | * Tourism maybe incorporated in Local government policy documents | * The need for policy by local and state authorities becomes apparent | * The health of the resort becomes the concern for policy makers at all levels of government |
| **Retailing**               | * Little specific tourism shopping       | * Emergence of specific tourism shopping          | * Shopping complexes built to service the tourism trade | * Opening of duty free shops, emphasis on international brand shopping experiences |

Figure 6.4: Changes in resort infrastructure over time. *Source:* Prideaux (2000a).
The rate of growth of resort destinations varies and depends on the ability of the resort destination to satisfy twelve key criteria, including investment in new transport infrastructure, and the distance of the resort destination from its major origin regions. In effect these criteria constitute a checklist, which if satisfied will facilitate growth or if violated will hamper growth. Other factors (Prideaux 2000b: 323) that affect the rate of growth are:

- The main tourist attractions (these usually, but not always, include both natural and built attractions);
- Ability to develop an effective and representative resort marketing authority with appropriate distribution channels;
- Success in developing new tourism generating regions and new tourism sectors through marketing;
- The support given by local authorities and local residents for tourism development;
- The time that a particular resort destination take to expand its supply side capacity;
- Carrying capacity and sustainability expressed as land available for development, availability of resources such as water, environmental factors and political factors;
- Ability to attract investment and the composition of that investment;
- The level of support given by regional, state and national governments (this may include support for marketing, building infrastructure and tax concessions);
- Impact of competing resorts;
- Changes over time in the national and international economies.

Figure 6.3 illustrates the relationship between growth and expansion into new markets over time while the impact of expansion into new markets on resort destination infrastructure is shown in Figure 6.4. Thus, expansion of the resort destination from a locality that services only a local market into a locality that services more distant markets will require construction of a range of transport infrastructure that might include highways, airports, high capacity rail lines or cruise terminals. The scope of transport infrastructure required will depend on the volume of tourists, the modes used and to some extent the pooling of infrastructure that may occur where there are several resort destinations located in close proximity.

The validity of the RSD was demonstrated (Prideaux 2000b) in Cairns and the Sunshine Coast, both in Queensland. In Cairns, the opening of the Cairns international airport was the catalyst for the expansion of the resort destination into the international market while on the Sunshine Coast, the opening of a domestic airport enabled the resort destination to expand into the Australian interstate market.

**The role of transport in the growth of Cairns as an international destination**

The development of Cairns illustrates the role of the transport system on resort destination over time while the RDS explains how new transport infrastructure enabled Cairns to expand into more distant markets. It is apparent that the opening of the Cairns International airport reduced the image of Cairns as a peripheral Australian destination and stimulated rapid growth in international tourist arrivals.
Cairns, located in the far north of Queensland, was established as a port to service the region’s mining, agricultural and pastoral industries. The scenic beauty of the town, located in the wet tropics rainforest zone, was recognised in the first part of the twentieth century but its relative isolation from the remainder of Australia and the need to travel by coastal steamer deterred many visitors. The opening of a rail link to the remainder of Australia in 1924 reduced this sense of isolation, however, Cairns still occupied a peripheral location relative to Australia’s other major regional tourism regions. The completion of an all weather road to Brisbane, the state capital, did not occur until after the Second World War. However, when constructed the highway eased Cairns isolation and encouraged a boom in intrastate drive tourism. Increased car ownership levels, the long period of post-war prosperity, granting of four weeks paid annual leave and the popularity of caravanning made the five day 2,720 kilometre return trip between Cairns and Brisbane possible.

With the growth of drive tourism a number of attractions were constructed and new motels were opened. Travel times still remained a deterrent for interstate visitors and until the introduction of jet passenger aircraft following the opening of a jet standard runway in 1965, the number of visitors from the larger southern metropolitan cities of Sydney and Melbourne were limited. Introduction of jet services ended the sense of periphery that the Cairns tourism industry had previously experienced in interstate markets and by 1982/83 interstate tourist accounted for 41.8% of all visitors. Reducing the sense of periphery also paralleled the growing strength of a range of pull factors such as new tourism products, additional hotels, golf courses and shopping facilities. The significance of air travel vs. other forms of travel can be seen in the distribution of tourists by transport mode. In 1995/96, 11.8% of intrastate visitors travelled to Cairns by air compared to 73.4% who travelled by road. In the same year, 21% of interstate visitors travelled to Cairns by road compared to 61.8% who travelled by air. In some origin markets, Sydney for example, 88.3% of visitors travelled by air (Bureau of Tourism Research 1998).

Following the success of marketing campaigns to attract interstate visitors the Cairns business community became interested in expanding into off-shore markets. A report produced by PATA (Pacific Asia Travel Association) in 1981 identified the potential for international tourism, provided that an international airport was constructed. Successful lobbying of the Queensland and Federal Governments by the Cairns business community resulted in the Cairns Port Authority being authorised to rebuild the Cairns domestic airport into an international airport. Capitalising on the strong relationships previously established with the Queensland Tourist and Travel Corporation (QTTC) and the Australian Tourist Commission (ATC), familiarisation visits by key interstate and international buyers, travel writers (Commonwealth Department of Local Government and Administrative Services 1986) and journalists, and success in attracting members of the Inbound Tour Operators Association (IOTA) to visit Cairns, ensured that Cairns was featured as a destination in many overseas tour itineraries.

The opening of the Cairns International airport in 1985 allowed direct access to international markets and stimulated investment in 4 and 5 star tourist hotels, golf courses and other attractions (Prideaux 2000d). By 1996/97 international visitors accounted for 43% of visitor arrivals in Cairns, up from 4.0% in 1983/84. A number of airlines, including Qantas, began hubbing some of their international services through Cairns reducing both flight times and costs for many Asian visitors. The Asian financial crisis of 1997 had a significant impact
on Cairns and many direct flights from Asian destinations were withdrawn or redirected through Brisbane and Sydney in the south. This action increased the time and cost of travel from Asia to Cairns thus casting it as a more peripheral destination than other competitors such as Hawaii. As a consequence, the annual growth in international passenger arrivals and departures between 1995/96 and 2000/01 averaged 0.9% compared to 2.8% average annual growth for domestic passengers over the same period (Cairns Port Authority 2002). During this period a number of international airlines including MAS, Singapore Airlines and Garuda Indonesia ceased operating services to Cairns. One consequence of the reduction in direct flights was a fall in the percentage of international visitors to 38.6% of all visitors in 2000, although in numerical terms the number had increased from 606,000 in 1996 to 777,000 in 2000, including international visitors who arrived via domestic air services.

Figure 6.5 illustrates the rapid growth in international visitors following the opening of the international airport. Investment in facilities such as retail shopping malls, golf courses, new visitor attractions, additional land and marine tours, holiday apartments and holiday hotels to support the international market also appears to have had a spill-over effect into the domestic intrastate and interstate markets attracting additional visitors because of the expanded volume and quality of tourism products.

The loss of a number of direct international air services after the Asian financial crisis had a dampening effect on the confidence of the Cairns tourism industry, however, an announcement by Qantas that it was to base a new low cost leisure airline in the city to service the international market brought renewed confidence to the Cairns tourism industry. The airline, Australian Airlines, commenced flying economy class Boeing 767 flights from October 2002 operating under a cost structure approximately 20% less than its parent airline’s full service leisure/business configured aircraft (Ferguson 2002). Using four aircraft the new airline will increase the number of potential seats available to Cairns by approximately 170,000 per annum although some of this traffic would have previously travelled to the city via either Brisbane or Sydney.

It is apparent that the opening of the international airport encouraged investors to construct a range of new facilities that appealed to the international as well as the domestic
market, thus laying the foundation for the growth of both domestic and international tourism after 1985. Reduction of flights after the Asian financial crisis and the commencement of flights by Australian Airlines in 2002 illustrates the considerable impact that changes to the structure of a destination’s transport system can exert over tourist volumes.

Conclusion

Although often overlooked, it is apparent that the transport system can exert a major influence over the shape and direction that tourist development takes in a destination. As the distance between destinations and origins increase, the significance of transport, including both its cost and availability, becomes increasingly important. This chapter has combined a number of theories and models to explain this relationship. While there are numerous factors that influence travel decisions and destination choice, the options for travel that are provided by the transport system will either facilitate or impede any travel decision. As transport technology has improved, travel has become safer, faster, more comfortable and cheaper than at any time in the past. New transport technologies can be expected to continue this trend in future but for a destination to take advantage of existing and proposed technologies, it must have available to it an appropriate transport infrastructure.

The chapter has demonstrated the role of transport technology and enhanced transport infrastructure in overcoming the barriers imposed by periphery. Of course the availability of transport is not a panacea for tourism development as a destination must also have other tourist related infrastructure as well as a range of attractions that will generate interest by potential travellers. Transport’s role is therefore one that lies in the background, noticed only when it is inadequate to the task or falls short of the expectations of the traveller and the destination.

For planners, knowledge of the limitations imposed by inadequate transport is essential as is knowledge of the relationship between transport and its supporting infrastructure, distance, access cost, and destination attractiveness. Just as there are examples of transport and its supporting infrastructure stimulating tourism development there are other examples of where the provision of these facilities has not provided the desired stimulus. For example, Biak, located in the Pacific Ocean north of Irian Jaira was identified as a site for the development of a major integrated tourism development along the lines of the Nusa Dua model (Prideaux 2000e) and a major hotel and international standard airport were constructed. The failure of Indonesia’s Garuda Airline to operate direct international flights to Biak because of the inability of the project to attract customers resulted in low occupancy rates and the failure of the area to gain other tourism investment (BTE 1999).

In the opening paragraph to this chapter it was stated that an understanding of the central position of transport in destination development is essential if the destination growth process is to be comprehensively understood. In the following discussion many of the key relationships between transport and destination development were discussed. In the future there is an urgent need to pursue further research into the relationship between transport and destination development. This research might include: ongoing analysis into the impact of new technologies; developing more efficient transport networks to service destinations; negative impacts such as pollution, civil and military conflict and the ease
with which efficient transport systems can spread disease as recently demonstrated by the SARS (Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome) epidemic that traveled from China via Hong Kong to many countries via air travelers (Lemonick 2003); and from a more philosophical perspective the role of transport in emerging Post-Fordist, Neo-Fordist and Post Modernist patterns of tourism demand.

Note

1. Prideaux (2002b) proposed a new tourism metaphor, the Tourism Evolution Model, to describe the development of tourism from the past, to the present and into the future. The Tourism Evolution Model identifies three eras: Contemporary to describe the present era and commencing with the first organised rail tour in 1841, Pre-contemporary to describe the past and Post-contemporary to describe the future where current production systems will be replaced by new and as yet unknown production systems. Existing production systems described by the Modernist and Fordist models and their derivatives are encompassed within the Contemporary era.

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