A Study of Border Tourism and the DMZ Development in South Korea as a Peace Promoter

by

Young-Sun Shin

Submitted for the degree of MPhil

Department of Tourism
School of Management
University of Surrey

December 2005

© Young-Sun Shin 2005
ABSTRACT

This research focuses on the peace process and tourism development and cooperation between South Korea and North Korea prior to reunification. As a relatively new academic field, the development of the body of knowledge in tourism is immature. Lack of research focused on the politics of tourism, divided nations, and peace tourism, has been a drawback. It has required theoretical support from other disciplines and a methodology designed particularly for studying domestic and international tourists' perception to provide a fuller picture.

The main objective of this study is an attempt to reveal the impacts of the peace process on potential Demilitarized Zone (DMZ) tourism development. The research undertakes an in-depth investigation of potential DMZ tourism development in the two Koreas, in order to reveal the picture of past and present conditions, as well as to identify tourism potential after the future peaceful reunification of the two Koreas. Tourism experts were consulted about their anticipation of the DMZ tourism cooperation between South and North Korea for peaceful reunification, which is a focus of the tourist questionnaire in Appendix C. Further opinions on the revision of the DMZ tourism development as well as the questionnaire design were obtained through the discussions.

The data collection period stretched from May 2002 until June 2002 to avoid the potential impact of seasonality on the findings. All questionnaires were distributed within the vicinity of the DMZ areas. The substance of this empirical research was a sample of 151 responses from the domestic tourist side and 151 responses from the international tourist side. The patterns of divided nation tourism were systematically compared and analysed through both qualitative and quantitative methods. It was found that domestic tourists in the DMZ area differ from international tourists in some aspects, such as socio-demographic profiles, motivations, temporal and spatial patterns. It is recognized that the DMZ area has some very unique characteristics that might influence tourists.

The findings of the research show that tourism cooperation in the DMZ areas of South and North Korea strongly depends on the peace and political environment. Unquestionably, the perceptions and attitudes of domestic and international tourist played an important role in the DMZ areas for the research. In this study, the theoretical context of the relationship between tourism and peace was examined with its practical implication in the DMZ area. The literature demonstrates that political stability and peace may affect tourists' destination images. The general findings demonstrate that the subjects of the study view the implication of peace on tourism favourably.

This belief was further supported by the positive attitudes and perceptions held by international and domestic tourists towards peace and cooperation. It was noticed from the results of the questionnaires that in general, there is a favourable opinion on the relationship between tourism and peace, the degree to which the two Koreas peace process and even reunification has contributed, and continues to contribute to the development of tourism in the DMZ area.
## LIST OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABSTRACT</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF CONTENTS</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF TABLES</td>
<td>xi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF FIGURES</td>
<td>xiv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS</td>
<td>xvi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</td>
<td>xvii</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## PART ONE  INTRODUCTION

### CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY  
1.2. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY  
1.3. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH  
1.4. BRIEF EXPLANATION ON THE STRUCTURE  
1.5. RESEARCH PROCESS  

1
### 3.2. GENERAL PROFILE

3.2.1. Geography
3.2.2. History and Development of Key Recent Events
3.2.3. People, Religion and Language

### 3.3. ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AND NORTH KOREA

3.3.1. An Overview of South Korean Economy
3.3.2. The Significance of Tourism in South Korean Economy
3.3.3. Organisation of the North Korean Economy
3.3.4. Trends in North Korean Economic Activity
3.3.5. International Economic Relations
3.3.6. Prospect of North Korea's Economic Policy in 2000
   3.3.6.1. Economic Growth in 1999
   3.3.6.2. Economic Policy Direction of North Korea
   3.3.6.3. Economic Reunification

### 3.4. TOURISM TRENDS IN SOUTH KOREA

3.4.1. Summary of Tourism
3.4.2. Trends of Tourism Industry
3.4.3. Inbound Tourism Trends
   3.4.3.1. Principal Markets
   3.4.3.2. Purpose of Visit
   3.4.3.3. Length of Stay
3.4.4. Outbound Tourism Trends
3.4.5. Domestic Tourism
3.4.6. Development of Tourism Organisation by the Public Sector
   3.4.6.1. Past Tourism Organisation
   3.4.6.2. Activities of Tourism Organisation

### 3.5. TOURISM POLICY EVALUATION TOWARDS NORTH KOREA

3.5.1. Past Tourism Policy
3.5.2. Current Tourism Policy
3.5.3. Borderland Tourism: Mt. Geumgang Tourism Project

### 3.6. NORTH KOREA AS A TOURIST DESTINATION

3.6.1. International Tourism
3.6.2. Infrastructure
3.6.3. Tourism Superstructure
3.6.4. Government and Organisation
3.6.5. Current North Korean Tourism Development: Mt. Geumgang

### 3.7. SUMMARY

---

74
74
75
77
78
78
80
82
83
87
90
90
91
92
93
93
96
96
102
104
105
105
110
111
111
114
116
116
119
121
124
124
126
127
127
127
130
CHAPTER FOUR: DMZ DEVELOPMENT AS A BORDER TOURISM DESTINATION

4.1. INTRODUCTION 134

4.2. BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCHED AREA 136
   4.2.1. The War 136
   4.2.2. Geography and Location 137
   4.2.3. Ecological Resources 138

4.3. DMZ TOURISM DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS 141
   4.3.1. Present Tourism: DMZ and the Vicinity 141
   4.3.2. Opportunity for Regional Development-Tourist Attractions
      4.3.2.1. Battlefield Monument Tourism 147
      4.3.2.2. Ecotourism 147
      4.3.2.3. Peace park Tourism 148

4.4. DMZ TOURISM DEVELOPMENT – S.W.O.T. ANALYSIS 152
   4.4.1. Strength 152
   4.4.2. Weakness 153
   4.4.3. Opportunities 153
   4.4.4. Threats

4.5. A MODEL OF FUTURE DEVELOPMENT OF THE DMZ 153
   4.5.1. Joint Tourism Planning 153
   4.5.2. Joint Environment Management 154

4.6. SUMMARY 158

PART THREE  METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1. INTRODUCTION 163

5.2. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES 164
5.3 RESEARCH PROCESS

5.4 DATA COLLECTION METHODS
5.4.1. The Secondary Data Collection
5.4.2. The Primary Data Collection
5.4.3. Time Management for the Research

5.5. RESEARCH INSTRUMENT
5.5.1. Expert Interview Questions
5.5.1.1. Expert Interviews for the Main Research Instrument
5.5.1.2. Questionnaire Design for Tourism Experts
5.5.2. The Questionnaire Surveys
5.5.2.1. Development of Questionnaire
5.5.2.2. The Survey
5.5.3. Sample
5.5.3.1. Target Sample
5.5.3.2. Sample Size
5.5.3.3. Sampling Method
5.5.3.4. Response Rate

5.6. CODING AND DEALING WITH DATA
5.6.1. Data Preparation
5.6.2. Preliminary Analysis

5.7. LIMITATIONS

5.8. SUMMARY

CHAPTER SIX: DATA ANALYSIS FOR EXPERTS

6.1. INTRODUCTION

6.2. RESULTS OF EXPERT INTERVIEWS
6.2.1. Perceptions of Interviewees towards the Peace Process in the two Koreas
6.2.2. The Perceived Relationship between Tourism and Peace
6.2.3. Perceptions of the DMZ area Tourism Development as a Peace Promoter
6.2.4. Attitudes towards Political Instability in the DMZ area
6.2.5. Tourism Demand in the DMZ areas
6.2.6. Aspects of Tourism Cooperation of the DMZ area between South and North Korea
6.2.6.1. Bilateral Factors of Regional Cooperation
CHAPTER SEVEN: DATA ANALYSIS FOR DOMESTIC TOURISTS

7.1. INTRODUCTION

7.2. GENERAL PROFILE OF DOMESTIC TOURISTS
  7.2.1. Profile of the Respondents in Domestic Tourists
  7.2.2. Main Purpose of the Visit for Domestic Tourists
  7.2.3. Frequencies of Previous Visits to the DMZ area
  7.2.4. Type of Information Sources and Visiting Patterns
  7.2.5. Perceptions of Tourism and Peace
    7.2.5.1. Summary of the Tests
    7.2.5.2. Difference between Respondents' Profile on the Peace and Tourism Relationship
  7.2.6. Respondents Attitude to the Current Relationship between South and North Korea
  7.2.7. Future Relationship between South and North
  7.2.8. Tourism Demand in the DMZ areas
    7.2.8.1. Evaluation of the Importance of the DMZ areas Tourism Cooperation
    7.2.8.2. Relationship between the Tourism Cooperation and Respondents' Socio-economic Variables
  7.2.9. Intentions of Visiting the DMZ area in the future
  7.2.10. Analysis of the Open-ended Questions

7.3. SUMMARY
CHAPTER EIGHT: DATA ANALYSIS FOR INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS AND COMPARISON WITH DOMESTIC TOURISTS

8.1. INTRODUCTION

8.2. GENERAL PROFILE OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS

8.2.1. Profile of the Respondents in International Tourists
8.2.2. Main Purpose of the Visit for International Tourists
8.2.3. Information for Travelling to the DMZ area
8.2.4. Past Experience and Patterns
8.2.5. International Tourists' Attitude on the Present Relationship between South and North Korea
8.2.6. International Tourists' Attitude on the Future Relationship between South and North Korea
8.2.7. International Tourists' Perceptions of Tourism and Peace
8.2.8. Types of the DMZ Tourism Development
8.2.9. Importance Ranking of the DMZ Tourism Development Considerations in the Future
8.2.10. Intentions of Visiting the DMZ area in the Future
8.2.11. Analysis of the Open-ended Questions
8.2.12. Other Conclusions

8.3. DIFFERENCE BETWEEN DOMESTIC AND INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS IN TOURISM TRENDS AND PATTERNS

8.3.1. Patterns and Comparisons of Socio-demographic
8.3.2. Statistical Tests
8.3.3. Reasons for Visiting the DMZ areas
  8.3.3.1. Patterns and Comparisons
  8.3.3.2. Statistical Tests
8.3.4. Forms of Visit the DMZ areas
  8.3.4.1. Patterns and Comparison
  8.3.4.2. Statistical Tests
  8.3.4.3. Typology of the DMZ
8.3.5. Repeat Visitation and Information Sources
  8.3.5.1. Repeat Visitation
  8.3.5.2. Information Sources
8.3.6. Comparing Perceptions of Peace and Tourism Relationship between Tourists
8.3.7. Tourism Development Potential with the DMZ area
8.3.8. Attitudes towards Political Instability in the DMZ areas
8.3.9. Comparison between Domestic and International Tourists: Intentions of Visiting the DMZ area
CHAPTER NINE: CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1. INTRODUCTION

9.2. THE RESULTS OF FINDING (PART ONE)

9.2.1. The Comparison of Domestic and International Tourists of Divided Nation Tourism in the DMZ area

9.2.2. Limitations

9.3. DISCUSSION OF THE MAIN FINDINGS (PART TWO)

9.3.1. The Main Body of This Research

9.3.2. The DMZ area as a Tourist Destination for Future Korean Reunification

9.4. RESEARCH CONTRIBUTIONS

9.4.1. Addition to Existing Knowledge about the Politics of Tourism and Peace Tourism

9.4.2. Methodological Issues

9.5. RECOMMENDATION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH (PART THREE)

APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX C

BIBLIOGRAPHY
LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1. Examples of the Partition/Division Process Worldwide 21
Table 2.2. An Outline for Modern Partitions 26
Table 2.3. Dimensions of Political Instability 33
Table 2.4. Examples of Countries where Tourism has been affected by Terrorism or Political Unrest 39
Table 2.5. Destinations whose Tourism Sectors are Currently affected by Political Instability and Political Violence 41
Table 3.1. Korea: Economic Indicators, 1963-1995 80
Table 3.2. Economic Indicators of North Korea (1991-1994) 86
Table 3.3. North Korean Trade Volume, 1990-1998 87
Table 3.4. North Korea’s Largest Trade Partners 88
Table 3.5. Intra-Korean Trade by Years 89
Table 3.6. International Tourist Arrivals, Receipts and Expenditures in Korea (1971 – 2003) 101
Table 3.7. Visitor Arrivals in Korea from Top 10 Tourist Generating Countries (1991 – 1996, 1999) 103
Table 3.8. Visitor Arrivals to Korea by Purpose of Visit 104
Table 3.9. Visitor Arrivals to Korea by Gender 104
Table 3.10. Visitor Arrivals to Korea by Age 104
Table 3.11. Average length of Stay in Korea in 1996 by Market (nights) 105
Table 3.12. Korea’s Favourable Overseas Travel Destinations 109
Table 3.13. The 1960’s: The Birth of Korean Tourism 112
Table 3.14. The 1970’s 112
Table 3.15. The 1980’s 113
Table 3.16. The 1990’s 113
Table 3.17. Korea: Export/Import Trade Balance and Tourism Balance 115
Table 3.18. Visitors to Mt. Geumgang 123
Table 3.19 Foreign Visitors to North Korea, 1987-1998 126
Table 4.1. Different Areas of DMZ and Tourist Sites 142
Table 4.2. Existing International Parks 149
Table 4.3. Examples of Potential (Proposed) International Parks 150
Table 5.1. A Comprehensive set of Advantages and Disadvantages of Survey Methods of the Research 170
Table 5.2. Research Schedule 173
Table 7.1. Demographic Characteristics of Domestic Respondents 216
Table 7.2. Main Purpose of Visiting the DMZ areas 218
Table 7.3. Number of Visits to the DMZ area 220
Table 7.4. Source of Information for Visiting the DMZ area 221
Table 7.5. Visiting Patterns 222
Table 7.6. Domestic Tourists’ Perceptions about Peace and Tourism 225
Table 7.7. Summary of Statistical Tests between Tourists’ Perceptions and Respondents’ Profiles 226
Table 7.8. Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship and Respondents’ Gender 228
Table 7.9. Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship and Respondents' Age
Table 7.10. Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship and Respondents' Place of Resident
Table 7.11 Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship and Respondents' Occupation
Table 7.12. Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship and Respondents' Education
Table 7.13. Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship and Respondents' Income
Table 7.14. Present Relationship between South and North Korea
Table 7.15 Future Relationship between South and North Korea
Table 7.16. Forms of the DMZ Tourism Development in the Future
Table 7.17. One-Sample T-test
Table 7.18. Relationship between the DMZ area Tourism Development in the Future and Respondents' Socio-economic Variables
Table 7.19. Tests of the DMZ Tourism Development Demand and Respondents' Gender
Table 7.20. Tests of the DMZ Tourism Development Demand and Respondents' Age
Table 7.21. Tests of the DMZ Tourism Development Demand and Respondents' Education
Table 7.22. Tests of the DMZ Tourism Development Demand and Respondents' Place of Resident
Table 7.23. Tests of the DMZ Tourism Development Demand and Respondents' Income
Table 7.24. Tests of the DMZ Tourism Development Demand and Respondents' Occupation
Table 7.25. Chi-square Tests of the DMZ area Visiting Patterns, Intention of Future Visiting, Intention of Visiting after opening, Visiting North Korea after reunification and Recommending the DMZ area to Others
Table 7.26. Main Reason for Visiting North Korea after Opening the DMZ or Korean reunification
Table 8.1. Visitor Arrivals by Nationality & Purpose of Visit (VFR), 1994
Table 8.2. Demographic Characteristics of International Respondents
Table 8.3. International Tourists' Main Purpose of the Visit to the DMZ area
Table 8.4. Motivation for Travelling to the DMZ area
Table 8.5. Number of Visit to the DMZ area
Table 8.6. Visiting Patterns
Table 8.7. Respondents' Attitude on the Present Relationship between South and North Korea
Table 8.8. Future Relationship between South and North Korea
Table 8.9. International Tourists' Perceptions
Table 8.10. Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship and Respondents' Nationality
Table 8.11. Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship and
Table 8.12. Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship and Respondents’ Age 264
Table 8.13. Tourism Demand in the DMZ area 265
Table 8.14. Importance of the DMZ Tourism Development 266
Table 8.15. Relationship between the DMZ area Tourism Development in the Future and Respondents’ Socio-economic Variables 268
Table 8.16. Tests of the DMZ Tourism Development Demand and Respondents’ Gender 268
Table 8.17. Tests of the DMZ Tourism Development Demand and Respondents’ Age 268
Table 8.18. Tests of the DMZ Tourism Development Demand and Respondents’ Nationality 269
Table 8.19. T-test of the Mean differences between the sample speaking English and Japanese 269
Table 8.20. Chi-square Test of the DMZ area Visiting Patterns 275
Table 8.21. Main Reason for Visiting North Korea after opening the DMZ area or Korean Reunification 276
Table 8.22. Main Reason for Revisiting South Korea after opening the DMZ area or Korean Reunification 277
Table 8.23. Chi-square Statistics for Socio-demographic Characteristics 283
Table 8.24. Purpose of Visiting by Tourists 285
Table 8.25. Crosstable of Purpose of Visiting and Tourists Groups 285
Table 8.26. Visiting Patterns for Two Tourist Groups 287
Table 8.27. Characteristics of Repeat Visitation by Respondents 291
Table 8.28. Information Sources by Respondents 294
Table 8.29. Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship between Tourists 296
Table 8.30. Ranking of the DMZ Potential Tourism Development in the Future 299
Table 8.31. The DMZ Potential Tourism Development in the Future 300
Table 8.32. The DMZ area as a Dangerous Tourist Destination 303
Table 8.33. Fulfillment of the Hypothesis 304
# LIST OF FIGURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Figure 1.1</td>
<td>Study Framework</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 1.2</td>
<td>The Research Process</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2.1</td>
<td>Five Stages in the Relation between Partitioned States</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2.2</td>
<td>Tourist Flows in Quasi-states</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2.3</td>
<td>Making the Tourism-political Instability Theory</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2.4</td>
<td>Political Instability and Perceptual Pattern Determination</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2.5</td>
<td>Political Instability, Violence and the Imagemaking Process</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2.6</td>
<td>Model of International Tourism Decision-Making Process</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2.7</td>
<td>Boundary Permeability</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2.8</td>
<td>Four Paradigms of Borderlands</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2.9</td>
<td>Development of Crossborder Cooperation along Borders in Transition</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 3.1</td>
<td>Tourist Arrivals in Korea (1971-2001)</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 3.2</td>
<td>Tourist Receipts and Expenditures (1991-2001)</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 3.3</td>
<td>South Korea Inbound Tourism, 1999, by Sub-Region</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 3.4</td>
<td>Korean Departures by Year (1987-2001)</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 3.5</td>
<td>Korea Departures by Year (1991-2001)</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 3.6</td>
<td>Korean Departures by Purpose of Trip, 1996</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 3.7</td>
<td>Korea in the Big Power Field</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 3.8</td>
<td>Mt. Kumgang</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4.1</td>
<td>The DMZ Map</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4.2</td>
<td>The DMZ area</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4.3</td>
<td>Different Parts of the DMZ</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 5.1</td>
<td>A Model of Research Design</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7.1</td>
<td>Tourist Arrivals by Month (1999-2001)</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7.2</td>
<td>Main Purpose of Visiting the DMZ areas</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7.3</td>
<td>Frequency of Visiting the DMZ area</td>
<td>220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7.4</td>
<td>Source of Information for Visiting the DMZ areas</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7.5</td>
<td>Visiting Patterns</td>
<td>223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7.6</td>
<td>Present Relationship between South and North Korea</td>
<td>232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7.7</td>
<td>Future Relationship between South and North Korea</td>
<td>233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7.8</td>
<td>Forms of the DMZ areas Tourism Cooperation and Development in the Future</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7.9</td>
<td>Path Analysis for the DMZ area for Domestic Tourists</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7.10</td>
<td>Revisit the DMZ areas in the Future</td>
<td>241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7.11</td>
<td>Recommend the DMZ area to Others</td>
<td>242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7.12</td>
<td>Revisit after opening the DMZ area</td>
<td>242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7.13</td>
<td>Visit North Korea after reunification</td>
<td>242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8.1</td>
<td>Dominant Nationalities of Tourists in Korea (1999-2001)</td>
<td>254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8.2</td>
<td>International Tourists’ Main Purpose of the Visit to the DMZ area</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8.3</td>
<td>Average Monthly Temperature</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8.4</td>
<td>Motivation for Travelling to the DMZ area</td>
<td>257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8.5</td>
<td>Visiting Patterns</td>
<td>259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8.6</td>
<td>Respondents' Attitude on the Present Relationship between South and North Korea</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8.7</td>
<td>Respondents’ Attitude on the Future Relationship between South and North Korea</td>
<td>261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8.8</td>
<td>Importance of the DMZ areas Tourism Cooperation in the Future</td>
<td>267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8.9</td>
<td>Path Analysis for the DMZ area for International Tourists</td>
<td>271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8.10</td>
<td>Revisit the DMZ areas in the Future</td>
<td>273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8.11</td>
<td>Recommendation of the DMZ areas</td>
<td>273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8.12</td>
<td>Revisit it after opening the DMZ area</td>
<td>273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8.13</td>
<td>Visit North Korea after Reunification</td>
<td>274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8.14</td>
<td>Visit South Korea after Reunification</td>
<td>274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8.15</td>
<td>A Model of Tourists' Attitudes and Perceptions in the DMZ area Tourism Development for Korean Reunification</td>
<td>281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8.16</td>
<td>A Typology of the DMZ area’s Tourism</td>
<td>290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8.17</td>
<td>Information Sources’ Influence on Future Intentions</td>
<td>294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8.18</td>
<td>Comparison of Tourism Development Potential with DMZ area of Domestic and International Tourists</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 9.1</td>
<td>New Tourist Flow between the Divided Two Koreas</td>
<td>320</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANOVA</td>
<td>Analysis of Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCL</td>
<td>Civilian Control Line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMZ</td>
<td>Demilitarized Zone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DPRK</td>
<td>Democratic People's Republic of Korea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FFER</td>
<td>Farm and Forestry Ecological Resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GNP</td>
<td>Gross National Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSA</td>
<td>Joint Security Area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KATA</td>
<td>Korean Association for Travel Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KCNA</td>
<td>Korean Central News Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KINU</td>
<td>Korea Institute for National Unification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KITA</td>
<td>Korea International Travel Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KNTC</td>
<td>Korea National Tourism Cooperation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KNTO</td>
<td>Korea National Tourism Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KOTRA</td>
<td>Korea Trade Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KSO</td>
<td>Korean Statistics Office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAC</td>
<td>Military Armistice Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MCS</td>
<td>Ministry of Culture and Sports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOT</td>
<td>Ministry of Transportation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGOs</td>
<td>Non-Government Organisations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPT</td>
<td>Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSO</td>
<td>National Statistical Office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for the Social Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VFR</td>
<td>Visiting Friends or Relatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WTO</td>
<td>World Tourism Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WTTC</td>
<td>World Travel and Tourism Council</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I can do everything through him
who gives me strength.

- Philippians 4:13

The completion of this thesis owes its significance to all the people who have provided instruction and guidance during the period of my study. They are, first of all, my supervisors, Dr. E. Szivas and Professor R. Butler. I am greatly indebted to their advice and unending support. Without their help, this thesis would have been impossible. I would particularly like to stress my debt to Pastor Shim and church members for their prayers, inspiration and invaluable encouragement. I would also like to thank on this occasion my Korean friends who have been joining the bible study at the University of Surrey. I also would like to thank my parents my deepest gratitude and love, for their endless support and trust they have given me during the lengthy process of my studying of this thesis.

Last but not least, to God, my Creator and Father for His faithfulness, power, guidance, inspiration and love........... This thesis is humbly dedicated.
PART ONE

INTRODUCTION
Border Tourism and the DMZ Development in South Korea as a Peace Promoter

INTRODUCTION CH1

Peace and Tourism in Divided Nations CH2

Tourism Development and Policy in South and North Korea

- Historic View CH3
  - South Korea
  - North Korea
  - South Korea's Policy towards North Korea

Primary Research

Case Study: The DMZ Development CH4

Methodology CH5

Analysis of Findings CH6, CH7 and CH8

Conclusions, Implications and Recommendation CH9
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Throughout the world there are many nations (for example two Germanies, two Vietnams, two Yemens) that had divided in the past but not any more now or still are divided, including two Koreas, two Chinas, and Cyprus. One of the most significant trends in recent years has been the rapid increase in the number of sovereign states and other types of political units. At the beginning of the Second World War in 1939, there were about 70 independent countries; by 1970, this number had more than doubled. In 1992 there were 184 members of the United Nations, 11 non-UN nations and a further 76 or so other political units (C.I.A.: The World Factbook, 1992). All of these new states and other political units were established through the partition or division of already existing states, rather than through the occupation of uninhabited territory or exploring remote frontiers as before. Since 1945, Vietnam, Korea, Germany, China, Cyprus, and the India subcontinent have been split into two or more segments by the fortunes of war. Most had or still have problems in their political identification and their bilateral relations, and indeed the world community has been divided on the issue of their status quo for the past fifty decades. As a result, the nature and political status of these divided
Chapter One Introduction

nations have experienced unique political and social challenges from both inside and outside (Mao, 1995). Despite the often unsettled political climate which surrounds many of these political anomalies, the cultural and social linkages between the partitioned sections have often been maintained in certain forms, in particular by kinship or in general by ethnic, religious, and language linkage. Such linkages have tended to eventually foster frequent and considerable travel between these divided pairs, though such movement may politically be prohibited in the early stage of partition (Whettern, 1980).

Nowadays, tourism is a major global industry, so much so that many countries calculate Tourism Satellite Accounts as a special component of their national accounts (Beal, 2001a). According to the WTO World Tourism Barometer (2004), worldwide tourism earnings grew by an extraordinary 10.3%, a rate practically equal to that of international tourist arrivals which increased in 2003 by 10.7%. International tourism receipts grew by an exceptional 24% in Asia and the Pacific, following the 9% loss of the 2003 SARS year. However, East Asia and the Pacific continued to be the fastest growing region with a growth rate of 30%. South Korea grew nearly as fast, with a rate of 22.4, attracting 5.8 million international tourists (KNTO, 2005). Tourism has been a significant source of foreign exchange earnings for South Korea and for many other countries around the world. However, throughout the years, the growth of tourism in North Korea has lagged behind the growth of world tourism. This lag can be attributed to the political and military tensions in the region, since tourism is very sensitive to political situations and security threats. The inability to travel freely from one country to another also hinders the development of the tourism industry, as does inadequate investment and
inappropriate infrastructure, all of which apply to North Korea.

The researcher has a reason for choosing this research topic. South Korea is her native land. Therefore, the researcher would like to do something important and useful for her country. South Korea and North Korea have been divided over fifty years. North Korea has overwhelming problems and one can say that the economic problems are some of the most vital ones. The major reason for this problem is the political factors. The political situations of South and North Korea have affected tourism in the area greatly.

Nevertheless, changes in geopolitical conditions in recent years, the collapse of the Soviet Union and the end of the cold war, the South and North Korean peace treaty, all seem to point toward a new era in the world. There has been an accumulation of positive and encouraging developments toward unification in the Korean peninsula. In the light of these factors, the two Koreas face significant political and economic challenges, and tourism is among those sectors whose growth and prosperity could benefit greatly from peace. Moreover, at the turn of the new century, positive changes have taken place on the Korean peninsula in the year 2000. The reconciliation, to a great extent, has resulted from North Korea’s positive response to an external environment favourable to it. The reconciliation influences not only inter-Korean relations, but also geopolitics and the security situation in the whole region. The two Koreas have reached a mutual understanding about taking their destiny in their own hands and reducing the possibility of North-South conflict to a minimum. A new opportunity for multilateral cooperation is emerging and the existing policies of China, Russia, the US, and Japan towards Korea are being challenged.
The notion of peace between the two Koreas has encouraged governments, entrepreneurs and regional planners to conduct several scenarios and promote ideas related to tourism development in the two Koreas. These have resulted in various plans and projects that have been presented at some of the major conferences and economic summits. All shared a common aim- to encourage economic growth and to increase regional stability. The political barriers which once were dominated by the North-South tension are gradually being transformed into bridges of cooperation and economic liberalisation. The desirability of regional economic cooperation is not a new idea. Basic economic facts and observation long ago led to the conclusion that interregional economic cooperation would improve the well-being of those participating in the cooperation schemes.

Realising this neglect has led this research to focus on the relations between tourism and peace in the micro area of the DMZ. Research on the wider issue of the contribution of tourism towards world peace has been very limited. Furthermore, the political dimensions of tourism which are necessary for exploring this type of study have been neglected (Hall 1994a; Mattews 1975; Mattews and Richter 1991; Richter 1983b, 1985, 1989,1991, 1994a, 1995, 1999). Several studies that discuss the relationship between tourism and peace tend to focus upon socio-psychological aspects only rather than giving an indication on how tourism as an activity can act to improve political relations between countries.

One must also keep in mind that having a beautiful country is a good start for tourism (Al Khouri, 1999). The untapped potential for cross-border tourism between the two
Koreas macro area, and at a smaller scale in the DMZ area, have implications for the development of the economy of the entire region in areas such as, infrastructure, industry, manpower, and environment, as well as social and economic implications. The magnitude of this potential is derived from vested interests which will provide solutions to the growing demand, especially in infrastructure (transportation, communications, hotels, and the development of tourist attraction).

1.2 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The research undertakes an in-depth investigation of potential tourism development in the DMZ in order to illustrate past and present conditions, as well as to identify the chances of future peaceful reunification of the two Koreas. The study attempts to identify the full range of issues, views and attitudes towards tourism development in order to provide an understanding of the causes of the current state and to hypothesise possible future changes. It looks in particular at attempts to reveal the impacts of the peace process on potential DMZ tourism development – a region that belongs to two former belligerent countries, North and South Korea. The research focuses on the following specific objectives:

1. A review of the ongoing peace process between South-North Korea and the related tension from a tourism perspective.

2. An analysis of the key components and prospects for cooperation in tourism between South and North Korea, and an examination of the way of the development of peace tourism in the DMZ area as a peace promoter.
3. The exploration of the influence of peace through tourism in the DMZ area of South and North Korea. Essentially, how will both domestic and international tourism change, when peace, good relations, open borders and reunification come, based a survey of visitors to the DMZ area?

1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

It is appropriate to conduct research on this topic because:

(1) Tourism between divided nations appears to be of considerable size and can not continue to be ignored. There are 15 countries which have been involved in partition since the Second World War. In 1990, over 40 million visits took place between the partitioned sections. This study will improve the understanding of the overall travel pattern in Asia, and in particular, in the two Koreas.

(2) There is an indisputable need for more empirical impact of political stability and peace on the tourism industry (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998). To date there is only limited recognition of this unique type of tourism, as well as an absence of a theoretical framework for incorporating these studies. One of the underlying objectives of the proposed research is to contribute towards the creation of a more comprehensive theory of tourism flows, and thus improve research methodology from a geographical approach.

1.4 BRIEF EXPLANATION ON THE STRUCTURE

The study is an attempt to identify, measure and explain a special type of tourism and
therefore is primarily descriptive and exploratory in nature. To achieve this goal, multiple methods are employed to interpret and explain the patterns and processes of tourism between divided nations. Both qualitative and quantitative investigative approaches are adopted to define and measure the phenomena. This dissertation is structured in a way to allow it to address each subproblem in sequential order. Figure 1.1 and 1.2 provide an overview of the study framework and structure, and the research process of the dissertation. In order to present the necessary information, the dissertation is divided into 9 chapters. Chapter 1 is an introduction to the topic, where the research aim, objectives and contents are represented. In Chapter 2, it attempts to define how to categorise tourism between divided nations, in particular South and North Korea of next chapter, that is, separate political units that one were parts of a larger unit, subdivided by internal or external forces. This chapter also discusses the symbiosis between tourism and peace and its opposite war, and the likely impacts of each condition on several tourist destinations. In Chapter 3 describes tourism trends and performance in the two Koreas, and discuss the need for regional co-operation to the primary outcome of peace. Moreover, the two actors of co-operation – South and North Korea are introduced, with a brief national comparative analysis of the tourist industry. The following Chapter 4 presents the various options and suggested projects for tourism development in the DMZ areas, including a S.W.O.T. analysis, and discusses the peace initiatives relate to the future development of tourism in the DMZ areas. Chapter 5 presents the methodological framework of the research and explains the reasons for choosing expert opinion and surveys as the most appropriate methods for this kind of research. Chapter 6, Chapter 7 and Chapter 8 explore expert interviews and the questionnaire results and findings by focusing on domestic and international tourists at
the DMZ areas in South Korea and then examine the differences in the perceptions of
domestic and international tourists concerning the implication of peace process, and
tourism development and cooperation in the DMZ areas in the two Koreas for the future
reunification. Finally conclusions, implications and recommendations based on the
literature research, personal opinion, expert interviews and the field questionnaire are
drawn.

By following this organisation the author will strive to achieve the set aim by providing
a comprehensive picture of future Korean tourism development in the DMZ area, and
the implications for tourism of reunification from a theoretical and a practical point of
view.

1.5 RESEARCH PROCESS

Figure 1.1 and 1.2 show the key steps which have been followed in this research. This
process began with preliminary fieldwork and a literature review. Three main issues
have been raised, plan implementation issues, political involvement, and cooperation
and collaboration in tourism planning. After having identified the aims and objectives of
this study, a literature review that focused on subject of research was undertaken. Then,
the most important step, the field survey, was conducted. This was followed by analysis
of findings and then conclusions. Finally, implications and recommendations have also
been produced.
Figure 1.1 Study Framework

Border Tourism and the DMZ Development in South Korea as a Peace Promoter

INTRODUCTION CH1

Secondary Research

Peace and Tourism in Divided Nations CH2

Tourism Development and Policy in South and North Korea

Historic View CH3

Primary Research

South Korea

North Korea

South Korea’s Policy towards North Korea

Case Study: The DMZ Development CH4

Methodology CH5

Analysis of Findings CH6, CH7 and CH8

Conclusions, Implications and Recommendation CH9
Figure 1.2 The Research Process

**Chapter One Introduction**

**Figure 1.2 The Research Process**

- **PRELIMINARY FIELDWORK**
- **LITERATURE REVIEW**

**ISSUE RAISED**
1. Plan implementation issues
2. Political involvement
3. Co-operation and collaboration in tourism planning

**OBJECTIVE OF STUDY**
1. Discuss the relationship between tourism and peace and the effects of its opposite, war and violence, on tourism activity.
2. Introduce the ongoing peace process, and the North–South Korea tension in tourism Perspective with assessment of its benefits and limitations.
3. Analyse the key components and prospects for border Tourism and Development of the DMZ as a Peace Promoter

**CASE STUDY → DMZ AREAS**
- **FIELD SURVEY**
- **PRIMARY DATA**
  - Interview
  - Questionnaire
- **SECONDARY DATA**
  - Data published by government
  - Private sector

**ANALYSIS**

**CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATION**
PART TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW
Border Tourism and the DMZ Development in South Korea as a Peace Promoter

INTRODUCTION CH1

Secondary Research

Peace and Tourism in Divided Nations CH2

Tourism Development and Policy in South and North Korea

Historic View CH3

South Korea  North Korea  South Korea's Policy towards North Korea

Case Study: The DMZ Development CH4

Primary Research

Methodology CH5

Analysis of Findings CH6, CH7 and CH8

Conclusions, Implications and Recommendation CH9
2.1 INTRODUCTION

In 2003, international tourist arrivals reached 690 million, generating US $524 billion. By the year 2020 tourist arrivals will reach to 1.6 billion (WTO, 2005). Despite the strength of global tourist demand, many destinations especially in the third world, are facing fluctuations in tourist arrivals, due to unsafe political conditions. Richter (1992, p. 36) points at the fifth critical element ‘S’- security, in addition to four favourable ‘S’s’ (sun, sea, sand, sex) which are often seen as the core of developing a nation’s tourist appeal.

This chapter attempts to define how to categorise tourism between divided nations, in particular South and North Korea, that is, separate political units that once were parts of a larger unit, subdivided by internal or external forces. Even though this research approach to the problem stems from a concern about the problem of classification of tourism between divided nations (whether such travel is international or domestic), research examination opens up interesting perspectives on such factors as power relations in tourism and the meaning of boundaries, both national and mental. Sometimes domestic tourism may include a crossing of boundaries much more significant than international borders. This chapter discusses the symbiosis between tourism and peace and its opposite war, and the likely impacts of each condition on several tourist destinations. A turbulent security environment, caused by wars, coups d’etat, civil wars and terrorist attacks, has already demonstrated its negative impact on tourism development in many countries around the world (Taylor and Quayle, 1994). Since tourism development in any given
country is affected by the political environment, understanding the implications of various political conditions with a relationship to tourism, is important since it will assist to determine the likely outcomes on tourism activity. In other words, the purpose of this chapter is about the relationship between safety, tranquility and peace and successful tourism. More specifically, it is about the effects of the absence of safety, security and peace on domestic and international tourism throughout the world. It comes as no surprise that peace and tourism is an important topic today in the tourism literature. In particular, recent contributions to the existing body of knowledge include Tourism, Crime and International Security Issues by Pizam and Mansfeld (1996).

2.2 DIVIDED NATIONS/PARTITIONED STATES

Political partition is not a simple physical division of the earth’s surface. Partition of an existing state involves a very complicated social and political process (Henderson, Lebow and Stoessinger, 1974; Johnston, 1976). Since historical, economic, political, and geographical factors define unique conditions under which a state evolves, the end result of the partition of a state is often quite different in terms of internal structure and external relations (Minghi, 1976). The subject of partition in the field of political geography raises some interesting points. That partition is an attribute is beyond doubt, what had been a single unit on the map is divided into two or more parts. It is also a process, tracing changes through a slowly unfolding sequence of events (Hay and Johnston, 1982). However, it is a noncontinuous process and takes place over an historic time-scale. Although partition is essentially geographic, it is impossible to study only geographical facets. Today, it is impossible to study geographical partition without being familiar with approaches adopted by political scientists.

It would appear that, in the literature adjacent to geography, the problems of divided nations have been studied more by political scientists whereas the historians have had more of a tendency to deal with partition. Divided nations or partitioned states are a term which appears frequently to describe certain types of change in the world political map (Waterman, 1987). Over three decades ago, Gottmann produced an exploratory essay on
the political partitioning of the world in which he considered how symbols and movement (iconography and accessibility) combined to shape political authority and limit it within a constantly fluid world (Gottmann, 1952). In the spirit of Gottmann’s work, this chapter attempts to examine partition as a modern political geographical attribute and process. In this sense, the aim of this research is to contribute to a better understanding of partition in the 21st century where the forces of nationalism, self-determination, ideological dominance and power politics interact. As much of the appreciation of modern trends in partition is linked to nationalism and social ideologies, acceptance of these as major realigning forces at work in the international system of states is essential.

Moreover, the political map of the world has changed dramatically over the past half century, and one of the major characteristics of this change has been the tremendous increase in the number of political units which have been established. In the last decade in particular, events such as the break-up of the Communist bloc-up and the disintegration of Yugoslavia have resulted in the creation of many more states, and in a few cases, the unification of previously divided states. Not all of the new political units which have appeared have achieved global recognition, some have been ostracised on the basis of the method of their creation, for example, the Turkish Republic of North Cyprus, and others, for example Taiwan, have not been granted recognition as a result of pressure from the remaining parts of the original nation (Butler and Mao, 1996). Irrespective of the origins of the processes of partition or reunification, the results frequently have significant impacts upon travel between the partitioned parts of states, and between these units and conventional states (Waterman, 1987). These impacts are equally significant upon tourist travel in such a situation.

This section discusses partition in relation to several ideas about states and nations, By examining some fundamental questions concerning partition and analysing critically some conceptual frameworks that have been used in the study of partitioned states, a new outline to aid in understanding modern partitions is presented. Afterwards, it uses issues arising from the partition of political units, with examples of political developments in
some countries providing the specific context, and presenting some of the results of these effects on tourism.

2.2.1 States and Nations

History shows us that few European states have preserved their political boundaries intact and without change for many reasonable length of time. Even in island states, although boundaries may remain constant, allegiances may have altered. In this context, Pounds and Ball (1964) showed some 20 years ago the lack of stability in political boundaries, although it should be noted that boundaries are admittedly more prone to change than the states which they envelop. All this prompts a tendency towards an artificial stability in the world political map. Nevertheless, the trend has been towards flux rather than stability.

On the one hand, it is obvious that where clearly identifiable nations are present, clearly separated by distinctive geographical divides or where one nation is obviously dominant, the problem of nation-state definition is not so acute. On the other hand, in reality, when there is an admixture of groups identifying themselves as nations and having political geographical aspirations, then the need to create a state for each one takes on a different complexion (Crick, 1985).

2.2.2 Partition

‘Partition’ might arise from the fact that it is a political act with several different consequences, ranging from the geographical, cultural and social through the economic and the administrative (Wilcox, 1964; Haupman, 1969a; 1969b; Hess, 1969; Rhode, 1969; Singh, 1974; Johnston, 1976; Tinker, 1977; Memon, 1980). Each of these can produce very tangible effects so that the political origins of partition are overshadowed by the resulting side-effects. Only a small literature relating to partition in its political-geographical sense exists and most of this is case-specific (Spate, 1947, 1948; McCune, 1949; Gottmann, 1952; Ahmad, 1953; Mayfield, 1955; Pitt, 1956; Jones, 1960; Melamid,
1960; Heslinga, 1962; Pounds, 1962, 1964; Michel, 1967; Johnston, 1973; Minghi, 1976; Waterman, 1984; Perry, 1985; Pringle, 1985). Only Pounds (1964), Minghi (1976) and Waterman (1984) among geographers have attempted to place the term in a general framework, although the political scientist Stulz (1979) has done so with some success. Indeed, some two decades ago, Pounds (1964) even pointed out that an adequate dictionary definition for the word is lacking.

Partition assumed a political meaning in the 18th century (Fraser, 1984). Until the publication in 1984 of the third supplement to the Oxford English Dictionary, only two of the definitions offered could be considered useful to political geographers and, even then, only if the scale were altered to encompass the territory rather than real property. These definitions were:

1. ‘Each of the parts into which any whole is divided, as by boundaries or lines-a portion-part-division or section.’
2. ‘In a legal sense-a division of real property, especially lands between joint tenants or tenants common; a judicial decree or private act of parliament by which co-tenancy or co-ownership is abolished and their individual interests are separated; a division into severalty.’

The OED Supplement (1984) added a rider to the former definition by stating categorically ‘especially the division of a country into two or more nations; specifically (a) the division of Ireland into Northern Ireland and the Irish Republic; (b) the division of the Indian subcontinent into India and Pakistan in 1947’. It would thus appear that partition is division and that a state (country) is a nation. More adequate definitions have been provided in dictionaries devoted to political science. Partition is variously:

The division of territory between two or more sovereign entities. Partition can involve an entire state, a portion thereof, or an area that does not have the status of statehood. Partition may be imposed by a powerful state upon a weaker one by war or by threat of war. It might also occur as a result of mutual agreement or as a method of peaceful settlement offered by a third state or
international organisation, as in mediation or arbitration. Partition may be determined by political elites or by plebiscites or other forms of self-determination (Plano et al., 1973).

or

The political division of a territory into autonomous sections, with or without migration of the peoples resident there, in order to establish two governments. This may occur as a result of outside belligerency or influence (as in the partition of Germany), as part of a reorganisation of government following the departure of a colonial regime (as in India), or as a result of internal unrest, perhaps also aided and fomented from outside (as in the partition of Cyprus). In the later two cases it may involved irredentism or a desire for modes of government that recognise cultural, social or racial bonds which exist independently (Scruton, 1984).

At this juncture, it is necessary to make a distinction between partition, as a modern 20th century political geographical process and events which took place before and even during the present century. Partitioning may reflect administrative convenience, political differences or historical accident. When he goes on to note that partitioning leads to different policies being exerted in different areas, leading in the longer term to market spatial differentiation, he is using the term in the sense of redesigning the political geography of administrative areas (Adejuyigbe, 1983).

Underlying the conception and subsequent design of partition as a ‘solution’ to a set of problems is a basic question. Are all partitions, in fact, identical or at least similar? That partition is far from being a solution restricted to inter-ethnic conflicts was pointed out two decades ago by Akzin who provided examples of power politics bent on aggrandizement (Poland), ethic and power politics combined (Czechoslovakia), ideological diversity (Korea, Germany, Vietnam), in addition to ethnic considerations alone (Ireland, India, Palestine and Austria-Hungary) (Akzin, 1964; Henderson et al., 1974; Kliot and Mansfeld, 1997). Akzin also had some pertinent comments about the role of integrationist forces in weakening the results of partition, especially where the population structure and components have changed, as in Savoy, Sileswig and the American Southwest (Akzin, 1964).
2.2.3 Divided Nations vs. Partitioned States

A sharp distinction between divided nations and partitioned states has been drawn by Henderson *et al.* (1974). In each of these categories, states have been subdivided but for quite different reasons. In their classification, divided nations included Germany, Korea, Mongolia, China, Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia (at Henderson and Lebow’s time of writing, 1974), whereas partitioned countries included Austria-Hungary, India, Indochina, Palestine, Cyprus, Ireland, and even Holland and Belgium. A similar distinction was made by Johnston (1981), using the general term ‘multi-system’ nations. Johnston goes on to identify six types of political partition in the history of great power politics: satrapies (where partitions are designed to give significant subordinates a vested interest in governing a territory or people); imperial pyramiding (to allow membership in an ethnic group with the retention of imperial citizenship); balkanization (rationalised in the name of nationalism); colonialism (a form of great power partition); nationalism; and decentralisation (a form of federalism).

Henderson, Lebow and Stoessinger also take note that at the time of separation each dyad of divided nations was almost identical culturally, ethnically and linguistically. In such cases, there is a single nation with leaders on both sides reluctant to relinquish the idea of common nationality.

Political (as distinct from nationalist) ideology becomes, in itself, the main instrument for structuring separate new identities and justifying a separate existence. The further apart the governing ideologies, the more permanent partition appears. On the other hand, if there is little ideological difference between the states or if tensions relax between the individual states or between their major supporters, then partition often appears less permanent. Like Germany, both Vietnam and Korea were partitioned after the Second World War by the Allies for temporary military purposes (Choy, 1971; Henderson *et al.*, 1974). However, the difference of self-interests among the Allies transformed this temporary arrangement into a more permanent status through the establishment of separated governments. This in turn resulted in each part struggling to gain representative
of the original country. Unfortunately, such rivalry between these governments caused two more wars: the Korea War and Vietnam War. Vietnam was eventually reunited, while Korea has maintained its divided status with persistent near-conflict (Waterman, 1987).

Furthermore, integrationist forces, sometimes reinforced by migration patterns, leading to a change in the ethnic composition of the area’s population and self-identification, are constantly at work (Akzin, 1964). The relations among divided states are a function of (1) the degree of stability and legitimacy of each divided state, (2) the relations between the divided state and its superpower, and (3) the current superpower relationships (Henderson et al., 1974). It is worth noting, however, that the political and economic viability of divided states might also be a considerable factor here. Although there have been calls in recent years to adopt historical approaches in the study of macro-political geography (Taylor, 1982, 1985; Johnston, 1984), these have not been for detailed, isolated case studies. Rather they have been in order to understand global trends, a factor which, if projected to the examination of partition, might permit some generalisations. As the consequences of partition and division have an important bearing on the nature and functioning of the states concerned, it is necessary to pay due attention to this (Table 2.1).

If the divided nations as a whole, or one part of them at least, see themselves as the sole legitimate successors of a prior state or nation and have asserted a legal identity with the forerunner, unification or reintegration seems more likely to remain an ultimate aim. Thus, North Vietnam saw itself as the sole legal entity of the Vietnamese nation; in its eyes, the existence of two separate states bearing the name Vietnam was enigmatic (Fall, 1964). A similar situation exists in Germany until 1989. Through its statements and actions, the Federal Republic adopted the role of legitimate successor to the German state defeated in World War II, whereas the Democratic Republic proclaimed itself a new state, based on Marxist ideology, claiming national uniqueness on the basis of its political system.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Type of Conflict</th>
<th>Type of Separation</th>
<th>Type of Outside forces</th>
<th>Strength/Interest Of outside forces</th>
<th>Length of Separation(yr)</th>
<th>Prognosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>Ethnic</td>
<td>Partition</td>
<td>Regional</td>
<td>Turkey strong; supports partition and Turkish Cypriot state</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Reunification in federal form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India/Pakistan/Bangladesh</td>
<td>Religious</td>
<td>Partition</td>
<td>World</td>
<td>Weak; partition resulted from British acquiescence to Muslim Demands</td>
<td>38 (15)</td>
<td>Partitioned states likely to remain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palestine</td>
<td>Ethnic</td>
<td>Partition</td>
<td>World/Regional</td>
<td>World forces were strong; now Regional forces stronger</td>
<td>38+</td>
<td>Amalgamation without equality for two parts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>Religious (Ethnic?)</td>
<td>Partition/Division</td>
<td>Regional</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>66+</td>
<td>Increased cooperation within regional organizations and independently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Ideological</td>
<td>Division</td>
<td>World</td>
<td>Strong; somewhat weaker</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>Acceptance of status quo; Continued separate development with Normalization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>Ideological</td>
<td>Division</td>
<td>World</td>
<td>Strong; Somewhat weaker</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>Increased cooperation perhaps leading to some form of Reunification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>Ideological</td>
<td>Division</td>
<td>World</td>
<td>Medium; now weak</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>Reunification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>Ideological</td>
<td>Division</td>
<td>World</td>
<td>Medium; grew stronger</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Reunification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yemen</td>
<td>Ideological</td>
<td>Colonial</td>
<td>World/Regional?</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>11+</td>
<td>Reunification c. 1971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Ethnic</td>
<td>Partition/Division</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Little interest (if any)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Unlikely to occur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>Race</td>
<td>Partition</td>
<td>World/Regional</td>
<td>Formerly weak/ Now growing</td>
<td>Ongoing</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>Religious</td>
<td>Partition?</td>
<td>Regional</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>Ongoing</td>
<td>No partition-either amalgamation with Syria or Cantonisation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
So, in the case of divided nations, unification often remains as an ultimate aim which can be brought about either by war or through a peaceful political settlement. However, in the absence of sufficient military power to bring about the first solution or of the degree of political and ideological flexibility to permit the second, a third solution, peaceful coexistence and acceptance of the status quo—might result. In this case, the temporary nature of the division will adopt a more permanent form. This might be the case among those who choose not to subscribe to the ‘two nations’ concept in Ireland.

2.2.4 The Aftermath of Partition

Henderson, Lebow and Stoessinger provide a paradigm of division into four stages for understanding the relationships between states that have undergone either partition or division. In the initial stage, the states exhibit intense mutual hostility. With time, this passes into a second middle term stage, with its de facto acceptance of one another. Rapprochement represents the third stage, in which the separate states attempt to carry on normal relations with one another. They also provide a final unification stage, which they see as leading on from rapprochement (Figure 2.1). This progression is the least likely stage in the development of the restraining factor to the dissolution of the newly created stages. At best, this sequence might apply to some divided nations which are not, in the terminology of Henderson et al., cases of partition.

Henderson et al. and Minghi models is presented in Table 2.2. In this model, two different paths for the relationships between states, leading up to and following partition, and their different routes are presented. Two types of partitions are identified and compared: External force initiated partition (Germany, Korea, Vietnam); Internal force initiated partition (India/Pakistan, Pakistan/ Bangladesh, Malaysia/Singapore, China/Taiwan, Cyprus). As a result of partition, the development of government-initiated economic cooperation between the two sections is retarded. It is notable that because Germany was already one of the most industrially advanced states there was greater inertia towards maintaining some of the interregional flows that had existed prior to the division and encouraging cooperation. Nevertheless, the emergence of Brandt’s
Ostpolitik and the subsequent reaction of East Germany occurred more than 20 years after the division. Similar examples can be given, such as in India/Pakistan, the two parts of Cyprus and, of course, Palestine, where the sealing-off of the two sectors of Jerusalem, symbolising the wider sealing-off of the partitioned country, was almost total up to the Six Day War in 1967.

Partition also has consequences for the states involved at the local scale. Areas, which prior to the imposition of the boundary had been geographically part of a single political unit and a single geographical region, find themselves in different states after partition. Thus, in addition to major realignments of forces such as arrest of economic development, which can burden states and whole regions and their inhabitants, there are also direct consequences on the residents of border areas in particular, such as in the splitting of properties and families, difficulties in mobilising the labour force, and restrictions in movement and transportation (Gross, 1969; Brawer, 1983). With these models, the division process and evolution of division forces for each of the partitioned countries on the current world political map are summarised. Both Vietnam and Germany have reached Unification: the former through military conquest, and the later through a peace agreement. India/Pakistan, Pakistan/Bangladesh, and Malaysia/Singapore went through the whole division process, but evolved into completely independent states. China/Taiwan, Cyprus, and the Koreas are still in the middle stages or rapprochement of the partition. Recently the USSR and Yugoslavia also underwent a partition process and added another dozen independent states on the world maps. One may argue both of the original states are still undergoing partition with hostilities in Chechen and Bosnia (Mao, 1995).

There are many other spatially manifested features associated with partition. Some of these, such as changes in the landscape, the emergence of fortifications and boundary fences, may result directly from the partition itself (Soffer and Minghi, 1986). Others, like the development of separate community infrastructural systems such as road networks, settlement systems and cooperative organisations, occurring prior to the formal
division, can be thought of as catalysts to partition, as was the case in Palestine during the British Mandate (Klieman, 1980).

Whether or not a partition should come about, and whether it is to be long-lasting, thus depends at least as much upon external circumstances as upon internally generated ones. This is definitely the situation with regard to divided nations. Thus whereas some principal actors may see partition as a temporary solution, the external impresarios often regard it (or a variant of it) as more permanent, and vice versa (Haim, 1978).
Figure 2.1 Five stages in the relations between partitioned states

1. Pre-partition Stage
2. Initial Stage
3. Middle term Stage
4. Rapprochement
5. Unification Stage

### Table 2.2 An Outline for Modern Partitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path A: Ethnic pluralism/self-determination (partition resulting from internal forces)</th>
<th>Path B: Colonialism/imperialism (partition resulting from external forces)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage I</strong></td>
<td><strong>Stage I</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnically plural society with geographical Concentration of linguistic, religious Or national groups</td>
<td>A unitary, uniform state is occupied during a war, or becomes part of a colonial empire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage II</strong></td>
<td><strong>Stage II</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separate raisons d’être develop in political And economic matters; one group is either Discriminated against or perceives such Discrimination in economic, social, and Political matters may be observed in the colonised/occupied Territory</td>
<td>During occupation or colonial control, separate identities evolve or are imposed upon the occupied or colonised territory; different economic and social development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage III</strong></td>
<td><strong>Stage III</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict (overt or covert); separation and Disintegration beyond repair</td>
<td>Conflict resulting from occupation or colonisation is resolved de facto and de jure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage IV</strong></td>
<td><strong>Stage IV</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Route 1: Federation, e.g. Nigeria, Ireland, Malaysia, Indonesia</td>
<td>Route 2: Partition, e.g. India/Pakistan, Germany, Cyprus, Yeman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage V</strong></td>
<td><strong>Stage V</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separate development of partitioned units</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage VI</strong></td>
<td><strong>Stage VI</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normalisation between the partitioned units (Trading and cultural relations)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage VII</strong></td>
<td><strong>Stage VII</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unification/Reintegration: 1. Partial (e.g. membership of regional and political organisations); 2. Total (e.g. Vietnam)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Partitioned States (Waterman, 1987)
2.2.5 Tourism between Divided Nations

Despite the uncertainty, and sometimes even personal danger created by partition, many people continue to travel between the elements of partitioned states (Pearce, 1987). Economic necessity, religious obligations, family ties, political requirements, and pleasure are all reasons for the cross-border travel of people in such situations. The numbers involved can be extremely large, although they are often not recorded accurately for a variety of reasons, as noted below. Tourist movement has been integrated as part of the partitioned state development, and has generally been a subject of negotiation between the elements involved in the political disputes. Because of the partitioning process and its results, political relations vary between divided nations and have resulted in different patterns of accessibility (Figure 2.2). However, in Figure 2.2, the tourist flow between South and North Korea is not absent since the opening of travel to Mt. Geumgang.

In Butler and Mao (1995, p. 94), an interesting aspect of inter/intranational tourism is addressed. They attempt to define how to categorise tourism between quasi-states, that is, separate political units that once were parts of a larger unit, subdivided by internal or external forces. The amount and type of travel between partitioned states can be a sensitive parameter by which to measure the process of partitioned state development, and such travel can significantly influence the development of partitioned states. The tourist flow between Taiwan and the Peoples Republic of China (PRC) has been argued to have had positive effects on the Taiwan Straits area (Zhang, 1993), and tourism development is certainly seen as a factor in modernisation in the PRC (Richter, 1983b). Kim and Crompton (1990, p.353) have suggested that in Korea, “Tourism initially may serve as a dimension of the conflicts which can be used to reduce the level of tension, generally replacing it with mutual understanding and trust”. Richter (1983b, p. 324) noted that “the role tourism plays in influencing international relations is understudied but scarcely unimportant”, and this is particularly true in the Asian context.
It is appropriate to argue that a comprehensive and dynamic classification of tourism should contain a new category of tourist, that is, a tourist crossing a semi/quasi boundary, who travels between the paired parts of a partitioned country for purposes of leisure, business, visiting friends and relatives, or other non-employment activity.

Figure 2.2 Tourist flows in quasi-states

Source: Butler and Mao, 1995
In some cases, elements of partitioned states may still retain a common official language, religion, custom, and lifestyle, even if they claim the status of independent countries. Kinship ties between residents of partitioned states are generally stronger than those between residents of conventional states for a variety of reasons, including the recency of separation, and the subsequent division of families. In general, the probability of such residents having a family network within the original state boundary is much higher than of them having such a network outside the boundary. When a new boundary is superimposed and one country is partitioned into two or more sections, such family networks are often divided by the partition.

The presence of these pre-partition family and kinship ties is a major factor in the motivations of residents of these units to travel between them. Such linkage has tended to eventually foster frequent and considerable travel between these partitioned pairs, though such movement may politically be prohibited in the early stage of partition (Whettem, 1980). The tourist movement sometimes, in fact, has been the initiative to channel rapprochement (Kim and Crompton, 1990). In some cases, it was even found that tourist flows between such units are much more significant than tourist flows from outside (Chow, 1988; Richter, 1989; Gormsen, 1995).

During the partitioning of states, large scale population dislocation often occurs, which may result in family fragmentation. This has been very common in war-related partitions, such as those involving Vietnam, Korea, China, and Pakistan/Bangladesh. There are, for example a total of over five million displaced persons from North Korea now living in South Korea. It is estimated that ten million family members have been separated since the Korean division (Korea Herald, 1982). A similar pattern is also true for China, where more than two million Mainlanders moved to Taiwan when the civil war ended. Most of these people were military personnel who moved without their families, which is the major reason why so many Taiwanese residents still have relatives in Mainland China.

The desire to visit friends and relatives also has strong political ramifications, and this desire may be the trigger to develop exchanges between the partitioned states. There
often remains hostility between the partitioned sections, especially in the early period of partition. One of the frequent results of such hostility is restrictions on traffic between the partitioned sections, as has arisen in Vietnam, China, Pakistan/Bangladesh, and Korea. However, visiting family members is a basic human demand consequently, governments may often use this demand as an initiative to develop contact and exchange, or they are forced to respond to such an initiative. Visiting friends and relatives is often allowed between partitioned states even if no other relationships exist. This occurred between West and East Germany, and since the 1980s China has used “free travel” to China by Taiwanese to coerce Taiwan to negotiate a reunification pact. Thus, Yu and Chung (2001, p. 544) point that tourism between politically divided states can be used both for political leverage and conciliation at a low-political level.

2.3 THE IMPACT OF POLITICAL UNREST AND SECURITY ON INTERNATIONAL TOURISM

Every minute of every day a crime or a violent act occurs at a tourist destination somewhere in the world (Pizam, 1999). As noted above, tourism is extremely vulnerable to perceived political instability and lack of safety. Concern about personal safety has restrained travel to hostile destinations (Edgell, 1990a). In other words, tourism is widely sensitive to political instability and the political environment has a great impact on the tourism industry in any region (Scott, 1988; Hall, 1994a; Clements and Georgiou, 1998, Sonmez, 1998; Seddighi, Nuttall and Theocharous, 2001). Political instability and violence have been far greater in many countries such as sub-Saharan Africa, Mexico, and the Middle East (Yetiv, 1997; Cothran and Cothran, 1998). Some countries such as North Cyprus and South Cyprus (Mansfeld and Kliot, 1996; Ioannides and Apostolopoulos, 1999; Altinay, Altinay and Bicak, 2002), Israel and Jordan (Reuveny and Powers, 2002) and Gambia (Sharpley and Sharpley, 1995) provide a good example to support this assertion. Therefore, as has been demonstrated many times in the past few years, the tourism sector is among the first to benefit from peace. Unfortunately, the opposite is also true, and tourism suffers first and foremost from violence and war (Al Khouri, 1999).
This section has given a brief introduction to the various means by which political instability and political violence can impact tourism. Tourism may decline precipitously when political conditions appear unsettled. Tourists simply chose alternative destinations. Unfortunately, many national leaders and planners either do not understand or will not accept the fact that political serenity, not scenic or cultural attractions, constitute the first and central requirement of tourism (Richter and Waugh, 1986). This section has also been concerned with the last two categories of tourist safety which are intimately related to issues of tourism and political stability. Studies involving analyses of tourist visitation, expenditure figures, and acts of political violence lead to the unsurprising conclusion that terrorism, political instability, and regional war curtail tourist activity (Brady and Widdows, 1988; Hurley, 1988; Tremblay, 1989; Enders and Sandler, 1991; Bar-On, 1996; Mihalic, 1996; Pitts, 1996).

2.3.1 Political Nature of International Tourism

Politics has major direct and indirect influences on tourism development and on tourist behaviour (Hall, 1994a). The emerging global economy and communication networks, of which the internationalisation of tourism is an integral part, make tourism increasingly subject to the effects of political instability and political violence. However, to ignore the political dimensions of tourism may lead not only to an incomplete academic appreciation of tourism but also to an inadequate assessment of the risks associated with tourism development (Hall & O’Sullivan, 1996). Hall (1994a) argues that decisionmakers in tourism “need to become far more sophisticated in their approach to crisis management and be more aware of the political dimensions of tourism development”. Many scholars have grappled with the connection between political instability and its impact on tourism (Hall, 1994a) and studies have examined the predictable impact terrorism, coups, and evolutions have on the industry (Richter and Waugh, 1986; Teye, 1986; 1988).

The political nature of international tourism has received scant attention in the tourism research literature (Mattews, 1978; Hall, 1994a; Richter, 1989). Nevertheless, issues of political stability and political relations within and between states are extremely
important in determining the image of destinations in tourist-generating regions and, of course, the real and perceived safety of tourists (Hall and O'Sullivan, 1996). The political potential for policy in this area (e.g. environmental cooperation, peace initiatives) remains great worldwide. Thus, this first subsection also highlights the two different forms which the tourism-political stability relationship takes, political instability which leads to a decline in tourist numbers, and direct attacks on tourists for political proposes. Hallmark tourist events also aim to use the media to promote certain images. Political instability can take a number of forms. A number of different dimensions of political instability can be identified within international tourism, international wars, civil wars, coups, terrorism, riots and political and social unrest, and strikes (Lea and Small, 1988).

Political stability, one of the mainstays of destination attractiveness, emerges from the idea of civic and public interest, in which participation and debate is essential and ongoing, rather than from the dictates of an authoritarian or military regime (Hall and Page, 2000, p. 290). Therefore, examples of different types of political instability are illustrated in Table 2.3.
Table 2.3 Dimensions of political instability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International Wars</td>
<td>Iraqi invasion of Kuwait and consequent invasion of Iraq by multinational force in 1990-1 had massive impact on tourist visitation to the Middle East because of perceived dangers in the region. Also had broader impact on international tourism because of the potential for terrorist attacks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Wars</td>
<td>The break up of Yugoslavia in 1991 and the ongoing conflict among Bosnia, Croatia and Serbia has devastated tourist visitation in the former federation. Similarly, in the case of Sri Lanka visitor arrivals are only now approaching the record number of 1982 following a decade of civil war.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coups</td>
<td>In the case of an attempted coup in the Gambia in July 1981, the number of visitors dropped from 21,327 in 1980 - 1 to 16,962 in 1981 - 2. Similarly, following the May 1987 coup in Fiji, Japanese visitation was halved during June and dropped further during July and August. Tourist arrivals from Australia, New Zealand and the United States were cut by almost 75 per cent. From the 85,000 visitors in April, arrivals fell to 5000 in June. The Australian and New Zealand governments advised their nationals not to travel to Fiji and the occupancy rate in Fiji dropped to approximately 10 per cent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorism</td>
<td>Muslim extremist attacks on tourists in Egypt in late 1992 and early 1993 seriously damaged the country’s US$4 billion tourist industry, cutting the tourism trade by almost half.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Riots/Political</td>
<td>Following the crushing of the political protests in Tiananmen Square the total number of overseas arrivals in China fell by 22.7 per cent from 31,694,804 international visitors in 1988 to 24,501,394 in 1989. Political and social unrest may also occur in direct response to tourism development: for example, if the local community were opposed to the development of a tourist resort or tourist infrastructure such as an airport.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protests/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Unrest</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strikes</td>
<td>According to the Australian Tourism Industry Association following the 1989 Australian domestic air pilots dispute, an estimated 457,000 people canceled their holidays plans altogether and a further 556,000 had to change their holiday plans.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Hall, 1994a
2.3.2 Classification of tourism and violent events

Political violence can take several forms. The EIU (1994) distinguished between three broad causes of disruption to tourism:

- **Fundamental, long-term disruption** such as has occurred in Lebanon, Northern Ireland, Sri Lanka, Uganda, and former Yugoslavia.
- **On going volatility/ uncertainty** in tourism destinations such as in Egypt, India, Israel, Jamaica, Kenya, Peru, the Philippines and Turkey.
- **Short Term, Single Event Disruption** such as in China, Fiji, Florida, and due to occasional terrorist attacks, the UK.

2.3.3 War and Tourism

Perceptions of political stability and safety are a prerequisite for tourist visitation (Brackenbury, 1995). Violent protests, social unrest, civil war, terrorist actions, the perceived violation of human rights, or even the mere threat of these activities can all serve to cause tourists to alter their travel behaviour (Lea and Small, 1988; Hall and O’Sullivan, 1996). War by its definition implies a state of open hostility between nations. Apart from the dangers which war presents to the individual, military activity can also damage tourist infrastructure, for example, the civil war and military conflicts with neighbouring countries destroyed much of Lebanon’s once prosperous tourist industry. Wars between nations have caused long-term damage or even total destruction of the tourism economies of the countries involved in wars, as well as other countries in their proximity. Such was the case in the Gulf War when most countries around the world, not just those directly involved in the war, suffered serious declines in their tourism arrivals and receipts (Pizam and Mansfeld, 1996).
Travel experience shows that when some set of events occurs, tourists choose alternative destinations (Figure 2.3 and 2.4). For example, American airlines during the Gulf crisis transferred their flights from transatlantic destinations to domestic or neighbouring areas. The beneficiaries in this case were Mexico and the Caribbean islands. Similarly, when the tourist traffic to Egypt dropped in 1993, Israel, Cyprus, Turkey and Jordan gained through an increased tourist flow. Tourism in India and Maldives has suffered because of the civil war and associated terrorism in Sri Lanka (Hall, 1994a). Political instability and violence in Zimbabwe also affected the region, including the Zambian tourism industry (Pizam and Smith, 2000). The effects of war, criminal activities, terrorist attacks and violent acts aimed specifically against tourists have been devastating to tourism destinations (Richter, 1992; Economist Intelligence Unit, 1994; Mansfeld, 1994; Hall and O’Sullivan, 1996). Wars, coups and revolutions, serve to damage not only the tourist infrastructure and arrivals but also the longer-term image of a destination. The image of a destination will be affected and tourist arrivals will decline (Pizam, 1999). Former Yugoslavia’s tourist visitation decreased sharply due to the civil war: from 8.6 millions in 1989 to 2 millions in 1991 (Hall, 1991). Examples of these countries where political problems and tourism have intersected, resulting in either the hindrance of tourist activity or modification of tourist type or role are discussed in Table 2.4. These examples validate Wahab’s (1995) claim that terrorism absorbs each society’s characteristics. Countries may face different circumstances but their tourism industries share similar challenges, some more drastic than others (Sonmez, 1998).

Warfare, whether it is international or civil, is clearly disastrous for tourism. Apart from the dangers which war presents to the individual, military activity can also damage tourist infrastructure. For example, Lebanon’s once thriving tourist industry has been devastated by years of civil war and conflict with neighboring Syria and Israel. Much of the former Yugoslavia’s tourism infrastructure and attractiveness as a tourist destination has been all but destroyed, particularly in the former Olympic city of Sarajevo (Jordan, 1994). Warfare may also have long-term impacts on the image of a destination. For example, South Korea’s tourism industry has long been harmed by images of the Korean War and conflicts between North and South Korea (Table 2.5). A study by Jeong (1988) indicated
that the 1988 Summer Olympics in Seoul were perceived as a means to overcome the poor image of Korea in the international tourism market as a “dangerous place to visit”, particularly in the United States because of such factors as MASH (the highly popular television series based on the fictionalised exploits of an American field hospital during the Korean War), the devastation of the country following the Korean War, the shooting down of Korean Airlines flight 007 in the early 1980s, student protests and the ongoing political instability between North and South Korea. Nevertheless, experience from other destinations such as Sri Lanka (Sinclair, 1994) and Zambia (Teye, 1986) indicates that tourism can recover rapidly following cessation of conflict. In the case of Zambia, for example, international tourist arrivals increased threefold after the civil war finished in neighboring Zimbabwe (formerly Rhodesia) and a black majority government came to power (Teye, 1986).
Figure 2.3 Making the Tourism-Political Instability Theory Operational

Source: Seddighi and Theocharous, 2002
Figure 2.4 Political Instability and Perceptual Pattern Determination

Source: Seddighi, Nuttall and Theocharous (2001)
**Table 2.4 Examples of Countries where Tourism has been affected by Terrorism or Political Unrest**

**CHINA:** With the world as witness, Chinese authorities cracked down on student protests in Beijing’s Tiananmen Square on June 4 1989. Prime-time news coverage of army tanks and chaos coincided with a period when the People’s Republic of China had officially opened itself to international tourism. World view of the government turned very negative. As a result of the conflict, hotel occupancy rates in Beijing dipped below 30%, 300 groups (approximately 11,500 individuals) canceled their travel plans, and tourism earnings declined by $430 million in 1989 (Gartner and Shen 1992; Hall and O’Sullivan 1996).

**EGYPT:** Al-Gama’at al-Islamiyya (The Islamic Group), and indigenous Egyptian Islamic extremist group interested in replacing President Hosni Mubarek’s government with an Islamic state, became active in the late 1970s (US Department of State 1996). The group has specifically targeted and launched attacks against Egypt’s tourism industry since 1992. Over 120 attacks were systematically carried out against tourists between 1992 and 1995, causing the death of 13 tourists. Egypt experienced a 22% drop in international visitors, a 30% drop in tourist nights, and a 43% decrease in tourism receipts (Aziz 1995; Wahab 1996). The crisis caused Egypt to be removed from programs of international tour operators. The last terrorist attack against tourists took place in April 1996; 18 Greek tourists were killed in Cairo.

**FIJI:** Two military coups occurred in Fiji within months (May 14 and September 28) in 1987, following the election of a mainly non-Fijian government. Sensational media coverage was followed by travel advisories issued by Australia and New Zealand. The first coup was followed by a hijack attempt of an Air New Zealand Boeing 747 at Fiji’s Nadi Airport (Hall and O’Sullivan 1996; Lea 1996; Scott 1988).

**ISRAEL:** Since its establishment in 1948, both Israelis and Palestinians living in the occupied territories have experienced continuous turmoil. In 1987, the Palestinian uprising intensified and the Islamic Resistance Movement (IIAMAS) formed from the Palestinian branch of the Muslim Brotherhood to establish an Islamic Palestinian state in place of Israel (US Department of State 1996). Attacks initiated by both Israelis and Palestinians have resulted in heavy death tolls and casualties. Tourist arrivals between 1970 and 1994 have climbed steadily with sharp declines in numbers after negative events (Bar-On 1996).

**MEXICO:** When the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) went into effect on January 1, 1994, the Ejército Zapatista de Liberación Nacional (EZLN) initiated an armed rebellion against the Mexican government. The first 12 days of the uprising resulted in 145 to 500 deaths (depending on the source). Military troops established roadblocks and searched vehicles in Chiapas (southeastern Mexico). The March 1994, assassination of Luis Donaldo Colosio, a favourite presidential candidate, created further agitation in Mexico. San Cristóbal in Chiapas, the largest town held by the Zapatistas where the uprising occurred and also where negotiations occurred, experienced sharp declines in international and domestic tourism. As a result 1994 visitation dropped by 70% in January and 70% in February, compared with the same period of the previous year (Pitts 1996).

**NORTHERN IRELAND:** The Provisional Republican Army (PIRA) formed in 1969 as the covert armed wing of Sinn Fein (legal political movement with the goal of removing British jurisdiction over Northern Ireland unifying it with the Republic of Ireland) (Ni Aolain 1996; US Department of State 1996). Targets have included senior British government officials, British military and police in Northern Ireland. Terrorist activity and retaliation by British troops have impeded tourist activity. Visitor arrivals fell from the 1987 peak of 1,080,000 to 321,000 in 1976 as a result of an image of risk and danger (Buckley and Klemm 1993; Wall 1996; Witt and Moore 1992). The ceasefire which began on August 31, 1994 was observed until February 9, 1996 when a bomb exploded in London killing two bystanders and injuring 43. During the 18-month cease-fire, the Northern Ireland Tourist Board recorded a 59% increase (from previous year) in inquiries, 11% increase in hotel occupancy, 18% increase in out-of-state visitors, and 68% increase in holiday visitors (O’Neil and Fitz 1996). More recently, a hotel near Belfast was bombed in July 1996; however, a second cease-fire was ordered to begin July 20, 1997.

**PERU:** The Sendero Luminoso (Shining Path), a Maoist terrorist group, formed in the late-1960s to...
replace existing Peruvian institutions with a peasant revolutionary regime and free Peru of foreign
influences (US Department of State 1996). Attacks caused a steep decline in tourism from 350,000
international visitors in 1989 to 33,000 in 1991 (Wahab 1996). On December 17 1996 a rival terrorist
group, Túpac Amaru Revolutionary Movement (MIRTA) – demanding the release of imprisoned rebels-
raided the Japanese Embassy and took 500 people hostage. The stand-off between the rebels and the
Peruvian military force lasted for 126 days, during which time small groups of hostages were released
periodically. On April 24 1997 the final 72 hostages were released after the military organised a
successful rescue.

SLOVENIA: The Yugoslav army attacked Slovenia in June 1991. Slovenia’s war continued for 10 days
before moving to Croatia in 1991 and Bosnia- Herzegovina in 1992. Specialised tour operators for
Yugoslavia lost over one million booked tourists in 1991 as result. Even “two years after the ten-day war,
the figures for Slovenian tourism were still far behind the pre-war figures. The number of total nights in
1993 was 32% lower than in 1990” (Mihalić 1990).

SPAIN: The Basque Fatherland and Liberty (ETA) was founded in 1959 to create an independent
homeland in Spain’s Basque region (US Department of State 1996). Politicians and members of the
military and government have been traditional targets; however, ETA specifically targeted Spain’s
tourism industry between 1984 and 1987. Tourist hotels and travel agencies were bombed. Over 200
letters were mailed by ETA to foreign embassies, travel agencies and foreign media in Spain stating
intentions to terrorise tourists (Enders and Sanler 1991). ETA’s 1996 “summer campaign” included six
bombing attacks in early July. At Reus Airport near Barcelona, 35 were injured and hotels along Spain’s
Costa Dorada were bombed. Downward trends in tourism activity have been recorded (Bar-On 1996).

TIBET: Nationalist unrest which began in 1987 was punctuated by the declaration of martial law in
March 1989, in Lhasa. In 1990 three foreigners were shot at and one was killed in Kathmandu, as they
tried to photograph pro-democracy demonstrations. Tibet’s tourism industry suffered a serious blow as a
result. In 1988, 22,000 visitors were recorded, but in the first six months of 1989, 1092 tourists arrived in
Tibet (down from 5,000 visitors during the same period in 1988). Only 3.1% of the visitation projected by
the government was recorded and a loss of 4.52 million yuan was reported by tourism businesses
(Schwartz 1991)

THE GAMBIA: This small West African developing country, enjoyed political stability following its
independence from Britain in 1965. In the summer of 1994, a bloodless coup occurred. The Travel
Advice Unit of the British Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO) issued several subsequent and
stringent travel warnings against The Gambia. As a result, first British then Scandinavian tour operators
pulled out, virtually crippling the country’s tourism industry. Arrivals fell from 5,000 to 300; over 2,000
jobs directly and indirectly linked to tourism were lost; eight hotels closed; and the country’s economic
and social conditions quickly deteriorated (Sharpley and Sharpley 1995).

TURKEY: The Kurdistan Worker’s Party (PKK), a Marxist-Leninist insurgent group interested in
establishing an independent Marxist state in southeastern Turkey, was established in 1974 (US
Department of State 1996). PKK primarily targeted Turkish government forces and civilians until
recently. Since 1993, PKK has become more active in Western Europe against Turkish targets and has
specifically targeted Turkey’s tourism industry since 1991. The PKK has emulated ETA’s letter campaign
warning foreign companies against sending tourists to Turkey, bombed tourism sites and hotels, and
self-imposed cease fire by the PKK, international arrivals reached record levels (9.5 million) in 1996.

ZAMBIA and ZIMBABWE: Zimbabwe’s (previously South Rhodesia) Unilateral Declaration of
Independence (UDI) in 1965 was followed by a 15 year liberation war which lasted until 1990. As a
result, tourism to the immediate area (including neighboring Zambia) was seriously impeded. Teye
(1986) compared Kenya’s tourist arrivals which increased from 250,400 in 1964-66 to 3,524,000 in 1979-
78 to Zambia’s arrivals which only increased incrementally from 429,700 to 466,800 for the same period.
During the 1967-69 period, Zambia was unable to record any tourist arrivals because of the war.

Source: Tourism, Terrorism, and Political Instability (Sonmez, 1998)
Table 2.5 Destinations whose tourism sectors are currently affected by political instability and political violence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country/Region</th>
<th>Indirect Factors</th>
<th>Direct Factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>State of emergency, deteriorating security situation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bosnia-Hercegovina</td>
<td>Continuing political instability and hostilities with Serbia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>Continuing political instability</td>
<td>tourists subject to killing and kidnapping and ransom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>Continuing political instability and hostilities with Serbia. Major damage to tourism infrastructure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>Political instability, ongoing conflict with United States</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>tourists subject to direct attack by Muslim fundamentalists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India (Kahsmir)</td>
<td>Muslim secessionist movement</td>
<td>Attacks on tourists and tourist infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Sporadic violence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>Aftermath of civil war. Major damage to tourism infrastructure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Political instability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Ireland</td>
<td>Political conflict</td>
<td>Attacks on high-profile tourist infrastructure in the United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palestine</td>
<td>Political instability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Papua New Guinea</td>
<td>Political instability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>Political instability</td>
<td>Guerilla movement has targeted tourists</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter Two  Peace and Tourism in Divided Nations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Problem Description</th>
<th>Impact on Tourism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Political instability</td>
<td>Tourists subject to kidnapping and ransom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>Civil war</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>Slowly recovering from breakup of the former Yugoslavia and consequent perceptions of political instability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>Recovering from effects of apartheid</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>Political tensions with North Korea</td>
<td>Student riots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>Continuing political instability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey (Kurdistan)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Direct attacks on tourists with tourists being hijacked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wales</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Damage to second homes owned by English by Welsh nationalist radicals</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Hall and O’Sullivan (1996)

2.3.3.1 War and its Positive Impacts on Tourism

Another dimension of the relationship between tourism and peace is the relationship between tourism and war. Obviously, war is not going to have a positive effect on tourism in most cases, but in various ways, war can be used as a tourist attraction after the war by transforming war into a sentimental tourist attraction. Examples of this are memorials (Vietnam memorial), monuments, the battlefields of different wars (Berlin Wall), war museums commemorating heroes (Sonmez, 1998).

A positive insight of the relationship between tourism and war was highlighted by Smith (1996). She emphasised the role of after war-sites in promoting tourism and stated that the common theme for all the war-related activities is commemoration.

As well she classifies five purposes of visit to “war attractions”.

1. The “heroic phase”- Visits to status monuments and museums commemorating national heroes, victories.
2. "Remember the fallen"- Visits to battlefields and cemeteries (Arlington national cemetery, Washington, USA, Berlin Wall).
3. "Lest we forget"- Visits to holocaust sites and certain museums (e.g. Auschwitz and Dachau the Nazi concentration camps).
4. "When we were young"- Old soldiers go back to the battlefield to revisit and remember the days of the youth.
5. "Reliving the past"- Living history displays such as the civil war in the Nevada city festival.

The above overview and examples indicate the highly vulnerable nature of the tourism industry to political hostility of any kind, and its viable need to adapt quickly new competitive strategies when such devastating effects occur. On the other hand, safety, tranquillity and peace are necessary conditions for further expansion of tourism activity.

2.3.3.2 War and its negative impacts on tourism

Although there is a growing literature on the impact of crime on tourism (Cohen, 1987) and sex crimes and tourism (Ryan, 1993; Oppermann, 1998), to date there is little research on war. Pizam and Mansfeld (1996) have contributed the first major work to address Tourism, Crime and Security Issues.

The feature in post-war international politics was the almost complete absence of a political dialogue between two conflicting groups of states, each engaged in preparing for a major war (Reynolds, 1973). Traditionally, war, or even the threat of war, was assumed to have a negative effect upon the tourism industry. Teye (1988) provided an early concerted analysis of these negative impacts, using Ghana as a case study. Likewise, the impact of war on tourism developments was noted by Teye (1988) on both sides of tourism supply and demand. On the side of demand, he describes the following impacts on the market:

1. Borders are closed for land, air and sea transport.
2. Foreign authorities recommend that their citizens do not travel to war-stricken states.
3. Maltreatment of tourists travelling to a state involved in war.
4. Adverse publicity in international media.
5. "Blacklisting" by tour operators and travel agents.

On the side of tourist supply there are two types of impact: the one influencing new resources development and the other influencing the existing tourist supply. The related consequences are:

1. Development plans are reduced or cancelled.
2. Loss of investment capital from abroad.
3. Tourist infrastructure is occupied (airports, hotels).
4. Destruction of game parks due to excessive poaching.
5. Effects on night-life (due to curfews).
6. Military blackmail (towards passengers in airports, transport, terminals etc.).
7. Emergence of a foreign- currency black market.

Political instability and its impact on tourism are more associated with the third world. Richter (1992) suggests these reasons:

1. The developing nations’ economy has a heavy reliance on tourism
2. The domestic base for tourism to absorb some tourism capacity when international tourism falters is poor.

The developing countries’ have a weak ability to control, modify, or redirect infrastructure and facilities when political instability occurs. Since tourism is a discretionary activity, these countries have to compete in the highest professional manner to attract the seasonal interest of the traveller. The nature of security events, their duration, location, level of severity, frequency and the way they are perceived by the tourist can determine the level of the negative impact on the travel industry (Mansfeld, 1996). In most cases when a destination is placed upon a black list due to war conditions, tourism is not quickly restored, examples include decreased volume of tourist arrivals in several
countries in the Middle East after the Gulf War 1991, China’s Tienanmen Square event, the war in the two Koreas, etc. At any given time, the U.S. has actual *don’t go* warnings for two-three dozen nations, of which over four-fifths are developing nations (Edgell, 1990b). An additional number of developing nations, like Cuba, North Korea, and Vietnam, may be legally off-limits to Americans for political reasons (Richter, 1994b). Moreover, Sri Lanka, Cambodia, Fiji, Lebanon, Haiti, Peru, the Philippines and most recently the former Yugoslavia and Rwanda are countries that have had significant tourism investments or as in Rwanda’s case half of the world’s gorillas threatened by the civil strife that has torn the nations part (Richter, 1982; 1989; 1993).

Wars between nations have caused long-term damage or even total destruction of the tourism economies of the countries involved in wars as well as other countries in their proximity. Such was the case during the Gulf War when most countries around the world, not just those directly involved in the war, suffered serious declines in their tourism arrivals and receipts. Similarly, the prolonged war in the former Yugoslavia has seriously damaged the tourism industries of Slovenia, Croatia and Serbia and all but eradicated tourism to Bosnia-Hercegovina (Pizam and Mansfeld, 1996). As attractive as such “emerging markets” appear, investors must remember that these countries—as many as 150 of the world’s nations—have been characterised in recent years by political violence and instability, economic volatility, and often resentment of Western influence. These qualities are not unique to one country and in fact some of them may exist to a greater degree in other countries.

Political elites are often sufficiently enamored with the glamour and opportunity for lucrative private investments and imports associated with international tourism that they fail to assess the vulnerability of such tourism relative to the likelihood of internal violence. Furthermore, on a positive note tourism acted as a boost to domestic morale in Israel and helped to affirm the nation’s legitimacy and faith in internal security. While neighbouring states would not recognise Israel as a separate state the visitors demonstrated that their countries did, and they helped to reduce the feeling of isolation that Israelis felt as they could not visit neighbouring states. It has also been postulated
that under certain circumstances tourism may “promote peace and understanding between unfriendly nations” (Pizam and Mansfeld, 1996). D’Amore (1988a, b) and other writers found after investigation that tourism may lead to a positive change in attitudes and ultimately improve understanding amongst unfriendly nations. Pizam goes on to declare his support for the third paragraph in the Shannon Declaration which states that “international tourism is a particularly appropriate instrument for the development of peace building programmes designed to reduce conflict”. However, he does emphasise that tourism will not necessarily improve relations between nations but it can, with careful planning and programming by both the generating and destination countries the chances are greater.

### 2.3.4 Terrorism and Tourism

Another form of violent act impacting on tourism is terrorism which includes such activities as-assassinations, hijacking, use of explosives, sabotage, murder and the like with the intent of creating a state of terror and public intimidation to achieve political, social, or religious ends. According to Richter and Waugh (1986), terrorism is a form of communication, of both the threat or reality of violence and the political message. Terrorist violence has become a familiar phenomenon of modern times. For that familiarity the mass media, is largely responsible. The crash of the hijacked Ethiopian airline flight in the Comoro Islands in November 1996 highlights its magnitude. Media coverage and global attention to politically motivated terrorist activities can have severe effects on international travel.

International terrorism and especially the kind that is specifically aimed at tourists, has caused the world tourism industry billions of dollars in lost revenues. After the, TWA hijacking in 1985 for example, the Greek government spent over three million dollars on a ‘Come to Home Greece Campaign’ (Richter and Waugh, 1986). In Egypt, a set of systematic tourist attacks that started in September 1992-1993, resulted in a 22 per cent drop in tourist arrivals and 30 per cent decline in volume of tourist nights. Tourism
receipts as an outcome dropped a 42 per cent causing losses of more than US$ 1 billion in tourism revenue in this period (Wahab, 1996).

Travel has been associated with increased vulnerability to all types of crime from biblical times. Being a traveller implies being away from one’s familiar environs and contacts. The fact that tourists are usually concentrated in particular locations (tourist ghetto’s) together with the fact that tourists usually carry with them large amounts of money lames them an easy target for criminals and terrorists (Richter and Waugh, 1986). The incidence of crime against tourists in Florida in 1993, caused a decline of 11 per cent in overseas tourist (Pizam and Mansfeld, 1996). Similarly, for Indonesia, a stable political situation is of great importance for achieving tourism objectives as outlined in the national economic development plan. Unfortunately, prolonged political unrest in the country in the last two years has resulted in a dramatic decline of tourist flows (Travel Trade Gazette, 2000; Soemodinoto et al, 2001). Moreover, the bombing of a nightclub in Indonesia’s most popular tourist resort area on the island of Bali resulted in over 200 deaths and 300 wounded. Most victims were young tourists from Australia, New Zealand, Europe, South Asia and North America (Beirman, 2003). This incident was one of the deadliest attacks targeted at tourists in modern history.

Terrorism exists in many countries and cities around the world, the IRA in Northern Ireland and Britain, the Red Brigade in Italy, the Neo-Nazis in Germany, the Chamas movement operating in Israel. In his useful article “Terrorism and Tourism” Wall (1996), emphasises the immediate effects of terrorism events. In addition to the above Teye (1988), lists these impacts as:

1. High operation costs due to security needs expenditure (insurance costs).
2. Strong urge for aggressive promotion campaigns to change the unfavourable image.
3. Tourists redirect their visit to destinations which appear to be more safe.
4. Investors reallocate their money in new plant or upgrade existing infrastructure in locations where the business climate appears to be unreliable as a result of terrorist threats.
As mentioned before, the literature also confirms a definite substitution effect among destinations when terrorism or political turmoil risk is evident (Gu and Martin, 1992; Mansfeld and Kliot, 1996) and suggests that tourists’ nationality and level of previous experience influences their reactions to terrorism (Cook and McCleary, 1983; D’Amore and Anuza, 1986; Hurley, 1988; Tremblay, 1989; Wall, 1996).

Terrorism began to make headlines around the world in the 70s and has been a major international theme throughout the 1990s and 2000s. The US Development of State defines terrorism as “… premeditated, politically motivated violence perpetrated against civilians and unarmed military personnel by subnational groups… usually intended to influence an audience” (EIU, 1994). Furthermore, international terrorism crosses national borders, targets citizens of many national and exploits technology of international travel and communications (Schlagheck, 1988). Terrorism is not a new phenomenon, it has existed for hundreds of years, Wall (1996) defines terrorism as the systematic use of terror as a means of coercion, the motive of which is usually to draw international attention to the political causes which the terrorists support. The increased awareness of terrorism in the world is not due to an escalation of the activities of terrorist groups, but to the greater media attention it receives, which in one way assists the terrorists as it increases the number of viewers the terrorists message reaches, and deeply affects the areas in which it strikes both socially and economically. Tourism is one sector that is affected negatively due to terrorist activities. The aftermath of the September 11th attack, for example, meant special hardship for some of the most vulnerable members of New York city’s population. In September and October of 2001, 3,400 hotel workers were laid off (Bagli, 2001). Moreover, the drop in patronage was particularly concentrated among the most lucrative group of travellers, foreign visitors (Fainstein, 2002). Goodrich (2002) and Hall (2002) have also examined the impact of the September 11 terrorist attacks on the travel and tourism industry in the USA by their articles.

With the advance and rise of interdependence within the international community, terrorist activity in one country could have great economic and security impacts on others.
Tourism, being a major economic activity, is greatly affected by acts of terrorism, and for some countries, persistent terrorism tarnishes the destinations’ image and jeopardises its tourism business, examples of this includes Egypt; where an Islamic extremist group desired to replace the existing government with an Islamic state. This group has attacked the country’s tourism industry since 1992, by launching attacks on tourists, this has resulted in a drop of 42% of tourist receipts causing losses of more than $1 billion unrest (Sonmez, 1998).

2.3.5 Tourism and the Media’s Role

As the world becomes more globalised and cultures interact continuously, the study of images will certainly be a part of the growing body of tourism literature (Sonmez and Sirakaya, 2002). As part of this growing body of tourism literature, this subsection has examined the media’s role and tourist destination image in general. Today’s media is a powerful agent in the formation of destination images, especially of distant places that the viewers and/or readers are not familiar with (Butler, 1990). Media’s coverage of the political situation in a country has the potential to shape the images of people, especially those which tourists will have of that country, mainly because the media is often the only source of information available to people. Terrorism is often a performance staged for the benefit of media attention, to promote attention to and awareness of the terrorist organisations’ cause. This benefits both the organisation and the media, which achieves higher ratings (Sonmez, 1998).

Media claims a large portion of responsibility for the public’s view of security problems. Western media especially is particularly prone to dramatising terrorism, and violence, terrorists and violent groups have realised this and utilise the media to get attention and spread their cause. The more gruesome and disastrous a story is, the more public attention it gets, this in turn impacts on peoples’ perceptions of different destinations and tarnishes their image of them. Some researchers also have suggested that international terrorism and an unstable political environment have major impacts on travellers’ image formation process (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998; Burns and Cleverdon, 1995; Edgell, 1995).
The mere perception of risk in a certain area can be as damaging to a destination as the violence itself, and can affect an even larger area, including neighbouring countries. Violent protests, social unrest, civil war, and terrorism or even the mere threat of such activities can all result in tourists altering their travel behaviour. Many countries these days are considered to be unsafe areas to travel to due to political unrest or acts of terrorism (D’Amore and Jafari, 1988). For example, Egypt, Israel, Northern Ireland, and Peru illustrate how ongoing political violence can adversely affect tourist perceptions of destinations and travel behaviour (Sonmez et al., 1999). Although countries may experience terrorism differently, their tourism industries share similar challenges and these examples validate claims that terrorism absorbs each society’s characteristics (Wahab, 1995). Therefore, the image created by an event can have a large impact that deters tourists from travelling to various tourist destinations, the media selects particular stories, and has its own interpretations of this story. Figure 2.5 provides a model of the factors leading to the creation of images of the political stability of a destination region. Three main elements are identified: returning tourists through word-of-mouth reporting of their experiences, the media and the government of the tourist-generating region (Hall and Oehlers, 2000). It is the portrayal of a terrorist threat rather than the threat itself that becomes the determining factor in tourist destination choice behaviour (Bar-On, 1996). From Figure 2.6, the propensity for the international choice may depend on several internal or demographic factors. Destinations perceived as safe from terrorism and political problems will be considered seriously, while those perceived as risky will be rejected. A destination choice is made by selecting the most desirable alternative from among those considered safe (Sirakaya, Shephard and McLelland, 1998; Sonmez and Graefe, 1998). Hall (2002, p. 462) states not only is the media significant in terms of the images that surround travel and specific destinations and which influence travel decision-making but that the media also has a substantial impact on the policy measures which governments take with respect to tourist safety and security. Therefore, one of the major points to appreciate in understanding the relationship between political instability and its affect on tourism is the role of the media (Hall, 1996). Moreover, protecting the safety and security of travellers will be one of the major concerns of the industry in the next decade.
Figure 2.5 Political Instability, Violence and the Imagemaking Process

Source: Hall and O’Sullivan, 1996
Chapter Two  Peace and Tourism in Divided Nations

Figure 2.6 Model of International Tourism Decision-Making Process

**EXTERNAL FACTORS**
- Media coverage of terrorism and/or political instability
- Government issued travel advisories
- Social interaction regarding terrorism and/or political instability

**INTERNAL FACTORS**
- International travel experience
- International travel attitude
- Traveler personality type

**Demographic Factors**
- Age
- Gender
- Income
- Education
- Children in household

Source: Adapted from Engel, Kollat and Blackwell (1968); Howard (1963, 1977); Mansfeld (1992); Um and Crompton (1990); van Raaij and Francken (1984)
2.4 PEACE AND TOURISM

According to Euromonitor, a consultancy, average tourist spending in 1996 was $559 per person. That figure is expected to grow by 8% a year until 2000, slightly faster than in the past few years. However, the economic effects go far beyond direct receipts. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), an industry lobby group, calculates figure that take in not only direct spending but all the knock-on effects as well. Allowing for all indirect effects, the council puts the total economic value of goods and services attributable to tourism in 1996 at $3.6 trillion, or 10.6% of gross global product. It estimates that tourism sustains more than one in ten jobs around the world, providing work for 255m people, and could create another 130 million places by 2006 (Economist, 1997). In 1999 Travel and Tourism generated, directly and indirectly, across the global economy: 11% of GDP, 200 million jobs, 8% of total employment, and 5.5 million new jobs per year until 2010 (WTTC, 1995). The growth of tourism is due both to social factors that boost demand and to technology that makes the travel possible. Demand for tourism is determined mainly by wealth. Growing wealth will continue to produce new tourists as vast numbers of people in developing countries join the middle classes. Tourism thrives wherever politics allows it, and politics has recently caused many barriers to fall (Economist, 1997).

Tourism plays a major role in international relations and world peace (Mattews, 1978). The year 1986 was declared by the United Nations as the “International Year of Peace”. In 1981, the WTO (World Tourism Organisation) Manila Declaration emphasised the importance of tourism in preparing for and safeguarding peace describing it as “a vital force for peace” and a “moral and intellectual basis for international understanding and interdependence” (WTO). The role of tourism as an Ambassador and means of understanding and peace between people has been recognised by many international bodies such as the United Nations. Likewise, the role of tourism as a promoter of national integration, international understanding, goodwill and peace is widely recognized by national governments and political science and tourism scholars (Yu and Chung, 2001).
Movements of persons, travel and tourism are extremely sensitive to any political or social unrest, they require a climate of peace if they are to stimulate the social, economic and cultural development of society. Therefore, one would argue that lasting peace is a prerequisite for the continuing increase of travel. Travel is the most direct, objective and valuable tool for assisting mutual understanding, knowledge and tolerance (Goeldner, 1989). No other industry is better positioned to enhance trust, goodwill and respect amongst people. International tourist arrivals reached 690 million in 2003, and continue to increase rapidly. The economic importance of the tourism industry is another major factor in addition to the promotion of understanding between nations that has to be considered. Tourism is a major source of income and employment for many countries, it brings in significant amounts of foreign exchange earnings that are crucial to many countries. Tourism also stimulates other industries and encourages private investment (Ap and Var, 1990). However, like any other industry, the tourism industry still has risks, the demand might decrease, which could have severe repercussions on a country. Political unrest and turbulent internal conditions in a country is another aspect that might severely damage and could even destroy that country’s tourism industry.

Beyond its economic significance, tourism plays a role in promoting understanding and trust among people of different cultures. This is not only a precondition for emerging trading partners but also a foundation on which to build improved relationships towards the goal of world peace and prosperity (D’Amore, 1988a; 1988b; 1994). The role of tourism as an ambassador and vehicle of international understanding and peace has been recognised in the past by international bodies such as the United Nations and World Tourism Organisation (WTO) in the Manila declaration 1980. A significant landmark on the above topic was the first Global Conference, “Tourism a Vital Force for Peace”, held in Vancouver in October 1988. It brought recognition that tourism by its many dimensions has the potential to be the largest movement because it involves people: their culture, economy, tradition, heritage and religion. The conference aimed to explore ways in which the world’s hundreds of millions of travellers could, by increasing interests, improving attitudes, and engaging in various social and other activities, contribute to better mutual understanding and appreciation, an important contribution to world peace.
(D’Amore, 1987-8; 1994; D’Amore and Jafari, 1988). Thus, despite tourism’s economic strength, terrorism and political turmoil present major challenge to the industry (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998).

Research in the area of peace and tourism has received widespread attention from academicians and practitioners as well. The major focus of the research has been on international tourism, understanding international tourists’ perceptions of tourism, cultural understanding, international goodwill, and tourism as a tool for promoting peace. Most research done so far (Var, Brayley and Korsay, 1989; Var, Schlutter, Ankonmash, and Lee, 1989; and Ap and Var, 1990) have found that most international tourists have a positive impression and believe that tourism is a major force in promoting world peace and cultural understanding (Khamouna and Zeiger, 1995).

Tourism is strongly dependent on peace and security (Pizam and Mansfeld, 1996). In other words, tourism is impossible without peace, for instance, remarkably, Vietnam is now a holiday destination. The need for safety and obtaining a secure environment is one of the basic conditions to ensure tourism. Tourism flourishes in a climate of peace and prosperity. Political unrest, war depressions and civil strife discourage tourism (McIntosh et al, 1995). In order to understand the relationship between tourism and peace, it is useful to examine the meaning of peace.

Discussion of the interrelationship of peace and tourism requires understanding the nature of peace and, consequently, of war. Peace, according to most dictionaries, is freedom from war, a precise definition until war is considered. War is strife between nations, or a state of open hostility between nations (Sykes, 1976). The nature of the concept of peace is very diverse. Beer (1990, p. 15) points out that many theorists deal with peace, but peace theory is not a unified whole. One definition says that within the context of tourism, peace applies to the concept of harmonious relations (Var et al, 1998). War is defined as “the clash of arms among countries” (Mihalic, 1996). International peace has been regarded since the beginning of history as a blessing and its opposite, war, as a scourge.
Generally, peace is defined negatively as the “absence of war” or as the “absence of violence” (Galtung, 1990, p. 9).

According to the Oxford dictionary the term peace has three meanings:

1. A state of freedom from war or violence
2. A treaty ending a war
3. A state of calm/quiet and harmony

A positive definition of peace with relation to tourism was found in Kim and Crompton (1990) who suggested that peace is a state which “removes logistical barriers to travel and psychological notions associated with fear for personal safety and antipathy from prospective hosts”. Peace is a condition where military force is not currently being applied and is not reasonably expected or anticipated in the future whether that force be from external sources (Burnett & Uysal, 1990). A multidimensional definition of peace cited in D’Amore (1988a; 1988b), was the Russian definition: “It implies peace and tranquillity within ourselves, peace with our fellow humans and between nations, peace with nature and our spaceship earth, peace within the universe”.

Peace for those concerned with academic or practical aspects of tourism must be redefined (Bregha, 1989). Peace is a condition where military force is not currently being applied and is not reasonably expected or anticipated in the future whether that force be from external or internal sources. The proposed definition recognizes that many places are not actively engaged in war but neither are they at peace in the sense that violence of military proportions would come as no surprise. Active war discourages tourists, but the prospect of war and widespread violence equally deter all but the most courageous travellers. The definition also admittedly avoids a gray area where gangsterism is sufficient to discourage tourists (Burnett and Uysal, 1990).
Chapter Two  Peace and Tourism in Divided Nations

2.5 TOURISM AND PEACE

The role of political boundaries has become less of a dividing line and more a line of integration (Leimgruber, 1981; Minghi, 1991; Nijkamp, 1994). During the past decade, the world has undergone tremendous geopolitical changes, wherein the role of political frontiers has become that of a line of integration rather than simply a barrier to interaction. The easing of travel restrictions by many countries, and international cooperation in economic development has been at the forefront of these shifts in political ideologies. These changes have had significant impacts on international tourism (Timothy, 2000b). Recent research has confirmed the importance of tourism in borderlands areas (Gibbons and Fish, 1987; Essex & Gibb, 1989; Curtis and Arreola, 1989; Richard, 1993; Arreola & Curtis, 1993; Zhao, 1994a, b; Paasi and Raivo, 1998; Boyd, 1999). Furthermore, except for a few notable exceptions (Smith, 1984; Leimgruber, 1988), there is little information present in the literature to offer a conceptual basis for studying the relationships between political boundaries and tourism. This section is to address these gaps by examining some of the basic relationships between tourism and political boundaries, including a discussion on the role of international borders and their associated environments as tourist attractions.

2.5.1 The Nature of Political Boundaries

Between partitioned states, there are frequently many features in common. They may share not only common cultural history and traditions, but they may also have developed similar social patterns of behaviour. Although, in some case, they may have been part of plural society-with different cultures, religions and language groups, they at least used to share some common cultural links as well as administrative arrangements and perhaps official language(s). In some cases, partitioned states may still retain a common official language, religion, custom, and lifestyle, even if they claim the status of independent countries. More importantly, close social fabric and family relationships are likely to have developed between residents of partitioned states before partition, as for example
between residents of what are now South and North Korea. Such relationships play a key role in subsequent tourism development (Mao, 1995).

Boundary studies have focused on comparative, and largely empirical, analyses of specific boundary case studies (Prescott, 1987; Rumley and Minghi, 1991; Girot, 1994; Grundy-Warr, 1990, 1994; Schofield, 1994; Schofield and Schofield, 1994). Borders often limit contact between people and can function as lines of economic containment and military defense (Prescott, 1987). A boundary will be classified as to whether it is designed for defensive purposes, as a separator of cultures or ethnic groups, according to economic factor, as an ideological divide or as a simple legal divide (Boggs, 1940; Glassner and de Blij, 1980; Reitsma, 1983; Prescott, 1987; Leimgruber, 1989, 1998; Falah and Newman, 1995; Newman and Paasi, 1998). The borders between Israel and Jordan, were areas of contention and conflict, militarized and hostile. Borders like these could be found in Central America (Nicaragua-Costa Rica) or between South and North Korea (Kliot, 1996, p. 4). In many cases they act as filters or barriers against influences considered negative or unwelcome by national government (Leimgruber, 1988).

However, in addition to their role as lines of separation, boundaries may also be viewed as lines of contact, places where similar or dissimilar cultures and economies converge. Many parts of the world are full of examples where political lines have been drawn through regions populated by culturally similar groups of people. This situation often gives rise to problems of territoriality, and contact between similar groups often goes unaltered by the presence of a political divide. Some open borders even allow a great deal of contact between dissimilar groups of people (Klemencic and Bufon, 1991; Minghi, 1991; Leimgruber, 1991; Lovell, 1994; Ossenbrugge, 1994). Subnational boundaries (e.g. provincial, country, etc) serve different functions from international ones (Timothy, 1995b). Figure 2.7 demonstrates a number of examples along this spectrum of permeability by Timothy (2001). Martinez (1994, p. 2) proposes four paradigms of borderlands interaction: alienated borderlands, co-existent borderlands, interdependent borderlands, and integrated borderlands (Figure 2.8).
Figure 2.7 Boundary Permeability

Source: Timothy, 2001
Figure 2.8 Four Paradigms of Borderlands

1. **Alienated borderlands**
   - Tension prevails, Border is functionally closed, and cross-border interaction is totally or nearly totally absent. Residents of each country act as strangers to each other (Middle East, Africa, Korea and Eastern Europe).

2. **Co-existent borderlands**
   - Stability is an on and off proposition. Border remains slightly open, allowing for the development of limited binational interaction. Residents of each country deal with each other as casual acquaintances, but borderlands develop closer relationships (Ecuador-Peru, Israel-Jordan, and USSR-China).

3. **Interdependent borderlands**
   - Stability prevails most of the time. Economic and social complementarity prompt increased cross-border interaction, leading to expansion of borderlands. Borderlanders carry on friendly and cooperative relationships (USA-Mexico).

4. **Integrated borderlands**
   - Stability is strong and permanent. Economics of both countries are functionally merged and there is unrestricted movement of people and goods across the boundary. Borderlanders perceive themselves as members of one social system (Western Europe).

Source: Martinez, 1994
As previously mentioned, borders are commonly regarded as barriers or constraints, even in the context of tourism however, in many cases this goes beyond mere perception. Many examples exist where tourist flows between neighbouring countries are heavily restricted (e.g. many African and Middle Eastern boundaries) and even altogether prohibited (e.g. North and South Korea, partitioned Cyprus) as illustrated Figure 2.2. In fact, even after the Korean War, total peace or tranquility has not been established between the two Koreas. In addition, Matznetter (1979) has suggested that the longer the waiting period at a border and the more formalities associated with crossing it, the more it tends to become an obstacle for tourists. Again, the perceived distance increases (Timothy, 1995b).

2.5.2 Tourism and Boundaries

In many ways the existence and functions of political boundaries influence the nature of the tourism industry and the spatial development of many tourist destinations, especially in touristic regions adjacent to, or bisected by, international frontiers. Matznetter (1979) has categorised the positions of international boundaries in relation to places of touristic interest into three broad types: (1) situations where the line runs between two touristic areas but at a significant distance from each; (2) situations where touristic areas touch a border, but only on one side; and (3) conditions where tourist areas about a boundary on both sides.

In the first situation the border is merely a barrier or a point of transit on the way to a more distant destination, and its influence on tourist flows depends largely on its degree of permeability. The second situation may remain the same for many years as tourism continues to develop on one side of the border only. However, in the event that tourists are permitted to cross the border easily, and given that the other side provides places or objects of interest, tourists from the developed side may begin to visit the non-developed side, thereby promoting the growth of tourism on both sides of the border until the situation becomes increasingly more like that in Matznetter’s third example. In this instance, the cohesion between the two tourist areas in each side depends to a large extent
on the degree of openness between adjacent countries. In areas of open borders, such as in the Lake Constance region of Central Europe, tourism often circulates across international lines so freely that the area’s political fragmentation is often forgotten.

Along similar lines, some researchers have suggested that international, regional cooperation regarding such matters as tourism promotion on both sides of a border effectively reduces the role of the boundary as common problems in adjacent peripheral areas may overshadow national considerations (Leimgruber, 1989; Richard, 1993). In other areas, however, such as along the Gulf of Aquba in the Middle East, boundaries act as barriers, and although beach tourism is a major industry along each country’s coast, it is usually not allowed to overlap political lines.

According to recent literature, and as indicated previously, tourism is a highly significant and growing industry in many border areas in much of the world. For example, Butler (1996, pp. 217) addresses the Berlin Wall, where there were major tourist attractions before the demise of communism. A frontier region, especially where this may border on other states or disputed areas may, therefore, represent an attraction precisely because it is something that most people do not experience in their normal lives. Several scholars (Eriksson, 1979; Leimgruber, 1989; Arreola & Curtis, 1993; Timothy, 1999) suggest that the level of attractiveness of border areas for tourists depends on a number of factors, including the natural, social and cultural environment near the border and the degree of freedom or difficulty in crossing it. However, in addition to the role of borders as filters or barriers to tourism, one of the most obvious relationships between the two is that of political boundaries as tourist attractions (Arreola, 1999). It is this interface of differences which many travellers find fascinating about political boundaries.

In this context, the research is now focusing on cross-frontier cooperation in tourism planning and development (Leimgruber, 1998; Boyd, 1999; Timothy, 1998b, 2000b). Some scholars studying borderlands, emphasise that the focus on cooperation is seen as promoting political harmony (Minghi, 1991; 1994; Newman, 1998; Timothy, 1998b; Sonmez and Apostopoulos, 2000). Kliot (1996, p. 5) notes the model of development of
cross-border cooperation from a hostile, closed border with no cooperation to a border with substantial cooperation (Figure 2.9). Timothy (2001, p. 172) thus notes “Cross-frontier cooperation is particularly consequential in assuring that the principles of sustainability (e.g. equity, harmony, holistic development, and economic and cultural integrity) are supported”. Cooperation in tourism between South and North Korea will be contingent on the same factors, which could unleash other forms of foreign income generation, especially joint venture exports. A benign political environment is a necessary condition for tourism development but it is far from sufficient. Problems range from the general economic situation (and especially shortage of electricity) to establishing a tourism infrastructure, transportation and personnel training. Then comes the marketing of North Korea as a tourism destination, a formidable task given its present image and fierce competition in the region. The impact of tourism on the social and political structure of North Korea is a contentious issue. North Korea is not alone in facing this challenge, which is common around the world, especially in small previously insulated countries. North Korea has long had modest inbound tourism but it was not until the beginning of the Mt. Geumgang venture in November 1998 that it moved into any form of mass tourism. According to Beal (2001b, p. 31), it is clear that whatever happens it will be the product of the same geo-political forces that will fashion the Korean peninsula as a whole. However, within those constraints, and challenging them, tourism can play a positive and special role. Thus, the following chapter explains the relationship between tourism and the borderland of the Mt. Geumgang tourism project between South and North Korea. Moreover, the methodology of this study examines the relationship between tourism and boundaries in a case study of South and North Korea, the role that borders and borderland environments of the DMZ development and cooperation for Korean unification play as tourist attractions through a tourist survey.

As mentioned in the early paragraphs of this section, tourism appears to be an increasingly important industry in many border areas, and it deserves more attention by academics and practitioners alike if it is to be effectively planned and promoted. Boundary monuments, parks, natural wonders, relict boundaries, cross-border shopping, gambling, welcome centres and international enclaves are just some of the attractions
which are currently contributing to the development of tourism in many border areas throughout the world (Maier and Weber, 1979; Curtis and Arreola, 1989; Timothy, 1995a; 1995b; 1996; 1998a; 1998b, 1998c, 2001). In particular, transfrontier parks, or border parks, provide a special category of national parks. These are protected areas located along the boundaries of countries and are increasingly recognised as “Peace Parks.” Border parks, on each side of a frontier, offer the benefits of larger, contiguous protected areas, increased cooperation between nations, and improved international understanding (D’Amore, 1988a, b; 1994; Brock, 1991, Timothy, 2000a). Exploration of this will be supported by the research questionnaire discussed in Chapter Five.

Figure 2.9 Development of Crossborder Cooperation along Borders in Transition

Source: Kliot (1996)
2.5.3 Tourism as a Peace Promoter

In a report on the First Global Conference, Tourism – A Vital Forces for peace held in Vancouver, Canada, Jafari (1989) noted that there were “several scores of publishable contributions.” Further conferences held in Montreal in 1994, Glasgow in 1999 and Jordan in 2002 were sponsored by the International Institute for Peace through Tourism (IIPT, 2002) which promotes tourism as a vehicle for promoting peace. According to the IIPT, tourism has a major role to play in promoting peace and several researchers have noted that tourism was used as a vehicle to promote improved relations between Spain and the rest of Europe during the Franco era (Ferrando, 1981; Anon, 1981). Hobson and Ko (1994) commented on the implications for tourism of the reestablishment of Chinese sovereignty over Hong Kong, Zhang (1993) examined tourism between China and Taiwan. Yu and Chung (2001) also examined travel between China and Taiwan identifying the potential for high and low level contacts to promote peace.

Many studies on the relationship between tourism and peace would argue that tourism does in fact promote peace. Nevertheless, others would dispute that claim and suggest that tourism, although it offers good opportunities for people of different cultures and countries to meet and learn more about each other, promotes understanding and acceptance of one another, and improves economic conditions, still does not bring about an absence of war as in the case of Lebanon, that, despite its popularity as a major tourist destination in the 1970’s still slid into a major civil war. This is one example where tourism failed to prevent war (Brown, 1989).

In this subsection, a considerable and largely cohesive body of literature emerges from the contributions of scholars from different disciplines (Sonmez, 1998) (Table – Appendix A). Tourism between countries is termed international, and travel within one country, domestic tourism (Pearce, 1987). Tourism, since it involves the movement of people from country to country and results in frequent economic, social and cultural exchanges, is likely to be a force contributing to world peace (Burnett and Uysal, 1990). Therefore, peace through tourism is not a new concept. In 1988, the first global
conference, Tourism-A Vital Force for Peace, was organised by the International Institute for Peace through Tourism under the guidance of Louis D’Amore, a crusader of peace through tourism. And even before that, President John F. Kennedy expressed a belief in world peace through tourism when he declared (Khamouna and Zeiger, 1995):

*Travel has become one of the great forces for peace and understanding in our time. As people move through the world and learn to know each other, to understand each other’s customs and to appreciate the qualities of the individuals of each nation, we are building a level of international understanding which can sharply improve the atmosphere for world peace.*

The very existence of tourism depends on peace. The relationship between tourism and peace has two dimensions according to Mihalic (1996). Here, consideration of tourism and peace is based upon the positive concept of peace as a harmonious relationship. This may occur at an individual-to individual or group level, or at any of the other two levels of international relations which have been identified. International tourism is regarded as a catalytic force for tension reduction and peace-building (Yu and Chung, 2001, p. 538).

Attempts to measure the relationship between tourism and peace are found in several social tourism studies (Ap and Var, 1990; D’Amore, 1988a, b; Burnett and Uysal, 1990; Var et al, 1989, 1998; Kim and Crompton, 1990; Litvin, 1998; Anson, 1999). Ap and Var discuss the question, “Does tourism promote world peace?”. For this purpose they carried out an explanatory survey of 56 Australians and 30 North American tourism professionals to examine how they perceive tourism as a promoter of world peace. They also focused on the perceived benefits and costs of tourism and sought to identify common parameters which quantify social impacts. Although tourism was viewed as an economic activity with positive impacts, it was not seen as a significant contributor to world peace. A low level of agreement (43%) and a high neutral response (40%) of the combined sample indicated a lack of agreement and uncertainty concerning the role of tourism and world peace.
On the other hand, Var, Schlutter, Ankomash and Lee (1989), examined the relationship between tourism and world peace in Argentina and Turkey. Both studies investigated whether tourism enhances world peace and international understanding. In Argentina 77 research questionnaires were distributed to students in various universities in spring 1988. Argentina is the second most popular destination after Brazil in South and Central America both in terms of visitor and foreign exchange earnings. For this reason Argentina was chosen as a one of ten countries for an international pilot study on how nationals of host countries view tourism. The research findings revealed that more than 80 per cent of the students agreed with the statement that tourism contributed positively to international understanding. Additionally, 92% of the sample agreed that tourism promotes cross cultural exchange and over 61% perceived tourism as a vital force for world peace. In other words this research showed clearly the respondents' awareness of the tourism industry's potential for fostering international understanding and world peace. In Turkey the research questionnaires were distributed to two groups of university students. The first group was undergraduate students who had taken a tourism class and had some work experience in the tourism industry while the other group were students who studied business administration with no formal training or education in tourism. The findings were very similar to those of Argentina. On the question whether tourism promotes cross cultural understanding 90.7% responded positively. Similarly on the notion whether tourism promotes world peace a high level of agreement at 80% of all the respondents was noted. Both studies demonstrate clearly a strong support for the belief that tourism does indeed contribute to world peace among the university students. This contrasts with the findings from the Australians and American professionals.

World peace is an intangible attribute and the impacts of tourism on world peace is a difficult concept to quantify (Ap and Var, 1990). Burnett and Uysal (1990) conducted a study on the nature of peace in relation to tourism in Kenya, Costa Rica and Cameroon. Unlike Kenya, tourism in Cameroon and Costa Rica has developed after the establishment of peace. Their observation precluded the prospect that tourism causes peace but found that tourism is synergistically interactive with peace. According to Hall (1994a), "the notion of tourism as a force for peace fails to appreciate the broad political
dimensions within which tourism occurs”. He further claims that “the idea that tourism is a force for peace is an overly simplistic interpretation of the complexities of tourism and international relations”. A similar view was questioned by Var et al (1998) that raised the question as to whether the promotion of world peace is a realistic attribute or is it a mere platitude? Some have suggested that the relationship between tourism and peace is tenuous.

In the Korean experience the relationship between tourism and peace was highlighted in a political aspect. Kim and Crompton (1990) discussed the role of tourism and its potential for unifying the two Koreas. They distinguished between two tracks in diplomacy. Track one is the official channel of government relations that have failed in Korea while track two, diplomacy, is the unofficial channel of people to people relations, friendliness, harmony and active cooperation, and peace was found to be likely to emerge from a track two approach. Therefore this was recommended for Korea by the authors. They cited Richter (1983b, p.324) who claimed that “governments use tourism as a diplomatic barometer of their closeness and affinity to each other", for they believe that increased personal interaction may break down barriers, reduce suspicion and facilitate mutual appreciation, and they pointed to the cultural agreement that was signed at the 1986 Geneva summit between USSR general secretary Gorbachev and the US president Reagan.
2.6 SUMMARY

In order to understand more fully the nature of partition in changing the political map of the world, we must integrate our abilities to develop theories of society and international relations on the one hand and to design methodologies appropriate to the study of specific cases on the other. As mentioned previously, for the most dramatic case of political change in recent years, one might look at the cases of Korea, Germany, Vietnam and China, all of which have been split into two or more segments since 1945. Two, Vietnam and Germany, have since been reunited, one by war and one by peace while the others remain separate and to some degree anomalous. Despite the often unsettled political climate which surrounds many of units, there is often considerable travel between them (Butler and Mao, 1995).

Generally, it has been documented that peace is good for most kinds of businesses, but for tourism it is absolutely essential (Ladki, et al, 2002). The definition of peace makes any suggestion that tourism causes peace patently absurd. Peace is caused by the absence of current or expected military violence. Tourism can only occur to any extent in a peaceful environment, but a hypothesis that tourism is interactive with peace is attractive. The advantages conveyed by tourism should logically encourage national cultivation of peaceful pursuits. National behaviour should avoid internal military violence and minimise the possibility of its attraction from the outside. The problem with the hypothesis is that what fields should accomplish the same thing and they seldom have. Furthermore, the proposed definition of peace applied to the case study suggests a need to refocus research on tourism’s relationship to peace. This will be explored in chapter seven in detail.

Crimes, terrorism, civil unrest and war have caused serious damage to the tourism industries of afflicted destinations and in some cases totally decimated a whole industry. A turbulent security environment, caused by wars, coups d’etat, civil wars and terrorist attacks, has already demonstrated its negative impact on tourism development in many countries around the world (Taylor and Quayle, 1994). This chapter clearly demonstrates
that a close connection has been observed in many parts of the world between various forms of instability and tourism. "The relationship between tourism and peace" issue as was found in the literature, concentrates mainly on with the socio-psychological attitudes towards tourism, although economic studies measuring the impact of peace on tourism are relatively few. Moreover, while it may be overstating reality to argue that tourism is necessarily a force for peace, it may be that this particular type of tourism is a precursor to and a positive influence on the improvement of diplomatic relations between divided nations, and may ultimately lead to the establishment of more conventional tourism between these units as their relations improve.

Therefore, research on this topic should be expanded but it is generally recognised that peace is a precondition for tourism. This provides an important background and a starting point for examining the development of tourism in one of the key areas of world instability. The following chapter provides the basic context and background of South and North Korea and also analyses tourism development and policy in South and North Korea. Additionally, the next chapter examines tourism as a low-politics activity in influencing initial reconciliation between the two governments and people and discusses the current travel flows between the two Koreas.
Border Tourism and the DMZ Development in South Korea as a Peace Promoter

INTRODUCTION CH1

Secondary Research

Peace and Tourism in Divided Nations CH2

Tourism Development and Policy in South and North Korea

Historic View CH3

South Korea North Korea South Korea's Policy towards North Korea

Primary Research

Methodology CH5

Analysis of Findings CH6, CH7 and CH8

Conclusions, Implications and Recommendation CH9

Case Study: The DMZ Development CH4
CHAPTER III

TOURISM DEVELOPMENT AND POLICY IN SOUTH AND NORTH KOREA

3.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Wahab (1997, p. 133), tourism policy ‘as an integral part of a nation’s overall economic policy must be coordinated with the policies of all other sectors directly or indirectly related to tourism.’ In addition, while there may be specific public policies for tourism development, this is not always so and depends to a large extent on the role the government chooses to play in relations with the tourism industry, which is itself partly dependent on the political ideology or philosophy of the government. Richter (1989) discusses how the socialist ideologies of regimes in Asia and Eastern Europe respectively, affected their policies toward tourism development. According to Hall (1994a), government usually have two roles in tourism policy making. The first is an active role where a deliberate action is introduced to favour the tourism sector. The second is a passive attitude where actions are undertaken which might have implications for tourism but are not specifically intended to favour or influence tourism development. In support of this argument Cooper et al. (1995) stated that the degree of government involvement in promoting and providing facilities for tourism depends upon the political complexion of the government. For his part, Elliott (1997) notes that how tourism is managed will depend upon the political culture of the country and the ideology of its government.

However, in terms of ‘developing countries’ despite the indispensability of tourism policy as a precursor for future tourism planning and development, many developing countries have yet to develop statements of their tourism policies (Wahab, 1997). As a consequence,
not only is it difficult to find actual tourism policy documents but reference to tourism public policies in the literature of developing countries is scant. In order to examine the impact of public policy on tourism development one cannot, in many instances, look for specific tourism policies, but must wade through the myriad of public policies in order to ascertain their relevance to specific development in tourism.

The larger role for tourism policy can only be understood conceptually and substantively analysed once the philosophical guidelines and practical interests of tourism are investigated and described in a broad contextual framework (Edgell, 1990a). To guide the government’s own programmes and the actions of private and non-profit organizations, it is essential to give top priority to the establishment of a tourism policy. A statement of tourism policy must provide a set of guidelines for all those directly and indirectly involved in tourism by specifying the broad goals and objectives, priorities, and actions that will provide the basis for the future development of tourism in the destination area. Despite the clear need to establish a tourism policy as a precursor for future tourism planning and development, many government agencies have yet to develop statements of their tourism policies. The development of tourism raises substantial policy issues. Two reasons for this are that tourism may generate significant externalities and that it is of considerable economic importance as an activity. It is true to say that the emphasis in tourism research to date has been on the measurement and evaluation of the economic importance of tourism. The purpose of this chapter is to give a concise presentation of tourism development and policy in South Korea and North Korea. Within the confines of the chapter South Korea and North Korea’s economy, infrastructure, communications and tourism development are briefly examined along with its historic and cultural profile and demographic characteristics. In addition, general background information about the location of the study is presented.
3.2 GENERAL PROFILE

3.2.1 Geography

The Korean Peninsula extends southward from the northeast part of the Asian continent between 33° and 43° North Latitude and 124° and 132° East Longitude. The standard meridian of the peninsula is 135°, 9 hours ahead of GMT. The Korean peninsula is strategically located in the heart of Northeast Asia, and surrounded by three powerful countries: China, Russia, and Japan. The peninsula has served as a bridge between powers in mainland Asia and those in the Pacific (Travel Agency, 1993). Since 1945, as a by-product of the Cold War, the peninsula has been divided at latitude 38° North into the capitalist Republic of Korea, or South Korea, and the communist Democratic People’s Republic of Korea (North Korea), more commonly known as North Korea by the United States and the Soviet Union (KNTC, 1994).

The total area of the peninsula is 221,607 km², similar in size to that of England, New Zealand, and Romania. South Korea possesses 99,237 km² or 45% of the total land mass, and North Korea 122,370 km², the remaining 55%. About 70% of the land is mountainous, mainly to the north and east. Along the southern and western coasts the mountains descend gradually towards broad coastal plains. Most of the rivers have their tributaries on the north and east sides, and flow into the Yellow and South Seas. Concentrated for the most part off the southern coast are upwards of 3,000 highly scenic islands. The largest is the volcanic Cheju 50 miles (80 km) off the south-west coast with its 6,400 ft (1,950 m) peak Mount Halla, Korea’s highest mountain (KNTC, 1994).

Korea lies in the Temperate Zone and has four distinct seasons. Occasional showers can be expected from March to May. Summer is relatively hot and rainy. The monsoon rains usually begin at the end of June, and the heaviest rainfall occurs in July. The coming of autumn in late September brings continental winds and clear, dry weather, making the autumn months the most pleasant time of the year for most visitors. December to February are cold and dry with occasional rain or snow.
The four distinct seasons give rise to a varied geographical distribution of both coniferous and deciduous plants; 160 families with about 883 genera and 3,600 species may be found, including over 900 types of trees. Some of the most common flora are the thorn, aspen, ginkgo trees, the royal azalea, crinum, and of course, ginseng, well-known as a cure-all medicinal herb.

Korea is host to 379 species of birds, 130 species of fish, 14 species of amphibians, and 25 species of reptiles. Korea’s indigenous fauna include the Korean black bear, the mandarin field vole, Tristram’s woodpecker, deer, and various types of pheasants. The Korean tiger and the Asiatic black bear have now disappeared from the peninsula but remain animals symbolic of the Korean traditional spirit and emotions. The Chindo and Sabsal dogs, two of the native domesticated animals, remain popular, and are well-known for their intelligence, faithfulness and obedience (KNTO, 1998).

3.2.2 History and Development of Key Recent Events

- 1948: At the end of World War II, the US and the Soviet Union agreed that US troops would accept the surrender of Japanese forces south of the 38th parallel and the Soviet Union would do so in the north. In 1948, the UN proposed nationwide elections; after Pyongyang’s refusal to allow UN inspectors in the north, elections were held in the south and the Republic of Korea was established. The Democratic People’s Republic of Korea was established the following month in the north.

- 1950-1953: Korean War. US and other UN forces intervened to defend the South and Chinese forces intervened on behalf of the North. Communist North Korean forces invaded South Korea in 1950. After a bitter three-year war, an armistice was signed in 1953, establishing a military demarcation line near the 38th parallel. Thereafter, South Korea achieved impressive economic growth, with per capita output rising to 13 times the level in the North.

The North Korea-Soviet Union agreement on friendship, cooperation and mutual assistance.
The North Korea-Chinese agreement on friendship, cooperation and mutual assistance.

- 1972 to 1999: Negotiations between South and North Korea for peace and reunification continue. Since late 1997, however, the nation has suffered widespread financial and organisational difficulties. Continuing tensions between North and South have raised concerns of provocative military actions by the North.

- 1985: Separated Korean families made a reunion with relatives through their Pyongyang and Seoul visits.

- 1988: Hosting of the 24th Olympiad in Seoul, which marked the beginning of relations with Central and Eastern Europe.

- 1990: Inter-Korean Soccer exchanges in Pyongyang and Seoul. North and South Korea separately and simultaneously acquired UN membership. North – South agreement on cooperation, non-aggression, cooperation and exchange was adopted.

- September, 1991: South and North Korea were simultaneously admitted to the United Nations.

- 1994: Present Kim Il-Sung of South Korea passed away, succeeded by his son.

- 1995: The Pyongyang International Sports and Cultural Festival for Peace was held with various musical and sports events, attracting about 10,000 tourists.

- 1996: North Korea succeeded in concluding $840 million worth of foreign investment agreements at an international forum held in the Rajin-Sonbong area.

- 1998: About 60,000 people concerned about the threat of famine in North Korea, participated in the “international fasting day” for North Koreans, held in a total of 107 cities in 35 countries.

- 2000: In June the leaders of divided Korea (South Korean President Kim Dae Jung and North Korean leader Kim Jong II) met face-to-face for an unprecedented summit in Pyongyang. The announcement took everyone by surprise, not the least because of its historic nature. The summit marked the first ever meeting
between leaders of the two Koreas. Ever since the rival governments in Seoul and Pyongyang were established in 1948, relations between North and South Korea have been marked by deep enmity, even outright bloodshed, as evidenced by the Korean War of 1950-53. A summit was planned in 1994, but the event never took place because of the sudden death of North Korea’s then-leader Kim Il Sung. Now, the June meeting marks another chance to start healing half a century of brotherly hatred.

After the Korean War, South Korea formed a democratic government and has made remarkable progress in the area of politics, economics, and culture with its tireless post-war reconstruction efforts. South Korea’s meteoric economic success has led many underdeveloped countries to regard it as a model for economic development (KNTO, 1998).

3.2.3 People, Religion and Language

Koreans, like many other Asian peoples, are descendants of the Mongolian race. They differ from the neighbouring Japanese and Chinese, however, in that Koreans are a homogeneous ethnic group with their own language, culture, and customs. In 1995, South Korea had a population of 45 million compared with 25 million North Koreans, and an annual population growth rate of 0.9% (KSO, 1995).

There are over three hundred religions in Korea. Buddhism and Confucianism were dominant in the past, and their influence can be seen in Korean life since the time of the three kingdoms (57 BC-AD 668). Christianity has developed a vast following since it was introduced in the late 18th century, and its influence is now being felt throughout society.

Korean culture has blossomed during her long history. Though affected by other Asian cultures, its roots lie deep within the creative Korean psyche, and it has tend to spread rather than be encroached upon. Japan especially has adopted many Korean ideas and customs. The delicate styling and fine craftsmanship of celadon pottery well illustrates...
the refinement of the culture, even from as far back as the Three Kingdoms period. Korea has also spawned some great inventors, its first printing systems predate Gutenberg’s, the famous ‘Turtle Ship’ was the first ever iron-clad battleship (KNTO, 1998). The Korea character system, “Han-Gul”, consists of 14 consonants and 10 vowels. It was developed by a group of scholars under the patronage of King Sejong in the 15th century. This language is totally different from Chinese or Japanese (KNTO, 1998). The reasons behind Korea’s rapid economic development can be found in this innate creativity (KOIS, 1994).

3.3. ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AND NORTH KOREA

3.3.1 An Overview of South Korean Economy

According to the World Bank, in 1995, South Korea was ranked the world’s 11th economic power in terms of gross national product with US$ 440 billion. The per capita GNP was about US$ 10,000, giving a real growth rate of 7% in that year (McGahey, 1995). In 1997, as Korea became a member of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), many Koreans believed Korea was on the threshold of becoming accepted as an advanced country.

The recent development that Korea has experienced is remarkable in view of its record in the early 1960s. For most of its long history, Korea was economically backward. Few significant industries developed in Korea before independence from Japan. Soon afterward, the economy was devastated by the effects of the 1950-53 war, followed by a long period of recovery. Thus, as late as 1961 Korea suffered from many of the difficulties facing less developed countries today. In addition to its extreme poverty, the population was growing by three percent annually, and underemployment was pervasive (Kim, 1993).

Korea’s economy has made an outstanding performance in recent years despite unfavorable initial conditions for development, such as limited natural resources, a narrow domestic market, negligible domestic savings and a lack of development
experience. Since Korea launched its first five-year development plan in 1962, real GNP has expanded by an average of more than 8 percent per year (Korea was a typical agricultural society before launching its first five-year development). As a result, Korea’s GNP grew from $2.3 billion in 1962 to $480.4 billion in 1996, and per capita GNP increased from a meager $87 to $10,548 (Bank of Korea, 1997). In addition, Korea’s industrial structure has been drastically transformed. As shown in Table 3.1, the manufacturing sector enlarged its share of the GNP from 11.6 percent in 1963 to 27.2 percent in 1996. Korea’s commodity trade volume increased from $500 million to $166.0 billion at current prices, and the ratio of domestic savings to GNP grew from 3.3 percent to 34.9 percent during the same period. Since the mid-1980s, South Korea has been encouraging a transition from heavy to high-tech industries, such as the computer, semiconductor, communication and media industries. The government and private companies have invested a great deal of money in these industries. In the 1990s, service industries have gradually increased, while manufacturing has slightly decreased. The South Korean economy may be dominated by service industries in the future.

Economic reform began in the late 1970s and made economic growth even faster. From 1980 to 1991 the GNP increased by 8.4 percent annually. The sixth five-year plan (1987-1991) was revised in 1988 because the economic performance during 1987, the first year of the five-year plan, far exceeded the original projection, and because political democratisation and subsequent demand voiced by different segments of society made the adjustment of macroeconomic management and the priorities of economic policy inevitable. The sixth five-year plan was carried out successfully and Korea embarked on a new five-year plan (1993-1997), looking forward to the 21st century with a focus on globalisation (Kwon, 1998). In Korea, economic prosperity is not far off. This country has been one of the best examples of how economic development can be accomplished without sacrificing national defense or social stability. The economy has grown rapidly and will continue to progress, although the recent crisis in Korea and several Asian countries was a setback, which affected growth for an unknown period.
### Table 3.1 Korea: Economic Indicators, 1963-1995

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population (million)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GNP per capita ($)</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>1,589</td>
<td>5,659</td>
<td>10,076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GNP ($billion)</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross saving rate (%)</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>36.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross investment rate (%)</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of GNP (%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>43.5</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing and mining</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>27.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>51.1</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td>61.5</td>
<td>66.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of employment (%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>63.1</td>
<td>50.4</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing and mining</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>23.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>43.5</td>
<td>54.9</td>
<td>63.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate (%)</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exchange rate (won/$)</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>716</td>
<td>775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exports ($billion)</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imports ($billion)</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>63.1</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade balance ($billion)</td>
<td>-0.41</td>
<td>-0.9</td>
<td>-4.3</td>
<td>65.1</td>
<td>-4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exports / GNP (%)</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>-2.0</td>
<td>41.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imports / GNP (%)</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>42.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average annual growth (%)</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross saving rate (%)</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>24.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross investment rate (%)</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>31.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inflation: average annual rate (%)</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real effective exchange rate</td>
<td>1985-86 = 100 (average)</td>
<td>78.9</td>
<td>88.9</td>
<td>93.5</td>
<td>104.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average population growth (%)</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average growth of employment (%)</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average unemployment rate (%)</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average growth of productivity</td>
<td>7.1**</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>4.2*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth of real wages over productivity</td>
<td>3.8***</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>4.0*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Average annual growth rates are arithmetic averages over the period.

b 1990-1994; * 1964-94; ** 1964-69 and *** 1966-69

Sources: NSO 1996; Nam and Kim, 1995:178

### 3.3.2 The Significance of Tourism in South Korean Economy

Since the early 1960s, the economy of South Korea has grown rapidly and has become a textbook example of successful economic development (Todaro, 1994). An issue with tremendous bearing on the prospects of the Korean economy is the eventual reunification of North and South Korea. The magnitude of the impact of reunification will vary with the way and time of reunification. Two scenarios are often envisaged (Kim, 1997). One, like the German reunification, could occur after the sudden collapse of North Korea due to a variety of economic and political difficulties. The second is peaceful co-existence, eventually leading to reunification. The researcher focuses on this research through a
peaceful co-existence period, and this approach is the one officially endorsed by South Korea. Hence, South Korea must provide economic aid to North Korea, starting immediately with substantial food aid, construction of industrial complexes and social infrastructure, collaboration in overseas markets and joint participation in multilateral co-operation. The South Korean economy would benefit from such economic co-operation with the North Korea, by making the most of its economic complementarity with the North and diverting military expenses to more constructive uses.

Thus, the estimated economic impact of tourism is significant in Korea. Furthermore, according to Lee and Kwon (1995), total tourism receipts were US $3.5 billion in 1993, and generated US $11.7 billion of output, US $2.4 billion in income, and created 350,000 full-time jobs. With a few exceptions (1991 and 1992), tourism has made a positive contribution to Korea's trade balance every year from 1985 until the recent outbound surge in outbound travel overcame the inbound stagnancy of the early 1990s (see Table 3.5). In 1991, the current account deficit increased by more than 300% to 8,000 million US dollars, mainly owing to a growing trade deficit (US $7,000 million) and a travel deficit of US $358 million (KNTO, 1997).

Although economic growth has continued to increase disposable incomes and stimulate the desire to travel, a crisis in the overburdened financial systems of some of the fastest growing Asian “Tiger” economies occurred in 1997. The leading ‘tiger’, Korea, was ranked as the world’s 11th biggest economy (Financial Times daily newspaper, 1998a). The leading economic growth that the country experienced contained the possible seeds of future trouble. Korea had attracted a flood of foreign investment which pushed up land and asset prices (Financial Times daily newspaper, 1998b). Furthermore, Korea enjoyed an investment-led economic boom in 1994-1995, but at a cost. The chaebols (Korean industrial conglomerates), always heavily reliant on borrowing, now had huge debts—four times equity on average—and excess production capacity. The crisis revealed that political, financial and corporate structures were not well suited to cope with the demands of an increasing globalised economy. Even in Korea, hundreds of thousands of workers have lost their jobs since the crisis began in 1997 (KNTO, 1998).
Nevertheless, this problem can be overcome and strong economic growth can ultimately continue to increase. In March 1998 the Ministry of Culture and Sports, was name changed to ‘Ministry of Culture Tourism’ and has undergone structural changes. These changes reflect a commitment by the new government of President Kim Dae-jung to stimulate the tourist industry in the 21st century (KNTO, 1998). This reorganisation is expected to make the development of tourist attractions more systematic and efficient, for example, the holding of major mega events that boost the status of the region such as Football World Cup in 2002.

3.3.3 Organisation of the North Korean Economy

The organising principle of the North Korean economy is the ideology of juche or national self-reliance. The result has been the development of the world’s most autarkic economy. Since North Korea’s inception, property rights have resided primarily with the state and resource allocation has largely been carried out through central planning, not markets. The distinguishing feature of North Korea has been the extremes to which central planning has been taken (Noland, Robinson and Wang, 2000b).

In contrast to South Korea, planning and management of the economy are centralised and the directives of governing bodies are binding for all economic actors (Vesper, 1996). More than 90% of this economy is socialised; agricultural land is collectivised; and state-owned industry produces 95% of manufactured goods. State control of economic affairs is unusually tight, even for a communist country, because of the small size and homogeneity of the society and the strict rule of Kim Il-Sung in the past and now his son, Kim Jong-II.

The primary constraint on an accurate assessment of North Korea’s economic and political situation remains the limited flow of reliable empirical data. However, available data and anecdotal evidence do provide a snapshot of broad economic trends and their possible influence on the policies of North Korea. Perhaps the most significant economic developments in North Korea since the death of Kim II-Sung are the de facto devolution
Chapter Three  Tourism Development and Policy in South and North Korea

...of economic authority and responsibility from the central government to local authorities, the economic penetration of the North Korea by outside forces, and the transformation by default of the North Korea’s economic structure from one that relies on central planning to regulate supply and demand to one in which market mechanisms- albeit distorted by corruption and special privileges-play a key role. The result of these trends is that North Korea cannot afford to live in “splendid isolation” from the outside world, but neither can it afford to open up without risking possible subversion.

Under Kim Il-Sung’s rule, the central government dominated local authorities, and the state was the purchaser and provider of most goods and services. Procurement of goods outside the state distribution system was relatively rare and was based more on privileges granted by the state than on price. In addition, the state delivered on its ration commitments with relative regularity, diminishing economic pressures that might otherwise have led to illicit transactions. Furthermore, the punishment for illegal activity was high—a loss of life or of economic and social privileges. The procurement of goods beyond normal rations was limited, and authorities actively suppressed private commercial transactions and other forms of “corruption”.

3.3.4 Trends in North Korean Economic Activity

At the time of the division of the peninsula, North Korea had relatively more physical and human capital than South Korea, was relatively more industrialised, and had a higher per capita income. Much of the physical capital stock was destroyed during the Korean War, which was accompanied by mass population movements as well. Nevertheless, the conventional wisdom is that per capita income in North Korea exceeded that of South Korea until well into the 1970s (Noland, Robinson and Wang, 2000b).

During the early 1970s, North Korea attempted a large-scale modernisation programme through the importation of Western technology, principally in the heavy industrial sectors of the economy. Unable to finance its debt through exports that shrank steadily after the worldwide recession stemming from the oil crisis of the 1970s, North Korea became the
first communist country to default on its loans from free market countries. In 1979 North Korea was able to renegotiate much of its international debt, but in 1980 it defaulted on all of its loans except those from Japan. By the end of 1986, the North's hard-currency debt had reached more than $4 billion. It also owed nearly $2 billion to communist creditors. The Japanese also declared the North in default. By 1993, North Korea's debt was estimated at $10 billion. Largely because of these debt problems but also because of a prolonged drought and mismanagement, North Korea's industrial growth slowed and per capita GNP fell below that of South Korea. By the end of 1979, per capita GNP in North Korea was about one-third of that in South Korea. The causes for this relatively poor performance were complex, but a major factor was the disproportionately large percentage of GNP (possibly as much as 25 percent) that the North Korea devotes to the military (Cho, 1973).

In April 1982, Kim Il-Sung announced a new economic policy giving priority to increased agricultural production through land reclamation, development of the country's infrastructure- especially power plants and transportation facilities and reliance on domestically produced equipment. There was also more emphasis on trade. In September 1984, North Korea promulgated a joint venture law to attract foreign capital and technology. The new emphasis on expanding trade and acquiring technology, however, has not been accompanied by a shift in priorities away from support of the military. North Korea has an international trade share- exports plus imports- of 12 percent of GDP, well below South Korea's figure of 55 percent (Hwang, 1993).

North Korea’s faltering economy and the collapse of trade relations with the countries of the former socialist bloc has confronted Pyongyang with difficult policy choices. Other centrally planned economies in similar difficulties have opted for domestic economic reform and liberalisation of trade and investment. North Korea announced in 1993, a three-year transitional economic policy placing primary emphasis on agriculture, light industry, and foreign trade, despite its limited political and ideological control. Although most North Korean citizens live in cities and work in factories, agriculture remains important, worth 30% of total GNP, although output has recently been falling. While
trade with the South has expanded, no physical links between the two remain and the infrastructure of the North is generally poor and outdated.

Economic growth during the period 1984-88 averaged 2-3%, but output declined by an average of 4-5% or more annually between 1989 and 1997 (Eberstadt, 1999, p. 8) because of systemic problems and disruptions in economic and technological links with the former USSR and China. The leadership has insisted on maintaining its high level of military outlay from a shrinking economy. Moreover, a serious drawdown in inventories and critical shortages in the energy sector have led to increasing interruptions in industrial production. Abundant mineral resources and hydropower had formed the basis of industrial development since World War II. Manufacturing is centered on heavy industry, including military industry, with light industry lagging far behind. Despite the use of improved seed varieties, expansion of irrigation, and the heavy use of fertilizers, North Korea is not yet self-sufficient in food production. Indeed, a shortage of arable land, several years of poor harvests, systemic inefficiencies, a cumbersome distribution system, and extensive floods in 1995-96 followed by a severe drought in 1997 have resulted in increasingly serious food shortages (The Bank of Korea, 1997). Substantial grain shipments from Japan and South Korea are offsetting a portion of the losses. North Korea, therefore, remains far behind South Korea in economic development and living standards.

The economy of North Korea complies with state socialism wherein the state owns almost all businesses. Since 1990, the GNP has been declining and is set to continue that trend (Table 3.2 and 3.3). Likewise the North Korean authorities announced that their GNP per capita fell to US$480 in 1992, from US$1,920 in 1979 (Cho and Zang, 1999). The trade imbalance has increased the deficit. After losing major trading partners such as the former Soviet Union and socialist countries of Eastern Europe early in the 1990s, the volume of foreign trade has decreased. As long as it is dependent on the centralised state planning system, the country will be pressed to escape the economically dire conditions. North Korea had to struggle for the establishment of a totally new economic system. There was neither an administrative nor an organizational framework, and hardly any technological know-how or professional workforce existed after the division with which
to rebuild the economy. The external problem that North Korea has had to deal with is the lack of political recognition of North Korea by the international community. This political status and the on-going economic embargo imposed on North Korea by member of the UN has put North Korea in very severe economic isolation.

Table 3.2 Economic Indicators of North Korea, 1991-1994

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Real GNP growth %</td>
<td>-5.2</td>
<td>-5.0</td>
<td>-3.5</td>
<td>-2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GNP per capita $</td>
<td>1,038</td>
<td>943</td>
<td>904</td>
<td>923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population, thousands</td>
<td>22,028</td>
<td>22,336</td>
<td>22,645</td>
<td>22,953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exports $ million</td>
<td>1,010</td>
<td>1,020</td>
<td>1,020</td>
<td>840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imports $ million</td>
<td>1,710</td>
<td>1,640</td>
<td>1,620</td>
<td>1,270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade balance $ million</td>
<td>-700</td>
<td>-620</td>
<td>-600</td>
<td>-430</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Country Report: South Korea, North Korea, Economist Intelligence Unit (4th quarter 1996)

: Major North Korean Economic Indicators, Korea Trade Association (1996)

In 1997, the financial crisis in the South limited the prospects for large-scale economic cooperation between the two Koreas. However, the amount of viable trade and investment inputs that are available to North Korea continued to exceed Pyongyang’s capacity to absorb them. The flow of cash from South Korean tourism and business activities through the northeastern China border area into North Korea also dried up, making it harder to finance private barter and exchange activities in North Korea. In addition, the collapse of the Hong-Kong-based Peregrine Consulting firm, a major source for venture capital for the few efforts to invest in the Rajin-Sonbong Free Trade Zone, eliminated a source of capital financing for investment (Reese, 1998). North Korea’s international competitiveness as a site of foreign investment was undermined by the crisis. Nevertheless, the economic situation in North Korea was said to have improved with the better food situation and aid from other countries (KOTRA, 2001). However, in 2001, with a growth rate of 15.1 percent to about $2.27 billion, exports reached about $650
million, up 14.9 percent year on year, and imports about $1.62 billion, up 15.2 percent (KOTRA, 2003)

### Table 3.3 North Korean Trade Volume, 1990-1998

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Exports</th>
<th>Imports</th>
<th>Total two-way Trade</th>
<th>Balance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>-0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>-0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>-0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>-0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>-0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>-0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>-0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>-0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: KOTRA, 1999 & Bank of Korea, 1999

#### 3.3.5 International Economic Relations

Following China, North Korea’s other largest trade partners are Japan, South Korea, Russia and Germany (Noland, 1998) (Table 3.4 and Table 3.5). Most of the trade between North and South Korea consists of apparel manufactured on consignment and then trans-shipped through China. Noticeably absent from the list of trade partners is the United States, which effectively maintains an embargo against North Korea (Noland et al., 2000b).

Two points stand out from the aggregate trade figures. First, reported trade volumes have not been growing, reinforcing the impression of an economy in decline. Second, North Korea has been running chronic trade deficits. These deficits must be financed in some
Chapter Three  Tourism Development and Policy in South and North Korea

way, but since a series of loan defaults in the 1970s, North Korea has been effectively cut off from international capital markets. If North Korea’s trade with South Korea and China (which has permitted North Korea to accumulate large arrears in its trade account) is interpreted as politically determined, then these two countries would appear to finance nearly two-thirds of North Korea’s trade deficit (Eberstadt, 1996; Noland, 1996, 1998). According to Table 3.4 and Table 3.5, North Korea’s trade partners would be South Korea, China, and Japan, in that order. South Korea, China and Japan alone would account for nearly two-thirds of North Korea’s trade. Led by processing trades, economic transaction between South and North Korea will increase to a significant degree and the existing processing trades will also expand (KOTRA, 2001).

Table 3.4 North Korea’s Largest Trade Partners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. China</td>
<td>166,797</td>
<td>270,863</td>
<td>570,660</td>
<td>467,309</td>
<td>737,457</td>
<td>738,172</td>
<td>32.6</td>
<td>32.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Japan</td>
<td>225,618</td>
<td>234,404</td>
<td>249,077</td>
<td>135,137</td>
<td>474,695</td>
<td>369,541</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Thailand</td>
<td>24,098</td>
<td>44,616</td>
<td>105,964</td>
<td>171,966</td>
<td>130,062</td>
<td>216,582</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. India</td>
<td>3,060</td>
<td>4,768</td>
<td>154,793</td>
<td>186,573</td>
<td>167,853</td>
<td>191,341</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Germany</td>
<td>22,756</td>
<td>27,799</td>
<td>82,077</td>
<td>140,418</td>
<td>104,833</td>
<td>168,217</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Russia</td>
<td>4,541</td>
<td>3,642</td>
<td>63,794</td>
<td>77,048</td>
<td>68,335</td>
<td>80,690</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Hong Kong</td>
<td>37,974</td>
<td>21,940</td>
<td>42,555</td>
<td>29,169</td>
<td>80,529</td>
<td>51,109</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Netherlands</td>
<td>10,424</td>
<td>6,377</td>
<td>9,067</td>
<td>27,620</td>
<td>19,491</td>
<td>33,997</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Bangladesh</td>
<td>37,701</td>
<td>32,267</td>
<td>1,275</td>
<td>490</td>
<td>38,976</td>
<td>32,757</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td>536,019</td>
<td>647,472</td>
<td>1,391,560</td>
<td>1,318,756</td>
<td>1,927,579</td>
<td>1,966,228</td>
<td>85.3</td>
<td>87.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Korea’s Total</td>
<td>650,208</td>
<td>734,992</td>
<td>1,620,291</td>
<td>1,525,396</td>
<td>2,270,499</td>
<td>2,260,388</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1: North Korea’s Trade with South Korea is not included in the figures; North-South Trade is considered as internal domestic trade and thus no tariffs are applied.

Note 2: The Trade Partners are based on 2002 rankings.
Source: KOTRA Overseas Trade Centre Reports, 2003
Table 3.5 Intra-Korean Trade by Years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Import</th>
<th>Export</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>18,655</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>18,724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>12,278</td>
<td>1,188</td>
<td>13,466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>105,719</td>
<td>5,547</td>
<td>111,266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>162,863</td>
<td>10,563</td>
<td>173,426</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>178,167</td>
<td>8,425</td>
<td>186,592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>176,298</td>
<td>18,249</td>
<td>194,547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>222,855</td>
<td>64,436</td>
<td>287,291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>182,400</td>
<td>69,639</td>
<td>252,039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>193,069</td>
<td>115,270</td>
<td>308,339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>92,264</td>
<td>129,679</td>
<td>221,943</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>121,604</td>
<td>211,832</td>
<td>333,437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>152,373</td>
<td>272,775</td>
<td>425,148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>176,170</td>
<td>226,787</td>
<td>402,957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>271,575</td>
<td>370,155</td>
<td>641,730</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub Total</td>
<td>2,066,292</td>
<td>1,504,613</td>
<td>3,570,905</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: The Ministry of Unification (MOU), 2003

- Evaluation of the Restructuring of the Industrial Production System

The North’s efforts to revamp its industrial sectors represent an exercise in practicality, where by the regime dramatically cuts down on the waste of raw materials and irresponsible management, the two main factors that have caused the inefficiency. It represents a distinctive break from the era of Kim Il-sung, who emphasized above all the primacy of the Combined Enterprise for the North Korean economy. North Korea’s restructuring efforts are being seen as an attempt to promote its industrial productivity. Currently scraping the bottom of its coffers, the North Korean regime is giving central financial assistance to only core factories and enterprises and subsidizing certain strategic sectors to decrease its financial burden and increase its cash earnings. However, it still seems that all of this has been carried out under the overarching mantle of maintaining a socialist economy.

There is a possibility that, in the future, the North will look for “alternative business projects” and extend the individual accounting system to all levels of production.
Nevertheless, North Korea, even with its recent restructuring, may not be able to successfully respond to the ongoing external changes that require an increasing level of interaction with foreign economies and the promotion of inter-Korean economic cooperation. The restructuring is not believed to have effectively changed the industrial system sufficiently for a flexible response to external factors, thereby limiting in industrial productivity.

3.3.6 Prospect of North Korea’s Economic Policy in 2000

3.3.6.1 Economic Growth in 1999

Newly available information has made it possible to extend and recalibrate the earlier Noland et al (1998, 1999). North Korea model to 1996, reflecting North Korea’s changed circumstances. It is also plausible that the process of economic integration could be accompanied by political rapprochement or unification (Noland et al, 2000a). The North Korean economy posted slight growth thanks to solid growth in the construction, agricultural and fishery industries in the last year, after declines for the previous nine years in a row. The noticeable turn around in the national economy resulted from extensive growth in the construction sector, driven by abundant labour. However, this can hardly be seen as a sign of a genuine recovery. The heavy chemical industry, which constitutes a significant portion of the economy, is still mired in recession, while the volume of international trade declined in 1999 from $1.44 billion of the year before. With some core industries showing no signs of recovery, North Korea seems incapable of coping with the chronic shortages of food and energy within the foreseeable future. It still continues to depend on grants from the international community to a great extent.

North Korea’s GNP is estimated to have grown 6.2 percent in 1999 from the previous year, the first positive gain in 10 years (Bank of Korea, 2000). North Korea’s exports and imports amounted to $520 million and $960 million last year, respectively, compared with South Korea’s exports of $143.69 billion and imports of $119.75 billion. Last year’s inter-Korean trade jumped 50.2 percent year-on-year to $333.4 million. The central bank
also said North Korea’s total foreign debts amounted to $12.3 billion last year, compared with South Korea’s $136.45 billion (Korea Economy, 2000).

3.3.6.2 Economic Policy Direction of North Korea
North Korea is expected to implement pragmatic policies which will focus on specific measures to increase profits and improve the quality of industrial products. In this vein, the priority for national policies will be placed on reforming the economic management system rather than the political system, with specific steps being taken to boost productivity and profits at each level of the national economy and to eradicate inefficient elements. In addition, most of its resources are likely to continue to be allocated to selected mainstay industries such as agriculture, construction, electricity and transportation. With the science and technology area designated as one of the three pillars upon which to build the “strong and prosperous state”, some economic policies will be focused on developing advanced and practical technologies such as electronic and precision technologies, with the ultimate purpose of staving off the persistent economic crisis.

As far as the infiltration of foreign ideas and influence is concerned, North Korea, unlike in the past, has been conspicuously reducing its propaganda against the United States and South Korea in recent months. This softer stance can be interpreted in a larger context to be reflective of the North’s major policy goals, such as the expansion of the special economic zones, joining major financial organisations of the world and the normalisation of diplomatic ties with the United States and Japan. It is believed that North Korea has determined its economic policy for 2001 as a continuation of last year’s policy, while exceptionally admitting its economic difficulties to the public. The worsening economic disasters have prevented policymakers from even drafting a long-term economic plan since the end of the third-term seven-year development plan in 1993.

In light of the harsh realities the Communist country is experiencing, as mirrored in the weakening of the economic growth potential and fall of international credibility, it is still a challenge for the financially-stricken country to commit to long-term economic plans.
Internally, the North’s economic plans are liable to revolve around measures to consolidate its economic infrastructure by resolving some of the most urgent tasks in core industries by 2002, the year of Kim Jong-Il’s 60th birthday. As far as its relationship with the outer world is concerned, North Korea is likely to take a more aggressive posture in attracting foreign direct investment and South Korean firms, continuing its strategy of using the North-South economic cooperation and international aid to its advantage in order to facilitate its economic recovery process.

3.3.6.3 Economic Reunification

Mo (1994, p. 48) states that given the strong possibility of a one-sided merger in Korea, South Korea must take lessons from the German experience. Economic reunification could be considerably more difficult for Korea than it is proving for Germany. Reunifying different national economies had never been done before, and Korean policymakers can learn from the mistakes made in Germany. Four disadvantages may be adduced for Korea that did not obtain for Germany.

First, North Korea is larger, in relative terms, than was East Germany. There are four Western Germans for every Eastern German, but only two South Koreans for every North Korean. Absorbing and providing for the postcommunist population thus remains to be a more massive task for Seoul than it has been for Bonn. Second, North Korea’s economy is even more distorted than was East Germany’s, and compared with the other side of the border, communist Korea’s infrastructure is probably also more primitive than was communist Germany’s. The scope and scale of economic conversion in a post-communist Korea therefore likely to be relatively greater than in post-communist Germany. Third, despite its material advances over the past generation, South Korea is not yet an affluent society at the global scale. Its per capita output today is well under half of West Germany’s. South Korea is unlikely to be able to finance a renovation of the North simply by raising taxes and drawing upon domestic savings, as Bonn has been doing. Foreign borrowing would almost certainly figure prominently in any Korean plan for the reconstruction of the North. The external debt resulting from such a project could conceivably run into hundreds of billions of dollars. Finally, unlike East and West
Germany, North and South Korea have had virtually no contact with one another over the past forty years. Apart from a tiny and privileged cadre, North Koreans know virtually nothing about life in the South. With a rapidly reunified economy, their exposure to this unknown society could coincide with massive layoffs and other social dislocations. At the same time, a unified and free peninsula would presumably offer opportunities for millions of North Koreans to migrate en masse to the more materially inviting South Koreans.

The point, however, is that these economic opportunities, and others, would exist- as a direct result of reunification. When all is said and done, the economic success of reunification in Korea will depend upon Seoul’s ability to establish an environment in the North that is conducive to high rates of return on both physical and human capital. If it is able to establish such an environment, many of the economic costs of reunification will take care of themselves, any and all apparent disadvantages by comparison with Germany notwithstanding. There can be no doubt about the importance of addressing them, for Korea’s success or lack of it-in establishing a just, impartial, and limited rule of law will affect the security and the well-being of the Korean people long after the division of the peninsula is formally ended (Eberstadt, 1995).

3.4. TOURISM TRENDS IN SOUTH KOREA

3.4.1 Summary of Tourism

South Korea was a late starter in tourism compared with many other Asian countries. It took more than a decade for the country to recover from the Korean War of 1950-1953. In 1962, the Korean National Tourism Corporation (KNTC) was founded to develop and promote Korea as a tourist destination. That year only 15,184 foreign tourists visited Korea. The 100,000 mark was reached in 1968 and the 2 million mark was reached in 1989. In 1999, total visitor arrivals were 4,659,785 which represented a 9.6% growth over the 1998 total (KNTO, 2000). The history of Korean outbound tourism broadly parallels the rise of modern day Korea, from its early stages of recovery following the
devastating effects of the Korean War, to its present status as one of the world’s leading export nations. In the early years, there was no inbound or outbound tourism per se, only two way business travel. The travel industry was really just the transport industry, devoted to moving both people and products, as the nation tried to rebuild. Tourism was perceived merely as a way to induce foreign visitors to come and spend their foreign exchange. As a participatory activity, tourism was not part of the Korean experience. Outbound travel was only for business, study, overseas employment and other official purposes that contributed to national development (McGahey, 1991).

Inbound tourism to Korea achieved consistent growth. The strong growth in tourist arrivals in the 1970s and 1980s was believed to be the result of several factors. Firstly, President Park Chung-Hee’s series of economic plans, the so called “economic miracle”, increased the number of foreign business travellers. Secondly, normalisation of relations with Japan brought not only economic growth, but also attracted leisure travellers. Thirdly, there was the naming of Seoul as the host city of the 1988 Summer Olympics. This required the development of a world-class tourism infrastructure, which included everything from increased air service and hotel accommodation to attractions and local transportation. Furthermore, it also served to focus Asian and international spotlights on Seoul. The final elements that have helped Korea’s inbound tourism growth has been the continued growth of the middle class in Asia and the significant growth of Pacific and East Asia tourism in general (McGahey, 1995).

A study conducted in South Korea before the 1988 Olympic Games revealed that most citizens believed that the Olympics would increase the international awareness of South Korea as a tourism destination. The primary expectations from hosting the Olympics were an increase in international awareness of South Korea as a tourism destination, modification of the distorted existing image, and the straightening of South Korea’s cultural values through the projection of a distinct Korean image during the Seoul Olympics (Jeong, Jafari & Gartner, 1990). The Seoul Olympics were perceived as having significant economic, political and socio-cultural effects beyond the immediate impact of the Games on sport and tourism. Thus, Jeong et al (1990) revealed that the Seoul
Olympics was significant for South Korea in overcoming its poor image in the international tourism market. For example, the Games assisted in the South Korean tourism industry’s wish to reduce their dependence on the Japanese visitor market and to stimulate tourism traffic among South Korea and the West. In the case of the United States, the devastation of the country following the Korean War had distorted the view of Korea as a tourist destination. The Olympics were perceived as a remedy to overcome the poor image of South Korea as a tourist destination.

Since the Olympics, however, Korean inbound tourism has barely managed to edge forward. As Waitt (1996) notes, one reason for Korean, inbound tourism stagnation is mainly the sudden rise of Korean outbound travel after it was completely liberalised in 1989. Another reason why Korean inbound tourism slowed to a crawl during the past few years was the return of problematic images broadcasted around the world. The Seoul Olympics strengthened Korea’s promotional campaigns but its publicity literature has not kept pace with images generated by the Olympic Games. Furthermore, Korea’s fast economic and political growth has also resulted in labour and social unrest. Labour strikes and student anti-government demonstrations have damaged Korea’s appeal as a tourist destination. To make it worse, the nuclear posturing of North Korea and the uncertainty that resulted from the death of the North Korea leader, Kim Il-Sung, have made tourists, particularly the long haul ones, opt for other destinations. Finally, visiting Korea has become considerably more expensive in the past few years due to the increased costs of both labour and commodities. For instance, a hotel survey showed that Korea ranked as having the 5th highest hotel rates across the world in 1966 (TTG UK & Ireland, 1997).

As a result, promoting South Korea as a tourist destination, especially in Western countries, has been a difficult task for Korean tourism marketers. The wounds of the Korean War and the problematic image of the country make it extremely difficult to promote Korea as a desirable tourist destination. For example, a study of Americans travelling to Korea found that many Americans still associated South Korea with war and political unrest (Chon, 1987). Another study (Kim, 1987) of American tour operators
specialising in Far East destinations found that many US tour operators are not promoting package tours to Korea. The most significant factors discouraging US tour operators from developing package tours to Korea were the “negative images of the country” and “lack of information on Korea travel”.

3.4.2 Trends of Tourism Industry

International tourism is the third most important source of foreign exchange (behind petroleum products and motor vehicles, parts and accessories) and accounts for approximately 8% of the value of world exports (Archer, 1998). In spite of difficult economic and political aspects, the oil crisis bringing about substantial economic recession in 1970s and the Gulf war in the early 1990s the growing demand for tourism seems to be unstoppable. Obviously, these had negative effects on the growth of the tourism industry, but these did not last long.

Likewise, Korean tourism has developed despite various negative influences. For instance, it is obvious that threats from North Korea and the domestic political unrest have deterred some potential visitors from foreign countries. However, the number of international tourists has been increasing over the last few decades. In order to meet the increasing demand, the South Korean government has made vigorous efforts in developing the tourism industry. These efforts are reflected in various ways such as hosting international sporting mega events including the Olympics in 1988 and the World Cup in 2002, conferences, an economic summit and cultural festivals. The next section of this chapter deals with the overall international tourism demand to South Korea in order to examine how demand has changed over the past three decades.

3.4.3 Inbound Tourism Trends

By virtue of the government’s vigorous efforts to develop tourism resources, to improve tourism facilitation and other tourism circumstances, foreign tourism has increased over the last three decades (Figure 3.1, Figure 3.2), although it has experienced two periods of
decline, in 1974 and 1980, during the world oil shocks and political uncertainty in Korea. Figure 3.1 shows the total number of international tourists to Korea for the period from 1971 to 1999. It rose steadily until the early 1980s, followed by a stagnant period of several years and then has been again until 2001.

During the 1970s, Korean tourism experienced a high overall growth rate of 27.6% under comparatively favourable conditions, with improved reception facilities and related services. In 1973, 679,221 international visitors arrived in Korea, marking an 83.3% increase over the previous year, and the tourism receipts reached 269 million US dollars accounting for a 224.5% rise over the previous year (Table 3.2). Nevertheless, the travel industry encountered a decline in international tourism demand between 1973 and 1974, primarily due to the economic recession caused by the oil crisis. In 1974, tourism in Korea experienced its first decline as a result of the world economic recession. It seems that the effect of the oil crisis on international tourism demand to Korea was delayed by one year.

In 1978, Korea received 1,079,396 visitors, exceeding one million for the first time in the history of Korean tourism. At this juncture, the country ranked sixth as a tourist destination country in the Asian region. Marking the turning point for Korean tourism, since then Korea has been one of the leading nations in tourism in Asia (KNCTC, 1983).

Korea experienced a decline in tourism due to the world economic recession caused by the second oil price rise shock from 1979 to 1980 and internal political crises (Lee, 1996). Thereafter, there was sluggish growth in the Korean tourism industry until mid 1980s. However, in the latter half of the 1980s the Korean tourism industry recovered, achieving a 16.4% growth rate in 1986 and a 12.9% growth rate in 1987 (MOT & KNTC, 1988). Since 1985, the number of international tourist arrivals has not only increased dramatically but tourism receipts have also risen commensurately (Table 3.2).
Figure 3.1 Tourist Arrivals in Korea (1971-2004)

(Thousand visitors)

Source: Korea, Monthly Statistics of Tourism, KNTO, 2005

Figure 3.2 Tourist Receipts and Expenditures (1991-2001)

Source: KNTO, 2003
In order to promote Korea as a tourist destination, the government and other tourism organisations have put great effort into hosting international meetings for foreign academics and practitioners related to tourism. The Asian Games in 1986 and the Summer Olympics in 1988 played important roles in achieving an annual growth rate of 11.8%. The Asian Games in 1986 were hosted by Korea, which brought about 1.7 million visitors and US $ 1.5 billion, representing increases of 16.4% and 97.3% rises respectively over the previous year (Table 3.2).

According to the WTO (World Tourism Organisation), a total of 340 million tourists travelled worldwide in 1986, with a 4.6% growth rate. The economic importance of international inbound tourism had not fully been recognised until the Korean government held the 1988 Seoul Olympics. The number of foreign tourist arrivals surpassed 2.3 million, and foreign tourism receipts exceeded US $ 3.2 billion in 1988. This represents a growth of 24.9% and 42%, respectively, over the previous year (Table 3.6). There is no doubt that the tourism industry is growing in importance in the Korean economy in terms of its contributions and effects. Currently, the tourism industry is very comprehensive and is characterised as multi-purpose and interactive. Compared to the manufacturing sector, the industry generates more jobs per unit of capital, earns foreign exchange with high returns, ensures the balance of international payments and encourages the overall development of the countryside (Kim, 1993).

In 1988, the ratio of foreign tourism receipts to gross national product (GNP) was 1.9%, and to exports was 4.8% (MOT & KNTP, 1989). For the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games, a range of infrastructure was constructed not only for domestic demand but also to meet the forthcoming international demand for tourism. The Seoul Olympics were also intended to develop awareness and enhance a favourable image of Korea over the world. Since hosting the 1988 Olympic Games, tourism has been a significant source of construction, employment and foreign income.

Korea witnessed a sluggish increase in the number of foreign visitors from 1990 to 1995 (Figure 3.1). The growth rate was 1.1% in 1992 and 3.1% in 1993. During 1994, the
‘Visit Korea Year’, Korea received 3,580,024 visitors, a 7.5% increase over 1993. Peace and geopolitical stability are prerequisites for ensuring a long-term success of previously disrupted tourism industries (Mansfeld, 1999). Since 1990, however, the growth of Korean inbound tourism has remained in single digits, as opposed to the double-digit growth experience from 1984 to 1991. There was a decrease in arrivals from Japan and Taiwan due to economic recession and political crises which significantly affected the growth of the Korean tourism market (KNTO, 1996).

Tourist arrivals during the period 1981 through 1990 averaged 11.9% growth, but only a 4.1% growth rate during the period 1991 through 1997. Moreover, the annual growth rate in tourism receipts during 1991-1997 averaged 6.5%. The Korean inbound tourism market grew annually until 1996, when Korea failed to meet its target of 4 million arrivals receiving, however, 3,683,779 visitors, 1.8% decrease over 1995. The decline in arrivals was attributed to the rising costs of vacationing in the country. Japan, which is Korea’s largest market, accounting for over 40% of all visitors, declined 8.4% to 1.52 million visitors. Many Japanese visitors also chose to visit Hong Kong before the handover to China (Singh, 1997/1998). This was the third time Korea has experienced negative growth. In 1997, foreign visitors to Korea totalled 3.9 million, marking a 6.1% increase over 1996 and 1999, total visitor arrivals were 4,659,785, which represented a 9.6% growth over 1998 (KNTO, 2000). However, tourist receipts decreased by 5.8% in 1997 to US$ 5,115 million due to the economic crises in Asian countries (KNTO, 1997). Furthermore, the events of 11 September 2000 add a cautionary note with declines in visitation recorded in both 2001 and 2003.
### Table 3.6 International Tourist Arrivals, Receipts and Expenditures in Korea (1971-2004)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Foreign Tourist Arrivals</th>
<th>Annual Growth Rate (%)</th>
<th>Tourism Receipts (US $1000)</th>
<th>Annual Growth Rate (%)</th>
<th>Tourism Expenditures (US $1000)</th>
<th>Annual Growth Rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>232,795</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>52,383</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>N. A</td>
<td>N. A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>370,656</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td>83,011</td>
<td>58.5</td>
<td>12,570</td>
<td>N. A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>679,221</td>
<td>83.2</td>
<td>269,434</td>
<td>224.6</td>
<td>16,894</td>
<td>35.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>517,590</td>
<td>-23.8</td>
<td>158,571</td>
<td>-41.1</td>
<td>27,618</td>
<td>62.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>632,846</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>140,627</td>
<td>-11.3</td>
<td>30,709</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>834,239</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>275,011</td>
<td>95.6</td>
<td>46,234</td>
<td>50.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>949,666</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>370,030</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>102,714</td>
<td>122.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>1,079,396</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>408,106</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>208,019</td>
<td>102.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>1,126,100</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>326,006</td>
<td>-20.1</td>
<td>405,284</td>
<td>94.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>976,415</td>
<td>-13.3</td>
<td>369,265</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>349,557</td>
<td>-13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>1,093,214</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>447,640</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>439,029</td>
<td>25.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>1,145,044</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>502,318</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>632,177</td>
<td>44.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>1,194,551</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>596,245</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>555,401</td>
<td>-12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>1,297,318</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>673,355</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>576,250</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>1,426,045</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>784,312</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>605,973</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>1,659,972</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>1,547,502</td>
<td>97.3</td>
<td>612,969</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>1,874,501</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>2,299,156</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>704,201</td>
<td>14.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>2,340,462</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>3,265,156</td>
<td>42.0</td>
<td>1,353,891</td>
<td>92.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>2,728,054</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>3,556,279</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>2,601,532</td>
<td>92.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>2,958,839</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>3,558,666</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>3,165,223</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>3,231,081</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>3,271,524</td>
<td>-4.5</td>
<td>3,794,409</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>3,331,226</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3,474,640</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>3,258,907</td>
<td>-14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>3,580,024</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>3,806,051</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>4,088,081</td>
<td>25.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>3,753,197</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>5,586,536</td>
<td>46.8</td>
<td>5,902,693</td>
<td>44.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>3,683,779</td>
<td>-1.8</td>
<td>5,430,210</td>
<td>-2.8</td>
<td>6,962,847</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>3,908,140</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>5,115,963</td>
<td>-5.8</td>
<td>6,261,539</td>
<td>-10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>4,250,216</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>6,865,400</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>2,640,300</td>
<td>-67.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>4,659,785</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>6,801,900</td>
<td>-0.9</td>
<td>3,975,400</td>
<td>50.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>5,321,792</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>6,811,300</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>6,174,000</td>
<td>55.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>5,147,228</td>
<td>-3.3</td>
<td>6,737,200</td>
<td>-6.4</td>
<td>6,547,000</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>5,347,468</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>5,918,800</td>
<td>-7.1</td>
<td>9,037,900</td>
<td>38.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>4,752,762</td>
<td>-11.1</td>
<td>5,343,400</td>
<td>-9.7</td>
<td>8,248,100</td>
<td>-8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>5,818,138</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>5,696,900</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>9,498,800</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


http://www.knto.or.kr/english/tss_l.htm

N. A. = Not Available
3.4.3.1 Principal Markets

As shown in Table 3.7, Japan traditionally has been Korea’s dominant tourist origin market. It once commanded as much as 70% of the total market share, but this has declined now to about 42%. The USA is second in importance and Taiwan has ranked number three as a source of tourists. Other major Asian countries that contributed to Korean tourist arrivals include China, Philippines and Thailand (Figure 3.3).

The market share for European countries is 11.5%, with the UK, Germany and Russia registering impressive numbers of arrivals. In 1994, for instance, the KNTC dispatched tourism missions to Berlin, London and Paris with a programme of mini-trade shows, dinners and traditional Korean dance (Waitt, 1996, p. 119). In addition, positive diplomatic relationships between Western European countries and Korea have been fostered, and Korean conglomerates have made considerable investment in UK and Germany. For example, Daewoo Motor established its Research and Development (R & D) centres in Worthing (UK) and Munich (Germany) in the early 1990s as its first step into global automotive R & D, manufacturing and marketing. Hyundai and LG are to construct semiconductor plants in Scotland and South Wales respectively in the foreseeable future. As a result, more frequent visits to Korea by UK and Germany business tourists are expected.
Table 3.7 Visitor Arrivals in Korea from Top 10 Tourist generating Countries (1991-2004)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>Russian Fed.</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>Russian Fed.</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>Russian Fed.</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>Russian Fed.</td>
<td>Russian Fed.</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Russian Fed.</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>Russian Fed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>Thailand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>Singapore</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Figure 3.3 South Korea Inbound Tourism, 1999, by Sub-Region

Source: WTO, 2000
3.4.3.2 Purpose of Visit

Tables 3.8, 3.9 and 3.10 show that in 1996 64.4%, in 2002 71.9% and in 2004 71.9% of all arrivals were for the purpose of pleasure, which include VFR. Nearly two-thirds of arrivals were male in 1996. The most important age groups were 41-50 (24.2%) and 31-40 (23.2%), although the 21-30 age band (20.8%) reflects the importance of the Japanese single women’s segment to Korean inbound tourism. Of all the visitors, pleasure tourists seem to be the most heavily influenced by various economic, political and social factors.

Table 3.8 Visitor Arrivals to Korea by Purpose of Visit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Purpose</th>
<th>Pleasure</th>
<th>Business</th>
<th>Official</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>64.4%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
<td>29.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>71.9%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>23.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>71.9%</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>23.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Korea Annual Statistical Report Tourism, 1997-2005

Table 3.9 Visitor Arrivals to Korea by Gender*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Gender</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>66.9</td>
<td>33.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>58.9</td>
<td>41.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>58.4</td>
<td>44.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Excluding crew members

Source: KNTO Annual Statistics, 1997-2005

Table 3.10 Visitor Arrivals to Korea by Age (*000)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Age</th>
<th>0-20</th>
<th>21-30</th>
<th>31-40</th>
<th>41-50</th>
<th>51-60</th>
<th>61+</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>668</td>
<td>694</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>2,879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>940</td>
<td>1,027</td>
<td>895</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>398</td>
<td>4,393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>985</td>
<td>1,163</td>
<td>1,044</td>
<td>842</td>
<td>490</td>
<td>4,930</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Excluding overseas Koreans & crew members and including long term visitors

Source: KNTO Annual Statistics, 1997-2005
3.4.3.3 Length of Stay

Excluding those long-term visitors who stayed more than 90 nights, the average length of stay in Korea in 2004 was 5.6 nights. This was a slight decrease from 6.2 nights in 2003 (see Table 3.11). Of those from Japan, Korea’s dominant inbound market, 42% stayed only 3 nights reflecting the close location. The five countries with the lowest average length of stay: Japan (3.1), Hong Kong (4.1), Taiwan (4.5), Singapore (5.5), Indonesia (5.6) and Malaysia (5.6) represent the short haul market within Asia. The five countries with the longest average length of stay: Brazil (13.2), Guatemala (13.0), Argentina (12.9), Canada (12.8) and the USA (12.2) represent long haul markets. In terms of gaining the high per capita and total expenditure by tourists, Korea needs to attract the long haul market.

Table 3.11 Average length of Stay in Korea in 1996 by Market (nights)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Market</th>
<th>Average Stay</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>America</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oceania</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Excluding visitors staying over 90 nights

Source: KNTO Statistical Report on Tourism, 2005

3.4.4 Outbound Tourism Trends

Prior to 1989 the Korean government deliberately prevented its citizens travelling overseas in large numbers by imposing restrictions that included age and travel duration limitations, foreign exchange controls, purpose of trip controls and requirements to lodge large deposits of money with government agencies. The aim of this policy was to build up currency reserves. In tandem with this policy, the government fostered domestic tourism by heavily investing in the domestic tourism infrastructure. This policy inadvertently created a taste for domestic tourism that was later to translate into a desire for overseas travel (Kim, 1997). However, these restrictions were gradually becoming more flexible and were altered depending on the financial state and balance of
international payments. Restrictions were gradually released from mid 1980s and full liberalisation for outbound departures that was activated in 1988 caused rapid increase by 67.3% to 1.2 million in 1989 (see Figure 3.4). A massive growth in outbound Korean travellers was seen in the late 1980s, a trend which was greatly stimulated by economic factors, even though the government encouraged nationals to make domestic trips rather than overseas trips, imposing restrictions on the ways and means of overseas travel.

The volume of Korea outbound travellers has showed a two-digit growth rate since the complete liberalisation of Korean citizens’ overseas travel in 1989 (Figure 3.5). In line with continued high growth each year since then, Korean outbound travel in 1996 rose by 21.7% to 4,649,251. Following several decades of rapid economic growth, combined with pressure exerted by Korean citizens for the right to travel abroad, the Korean Government withdrew all restrictions on outbound travel in 1989. The subsequent growth in outbound travel was rapid, increasing by 641.24% in the period from 1988 to 1996 (KNTO, 1997), a dramatic increase. In 1995, the number of Korean outbound travellers reached 3,818,740, which outnumbered inbound foreign visitors for the first time. However, in 1997 it was 4.5 million, or a decrease of 2.3% from 1996, because of the financial crisis in the 4th quarter of the year in particular (KNTO, 1998) (Figure 3.6). In terms of Korean outbound tourism, although the full liberalisation of the nation’s overseas travel policy was regarded positively by the people, the Korean demand for international tourism decreased sharply due to the depreciation of Korean currency as a result of the economic recession.

Korea’s tourism balance of payments went into the red in 1991, recording a deficit of US$ 358 million, which grew to US$ 523 million in 1992 (Table 3.17). In 1993, the balance turned positive due to the exclusion of expenses of overseas students. However, in 1994 and in 1995 it again showed deficits of US$ 282 million and US$ 316 million respectively. The outbound expenditures of the Korean people dropped by 10.1% from the previous year in 1997 (KNTO, 1998). This phenomenon reflected the serious foreign currency problems which occurred in the country in October 1997. For the nation as a whole, one of the down sides of the recent increase in outbound tourism has been a
deterioration in the international tourism balance of payments from a surplus of US$ 955 million in 1989 to a deficit of US$ 1146 million in 1997. As a consequence, the tourism deficit combined with a deterioration in the nation’s trade balance caused such concern in some sectors of government that there had been suggestions that outbound tourism needed to be restricted (Kim, 1998).

Falling air fares, the high cost of domestic travel in some Korean destinations, rising affluence, increases in business travel, and more competitive packages, all contributed to increasing number of Asians traveling overseas. Initially, most Korean outbound travellers confined their travel to Asian destinations (Mak and White, 1992). However, within several years of travel liberalisation Koreans commenced travelling to non-Asian Pacific destinations including Australia, Hawaii and New Zealand. Growth in Korea’s outbound market has been so rapid that many receiving destinations, including Australia, have had little time to re-adjust their range of products and services to cater for Korean tastes (Kim & Prideaux, 1998).

As shown in Table 3.12, Japan is the most popular destination for outbound Korean travellers (26%), on both business and pleasure purposes because of its proximity and ready access by both air and sea. A further 38% of Korean outbound travellers visit other Asian destinations, and China, Thailand, Hong Kong, Taiwan and Singapore are popular destination for business, pleasure and honeymoon travellers. In terms of long haul trips, the United States is the most popular overseas destination. In addition to business and pleasure travellers, the USA also attracts a large number of Koreans who visit their friends and relatives. A trip to the USA and Europe has considerable prestige value, and these destinations are becoming increasingly popular.

Korean outbound tourism to Australia also has been one of the fastest growing travel markets in recent years and this growth is expected to continue. Moreover, visitors to the Oceania region (including Australia and New Zealand) recorded the highest growth rate in 1995-96, although from a relatively small base. Korea has become one of Australia’s most important trading partners and has been identified not only as a trading partner but
also as a potential holiday destination in Australian minds (Jeong, Kim & Murphy, 1998).

Figure 3.4 Korean Departures by Year (1987-2004)

Source: KNTO, 2005
Figure 3.5 Korean Departures by Year (1991-2001)

Table 3.12 Korea's Overseas Travel Destinations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>1,111,316</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>1,722,128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>839,573</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>1,266,116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>532,332</td>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>90,885</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>351,610</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>692,407</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>245,737</td>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>581,514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>174,909</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>280,413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>146,113</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>253,692</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>144,705</td>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>188,471</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>111,769</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>160,867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>89,256</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>127,686</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Korea Annual Statistic Report on Tourism, KNTO, 1997-2005
Chapter Three  Tourism Development and Policy in South and North Korea

According to 2004 Korean departures by purpose of trip (Figure 3.6), Korean pleasure tourists accounted for 53.0% (4,679,700), exceeding half of the total travellers for the first time (2003: 48.2%, 2002: 48.3%). Business travel has shown slightly decrease, 21.9% in 2004 from 23.2% in 2003. Visiting friends and relatives (VFR) in 2004 also declined to 8.0% from 9.2% in 2003 (KNTO, 2005).

Figure 3.6 Korean Departures by Purpose of Trip, 2004

Source: Korea Annual Statistical Report on Tourism, KNTO, 2005

3.4.5 Domestic Tourism

Koreans make pleasure trips to visit attractions and famous places, to rest and relax, to enjoy recreational activities and for entertainment. Trips to escape the summer heat are most popular among Koreans and skiing in winter is also gaining in popularity. Other factors that influence Koreans’ decisions to take outdoor trips and holidays include health care, gaining new experiences and escaping from the routine of daily life (Pyo, 1997).

According to the 1988 survey conducted by the Korea Transport Institute on national tourism (MOT and KNTC, 1990), the motivation for, and models of, travel activity of the Korean people vary to some extent, reflecting household income level, educational background of the family and job position. In that survey, the majority of travellers expressed a relatively high inclination toward ‘rest and relaxation for health care’ and ‘a break from the monotony of life, and escape from boredom and a suppressed state of
mind’. The third strongest motivation was to ‘seek encouragement so as to enhance productivity’. In addition, there were other reasons given to justify travel in the modern society, which include leading to a creative revolution to ensure a better life, and ‘enjoying oneself with no restriction’.

When classifying the popular destinations into categories by type of natural resource, seaside resorts are the most popular destination for trips of one night or more, followed by destinations in the mountains. On the other hand, day-trippers prefer mountain areas, and they also like to visit amusement facilities, historical and cultural sites, and lakes and rivers. Summer is the peak season for overnight travel, as vacationers depart the hot cities for their summer holidays, and the number of Koreans making overnight trips in summer is growing. The summer season (July to August) attracted 40% of all overnight pleasure trips in 1994. With regard to day trips, spring is the most popular season. Winter is the off-season for the Korean tourism market (MOT and KNTC, 1990).

While a country’s tourists normally discover new destinations in increments that can be foreseen to a certain degree, the country that is potentially Korea’s largest destination — North Korea, has so far remained inaccessible. As always, the great unknown in the Korean equation is the unpredictability of North Korea. Optimistic forecasts of the Korean economy and outbound tourism growth obviously do not take into account either of the extreme scenarios of hostile military action or sudden reunification. The possibility of either happening is a basic part of contingency planning in Korea, but neither prevents the people nor the tourism industry in the south from forging ahead (McGahey, 1996).

3.4.6 Development of Tourism Organisation by the Public Sector

3.4.6.1 Past Tourism Organisation

In the 1960’s tourism was introduced as an industry in Korea. The tourism promotion law was enacted in 1961 and KNTO was established in 1962. In 1969, the first overseas office, Tokyo branch office, was opened.
Table 3.13 The 1960’s: The Birth of Korean Tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>The tourism promotion law was enacted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>The Korea National Tourism Organisation was established under the name “International Tourism Corporation”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>KNTO was given the responsibility for promoting Korea’s undeveloped tourism industry through the direct management of some major hotels, taxis and the Korea Travel Bureau, as well as by training human resources to support the travel trade. The number of foreign visitors passed the 100,000 mark. The Hotel Institute (now the Seoul Tourism Training Institute) was opened.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969</td>
<td>The Tokyo Branch Office, KNTO’s first overseas office, was opened.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the 1970’s, tourism was included in the Five Year Economic Development Plan and was fostered as a major national strategic industry. The KNTO has been mandated to promote Korean tourism overseas and the number of KNTO’s overseas offices increased from one in 1969 to nine in 1979. In 1972, the Japanese school excursion programme was inaugurated and tour programmes specially targeting Korean War veterans were established in 1975.

Table 3.14 The 1970’s

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>The development of the Pomun Lake Resort in Kyongju was begun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>The development of the Mt. Soraksan Resort was begun. KNTO administered the first national qualification examinations for domestic tour guides.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>The Tourist Compliant Centre was opened.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>The Kyoungju Hotel School was opened to train experts for the tourism industry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>Korea attracted over one million foreign visitors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>Korea hosted 28th PATA annual conference.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
During the 1980’s, KNTO took an active role in both domestic & international tourism promotion, for example, the Cheju tourism authority was formed as a subsidiary of KNTO to begin development of the Chungmun resort in 1980 and the TIC (Tourist Information Centre) was opened for tourists in 1986 (Table 3.15).

Table 3.15 The 1980’s

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>The Cheju Tourism Authority was formed as subsidiary of KNTO to begun development of the Chungmun Resort.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>Construction of the Chungmun Resort was begun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>The International Tourism Corporations’ name was changed to the Korea National Tourism Corporation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986-1988</td>
<td>The ASTA Annual Conference was held in Korea. KNTO formed a Tourism Planning Department charged with aiding the successful planning and hosting of the 1986 Asian Games and the 1988 Seoul Olympics through publicity and organisation. The Tourist Information Centre (TIC), located in the basement of the KNTO head office, was opened.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>Korea surpasses the two million mark for foreign visitors (2,340,000).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>The Cheju Tourism Authority was formed as a subsidiary of KNTO.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>KNTO built and managed a number of economy tourist hotels.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the 1990’s, the tourism industry entered an era of change, and increasing international competition, as well as rapidly growing domestic tourism demand.
Table 3.16 The 1990’s

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event/Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>Over three million foreigners visited Korea (3.2 million). The development of the Hwawon resort was begun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>Taegon EXPO’93 was held</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>“Visit Korea Year” was held in commemoration of Seoul’s 600th anniversary as the capital of Korea. The PATA Annual Conference, Travel Mart, and Chapters World Congress were all held in Korea, the first time that one country had held all three of PATA’s annual events.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>A new position of executive vice president for Japan was created.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>The company’s English-language name was changed from Korea National Tourism Corporation (KNTC) to Korea National Tourism Organisation (KNTO) to better reflects its functions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4.6.2 Activities of Tourism Organisation

The Korean government announced a new master-plan called “Tourism Vision 21” to boost the tourism industry, on November 1998. It builds on series of cultural tourist events including, the “Millennium Event” and the “Asia-Europe Summit Conference” in 2000, the “Year of Visit Korea” and host World Trade Organisation general meeting in 2001 as well as hosting the World Cup Football Championship in 2002. In order to prepare for those significant events the government produced long-term plans including 1) dividing the country into 7 strategic tour circles; 2) building several large international shopping malls; 3) constructing 3-5 convention centres in Seoul, Pusan and Cheju, with a capacity of more than 5,000; 4) increasing and enlarging duty-free shops, tourism accommodation, and world-class theme parks, and creating several casino complexes; 5) improving and simplifying the entry system for tourists; 6) connecting the national tourism industry with neighbouring countries such as China, Japan, Taiwan and Hong Kong; and 7) strengthening co-operation with North Korea on common tourism resources.
Table 3.17 Korea: Export/Import Trade Balance and Tourism Balance (US $ m)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Exports</th>
<th>Imports</th>
<th>Trade Balance</th>
<th>Tourism Receipts</th>
<th>Tourism Expenditure</th>
<th>Tourism Balance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>1,067.6</td>
<td>2,394.3</td>
<td>-1,326.7</td>
<td>52.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>1,624.1</td>
<td>2,522.0</td>
<td>-897.9</td>
<td>83.0</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>70.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>3,225.0</td>
<td>4,240.3</td>
<td>-1,015.3</td>
<td>269.4</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>252.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>4,460.4</td>
<td>6,851.8</td>
<td>-2,391.4</td>
<td>158.6</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>131.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>5,081.0</td>
<td>7,274.4</td>
<td>-2,193.4</td>
<td>140.6</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td>109.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>7,715.3</td>
<td>8,773.6</td>
<td>-1,058.3</td>
<td>275.0</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>228.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>10,046.5</td>
<td>10,810.5</td>
<td>-764.0</td>
<td>370.0</td>
<td>102.7</td>
<td>267.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>12,710.6</td>
<td>14,971.9</td>
<td>-2,261.3</td>
<td>408.1</td>
<td>208.0</td>
<td>200.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>15,055.5</td>
<td>20,338.6</td>
<td>-5,283.1</td>
<td>326.0</td>
<td>405.3</td>
<td>-79.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>17,504.9</td>
<td>22,291.7</td>
<td>-4,786.8</td>
<td>369.3</td>
<td>349.6</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>21,253.8</td>
<td>26,131.4</td>
<td>-4,877.6</td>
<td>447.6</td>
<td>439.0</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>21,853.4</td>
<td>24,250.8</td>
<td>-2,397.4</td>
<td>502.3</td>
<td>632.2</td>
<td>-129.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>24,445.1</td>
<td>26,192.2</td>
<td>-1,747.1</td>
<td>596.2</td>
<td>555.4</td>
<td>40.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>29,244.9</td>
<td>30,631.4</td>
<td>-1,386.6</td>
<td>673.4</td>
<td>576.3</td>
<td>97.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>30,283.1</td>
<td>31,135.7</td>
<td>-852.5</td>
<td>784.3</td>
<td>606.0</td>
<td>178.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>34,714.5</td>
<td>31,583.9</td>
<td>3,130.6</td>
<td>1,547.5</td>
<td>613.0</td>
<td>934.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>47,280.9</td>
<td>41,019.8</td>
<td>6,261.1</td>
<td>2,299.2</td>
<td>704.0</td>
<td>1,595.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>60,696.4</td>
<td>51,810.6</td>
<td>8,885.8</td>
<td>3,265.2</td>
<td>1,353.9</td>
<td>1,911.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>62,377.2</td>
<td>61,464.8</td>
<td>912.4</td>
<td>3,556.3</td>
<td>2,601.5</td>
<td>954.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>65,015.7</td>
<td>69,843.7</td>
<td>-4,827.9</td>
<td>3,588.7</td>
<td>3,165.6</td>
<td>393.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>71,870.1</td>
<td>81,524.9</td>
<td>-9,654.7</td>
<td>3,426.4</td>
<td>3,784.3</td>
<td>-357.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>76,631.5</td>
<td>81,775.3</td>
<td>-5,143.7</td>
<td>3,271.5</td>
<td>3,794.4</td>
<td>-522.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>82,235.9</td>
<td>83,800.1</td>
<td>-1,564.3</td>
<td>3,474.6</td>
<td>3,258.9</td>
<td>215.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>96,013.2</td>
<td>102,348.2</td>
<td>-6,334.9</td>
<td>3,806.1</td>
<td>4,088.1</td>
<td>-282.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>125,058.0</td>
<td>135,118.9</td>
<td>-10,060.9</td>
<td>5,586.5</td>
<td>5,902.6</td>
<td>-316.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>129,715.1</td>
<td>150,339.1</td>
<td>-20,624.0</td>
<td>5,430.0</td>
<td>6,963.4</td>
<td>-1,533.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>136,164.2</td>
<td>144,616.4</td>
<td>-8,452.2</td>
<td>5,116.0</td>
<td>6,261.5</td>
<td>-1,145.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>132,313.1</td>
<td>93,281.8</td>
<td>39,031.3</td>
<td>5,890.4</td>
<td>2,068.5</td>
<td>3,821.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>5,622.7</td>
<td>3,169.2</td>
<td>2,453.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.5 TOURISM POLICY OF SOUTH KOREA TOWARDS NORTH KOREA

3.5.1 Past Tourism Policy

In any country or region that wants to develop or expand tourism and especially in developing countries, the government performs a very active role in terms of adopting tourism policies, plans, and regulations (Inskeep, 1991). Decisions affecting tourism policy, the nature of the government involvement in tourism, the structure of organizations, and the nature of tourism development emerge from a political process (Hall, 1994a). The importance of government involvement is well documented in the literature. It stems from the need to create employment, maximize the net benefits to the host community, spread the benefits and costs equitably, provision of public goods and infrastructure, product tourism resources and environment, ensuring traveler safety and security and build the image of the country as a tourist destination (Cooper et al., 1995).

"Understanding of the relationship between tourism and the state can best be achieved by identify the main institutions which constitute the state." (Hall, 1994a, p.23).

South and North Korea competed with each other politically, economically, and militarily, being supported by the Soviet Union and China, and by the US and Japan respectively (Figure 3.7). In North Korea, central government bodies represent the tourism industry. In South Korea, national tourism development plans have been drawn up in which government decides which sectors of the industry will be developed, the appropriate rate of growth, and the provision of capital required for expansion. As mentioned earlier, until 1983 South Korean citizens were not allowed to travel overseas except for business, employment, study (usually with funding by government), or some activity that was deemed to benefit the national interests. In 1983 overseas leisure travel was permitted for those aged 50 or over who deposited one million won with the Korean Foreign Exchange Bank for one year. However, the restriction on age and the deposit was removed in 1989. The volume of overseas Korean travel has dramatically increased since then. Nevertheless, young male Koreans who have not served their national military duty are still restricted in travelling abroad because of the military and political tension with North
Korea. These Koreans are only allowed abroad under strict conditions. This policy still reduces the chances to study or travel abroad which could broaden knowledge and experience for youngsters who will be the leading generation in the future.

Figure 3.7 Korea in the Big Power Field

Source: Divided Nations as a process: one state, two states, and in-between (Galtung, 1972)
In other point of policy, the Korean government revised its foreign visa policy in order to attract more foreign visitors and to get foreign currency. Because most visitors to South Korea are from Japan, the government allowed them to enter Korea without a visa in order to generate more visitors from Japan in 1992. The government also designated Cheju island as a ‘visa-free zone’ for Chinese group tours from April 15, 1998 and China also decided to designate Korea as a ‘free-to-travel’ country. All these were the results of active promotion and made travel to Korea for Chinese and Japanese much easier. However, even though a visa policy is normally a two-sided act between two countries, South Koreans still have to get a visa to travel to Japan and China. Therefore, the arrangements are criticised as an unequal treaty (Korea Herald, 1998).

In addition, the Korean War and the conflict between North and South Korea have long harmed South Korea’s tourism industry. Although the 1988 Summer Olympics in Seoul were perceived as a means to overcome the poor image of Korea in the international tourism market, the ongoing political instability between North and South Korea has badly affected Korea’s tourism industry. As the tension between South and North has reduced recently, however, South Korea is trying to contact North Korea actively under the name of ‘Sunshine Policy’, which seeks to improve mutual relationships, based on reconciliation and cooperation, while simultaneously assuring a strong national security. Following that course of action such as inter-Korean economic cooperation and aid to North Korea, progress in the reunion of separated families and increasing contacts between separated families will not only help to build confidence in North Korea but is also more likely to bring results. This policy has expanded tourism including the development of the tourism industry in North Korea by a South Korean company such as Hyundai Group and cultural contacts. In consequence, on 18th of November 1998, a cruise tour was launched to Mt. Geumgang in North Korea for the first time since the Korean War. North Korea has protected its environment well because of its past closure policy and it is expected that such tourism development in North Korea will contribute to the generation of income for both North and South when it becomes popular and even extend to foreigners. All this has become possible because of the ‘Sunshine Policy’ (The Korea Times, 1998). Korean reunification is unlikely to be realised in the near future,
since the two Koreas have maintained a long history of confrontation and conflict for the past 50 years. At this stage, this policy is appropriate to focus on ensuring the coexistence of both Koreas through a peace settlement in the Korean Peninsula rather than making efforts for immediate unification (UniKorea, 1998).

3.5.2 Current Tourism Policy

The former government in South Korea in March 1998 announced that its policy toward North Korea would be aimed at realizing the concept of “peace, reconciliation and cooperation” (Koreascope, 2000). President Kim also emphasized that the two sides must let separated family members in South Korea and North Korea meet and communicate with each other and that the two sides must try to expand cultural, academic and economic exchanges between them based on the principle of separating politics from economics. Likewise, the South Korea government eased administrative procedures for approval of visits to North Korea by representatives of conglomerates and heads of economic, organizations, and under this new regulation, many businessmen in the South Korea are expected to make visits to North Korea. So far only those who are pre-designated as “business proprietors for South-North cooperation” have been permitted to visit North Korea, but this rule has been also abolished, and all other business people will be permitted to visit North Korea (Koreascope, 2000).

President Dae-Jung Kim visited Phongyang June 13-15, 2000 for a historic summit meeting with North Korean leader Jong-II Kim. The first ever inter-Korean summit, undeniably the biggest diplomatic event involving the two countries since the division of the Korean Peninsula in 1945, was made possible through the South Korean government’s persistent implementation of the engagement policy. A summit was planned in 1994, but the event never took place because of the sudden death of North Korea’s then-leader Kim Il-Sung. This meeting had been made to promote national reconciliation, unity, exchanges, and cooperation, and to achieve peace and reunification at an early date (Koreaherald, 2000a). Therefore, the meeting marked another chance to start ending half a century of brotherly hatred. North Korea snubbed a Red Cross meeting
consistently proposed by South Korea for the exchange of home-visiting groups and resolution of the issue of separated families, arguing that they were political issues. During the recent inter-Korean summit (June 13-15, 2000), North Korea took a forward-looking attitude to accept a proposal from Seoul. The two Koreas clearly stated in their joint declaration that “the South and the North have agreed to promptly resolve humanitarian issues such as exchange visits by separated family members and relatives on the occasion of the August 15 National Liberation Day...”. Thus, a group of South Korean homecoming visitors was to enter North Korea on August 15. In addition, it was expected that separated families would reunite with each other through an inter-Korean Red Cross meeting.

The leaders of South and North Korea discussed the question of the survival and future of the people, and came closer in their opinion that dialogue and cooperation is the way to prevent the deepening of national division and to achieve common prosperity and advance peaceful unification. The two leaders could reach this historic decision, based on a consensus that peace and reconciliation-cooperation coincided with the national interest, looking to the future rather than the past. South and North Korea agreed on this occasion to respect the principles of the existing agreements and to launch concrete projects to translate them into action. This testifies that the new South Korean government will maintain its reconciliatory and cooperative policies which have consistently matched the direction of North Korea’s policy adjustment. Based on public support of the policies for peace and reconciliation-cooperation, South Korea has been able to maintain its policies in a consistent way, and this has helped the South gain extensive support from international society for its North Korea policy and induce the change in North Korea’s attitude. By so doing, President Rho Moo-Hyun of South Korea’s new government will be able to realize his vision: a new era of peace and prosperity in Northeast Asia. Meanwhile, the policy coordination among South Korea, the United States and Japan based on South Korea’s, reconciliatory and cooperative policy has helped to create a favorable climate for North Korea’s participation in the international community. China and Russia also offered positive cooperation toward efforts for peace stability on the Korean Peninsula and the international community recommended inter-Korean dialogues.
Consequently, domestically, the new government needs to gain a national consensus to give strong support base for this policy. Internationally, the South Korea administration also needs to work closely with other countries to bring Pyongyang into the international community.

3.5.3 Borderland tourism: Mt. Geumgang Tourism Project

A tour to Mt. Geumgang in North Korea, one of the most beautiful mountains in the Korean Peninsula, has been planned for five decades, since the establishment of two disparate regimes on the Peninsula in 1948. The Mt. Geumgang Tourism Project was finalised on June 22, 1998, when Hyundai Group honorary chairman Chung Ju-young and his delegation visited North Korea and signed the ‘Contract for the Mt. Geumgang Tour’ with the Korean Asian-Pacific Peace Committee (KAPPC), a North Korean Worker’s Party organisation (Unikorea, 1999).

The two sides also agreed on other related issues, including ‘Guarantee of the Safety of Tourists’ ‘Guarantee of Access to Telecommunications during the Trip’. On September 7, 1998, the South Korean government approved the Mt. Geumgang Tour Project as an ‘inter-Korean cooperation business’. The cruise ship Geumgang set sail for the historic tour on November 18, 1998, after two months of preparation. More than 300,000 tourists have visited mountain Geumgang until 2000 (Unikorea, 2001). Most South Korean tourists travelling to Mt. Geumgang are motivated by their longing for kinship and cultural ties, with a few visitors seeking pleasure and recreational activities (Unikorea, 2000). Huge numbers of South Koreans are expected to visit Mt. Geumgang, and more contacts between visitors and Northern brethren should help ease hostility between the two (Table 3.18). Approximately 400 South Korean workers are currently staying in North Korea and working together with North Korean laborers on harbor and facilities construction projects (Unikorea, 2000).

Originally, Hyundai expected 450,000 tourists arrivals in 2003 climbing to 1.3 million by 2006 (Hyundai-Asan Corporation, 2001). These projections appear to be the basis on
which estimates for construction of facilities were made. Interest in the project was initially strong and in 1999, 147,460 visited Mt. Geumgang. As a result of this demand Hyundai added three cruise boats in early 1999 to bring the number of boats to four. During 2000, interest in the project continued to grow and total visitor numbers grew to 212,020. However, by January 2001, it became apparent that the original demand forecasts were overly optimistic resulting in heavy financial losses. Along with financial problems experienced in other areas of the Hyundai Conglomerate, the high recurrent losses incurred by the Mt. Geumgang project created a liquidity crisis for the Hyundai group that was only solved by company restructuring and changes to the structure of the Mt. Geumgang tour project. To stimulate demand, Hyundai-asan Co. reduced tour prices and asked President Dae-Jung Kim’s administration to permit a casino and a duty free shop on a floating hotel near Mt. Gumgang but both requests were rejected and demand continued to fall. President Dae-Jung Kim’s administration announced a rescue plan. Elements of the plan were: a reduction in the number of cruise boats from four to one; a proposed land route from South Korea to Mt. Geumgang was approved subject to agreement by the North Korea and the Korea National Tourism Organisation (KNTO) was authorized to become a partner with Hyundai-asan Co., contributing financial support (Kim and Prideaux, 2003). In addition to continuing concerns over personal safety while visiting Mt. Geumgang (Sohn, 2001), the structure of the tourism experience offered by Hyundai at Mt. Geumgang has been criticized by participants on a number of grounds that may, in part, explain why demand has fallen since 2000. Tourist facilities at Mt. Geumgang are limited and even tour guidelines for passengers emphasise a negative message of ‘don’ts’, earning the Mt. Geumgang tour the reputation of the “don’t tour” (Cho, 2002).

Facing a continuing fall in demand in 2002, moreover, US Military and the CIA believed that North Korea was using part of the currency received from the Mt. Geumgang project to make military purchases (Korea Times, 2002). At a time when North Korea was appealing for foreign aid to assist in famine relief, but appeared to be spending hard currency generated by Mt. Geumgang on weapons, many South Koreans also expressed concerns that support of the tour was not supporting peace but promoting the North’s
ability to wage war. Nevertheless, further efforts by the Kim administration to promote the project by restoring inter-Korean cross-border rail and road links and designation Mt. Geumgnag as a special international tourism and free economic zone were met (Monthly Chosun, 2002).

The Mt. Geumgang project is regarded as one of the most significant events in half a century old division of Korea and as a tangible result of Sun shine Policy of the Kim Dae-jung Administration, as mentioned before. The Mt. Geumgang Project will also serve as a good milestone to promote further inter-Korean cooperations. The Hyundai group has reached agreement with North Korea on building an automobile assembly plant and an indoor gymnasium in Pyongyang. Hyundai group will pay $940 million in the next six years in return for the exclusive rights of tourism and development of the Mt. Geumgang (Uinkorea, 2000). If North Korea uses this money to resolve urgent economic difficulties, the economic burden now shouldered by the international community will be eased.

The South Korean Government hopes that the Mt. Geumgang project turns out to be successful and helps enlarge mutual human, trade exchanges, thus leading to reconciliation and cooperation between the two Koreas. Stability and peace on the Korean Peninsula can contribute to promoting cooperation in Northeast Asia generally. Most of all, the Mt. Geumgang project provides South Koreans with an opportunity to experience the possibility of unification (KNTO, 2000).

Table 3.18. Visitors to Mt. Geumgang

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>1998</th>
<th>1999</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004 (until Oct.)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10,543</td>
<td>147,460</td>
<td>212,020</td>
<td>58,833</td>
<td>87,414</td>
<td>77,683</td>
<td>228,248</td>
<td>570,817</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: KNTO, 2004
3.6 NORTH KOREA AS A TOURIST DESTINATION

Tourism within the socialist countries has been strictly subordinated to politics and ideology. Countries such as Albania and North Korea are still in a stage of very tentative experimentation with tourism (Allcock and Prezeclawski, 1990). The North Korean government has recognised and started to respond to the needs of tourism, not because of the organisational problems outlined, but because of severe economic pressure. This response to pressure is common in the political system. Like South Korea, North Korea has some exquisite national parks, and the country is almost completely unexploited by commercial tourism. Hall (1990, p. 40) described it as “One of Asia’s best kept secrets” and “Unspoilt”. That is part of its appeal. Cracks have opened in its belligerent defiance to the rest of the world, but while most other formerly hard-line communist countries are opening up, North Korea has grown increasingly isolated. Several bad seasons in a row have created chronic food shortages and the ever more quixotic leadership continues to rattle the nuclear sabre. In 1998, about 2,000 foreign tourists (Japanese, Chinese, Thailand, Iranian and Europeans) visited North Korea. Individual tourists are still prohibited from visiting North Korea. The only way visits can occur is by group tour programmes offered by travel companies. However, the number of Chinese tourists going to North Korea is recently rising sharply (Heilongjing Daily, 2003).

3.6.1 International Tourism

This subsection is not new in nature as there have been attempts to provide an overview on North Korean development. Research on North Korean tourism development has usually been undertaken as a part of academic reports (Beal, 2001a; 2001b). Therefore, a gap in this area exists, as there has been no study encompassing the range of historic and contemporary development of the tourism industry in North Korea. The government of North Korea became interested in international tourism in the late 1980s in order to earn foreign hard currency (Ryu et al, 1997). The changes in attitude had two effects. First, interests of tourism in the region grew dramatically. Second, changes in the direction of tourist flows caused difficulties for the organization and management of tourism.
However, the desire of the governments to make their countries integrated within the world has led to a transformation in their centralized political, economic and social systems to market-led economies. Such changes elsewhere focused attention on how North Korea will manage to become a competitive destination for tourism and how it will adapt to the new potential economic environment. Thus, this discussion is undertaken to provide an analysis of both the prospects and problems of North Korean tourism in order to highlight the key factors likely to influence its future development.

In 1990, over 114,954 foreign visitors arrived in the country but since then, the growth rate has been stagnant (Table 3.19). The growing tension over nuclear development issues and North Korea’s negative image have prevented any further expansion of international tourism. In terms of foreign visitors, in 1992, China generated about 70% of visitor arrivals with the vast majority of them being for trade purposes, while overseas Koreans constituted about 11%. The rest came from Japan (2.0%), Russia (1.6%), Germany (1.1%), Taiwan (0.9%) and other countries (United Nations Development Programme, 1993). International tourism appears to contribute only modestly to foreign exchange earnings (3.0% as a percentage of exports). In spite of its significant contribution to the North Korean economy the tourism industry is lagging behind in its competitive strength when compared with its main rivals. North Korea has a lower performance in the areas of administration and organization, quality of the service, transportation prices, transportation facilities and promotion when compared with South Korea. This will be explained in the next subsection in detail. However, an appropriate exploitation of tourism resources really can help the economy of that country, by creating also a lot of places of work in the fields of tourism.
Table 3.19 Foreign Visitors to North Korea, 1987-1998

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Tourist Arrival</th>
<th>Growth Rate %</th>
<th>Average Length of Stay (Days)</th>
<th>Tourism Receipts ($ million)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>46,960</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>42,780</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>97,125</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>40.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>114,954</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>116,585</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>117,487</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>31.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>120,000</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>33.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>128,000</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>127,000</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>128,000</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>130,000</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Tourism Action Plan: Assistance on Tourism Development and Training, Democratic People’s Republic of Korea, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 1999

3.6.2 Infrastructure

North Korea has only one international airport, which is located near Pyongyang, the capital city. Regular international flights are operated to Berlin, Moscow, Sofia, Beijing, and Bangkok, with just nine flights per week. There are no regular domestic air links except for charters. The rail network is adequate but needs repair and upgrading. North Korea has about 60 rail networks and 5,059 km of rail line. A major problem of the rail line is that much of it is single track, which causes frequent delays. Roads in North Korea need urgent repair and maintenance. The road distance is estimated at 34,000 km, with paved roads constituting only 8.1% in 1991 (KNTC, 1994).
3.6.3 Tourism Superstructure

North Korea has about 3,500 room capacity for foreign visitors, over 70% of which are concentrated in the capital city. Most hotels are of poor quality and there is only one deluxe hotel, which is located in the capital (KNTC, 1994). Recreational and sports facilities are not easily available because the communist government has not allowed the development of such facilities. There are only three golf courses and so-called night life for tourists is almost non-existent in North Korea.

3.6.4 Government and Organisation

North Korea’s national tourism organisation is the National Directorate of Tourism which was established in 1986. Directly controlled by the central government under the Administration Council, the organisation draws up the national tourism policy and regulates the Korea International Travel Company (KITA). The KITA, a national travel agency, handles most tourist activities: hotels, transport, guides, promotion and contracts with foreign travel agencies. Since the state owns and operates all businesses, the government actually controls and monopolises the tourism sector like all the other sectors (Ryu et al, 1997).

3.6.5 Current North Korea Tourism Development - Mt. Geumgang

As mentioned above, data on North Korean tourism is virtually non-existent, apart from that to Mt. Geumgang. No data relating to North Korea was found on the World Travel and Tourism Council website, and just fragmentary data on the World Tourism Organisation website. Most of the available data is related to the Hyundai-Asan Mt. Geumgang venture, and originates with the Hyundai group of South Korea (Figure 3.8). The Mt. Geumgang project between North and South Korea is regarded as one of the most significant events in the half a century old division of Korea. This project was finalised on June 22, 1998. Huge numbers of South Koreans are expected to visit Mt. Geumgang, and more contacts between visitors and Northern brethren should help ease
hostility between the two. South Koreans have visited Mt. Geumgang resulting in a good profit for the North Korean economy. Moreover, this investment has a strictly psychological aspect (it is impossible to describe the emotion felt by South Korean travelers in trespassing a border closed from 50 years) and, in any case, it represents a meaningful step towards a brighter future. According to a North Korean tourism official, just a few hundred European tourists visited North Korea last year, though a total of 100,000 foreigners, mostly Chinese, had the opportunity to breathe the country’s rarefied air (KOTRA, 2001). The 100,000 foreigners, mainly Chinese were clearly in addition to North Korean visitors to Mt. Geumgang. The World Tourism Organisation forecasts that the number of international arrivals in North Korea will increase to 146,000 in 2005, and 159,000 in 2010; the average annual growth rate is around 1.7% (Beal, 2001b).

Mt. Geumgang, though currently the jewel in the crown of North Korean tourism is not the only attraction. Attempts have been made to develop tourism in Rajin-Sonbong targeting Chinese from China and Hong Kong with the lure of gambling. Mt Paektu, the sacred mountain on the Chinese border, is currently hampered by access problems but has long-term prospects (Korea Times, 2000). According to a Korean Central News Agency (KCNA) report from Pyongyang, over the last 20 years some 100,000 ‘overseas Koreans’ and 60,000 foreigners have visited Myohyangsan (KCNA, 2001). The ancient capital of Kaesong is scheduled to be opened to tourism, and developed by Hyundai Asan, and if that happens its proximity to South Korea will be a major strength (Shin, 2001). Therefore, the Mt. Geumgang project is the first step in the direction of bringing the two Koreas together. Tourism between South and North Korea is at present no longer in “zero –tourism” stage by Butler and Mao’s model. More and more people will spend their time traveling, and tourism is a sector of economy which is unavoidably destined to grow. In the case of North Korea, appropriate exploitation of cultural resources really can help the economy of that country, by creating a lot of opportunities in the field of tourism. It can be said that the recommendations can be further put into practice when political tension between the two Koreas is reduced. Both governments selected a tourism project, for example the DMZ tourism cooperation and development, as a low-politic activity to help
ameliorate the tension and hostility between the two Koreas in the initial stages reconciliation. This research will be focused in the following chapter.

Figure 3.8 Mt. Geumgang

Source: Hyundai-Asan website
3.7 SUMMARY

This chapter has provided a review of tourism in South and North Korea by focusing on its past, present and likely future tourism trends and travel propensity. This Chapter has also reviewed and identified the tourism development process in the study area of South and North Korea. Moreover, this chapter has taken a closer look at the tourism policy in South Korea toward North Korea by examining past and current tourism policies, and the Mt. Geumgang tourism project. International tourism in North Korea has been regarded as a tool for earning foreign exchange and for improving the nation’s image. Although the country has a diversity of tourist attractions such as natural beauty, historic sites, national monuments and museums, the earnings from international tourism seem lower than initially expected, even though no mass tourism market has been developed. In fact, North Korea’s economy not only faces the difficulties of not being recognized politically, but also experiences economic isolation and heavy embargoes. This has been affecting the whole economy, and specifically the tourism industry of North Korea, adversely.

Tourism constraints in North Korea include:

- Poor accessibility: Inadequate direct international air links
- Poor international communication links
- Lack of tourism facilities such as high class hotels, restaurants and entertainment facilities
- Poor services
- A negative image related to the nuclear issue and terrorism
- Limits to freedom of tourists: fixed itineraries, restriction of individual movement, no contact with locals
- Lack of capital to invest in the tourism superstructure due to declining economy
- Still closed-door policy to South Korean visitors

Examining the historical background of Korea based on statistical data is very important for forecasting quantitative predictions. These are unlikely to be made without relevant past data or information. Hence, the collection of statistical data or information is
essential for the analysis of Korean tourism demand. In terms of international demand for South Korean tourism, the number of total arrivals is steadily most years. However, tourism trends in South Korea have changed because of the recent economic crisis in South and East Asia and the Pacific Region. Fortunately, the South Korean government had already started to recognize the importance of international tourism. Although KNTO has had some limitations, it has acted vigorously as a public sector body to develop and activate Korean tourism.

The first of several KNTO proposals is to develop Korea’s various attractions or indigenous cultural and tourist assets through early education starting in primary school. The second is concerned with running a Council for Tourist Products by the government and participated in by KNTO, local self-governing assembly councils and tourist companies. Third, the government has to make policies concerning product development, overseas public relations activities and improvement of tourist receiving conditions by establishing a ‘strategic planning division for tourism promotion’.

Consequently, the Korean government identified tourism as a strategic national industry in 1993. A strong intention to promote tourism in South Korea can be seen through various projects and events undertaken by the government and large enterprises, such as the co-hosting of the 2002 World Cup. Moreover, a recent decision made by President Kim Dae-Jung to appear in commercials to help the nation in attracting tourists will be another plus factor for developing tourism in Korea. Overall, KNTO stands at the centre of South Korean tourism and its activities are extremely important to lead Korea tourism to the successful end. Korea is still a developing country and it struggles with a serious economic crisis. However, South Korea has not only a positive history of tourism development but also great potential for tourism that will be the key for escaping the economic crisis. There are many elements to be organised to achieve successful development such as the cooperation in tourism development between North and South Korea, development of adequate policy, organic cooperation among tourism industry, government and public organisation. These all may be successfully accomplished when South Korean public and private sectors actively perform their roles since Korea has
great potential in realising tourism developments for the 21st century. On the other hand, as long as North Korea constrains movement because of fear of tourists’ contact with residents, the development of large-scale tourism will not be possible. The inflexibility of its government toward their potentially biggest market, South Korea, also acts as a major hindrance to the expansion of tourism. South Korea is ready to financially and technically assist North Korea if the North Korean government would be willing to allow South Korean visitors in. It is thus clear that there will, in all likelihood, be burgeoning tourism demand in Northeast Asia over the next decade and beyond. If North Korea is able to cooperate in that, even at a modest level, it could produce sufficient foreign exchange earnings to transform and re-invigorate its economy.

In this study, the Mt. Geumgang project has not only given an opportunity for South Koreans to see the mountain first hand, but also to create a basis for large scale exchanges of people between the two Koreas. Many Koreans hope that the project proves to be a successful, thus gradually expanding the exchanges of both people and goods, and marking an important step towards restoring mutual confidence and enhancing reconciliation and cooperation between the two Koreas. The success of the project can promote stability on the Korean peninsula, luring more foreign capital investment to the peninsula. If the Mt. Geumgang project proves to be successful, a great deal of overhead capital could be invested in the mountain area, and might result in joint-development of nearby Mt. Sorak in the South. Therefore, the Mt. Geumgang project would be a landmark event, the first-ever joint project between the two Koreas in the tourism industry. The project exemplifies the South Korean government’s Sunshine Policy and the principle of separating politics from economics. In this sense, this project as a peace promoter can contribute to the restoration of mutual confidence and development of common interests between the two Koreas.
Border Tourism and the DMZ Development in South Korea as a Peace Promoter

INTRODUCTION CH1

Secondary Research

Peace and Tourism in Divided Nations CH2

Tourism Development and Policy in South and North Korea

Historic View CH3

South Korea

North Korea

South Korea’s Policy towards North Korea

Case Study: The DMZ Development CH4

Primary Research

Methodology CH5

Analysis of Findings CH6, CH7 and CH8

Conclusions, Implications and Recommendation CH9
CHAPTER IV

DMZ DEVELOPMENT AS A BORDER TOURISM DESTINATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

As little as a decade ago, policy discussions about tourism would have been largely confined to marketing, promotion, tax, visa, training, consumer, accommodation and transportation issues. That is no longer the case. Environmental, social, demographic and increasingly political issues such as sex tourism (Graburn, 1983; Nash, 1989; Hall, 1992; Hall and Oehlers, 2000), gambling, and political instability (Hall, 1994a; Hall and O'Sullivan, 1996; Pizam and Mansfeld, 1996) are dominating tourism policies at the local, regional, national and global levels. The political issues surrounding tourism have expanded and become more complex over time. Terrorist or dissident groups, ethnic tensions within the nation and the region, political coups, war or chronic instability have proved repeatedly that tourism is a very fragile industry, easy to sabotage and costly to rebuild (Richter & Waugh, 1986). It will increasingly affect the patterns of world politics in terms of both military security and economic agendas. In terms of the former, the growth of Chinese power and the tensions on the Korean peninsula are indicative of the regional tensions that exist as the United States cuts back its military presence in the region and new security structures are sought. On the economic and social front, more confident countries within the region will seek to assert their interests on issues ranging from the environment to human rights. As a result many groups argue there is a need for still greater controls on tourism (Elliott, 1983). At the same time, governments are becoming more paternalistic in their policies toward their travelling citizens- issuing
advisories with increasing regularity and generally assuming more concern for their safety abroad. Government’s primary responsibility toward its citizens is to provide for their basic security and the safety of all others within its borders. Governments at international, national, regional, and local levels are increasingly recognising that tourism does not just “happen” and frequently is not harmless or controversial. Therefore, issues of political stability and political relations within and between states are extremely important in determining the image of destinations in tourist-generating regions and the real and perceived safety of tourists (Brackenbury, 1995; Hall and O’Sullivan, 1996; Pizam and Mansfeld, 1996). In this context, the implications of this political stability and tourism were considered in Chapter Three.

In this respect, the DMZ and its surroundings face a difficult situation because of its geographical position and the division of Korea. The two Koreans were divided by the 250 km-long and 4 km-wide DMZ after the Korean War in 1953. There has been almost no communication and no travel across the border. However, several attempts were made in the last half a century by the two Koreas to improve relations. The two Koreas first expressed interest in mutual contact in 1972 when they announced a joint statement on national reunification. In 1991, they adopted a basic agreement on inter-Korean relations but, little has been strictly controlled by the two governments. Nevertheless, through the peace treaty between South and North Korea (April 2000), both governments recognised DMZ areas as a high priority issue for regional tourism development. These include special procedures regarding economic activity, transportation, the peace park, energy and natural resources, the environment, and safety procedures. Bilateral co-operation is based on the premise that each area should exploit its relative attraction as a tourist attraction. It can be said that the DMZ is one of the first regions to experience the impact of unification and its problems. Therefore, practical steps towards unification together with associated political problems are particularly noticeable here.

Two scenarios are often envisaged (Johnston, 1976; Kim, 1997). One like the German unification, could occur after the sudden collapse of North Korea due to a variety of economic and political difficulties. The second is peaceful co-existence, eventually
leading to unification. However, South Korea agrees that peaceful coexistence may be wiser than early unification (Cha, 1996; Noland, 1997) and the Koreans can also learn from the German experience and avoid some of the German errors. Lee (1994, p. 185) also advocates exchanges and contacts between the two Koreas are important steps that can be taken towards unification. Corson and Minghi (1993) attempt to point the way to a clearer understanding of the reunification process in formerly partitioned states (Vietnam and Germany) by a comparative analysis in testing generalizations about the process. They conclude on the applicability of these tests to the possible future case of divided Korea by the DMZ. It has analysed tourism as a low-politics activity influencing initial reconciliation between governments, and discussed the DMZ tourism cooperation as cooperation for inter-Korean economic relations and even future Korean reunification.

This chapter tries to examine tourism cooperation as a peace promoter to be promoted in the border region including the DMZ. This chapter reviews the area’s characteristics and tourism performance, and the projects for joint development, with assessments of their benefits and costs. Secondary data is the main source of information in this chapter. The next chapter describes the primary survey carried out to discover the attitudes of visitors and tourism professionals toward tourism development in the DMZ area. There are limits to the secondary data used in this chapter, as the information needed was not always available and was sometimes of little direct relevance.

4.2 BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCH AREA

4.2.1 The War

The Korean War began on June 25, 1950 with the invasion of South Korea by North Korea. North and South Korea had viewed each other with fear and/or disdain for decades before the war, and hostility between the two sides was not new. The South tended to view the more prosperous and developed North as brutal and uncouth, while the North believed the South to be decadent and effete. The formal split came in 1945 when the North and the South chose opposite sides at the beginning of the Cold War. The
invasion by North Korea was viewed by much of the western world as a direct strike by communism (directed by Moscow) on Korea (Neufeld, 1998).

The war dragged on for about three years, interspersed with unsuccessful peace talks by the parties involved. An armistice was signed on July 27, 1953, by North Korea, the U.S. and China, lacking only the signature of South Korea, who refused to sign. It was South Korea’s missing signature that has kept the two sides officially at war since that time. While the Korean War was seen as a seminal event in the unfolding of the Cold War by the rest of the world, it had dire effects on Korea. It achieved nothing and resolved nothing, leaving two regimes in the severed country at each other’s throat for the next half century. It also showed that while the Korean War was a civil war, it was something larger, for which larger powers fought on Korean soil (Megastories a, 2001).

4.2.2 Geography and Location

The Korean Demilitarized Zone (DMZ) was created by the armistice at the end of the Korean War in order to maintain a safe and protected distance between North and South Korea. The DMZ, in the words of one writer, is one of the most “phenomenal military edifices left on this planet after the end of the Cold War (Megastories b, 2001). The Demilitarized Zone that divides North and South Korea is one of the last remaining ‘hot spots’ of the Cold War. More than a million heavily armed soldiers, thus minefields, artillery, and barbed wire surround the zone. Inside, the DMZ has become a treasure of flourishing wildlife where humans are absent (Kotowitz, 2000).

The DMZ extends roughly 150 miles in length along the 38th parallel, and is two and a half miles wide, or six miles wide, if one includes each country’s Buffer zones, which are two to three mile strips on either side of the DMZ, used to facilitate border protection. The terrain is varied and spans Korea’s multiple ecosystems, which range from mountains to jungles to water habitats. This strip of land has been virtually untouched by human hands since the signing of the armistice in 1953 (Neufeld, 1998).
When the three-year Korean War ceased in 1953, the United Nations Military Armistice Commission established the Demilitarized Zone (DMZ) and the Civilian Control Line (CCL) along the South-North Korea divide. The 155-mile-long, 2.5-mile-wide DMZ is bisected by the Military Demarcation Line (MDL) (Figure 4.1 and 4.2). No fortifications are allowed in the DMZ. The MDL is marked by 1,292 rusting yellow-and-black markers spaced every 110 to 220 yards. Tae Song Dong (also known as Freedom Village) is occupied by 240 South Koreans. They pay no taxes and are exempt from military service, but they have an 11 p.m. curfew. Only those living in the village before the Korean War or their descendants are eligible for residency. Villagers grow rice, ginseng and red peppers. The North Korea village is Gi Jong Dong, dubbed “Propaganda Village” by the South, because loudspeakers blast Communist slogans. There are 13 houses, but inhabitants are rarely seen. Many buildings have no windows (Kotowitz, 2000).

4.2.3 Ecological Resources

Ecological resources have unpriced values (Sinden and Worrell, 1984). The benefits of preserving the resources are perceived but are not transacted in the market, where price is determined as a signal for distribution. The absence of price for such valuable resources is often the major reason for the absence of a relevant resource use policy. Therefore, the fate of biological resources is in the hands of local landholders who are often interested in development and tend to ignore non-market values contained in the ecological resources. The total benefits of the ecological resources consist of two parts, first, the eco-tourism value of the resources as perceived by potential tourists; second, the preservation value of the eco-resources perceived by non-users.
Figure 4.1 The DMZ Map

The DMZ MAP

Keymap

Regional Setting
DMZ surrounded by Civilian Controlled Area (CCA) is located along 1.55 miles, 4km wide in the middle of Korean Peninsula.
Chapter Four  DMZ Development as a Border Tourism Destination

Figure 4.2 DMZ AREA

The military nature of these zones has served to strictly limit access, thereby affording the ecological resources almost complete protection. The DMZ has served as a sanctuary to wild-animals and plants for almost one half century. The CCL, a 5-to-20-km wide zone of farm and forest lands with a few inhabited residential and commercial areas, functions as a buffer zone for the sanctuary bio-reserves on both side of the DMZ (John, 1998). Wildlife find winter refuge in this transfrontier natural reserve. Of special significance are the endangered red-crowned (Grus japonensis) and white-napped (Grus vipio) cranes (red-crowned, and cranes) that spend winter in this area. The red-crowned cranes in particular need complete protection for night-time roosting, as provided by the DMZ' de facto sanctuary. The total population of this endangered species is about 1,500, of which 250 to 300 birds spend winters in South Korea (Kun et al, 1999).

The use value of ecological resources represents only a part of the total benefits of the FFER (Farm and Forestry Ecological Resources). In addition, preserving the FFER
embraces non-use values perceived by its existence, option, and bequest preferences. Existence value is the willingness to pay for the satisfaction of knowing that a natural environment is protected. Option value is defined as the annual payment of a kind of insurance premium to retain the option of possible future use. Bequest value is defined as a willingness to pay for satisfaction derived from endowing future generations with protected inviolate biological resources (Brookshire, et al. 1983; Loomis, 1988; Walsh, et al. 1984).

4.3 DMZ TOURISM DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

4.3.1 Present Tourism: DMZ and the Vicinity

Tourism products symbolizing the national division and people’s desire for unification are enjoying great popularity among tourists in Korea. The DMZ is a major tourist attraction. Every year, about 180,000 tourists travel by bus from Seoul, 30 miles to the south, to spend a day in the clean air and the open spaces of the last flash point of the Cold War (Sullivan, 1998). Moreover, Paju City, located north of Seoul, attracts about 1.7 million domestic and international tourists each year, with unique destinations such as “Imjingak,” a pavilion near the truce village of Panmunjom, the Unification Observatory on Mt. Odu and a Tunnel dug by North Koreans to invade the South Korea (Korea Times, 1999). The DMZ is not a holiday destination in itself. For anyone who is in South Korea in business or vacation anyway, the DMZ is not to be missed – it is one of the weirdest and most fascinating places anyone can reach in a tour bus.

In 2004, if the leaders of the divided peninsula reach an accord for reconciliation and eventual reunification, many people’s dream for the DMZ may have edged closer to reality. When peace comes to the Korean Peninsula, there is the opportunity to turn the DMZ into a nature preserve where people on both sides of the border can meet and enjoy the flora and fauna (dmzfomm, 2001). Cut off from human contact for nearly a half-century, the DMZ is a de facto natural park where many endangered plants and animals thrive.
The points of interest, include the central frontline of Cheolwon, of the demilitarized zone Kangwon province, the Iron Triangular Observatory; WalJungri station, the further point south of Kyungwon line; Baekmagozi, where the fighting was intense; the Second Tunnel; and the headquarters of the Labour Party. The points of interest in the demilitarized area of the east frontline, which connects Yangugun, and Gosunggun, include Punch-Bowl Old Battlefield of Yanggu-Gun, the Fourth Tunnel, Eolji Observation, and Gosung Unification Observatory located on the northern part of the east coast (dmztour, 2001) (see Table 4.1) (Figure 4.3).

Table 4.1 Different Areas of DMZ and Tourist Sites

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Different parts of DMZ</th>
<th>Tourist Sites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| West Front Line       | - Tora Observatory  
                        | - 1st Tunnel       
                        | - 3rd Tunnel        
                        | - Imjin-Gak         
                        | - Railroad Breaking Point 
                        | - Bridge of Freedom  
                        | - Battle along the Imjin 
                        | - Unification Park   
                        | - Tongil Observatory |
| Central Fighting Line | - IronTriangle Observatory 
                        | - Woljung Station   
                        | - Building of Labour Party 
                        | - Backma Hill        
                        | - 2nd Tunnel         |
| East Fighting Line    | - Punch-Bowl Area  
                        | - 4th Tunnel        
                        | - Ulji Observatory   
                        | - Tongil Observatory |
Figure 4.3 Different Parts of the DMZ

West Front Line
Chapter Four  DMZ Development as a Border Tourism Destination

East Fighting Line

Central Fighting Line
Panmunjom is the “truce village” that straddles the border between North Korea and South Korea in the middle of the Demilitarized Zone. One of the most unusual destinations in the world, the site where the 1953 Armistice Treaty was signed, stands in the Joint Security Area (JSA) in the middle of the DMZ, highlighting the severe reality of the divided Korean Peninsula. Through on-going conferences of the Military Armistice Commission (MAC) peaceful contact between the North and the South Korea has been maintained (Metro Seoul, 2000).

Panmunagak of North Korea is a two story building 80m north of the Freedom House in September 1969. This building is used as a waiting room for representatives at a South-North Korea conference or the Military Armistice Commission, as well as an office for North Korea’s security guards.

The new freedom House was constructed on 9 July 1988. It provides facilities for South – North Korean meetings and exchanges, and houses the Liaison Office with North and South Korea.

The House of Peace is located 130m southwest of the Freedom House. It was built for the meeting of Prime Ministers of South and North Korea in June 1980, and then reconstructed at its present site in December 1989. In this House of Peace, non-military, civilian meetings between South and North Korea are held.

Bridge of No Return is astride the Military Demarcation Line. After the 1953 Armistice, on this bridge there was an exchange of prisoners of war. The name of this particular bridge was derived from the fact that the prisoners of war voluntarily choosing North Korea, were unable to return to South Korea.

Taesung-dong, South Korean ‘Freedom Village’, can be seen on the way to Panmunjom in the DMZ. There has been about 230 residents farming there since before the Korean War.
Chapter Four  DMZ Development as a Border Tourism Destination

The Kijong-dong propaganda village, situated 1.8 km away from Taesung-dong, was built in the north area of DMZ for propaganda. There are no residents except soldiers. The world’s highest flag tower where North Korea’s national flag is hanging stands in the entrance of the village.

Imjin-gak is located 50 km northwest of Seoul. To comfort the 10 million South Korean people separated from their families in North Korea, there are joint memorial services for parents in North Korea held on Memorial Alter on every Lunar New Year’s Day. Imjin-gak also allows people to take a look at the lifestyle of North Korea. The exhibition hall includes jet aircraft and tanks from the Korean War and also offers observation platform souvenirs (Pannunjomtour, 2001).

Unification Park situated before entering the town of Munsan along the Tongil Ro, has a number of historic monuments commemorating the war heroes of the Korean War, including “War-Correspondents Monument”, “Loyal monument for the late Ten human-bomb heroes”, “Monument to 2nd Lt” (Pannunjomtour, 2001).

Discovered in South Korean territory off the DMZ near Panmunjom in 1978, the North Korean 3rd Tunnel is one of several underground tunnels dug under the DMZ by North Korea for the purpose of infiltrating troops into South Korea in case of hostilities. It is deep under the surface and tourists are invited to descend to the bottom to view it for themselves (Metro Seoul, 2000).

4.3.2 Opportunities for Regional Development - Tourist Attractions

The DMZ shows regional differences in its characteristics and natural attractions. Region-wide integration has been limited by a number of factors in the past but new opportunities are now available.
4.3.2.1 Battle-field Monument tourism

At the military inspection post, the holiday mood of sightseers, especially Koreans often changes. Encountering the heavily armed military police checking their tour buses and luggage, the tourists become tense and subdued. However, this apprehension does not last very long. Immediately after passing through the military inspection post, they face a farm and forestry landscape that is in sharp contrast to the urban environment where they live or have seen enroute to the CCL. The presence of battlefield monuments and some ruins are the only evidence of the past war time violence. However, what the tourists expect to see in the Choelwon area is not the landscape of the farm and forestry ecological resources (FFER) but war monuments and old battlefields. “Battle-Field Monument tour” is the official name of the sightseeing package for the Choelwon CCL area. The major attraction point for tourists is, among others, the under-ground tunnel installed by the North Korean Army for the purpose a sudden attack to the South. The landscape of farm and forestry ecological resources is enjoyed by the tourists, but not as the primary sightseeing attraction. Since the area is under strict military control, tourists are restricted to a specific place within a limited time. According to the annual statistic book of the Choelwon local government, the war-monument and old battlefield ruins in the Choelwon CCL attract over 369,500 tourists per year. This tourism provides the regional economy with tangible economic benefits from related business opportunities, including hotels and restaurants, which create macro-economic multiplier effects in the regional economy (Kun et al, 1999).

4.3.2.2 Ecotourism

Most tourism authorities agree that to be successful, ecotourism, should promote conservation of natural resources and also provide financial gain for the host country and the local people (Ashton, 1991; Emmons, 1991; Cater, 1994; Doan, 2000). To that end, tourism must be sustainable. In order for the DMZ ecotourism development project to be sustainable, a system of checks and balances must be put in place to safeguard the local environment and cultures. Often this involves creating protected areas, including national parks (Doan, 2000). The concept of the conservation of the DMZ was launched by a group of artists, naturalists and scholars of various fields (Paik, 2000).
Chapter Four  DMZ Development as a Border Tourism Destination

The political conditions that created the ‘no man’s lands’ that were established along the East-West divide and between countries also created zones of untouched vegetation and wildlife habitat. Many of Central and Eastern Europe’s national parks, for example, are located along national frontiers (Denisiuk et al., 1997). In the DMZ areas between two Koreas, the goods to be valued are the farm and forestry ecological resources (FFER) in the Choelwon CCL (Civilian Control Line) area, which embraces the wildlife habitat and old battle-field ruins. The tourists could also enjoy as a landscape of FFER.

4.3.2.3 Peace park tourism
Timothy’s (1999, 2000a) study show that the more integrated the two sides of an international park was in relation to a border, the higher the level of cooperation will be. He also states “International parks are one of the most prominent tourist attractions in border regions”(2000a, p. 263). Moreover, Thorsell and Harrison (1990) identified 70 locations throughout the world where parks and other protected landscapes meet at international frontiers, and additional sites have been identified since then and in several locations, discussions and negotiations have begun and in some cases actions has already been initiated on one or both sides (Timothy, 2000a) (Table 4.2 and 4.3). According to Timothy (2000a, p. 280), existing international parks play an important role in peace and conservation efforts globally, and many more potential parks have yet to be established.
### Table 4.2 Existing International Parks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Park(s)</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Name of Park(s)</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>The America</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arctic-N. Yukon</td>
<td>USA-Canada</td>
<td>Amistad Intl. Park</td>
<td>Costa Rica-Panama</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kluane-St. Elias</td>
<td>Canada-USA</td>
<td>Los Katios-Darien</td>
<td>Colombia-Panama</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace Arch Pak</td>
<td>USA-Canada</td>
<td>Nebina</td>
<td>Venezuela-Brazil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saget/Cascade-N. Cascade</td>
<td>Canada-USA</td>
<td>Sajama-Lauca</td>
<td>Bolivia-Chile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waterton-Glacier</td>
<td>Canada-USA</td>
<td>Iguazu</td>
<td>Argentina-Brazil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intel. Peace Garden</td>
<td>USA-Canada</td>
<td>Puyehue/Rosales-Lanin</td>
<td>Chile-Argentina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quetico-Boundary Waters</td>
<td>Canada-USA</td>
<td>Los Glaciares-Bernardo</td>
<td>Argentina-Chile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roosevelt Campobello</td>
<td>Canada-USA</td>
<td>O'Higgins</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niagara Falls</td>
<td>Canada-India</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Asia</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khunjerab-Taxkorgan</td>
<td>Pakistan-China</td>
<td>Sundarbans</td>
<td>India-Bangladesh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Royal Chitwan-Udaipur</td>
<td>Nepal-India</td>
<td>Yot Dom-Preah Vilear</td>
<td>Thiland-Cambodia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barnadi-Shumar</td>
<td>India-Blutan</td>
<td>Samunsam-Hutan Sambas</td>
<td>Malaysia-Indonesia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manas</td>
<td>Bhutan-India</td>
<td>Wasur-Tindu WMA</td>
<td>Indonesia-Papua NG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Africa</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saloum</td>
<td>Senegal-The Gambia</td>
<td>Masaai Mara-Serengeti</td>
<td>Kenya-Tanzania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bardiar-Nikola Koba</td>
<td>Guinea-Senegal</td>
<td>Virunga-Queen Elizabeth</td>
<td>DR Congo-Uganda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mont Nimba</td>
<td>Cote d'Ivoire-Guinea</td>
<td>Volcanoes-Gorilla</td>
<td>Rwanda-Uganda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comoe-Komoe Leraba</td>
<td>Burkina Faso-Cote d'Ivoire</td>
<td>Nyika</td>
<td>Malawi-Zambia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pendjari-Arly</td>
<td>Benin-Burkina Faso</td>
<td>Lower Zambesi-Mana</td>
<td>Zambia-Zimbabwe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parc 'W'</td>
<td>Niger-Benin-Burk. Faso</td>
<td>Victoria Falls-Mosi Tunya</td>
<td>Zimbabwe-Zambia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kidepo</td>
<td>Uganda-Sudan</td>
<td>Luiana-Capivri</td>
<td>Angola-Namibia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boni-Lag Bagdana</td>
<td>Kenya-Somalia</td>
<td>Luiana-Sioma Ngwezi</td>
<td>Angola-Namibia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mkomozi/Umbo-Tsavo</td>
<td>Tanzania-Kenya</td>
<td>Skeleton Coast-Jona</td>
<td>Namibia-Angola</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Europe</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anarjokka-Lemmenjoki</td>
<td>Norway-Finland</td>
<td>Sumava-Bayerischerwald</td>
<td>Czech Rep.-Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stora Sjofallet-Rago</td>
<td>Norway-Sweden</td>
<td>Sachsische Schweiz</td>
<td>Germany-Czech Rep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waddensee</td>
<td>Germany-Neth.-Denmark</td>
<td>Stowowe Mountains</td>
<td>Czech Rep.-Poland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fagnes Eifel-Nordeifel</td>
<td>Belgium-Germany</td>
<td>Tatra Mountains</td>
<td>Slovakia-Poland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgian-Lux. Nature Park</td>
<td>Belgium-Luxembourg</td>
<td>Pieinski</td>
<td>Slovakia-Poland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pfalzeralwald-Vosages du Nord</td>
<td>Germany-France</td>
<td>Magura</td>
<td>Poland-Slovakia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Berchtesgaden-Hochkonig</td>
<td>Germany-Austria</td>
<td>Bieszczady</td>
<td>Poland-Ukr.-Slovakia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unterer Inn</td>
<td>Austria-Germany</td>
<td>Aggelek-Slovak Karst</td>
<td>Hungary-Slovakia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stelvio-Swiss</td>
<td>Italy-Switzerland</td>
<td>Lake Ferto-Neusiedlersee</td>
<td>Hungary-Austria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vanoise-Gran Paradiso</td>
<td>France-Italy</td>
<td>Djerap-Cazanele</td>
<td>Yugoslavia-Romania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentera-Mercantour</td>
<td>Italy-France</td>
<td>Mikra Prespa-Galicia</td>
<td>Greece-Macedonia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordessa-Pyrenees Occid.</td>
<td>Spain-France</td>
<td>Belovezhskaya-Bialowieza</td>
<td>Belarus-Poland</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Denisiuk *et al.* (1997); Thorsell and Harrison (1990); Timothy (1999)
Table 4.3 Examples of Potential (Proposed) International Parks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Park(s)</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Name of Park(s)</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Americas</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bering Straits (Beringia)</td>
<td>USA-Russia</td>
<td>La Ruta Maya</td>
<td>Mexico-Belize-Guatemala</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gulf of Maine Atlantic</td>
<td>Canada-USA</td>
<td>La Fraternidad</td>
<td>Guat.-Hont.-El Salvador</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big Bend-Sierra del Carmen</td>
<td>Mexico-USA</td>
<td>Intl. Protected Area for Peace</td>
<td>Nicaragua-Costa Rica</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organ Pipe Cactus-Proposed sites</td>
<td>USA-Mexico</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Asia</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sagarmatha-proposed site</td>
<td>Nepal-China</td>
<td>Pulong Tau-Sungai Kayan</td>
<td>Malaysia-Indonesia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kouprey protection area</td>
<td>Laos-Vietnam-Cambodia</td>
<td>Gunung Bentang-Lanjak Entim</td>
<td>Indonesia-Malaysia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kayan Mentarang-Pulong Tai</td>
<td>Indonesia-Malaysia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Africa</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Djoudj-Diaouling</td>
<td>Senegal-Mauritania</td>
<td>Oban-Korup</td>
<td>Nigeria-Cameroon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elba Mountains</td>
<td>Egypt-Sudan</td>
<td>Kruger-proposed Site</td>
<td>South Africa-Mozambique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Europe</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evro River Peace Park</td>
<td>Greece-Turkey</td>
<td>Danube</td>
<td>Austria-Hungary-Slovakia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paamjarvi-proposed site</td>
<td>Russia-Finland</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Bonn (1998); Denisiuk et al., (1997); MacKinnon (1993); Steffens (1994); Systra (1994); Thorsell and Harrison (1990); Young and Rabb (1992)

Inter-Korean cooperation was expected to emerge on the preservation of the DMZ following the first summit meeting between President Kim Dae-Jung and his North Korean counterpart Kim Jong-Il in June 2000 (Sah, 2000). Both Koreas and the whole world would benefit from preserving the DMZ as a Peace Park and environmental laboratory. A “Transboundary Peace Park” of this kind has been established successfully in other parts of the world, notable examples being Kruger National Park shared by Mozambique, South Africa and Zimbabwe, and Jinpo Lake which borders China, North Korea and Russia. Furthermore, international parks along the old East-West European borders are viewed by many as earnest attempts not only to conserve a rapidly changing European natural environment, but also to foster reconciliation between two formerly hostile socio-political systems (Young and Rabb, 1992). In this context, the creation of transnational parks would be valuable in confidence building between states along their
new international frontiers (Timothy, 2000a, p. 279), as the role of political boundaries becomes less of a dividing line and more a line of integration (Minghi, 1991).

Establishing one along the DMZ could also create an opportunity for cooperation between the two countries (Langfitt, 2000). Thus, the process of environmental protection and biodiversity conservation through a peace park in the DMZ could help foster trust, cooperation and economic partnership between the two Koreas. The potential of economic development through eco-tourism and scientific cooperation is very high. In other words, the DMZ peace park cooperation could lead to a decrease in the costly and needless duplication of facilities and services, found in alter areas such as hotels, airports, highways, and utility services, for example, the Israeli-Jordanian border at Eilat/Aquba (Gradus, 1994).

This DMZ Peace Park could become the foundation of a movement to restore Korea’s image of a green land. In recent years, the struggle of both Koreas to raise personal living standards, while the population has increased has left much of the Peninsula environmentally damaged. Species of flora and fauna have been depleted and hillsides have been denuded, causing floods and erosion. Joining together to preserve the DMZ with world support could begin the restoration of Korea’s natural heritage (dmzforum, 2000). However, the ecological system in the DMZ could be threatened seriously from cleaning, road construction and water and land contaminations.

A transboundary peace park in the DMZ corridor could provide a historical opportunity for the two Koreas to preserve the last of Korea’s natural landscapes and native biodiversity. The peace park could become a unique natural laboratory and classroom for environment and science and the scientific community worldwide, perhaps even possible eco-tourism sites, economically benefiting both Koreas while reducing the tremendous military cost. Building and managing a peace park could foster North and South Korean rapprochement, thus improving environmental security and reviving cultural ties between the two Koreas, ultimately increasing human security on the Korean peninsula (dmzforum, 2002). Therefore, creating a peace park is a step in the direction and the
tourism potential they contain may provide not only an economic incentive, but also a way of reaching out to touch one’s neighbours (Lieff and Lusk, 1990).

4.4 DMZ TOURISM DEVELOPMENT - S.W.O.T ANALYSIS

4.4.1 Strength

- The region is located within a few hours flight from much of Central and East Asia-Japan, China, Taiwan, Thailand, as well as countries comprising the former Soviet Union.
- The principal natural asset of the DMZ areas.
- Physical proximity between the countries can reduce cultural distances and trading costs.
- DMZ development may help advance the cause of sustainable development in terms of infrastructure, human resources, conservation, and promotion.

4.4.2 Weakness

- Lack of financial sourcing initiatives especially in North Korea
- Disparity in overall tourism development in the DMZ.
- Each area has limited space, for which tourism competes with other industrial uses.
- Insufficient infrastructure for access in North Korea.
- North Korea perceived as a unsafe country.
- Lack of incentives for hotel projects in North Korea.
- Shortage of accurate data on tourism in North Korea, especially with regard to revenues, expenditures and volume which make planning, and conducting a feasibility study difficult.
- Difficult climatic conditions in both areas during the winter.
- Intensive military activity in the North Korea area.
- Both South and North Korea DMZ areas are peripheral regions. The remoteness from the centre hinder future industrial development.
Chapter Four  DMZ Development as a Border Tourism Destination

- Inadequacy of basic infrastructure in North Korea.

4.4.3 Opportunities

- Increased peripheral hinterland for tourism (both in North and South Korea).
- Transportation systems connections between North Korea, South Korea, China and USSR. At the historic inter-Korean summit meeting in June 2000, the two leaders agreed to the re-connection of the Gyongeui railway. This is significant as it reconnects the entire Korean peninsula by rail and will allow Korea to serve as a transportation hub to link up with the trans-Siberian railway.
- DMZ areas as a prime for tourism destination in the region.
- Sharing international airport in the future.

4.4.4 Threats

- Regional instability.
- Over-development and land use conflict in South Korea region.
- Industrial pollution at the South Korean border
- Irreversible damage to the environment due to tourism development, for example, railway and road, and increased tourist activity in the region.
- Severe shortage of basic infrastructure – water, sewage treatment, roads.

4.5 A MODEL OF FUTURE DEVELOPMENT OF THE DMZ

4.5.1 Joint Tourism Planning

A great opportunity exists to develop the tourism market through joint planning and development with North Korea. This strategy has been advocated for developing countries (Dunning and McQueen, 1982). Joint tourism planning and development in hotels, tourist amenities and tour organisation could provide the opportunity not only to
increase the supply of such facilities but, possibly more important, to improve their quality (Buckly and Witt, 1990). The two Koreas need to discuss ways to remove the barbed wire installed in the Demilitarized Zone (DMZ) that disrupts routes on the Paekdu mountain range in order to secure a passage for wild animals to migrate. Furthermore, the environment ministry could propose the North designate major mountains as national parks and establish a system for both nations to exchange information and encourage preservation.

The successful inter-Korean summit encouraged Kyonggi Province to map out various tourist projects in preparation for an expected flood of inter-Korean exchanges of people and goods. The provincial government will develop a tour package covering the DMZ and expand infrastructure, including the restoration of the disconnected Seoul-Wonsan and Seoul-Shinuiju railroads that once linked the peninsula. It will also build golf courses and begin work to excavate cultural assets. In addition, the local government will develop a culture-tourism belt establishing a “unification tourism road” linking the cities of Inchon, Kimpo, Paju and Yonchon with Kyonggi Province. In border areas, meeting place will go up in preparation for full-fledged inter-Korean exchanges and unification (Hwang, 2000).

4.5.2 Joint Environmental Management

Inter-Korean cooperation in the environment and tourism sectors has gained momentum after the conclusion of the South-North Joint Declaration. The environment Ministry is pushing for a project to preserve the Paekdu mountain range, the backbone of the Korean Peninsula that stretches from Mount Paekdu in the North to Mount Chiri in the South. It will conduct an ecological study with its North Korean counterpart for the creation of an inter-Korean ecological axis that will cover the entire peninsula to prevent environmental pollution (Hwang, 2000).

In South Korea’s rush toward modernisation, it has sacrificed some of the natural beauty for which the Korean Peninsula was known as the “land of embroidered rivers and
mountains.” Nevertheless, many plant and animals thought to be extinct on the Korean peninsula, have been found in the DMZ (Neufeld, 1998). This factor is significant because already more than 18 percent of Korea’s vertebrate species are endangered or extinct, including 60 percent of amphibians, 45 percent of reptiles, 13 percent of birds, and 35 percent of mammals, due to Korea’s continuing urbanisation. At 1,230 people per square mile, South Korea is one of the most densely populated countries in the world (Neufeld, 1998). In South Korea the capitalistic zeal of economic development along with the rapid expansion of population and urban sprawl continues to exploit the environment causing a rapid loss of biodiversity throughout the Korean peninsula.

The peninsula’s population of about 70 million could reach 100 million by 2005, and the human impact upon the natural environment is set to continue. However, what peace and prosperity have failed to protect, a state of war has. The DMZ is home to 51 species of mammals, including officially protected creatures such as Korean water deer and lynx. Although turning the DMZ into a nature park would seem a natural outcome, the plan must compete with other proposals for the strategic strip of land.

Many South Korean companies want to build in or around the DMZ to take advantage of cheap North Korean labor, lax environmental standards and better access to the market of 22 million on the other side of the border. One company was reported to have proposed a small amusement park. Any decision on the DMZ will require approval by the North Korean government, which controls half of the area (Langfitt, 2000).

The DMZ could be an “eventual core of a larger network of protected areas across Korea, all connected by natural corridors or greenways” (Brown, 1996, p. 2). This would offer an economic boost for both the North and South Korean economies because it would provide opportunities for “increasingly popular ecotourism and research of organisms which may have medial and commercial uses” (Drohan, 1996, p. 1). Therefore, the DMZ bioreserve can be seen as a way to enhance cooperation between the two Koreas, in addition to its importance for conservation. “The environment is a benign, seemingly
apolitical issue on which the Koreans could possibly agree.” Environmental issues may be the least provocative way of breaking the ice” (Drohan, 1996, p. 1).

South Korean development is targeting the exploitation of North Korea. North Korea is now facing problems of poverty, flooding and environmental degradation under the shadow of huge military expenditure. Therefore, it is urgent that pan-Korean energies be directed to preserving natural ecosystems and protecting biodiversity in the Korean peninsula (dmzforum, 2001).

Preliminary wildlife surveys have shown that the area bordering the DMZ supports Amur Leopards, Asiatic black bears, red-crowned cranes and possibly the last remaining population of Siberian tigers on the Korean peninsula. Many of the species found in the DMZ have been eliminated from the rest of Korea either through habitat loss or overhunting.

The DMZ Forum, an international nonprofit organisation that promotes and supports the preservation of Korea’s DMZ ecosystems for conservation and peace, plans to begin detailed mapping and analysis of the region’s ecosystems, while galvanising global support for its preservation. Eventually they will take their proposal to international funding agencies, including the World Bank and The United Nations. This provides opportunities for environmentalists from both Koreas and all over the world to promote and propagate the concept of DMZ preservation and to help establish a Korea Peace Bio-reserves System that would offer a natural laboratory for research and teaching.

The border between the two Koreas is the most heavily armed in the world. It keeps several countries on military alert and costs money that could be invested in environmental protection and economic growth. A DMZ Peace Park, by contrast, could be a basis for eco-tourism and scientific study, economically benefiting both Koreas while reducing the tremendous military cost. Thus, supporters call on governments, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and people of the world to help the two Koreas develop a DMZ Peace Park (dmzforum, 2001).
Chapter Four  DMZ Development as a Border Tourism Destination

The Summit Meeting in Pyongang made the first step toward peace and co-existence and also opened the door for meeting the pan-Korean environmental challenges that would provide a foundation for sustainable development in North Korea and for building environmental security on the Korean peninsula. A healthy environment and rich natural heritage are of paramount importance for the continued economic development and the future of Korean people. Environmental security and nature conservation are pan-Korean issues that command common interests and attention from both Koreas. Especially, nature conservation and environmental remediation are particularly important for South and North Korea, because the issues of food production, flood control, reforestation, and energy production are directly linked to them. In this context, the preservation of the Demilitarized Zone (DMZ) corridor is fundamental for successful pan-Korean nature conservation proclaimed by the Kim Young-Sam government in 1997 and which the North Korean conservation community recognised in 1999 (Kim, 2000).

Consequently, the DMZ tourism development is not simply to protect and manage the environment. Equally important, and what makes DMZ tourist destination unique, is the other primary role-to promote peace and harmony between two Koreas. Tourism, together with resource conservation, has the potential to build understanding between cultures and peoples (Var and Ap, 1998, p. 44).
4.6 SUMMARY

This overview has highlighted a few of the many areas for regional cooperation between South and North Korea under peaceful conditions in the subregion of the DMZ. The potential for development of tourism in DMZ areas is great. In addition, the increasing openness of North Korea is important window of opportunity. Through this common purpose – restoring environmental health to the Peninsula and transforming the bitter experience represented by the DMZ into a shared place of pride and value to the entire world – the two Koreas can rebuild common traditions and consider a common future.

Nevertheless, admission into the DMZ area is still very restricted because of security reasons. Since tourism is vulnerable to political instability, peace and regional cooperation are essential for bilateral tourism development. The open borders and the free flow of tourist and vehicle movements could be important elements in breaking down administrative barriers and improving mutual relations. The regional disparities in demand and supply require complementary working relations such as the development of an adequate transportation infrastructure, easier border crossing procedures, joint operation and marketing of package tours, joint use of services and manpower supply. Perhaps the major obstacle to developing the tourism market is the necessity for political change. The new wave of openness must be taken further if tourism is to be encouraged rather than tolerated. Tourists require freedom of access, movement, and behaviour in order to flourish. Attitudes vary from severe restrictions (North Korea) through limited access to certain areas and escorted tourism only, to almost complete freedom of movement (South Korea). The quality of tourist facilities is often low in integrated economies and it also very variable. An inadequate infrastructure is often the root cause and the cost of its provision may be unacceptably high in both economic and political terms. Furthermore, poor marketing, inadequate information, and non-promotion of tourism integrated development are further constraints.

Significantly, at a time when North Korea and South Korea have begun to erase 50 years of conflict following a successful summit meeting in 2000, conservation groups are
offering another recipe for peace. Through this meeting, both Koreas wanted to protect
the demilitarized zone between North Korea and South Korea. Especially, South Korea is
seeking a fundamental change in the nature of political relationships with North Korea. In
exchange for any further withdrawals, South Korea wants tangible evidence—in the form
of indirect trade, communication or tourism—that a genuinely new era has begun in which
South Korea’s right to exist in peace in the area is acknowledged.

In this chapter, the process of environmental protection and biodiversity conservation
through a peace park in the DMZ has also been discussed. The development of the DMZ
has long been viewed as an aid to unification besides mere tourism. According to Goodall
(1990) and Gartner (1993), the development of competitive advantage among tourism
destinations is usually accomplished by creating and transmitting a favourable image to
potential tourists in target markets. The potential of economic development though
ecotourism and scientific cooperation is very high. Governments need to remember that
money does not always come from development, but can come from conservation. When
there is permanent peace on the Korean Peninsula many tourists from all over the world
could come to see the unique attractions of the DMZ. Korea might have a highly
profitable industry along the 4-km wide zone without producing pollutants and
destroying the ecosystem by leaving the zone as it is (Koreaherald, 2000a, b).

Consequently, the economic and political relations will certainly contribute to narrowing
the geographical and ideological differences, and the increasing level of tourism
development and cooperation between South and North Korea will accelerate the
establishment of peace and prosperity in the Korean peninsula. There are several projects
promoted in the border region including the Mt. Geumgang tourism project, mentioned in
Chapter Three. Other projects such as the Imjin River project, Gyeongui and Donghae
railroad and road connection project and Gaesung industrial complex development work
are presently being considered.

The DMZ area is a symbolic space, which is part of the border region between two
Koreas. This area should represent peace, harmony and prosperity as well as inter-Korea
cooperation and peace. In other words, the DMZ tourism development is required to activate cooperation, and confidence-building between South and North Korea, to lay down the foundation for reunification, and promote the Northeast Asian economic cooperation. The next chapter discusses the field survey proposed to collect data for the empirical part of the research.
PART THREE

METHODOLOGY
Border Tourism and the DMZ Development in South Korea as a Peace Promoter

INTRODUCTION CH1

Secondary Research

Peace and Tourism in Divided Nations CH2

Tourism Development and Policy in South and North Korea

Historic View CH3

South Korea North Korea South Korea's Policy towards North Korea

Case Study: The DMZ Development CH4

Primary Research

Methodology CH5

Analysis of Findings CH6, CH7 and CH8

Conclusions, Implications and Recommendation CH9
CHAPTER V

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

A research design is the process of narrowing or focusing, the perspective for the purposes of a particular study. It involves a set of decisions regarding what topic is to be studied among what population, with what research method and for what purpose (Babbie, 1995). The purpose of any given research is to provide broader knowledge or a view of the researched theme. This chapter introduces the general framework formulated for this research. It is noted that the methodology is based on both primary (original research) and secondary (pre-existing) sources. Furthermore, this chapter establishes the rationale of the research framework and research design. The absence of current studies in this area of interest has led to the research questions and objectives. The selected research design is justified and the research methods described. In this study theory, methodology and data collection are applied comprehensively, with considerable emphasis on a quantitative approach. A crucial point was to consider all the limitations and select the most appropriate combination of approaches and techniques in achieving the goals of the study.
5.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

As mentioned in Chapter One, the research undertakes an in-depth investigation of potential Tourism Development in the DMZ in order to illustrate past and present conditions, as well as to identify the chances of tourism in future peaceful reunification of the two Koreas. The study attempts to identify the full range of issues, views and attitudes towards tourism development in order to provide an understanding of the causes of the current state and to hypothesise possible future changes. It looks in particular at attempts to reveal the impacts of the peace process on potential DMZ tourism development – a region that belongs to two former belligerent countries, North and South Korea. The research focuses on the following objectives:

1. A review of the ongoing peace process between South-North Korea and the related tension from a tourism perspective.

2. An analysis of the key components and prospects for co-operation in tourism between South and North Korea, and an examination of potential development of tourism in the DMZ area as a peace promoter.

3. The exploration of the influence of peace through tourism in the DMZ area of South and North Korea. Essentially, how will both domestic and international tourism change, when peace, good relations, open borders and reunification come, based on a survey of visitors to the DMZ area?
5.3 RESEARCH PROCESS

A Research design is the overall plan for a piece of research, which situates the researcher in the empirical world, and connects the research questions to data (Punch, 1998). Similar views are also applied by other authors such as Aaker et al (2001), Easterby-Smith et al (1991), Oppenheim (1992). By following the blueprint the research problem should be answered and the aim of the study could be achieved. The findings are likely to be generalized through appropriate research design. Attention is paid to justifying the suitable types of research design, methods of data collection, research instruments and types of surveys for this study.

This research adopted exploratory and descriptive approaches for dealing with an original research idea. As Veal (1997) contends, descriptive research is most common among the research designs descriptive, explanatory or evaluative used in the field of tourism. Figure 5.1 depicts a model of the general research design and forms a framework of the research process.
Chapter Five  Research Design and Methodology

Figure 5.1 A Model of Research Design

Source: Author

Secondary Research

Develop Objectives

Literature Review

Primary Research

Design Qualitative Research
- Personal unstructured interview

Create Interview Protocol

Conduct Interviews

Opinion Collecting Interviews

Suggestion for the Main Questionnaire

Piloting

Direct Process

Indirect Process

Design Quantitative Research
- Personal interview
Questionnaire for Tourists

Initial Draft of Questionnaire

Final Draft of Questionnaire

Conduct Questionnaires

Data Processing (Objective)

Analysis of Finding

Conclusions and Recommendation
5.4 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

The research for this study is based on both primary and secondary data methods. Primary data is collected to meet specific information needs. Secondary data, however, is initially acquired for general use other than the information requirements of the project at hand (Alreck and Settle, 1995). There are different ways of collection firsthand data, e.g., surveys and experiments. In social science, the survey is the most widely used data gathering technique. As Oppenheim (1992) suggests, experiments usually conducted in a controlled laboratory involve the systematic manipulation of variables. However, experiments are less likely to be conducted in real social settings.

The most suitable research method for the study of this subject is found to be primary data collection supported by relevant qualitative and quantitative methods. It is considered advantageous to apply these after the secondary data has been collated and the literature review done so that they could be used to confirm findings and to present practical and theoretical evidence on tourism in certain destinations and also to focus on areas not fully investigated in the literature while providing fresh examples and data.

5.4.1 The Secondary Data Collection

An extensive initial review of the literature provided background information and insight. The literature on the perceived relationship between tourism and peace, the nature of tourism in North and South Korea and the extent of cooperation in DMZ areas formed the basis upon which to establish hypotheses. In order to examine the scope of
tourism development and cooperation in DMZ areas, the information gathered includes data on the existing and future supply of accommodation, tourist attractions and facilities, existing and planned tourism and transportation infrastructure, master plans, land uses, various plans of tourism development and suggested projects for cooperation. On the demand side, data was collected on the volume and magnitude of tourism activity (tourist movements), its characteristics and future trends. The secondary data also includes official statistical reports, tourism surveys and previous research papers. At the international level, sources include World Tourism Organisations Statistics and the Economist Intelligence Units' International Tourist Reports. At the national level, the major sources are the national statistical yearbooks, tourism bulletin and tourism surveys. These include the Korea National Tourism Organisation (KNTO) statistical Yearbook and reports of the Ministry of Tourism, and Strategic and Peace institutions such as Unification of Korea in South Korea. Moreover, a variety of survey reports and previous research papers and Internet data are also included and are listed in the bibliography. The historical analysis of the DMZ is largely based on published documents.

5.4.2 The Primary Data Collection

A survey is a structured set of questions or statements given to a group of people in order to measure their attitudes, beliefs, values or tendencies to act. There are various techniques for collecting survey data and these techniques or survey methods increase as communication technology progresses (Fowler, 1993). In order to choose the most appropriate method, it is essential for a researcher to know the mechanics of each
method clearly and also how it performs compared to the other methods. This refers to
the collection of new information. It is, as stated by Brunt (1997, p.18) "the case where
the researcher requires specific information which does not exist elsewhere or in another
form". Each of these methods has its strengths and weaknesses and is shown in Table
5.1. For this dissertation, primary data collections were used in the form of expert
interviews and questionnaire surveys for the research objectives. A small-scale
interview with tourism experts was conducted in the early stage and before starting the
main survey of this study. Direct contact with the interviewees made it possible for the
researcher to gather opinions from them, however, the higher cost of contacting and
visiting every sample was only acceptable on account of the small sample size. The
main survey choice was a field survey applied to the DMZ areas in South Korea. The
advantage was high response rates and this was explained in Table 5.1.
Table 5.1 A Comprehensive Set of Advantages and Disadvantages of Survey Methods of the Research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Survey Methods</th>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Personal Interviewing  | • There are sample designs that can be implemented best by personal interviews (e.g., area probability samples)  
• Personal interview procedures are probably the most effective way of enlisting cooperation.  
• Advantages of interview questions - probing for adequate answers, accurately following complex instructions or sequence - are realized.  
• Multimethod data collection, including observation, visual cues, and self-administered sections, are feasible.  
• Rapport and confidence building are possible (including any written reassurances that may be needed for reporting very sensitive material).  
• Probably longer interviews can be done in person. | • It is likely to be more costly than alternatives.  
• A trained staff of interviewers that is geographically near the sample is needed.  
• The total data collection period is likely to be longer than for most procedures.  
• Some samples (those in high-rise buildings or high-crime areas, elites, employees, students) may be more accessible by some other mode. |
| Telephone Interviewing | • Lower costs than personal interviews.  
• Random-digit-dialing (RDD) sampling of general population.  
• Better access to certain populations, especially as compared to personal interviews.  
• Shorter data collection periods.  
• The advantages of interviewer administration (in contrast to mail surveys).  
• Interviewer staffing and management easier than personal interviews – smaller staff needed, not necessary to be near sample, | • Sample limitations, especially as a result of omitting those without telephone.  
• Nonresponse associated with RDD sampling is higher than with interviews.  
• Questionnaire or measurement constraints, including limits on response alternatives, use of visual aids, and interviewer |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methodology</th>
<th>Benefits</th>
<th>Drawbacks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Drop-off Questionnaire | • The interviewer can explain the study, answer questions and designate a household respondent.  
• Response rates tend to be like those of personal interview studies.  
• There is more opportunity to give thoughtful answers and consult records or other family members than in personal or telephone interview surveys. | • Costs about as much as personal interviews.  
• A field staff is required (albeit perhaps a less thoroughly trained one than would be needed for personal interviews). |
| Self-administration | • Ease of presenting questions requiring visual aids (in contrast to telephone interviews).  
• Asking questions with long or complex response categories is facilitated.  
• Asking batteries of similar questions is possible. The respondent does not have to share answers with an interviewer. | • Especially careful questionnaire design is needed.  
• Open questions usually are not useful.  
• Good reading and writing skills are needed by respondents.  
• The interviewer is not present to exercise quality control with respect to answering all questions, meeting question objectives or the quality of answers provided. |
| Fax Surveys | • Relatively low cost.  
• Provide access to widely disperse samples, and samples that for other reasons are difficult to reach by telephone or in person.  
• Can be accomplished with minimal staff and facilities.  
• Respondents have time to give thoughtful answer, look up records, or consult with observations. | • Higher fixed costs for computer/fax equipment, multiple phones line.  
• Cost varies by time on line, time of day, distance, and telephone carrier.  
• Currently limited to organisational populations. |
5.4.3 Time Management for the Research

Time planning is a practical issue in research since it could affect the research design and consideration. It is very important for a degree study because a great number of research tasks need to be achieved while a limited period can be used to complete a dissertation or thesis (Phillips and Pugh, 1994). The research process, illustrated in Figure 1.2 of Chapter One, provides a framework for the main research tasks. Thus, the research schedule in Table 5.2 follows basically the process, with detailed procedures described at each stage. Although obstacles were encountered in different steps, and modification of the plan was made from time to time to meet the actual circumstances, the schedule provided a temporal guide for the research. Consideration was made to distribute the survey questionnaires between domestic and international tourists. In fact, special attention should be paid to selecting the timing for field surveys due to seasonality. The DMZ areas are climate dependent. Therefore, the main questionnaire survey was conducted during the spring before it became too hot in the summer.

### Table 5.2 Research Schedule

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Approach</th>
<th>Schedule</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Developing Research Interest and Preparing Proposal</strong></td>
<td><strong>April, 2000</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Literature Review</strong></td>
<td><strong>May, 2000 – May, 2001</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Entire basis of the research</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Source of ideas on topics for research</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Information on research already done by others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Visit Korea (1)</strong></td>
<td><strong>27th December, 2000 – 26th January, 2001</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Collecting Official Information &amp; Data in Korea</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ The Korea National Tourism Organisations (KNTO)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ The Korea Tourism Research Institute (KTRI)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ National Assembly Library of Korea</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ National Library of Korea</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓ Seoul National University</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Seeking Experts’ Advice (1)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Preparing Instrument for Experts’ Opinions of DMZ Tourism Development</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Pilot Interview with Experts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Pilot Study with Tourism Experts: Tourism Professors, Public and Private Sectors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Analysing experts’ response for developing the tourist questionnaire</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Secondary Data Collection &amp; Analysis</strong></td>
<td><strong>December, 2000 – July, 2001</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Collecting Official Information &amp; Data in Korea</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Seeking Experts’ Interview (2)</strong></td>
<td><strong>February, 2002 – April, 2002</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Preparing Instrument for Experts’ opinions of DMZ tourism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Analysing Experts’ Response for Main Tourist Questionnaire</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Research Approach Schedule

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Approach</th>
<th>Schedule</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Upgrade Viva Preparation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Revise Literature Review and Methodology</td>
<td>March, 2002 – April, 2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrument Refining</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Revising tourist questionnaire for Main Survey</td>
<td>April, 2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Designing and Formatting the Instrument for Scanning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visit Korea (2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Main Questionnaire Survey</td>
<td>3rd May, 2002 – 4th July, 2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upgrade Viva</td>
<td>4th September, 2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Processing and Analysis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Coding and Data Input</td>
<td>September, 2002 – December, 2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Statistical Analysis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Interpreting Output</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thesis Writing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Revising Literature Review</td>
<td>January, 2003 – December, 2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Methodology</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Findings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Discussion and Conclusion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modifying the Whole Draft &amp; Proof Reading for Submission</td>
<td>January, 2005 – November, 2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thesis Viva</td>
<td>December, 2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thesis Correction and Completion</td>
<td>December, 2005</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.5 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The research requires the employment of a research instrument which will:
Examine the attitudes of tourism professionals toward regional cooperation and the extent to which they perceive that peace promotes tourism in this region.

(1) Determine how the tourist industry in the study area is influenced by peace.
(2) Investigate whether the peace process will encourage bilateral cooperation in the region.
(3) Investigate whether the peace process between South and North Korea will stimulate tourism development in the DMZ area.

The underlying assumption that guides this research is that the peace process provides the necessary environment to encourage the development of tourism supply and demand. It further assumes that the peace process in the two Koreas can create an opportunity for joint initiatives and regional cooperation.

5.5.1 Expert Interview Questions

In order to fine-tune the survey questions and to practice questionnaire techniques, this study was first conducted on tourism experts in Korea.

As mentioned earlier, since each of the basic methods of data collection has different strengths and weaknesses, it is sometimes desirable to combine them and retain the best features of each while minimising the limitations (Aaker et al, 2001). The researcher
has chosen the combinations below for the personal interviews with tourism experts.

1. First Meeting
   Telephone Appointment → Personal Interview → Leave behind a self-administered
   Questionnaire to be mailed or
delivered by “interviewer”

2. Second Meeting
   Telephone Request → Fax Survey → Follow-up → Personal Interview
   for Permission to
   Telephone
   Fax Questionnaire (Optional)

One-on-one interviewing allows the participants to determine in tandem with the researcher what topics and information are essential to exploring the subject at hand (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). It is also suggested by Veal (1997) that the personal interview can be used to explore a topic as a preliminary stage in planning a more structured questionnaire survey and that the information likely to be obtained by each subject would be expected to vary considerably. The qualitative research framework for this study was designed to focus on the depth of the analysis rather than breadth. Time was spent on a few well-selected face-to-face interviews in order to more completely interpret the responses of those being studied, reducing the barriers between respondent and researcher (Seitz, 1995).

According to Aaker & Day (1990), using this method can help in defining problems more fully. Thus, due to the nature of the subject, personal interviews were chosen. Furthermore, the unstable telecommunication systems in the country – phone lines, postal services – made this method the most efficient way of obtaining information. It is
easier to gather the information and to adjust the questions for gathering the specific information on peace and tourism, and the political stability of the DMZ areas for future Korean reunification attributes which the main questionnaire requires.

5.5.1.1 Expert Interviews

The first set of interviews was carried out with two tourism professors from universities, one KNTO official and one ecological researcher in Seoul in 2000. The Second and Third sets of interviews with a further 19 respondents were conducted in February of 2002 and October of 2003 with only selected questions focused on the specific themes of this research. The interviewees (23 experts) are classified into three groups as follows:

i) Professors in Tourism Departments at Universities

ii) People who work for government organizations such as KNTO (The Korea National Tourism Organisation) and Ministry of Tourism Minister of Environment KINU (Korea Institute for National Unification) Politicians

iii) Representation of KATA (The Korean Association of Travel Agency) The Unification Culture Association Hyundai-Asan Company The Ecology Association at the Seoul National University North Koreans living in South Korea
The names of individuals are listed in the Appendix B. The main purpose of these interviews was to gain opinions on the questionnaire and to record specific responses, particularly in relation to the aims and objectives of the research. It was also to find out any differences of views and evaluations of Korean tourism between those who were experts in theoretical terms (the government organizations, politicians and the university groups) and those who were experts in the South Korean tourism industry in practical terms (people involved in travel agencies and North Koreans who are living in South Korea now). These experts were very important for the DMZ area tourism development because they know the main issues and problems of it and their responses would develop the main questionnaire of the research.

The interview questions were designed to gather information about current general trends of South and North Korean tourism and factors that might have an effect on South and North Korean tourism cooperation for future reunification. The interviews were based on a number of general topics as described in the literature review including general attitudes and level of knowledge concerning the DMZ and its vicinity. Apart from the general topics of discussion, questions on basic demographic information, including age and the educational level of the interviewees, were also asked. These were normally asked at the end of the interview.

Generally speaking, experts’ opinions have crucial importance for this research because they are in a position to provide information. These experts provided the researcher with very important advice for her research and on the main questionnaire which they completed. The completed questionnaires were examined to ascertain whether the
Chapter Five  Research Design and Methodology

respondents had any difficulty completing the whole questionnaire and overall they did not. Statements used in the questionnaire were generated from a review of the literature and several meetings with the public and the private sectors. The meetings with representatives in the tourism sectors (regional and tourism planning managers, attraction operators, travel agents and other tourism related characters) gave an initial indication of the tourism trends in the area and an introduction to the tourism policy and strategy for in the region. Interviews were not analysed statistically, although they produced useful qualitative information.

5.5.1.2 Questionnaire Design for Tourism Experts

Interview questions were divided into four sections as below (Appendix):

Section A (Interview Questions 1-4) interviews the general attitudes towards the peace process in South and North Korea. These questions measure the level of support or rejection of the peace process in general. Understanding these attitudes is a basic condition for it will determine the decision makers' propensity for future cooperation.

Section B (Interview Questions 5-11) interviews attitudes about the relationship between tourism and peace. These questions attempt to measure whether respondents consider a state of peace enhances the level of tourism in terms of future investments, cooperation opportunities, economic trade links etc. and whether tourism activity is a vital force for peace.

Section C (Interview Questions 12-13) interviews to discover the general perceptions
and attitudes towards the development and potential of cross-border regional tourism in the DMZ areas. This part is the most significant part of the tourist questionnaire and produces quantitative as well as qualitative information. These interview questions measure attitudes to the potential of tourism development in the DMZ areas in terms of the magnitude of international and domestic tourists, the average length of stay and the expected expenditure as perceived by the public and private sector.

Interview Question 14 – Political Stability or Instability in the DMZ areas.

This question elicits views about political stability. How this region is perceived by tourists is a crucial element impacting on the tourism industry. If this area is seen as an unstable tourist destination then a set of new marketing decisions should be implemented.

Interview Question 15 – Expected Tourism Segments as a Result of Peace.

In this question respondents were asked to rank the tourism segments according to the likely rates of growth expected. This information is important for local and regional planners for it will assist in matching future supply to the demand of each distinctive group.

Interview Question 16 – The Bilateral Interests in Regional Cooperation.

This interview question tries to explore each country’s priority in regional cooperation.
Among the needs of applying regional cooperation are: economies of scale, employment, regional stability, cultural exchange, environmental protection, the need to diversify the tourism product and achieving competitive advantages.

Interview Questions (17 – 19) - Attitudes towards Regional Cooperation in DMZ areas.

These interview questions attempt to reveal the attitude of the public and private sector in South Korea towards the various joint areas of cooperation such as: building further accommodation and transportation links, shared attractions, facilities and services, joint marketing, and development and environmental management.

Interview Question 20 – Barriers to Regional Cooperation.

This interview question investigates the notion of the perceived barriers to the mutual cooperation.

Interview Question 21 – The Impact of Peace and Cooperation on Tourism in DMZ areas.

This question considers the likely impact of the various aspects of cooperation on the level of tourism to the region.

Interview Question 22 – Local Community’s Attitude towards the Development of Cross Border Regional Tourism.
Recognising the community’s attitude towards any type of tourism development is crucial. This question attempts to explore their attitude.

Interview Question 23 – Perceptions of Tourism Development in the Area due to Implementing Peace and Regional Cooperation.

In this question the tourism professionals are asked to envisage the expected growth of specific tourism sectors (travel agencies, transport, hotels, restaurants, etc.) and overall cities’ welfare in a state of peace and regional development.

Section D relates to the profile of the respondents. This section of the questionnaire collects demographic data such as gender, age, occupation, and place of residence.

With the assistance of this pilot study the initial set of questions resulting from the literature review was reduced to 24. One purpose of these extensive interviews was to minimize the ‘inferential gap’ of questionnaire items and secondly, and most importantly to ensure that the key concepts of peace and tourism were thoroughly measured by the selected questionnaire items. The second set of interviews identified those questions that were initially omitted and were eventually included in the final version of the questionnaire. Data analysis for experts that have been interviewed and their main responsibilities will be reported in next chapter.
5.5.2 The Questionnaire Surveys

A questionnaire was the research instrument developed for the collection of primary data in the survey. The quantitative research is conducted with the aim of collecting data to be used as additional statistical evidence on the main issues identified through the qualitative research. According to Brunt (1997, p.35) “Questionnaire surveys are the most commonly used surveys in the tourism industry”. They can be used to gather information about people’s knowledge of a particular subject and their opinion about it. They are structured so that all respondents answer in the same way and this enables the analyser to compare results in a quantitative way. The method has considerable advantages such as flexibility, control of interview situation and higher response rate when compared to other survey techniques such as mail and telephone interviews (Zikmund, 1994; Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992).

5.5.2.1 Development of Questionnaire

The research questionnaire was structured so as to collect the required information precisely in a limited time. For the purpose of this research, it was determined that both domestic and international tourists should be considered. The questionnaire survey was used to investigate perceptions held by international tourists and domestic visitors in the DMZ area and its vicinity. This was based upon the assumption that destinations have different images to different tourists relative to their geographic proximity (Bull, 1995).

Two different questionnaires were constructed: one for domestic tourists and another one for international tourists. Both questionnaire was printed on one side of A4 paper
and consists of 4 pages in total. As mentioned above, it is important to note that surveys involving a large number of questions may suffer from a common research limitation: respondent fatigue (Yuksel & Yuksel, 2001). Questions should be simple and a short survey instrument used which allows respondents to determine attributes by themselves instead of being restricted to a pre-established set of attribute questions determined by the researcher (Kreck, 1998).

The questionnaire used to gather data for this research was developed after expert interviews had been conducted. The questionnaire used in the expert interview proved to be too long and difficult to be completed adequately in the field by non experts, so it was cut down to the most basic pertinent questions. The revised survey was examined by a number of professional researchers. Some changes and additions from the interviews were made to the questionnaire in order to obtain additional information that would facilitate subsequent statistical data analysis. The questionnaire finally administered consisted of closed-ended and open-ended questions using interval and nominal scales. Closed-ended questions were formulated for the main construct in the study to help the respondents make quick decisions by choosing from several alternatives (Sekaran, 2001). The written survey method was selected for this study considering that most of the questions are in the closed-ended format and it would be more appropriate for the respondents to fill in these questionnaires at their own convenience as the questionnaire was rather lengthy.

To investigate empirically the conceptual model developed below, a field interview questionnaire for domestic tourists and self-completion questionnaire for international
tourists was carried out. Self-completion questionnaires are believed to get the most reliable responses (Hurst, 1994), as respondents have an opportunity to review the completed questionnaire or revisit questions that are not answered initially. This research used a convenience sample, but by being conducted at the DMZ ensured that those who were surveyed had at least some knowledge of the DMZ areas. A field survey provides a cost-effective way to collect data and is suitable to investigate phenomena that can be observed directly by the researcher (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992). The survey of tourists visiting the DMZ area and its vicinity was conducted in May of 2002. Contact points reflect the geographical distribution and the variety of natural and cultural settings. This sampling was chosen to include tourists outside commercial overnight facilities, such as one-day tourists and tourists visiting family and friends. Tourists received a verbal introduction and a questionnaire to be filled out on site.

5.5.2.2 The Survey

Surveys were restricted to one month period in different parts of the DMZ during the peak season in the spring of 2002. By the target fieldwork completion period from 14th May 2002 to 20th June 2002, 350 completed questionnaires had been collected. However, 48 questionnaires were not useable because these questionnaires were incomplete.

The original questionnaire was first prepared in English but was also translated into Korean, Chinese and Japanese as shown in the Appendix. In order to ensure that there would be no errors, this whole process was done a second time, with completely different professional translators who were fluent in both the original and target
language. However, the researcher could not use the Chinese questionnaire because Chinese airlines crashed in Korea twice during the field survey and therefore, few Chinese tourists came to Korea. The researcher surveyed only tourists who could speak English and Japanese as international tourists.

The demographic questions are designed to elicit objective information from the respondents regarding their background such as age, sex, education, years of living in DMZ areas, occupation and income which is intended mainly to produce information by which respondents could be classified.

The survey instrument consisted of a questionnaire with 23 items. Apart from three open-ended questions (question 14 for domestic tourists and questions 16, 19 for international tourists – which used a ranking format), the other 20 items used a Likert scale to solicit an indication of agreement or disagreement with statements. A rating of 1 indicated that the respondent strongly disagreed with the statement, whereas a rating of 5 indicated strong agreement. A particularity of the scaling procedure that was employed in this study was the decision to offer verbal tags between the two extreme anchors of the scale to assist the respondents in avoiding any misinterpretation or confusion that may result from the scale (Seddighi & Theocharous, 2002). These statements were developed based on a review of literature.

The questionnaire for domestic tourists visiting the DMZ is divided into four sections, A, B, C, and D. Section A consists of factual questions about individuals’ experiences of visiting the DMZ in South Korea and planning to revisit and recommend the DMZ in
the future. Intention to return and to recommend the DMZ area were measured using a yes or no, by asking the respondents: ‘Would you return to ...?’ ‘Would you recommend it to other people?’ Responses can rate from Yes (1) to No(2).’ Section B is focused on people’s perceptions and opinions about the current and future situation between South and North Korea and general knowledge. Section C is the most significant part in the domestic and international tourist questionnaire and is designed to gather quantitative as well as qualitative information. Section C. includes open-ended questions that allowed the researcher to measure future intention of visiting the DMZ area qualitatively. Finally, questions relating to the sample’s socio-economic background are listed in Section D, which include gender, age, place living, education, occupation and income.

The questionnaire for international tourists visiting the DMZ is also divided into four sections. The first section is designed to obtain information about general opinions about the DMZ and consists of ten questions. The second section deals with perceptions about tourism development in the DMZ and also includes related political questions on the situation between South and North Korea with respect to tourism in Korea. The third section is focused on people’s opinions of future DMZ tourism development. Finally, questions relating to the sample’s socio-economic background are listed in the fourth section.

5.5.3 Sample

Here the details pertaining to sampling and data collection applied are described. Three subsections follow: target sample, sample size and sampling method in this study.
5.5.3.1 Target Sample

The population for a study is that group about whom we want to be able to draw conclusions (Babbie, 1995). The target audience for this study is domestic and international tourists who are visiting the DMZ area and its vicinity in South Korea. This research only encompasses the area of the DMZ on the South Korean side because the DMZ on the North Korean side is not accessible.

5.5.3.2 Sample Size

A sample is one of the major tools of tourism research related to the collection, analysis and interpretation of data. A sample is always viewed as an approximation of the whole population rather than as a whole in itself, and the sample size needs to be large enough to allow analysis of the results of the study. Many ways of estimating sample size are suggested in the literature. Tull and Hawkins (1993) point out six ways to determine sample size. They are 'unaided judgment', 'all you can afford', 'the average for samples for similar studies', 'required size per cell', 'use of a traditional statistical model', and 'use of a Bayesian statistical model' (pp. 566-568). In fact, an optimal size may not be decided based on any single guidance listed above. It is necessary to consider the resources and data required for each research project and make a sensible judgment. For a self-sponsored degree study targeting a nationwide sample, the researcher is not able to sample thousands of respondents. A more important principle of deciding sample size is therefore to comply with basic statistical requirements. The minimum sample size is anticipated to be at least 200 for this study for analyzing nominal, ordinal and interval data in the main questionnaire. Thus, the sample (n=350) was selected from all visitors (N=2,500,000) in the DMZ area of 2002.
5.5.3.3 Sampling Method

Based on the time constraints of this research the questionnaire was provided to as many respondents as possible. In order to track down people from different ages, beliefs, preferences and so on, it was decided to carry out questionnaire surveys in different regions (Imjin-Gak and Tongil Observatory) of the DMZ area; areas considered as the most highly visited tourist places. It was decided not to restrict to one region in order to avoid biases of views of tourists about certain aspects in certain areas. Data for domestic tourists were collected through the use of a self-completed survey instrument. Tourists were selected while taking their walks out in the areas for domestic tourists. The questionnaire survey was extended with the help of a travel agency in Seoul; Daehan Office, a Korean travel agency which organises day trips to the DMZ areas. It is one of the largest in Seoul and agreed to assist with the research survey by giving the questionnaire to international tourists. An incentive was offered to increase the response rate.

This research involved approaching selected domestic tourists at the DMZ area and its vicinity, during the visiting time, with questionnaires being collected before getting on the bus or car after visiting the DMZ area. The sampling period included only weekends and a gift was offered to domestic tourists who participated in the survey. On the international tourist side, the self-completion questionnaire followed the same format as the field interview questionnaire to facilitate comparability. The self-completion questionnaires were distributed to people who were in the tour bus after visiting the DMZ areas. The researcher asked if they would be interested in participating in a short survey about the research. Those that agreed were then asked to respond to the
questionnaire and questionnaires were collected in the tour bus before they left for home.

5.5.3.4 Response Rate

All questionnaires, whether completed or not, were collected. Those who were over 18 years old were asked to complete the survey and 302 of 350 (151 for international tourists and 151 for domestic tourists) were selected for analysis. The response rate of questionnaires (86.3%) is high because of face-to-face contact, the researcher can introduce and explain the research topic and motivate the respondent to give honest answers. The matched samples are used for comparison of the evaluations of all the DMZ area tourism development for Korean reunification by domestic and international tourists in terms of gender, age-groups, full-time education, occupation and household income. This is to ascertain whether there are significant differences between two groups’ evaluations.

5.6 CODING AND DEALING WITH DATA

5.6.1 Data Preparation

The questionnaires collected for both domestic and international tourists were all numbered and coded accordingly for data input into the SPSS (Version 12) for subsequent data analysis. In order to prevent mistakes occurring at this stage, all data entered was checked twice: once after immediate data entry and another time from a computer printout. After the data set had been entered the data was screened again to check for possible errors made when entering the data.
This process was carried out by checking each variable for scores that are out-of-range (that is, not within the range of possible scores) and any error detected was immediately corrected in the data file. The data handling such as data entry, recoding, producing graphics and running simple data analysis was undertaken by the researcher, not only because the majority of the questionnaires were completed in South Korea, but also to minimise the possibility of misunderstandings and false entries in the process. To retain the richness of data, open-ended questions were entered as string variables rather than categorised variables based on each data entry. Most of the coding was retained during the data conversion to SPSS format so the data file could be used immediately for analysis. The input data was crosschecked manually before the data analysis. Data entry took over one month, with an additional two weeks invested for data auditing. All results are displayed in the later sections of this chapter.

5.6.2 Preliminary Analyses

Preliminary analyses were conducted on the data sets of both domestic and international tourists. Basically, this step involved describing the characteristics of the sample groups and checking the variables that were going to be used for statistical analyses for any violation of the assumptions underlying the statistical techniques that were going to be used in relation to the research questions. All categories in both column and row variables constitute plotted points. The total number of points is equal to the sum of the number of the categories of column and row variables. Moreover, in this context, the descriptive statistics for both the data sets were obtained. The descriptive statistics include the mean, median, mode, standard deviation, range of scores, skewness and
kurtosis as well as frequency counts and percentages.

5.7 LIMITATIONS

A limitation of this or any survey-based research, Krippendorf (1987, p. 24) has stated, is that “many things remain hidden in the sub-consciousness and cannot be brought to light by simple questions”. Those sharing this view will therefore be skeptical of the reliability of information obtained from survey data purposed to measure tourists’ motives, attitudes and perceptions. Also, always a concern when considering the application or generalization of survey-based results is the question of whether the respondent group, in this case domestic and international tourists, are by nature, more or less critical in their evaluations, or in the reporting of those evaluations, than other populations.

The first limitation relates to the timing of the research implementation. The investigation was conducted during a specific period in the spring season. It could be argued that the study results might have been different had the survey been conducted in different seasons. That said, the data for this research was collected over a short period of time specifically to eliminate any bias that seasonality or a change of weather could have on respondents’ views of the DMZ area. However, for providing a total understanding of the DMZ area tourism development for future Korean reunification it may be somewhat limiting as tourists at other times of the year, for example school holidays when the tourist profile would be more family oriented, may hold different views.
The researcher acknowledged a weakness of the research in that the sample size was smaller than expected, however, the study was exploratory in nature. In fact, the researcher suffered from a lack of international tourists who were visiting the DMZ area by tour bus at that time even though it was the peak of the tourism season in Korea. The reason was that South Korea held the World Cup and many international tourists wanted to visit the venues of the World Cup. The resulting sample for international tourists was quite small and the statistical results of the survey may be less reliable than otherwise. Thus, this study should be replicated with more different nationalities, as the nature as well the relative importance of the DMZ area components may be nationality-specific. Whiting (1968) notes that considering more than one organization or customer group in empirical studies may make generalisation of the findings possible.

Though it has been noted that a destination’s image is relatively stable, over time the components of the overall destination image may fluctuate greatly (Gartner, 1986). It would be interesting to repeat this research, over time to measure any such change in attitudes and to determine, as more domestic tourists visit the DMZ, whether they continue to enjoy the destination sufficiently to make return visits or, once the novelty was gone, begin to tire of it or feel the threat of political instability.
5.8 SUMMARY

This chapter describes the methodological considerations in this research, and establishes the rationale of the research framework and research design. For the purposes of this research, the study approach was exploratory and primarily descriptive in nature. A case control design is used, which involves two groups: domestic and international tourists. Identification of key success factors and problems was a process of learning from domestic and international tourists, and at this stage the researcher employed both qualitative and quantitative techniques as an appropriate strategy for delving into the intricate research problems. The results and deficiencies of the expert interviews as well as the adjustments made for the main survey were reported. The outcomes may function as guidance and the recommendations to the main survey. In brief, expert interviews have fulfilled the goal of examining the research instrument and the procedural matters so that precautions could be taken to improve the main survey. This stage attempted to highlight the crucial issues that need to be investigated.

A written type form was used to enable respondents to complete the questionnaires at their convenience. The construction of the questionnaires and the changes as well as additions made to the questionnaire after expert interviews was also discussed. The data collection period stretched from May 2002 until June 2002. All questionnaires were distributed within the vicinity of the DMZ areas. The result of this empirical research was a sample of 151 responses from domestic tourists and 151 responses from international tourists. In this study, theory, methodological and data collection were applied comprehensively, with considerable emphasis on a quantitative approach. The
next chapter reports on the empirical findings obtained from the research process.
CHAPTER VI

DATA ANALYSIS FOR EXPERTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Data analysis is the process by which we manipulate the collected data, for the purpose of drawing conclusions that reflect on the interests, ideas and theories that initiated the inquiry (Babbie, 1995). The main purpose of this chapter is to determine the relationship between peace and tourism in the perceptions of experts concerning the impact of border tourism and the DMZ development in South Korea as a peace promoter. This Chapter aims to report the information that has been gathered from primary research, by taking into account the research questions outlined in chapter Five. It will first describe the people that have been interviewed and their main responsibilities, then it will report the findings with respect to the DMZ areas. A summary will be given of the interviews carried out; the questions asked, and the responses and a statistical explanation of the results.

6.2 RESULTS OF EXPERT INTERVIEWS

In this part of the study, the results from the interviews of three separate tourism industry related groups in Korea are analysed. The interviewees were classified into three groups, viz., those who were involved with the government (Korea National
Tourism Organisation and politicians), those who were working in the private sector such as tourism, hotel, unification institute, and North Koreans and those who were working in university as professors in tourism planning and development. The main purpose of these interviews were to find out any differences of views and evaluations of Korean tourism between those who were experts in theoretical terms (the government organization and the university groups) and those who were experts of the South Korean tourism industry in practical terms (Politicians, North Korean and people working in travel agencies). The interview questions were designed to gather information about current general trends of South Korean tourism and factors that might have an effect on South and North Korean tourism cooperation for future reunification.

As to the impact of tourism in South Korea, political impacts were the main issues of the discussion. The respondents were asked to explain the relationship between the political situation, particularly in North and South Korea, and tourism in the DMZ area. The respondents thought, that the government and its organisations still need to improve the country's image for future development. Nevertheless, as the world has shown an interest in North Korea lately, the political situation in Korea was not seen as an obstacle to attract international tourists in the future.

According to the interviewees, the future trends of South and North Korean tourism cooperation were very bright because of the country’s geographical advantages and greater optimism about unification with North Korea. Various suggestions and recommendations were made by the interviewees in order to improve the South and North Korean tourism cooperation. The government organisation respondents suggested
that improving the character of a nation that might be seen as too conservative to welcome international tourists. On the other hand, for successful development in the future, the university professors and private sectors suggested that South and North Korean tourism cooperation needs more investment, well organised planning and efficient marketing.

6.2.1 Perceptions of Interviewees towards the Peace Process in the two Koreas

The general attitude of all respondents was to strongly support the peace process between South and North Korea. This result indicates the high level of support for the peace process in general. No rejection of the peace process was expressed. Overall optimism for the peace process as demonstrated here serves as a base from which to judge the following issues. One of politicians commented that the North Korean rulers are trying their best, unlike they were in the past. However, while the political situation has changed much in North Korea, the food crisis in North Korea is still going on. North Korea had experienced a severe food crisis from 1995 to 1997. In these circumstances 500,000 people died from hunger in 1995 and more than two million people died by starvation in 1997. Kim Jong-II of North Korean leader, who took all power in his hands at that time, did not try to save the people who died by starvation. Instead he ran through a huge amount of funds to rebuild and decorate the memorial palace to preserve the dead body of Kim Il-Sung permanently. These funds were enough to solve the food crisis in North Korea. This is the essence of absolutism of leader and the truth of North Korea, which regards preserving the death body of the leader in the memorial palace as more important than saving the lives of several millions of people. It
can be said that tourism cooperation is the only realistic option in the current inter-Korean situation. During the inter-Korean Summit, President Kim Dae-Jung and Chairman Kim Jong-Il agreed that war should never recur on the Korean peninsula and that it was urgent for them to ease tension and stabilize peace. In other words, during the inter-Korean summit, the two Koreas did not seek immediate unification, but extended reciprocal recognition of each other’s systems and agreed on a gradual and step-by-step approach to unification based on peaceful cooperation.

The peace process would enable North Korea to seek openness and change through tourism cooperation. It would contribute to the peaceful use of the DMZ and reduce tensions between the two sides, while symbolizing joint efforts by South and North Korea to promote the well-being of people on both sides of the border. Interviewees said they knew that the essence of the North Korean ruler’s mind was not changed at all, but the changed thing is their tactics, not the strategy against the South Korea. North Korea is seeking to expand diplomatic relations with the West, including the United States and Japan. Interviewees commented that North Korea recently denounced the Bush Administration over some hard-line statements the US made against the North, but has nevertheless expressed a commitment to improving relations with the United States. Interviewees also said that it is possible that North Korea is temporarily slowing the pace of opening up due to certain domestic imperatives, but it would be difficult to reverse the course and return to the past. The prospects are that North Korea would continue to pursue realistic policies and move toward openness and reforms. Just like China and Vietnam before, North Korea would inevitably have to introduce a market economy. As long as hostile relations between the North and the United States and the
North and Japan persist, there would be limits to the extent that North Korea would be able to open up and reform and to progress in inter-Korean relations. They said that the South Korean government would maintain close cooperation with the United States and Japan on such issues as military confidence-building and tension reduction measures between the two Koreas. Moreover, they commented that for the purpose of building a coherent peace structure on the Korean Peninsula, South Korea would pursue the signing of a peace treaty through the Four-Party Meeting involving the two Koreas, the United States and China. The ultimate goal is to remove the Cold-War structure from the Korean Peninsula and replace it with a peace structure through the support and cooperation of the United States, China, Russia and Japan, as well as the United Nations and the international community.

6.2.2 The Perceived Relationship between Tourism and Peace

The next question was aimed at understanding the principal characteristics that make the DMZ areas attractive to tourists. Interviewees expressed the relationship between tourism and peace as below:

‘Tourism can be a vital force for world peace.’ ‘Peace encourages tourism links between past hostile nations.’ ‘Investment in tourism is influenced by the peace process.’ ‘Comprehensive peace and solution of the South and North Korea conflict is a prerequisite for tourism to prosper in the region.’ These kinds of statements affect not only domestic tourists but also international tourists. In addition, Buckly and Klemm (1993) indicated “Most of the evidence on tourists motivations points to fear and
insecurity as a major barrier to travel and thus a limitation on the growth of the industry” (Hall, 1994a, p.92). Offering a unique, attractive and magnificent vacation for tourists is only one side of the coin. In the absence of solid information concerning the fears of the tourists, the likelihood of attracting large number of tourists is very slim. Hall (1994a, p. 92) claimed, “Political stability is one of the essential prerequisites for attracting international tourists to a destination”. Therefore, the implications of current political relations between on the two Koreas are the main determinants of tourist preferences.

The peace process would enable North Korea to seek openness and change through tourism cooperation. It would contribute to the peaceful use of the DMZ and reduce tensions between the two sides, while symbolizing joint efforts by South and North Korea to promote the well-being of people on both sides of the border. Given the potential negative impact that a rushed unification would bring, unification ought to be attained through a gradual, step-by-step process. It is desirable for the two Koreas to maintain peaceful cooperation between the two different systems in the form of a South-North confederation. Politicians among the interviewees believed that a gradual but continuing increase in inter-Korean exchange based on peaceful cooperation would eventually bring about de facto unification. It was envisaged that the two Koreas would expand the common ground for unification through tourism cooperation as well as dialogue in the political, military, economic and social sectors.
6.2.3 Perceptions of the DMZ area Tourism Development as a Peace Promoter

Most of the interviewees answered the question – “how would you estimate the potential for cross border regional tourism in the DMZ areas?” as high or extremely high. This suggests a great potential for cross border regional tourism in the DMZ area. Interviewees were asked to envisage the volume of international and domestic tourism, the average length of stay and expenditure per tourist in the DMZ area as a result of open borders and free movement of tourists. At present in the DMZ area the tourism development is in its infancy stage, but existing tourism patterns in the DMZ area could benefit North Korea with tangible economic gains (i.e. more tourists, trade, skilled workforce, etc.). Fishelson (1989) indicated that peace is expected to increase multinational tourism. However, an increase in multinational tourism is expected to have two contradictory effects: 1) more tourists 2) a shorter length of stay in each country. Fortunately it is expected that the former would outweigh from interviewees.

There is little doubt that DMZ tourism development and the Mt. Geumgang project in particular would be one development that could play a pivotal role in breaking the ice of confrontation and tension on the Korean peninsula and made Koreans feel more confident about the advent of an era of cooperation. Many experts predicted the DMZ tourism development would draw investment from South Korean and foreign countries. Interviewees said that the law allows Korean and foreign companies, individuals and economic organizations to start tourism, lodging and entertainment businesses in the DMZ area. Interviewees added that this could be seen as the start of the North’s move to change its economic system. The politicians also expressed the view that an
international tourist zone of North Korea would attract investors who have previously been wary about the safety of their investment in the communist country. However, experts said successful tourism development of the DMZ would largely depend on how issues surrounding the North Korea's nuclear weapons programme are resolved.

6.2.4 Attitudes towards Political Instability in the DMZ area

For the purposes of this research, political instability was included as a characteristic of the tourist product of the DMZ area. In trying to assess whether a fear of instability in the DMZ area might affect future development, respondents were asked to respond as to whether this region is perceived as a dangerous destination in terms of political instability. Over half of the interviewees rejected this claim but 40% agreed with this statement. This latter figure could be explained by the fact that the macro region has suffered considerable political upheaval in recent decades, and any significant increase in such disruption would seriously depress tourist activity.

If the political climate is not stable at a destination, one cannot expect tourists to feel that their personal safety is assured. In the interviews, most interviewees indicated that the "political situation" was important when choosing a destination. The researcher think that the results can be regarded as slightly overcautious, however. By taking the age groups of the respondents into consideration, it is much easier to evaluate and understand the importance of the political situation for tourists. These interviewees are generally senior experts and desire to avoid experiencing any political difficulties at the destination. According to Hall (1994a, p. 93) "Political stability is important not only
for the development of the infrastructure that is required for tourism but also because of
the central role that images play in tourism marketing and promotion”. In addition,
“Political instability will deter tourists and therefore hinder tourism development”. Tourists may think that if the DMZ area is known as a one of the most heavily armed
areas in the world, this means that there is something wrong in the area politically and
this would adversely affect tourism in the two Koreas as well as the immediate area.

6.2.5 Tourism Demand in the DMZ areas

In order to reveal the tourism segment that will be most likely attracted to this region
under a successful peace scenario, respondents were asked to rank the expected tourist
types according to their likely rates of growth.

When asked about what kind of tourism the DMZ area is likely to attract, if the peace
process is successful and reunification occurs, the responses were varied. The most
popular responses was eco-tourism (71.5%). The next most popular responses were
peace park tourism (59.0%), battlefield tourism (59.0%) and theme park tourism
(43.7%) respectively. The type of tourism that got the lowest response was leisure
tourism, with only 31.1%.
6.2.6 Aspects of Tourism Cooperation in the DMZ area between South and North Korea

6.2.6.1 Bilateral Factors of Regional Cooperation

The drive for tourism cooperation in each country is an important element in the tourism development strategy in the DMZ area. South Korea’s interest in regional cooperation according to respondents is ranked as follows: (from the highest to lowest).

1. Regional Stability
2. Diversified Tourism Product
3. Achieving Competitive Advantage
4. Employment Creation
5. Economies of Scale
6. Environmental Protection
7. Cultural Exchange

However, respondents made different priorities which ranked as follows:

1. Employment Creation
2. Diversified Tourism Product
3. Regional Stability
4. Economies of Scale
5. Achieving Competitive Advantage
6. Environmental Protection
7. Cultural Exchange
In comparing the perceived bilateral interests in tourism cooperation in the DMZ area, it was interesting to note that while in South Korea regional stability was seen as the leading factor in the DMZ cooperation, employment creation was thought to be the most important factor which North Korea wishes to achieve from regional cooperation with South Korea. For countries with few economically exploitable resources (such as the case of North Korea) tourism can be an important source of direct and indirect employment and as a means of diversifying economies.

It is further justified by the high unemployment rates in the DMZ area, a feature that often characterises peripheral regions. Diversification of the tourism product, which is ranked as the second most important requirement for both countries, matches well with the South Korean Ministry of Tourism’s intention to increase regional attractions in the DMZ and the need to establish new ones.

Environmental protection and cultural exchange were both ranked lower, however comparison of the mean in these two issues suggests that a concern for these two aspects is higher in South Korea than in North Korea.

6.2.6.2 Attitude towards South-North Korean Tourism Cooperation in the Future

DMZ Development

In trying to reveal the degree of readiness of professionals to cooperate in the DMZ area, respondents were asked whether they view the DMZ area as a singly entity in the future. Only 10% of the respondents disagreed with this statement while 73.3% were in favour of this statement. The attitude of tourism professors, public sector and private sector
officials, and North Korean towards DMZ area cooperation was in general support of the concept. Attitudes towards easing border procedures, which is one of the key elements that inhibits effective flows of intraregional tourism, were in favour of this. In the issue of building further accommodation, over half of the respondents’ attitudes were positive compared to some experts who rejected the building of further accommodation. A positive attitude towards the following issues was also noted: shared attractions and facilities, joint transportation projects, joint marketing, joint infrastructure projects and cooperation in the Free Trade Zone. Generally, the overall attitude towards the joint aspects and collaborative projects was positive.

6.2.6.3 Barriers to Regional Cooperation in the DMZ areas

Political instability was found to be the major obstacle for cooperation. The second most important barrier existed between the two countries in terms of economy and culture. Other obstacles identified include prejudice and suspicion, fear of dependency, low propensity to cooperate and a lack of resources to facilitate the joint development in the DMZ areas. Lack of tourism investment and facilities in North Korea followed the economic situation and those deficiencies were also the end result of the economic differences between the two countries. A KNTO officer claimed that if the North Korean government could solve North Korea's problems then North Korea’s tourism can easily be developed and North Korea’s tourism products can then easily compete with those of other Asian countries. Furthermore, the importance of transportation for tourism was stressed when he also said that “transportation problem is the most important deficiency for the North Korean tourism and it affects very badly a country’s tourism”. Therefore, South and North Korean joint transportation projects are very important for the direct
connection between the two countries and the rest of the world.

In addition, some professors said North Korea’s problem are unclear and South Korean government and entrepreneurs such as Hyundai Group want to invest money in the least risky places and projects. They said the volume of tourists from North Korea is not large enough and transportation problems have not been solved yet. Therefore, the South Korean government and the private sector could be faced with a deadlock because of North Korean problems. It is very difficult to open internationally hotels or associations in North Korea because international laws do not allow such initiatives. One cannot get franchising of well-known companies and industries for two reasons. The first one is world entrepreneurs are afraid of selling their name to a politically unrecognized and unstable country. Secondly, many countries do not encourage an allow such international companies to make contracts with the North Korean government.

6.2.6.4 Tourism Development in the DMZ area under Successful Peace Process

A joint operation of the tourism industry as far as building further accommodation, attractions, collaboration in infrastructure and transportation projects, marketing and overall planning, would improve the development and continuation of tourism to the DMZ area. Moreover, the likely growth of the tourism industry in the DMZ, as a result of the peace process, is that it would benefit in terms of investments with improved, standard of living, new travel agencies, new hotels, new restaurants, and overall employment opportunities would be generated. For both countries a moderate growth is projected.
Apart from slight differences, no major variance was observed among the three sectors (professors, public and private sector) with regard to the perceived attitudes to peace, the perceived relationship between tourism and peace and the perceptions towards regional cooperation and tourism development in the DMZ area. Professors supported more the notion of the DMZ area as a single entity compared to other sectors. Regional cooperation on various projects produced a higher level of support in the public sector than the other sectors. As well, the public sector tends to see more improvements in tourism in the DMZ than the other sectors. Most interviewees of the South Korean public and private sectors of tourism suggested that they would be able to solve most of the problems between two Koreas, especially, North Korea’s tourism in the future.
6.3 SUMMARY

This chapter has summarized the views of people that have been interviewed and their main responsibilities, and has reported the findings about border tourism and the potential of the DMZ area development in South Korea as a peace promoter.

The DMZ area’s strategic and geopolitical importance cannot be ignored. All the experts in South Korea agreed that political factors affect directly and definitely the DMZ area’s tourism. North Korea has not promoted their tourism products nor their historical and natural beauties. The investment and employment activities of North Korea are also influenced by political factors. The reason for the lack of job opportunities is the lack of the investment, and the reason for lack of investment is political factors. The interviewees have suggested that the North Korean government has not made enough effort to change the current situation with regard to tourism. The North Korean government should follow the model established by Eastern Europe Countries in which a private tourism sector is established and these companies work for their governments. If the North Korean government could manage this model, a tourism industry would be able to be established and to cooperate with South Korea easily.
Border Tourism and the DMZ Development in South Korea as a Peace Promoter

INTRODUCTION CH1

Secondary Research

Peace and Tourism in Divided Nations CH2

Tourism Development and Policy in South and North Korea

Historic View CH3

South Korea North Korea South Korea's Policy towards North Korea

Primary Research

Case Study: The DMZ Development CH4

Methodology CH5

Analysis of Findings CH6, CH7 and CH8

Conclusions, Implications and Recommendation CH9
CHAPTER VII

DATA ANALYSIS FOR DOMESTIC TOURISTS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Data analysis is the process by which we manipulate the collected data, for the purpose of drawing conclusions that reflect on the interests, ideas and theories that initiated the inquiry (Babbie, 1995). The data was processed with the statistical package SPSS 12.0 and it was used to analyse the data of the tourist questionnaire surveys. Books by Ryan (1995), Green et al (2000), Cramer (1998) and Bryman and Cramer (1999) were referred to for operating software commands properly to get the required statistics as well as for assisting the interpretation of the output. This Chapter aims to report the information that has been gathered from the primary research, by taking into account of the research questions outlined in chapter Five. A summary will be given of the questions asked, and the responses and a statistical explanation of the results of domestic tourists.

7.2 GENERAL PROFILE OF DOMESTIC TOURISTS

7.2.1 Profile of the Respondents in Domestic Tourist

With regard to the general profile of domestic tourists, a number of important
demographic characteristics emerged from the analysis as shown in the following Table 7.1. A total of 160 questionnaires were collected, with 151 valid ones available for data analysis. Among the 9 people who collected unanswered or uncompleted questionnaires, some have noted the reasons why they did not answer the questionnaire. All 151 respondents, as mentioned before in the methodology, are adult domestic tourists.

Table 7.1 shows the results of the descriptive statistics. In Table 7.1, in the case of the DMZ sample, the number of male respondents was 80 (53.0%), which was slightly more than female respondents (47.0%). The dominant age categories of the sample were those between 35 and 54 years of age, but the sample was fairly distributed in the other categories. In contrast, the young age group (less than 24) provided a very low reply to the research topic. The sample contained a larger number of housewives than expected. The occupation category with the highest representation among domestic tourists is housewives. This is because they want to show their children historical Korean places and, it can be said that the DMZ areas are often regarded as educational places for the younger generation. Businessmen and government officials each accounted for 13.2% of the domestic tourists. Domestic tourists also included high ranging government employees and this has resulted from the fact that the South Korean government encourages its government staff to visit the DMZ areas.

Furthermore, there was a noticeable group of older respondents, with 12.6% of the sample being of retirement age. Many retirees were undertaking day trips as part of an organised coach tour of the DMZ area. The place of residence of respondents also provides an indication of the type of day trip traveller to the region. As expected, a large
majority of respondents (37.7% for the total region) resided at the point of origin of the day trip. In other words, the regional distribution of the DMZ area sample was predominantly from the Seoul Capital areas, including Gyeonggi province (37.7%), Seoul metropolitan city (44.4%), and Incheon city (4.0%). One possible reason could be that people are living close to the DMZ areas. Fewer replies were obtained from the Southern places of South Korea, 0.7%, 1.3% and 3.3%, due to the distance from the DMZ area.

The annual household income of domestic tourists was examined, which indicates that the average income level for most Korean households is between 20,000,000 won and 29,999,999 won per year. However, 31% of the respondents are earning more than the average per year, which indicates the possibility of having dual income or running their own business. Nevertheless, large differences exist in the income level between the people in South Korea; the top 5% of wealthy people have almost 50% of total assets. Moreover, an analysis of the sample’s age of finishing full-time education is shown below (Table 7.1). The percentage of the respondents with higher degrees was 35.1%, 42.4% respectively however, under high school degree and above higher degree level sample each accounts for 15.9% and 6.6%. Therefore, it can also be noted that tourists with greater educational backgrounds tend to cooperate better with research works. The profile indicates that the majority of respondents are middle aged, well educated and hold managerial positions. Male and female respondents were balanced in number.
Table 7.1 Demographic Characteristics of Domestic Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid (%) (n = 151)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>53.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>47.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age Category</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 or less</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>27.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 or over</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Occupation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Officer</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housewife</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>30.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales or service</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>25.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Living Place</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seoul</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>44.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gyeonggi Province</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>37.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chungchoung Province</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keoungsang Province</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheonra Province</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incheon City</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pusan City</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taegu City</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Income Variable</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 10,000,000</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000,000-19,999,999</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>23.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20,000,000-29,999,999</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>31.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30,000,000-39,999,999</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40,000 or over</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under High School</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School Graduate</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>42.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Graduate</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>35.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over University</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Indicated figures are in Korean Currency (Won), 10,000,000 Won are approximately £5,300
7.2.2 Main Purpose of the Visit for Domestic Tourists

The dominant proportions of the respondents were visiting the DMZ area primarily for the pleasure/holiday purposes. For the analysis, a number of factors that relate to the result need to be considered. Firstly, from the Table 7.2 and Figure 7.2, we can see that the pleasure/holidays purpose tourists were much higher than other variables, this can be explained in relation to the impact of seasonality on Korean tourism. The research was carried out in high season, between April & June and September & October, but most tourists tend not to visit the DMZ area between July and August and November and March due to the hot and chilly weather. It can be observed that typical holidays in Korea are mostly during spring and autumn (Figure 7.1).

Figure 7.1 Tourists Arrivals by Month (1999-2001)   Source: KNTO, 2003
Table 7.2 Main Purpose of Visiting the DMZ areas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pleasure/Holiday</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>80.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting Friends or Relatives</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hometown</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7.2 Main Purpose of Visiting the DMZ areas

7.2.3 Frequencies of Previous Visits to the DMZ area

This section gives the answers to the first six questions of the survey. To discover the frequencies of visits to the DMZ, domestic respondents were asked to write down how many times they had previously visited the DMZ area. The visiting patterns of the
Chapter seven Data Analysis for Domestic Tourists

Subjects of the sample refer to whether or not this was their first visit to the DMZ area. The results are presented below in Table 7.3 and Figure 7.3, and the table is self-explanatory. The majority of the subjects, 58.3%, were visiting the DMZ areas for the first time. Among those who had visited the DMZ area previously (n = 63), an average of 2.4 previous visits per person per place was observed. Visiting friends or relatives (VFR) living in the DMZ areas could also be a likely reason to be considered. This repeat visitation is a measure representing a predicted future intention. Domestic tourists were asked whether they intended to visit the DMZ area in the near future. In brief, repeat visiting could be an important pattern in domestic tourists in the DMZ areas. The results of this question will be explained.

The respondents' frequencies previous visits to the DMZ area were tested against their demographic profiles by different bivariate analyses. The selection of t-test, one-way ANOVA, and Kruskal-Wallis test is based on the criteria reviewed. The results suggested that there were no significant relationships between the frequencies of past visiting and six of the respondents' profile variables. The male sample visited the DMZ area slightly more frequently than female sample. Respondents aged 45-54 paid more visits than other age groups. Additionally, respondents who finished university had visited the DMZ area more frequently. Higher than average numbers of visits were also found from the sample with a personal yearly income 20,000,000-29,999,000 Won (about £10,000-14,999). Nevertheless, it does not suggest that the most frequent domestic tourists were necessarily from a sample group with all the combination of the above characteristics.
Table 7.3 Number of Visits to the DMZ area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Visits</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4 or more</th>
<th>Table Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Row%</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Row%</td>
<td>Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>56.3</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>60.6</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7.3 Frequency of Visiting the DMZ area

7.2.4 Type of Information Sources and Visiting Patterns

The researcher was interested in revealing how, and by whom, the prospective tourists to the DMZ areas receive information about the region. In Question No. 4 the respondents were asked to give the source of their information on the DMZ areas. The results showed that domestic tourists tended to seek more social sources (i.e. motivation from members of the immediate family, relatives, and friends) and media (Figure 7.4). The majority of 45.0% of the respondents pointed to friends and relatives as their source
of information. Other motivation sources employed by the sample varied, yet the use of the Internet as a way of seeking travel motivation account for only two respondents (1.3%) who stated the Internet as a way of seeking travel information (Table 7.4). This contemporary trend may not substitute for the traditional means yet due to the availability of and access, to computer facilities and the web browsing services, but it is worth further study in the near future.

Table 7.4 Source of Information for Visiting the DMZ areas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information Sources</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From Travel Agents</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Friends or Relatives</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>45.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Media (radio/newspaper/magazine)</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>37.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A person of government merit</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For promotion</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From the Internet</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For Historical education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>151</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From Table 7.5, the majority of domestic tourists (77.5%) were visiting on an individual basis.

Table 7.5 Visiting Patterns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Individual</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>77.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Group Tour</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Organising Tour</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.2.5 Perceptions of Tourism and Peace

In Chapter Three, it was noted that tourism can prosper only in a peaceful environment, and any serious violation would jeopardise not only peace but tourism flows and economic welfare. The relationship between tourism and peace as investigated in Question 12 produced a mean score of 2.24. The results quite strongly agree the statements in general, which suggest that a state of peace and tourism. Peace according to the survey is seen as a means of enhancing future investments, as a means of increasing opportunities for cooperation and overall economic trade links. In trying to assess whether a fear of instability in the region might affect future development, respondents were also asked to respond to the question whether this region of the DMZ area is perceived as a dangerous destination in terms of political instability. 33.2% of the respondents disagreed with this statement, and 37.1% were neutral. However, 29.8% agreed with this statement (Table 7.6). This could be explained by the fact that when the
macro region has suffered considerable political instability in recent decades, any significant increase in such disruption would seriously depress tourist activity. Thus, it can be concluded that there was a high level of agreement and certainty concerning the role of tourism and world peace when it came to the Korean peace process and how it affected the two Koreas.

7.2.5.1 Summary of the Tests

To explore the relationship between peace and tourism, and the sample’s profiles further, bivariate analyses between every pair of the variables were carried out, and are discussed in this subsection. On each of the 5 items, the distinctions among participants in different socio-economic profiles were compared. F ratios in the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were calculated and the results given below as the indication for distinguishing the group mean differences. However, if the variances of the groups are unequal in the population, a non-parametric test should be used instead of the parametric F test (Bryman and Cramer, 1999). Kruskal Wallis tests were therefore conducted for unrelated samples with two or more groups, since some F ratios (Figures in parentheses in the following tables) were computed regardless of the basic assumption of equal variances. T tests were occasionally used as an auxiliary method if the profile variable had only two groups (e.g., gender). The positive or negative t values imply which group has higher means than the other group. The results below are firstly presented in a summarized table. Then they are discussed respectively in the order of the sample’s socio-economic background shown on the main questionnaire.
Table 7.6 Domestic tourists’ Perceptions about Peace and Tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tourism can be a vital force for world peace</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1=Strongly Agreed</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>30.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreed</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>47.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagreed</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5=Strongly disagreed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean: 1.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation: 0.824</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Peace encourages tourism links between past hostile nations</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agreed</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreed</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>49.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagreed</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagreed</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean: 2.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation: 0.804</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Investment in tourism is influenced by the peace process</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agreed</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreed</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>49.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>23.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagreed</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagreed</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean: 2.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation: 0.777</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Comprehensive peace and solution of the South and North Korea conflict is a prerequisite for tourism to prosper in the region</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agreed</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>34.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreed</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>38.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>21.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagreed</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagreed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean: 1.99</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation: 0.902</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The DMZ area region is a dangerous tourist destination</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agreed</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreed</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>37.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagreed</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagreed</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean: 3.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation: 1.211</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 7.7 demonstrates the significance of bivariate analyses between the samples’ profiles and the tourists’ perceptions of the peace and tourism relationships. Ticks show statistical significance (p < 0.05). In the six socio-economic variables (i.e., sample’s gender, age, place of resident, educational level, income, occupation)

Table 7.7 Summary of Statistical Tests between Tourists’ Perceptions and Respondents’ Profiles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Peace and Tourism Relationship</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Tourism can be a vital force for world peace.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Peace encourages tourism links between past hostile nations.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Investment in tourism is influenced by the peace process.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Comprehensive peace and solution of the South and North Korea conflict is a prerequisite for tourism to prosper in the region.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The DMZ area region is a dangerous tourists destination.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

√: Statistically significant
A: Gender  
B: Age  
C: Place of resident  
D: Education  
E: Income  
F: Occupation

7.2.5.2 Differences between Respondents’ Profile on the Peace and Tourism Relationship

Examinations were made to see whether men and women have difference perceptions of the relationship between peace and tourism. The only significant difference shown in
Table 7.8 was in the item, ‘Investment in tourism is influenced by the peace process’. Table 7.9 presents the results of the ANOVA tests between respondents’ age and their perceptions of relationship between peace and tourism. Older groups were more in agreement about the relationship peace and tourism than the younger groups. Attempts were made at re-coding the age data into fewer groups and conducting subsequent tests so that other crucial statements were likely to emerge. However, The older groups were still more in agreement about the relationship between peace and tourism than younger groups when the group means of this item were compared.

Table 7.10 demonstrates the outcomes of the tests between the peace and tourism relationship and respondents’ living places. No significant difference in the importance measure existed among the eight official regions in South Korea: Seoul, Gyeonggi Province, Chungchung Province, Keoungsang Province, Cheonra Province, Incheon city, Pusan city, Taegu city. This suggests that the informants from various regions did not value the relationship between peace and tourism differently. Table 7.11 presents the F and Kruskal Wallis tests of dependent occupation of the sample, and the five statements. There is a statically significant difference with regard to the statement “Peace encourages tourism links between past hostile nations.” In Table 7.12, five statements were held differently among the sample with different educational levels. A significant difference (p < 0.01) was shown in the ‘Peace encourages tourism links between past hostile nations.’ The higher educational level the sample had, disagreement there was with regard to the statements. As demonstrated in Table 7.13, respondents’ income failed to produce any significant result in distinguishing the statements.
### Table 7.8 Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship and Respondents’ Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Peace and Tourism Relationship</th>
<th>F (n = 151)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Tourism can be a vital force for world peace.</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>0.816</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Peace encourages tourism links between past hostile nations.</td>
<td>0.227</td>
<td>0.634</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Investment in tourism is influenced by the peace process.</td>
<td>7.498*</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Comprehensive peace and solution of the South and North Korea conflict is a prerequisite for tourism to prosper in the region.</td>
<td>0.797</td>
<td>0.373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The DMZ area region is a dangerous tourists destination.</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>0.777</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 7.9 Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship and Respondents’ Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Peace and Tourism Relationship</th>
<th>F (n = 151, 6 groups)</th>
<th>F (n = 151, 5 groups)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Tourism can be a vital force for world peace.</td>
<td>1.310</td>
<td>1.516</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Peace encourages tourism links between past hostile nations.</td>
<td>1.126</td>
<td>0.406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Investment in tourism is influenced by the peace process.</td>
<td>0.806</td>
<td>0.908</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Comprehensive peace and solution of the South and North Korea conflict is a prerequisite for tourism to prosper in the region.</td>
<td>0.698</td>
<td>0.259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The DMZ area region is a dangerous tourists destination.</td>
<td>1.733</td>
<td>2.161</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 7.10 Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship and Respondents’ Place of Resident

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Peace and Tourism Relationship</th>
<th>F (n= 151, 8 groups)</th>
<th>df = 7</th>
<th>F (n = 151, 2 groups)</th>
<th>df = 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Tourism can be a vital force for world peace.</td>
<td>0.831</td>
<td>0.639</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>1.660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Peace encourages tourism links between past hostile nations.</td>
<td>1.385</td>
<td>1.605</td>
<td>0.945</td>
<td>0.170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Investment in tourism is influenced by the peace process.</td>
<td>1.447</td>
<td>1.347</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>3.068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Comprehensive peace and solution of the South and North Korea conflict is a prerequisite for tourism to prosper in the region.</td>
<td>1.166</td>
<td>1.037</td>
<td>0.401</td>
<td>1.375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The DMZ area region is a dangerous tourists destination.</td>
<td>1.222</td>
<td>0.690</td>
<td>0.142</td>
<td>1.446</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.11 Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship and Respondents’ Occupation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Peace and Tourism Relationship</th>
<th>F (n= 151, 14 groups)</th>
<th>df = 13</th>
<th>F (n = 151, 6 groups)</th>
<th>df = 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Tourism can be a vital force for world peace.</td>
<td>1.071</td>
<td>0.841</td>
<td>0.574</td>
<td>0.451</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Peace encourages tourism links between past hostile nations.</td>
<td>1.739*</td>
<td>1.632*</td>
<td>1.628*</td>
<td>2.768*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Investment in tourism is influenced by the peace process.</td>
<td>1.363</td>
<td>1.323</td>
<td>0.670</td>
<td>1.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Comprehensive peace and solution of the South and North Korea conflict is a prerequisite for tourism to prosper in the region.</td>
<td>1.025</td>
<td>1.471</td>
<td>2.281</td>
<td>0.883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The DMZ area region is a dangerous tourists destination.</td>
<td>1.126</td>
<td>1.490</td>
<td>0.669</td>
<td>1.996</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 7.12 Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship and Respondents' Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Peace and Tourism Relationship</th>
<th>F (n= 151, 4 groups)</th>
<th>df = 3</th>
<th>F (n= 151, 3 groups)</th>
<th>df = 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Tourism can be a vital force for world peace.</td>
<td>0.984</td>
<td>2.392</td>
<td>0.316</td>
<td>1.733</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Peace encourages tourism links between past hostile nations.</td>
<td>1.900*</td>
<td>3.971*</td>
<td>1.454*</td>
<td>1.154*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Investment in tourism is influenced by the peace process.</td>
<td>1.429</td>
<td>2.859</td>
<td>1.749</td>
<td>1.803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Comprehensive peace and solution of the South and North Korea conflict is a prerequisite for tourism to prosper in the region.</td>
<td>0.598</td>
<td>2.472</td>
<td>0.453</td>
<td>1.145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The DMZ area region is a dangerous tourists destination.</td>
<td>1.640</td>
<td>2.106</td>
<td>1.481</td>
<td>2.374</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 7.13 Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship and Respondents' Income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Peace and Tourism Relationship</th>
<th>F (n = 151)</th>
<th>df = 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Tourism can be a vital force for world peace.</td>
<td>1.646</td>
<td>0.469</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Peace encourages tourism links between past hostile nations.</td>
<td>0.386</td>
<td>1.594</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Investment in tourism is influenced by the peace process.</td>
<td>0.636</td>
<td>0.317</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Comprehensive peace and solution of the South and North Korea conflict is a prerequisite for tourism to prosper in the region.</td>
<td>0.370</td>
<td>0.553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The DMZ area region is a dangerous tourists destination.</td>
<td>1.611</td>
<td>0.581</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.2.6 Respondents Attitude to the Current Relationship between South and North Korea

Many of the respondents was 19.9%, strongly believed that the present relationship between South and North Korea would positive, with 41.1% agreeing. Nevertheless, 31.1% said they did not know, and 7.3%, 0.7% did not agree and strongly disagreed that the present relationship between South and North Korea was positive (Table 7.14).

Table 7.14 Present Relationship between South and North Korea*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Positive</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>41.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>31.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Negative</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>151</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Question: What is your overall perception about the current situation between South and North Korea?
7.2.7 Future Relationship between South and North Korea

Many of the respondents, 23.2% strongly agreed that future cooperation between South and North Korea would improve the relationship, with 45.7% agreed. However, 25.8% said they did not know, and 4.6% and 0.7% did not agree and strongly disagreed that cooperation would be of any benefit in the future of two Koreas (Table 7.15).

Table 7.15 Future Relationship between South and North Korea*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Positive</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>23.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>45.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Negative</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>151</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Question: What is your overall perception about the future between South and North Korea?
7.2.8 Tourism Demand in the DMZ areas

7.2.8.1 Evaluation of the Importance of the DMZ areas Tourism Cooperation

The expectation of the respondents what form of tourism implementation would they like to see in the DMZ areas in the future. In order to reveal the likely tourism segment that would be attracted to this region under a successful peace scenario, respondents were asked to rank the expected tourism types according to the likely rates of growth. When asked about what kind of tourism the DMZ area would be likely to attract if the DMZ was open, the responses were varied. Statistics presented in Table 7.16 and 7.17 for the five possible types of tourism development were based on a five-point Likert-type scale. The value ‘5’ indicates ‘very high’, and ‘1’ means ‘very low’. One hundred and fifty-one people answered this question. The most popular response was eco-tourism (71.5%). The next most popular response was peace park tourism (59.0%), and then battlefield tourism (59.0%) and theme park tourism (43.7%) respectively. The
researcher also noticed that the type of tourism that was least popular was leisure tourism with only 31.1% (Table 7.16 and Figure 7.8). The means and standard deviations based on the five-point scale are presented below. It can be noticed in Table 7.16 that ‘Ecotourism’ was the attribute with the maximum mean of 4.52. As can be seen in Table 7.16 and Figure 7.8, respondents believe that ecotourism will be flourished in the DMZ in the future. Conversely, the mean of the important of ‘Leisure Tourism (number of people you will travel with)’ was the lowest, 3.61.

Table 7.16 Forms of the DMZ Tourism Development in the Future

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ranking</th>
<th>Item Number</th>
<th>DMZ Tourism Development Consideration</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
<th>Mean *</th>
<th>S. D.*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Battlefield Tourism</td>
<td>58.9</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>0.970</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Leisure Tourism</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>1.296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ecotourism</td>
<td>71.5</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>0.863</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Peace park Tourism</td>
<td>58.9</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>0.885</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Theme Park Tourism</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>1.247</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*: 5 means ‘very high’, 1 means ‘very low’.

Figure 7.8 Forms of the DMZ Tourism Cooperation and Development in the Future
7.2.8.2 Relationship between the Tourism cooperation and Respondents’ Socio-economic Variables

The previous subsection (7.2.8.1) examined the possible link between each socio-economic variable of the sample and the relationship between peace and tourism items. To explore DMZ tourism cooperation in the future, this subsection examines the connections between six socio-economic variables and the importance of tourism development in one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) (Table 7.18). Battlefield, Leisure, Peace park, Ecotourism and Theme park of the DMZ tourism development in the future were connected with demographic variables - age, gender, living of place, occupation and education, income. The statistical skills employed to conduct bivariate tests were one-way analysis of variable (ANOVA), Kruskal Wallis H tests, and t test. The following results are firstly presented in a summarized table. Then they are discussed respectively in the order of the sample’s socio-economic background as shown on the survey questionnaire.

Table 7.17 One-Sample T-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battlefield</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>0.970</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>1.296</td>
<td>0.105</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecotourism</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>0.863</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace park</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>0.885</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme park</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>1.247</td>
<td>0.101</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* t-test significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
Table 7.18 Relationships between the DMZ area Tourism Development in the Future and Respondents' Socio-economic Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The DMZ area Tourism Development in the Future</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battlefield Tourism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure Tourism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecotourism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace park Tourism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme park Tourism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*: F ratio is statistically significant at the 0.05 level
A: Gender
B: Age
C: Place of Resident
D: Occupation
E: Education
F: Income

Table 7.19 Tests of the DMZ Tourism Development Demand and Respondents’ Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DMZ Tourism Development Demand</th>
<th>F (n=151)</th>
<th>df=1</th>
<th>t (n=151)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battlefield Tourism</td>
<td>0.953</td>
<td>0.620</td>
<td>-0.496</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure Tourism</td>
<td>0.155</td>
<td>0.433</td>
<td>0.786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecotourism</td>
<td>0.376</td>
<td>0.591</td>
<td>-0.538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace Park Tourism</td>
<td>0.984</td>
<td>0.151</td>
<td>1.442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Park Tourism</td>
<td>0.890</td>
<td>0.794</td>
<td>0.262</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 7.20 Test of the DMZ Tourism Development Demand and Respondents’ Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DMZ Tourism Development Demand</th>
<th>F (n=151)</th>
<th>Kruskal Wallish Test (df=4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battlefield Tourism</td>
<td>1.637</td>
<td>0.867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure Tourism</td>
<td>1.670</td>
<td>13.139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecotourism</td>
<td>1.507</td>
<td>1.771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace Park Tourism</td>
<td>4.248*</td>
<td>7.772*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Park Tourism</td>
<td>3.560*</td>
<td>20.098*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 7.21 Test of the DMZ Tourism Development Demand and Respondents’ Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DMZ Tourism Development Demand</th>
<th>F (n=151)</th>
<th>Kruskal Wallis Test (df=2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battlefield Tourism</td>
<td>7.286*</td>
<td>6.827*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure Tourism</td>
<td>0.980</td>
<td>4.326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecotourism</td>
<td>9.278</td>
<td>3.952</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace Park Tourism</td>
<td>0.851</td>
<td>1.076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Park Tourism</td>
<td>1.859</td>
<td>7.284</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 7.22 Test of the DMZ Tourism Development Demand and Respondents’ Place of Resident

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DMZ Tourism Development Demand</th>
<th>F (n=151)</th>
<th>df=1</th>
<th>t (n=151)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battlefield Tourism</td>
<td>0.102</td>
<td>0.471</td>
<td>-0.723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure Tourism</td>
<td>0.597</td>
<td>0.575</td>
<td>0.561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecotourism</td>
<td>0.097</td>
<td>0.734</td>
<td>-0.340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace Park Tourism</td>
<td>0.015</td>
<td>0.528</td>
<td>-0.632</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Park Tourism</td>
<td>2.667</td>
<td>0.874</td>
<td>-0.159</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 7.23 Test of the DMZ Tourism Development Demand and Respondents’ Income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DMZ Tourism Development Demand</th>
<th>F (n=151)</th>
<th>Kruskal Wallis Test (df =4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battlefield Tourism</td>
<td>1.586</td>
<td>2.756</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure Tourism</td>
<td>0.587</td>
<td>1.496</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecotourism</td>
<td>1.170</td>
<td>3.290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace Park Tourism</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>0.765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Park Tourism</td>
<td>0.867</td>
<td>1.597</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.24 Test of the DMZ Tourism Development Demand and Respondents’ Occupation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DMZ Tourism Development Demand</th>
<th>F (n=151)</th>
<th>Kruskal Wallis Test (df =5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battlefield Tourism</td>
<td>2.804*</td>
<td>3.463*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure Tourism</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>1.460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecotourism</td>
<td>1.303*</td>
<td>4.182*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace Park Tourism</td>
<td>1.275</td>
<td>2.224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Park Tourism</td>
<td>0.685</td>
<td>0.887</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.2.9 Intentions of Visiting the DMZ area in the future

The image of the destination in terms of such factors as political stability and peace, positively affected an intention to revisit in the future. The purpose of this analysis is to test the relationships between the different pairs of variables as a whole, in order to determine the direction and significance of these relationships. The 134 respondents who intend to visit the DMZ areas in the future were asked which destinations they would consider visiting. This was to explore destinations in individuals’ consideration sets. Together their answers could be regarded as a combination of an awareness set, or
perceived opportunity set in Goodall’s term (1991), for destinations. Seven hypotheses of this research, therefore, would be:

H1: Tourists who have visited the DMZ area previously, intend to revisit the DMZ area in the near future.

H2: Tourists who visited the DMZ area previously will recommend it to friends or relatives.

H3: Tourists who intend to revisit the DMZ area in the near future will recommend it to friends or relatives.

H4: Tourists who visited the DMZ area previously will intend to revisit it after the DMZ is opened up or reunification.

H5: Tourists who visited the DMZ area previously will visit North Korea after the DMZ is opened up or reunification.

H6: Tourists who intend to revisit the DMZ area in the near future will revisit it after the DMZ opened up or reunification.

H7: Tourists who intend to revisit the DMZ area in the near future will visit North Korea after the DMZ opened up or reunification.

This model is reflected in Figure 7.9.
Among the 63 informants who had visited the DMZ areas previously, 58 of them considered visiting it again in the future. In brief, repeat visiting could be an important
pattern for domestic tourists. As mentioned before, in answering the questions about their intention to visit the DMZ area in the future and to recommend them to friends or relatives, respondents showed positive attitudes. Over half (88.7%, \( n = 151 \)) were willing to visit the DMZ area in the future, and even more they would said ‘strongly recommend’ (25.2%, \( n = 151 \)), or ‘recommend’ (54.3%, \( n = 151 \)) the DMZ areas to others.

Figure 7.10 Revisit the DMZ areas in the future
Figure 7.11 Recommend the DMZ area to Others

![Bar chart showing the percentage of respondents recommending the DMZ area.]

Recommend to the DMZ areas

- 25.2% Strongly recommend
- 17.9% Recommend
- 1.3% Neutral
- 1.3% Strongly not recommend

Figure 7.12 Revisit after the Opening of the DMZ

![Pie chart showing the percentage of respondents who would revisit the DMZ.]

- Yes: 96.7%
- No: 3.3%

Figure 7.13 Visit North Korea after Reunification

![Pie chart showing the percentage of respondents who would visit North Korea after reunification.]

- Yes: 96%
- No: 4%
The relationship between respondents' action of visiting the DMZ areas, intentions about future visits, and recommending the DMZ area to acquaintances were examined. The variables 'intention to visit the DMZ' and the 'willingness to recommend it' have been used as indicators of tourists' motivations in other fields (Boulding et al., 1993; Cronin & Taylor, 1992).

The chi-square values shown in Table 8.26 indicate the statistical associations when each two variables were compared. Chi-square statistic, analysis of variance and Spearman coefficient were used, all the relationships being significant (p<0.01). A Chi-square ($\chi^2$) test measures the differences of distributions of one variable across two or more comparison groups in another variable. The variables in the bivariate analysis are both at nominal level. The differences between the observed and expected numbers distributed in each cell in a contingency table provide the mathematical base for computing the $\chi^2$ values. The Pearson’s $\chi^2$ measure is usually reported. In this study, the relationship between individuals’ action of visiting the DMZ area, intentions about future visits and recommending the DMZ area to acquaintances were tested by the $\chi^2$ measures.

Other studies in the literature on marketing have also focused both on the intention to revisit and on the willingness to recommend or on positive word of mouth communication (Boulding et al., 1993; de Ruyter et al., 1996; Zeithaml et al., 1996). In general, seven of the hypotheses considered hold good for the DMZ areas (See Table 7.26). Consequently, the interpretation of results leads to some significant correlations. In this research, it has been found that respondents who have visited the DMZ areas on
a previous occasion may have higher intention to visit the DMZ again than those who are visiting it for the first time, and they might be more positively willing to recommend it to others; to revisit the DMZ area after it is opened or reunification; and visit North Korea after it is opened or reunification. Their intentions of visiting the DMZ in the future and whether they would like to recommend the DMZ area to friends and relatives were also interrelated. The model outlined in the conceptual framework is confirmed for the most part. It is true that the proper peace of two Koreas is one of the determinants of perceived political stability and tourism cooperation. It will also directly determine tourists' behavioural variables: intention to visit the DMZ areas and recommend them to friends or relatives in the future. Likewise, it will determine willingness to visit the North Korea after the DMZ is opened up or reunification of two Koreas.

The interpretation of results reveals no significant correlation between visit vs. intention, visit vs. recommendation and visit vs. revisit after the DMZ is opened up. In fact, on many occasions domestic tourists do seek variety and prefer to visit new destinations and thus, their experience in the DMZ area previously does not guarantee their return and their recommending it to other people. However, based on the survey questionnaire that took place, there was a significant correlation between intention vs. recommendation and intention vs. revisit the DMZ after the DMZ is opened up and intention vs. visit North Korea after it is opened up or reunification. This indicates that domestic tourists who plan to go to the DMZ area in the future are recommending it to others and visit North Korea after it is opened up or reunification. Additionally, the tests showed that there was a significant correlation between Intention vs. Recommendation, and Intention vs. visit North Korea after opening. Therefore, this path analysis indicated
that the DMZ area has a positive effect on behavioural variables as well as on the evaluation variables. An improvement in the overall political stability of a tourist destination held by an individual enhances his or her intention to return and to recommend it in the future (Bigne et al., 2001).

Table 7.25 Chi-square Tests of the DMZ area Visiting Patterns, Intention of Future Visiting, Intention of Visiting after opening, Visiting North Korea after reunification and Recommending the DMZ area to others

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable Compared(^a)</th>
<th>Pearson (\chi^2)(^b)</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visit vs. Intention (H1)</td>
<td>1.194</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visit vs. Recommendation (H2)</td>
<td>2.039</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.729</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention vs. Recommendation (H3)</td>
<td>23.210</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visit vs. revisit after opening the DMZ is opened up (H4)</td>
<td>3.702</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visit vs. visit North Korea after it is opened up (H5)</td>
<td>1.613</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention vs. revisit after the DMZ is opened up (H6)</td>
<td>4.276</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.039*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention vs. visit North Korea after it is opened up (H7)</td>
<td>9.387</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.002*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\): Variables are defined as below. 'Visit': respondents have or have not visited the DMZ areas before. 'Intention': respondents are or are not considering visiting the DMZ areas in the future. 'Recommendation': respondents will or will not recommend the DMZ areas to friends or relatives. The sample size is 151.

\(^b\): No cell has an expected count of less than 5.

*Source*: Field Study
7.2.10 Analysis of the Open-ended Questions

The research instrument contained one open-ended question that cannot be analysed by the aforementioned statistical tools. The procedures for handling the qualitative data are explained in this section. The question was an open-ended question that asked the respondents why they would visit North Korea, if proper peace existed and if reunification occurred in the future. The researcher finds the responses could be grouped together into a few common responses. 39.1% responded that their purpose was general tourism in North Korea and especially to visit Mt. Pakdu and Mt. Geumgang while 21.2% said that they wanted to see North Korea’s life and culture. Other respondents answered for curiosity to visit, their hometown, and so on. The responses are summarised in Table 7.26.

Table 7.26. Main Reason for visiting North Korea after Opening the DMZ area or Korean Reunification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason Cited</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For pleasure (Mt. Paedu, Mt. Geumgang etc.)</td>
<td>39.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For seeing the North Korean life/culture</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For Curiosity</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because South and North Korea is one country</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For comparing South and North Korea</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because of the hometown</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

246
7.3 SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the findings relating to descriptive and qualitative data in the main survey for domestic tourists. The socio-economic background of the sample and the facts about the respondents’ choices of the DMZ areas were explored. Besides, comprehensive analyses of the DMZ areas previously visited by the sample, and the DMZ area likely to be visited in the future were made. This section about domestic tourists has presented the results of the survey in the fullest possible way. Firstly the demographic characteristics of the respondents have been presented. Then the researcher exhibited the visiting times, patterns, purpose, opinion, types of tourism development and intentions of visiting the DMZ in the future of the respondents, as revealed in questions in the questionnaire. The next sections will analyse and discuss the results of the international tourists’ survey and will compare domestic and international tourists with the data presented in the literature review. The main results of relating to the above topics are outlined below.

- The sample size was 302 (151 for International tourists and 151 for Domestic tourists) and the valid response rate was 86.3% in this study. The survey sample was drawn from the DMZ area. The distribution of the respondents was in proportion to the populations in the Tongil Observation and Imjin-Gak in the near Seoul, which might be regarded as a validation of the sampling method.

- The majority of the main respondents were aged 35-54, slightly more male than female. Most informants (84.1%) had finished full-time education regarding the age of 20 years old.
Informants' socio-economic background varied. 30.5% were house-wives and 13.2% were government administrators and salesmen. 31.1% of them earned £10,000-£19,999 per year.

Sixty-three respondents (41.7%) had visited the DMZ area before.

Significant associations were found between each pair of the following variables: respondents’ actions of visiting the DMZ areas previously, their intentions to visit the DMZ areas in the future or after the DMZ is opened up, their willingness to recommend it to others, and their intentions to visit North Korea after reunification.

It was noted that there was a significant overlap between who had visited the area, and who considered visiting the DMZ area.

Vast majority of respondents expected to ecotourism and second majority desired development of peace park and battlefield tourism about tourism types in the DMZ areas in the future.
Border Tourism and the DMZ Development in South Korea as a Peace Promoter

INTRODUCTION CH1

Secondary Research

Peace and Tourism in Divided Nations CH2

Tourism Development and Policy in South and North Korea

Historic View CH3

Case Study: The DMZ Development CH4

Primary Research

Methodology CH5

Analysis of Findings CH6, CH7 and CH8

Conclusions, Implications and Recommendation CH9

South Korea North Korea South Korea's Policy towards North Korea
8.1 INTRODUCTION

With a well-structured, designed and scaled questionnaire, files for data processing can be set up in advance. There are a number of statistical packages available, among which SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) is widely used and it is advantageous to know what statistical tool is available when designing the questionnaire (Brotherton, 1999). To keep with the objectives of the study, this chapter identifies similarities and differences between domestic and international tourists. Since the objectives of this research, which included the examination of tourists’ perceptions of the DMZ areas and attitude of the DMZ tourism development, the frequency function of SPSS was mainly used. Also, the cross-tabulation function was used to evaluate the relationship between demographic factors and responses such as the visiting patterns and educational level to the DMZ areas. The following findings reflect upon the key issues which emerged from the investigation. The findings are analysed, and essential statistical results are shown
by the use of tables and charts. Furthermore, in order to examine whether inter-group differences exist, the data was analysed by a series of chi-square tests and one-way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance). In this part of the analysis the personal characteristics of the respondents are examined and this can be a framework for further analysis.

However, the analysis is classified into domestic and international tourists because of their different backgrounds and the different purposes of the survey. This chapter aims to report the primary findings of questionnaires in this study and the information that has been gathered from the primary research by taking into account the research questions outlined in Chapter Five. Therefore, the chapter is organised into four main sections: questionnaire compilation, sample profile, past visitation and future intentions of visiting the DMZ area and the attitudes of domestic and international tourists. Brief findings are summarised at the end of the chapter.

8.2 GENERAL PROFILE OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS

This section aims to further reveal the quantitative findings of the international tourists survey questionnaire in this study. As with, domestic tourists, questions concerning the number of the samples behaviour in seeking information are analysed. SPSS 12.0 was the main statistical tool employed for analysing the data. Books by Ryan (1995), Norusis (1996), Cramer (1998), Bryman and Cramer (1999), and Green et al (2000) were referred to for operating software commands as well as for assistance in the interpretation of the outputs. A summary of the findings is provided at the end of the section.
8.2.1 Profile of the Respondents in International Tourist

The pattern of tourist arrivals in South Korea has not changed for several decades as shown in Figure 8.1 and also Table 3.7 of Chapter Three. It is possible to provide reasons for the higher proportion of Japanese, Chinese and American visitors to Korea. First, for the Japanese, there is easy access and, certainly, having a holiday in South Korea is much cheaper than having a holiday in Japan because the prices for goods and services in Japan are much expensive than Korea in general. However, the reason for many American visits to Korea, as shown in Table 8.1, is that economic and even political sectors in South Korea have close links with the USA and thus the high numbers of tourists coming with a business purpose has an effect on the tourism industry in South Korea. Furthermore, the USA has maintained strong links with Korea since its involvement in the Korean War. There are still in excess of 30,000 US military personnel stationed in Korea and many civilian workers and dependents (McGahey, 1995). This creates a substantial visiting friends and relatives (VFR) market from the USA (Table 8.1). In 2002, 459,362 Americans visited Korea, up 7.6% from 2001 (KNTO, 2003). Moreover, 1,532,000 domestic tourists and 130,000 international tourists visited the Imjin-Gak, which is one of the DMZ areas (Gyeonggi Province, 2004).

Table 8.1 Visitor Arrivals by Nationality & Purpose of Visit (VFR), 2001

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>China</th>
<th>Hong Kong</th>
<th>Japan</th>
<th>Russian Fed</th>
<th>USA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total (VFR)</td>
<td>210,975</td>
<td>482,248</td>
<td>204,959</td>
<td>2,377,321</td>
<td>134,730</td>
<td>426,817</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Korea Annual Statistical Report on Tourism, KNTO, 2003
In this study, from total 151 international tourist respondents, 114 were male (75.5%) and 37 were female (24.5%). Among them, 55 had visited South Korea before while 96 had not visited the country. In this study, the group of international tourists was made up of different nationalities of tourist. With regard to the respondents’ nationality, the dominant nationalities were Japanese and USA. Here, the common age categories of international tourists in the DMZ area were those who were between 25-34 years of age and those who were between 35-44 years of age (Table 8.2).

Table 8.2 Demographic Characteristics of International Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>75.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>65.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>23.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austrian</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under 24</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 and over</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 8.1 Dominant Nationalities of Tourists in Korea (1999-2001)

Source: KNTO, 2003
8.2.2 Main Purpose of the Visit for International Tourists

The majority of the respondents were visiting the DMZ area primarily for pleasure/holiday. For the analysis, a number of factors relating to the results need to be considered. Firstly, as can be seen in Table 8.3, the pleasure/holiday purpose tourists were much higher. This can be explained by taking into account the impact of the seasonality of Korean tourism. The research was carried out in high season, between May to June, but most tourists tend not to visit South Korea between July to August due to hot weather, as shown in Figure 8.3.

Table 8.3 International Tourists’ Main Purpose of the Visit to the DMZ area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pleasure/Holiday</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>86.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting Friends or Relatives</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World Cup</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 8.2 International Tourists' Main Purpose of the Visit to the DMZ area

![Bar chart showing Main Purpose of the Visit to the DMZ area]

- Others
- World Cup
- Education
- Business
- VFR
- Pleasure

Valid Percentages

Figure 8.3 Average Monthly Temperature

![Bar chart showing Average Monthly Temperature]

Source: KNTO, 2001

8.2.3 Information for Travelling to the DMZ area

As regards information for travelling to the DMZ areas, most tourists rated media (41.1%) as the most important reason for their travel followed by recommendation by
friends or relatives (36.4%) and travel agents (19.2%) (Table 8.4). It can be said that the DMZ area is very highly rated perception as a tourist attraction for international tourists. Other information sources employed by the sample varied, yet the use of the Internet could be a notable phenomenon. This contemporary trend may not substitute for the traditional means immediately due to lack of availability of and access to computer facilities and the web browsing services, but it is worth further study in the near future.

Table 8.4 Motivation for travelling to the DMZ area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information Sources</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Travel Agent Recommendation</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Friends or Relatives</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>36.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Media</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>41.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Radio/newspaper/magazine)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 8.4 Motivation for Travelling to the DMZ area
8.2.4 Past Experience and Patterns

Mazursky (1989) suggests that future behaviour may be influenced by the nature as well as extent of past experience. The majority of the subjects 91.4% (138, n = 151) were visiting the DMZ areas for the first time (Table 8.5). The table following in the next page is self-explanatory.

Table 8.5 Number of Visits to the DMZ area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Visits</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>91.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8.6 Visiting Patterns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group Tour</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>39.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organised Tour</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>54.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8.2.5 International Tourists’ Attitude on the Present Relationship between South and North Korea

Unlike domestic tourists, many international tourists (35.1%) believed that the present relationship between South and North Korea was negative (Table 8.7).

Table 8.7 Respondents’ Attitude to the Present Relationship between South and North Korea

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Positive</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>41.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>35.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Negative</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Question: What is your overall perception about the current situation between South and North Korea?
Figure 8.6 Respondents’ Attitude to the Present Situation between South and North Korea

8.2.6 International Tourists’ Attitude to the Future Relationship between South and North Korea

Unlike the present relationship between the two Koreas, many respondents (34.4%) agreed that future cooperation between South and North Korea would be positive, but many respondents (37.7%) said they still did not know about the two Korea’s future relationship (Table 8.8).

Table 8.8 Future Relationship between South and North Korea*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Positive</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>34.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>37.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Negative</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Question: What is your overall perception about the future between South and North Korea?
Figure 8.7 Respondents’ Attitude to the Future Relationship between South and North Korea

8.2.7 International Tourists’ Perceptions of Tourism and Peace

The respondents were asked to express their perceptions regarding peace and tourism on several different statements. Attitudes can impact their decisions and behaviour (Sonmez and Greafe, 1998). As shown in Table 8.9, the respondents overall indicated more positive opinions than negative. In this study, it was hard to find out real perceptions towards tourism in the DMZ. In short, international tourist respondents appeared to be very cautious about providing negative answers about Korea to the researcher because they knew that the researcher was Korean. However, international tourists’ perceptions of Korean tourism were relatively positive. The political situation in South Korea can be considered as more complicated than in any other country the fact that the nation is divided into North and South Korea. The researcher assumed that this political situation might have an effect on the tourism industry.

Table 8.10, 8.11 and 8.12 examine how perceptions of the relationship of peace with
tourism differs accounting to respondents’ profile. Significant differences shown in Table 8.10 were in the items. ‘Peace encourages tourism links between hostile nations.’ ‘Investment in tourism is influenced by the peace process.’ ‘The DMZ area region is a dangerous tourist destination.’ Table 8.11 demonstrates the result of an ANOVA test between respondents’ age and their perceptions of peace and tourism relationships. Significant differences ($p < 0.05$) were found in the responses to the proposition that ‘Tourism can be a vital force for world peace.’ ‘Comprehensive peace and solution of the South and North Korea conflict is a prerequisite for tourism to prosper in the region.’ However, there is no significant difference in gender.
Table 8.9 International tourists' Perceptions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tourism can be a vital force for world peace</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agreed</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>28.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreed</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>51.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagreed</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagreed</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean: 1.94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation: 0.750</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Peace encourages tourism links between past hostile nations</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agreed</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>23.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreed</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>49.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagreed</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagreed</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean: 2.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation: 0.813</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Investment in tourism is influenced by the peace process</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agreed</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreed</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>57.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagreed</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagreed</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean: 2.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation: 0.757</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comprehensive peace and solution of the South and North Korea conflict is a prerequisite for tourism to prosper in the region</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agreed</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreed</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>30.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>36.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagreed</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagreed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean: 2.66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation: 0.959</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The DMZ area region is a dangerous tourist destination</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agreed</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreed</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>40.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagreed</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>21.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagreed</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean: 2.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation: 0.910</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8.10 Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship and Respondents' Nationality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Peace and Tourism Relationship</th>
<th>F (n = 151)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Tourism can be a vital force for world peace.</td>
<td>0.437</td>
<td>0.510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Peace encourages tourism links between past hostile nations.</td>
<td>12.443*</td>
<td>0.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Investment in tourism is influenced by the peace process.</td>
<td>8.226*</td>
<td>0.005*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Comprehensive peace and solution of the South and North Korea conflict is a prerequisite for tourism to Prosper in the region.</td>
<td>2.663</td>
<td>0.105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The DMZ area region is a dangerous tourists destination.</td>
<td>18.261*</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8.11 Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship and Respondents' Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Peace and Tourism Relationship</th>
<th>F (n = 151)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Tourism can be a vital force for world peace.</td>
<td>2.585*</td>
<td>0.039*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Peace encourages tourism links between past hostile nations.</td>
<td>0.263</td>
<td>0.901</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Investment in tourism is influenced by the peace process.</td>
<td>0.223</td>
<td>0.925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Comprehensive peace and solution of the South and North Korea conflict is a prerequisite for tourism to Prosper in the region.</td>
<td>3.151*</td>
<td>0.016*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The DMZ area region is a dangerous tourists destination.</td>
<td>0.328</td>
<td>0.859</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8.12 Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship and Respondents' Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Peace and Tourism Relationship</th>
<th>F (n = 151)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Tourism can be a vital force for world peace.</td>
<td>1.731</td>
<td>0.190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Peace encourages tourism links between past hostile nations.</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>0.828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Investment in tourism is influenced by the peace process.</td>
<td>0.244</td>
<td>0.622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Comprehensive peace and solution of the South and North Korea conflict is a prerequisite for tourism to Prosper in the region.</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>0.884</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The DMZ area region is a dangerous tourists destination.</td>
<td>3.623</td>
<td>0.059</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8.2.8 Types of DMZ Tourism Development

When asked about what kind of tourism the DMZ area is likely to attract if the DMZ was open, the responses were varied. The result was surprisingly different from what the researcher had assumed. The most popular responses were battlefield tourism (23.8%). The next most popular responses were leisure tourism (17.9%), and peace park tourism (13.2%) and theme park tourism (10.6%) respectively. It is noticed to the researcher’s surprise that the type of tourism that got the least response was eco-tourism with only 6.0% (Table 8.13 and Figure 8.8).

Table 8.13 Tourism Demand in the DMZ area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Tourism</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battlefield Tourism</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure Tourism</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eco Tourism</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace Park Tourism</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Park Tourism</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.2.9 Importance Ranking of the DMZ Tourism Development Considerations in the Future

The informants were required to appraise the importance of some considerations and constraints related to choices on possible tourism development and cooperation in the DMZ in the future. A five-point Likert-type scale was used on the five items shown in Table 8.14. The value ‘5’ indicated that the consideration was ‘very high’, and ‘1’ means ‘very low’. One hundred and fifty-one people answered this question. The means and standard deviations based on the five-point scale are represented below.
Table 8.14 Importance of the DMZ Tourism Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Number</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
<th>DMZ Tourism Development Considerations</th>
<th>Mean*</th>
<th>S.D.*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Battlefield Tourism</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>1.515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Leisure Tourism</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>1.282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Eco tourism</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>1.182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Peace Park Tourism</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>1.275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Theme Park Tourism</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>1.307</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*: 5 means ‘very high’, 1 means ‘very low’.

It can be seen in Table 8.14 that ‘Leisure tourism’ was the attribute with the maximum mean of 3.06. It was regarded as highest expectation with regard to possible tourism development and cooperation in the DMZ in the future. Conversely, the mean of the importance of ‘Ecotourism (number of people expect with)’ was the lowest, 2.52.

This subsection analyses the interactions between the three socio-economic variables and the expectation of international respondents what form of tourism implementation would they like to see in the DMZ tourism cooperation and development for future Korean reunification. Three tables are presented below (Table 8.16, 8.17 and 8.18). The relationship between the five items of the DMZ tourism development types extracted from analysis and each socio-economic variable of each profile variable was identified by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA).

The links between each of the items and every demographic variable were examined to provide detailed statistical evidence. Table 8.15 lists the five items and their associations...
with the three socio-economic variables showing significant differences. However, gender failed to distinguish any of the DMZ tourism development items. All the respondents with age and nationality tended to have higher preference of tourism development for the future about peace park tourism in the DMZ areas. Moreover, the Independent-samples t-tests were conducted to explore the mean differences between the respondents who spoke English and Japanese. The results are demonstrated below (Table 8.19). The five variables tested in Table 8.19 were: Battlefield Tourism, Leisure Tourism, Ecotourism, Peace park Tourism and Theme park tourism. On average, the tourists who spoke English would like to see the area developed as a Battlefield (4.06 versus 2.28), Peace park (3.67 versus 2.31) and Ecotourism (2.92 versus 2.30) in the DMZ area. On the contrary, the tourists who spoke Japanese would like to see the area developed in the DMZ area as a Leisure (3.40 versus 2.40) and Theme park tourism (3.11 versus 1.77). It appears possible that impact of the DMZ tourism cooperation and development in future Korean reunification has higher scale for tourists who spoke English and Japanese. From Table 8.18, it can be seen that the differences were statistically significant in the research population.

Figure 8.8 Importance of the DMZ areas Tourism Cooperation in the Future
Table 8.15 Relationship between the DMZ area Tourism Development in the future and Respondents' Socio-economic Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The DMZ area Tourism Development in the Future</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battlefield Tourism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure Tourism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecotourism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace park Tourism</td>
<td></td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme park Tourism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*: F ratio is statistically significant at the 0.05 level
A: Gender
B: Age
C: Nationality

Table 8.16 Tests of the DMZ Tourism Development Demand and Respondents’ Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DMZ Tourism Development Demand</th>
<th>F (n=151)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battlefield Tourism</td>
<td>0.013</td>
<td>0.909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure Tourism</td>
<td>0.312</td>
<td>0.577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecotourism</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>0.859</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace Park Tourism</td>
<td>0.366</td>
<td>0.546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Park Tourism</td>
<td>0.366</td>
<td>0.563</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8.17 Tests of the DMZ Tourism Development Demand and Respondents’ Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DMZ Tourism Development Demand</th>
<th>F (n=151)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battlefield Tourism</td>
<td>1.071</td>
<td>0.373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure Tourism</td>
<td>1.183</td>
<td>0.321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecotourism</td>
<td>0.837</td>
<td>0.503</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace Park Tourism</td>
<td>2.493*</td>
<td>0.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Park Tourism</td>
<td>1.641</td>
<td>0.167</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8.18 Tests of the DMZ Tourism Development Demand and Respondents’ Nationality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DMZ Tourism Development Demand</th>
<th>F (n=151)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battlefield Tourism</td>
<td>67.546*</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure Tourism</td>
<td>23.930*</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecotourism</td>
<td>9.934*</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace Park Tourism</td>
<td>51.981*</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Park Tourism</td>
<td>46.905*</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8.19 T-test of the Mean differences between the sample speaking English and Japanese

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DMZ tourism</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>S. D.</th>
<th>Japanese</th>
<th>S. D.</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battlefield</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>1.211</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>1.286</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.159</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.212</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecotourism</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>1.341</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>1.035</td>
<td>0.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace park</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.150</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>1.035</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme park</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>1.113</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>1.160</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.2.10 Intentions of Visiting the DMZ area in the Future

There are eight hypotheses would be:

H1: Tourists who have visited the DMZ area previously, intend to revisit the DMZ area in the near future.

H2: Tourists who have visited the DMZ area previously will recommend it to friends or relatives.
H3: Tourists who intend to revisit the DMZ area in the near future will recommend it to friends or relatives.

H4: Tourists who have visited the DMZ area previously will intend to revisit it after the opening of the DMZ or reunification.

H5: Tourists who visited the DMZ area previous will visit North Korea after the opening of the DMZ area.

H6: Tourists who intend to revisit the DMZ area in the near future will revisit it after the opening of the DMZ or reunification.

H7: Tourists who intend to revisit the DMZ area in the near future will visit North Korea after the opening of it or reunification.

H8: Tourists who intend to visit South Korea will visit North Korea as well after reunification.

H9: Tourists who intend to visit South Korea will intend to revisit the DMZ area after reunification.
Figure 8.9 Path Analysis for the DMZ area for International Tourists

Peace Prospects for Two Koreas

-- Visit the DMZ areas --

Political Stability → Tourism cooperation between the two Koreas relating to the DMZ area

H1 Intention to visit the DMZ area as for a tourists destination

H6 Revisit the DMZ area after the opening of the DMZ or Korean reunification

H7 Visit North Korea after the opening of the DMZ area or Korean reunification

H9 Visit South Korea after the opening of the DMZ area or Korean reunification

H2 Recommend the DMZ to other people

H3

H4

H5

H8
The relationship between respondents' action of visiting the DMZ areas, intentions about future visits and recommending the DMZ area to acquaintances were examined (Table 8.20). There are significant correlations between Visit vs. Intention, Intention vs. Recommendation, Visit vs. Revisit after the opening of the DMZ area, Visit vs. Visit North Korea after reunification, Intention vs. Revisit after the opening of the DMZ area, Intention vs. Visit North Korea after unification, Intention visit South Korea vs. Visit North Korea after reunification and Intention visit South Korea vs. Revisit the DMZ area after opening. The tests have shown there was no significant correlation between Visit vs. Recommendation of the DMZ area visiting patterns. This indicates that international tourists when visiting the DMZ area cannot be considered as the DMZ area visiting patterns of recommendation of other people.

As a consequence of the above, special care must be taken to maintain political stability in the DMZ areas in the future for Korean peace process or reunification as these will affect tourists' security and their intentions for future behaviour during the Korean peace process or after reunification is achieved. This result is seemingly in agreement with Sonmez and Graefe's research (1999), which revealed that international tourists having more travel experience tended to be more confident about the destination they selected. In other words, with lessons learnt from past experiences, tourists should perceive less risk and feel safer when they travel to overseas destinations.
Chapter Eight Data Analysis for International Tourists and Comparison with Domestic Tourists

Figure 8.10 Revisit the DMZ areas in the future

![Pie chart showing yes 31% and no 69%]

Figure 8.11 Recommendation of the DMZ areas

![Bar chart showing strongly recommend, recommend, neutral, yes recommend, strongly not recommend]

Figure 8.12 Revisit it after opening the DMZ area

![Pie chart showing yes 58.9% and no 41.1%]
Chapter Eight Data Analysis for International Tourists and Comparison with Domestic Tourists

Figure 8.13 Visit North Korea after Reunification

Figure 8.14 Visit South Korea after Reunification
Table 8.20 Chi-square Test of the DMZ area Visiting Patterns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable Compared</th>
<th>Pearson</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visit vs. Intention (H1)</td>
<td>10.092</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visit vs. Recommendation (H2)</td>
<td>5.047</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention s. Recommendation (H3)</td>
<td>12.846</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visit vs. Revisit after opening the DMZ area (H4)</td>
<td>6.544</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visit vs. Visit North Korea after reunification (H5)</td>
<td>7.252</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention vs. Revisit after opening the DMZ area (H6)</td>
<td>32.607</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention vs. Visit North Korea after unification (H7)</td>
<td>20.897</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention visit South Korea vs. Visit North Korea after reunification (H8)</td>
<td>64.754</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention visit South Korea vs. Revisit the DMZ area after opening (H9)</td>
<td>31.180</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a: Variables are defined as follows. 'Visit': respondents have or have not visited the DMZ areas before. 'Intention': respondents are or are not considering visiting the DMZ areas in the future. 'Recommendation': respondents will or will not recommend the DMZ areas to friends or relatives. The sample size is 151.

b: No cell has expected count less than 5

Source: Field Study
8.2.11 Analysis of the Open-ended Questions

The open-ended question analysed in the study was “why would you revisit South Korea after the opening of the DMZ or Korean reunification?” Those international tourists who answered “yes” to the question whether they would visit North Korea after the opening of the DMZ or Korean reunification and were asked by the researcher asked why they would like to visit North Korea. These include the following reasons: ‘to see the North Korea life/culture’, ‘curiosity’, ‘to compare South and North Korea’, ‘to see new places’, ‘for pleasure (Mt. Paedu, Mt. Geumgang, etc.), ‘for historic knowledge’, ‘to see the unified North Korea’. The responses are summarized in Table 8.21 and Table 8.22.

Table 8.21 Main Reason for visiting North Korea after opening the DMZ area or Korean Reunification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason Cited</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To see the North Korean life/culture</td>
<td>33.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To compare South and North Korea</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To see the new places</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For pleasure (Mt. Paedu, Mt. Geumgang etc.)</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For historic knowledge</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8.22 Main Reason for Revisiting South Korea after opening the DMZ area or Korean Reunification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason Cited</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To see the changed two Koreas</td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the better holiday</td>
<td>23.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because of the safety</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Through a desire to visit again</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For Business</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.2.12 Other Conclusions

This section has presented the results of the survey. Firstly the demographic characteristics of the respondents have been presented. Then the researcher has presented the visiting times and patterns, purpose, motivation, attitudes, types of visit in the DMZ tourism development in the future and intentions of the respondents as revealed in questions of the questionnaire. This section has also presented the findings relating to descriptive and qualitative data in the main survey. The socio-economic background of the sample and the facts about the international respondents’ attitudes were explored. Furthermore, comprehensive analyses of the DMZ areas visited by the sample before, and the DMZ areas likely to be visited in the future were made. In particular the research derived the following main conclusions and findings:

- The valid sample size was 302 (151 for International tourists and 151 for Domestic tourists) and the valid response rate was 86.3% in this study. The survey sample was
drawn from the DMZ areas. Main respondents were aged 25-34, many more male than female.

- Fifty-five respondents (36.4%) have visited Korea before and only 13 respondents (8.6%) have visited the DMZ area before.

- Significant associations were found between each pair of the following variables: respondents’ actions of visiting the DMZ areas previously, their intentions to visit the DMZ areas in the future, and their willingness to recommend to others.

- Repeat visiting could be significant for international tourists as for domestic tourists. This was observed from the frequencies of visits to the DMZ areas by the sample as well as from the repetitions between the visited and considered the DMZ areas.

- Vast majority of respondents about types of DMZ tourism development in the future mostly expected to leisure tourism and second majority desired development of battlefield tourism.
8.3 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN DOMESTIC AND INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS IN TOURISM TRENDS AND PATTERNS

Chapter Three addressed the general nature and characteristics of divided nations and peace tourism. This section examines and measures the characteristics and attitudes relating to divided nation tourism in a selected destination: DMZ areas of South Korea, and in keeping with the objectives of the study, identifies similarities and differences between domestic and international tourists. Other research has attempted to consider the assessment of differences between tourists from different countries visiting the same destination, utilizing direct methods of comparison research; for example, Sussmann and Rashcovsky (1997) attempted to explore the similarities and differences between two groups in relation to vacation travel patterns and attitude towards the selected destinations. In fact, tourists and other travelers may have to modify their previous behaviour because of the establishment of one or more divided nations. In some cases previous travel patterns may become prohibited and travel between the new political units may cease or be rerouted. In other cases travel may begin or grow between the new units because of new economic or cultural opportunities which appear (Butler and Mao, 1995).

Thus, the purpose of this research question is to examine the differences in the perceptions of domestic and international tourists concerning the implication of peace process, and tourism development and cooperation of the DMZ areas in the two Koreas for the future reunification (Figure 8.15). Likewise, in this part of the study, different
patterns and trends relating to domestic and international tourists were examined. Patterns and types of tourism are different in many ways in Asia, Eastern and Western societies, as can be seen from their different social and culture backgrounds. In other words, the role of society, the way of life and customs have developed differently in these societies for many years, which tends to influence the tourism industry. This section has three subsections: tourism in the DMZ area South Korea, general patterns and typology of motivations, patterns and comparisons of socio-demographic. This research attributes the frequently changing travel patterns of domestic and international tourists between politically divided nations to the constantly changing nature of political relations.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to make a comparison between domestic and international tourists. Due to the nature of the data, non-parametric statistics, such as Chi square statistics and Spearman’s Ranking Correlation are employed to test the significance of the results (Ott, et al, 1992; Mann, 1995). In next section, to assess the nature of any differences between the domestic and international tourists of profiles studied, a series of chi-square tests were carried out. The significance level used for all of these tests, unless otherwise indicated, was 0.05%. All statistical calculations were also done with SPSS.
Figure 8.15 A Model of tourists’ attitudes and perceptions in the DMZ area tourism development for Korean reunification.
8.3.1 Patterns and Comparisons of Socio-demographic

The patterns of age groupings differ slightly between international and domestic tourists. Though the predominant age category for domestic tourists was 35 - over 65 years old and for international tourists was 25-54 years old, domestic tourists tend to be older. The age greater than 55 accounted for 38.4% of domestic tourists, higher than that of international arrivals (17.2%). This was also reflected in the population group under the age of 34. This young age group accounted for 42.4 percent of international tourists, but only 11.9 percent of domestic tourists. This can be explained by the fact that people who were born in North Korea or people who experienced the Korean War and then relocated to South Korea would all be over 55 in 2002. They are more likely to visit the DMZ area than younger generations living in the cross-border sections and who were born outside of North Korea, because these older generations often have direct linkages to North Korea and in general they are at the appropriate stage of the family cycle with more disposable income and time for travel.

There is a gender imbalance in both groups, but the difference among domestic tourists tends to be smaller. Males comprised 75.5 percent of total international tourists, but only 53.0 percent of domestic tourists in the DMZ areas. As a consequence, there were more domestic female tourists than international female tourists.
8.3.2 Statistical Tests

Because the above comparison is drawn from sample data, three statistical tests were designed to test if the observed differences are statistically significant. Given the nature of the data, two Chi-square tests were conducted after the percentage data was transformed into counts. The calculations and the test statistics are summarised in Table 8.23. At the 95 percent confidence level, there does not indeed exist a significant difference between domestic and international tourists regarding their socio-demographic characteristics.

Table 8.23 Chi-square Statistics for Socio-Demographic Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>International</th>
<th>Domestic</th>
<th>Row Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under 24</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 65</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>151 (50.0)</td>
<td>151 (50.0)</td>
<td>302 (100.0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square Pearson Value 26.712 df 25 Significance 0.370

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender group</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>151 (50.0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square Pearson Value 0.826 df 1 Significance 0.363

0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 17.40.
8.3.3 Reasons for Visiting the DMZ areas

Previous researchers have argued that motivation may contribute to an explanation of tourist behaviour and patterns (Williams and Zelinsky, 1970; Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Pearce, 1989; McIntosh et al, 1995). However, the complex nature of motivations and incomplete information associated with travel motivation generally prohibit a comprehensive analysis. This is also true in the two Koreas, where motivation information was scarcely recorded in official statistic and estimations sometimes were the only choice. This provided the necessary data to study the motivation pattern of divided nation tourism. In addition, the independent sampling also included multiple purpose information. In this context, purpose of trip is taken to be representative of travel motivation.

8.3.3.1 Patterns and Comparison

In the survey, the purpose of travel was classified in to five categories: pleasure/holiday, business, visiting friend and relatives, educational, and others. Each respondent was asked to select only one of these categories. The results are presented in Table 8.24. The rank is based on the frequency with which each category was selected, and clearly indicated the difference between these two groups. The motivation patterns are slightly different between two groups. Pleasure/holiday is the predominant purpose of travel for both groups. Over half of the international and domestic tourists indicated pleasure/holiday as the primary reason for travel to the DMZ areas. Educational and VFR are the next category for domestic tourists. Educational is the second category, and VFR and business categories are third for international tourists.
Table 8.24 Purpose of Visiting by Tourists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose of Visiting</th>
<th>International Tourists</th>
<th>Domestic Tourists</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pleasure/Holiday</td>
<td>130 86.1</td>
<td>121 80.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>3 2.0</td>
<td>6 4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VFR</td>
<td>3 2.0</td>
<td>9 6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational</td>
<td>8 5.3</td>
<td>9 6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>7 4.6</td>
<td>6 4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151 100.0</td>
<td>151 100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.3.3.2 Statistical Tests

First the pattern was tested without consideration of multiple-purposes (Table 8.25). Second the pattern was tested with this consideration. The statistics are summarised in Table 8.25. At the 95 percent confidence level, there is no significant difference between these two groups in terms of the composition of travel purpose.

Table 8.25 Crosstable of Purpose of Visiting and Tourists Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose of Visiting</th>
<th>International</th>
<th>Domestic</th>
<th>Row Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pleasure/Holiday</td>
<td>130 (50.0)</td>
<td>121 (50.0)</td>
<td>251 (83.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>3 (1.0)</td>
<td>6 (4.0)</td>
<td>9 (3.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VFR</td>
<td>3 (1.0)</td>
<td>9 (6.0)</td>
<td>17 (5.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational</td>
<td>8 (3.0)</td>
<td>9 (6.0)</td>
<td>12 (4.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>7 (2.3)</td>
<td>6 (4.0)</td>
<td>13 (4.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>151 (50.0)</td>
<td>151 (50.0)</td>
<td>302 (100.0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chi-square Pearson</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>34.661a</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>0.532</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. 44 cells (89.8%) have expected count less than 5. Minimum expected count is 0.01
8.3.4 Forms of Visit the DMZ areas

The form of travel has important implications with regard to tourist behaviour and activities (Cohen, 1972; McIntosh et al, 1995; Pearce, 1992). The DMZ area in general has been restricted through the zoning system, the basic travel forms are limited to individual and organised travels. For international tourists, organised travel had been the practical way to arrange a tour because of the complicated travel permit requirements, as well as language and other communication barriers. Consequently, few international tourists were on an individual basis, even though the restrictions have been gradually removed. In contrast, most domestic tourists were traveling both on an individual and an organized basis in the DMZ areas.

8.3.4.1 Patterns and Comparisons

The test statistics are presented in Table 8.26. At 95 percent confidence level, there is a significant difference between domestic and international tourists in terms of their visiting pattern forms. From Table 8.26, several points can be drawn. First, the majority of domestic tourists (77.5%) were visiting on an individual basis. Second, all international tourists were organised tourists, because most international tourists come under this category (travel agency), as this is practically the only way for them to receive permission to enter the zones. Third, the organised domestic tourists are mainly handled by travel agencies, and few by others. However, the majority of international tourists were handled by organisations. Fourth, though only 15.2 percent of total domestic tourists are organised tourists, their absolute number is far larger than the total of international tourists.
8.3.4.2 Statistical Tests

A statistical test Chi-square test was designed to check if such observations are statistically significant. The Chi-square statistics are summarized in Table 8.26. At the 95 percent confidence level, it is concluded that organization forms for domestic tourists are different from those of international ones.

Table 8.26 Visiting Patterns for Two Tourist Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>International</th>
<th>Domestic</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group Tour</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organised Tour</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>151 (50.0)</td>
<td>151 (50.0)</td>
<td>302 (100.0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chi-Square Pearson</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>56.071a</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. 18 cells (75.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 0.02.

8.3.4.3 Typology of the DMZ

In the previous section, the divided nation tourism phenomenon in the DMZ area was measured and examined through an analysis, which illustrated a number of interesting and different characteristics and patterns relating to domestic tourists. It is necessary to determine whether these factors and patterns are related to each other or are independent. It is also appropriate to investigate what mechanism generates such relationships or independence, and what factors are fundamental ones in influencing tourist activities and patterns. Finally, can a typology of divided nation tourists in the DMZ areas be appropriately determined?
In general, it is unlikely that a fixed or causal relationship exists among these factors and motivation patterns, forms of visiting, repeat visitation, and information sources. However, Korea’s unique political and social process has generated an abnormal boundary condition for tourism, and in particular for divided nation tourism. Indeed, previous research on Korea’s divided nation tourism (Kim & Crompton, 1990) suggested that some of these motivation patterns. Moreover, Hall (1994b) and Zhang (1989) suggested that international tourists can be broadly categorised into either “visiting friends and relatives” (VFR) or organised tourists who are handled by travel services and other organisations. While this reflects an important aspect of inbound tourism, as a typology, it over-simplifies the reality of Korea’s tourism. From the above pattern of analysis, it has already been found that form of travel and motivation patterns are major elements in Korea’s tourism politics. To some extent, these factors define the other patterns and tourists’ behaviour. Therefore, the following typology is proposed for the DMZ area’s inbound tourism (Figure 8.16).

For international tourists, the organised tour used to be the only way to arrange DMZ travel. In general, international tourists were required to have special permission. Consequently, international tourists often participated in organised tours either arranged by a travel agency if primarily for leisure and recreation purpose, or by other organisations if for business and special interest purpose. Furthermore, with increasing economic intercourse between South Korea, business travel is steadily growing. Most business travel is arranged by government organizations and entrepreneurs. In recent years it has become feasible for individual international tourists to travel in the DMZ areas. However, the continuing existence of tourist zoning still discourages individual
arrivals. The communication barrier, in particular language, and poor transportation facilities in the DMZ areas, reinforces this further. As a result, the organised tour is still the primary form of travel for international tourists, and only a few international tourists travel to the DMZ area individually.

In contrast, domestic tourists are required only to have an identity travel document, to cross the borderline of the DMZ area. They do not have to involve the Korean travel agencies in arranging their trips. Moreover, many domestic tourists maintain close kinship relations near the border with North Korea. Thus, VFR is the most frequent reason for travel for domestic tourists. They often travel individually and are hosted by their families and friends (Chow, 1988; Zhang, 1989). At the same time, a certain number of domestic tourists also join group tours, primarily for leisure and recreation purpose (Chow, 1988). Likewise, many housewives with their children visited the DMZ area for educational purposes. It is not only the motivation, which is different among these “types” of domestic tourists, but also their pattern of travel behaviour.
8.3.5 Repeat Visitation and Information Sources

Of considerable importance to the national tourism administration and tourism marketing business is the characteristic of repeat visitation, and the manner by which tourists gain information about destinations and their itineraries. However, to date, little information is available in publications on these characteristics of domestic tourists. In the DMZ areas, the low proportion of domestic tourists arranged through travel agencies indicates that their information sources may differ from those of international tourists, whose trips were predominantly organised by travel agencies.
8.3.5.1 Repeat Visitation

Table 8.27 provides data that pertain to the characteristics of repeat visitation. Most international tourists are first time visitors; only 8.6 percent are repeat tourists. In contrast, 41.7 percent of domestic tourists were repeat visitors to the DMZ areas at the time of sampling. Therefore, domestic tourists had a higher number of repeat visits to the DMZ area overall than did their international tourist counterparts. A Chi-square test was run to test if the difference observed is statistically significant. From the test, it is concluded that there is a slightly significant difference between domestic and international tourists in terms of repeat visitation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Visitation</th>
<th>International</th>
<th>Domestic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; Time</td>
<td>91.4</td>
<td>58.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; Time</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; Time</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; or more</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square Pearson
Value: 4.058<sup>a</sup>
df: 1
Significance: 0.044

---

<sup>a</sup> 0 cells (0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.42.
8.3.5.2 Information Sources

This study examines whether information will have a significant influence on perceptions of the DMZ areas as a tourist destination and as a safe place in general (see Figure 8.15). As can be seen, the researcher’s model illustrates primary constructs and relationships that are under investigation. The driving constructs are represented by information sources, which are proposed to have significant influences on the perceptions of the DMZ as a tourist destination in general. It is also proposed that these two perceptions of tourists will have a significant influence on future intentions to visit the DMZ areas. However, choice sets and competing destinations were not included in this model because it focused on the DMZ area only. With this focus on the DMZ area, competing destinations and choice sets would be a factor in overall travel plans, but this study was specifically examining intentions to wards the DMZ areas. Nonetheless, it is suggested that the study of competing destinations could be an extension of this research, and an interesting component of a future study. Overall, model of Figure 8.28 illustrates how the domestic and international tourists develop perceptions of travel destinations, and how that subsequently influences their future intentions. In other words, this is important because if we understand the development of tourist perceptions, then we can possibly influence and even predict their future intentions to visit the DMZ areas.

Travel involves a complicated decision-making process, and thus information about the potential destination influences such decisions. To identify where tourists gained their information, the questionnaire of sample listed four general types of sources for each respondent: travel agent, VFR, media (newspaper, magazine, books, TV), and others.
Respondents were allowed to select more than one source if applicable. Given the nature of the data, Chi-Square test was conducted after the percentage data was transformed into counts. The results are summarised in Table 8.28.

A different pattern appeared for domestic and international tourists respectively. Media seems the most important source for international tourists, as 41.1 percent of the respondents listed it as their informational source. VFR was listed as the second and travel agent listed as the third. Others seem insignificant to international tourists. For domestic tourists, their primary source is VFR, and followed by Media. Travel Agent is less important for domestic tourists, as only 9.3 percent listed it. At the 95 percent confidence level, there is a significant difference between domestic and international tourists regarding information sources. From a practical perspective, the research has shown that those people who have visited the DMZ areas will have strong perceptions relating to that destination. These tourists can generate positive word-of-mouth communications, and media, thereby influencing other tourists' perceptions of specific travel destination such as the DMZ areas. This is important because, if we understand the development of tourist perceptions, then we can possibly influence and even predict their future intentions as seen in Figure 8.17.
Figure 8.17 Information Sources’ Influence on Future Intentions

Table 8.28 Information Sources by Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>International (%)</th>
<th>Domestic (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Travel Agent</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media</td>
<td>41.1</td>
<td>37.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VFR</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>45.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Column Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square Pearson
Value: 299.316
Df: 156
Significance: 0.000

a. 174 cells (95.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 0.01
8.3.6 Comparing Perceptions of Peace and Tourism Relationship between Tourists

"Tourism if not a passport to peace, is at least a worthy effort towards building peace. Wherever and whenever visitor and a host meet and greet each other with mutual appreciation, respect and friendship, a movement toward peace has been made". (McIntosh et al., 1995).

In an attempt to measure the relationship between tourism and peace as was outlined in objective one of this study, it was found that tourism is viewed as contributing positively to peace. This finding is similar to several studies that were held in this respect (Var et al, 1989 in the cases of Turkey and Argentina, Var et al, 1998). However, literature review provides a little evidence that tourism is a force for peace (Burnett and Uysal, 1990; Ap and Var, 1990; Richter, 1992). These contradicting perceptions tend to vary according to the place in which the survey was held. This may be attributed to the intangibility of the peace concept and different political conditions.

In chapter one, it was noted that tourism can prosper only in a peaceful environment, and any serious violation would jeopardise not only peace but tourism flows and economic welfare. Peace according to the survey is seen as a means of enhancing future investments, as a means of increasing co-operation opportunities and overall economic trade links.
Apart from slight differences, no major variance was observed between the two groups, with regard to the perceived attitudes to peace, the perceived relationship between tourism and peace and the perceptions towards the DMZ tourism cooperation and further tourism development in the DMZ area in the future. Furthermore, the DMZ area tourism cooperation on various projects produced a higher level of support in both types of tourist and both types of tourist also tend to see more improvements in tourism in the DMZ area. Respondents were compared on their perceptions on most statements using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

Table 8.29 summarises peace and tourism statements perceived by domestic and international tourists. Overall, attitudes towards tourism and peace of international tourists were generally more positive than those of domestic tourists. This statement is given listed below:

- Comprehensive peace and solution of the South and North Korea conflict is a prerequisite for tourism to prosper in the region.

Table 8.29 Tests of the Peace and Tourism Relationship between Tourists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Peace and Tourism Statements</th>
<th>Domestic S.D.</th>
<th>International S.D.</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourism can be a vital force for world peace.</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>-0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace encourages tourism links between past hostile nations</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investment in tourism is influenced by the peace process</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehensive peace and solution of the South and North Korea conflict is a prerequisite for tourism to prosper in the region.</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The DMZ area region is a dangerous tourists destination.</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

296
8.3.7 Tourism Development Potential with the DMZ area

Revealing tourism experts’ attitudes towards the peace process and its results, is an important factor, especially among the public and private sectors, for it will determine the scope and the nature of the economic relations between the parties. Besides, several measures such as the number of tourists, their expenditure, and each region’s indicators of tourism growth were examined. Significant differences were observed in terms of foreseeable gains for South compared to North Korea: employment opportunities, income and standard of living, the region’s overall tax revenue and expansion of further tourism businesses. This finding was further supported in the research.

Tourism cooperation is seen as a mechanism for ensuring sustainable peace and successful tourism development. In fact, both public and private sectors must be involved in recovery efforts relating to the DMZ area tourism development. In the aftermath of political instability, the Korean government must provide the necessary funds and human resources to physically reconstruct the industry, rebuild the infrastructure, and promote tourism in existing and new generating markets. Besides, the Korean government must design new safety and security laws and regulations, and above all design plans for future Korean reunification. Within the private sector, both the tourism industry and businesses in general are responsible for putting in place all the aforementioned marketing techniques designed to bring the tourists back to the destination (Pizam, 1999). Mansfeld (1999) and Sonmez, Apostolopoulos, and Tarlow (1999) advocate that carefully planned and implemented crisis management policies and crisis management strategies must form the basis of overall sustainable development.
master-planning for tourism destinations. For destinations that have been harmed in the past by recurrent actions bringing about political instability, this will require ‘marketing/management strategies to protect and rebuild their image of safety and attractiveness (Sonmez, et al, 1999).

The purpose of this research question is to examine how significant will the DMZ tourism development and cooperation as a tourist destination. In order to reveal the likely tourism segment that will be attracted in the DMZ area under a successful peace scenario, respondents for domestic and international tourists were asked to rank the expected tourist types according to the likely rates of growth. Respondents were asked the potential of the DMZ area as a result of open borders and free movement of tourists for international and domestic tourists (Table 8.30). Apart from differences which were found in the attitudes relating to the DMZ area potential tourism development in the future or opening the border.

The results show that leisure tourism is the dominant segment for international tourists. However, this segment for domestic tourists was the last ranking segment, surprisingly (Figure 8.18). By targeting upscale international tourists looking for peace park tourism and ecotourism opportunities, this research objective could have been achieved at minimum risk. This may be as a result of the international tourists who are visiting the DMZ for the pleasure/holiday are the prime reasons for expecting the leisure tourism demand in the DMZ in the future, regardless of the types of tourists from different nationalities. It is clear that international tourists would tend to take a holiday in the DMZ areas if they are totally safe and peaceful. On the other hand, domestic tourists
indicated that their first ranking of the ways given in which the DMZ could be exploited for the purposes of tourism after Korean reunification they would choose first ecotourism, and secondly a peace park. This means domestic tourists prefer to cultural and physical experiences such as visiting historical and cultural sites, increasing their knowledge of new places, and getting close to nature, in a nation that was no longer divided. As can be seen in Table 8.30, Domestic tourists had much higher ecotourism, peace and battlefield scores than international tourists.

Based upon this finding and the aforementioned empirical arguments, it could be involved in eco- and peace-based tourism development for future Korean reunification. In respect of comparison between both types of tourist, this research demonstrated with few exceptions that people from the same sites but traveling to different locations might wish to see different demands of tourism development in the DMZ areas. The cross-cultural differences between domestic and international tourists in the DMZ area have the potential to reinforce the attractiveness of the DMZ area for ecotourism, peace park and battlefield tourism in domestic tourists. Additionally, Table 8.31 summarises the potential development for tourism of the DMZ in the future by domestic and international tourists. All significant potential tourism development was found between two profiles by tourists.

Table 8.30 Ranking of the DMZ Potential Tourism Development in the Future

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Domestic Tourists</th>
<th>International Tourists</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Battlefield Tourism</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Leisure Tourism</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Eco Tourism</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Peace Park Tourism</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Theme Park Tourism</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 8.18 Comparison of Perceptions of tourism development potential with DMZ area by Domestic and International tourists

![Comparison of Perceptions of tourism development potential with DMZ area](image)

Table 8.31 The DMZ Potential Tourism Development in the Future

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Segmentation</th>
<th>Domestic</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>International</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Battlefield</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Leisure</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ecotourism</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Peace park</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Theme park</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. The mean value of the DMZ tourism cooperation and development descriptive statement indicates how domestic and international tourists prefer the above items as tourist destination.

b. Shows the significant difference level of the Paired Samples T-Test between two profiles.

c. Indicates a statistically significant difference between domestic and international tourists (P < 0.05)
8.3.8 Attitudes towards Political Instability in the DMZ areas

The important characteristic of a tourism destination playing a significant role in the selection process is the likelihood of act of political instability in the recipient country/location (Seddighi & Theocharous, 2002). In a recent paper by Seddighi, Theocharous and Nuttall (2002) the dimensional structure of political instability in relation to the tourism industry was defined. Analysis in the paper shows that the dimensions of political instability for every tourism generating country differ, leading in this way to the extraction of a research implication that the dimensional structure of political instability is subject to a large extent to the national/cultural background of holidaymakers visiting a particular tourism generating country. This finding is in line with the results of an earlier paper by Seddighi et al (2001) where it was found that the perceptions/attitudes of people from various tourism generating countries towards the impact of political instability are influenced by their national/cultural background.

In other words, the political situation of a country is recognized as an important factor that influences tourism development. A stable political condition is a prerequisite to enable tourists to visit and travel within the destination country (Hall and O’Sullivan, 1996; Pizam and Mansfeld, 1996; Richter, 1992).

The need for assessment, evaluation and analysis of the various interrelationships of political instability and the tourism industry is essential considering the sensitive nature of the tourism industry, the ever-increasing competition, and the very narrow profit margins. However, a review of the literature reveals that this particular research field
Chapter Eight Data Analysis for International Tourists and Comparison with Domestic Tourists

suffers from lack of research direction, and the absence of systematic, detailed and thorough analysis (Seddighi et al, 2002). However, applying the theoretical rationale of Seddighi and Theocahrous (2002) to the context of political instability and tourism some interesting analysis could be drawn in this subsection. The extant research on political instability and tourism treats the term in an a - theoretical manner (see for example Ioannides & Apostolopoulos, 1999; Sonmez, 1998; Sonmez and Graefe, 1998; Pizam, 1999; Clements & Georgiou, 1998). If a tourist destination which offers a tourist product is thought to be politically unstable it is because of some objective characteristics such as “political violence” or “governmental instability” (Seddighi & Theocahrous, 2002).

Therefore, in trying to assess whether a fear of instability in the region might affect future development, respondents were asked to respond whether the DMZ area as a tourist destination is perceived as a dangerous destination in terms of political instability. In Table 8.32, 32.4 % of domestic tourists rejected this claim, and 29.8% agreed; and 25.2% of international tourists rejected this statement, but 34.3% agreed. This could be explained by the fact that although the macro region has suffered considerable political upheaval in recent decades, any significant increase in such disruption would seriously depress tourist activity.

However, most domestic tourists claimed that “the DMZ area doesn’t have as a big problem as the rest of South Korea, it is 300 miles from any trouble spot and it has not suffered. International tourists do not realize sometimes they have been to South Korea when they have been to the DMZ”. The lower mean score of 2.89 for international
tourists support this claim. According to the above results, safety standards meet the expectations of both types of tourist; they are more likely to recommend the DMZ area to their friends and relatives.

Table 8.32 The DMZ area as a Dangerous Tourist Destination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opinion*</th>
<th>Domestic Tourists (%)</th>
<th>International Tourists (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>40.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>21.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percentage</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>2.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Dev.</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Tourists perceive the DMZ area as a dangerous destination.

8.3.9 Comparison between Domestic and International Tourists:

**Intentions of Visiting the DMZ area**

A series of cross-tabulations was conducted to test Hypothesis 1 to Hypothesis 9 of both domestic and international tourists. In general, most of the hypotheses considered hold good for both types of tourist (Table 8.33), so it can be said that it is the political stability and peace of the DMZ area that determines the tourists' future behaviour (hypothesis 6, 7, 8 and 9). Recently, in an effort to determine if past international travel experience affects tourists' choice behaviour, Sonmez and Graefe (1999) found that past travel experience to certain regions both increased the intention to travel there and
Chapter Eight Data Analysis for International Tourists and Comparison with Domestic Tourists

decreased the intention to avoid places which are perceived to be risky (Chen and Gursoy, 2001) (hypothesis 4 and 5). Regarding intention to the DMZ return, its influence on recommendation, revisit after opening the DMZ and visit North Korea after reunification. Moreover, past experience determines whether people recommend the destination (hypothesis 2), the intention to return (hypothesis 1) and the intention to recommend (hypothesis 3). Hypothesis 1 holds good only for international tourists, hypothesis 3 both for domestic and international tourists. Consequently, this makes it clear that, in order to achieve peace or reunification of Korea, political stability of the DMZ plays an essential role and the relationship with domestic and international tourists must be handled proactively to develop.

Table 8.33 Fulfillment of the hypothesis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Domestic Tourists</th>
<th>International Tourists</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1 (visit vs. intention)</td>
<td>Not fulfillment</td>
<td>Fulfillment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2 (visit vs. recommendation)</td>
<td>Not fulfillment</td>
<td>Not fulfillment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3 (intention vs. recommendation)</td>
<td>Fulfillment</td>
<td>Fulfillment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4 (visit vs. revisit after opening the DMZ)</td>
<td>Not fulfillment</td>
<td>Fulfillment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5 (visit vs. visit North Korea after opening the DMZ or reunification)</td>
<td>Not fulfillment</td>
<td>Fulfillment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6 (intention vs. revisit after opening the DMZ or reunification)</td>
<td>Fulfillment</td>
<td>Fulfillment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H7 (intention vs. visit North Korea after opening the DMZ or reunification)</td>
<td>Fulfillment</td>
<td>Fulfillment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H8 (intention South Korea vs. visit North Korea as well after reunification)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Fulfillment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H9 (intention South Korea vs. revisit the DMZ area after reunification)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Fulfillment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8.4 SUMMARY

This chapter has first discussed the context of DMZ area’s tourism development and cooperation. It addressed the DMZ area’s travel organisation system, tourism zoning. In this context, the patterns of divided nation tourism were systematically compared and analysed through both qualitative and quantitative methods. It was found that domestic tourists in the DMZ area differ from international tourists in some aspects, such as their socio-demographic profile, motivations, temporal and spatial patterns. Finally, a typology was proposed to typify the DMZ area’s tourism. It is recognized that the DMZ area has some unique characteristics that might influence tourists. Therefore, the findings of the research show that tourism cooperation in the DMZ areas of South and North Korea strongly depends on the peaceful and political environment. These findings support studies that suggest that political instability influences the tourism development of a state (Clements and Georgiou, 1998; Hall and O’Sullivan, 1996). The findings also provide support to Lockhart (1993) and Mansfeld and Kliot (1996) that political issues play an significant role in the case of the DMZ area, and establishing political stability is essential for the development of the South-North Korean tourism cooperation.

Unquestionably, the perceptions and attitudes of domestic and international tourists played an important role in the DMZ areas for the research. In this study, the theoretical context of the relationship between tourism and peace was examined with its practical implications in the DMZ area. In other words, the literature demonstrates that political stability and peace may affect tourists’ destination images. The general findings demonstrate that the subjects of the study view the implication of the existence of a
peaceful environment on tourism favourably. This belief was further supported by the positive attitudes and perceptions held by international and domestic tourists towards peace and cooperation. Information sources and travel experience for domestic and international tourists are proposed to have significant influences on perceptions of the DMZ areas as both a tourist destination and a safe place in general. These results show that peace is seen as a catalyst for tourism development in the DMZ area. We notice from the results of the questionnaires that in general there is a favourable opinion on the relationship between tourism and peace, and of the degree to which the two Koreas' peace process and the prospect of reunification has contributed, and continues to contribute to the development of tourism in the DMZ area. There were contradicting perceptions about a few things, but in general we can say that the attitude is positive, and optimistic for the future.

The continuing instability and security concerns in the region remains the biggest obstacle to tourism in the DMZ areas, and to the two Koreas in general, with economic improvement being the most important factor given the reliance on tourism in North Korea. This study describes two alternative approaches for providing guidance for these decisions. First, it presents a conceptual framework that defines the kind of empirical data required to measure the political impacts caused by all components of the human presence in the DMZ areas. Second, it presents the results of an empirical study designed to determine how sub-samples of the two Koreas view the issue of appropriate activities. Consequently, in this chapter the researcher has met the primary objectives of the research which had to do with identifying domestic and international tourists of the DMZ areas and with comparing them as they were presented in the literature review.
Chapter Eight Data Analysis for International Tourists and Comparison with Domestic Tourists

The next chapter will conclude these results and will provide some recommendations based on the findings.
Border Tourism and the DMZ Development in South Korea as a Peace Promoter

**INTRODUCTION CH1**

**Secondary Research**

**CH2**

**Peace and Tourism in Divided Nations**

**Tourism Development and Policy in South and North Korea**

**Historic View CH3**

**South Korea**

**North Korea**

**South Korea's Policy towards North Korea**

**Case Study: The DMZ Development CH4**

**Primary Research**

**Methodology CH5**

**Analysis of Findings CH4, CH6 and CH8**

**Conclusions, Implications and Recommendation CH9**
CHAPTER IX

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1 INTRODUCTION

The nature of tourism in any area is the product of complex interrelated economic, social, geographic and political factors. This research focuses on the relations between tourism and peace, which is a part of the political process. These relations were demonstrated by an examination of tourism development in the divided Korea and cooperation of the DMZ areas. An investigation of Korea not only showed the importance of political stability for tourism in the DMZ area, but also provided a foundation by which to measure and test various types of tourism development for political stability and even future Korean reunification. It was found that peace is a most important role of tourism as a peace promoter in divided Korea for political stability and future reunification. A geographical analysis emphasised that types of tourism development are attributable to the unique physical, economic, and more importantly, cultural settings and the politics of divided Korea.
Chapter Nine  Conclusions, Implications and Recommendations

This chapter is the final one of the thesis. It is presented in three parts for ease of reading. Part One summarises the research findings reported in the previous chapter. Part Two is the main body of this chapter. The significance of the findings is discussed in conjunction with the literature, and the fulfillment of the research goals is evaluated. The contributions of this study are also highlighted. Finally in Part Three, the conclusion to the study is presented and the recommendations for further research are provided.

9.2 THE RESULTS OF FINDINGS (PART ONE)

This research focused on areas within the border tourism and the DMZ development in South Korea as a peace promoter that stood to benefit most from the success of the two Koreas peace process, and the cooperation which would follow. It has endeavoured to highlight the areas and opportunities which arise from increased cooperation and stability in the DMZ area. The research objectives were implemented by surveying domestic and international tourists in the DMZ area as well as by identifying the interrelationships among tourism development, peace and tourism perception, attitudes, political stability considerations, and socio-economic background of domestic and international tourists.

For the purpose of this study, the evidence shown in this empirical study has served to justify peace through tourism, and tourism through peace theories adopted in tourism. The similarities or differences between domestic and international tourists' attitudes and perceptions may provide a foundation to adjust theories in the tourism elaborate
discipline. The study established a methodological approach for gathering and analysing empirical evidence, so its practical purpose was achieved. The quantitative and qualitative findings of the study are connected at the outset of this chapter. Although statistical techniques were used in data analysis, the nature of the results was exploratory and descriptive in terms of obtaining primary evidence to build up the body of knowledge in tourism. The multiple facets of the results reflect the complexity of tourists’ attitude, perception and preferences. This section is the first part of this chapter that provides a summary of the results of the main survey. The following subsections are organised in order of the findings demonstrated in the previous chapter.

9.2.1 The Comparison of Domestic and International Tourists in the DMZ areas

A consideration of tourism components reveals that international tourists is significantly different from domestic tourists in many aspects. It can also be argued that domestic tourists are different from those of international tourists. Different views often exist on tourist movements between divided nations. The detailed examination of divided nation and border tourism in the DMZ area used the researcher’s sample of domestic and international tourists to test a series of research questions. It was found that:

(1) Domestic tourists tend to be older, have a more-balanced gender composition, and tend to be dominated by housewives and businessmen.

(2) Pleasure/Holiday, business, and VFR are the top primary travel purposes of domestic tourists. Multiple motivations are common, and generally include VFR.
(3) The majority of domestic tourists travel on an individual basis, but a number take group tours if travelling for recreation purposes.

(4) Domestic tourists travel shorter distances and visit fewer cities than international tourists.

(5) Domestic tourism is less seasonal and has two less distinct peak seasons: January and August.

(6) Domestic tourists are spatially concentrated in Seoul and Gyounggi province. Few travel from the southern part of South Korea.

(7) Domestic tourists tend to have repeat visitation patterns and gain information about destinations mainly from family and friends and tourist businesses.

These findings not only confirm certain observations made in other studies (Hall, 1994a; Gormsen, 1995), but also identify and test many aspects of divided nation tourism which had not been studied before. It is concluded that domestic tourism in a divided nation is a unique tourism phenomenon which differs from international tourism in many aspects. Significant attitudes, perceptions and preferences strongly suggest that it is not appropriate to exclude this element from both statistics, and research in general.

9.2.2 Limitations

The study has several limitations that should be recognized when interpreting the results. First, expert interviews enabled the interviewers to practice and perfect their interviewing techniques. More importantly, it provided an invaluable opportunity to test the questions and the appropriateness of the translations used. The pretest revealed that
significant revisions were needed on a number of questionnaires but field research was not required on the Chinese version of the questionnaire. Second, this analysis of research was concerned with the influence of destination image on after-purchase behaviour. The variables ‘intention to return to the DMZ area’ and the ‘willingness to recommend it’ have been used as indicators of tourist behaviour. This relationship marketing approach has been suggested in the general literature on marketing. However, the research has only been applied to border tourism and peace through tourism, and very little to destination marketing in order to approach the research questions and objectives. Third, findings might not be generalisable to the general populations since only individuals who are visiting the DMZ areas were included in the sample. In fact, among them, the restriction of the scope of the research to current tourists who are visiting the DMZ areas and, therefore, the non-inclusion of potential tourists should include further research. Fourth, the tourist survey was a less central role in the thesis, and even it contained some weaknesses. However, the selection of appropriate comparison between domestic and international tourists in general ought to be used in research. This represents a dilemma for the researcher, partly because there was not sufficient research evidence available to establish precisely what comparison tourist use in different situations. Additionally, subjects’ perceptions of a terrorist threat or political instability might be heightened by print and broadcast media coverage of current terrorist events and/or political instability, and such perceptions might increase for international tourists by many current terrorism and/or political instability. Thus, the large number of relevant publicized events during the study’s investigative process might have influenced responses to the international research questionnaire.
Despite these limitations, it seems to be beyond doubt that the DMZ areas should concern themselves with improving their peace through tourism development in such forms as peace park, battlefield tourism, if the DMZ area as a peace promoter is to compete successfully in the competitive holiday market. This is because perceptions international tourists hold of its security will affect their repeat visitation evaluation and the word of mouth communication that takes place, as well as their intention to return in the future. Furthermore, despite the limitations of the study, the findings of this research provide important insights into the role of political stability in the DMZ area for tourists, and therefore have significant implications for the researcher. Given the limitations identified and the lessons learned, the researcher’s study must be considered, nonetheless, to be a successful survey of approved concepts.

9.3 DISCUSSION OF THE MAIN FINDINGS (PART TWO)

9.3.1 The Main Body of This Research

Previous literature has already proved that tourism development is strongly influenced by political conditions. Although the relations between tourism and war and their devastating impacts on tourism of any kind are obvious, the relationship between tourism and peace has yet to be fully studied. However, former studies that examined the concept of peace with relation to tourism (for example in the cases of USA-USSR, Turkey-Greece, Argentina, the two Koreas, UK-Northern Ireland and several African countries), yield no consistent thinking about the contribution of tourism to peace.
Furthermore, the case of the two Koreas which could serve as a prime example, for the on-going peace tourism relations between South and North Korea suggest that tourism did not reach a take-off stage as a result of peace, nor did the existing tourism relations amount to a sufficient contribution for cultural exchange and desirable economic prosperity. Although the peace process has moved forward, it must be borne in mind that peace is a dependent variable and its foundations are still fragile. For instance, North Korea has apparently become the world’s ninth nuclear power (Niksch, 2002). The latest crisis erupted in early October 2002, when North Korea officials did not deny charges made by James A. Kelly, the U.S. Assistant Secretary of State for East Asian and Pacific Affairs, that Pyongyang had a secret uranium enrichment programme (Norris, 2003) and then North Korea withdraw from the NPT (Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty) on January 10, 2003 – the only country ever to do so (Bodeen, 2003). The South Korean government and the Bush Administrations’ hope that North Korea will give up its nuclear programme seem fanciful at this point.

Nevertheless, if both South and North Korean governments wish to reach to a genuine economic integration, this option vis a vis tourism could serve as a mechanism not only for economic growth but as a force for achieving cultural exchange, mutual understanding and a sustainable peace. This region can retain its past prosperous position and turn to a new Korean peninsula indeed. These findings highlight the complexity, which implies that there is a need for a broader theoretical knowledge that will incorporate the various dimensions of peace to the tourism study. For the purpose of the examination of how these relations affect divided nations- the DMZ area was chosen. DMZ areas of South and North Korea, share a common border and are
characterised by similar geographic conditions. However, they are also different in their population composition, economic structure and levels of development. In order to ascertain the essence of this relationship, domestic and international tourists’ attitude, perception and preference toward the DMZ tourism development was examined. This was based on the belief that tourism development is to a great extent designed by tourism professionals.

The study illustrated conclusively the popularity of the DMZ area with domestic and international tourists. Another unique perspective was the role of peace tourism about external opinion discovered in this study. The uncertain political situation could be the non-compensatory criterion applied in an early phase of decision making to reject the opportunity of taking the DMZ area as a tourist destination. This may support the strong influence of the situational variables on a final taking decision conceptualised in the political models.

The research has its academic and practical contributions as noted below. The sample was representative so that the findings could be generalisable by other researchers. The results have practical merit since the information may be referred to for the development purposes. Above all, the research delved into tourism and peace by an appropriate methodological procedure and hence accomplished its theoretical and practical goals.
9.3.2 The DMZ area as a Peace Promoter for Future Korean Reunification

The DMZ area offers many opportunities for further tourism development based on the nation’s eco-tourism, peace park, theme park, leisure and battlefield tourism features. The Korean government is committed to planning the ‘the DMZ area experience’. There has been a slow improvement in transportation from Seoul in South Korea to Shin-eiju in North Korea in the DMZ area. The development of partnerships would ensure the inclusion of important elements of curricula. Topics such as peace tourism would be viewed as a benefit as opposed to an inhibitor to growth. Cooperation in these two areas is of vital importance to ensure that South Korea as well as international tourists long into the future can enjoy the country’s natural beauty along with Korean reunification. Statistical analyses conducted in Chapter Seven and Chapter Eight attempt to reveal the relationships in the study objectives.

The importance of “Political situations” ranked highest considerations. The uncertainty of the political situations might account for the between attitudes and perceptions. Political situations of the divided nations are uncontrollable in comparison with the other considerations, regarding mostly travel planning details. Therefore, the importance of the uncertain political situation may be perceived antecedent to other arrangeable considerations in choosing the DMZ area by the individuals without recent experience of the DMZ or future intentions to visit it. However, people who visited or intended to visit the DMZ area might accept the uncertainty and pay more attention to the practical considerations. Thus, an impression of an unsteady and unpredictable Korean political situation may be an overwhelmingly unacceptable factor and the political situation may
also be considered as the most important criterion at an earlier stage of decision making in visiting the DMZ area.

9.4 RESEARCH CONTRIBUTIONS

The preceding section discussed the research findings. In this section, summarising remarks are made to address the contributions of the entire study. The contributions that this study makes to the existing body of knowledge are threefold: ‘Addition to Existing Knowledge in the Politics of Peace Tourism’, ‘Advantages in Methodological Issues’. How this researcher has benefited from the study is also stated in ‘Personal Reflection’.

9.4.1 Addition to Existing Knowledge about the Politics of Tourism and Peace Tourism

This study acknowledged the need of discerning micro demand in tourism, which emphasised tourists' experiences in tourism research. The politics of peace tourism between South and North Korea in the DMZ area model developed in tourist behaviour were adopted as a theoretical framework. They were examined in the particular setting of planning and developing the DMZ area for political stability and even future Korean reunification for domestic and international tourists.

The relationships among the groups of factors regarding tourists' attitudes were tested on a cross-sectional basis. The results revealed empirical evidence to the DMZ area by domestic and international tourists. The unique findings of this study may contribute to
verify the peace tourism. Although tourism as a subject is multidisciplinary in nature, and the adoption of theories from relevant disciplines is common, differences are found on applying the concepts of tourist attitude in this research. As discussed, the evidence in this study has supported theoretical assumptions in political and peace tourism of the divided nation model through the process of domestic and international tourists. The study identifies the differences in theory adoption in empirical research, and, in a broader sense, adds to knowledge about the fundamental interactions among domestic and international tourists, and role of the border tourism in the DMZ area as a peace promoter.

Therefore, as mentioned before, tourists flow between South and North Korea are not absent any more since opening travelling to the Mt. Kumgang. The researcher, thus, was developed the new figure (Figure 9.1). Especially, as it was also found that the travel development between South and North Korea for the research supports the revolutionary process model developed by Butler and Mao (1995).

9.4.2 Methodological Issues

Notwithstanding the limitation of data and the need for further research, this dissertation represents a contribution to the understanding of the tourist movement in general, and the understanding of divided nation tourism in particular. It provides a framework by which to include elements of divided nation development into tourism research, and creates a typology to identify the spectrum of divided nation tourist movements. Furthermore, through its focus on divided Korea, this study also contributes to the
understanding of current and future issues relating to South and North Korea.

This research established a scientific approach to examine tourism cooperation between South and North Korea, which is regarded as a methodological contribution of this study. The methodology is likely to be followed by other researchers who are interested in analysing tourists’ attitude in a divided nation. Furthermore, the data analyses that examined the relationships among the research variables also provide an example to present empirical evidence for understanding peace tourism.

Figure 9.1 New Tourist Flow between the Divided two Koreas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Divided Korea</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North Korea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mt. Geumgang, VFR, Business, Sports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMZ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VFR, Sports</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter Nine  Conclusions, Implications and Recommendations

2. Mature Tourism Cooperation and Development

DMZ Tourism

Cooperation

South Korea

3. Future Peaceful Korean Unification

Political stability

Peace

Tensions

Conflicts

One Korea

321
It is clear from the nature of the findings and contributions that have been articulated, that further research on divided nation tourism with either political stability and/or peace tourism is needed. At a broad level, theory and models must continue to be investigated and developed. Special attention must be given to the mechanism of the development of divided nation tourism and its impact on the improvement of bilateral relationships. It is also suggested that systematic data collection may be essential to aid this understanding.

Additionally, as this study has been amongst the first to compare tourist attitudes, perceptions across the DMZ areas, both the methodology and findings could be helpful for other researchers who will probably undertake future similar research. The research process and outcome of this study have helped this researcher in dealing with the DMZ area development and future Korean reunification issue in the future.

9.5 RECOMMENDATION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH
(PART THREE)

Based on the results of the research, the researcher offers recommendations on ways to appropriately develop tourism in the DMZ area after Korean future reunification. Some recommendations for future research are made in this subsection in the light of the issues raised in previous discussions inspired by the findings of this study. This study focused on profiling the tourists’ attitude in border tourism and the DMZ development between South and North Korea as a peace promoter for political stability and eventually future reunification. The research findings provided generalised evidence to
comprehend the decision making in the DMZ areas. It is recognised that the DMZ areas have some very unique characteristics that might influence tourists.

From a practical perspective, the study has shown attitude, perception and preference that those domestic and international tourists who are visiting the DMZ area of divided Korea. This is important because if we understand the development of tourist perceptions and attitudes, then we can possibly influence and even predict their future intentions. For instance, the study illustrated that the existence of various levels of political instability was important in the development of tourist perceptions, attitudes and preferences. These tourist perceptions, attitudes and preferences were then shown to be an important influence in the development of behavioural intentions. These behavioural intentions are, in turn, a prediction of future behaviour. Therefore, from a tourist behavioural perspective, we have a better understanding of the complex mechanisms that influence tourist decision-making processes regarding the DMZ area of divided Korea.

This study was exploratory and descriptive in nature. The findings could answer the types of ‘what’, ‘where’, ‘who’ or ‘how’ questions posed in the research. However, the evidence was inadequate to identify ‘why’ certain factors appeared in the behavioural models which were associated in selecting the DMZ areas to visit.

Political stability is involved in the repeat visiting of the DMZ area by domestic and international tourists. The images attached may impinge on the choice of the DMZ areas. Tourists’ unique experiences and nostalgic memories may also direct their decisions. It
could be informative to delve into the particular cultural background of visitors in the DMZ areas. In studying tourism cooperation in the DMZ area, the researcher should bear in mind that destinations are unique and complex tourism products. A single tourist destination can provide numerous combinations of attractions, facilities or services that cater for tourists with different needs. The theories could only be realistic reflections of tourists' attitudes, perceptions and preferences of the DMZ area, if this special characteristic is accepted and applied to the notion to explain dynamic peace tourism and politics, and the future reunification of the two Koreas. Therefore, further research should examine the current research question from several perspectives.

First, a comparative study should aim at revealing the perceptions and attitudes of the decision makers group in North Korea. This would provide an understanding of the other party's attitudes and perceptions. Second, an examination of the local community's political and administrative ability to absorb tourism is an important factor that should be considered, based on the political carrying capacity concept that has been applied by Getz, (cited in Hall, 1994a, p. 9). Third, further study on the implication of government policy and ideology in tourism both in South and North Korea is also necessary in order to have a broader view on the implications of peace for future tourism development, its trends, chances and prospects. Fourth, this study attempted to contribute to the understanding of the relationship between political conditions and peace tourism. The private sector could serve as a force for improving the overall economy, employment, infrastructure, investments and political conditions. Marketing research is perhaps the most important aspect that needs to be studied at this point in time. Another aspect to be looked into by future researchers could be a deeper study of
government policies and their implications on tourism in Korea. This in turn will raise the DMZ area’s image as a favourable destination for tourists. Additionally, this research has raised a number of issues related to peace implementation and the effects of political tourism on divided nations. These could be further investigated through an industry-wide quantitative survey of peace tourism and through a number of in-depth case studies with a view to the development of a conceptual framework representing the relationships between peace tourism and politics in divided nations. Lastly, further research should be carried out, extending the study to different types of destinations and deepen the multidimensional nature of the variables. There are a number of directions in which this research could be further developed. The same study could be carried out in North Korea and the opinions of the tourism authorities could be taken with regard to the possible impacts as well as a tourism cooperation of both South and North Korea. Comparison of all these views is expected to contribute substantially to predicting the possible impacts of the two alternative political scenarios on the tourism cooperation of South and North Korea.

Moreover, early peace dividends that have been reaped from the ongoing state of peace in the region have helped to encourage further work and attempts to continue on this path. Further research could look into development and cooperation opportunities with surrounding countries, Japan, Taiwan, Thailand, and China. In order to create a more stable, sustainable tourist industry in the DMZ area further work and research is needed into the nature of the tourist industry and what attracts tourists to this country, and most importantly, what can be done to further promote border tourism and the DMZ development as a peace promoter helping future Korean reunification. Consequently,
the researcher wishes South and North Korean people sing a song “Our Wish” of
Korean tradition together hand-in-hand.

Our Wish

Our wish is unification.

Even in our dream, our wish is unification

Let's sacrifice ourselves to achieve unification

Our people will be revived by unification

Our nation will be restored by unification

Come quick, unification!
APPENDIX A

CHAPTER 2: STUDIES FOCUSING ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TOURISM AND PEACE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Topic/Major Findings/Conclusions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1980 Richter</td>
<td>Four-month content analysis of 3 leading daily newspapers in the Philippines. President Marcos declared martial law in 1972 to maintain order when he introduced “New Society”. Declaration of martial law facilitated marketing the country as a “safe destination” and the tourism industry caused the New Society to be credited for making the country safe. Author asserts that tourism became a political tool and concludes that political stability exceeds scenic/cultural attractions in importance as requisites for successful tourism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983 Richter</td>
<td>Relationships between terrorism and tourism are discussed and parallels are drawn between peaceful travel and diplomatic relations. Author identifies tourists as useful targets for terrorists.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986 D’Amore and Anuza</td>
<td>Review of impacts of terrorism on international travel, travelers’ responses to terrorism threat, marketing implications, and security issues for individuals and tourism industry. Study results indicate that more experienced tourists take terrorism in stride compared with more apprehensive first-time ones.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986 Richter and Waugh, Jr.</td>
<td>Classification of terrorist goals and objectives suggests that attacks on tourism/tourists are considered logical for terrorists opposing socioeconomic and political elites controlling the industry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986 Teye</td>
<td>Discussion of the effects of Zimbabwe’s Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) on Zambia’s tourism industry. Zimbabwe’s liberation war affected tourism in surrounding areas. Zambia’s arrivals declined drastically as a result of withdrawal of ground operators of tourism services, kidnapping of and firing upon tourists, negative publicity, choice of tourism infrastructure as soft targets, restriction of tourist activities, curfews, blackouts, bans on photography, and US State Department issued travel advisory (for Zimbabwe).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988 Brady and Widdows</td>
<td>Study applied consumer demand analysis methods to determine demand for European tourism and to estimate impacts of various occurrences (i.e. terrorism; Chernobyl; US raid on Libya) on 1986 summer tourism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988 Conant, Clark, Burnett And Zank</td>
<td>An empirical study of 359 largest US travel agencies’ response to 1986 terrorism crisis through mail survey. Respondents were asked to explain marketing strategies in light of terrorist threat and evaluate importance of 16 competitive marketing strategy elements in minimizing effects of terrorism. Results indicated promotion, public relations and personal selling play important roles in managing terrorism. Improvements traveler security systems and boycotting destinations sympathetic to terrorists were suggested as additional management strategies. Low response rate (22%) jeopardized generalizability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988 Hurley</td>
<td>Study compared foreign visitation to Rome in 1985 to that in 1986 and examined</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

328
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Study Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>Scott</td>
<td>Author examined the case of Fiji, where tourism suffered as a result of 2 military coups in 1987 within 2 months. Travel advisories issued by Australia and New Zealand, an attempted hijacking of Air New Zealand Boeing 747 at Fiji's international airport, and sensational media coverage exacerbated declines in tourism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>Teye</td>
<td>Author examined political instability in post-colonial Africa by focusing on the effects of coups d'etat on African tourism development in general and Ghana's in particular. Key areas of tourism industry identified as suffering most from military interventions in government include effectiveness of national tourism body when challenged by incoming rulers who void government and its mandates; flow of international tourists curtailed by border closures preventing tourists from entering. Leaving country (trapped tourists during military coup subjected to dawn-to-dusk curfews restricting freedom); damage to country's image resulting from negative media coverage/travel advisories (leading to reluctance of travel agents in suggesting destination to potential travelers); development of resources/attractions and actual delivery of tourism services severely hindered and development plans suspended/canceled during military intervention.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>Hartz</td>
<td>In-depth interviews were conducted with 29 high-level business executives of US multinational corporations who traveled abroad extensively, by board-certified psychiatrist. Study found 66% reported near misses, 31% were victims of actual terrorist events, 2 had over 8 close calls in last 5 years, 83% changed behaviours to more secure behaviours. They experienced restricted freedoms, increased inconvenience, and heightened anxiety.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>Tremblay</td>
<td>Tourism receipts of 18 European countries were examined by pooling secondary data. Receipts represented dependent variable and terrorist activity, transport costs, exchange rates, relative prices, and income represented independent variables in a regression analysis. Study found tourism receipts to have different elasticities with respect to terrorism, according to tourist’s country of origin. Terrorism was not found to have a significant impact on receipts from European tourists unlike receipts from North American tourists which were significantly impacted by terrorism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>Cook, Jr.</td>
<td>Empirical study of the effects of terrorism, crime, political instability on 408 business tourists’ willingness to travel internationally. Survey with hypothetical situations were administered to 140 subjects attending an international security conference. In a second phase, 268 executives were surveyed. Data were analysed using regression and ANOVA. Results indicated that willingness to travel internationally increased parallel to prior experience. Reluctance of executives to change plans in response to media coverage of terrorism was the strongest predictor of executives’ willingness to travel under high risk of terrorism. Subjects feared crime but were found to be more apprehensive about terrorism. Political instability did not elicit serious concern unless accompanied by terrorism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>Hollier</td>
<td>Author examined by effects of the Persian Gulf War on tourist activity. During Gulf War, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Turkey, and United Arab Emirates experienced a sharp drop in tourist arrivals, and a massive re-alignment of international travel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Author(s)</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>Schwartz</td>
<td>Flows was witnessed during Operation Desert Storm. Author examined the case of Tibet during martial law (declared in Lhasa in 1989) and the subsequent transformation of the tourist-lost relationship. Tourists witnessed/photographed demonstrations in which police shot/killed civilians urged by local citizens to carry their message outside.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>Enders, Sandler and Parise</td>
<td>Secondary data were used to examine effects of terrorism on tourism in 12 continental European countries between 1968-1988. Tourism market shares were forecast using ARIMA Model with a transfer function based on time series of terrorist attacks on country/region. Economic cost of terrorism was represented by value of tourist revenues reported by IMF. Study found no possible way to attribute monetary value to tourists’ perceived cost of terrorism. European countries dependent on tourism for foreign exchange lost 12.6 billion in Special Drawing Rights (SDR) FOR Continental Europe, 2.58 billion for Austria, 615 billion for Italy, and 427 billion for Greece ($1 = 0.7431 SDR in 1988) due to terrorism. Study identified “generalisation effect” deterring tourism in one country when its neighbour experiences terrorism. Tourism was found to react to terrorism after 6-9 months.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>Gartner and Shen</td>
<td>Examination of the case of China when its newly developing tourism industry suffered due to worldwide coverage of 1989 Tiananmen Square conflict. Hotel occupancy rates in Beijing fell below 30%, 300 groups (about 11,500 individuals) canceled travel plans, tourism earnings declined by $430 million in 1989.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>Gu and Martin</td>
<td>The increase in passenger arrivals at Orlando International Airport (OIA) was examined by using secondary data. Passengers departing from OIA were surveyed in 1986. Forward stepwise regression procedure and other regression analyses were used. Increase in terrorist hijacking incidents in the Middle East and Europe was found to affect passenger arrivals to OIA positively, indicating a destination substitution effect between Orlando and Europe/ Middle East.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>Witt and More</td>
<td>Empirical study involving personal interviews with attendees to 8 special events in Northern Ireland (NI) in 1985 to examine country’s image as a tourist destination. Study investigated if promoting special events created enough by terrorism and civil unrest. Results pointed to necessity for NI to improve its share of tourism market to encourage increased inbound tourism. To increased visitation, authors developing new tourism products accompanied by heavy promotion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>Ryan</td>
<td>Conceptual study offering a typology of the crime and tourism relationship classified into five types, and terrorism is classified as an advanced from of crime—“organised criminal and terrorist groups commit specific violent acts against tourists and/or facilities”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Hall</td>
<td>Comprehensive book which discusses the relationship between tourism and politics and touches upon the utilisation of tourism by governments for implementing national policies by providing examples from around the world (e.g. Fiji, Australia, New Zealand, Antarctica).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Sönmez, Backman and Allan</td>
<td>Guidebook for managing tourism crises with a focus on natural disasters. “Disaster” and “crisis” are defined for the tourism industry. Authors indicate that repeated terrorist attacks can create a crisis situation for a country if a destination’s image of safety is damaged (e.g. Egypt, Peru, Israel).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>Aziz</td>
<td>Egyptian terrorist incidents against tourists are discussed and friction is attributed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
to a socioeconomic chasm between tourists and locals in Egypt. Tension resulting from clashing cultures and values are used to explain terrorist attacks. Locals' frustration with some tourist behaviours (i.e. Western dress; consumption of pork and alcohol; gambling) which are incongruent with Islamic tradition and cultural values are highlighted.

1995 and 1996 Mansfeld
Examination of relationship between war and tourism with a special emphasis on the "Middle East" factor. Author provides an overview of events impacting the Middle East with a more narrow focus on Israel.

1995 Sharpley and Sharpley
Examination of the repercussions of a military coup on The Gambia’s tourism industry. The Gambia was politically stable from its 1965 independence from Britain until a bloodless coup in 1994. The Travel Advice Unit of British Foreign and Commonwealth Office issued several subsequent and very stringent travel warnings. When tour operators pulled out, arrivals fell from 5,000 to 300, over 2,000 jobs were lost, 8 hotels closed, economic/social conditions deteriorated. Authors suggest that governments of tourism generating countries, can influence flow of tourists for political reasons through travel advisories, and give examples such as US travel bans on Cuba and China and the US boycott of 1980 Moscow Olympics. Authors recommend creating an independent international organisation to collect, update, and disseminate travel information in impartial, accurate, and apolitical manner.

1995 Wahab
Conceptual study examiners Egypt’s terrorist attacks against tourists as “groups trying to revive classic Islamic societal rules to resist corruption of modernity.” Author believes that conservative locals may feel they need to take drastic action to prevent what they perceive as a threat to national culture, tradition, and religious beliefs - in extreme cases, resentment manifests itself terrorism.

1996 Bar-On
Travel and tourism trends are tracked in a complex examination of tourist activity in Egypt, Israel, Spain and Turkey in relation to terrorist attacks, wars, and drastic political problems.

1996 Hall and O’Sullivan
Discussion of link between tourism, political stability, and violence. Authors provide an overview of dimensions of political instability (international wars, civil wars, coups, terrorism, riots/political protests/social unrest, strikes) and focus on the effects of political unrest on the tourism industries of China and Croatia. A list of nations experiencing political instability/violence is included.

1996 Lea
Examination of tourism development in South Pacific island states. Authors explain that “failure on part of tourist developers to design, locate, manage projects in way to ensure community support will ultimately lead to community opposition and likely violence” and adds that local frustration with the industry can ultimately lead to opposition followed by violent action.

1996 mihalić
Case study of the impact of war on tourism in Slovenia. Yugoslavia’s tourism activity halted abruptly due to Balkan wars (Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia-Herzegovina). The Yugoslav army attacked Slovenia in June 1991 - war in Slovenia lasted only for 10 days before moving to Croatia in 1991 and Bosnia-Herzegovina in 1992; however, specialised tour operators for Yugoslavia lost over 1 million booked tourists in 1991.

1996 Pitts
Case study of the Ejercito Zapatista de Liberacion Nacional (EZLN)’s armed rebellion against Mexican government in reaction to NAFTA. Author conducted 27 interviews in 2 stages with hotel owners, government tourism officials, tourism vendors, and tourism minister. San Cristobal in Chiapas (held by Zapatistas)
experienced sharp declines in international/domestic tourism. Author found the emergence of two new tourist types in San Cristobal: “conflict or war tourists” (interested in the action) and journalists, researchers, and human rights activists. Chipas was transformed from ethnic tourism product to one offering experience of conflict and “thrill of political violence”.

1996 Smith

Conceptual study of the link between tourism and war. The author compares the two as having social processes inseparable from underlying cultural threads (groups values, sanctions, beliefs. Behaviours). Social involvement of war separates it from violent crime, war leaves heritage to become permanent tourism makers, war gives special meaning/memory to places/events linking warfare to tourism, and memorabilia constitute large category of attractions around world (e.g. battlefields, cemeteries, memorials/monuments, military museums, historical re-enactments).

1996 Sonmez and Graefe

Empirical study of the relationships between 10 types of risk and overall risk perceptions of US international tourists and the degree of risk associated with 8 geographic regions and top 7 vacation destinations. Results indicate that terrorism, equipment, political instability, and satisfaction risks are most often associated with international travel by American tourists. Equipment, political instability, satisfaction, and physical risks were found to be associated with different geographic regions and specific destinations were associated with equipment, terrorism, and financial risks.

1996 Wahab

In a discussion of Egypt’s retaliation to terrorism, the author explains that Egyptian police force adopted counter-terrorism measures based on tight anticriminal actions to protect country and tourism. Police measures changed from defensive to preventive and reactive to proactive and multifaceted strategy was implemented by Egyptian tourism minister to handle crisis. Author concludes that the only way to provide wide exposure to capture international media’s attention. Recommendations to create positive publicity include initiating special events, providing complete information to international travel professionals and press, and keeping tourists in safe areas.

1996 Wall

Author compares Northern Ireland to Republic of Ireland in terms of tourists numbers, origins of visitors, tourism revenues by country of origin and main travel purpose. Northern Ireland was found to have fewer visitors than the Republic of Ireland, who spent less money because travelers came mostly to visit friends/relatives. Paper concludes that visitors to Northern Ireland were quite aware of terrorist activity and felt less threatened by it because they understood its underlying reasons.

1998 Sonmez and Graefe

Empirical study of relationships between key stages in international vacation decision-making process and threat of terrorism international tourism experience, risk perception level, international attitude, age, gender, education, income, and presence of children in household. A mail survey sent to 500 international tourists achieved a 48% response rate. Data were analysed using multiple and simple regression. International tourism attitude, risk perception level, and income were found to directly influence international destination choice but tourism experience and education emerged as indirect influences.

Source: Sonmez (1998)
**APPENDIX B**

**LIST OF INTERVIEWEES**

The following list gives the names of the expert panel who cooperated in an early phase of the study. The institutes presented in parentheses indicate where the experts are contacted for the interviews.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>List of Interviewees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Academic Sector</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prof. Gang-Hoan Jeong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Euh-Seo Park</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Sang-Kyum Han</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Seok-Chul Kim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prof. Seong-Ki Kim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Young-Jun Yoo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prof. Young-Min Choi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public Sector</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Myung-Ja Kim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Jae-Sung Lee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Young-Yoon Kim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mrs. So-hee Cha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Jang-Yop Hwang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Phil-Soon Park</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Heang-Goo Gwak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Private Sector</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Woon-Sik Chung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Hyung-Soon Choi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Keon-Gu Lee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Sang-Min Lee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Bo-Keun Kim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Man-Cheol Kim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Yong Kim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Jeong-Ja Ann</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Yong-Kil Park</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR EXPERT

This survey in being conducted in order to better understand and serve the needs of domestic and international tourists to the DMZ tourism development and cooperation for future Korean reunification. I appreciate your taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

A. Attitudes towards the South and North Korea Peace Process

1. Generally speaking, how far do you support/reject the peace process between South and North Korea?
   □ Strongly Support
   □ Support
   □ Neutral
   □ Reject
   □ Strongly reject

2. Do you believe in a long lasting reunification between South and North Korea in the future?
   □ Strongly believe
   □ Believe
   □ Neutral
   □ Disbelieve
   □ Strongly Disbelieve

3. Do you believe that the Summit Meeting toward peace and co-existence between South and North Korea will lead to peace in the world?
   □ Strongly believe
   □ Believe somewhat
   □ Don’t know/no comment
   □ Disbelieve somewhat
   □ Strongly disbelieve
4. How do you describe the commitment of the following governments to the peace process between South and North Korea?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Extremely High</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Extremely Low</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In South Korea</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In North Korea</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. The Relationship between Tourism and Peace

5. “Tourism can be a vital force for world peace” (WTO, 1980) how far do you agree with this statement?

- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree somewhat
- [ ] Neither agree nor disagree
- [ ] Disagree somewhat
- [ ] Strongly disagree

6. Peace encourages tourism links between past hostile nations

- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree somewhat
- [ ] Neither agree nor disagree
- [ ] Disagree somewhat
- [ ] Strongly disagree

7. Peace encourages the opportunities for international co-operation and coordination.

- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree somewhat
- [ ] Neither agree nor disagree
- [ ] Disagree somewhat
- [ ] Strongly disagree

8. How far do you agree with the view that investment in tourism is influenced by the peace process?

- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree somewhat
- [ ] Neither agree nor disagree
- [ ] Disagree somewhat
- [ ] Strongly disagree
9. Reduction in military expenditure as a result of the peace, should be channeled to tourism and economic growth.

☐ Strongly agree
☐ Agree somewhat
☐ Neither agree nor disagree
☐ Disagree somewhat
☐ Strongly disagree

10. Peace between South and North Korea will encourage the economic trade links and will benefit all the countries involved.

☐ Strongly agree
☐ Agree somewhat
☐ Neither agree nor disagree
☐ Disagree somewhat
☐ Strongly disagree

11. Comprehensive peace and solution of the South and North conflict is a prerequisite for tourism to prosper in the region.

☐ Strongly agree
☐ Agree somewhat
☐ Neither agree nor disagree
☐ Disagree somewhat
☐ Strongly disagree

C. The impact of peace on tourism development and regional co-operation in the DMZ areas

12. How would you estimate the potential for cross-border regional development in the DMZ areas?

☐ Extremely high
☐ High
☐ Neutral
☐ Low
☐ Extremely low

13. According to the DMZ tourism development, as a result of free tourist movements across the borders within the DMZ areas, how would you envisage:
A. The flow of tourist to:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>South Korea</th>
<th>North Korea</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. International tourists</td>
<td>a. International tourists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Should significantly increase</td>
<td>□ Should Significantly increase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Should increase somewhat</td>
<td>□ Should increase somewhat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Not change</td>
<td>□ Not change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Should decrease somewhat</td>
<td>□ Should decrease somewhat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Should significantly decrease</td>
<td>□ Should significantly decrease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Domestic tourist</td>
<td>b. Domestic tourist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Should significantly increase</td>
<td>□ Should Significantly increase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Should increase somewhat</td>
<td>□ Should increase somewhat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Not change</td>
<td>□ Not change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Should decrease somewhat</td>
<td>□ Should decrease somewhat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Should significantly decrease</td>
<td>□ Should significantly decrease</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Tourist average length of stay in:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SOUTH KOREA</th>
<th>NORTH KOREA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>□ Should significantly increase</td>
<td>□ Should Significantly increase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Should increase somewhat</td>
<td>□ Should increase somewhat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Not change</td>
<td>□ Not change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Should decrease somewhat</td>
<td>□ Should decrease somewhat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Should significantly decrease</td>
<td>□ Should significantly decrease</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. Expenditure per tourist

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SOUTH KOREA</th>
<th>NORTH KOREA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>□ Should significantly increase</td>
<td>□ Should Significantly increase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Should increase somewhat</td>
<td>□ Should increase somewhat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Not change</td>
<td>□ Not change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Should decrease somewhat</td>
<td>□ Should decrease somewhat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Should significantly decrease</td>
<td>□ Should significantly decrease</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14. Tourists perceive the DMZ areas region as dangerous destination. Such perceptions hampers optimal development.
15. If the Peace process is successful, this will attract the following tourists:
   (Please rank according to the likely rates of growth expected 1 – lowest, 5 – highest)
   • Cultural and Heritages tourism seekers /or battlefield tourists
   • Leisure tourists
   • Eco-tourism seekers
   • Peace park tourists
   • Theme park tourists

16. What are the following states expected to gain from regional co-operation in tourism in the DMZ areas. Please rank in order of importance (1 – least, 7 – most important)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SOUTH KOREA</th>
<th>NORTH KOREA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economies of scale</td>
<td>Economies of scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New sources of employment</td>
<td>New sources of employment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional stability</td>
<td>Regional stability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural exchanges</td>
<td>Cultural exchanges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental protection</td>
<td>Environmental protection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversifying the tourism product</td>
<td>Diversifying the tourism product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive advantage</td>
<td>Competitive advantage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>Other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17. How far do you agree with the view that DMZ areas of the two Koreas as a single entity as far as tourism is concerned (namely in terms of marketing, environmental protection, physical planning etc.)

□ Strongly agree
□ Agree somewhat
□ Neither agree nor disagree
□ Disagree somewhat
□ Strongly disagree
18. In principle, are you in favour of regional co-operation in tourism?

- [ ] Strongly favour it
- [ ] Favour it
- [ ] Neither favour nor oppose
- [ ] Oppose it
- [ ] Strongly oppose it

19. What do you consider to be the main barrier to regional co-operation in this region?

- [ ] Differences in economies and cultures
- [ ] Political unrest
- [ ] Bureaucracy
- [ ] Fear from future reliance
- [ ] Lack of propensity to cooperate
- [ ] Lack of Resources
- [ ] Prejudice and suspicion

20. If peace and co-operation is developed between South and North Korea, how do you think the following issues will affect the development and continuation of tourism?

(please tick one of the five possible numbers for each condition to show how important you feel.)

1 – Significantly Improve
2 – Improve somewhat
3 – No change
4 – Worsen somewhat
5 – Significant Worsen

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Easing border procedures and free flow of tourists</th>
<th>Very Positive</th>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Very Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Easing border procedures and free flow of tourists</td>
<td>[ ] 5</td>
<td>[ ] 4</td>
<td>[ ] 3</td>
<td>[ ] 2</td>
<td>[ ] 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Building further accommodation facilities</td>
<td>[ ] 4</td>
<td>[ ] 3</td>
<td>[ ] 2</td>
<td>[ ] 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Shared attraction and facilities</td>
<td>[ ] 4</td>
<td>[ ] 3</td>
<td>[ ] 2</td>
<td>[ ] 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Shared transportation and accessibility (roads, public transports etc.)</td>
<td>[ ] 4</td>
<td>[ ] 3</td>
<td>[ ] 2</td>
<td>[ ] 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Regional airport</td>
<td>[ ] 4</td>
<td>[ ] 3</td>
<td>[ ] 2</td>
<td>[ ] 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Joint marketing and promotion (the DMZ area and its vicinity)</td>
<td>[ ] 4</td>
<td>[ ] 3</td>
<td>[ ] 2</td>
<td>[ ] 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Joint all inclusive tours</td>
<td>[ ] 4</td>
<td>[ ] 3</td>
<td>[ ] 2</td>
<td>[ ] 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Sharing infrastructure</td>
<td>[ ] 4</td>
<td>[ ] 3</td>
<td>[ ] 2</td>
<td>[ ] 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
21. To what extent do you expect the local community's attitude towards the development of cross border regional tourism?

(Please tick one of the five possible numbers for each condition to show how important you feel.)

1 - Strongly favour it
2 - favour it
3 - Neutral/Don't know
4 - Oppose it
5 - Strongly oppose it

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>In the DMZ area and its vicinity of South Korea</th>
<th>In the DMZ area and its vicinity of North Korea</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

22. If the peace process is successful in the area and regional development occurs, how would you envisage the expected growth in the following issues?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major Growth</th>
<th>Moderate Growth</th>
<th>No Change</th>
<th>Oppose it</th>
<th>Strongly Oppose it</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Town's overall tax revenue
- Employ opportunities
- Income and standard of living
- Investments
- Travel agencies
- Package deal organisers
- Transport companies
- Hotels
- Restaurants
23. If the DMZ itself was opened, would you return to the DMZ?
   □ Yes □ No

24. If proper peace existed and if reunification occurred, would you visit North Korea?
   □ Yes □ No

D. Respondent Details:

25. Note characteristics of respondent:
   Male □
   Female □

26. Job definition:

   Seniority:
   Political/Professional appointment

27. Which of these age groups are you in?
   □ 16 - 24
   □ 25 - 34
   □ 35 - 44
   □ 45 - 54
   □ 55 - 64
   □ 65 or over

28. Are you involved in cross border regional co-operation in tourism at present?
   □ Yes
   □ No

29. Where do you live?

30. If you do live in the DMZ areas, please specify for how long?

Thank you very much for your time.
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR EXPERT

안녕하십니까?
저는 영국에서 관광개발을 전공하는 박사과정의 학생으로서 한국관광에 관한 논문을 준비하고 있습니다. 본 조사는 비무장지대 관광개발을 파악함으로써 관광을 통한 남북교류협력의 촉진방안을 마련하고 장래 남북통일에 대비한 관광분야의 기초자료를 확보하는데 그 목적이 있습니다.
조사의 결과는 익명으로 처리되어 통계적 목적으로만 사용되며 담안에는 맞고 토장이 없으므로 느낌으로 술정하게 응답하여 주시면 됩니다. 아무도 불문 통일한국의 관광발전을 위한 소중한 자료로 이용될 수 있도록 협조하여 주시면 감사드리겠습니다.

귀하의 생각을 바탕으로 하여 물음에 응답해 주시면 됩니다. 답은 맞고 토장이 없으므로 평소의 생각이나 느낌대로 해당하시는 것에 "X"로 표시해 주시면 됩니다.

A. 남북평화교류에 대한 태도입니다. 각 문항에 대하여 귀하의 의견을 해당란에 표시해 주십시오.

1. 일반적으로 귀하는 남북평화교류에 대해서 어떻게 생각하십니까?
   □ 매우 그렇다.
   □ 그렇다.
   □ 그저 그렇다.
   □ 아니다.
   □ 전혀 아니다.

2. 장래 남북한간의 통일을 믿으십니까?
   □ 매우 그렇다.
   □ 그렇다.
   □ 그저 그렇다.
   □ 아니다.
   □ 전혀 아니다.

3. 남북한간의 평화협정이 세계평화에 기여한다고 생각하십니까?
   □ 매우 그렇다.
   □ 그렇다.
   □ 그저 그렇다.
   □ 아니다.
   □ 전혀 아니다.

343
4. 남북평화에 대한 남북한 정부는 어떻게 받아들이고 있다고 생각하고 계십니까?
매우 협의적 다소 협의적 보통 다소 부정적 매우 부정적
1  2  3  4  5

5. "관광은 세계 평화에 자대한 반영을 한다(WTO, 1980)" 귀하는 이 statement에 대해 얼마나 동의하십니까?
□ 매우 그렇다.
□ 그렇다.
□ 그저 그렇다.
□ 아니다.
□ 전혀 아니다.

6. 평화는 과거 적대국 사이 간에 관광으로써 가여한다. 귀하는 이 statement에 대해 얼마나 동의하십니까?
□ 매우 그렇다.
□ 그렇다.
□ 그저 그렇다.
□ 아니다.
□ 전혀 아니다.

7. 평화는 국제협력에 대한 기회로 이바지한다.
□ 매우 그렇다.
□ 그렇다.
□ 그저 그렇다.
□ 아니다.
□ 전혀 아니다.

8. 관광투자가 평화에 영향을 준다는 견해에 귀하는 어느 정도 동의하십니까?
□ 매우 그렇다.
□ 그렇다.
□ 그저 그렇다.
□ 아니다.
□ 전혀 아니다.

B. 관광과 평화에 대한 관계

5. "관광은 세계 평화에 자대한 반영을 한다(WTO, 1980)" 귀하는 이 statement에 대해 얼마나 동의하십니까?
□ 매우 그렇다.
□ 그렇다.
□ 그저 그렇다.
□ 아니다.
□ 전혀 아니다.

6. 평화는 과거 적대국 사이 간에 관광으로써 가여한다. 귀하는 이 statement에 대해 얼마나 동의하십니까?
□ 매우 그렇다.
□ 그렇다.
□ 그저 그렇다.
□ 아니다.
□ 전혀 아니다.

7. 평화는 국제협력에 대한 기회로 이바지한다.
□ 매우 그렇다.
□ 그렇다.
□ 그저 그렇다.
□ 아니다.
□ 전혀 아니다.

8. 관광투자가 평화에 영향을 준다는 견해에 귀하는 어느 정도 동의하십니까?
□ 매우 그렇다.
□ 그렇다.
□ 그저 그렇다.
□ 아니다.
□ 전혀 아니다.
9. 평화적 관계결과로 인한 군사비용의 절감은 관광과 경제성장으로 전해져야 한다.
   □ 매우 그렇다.
   □ 그렇다.
   □ 그저 그렇다.
   □ 아니다.
   □ 전혀 아니다.
10. 남북한간의 평화는 경제무역과 양국간에 속한 모든 이익에 이바지할 것이다.
    □ 매우 그렇다.
    □ 그렇다.
    □ 그저 그렇다.
    □ 아니다.
    □ 전혀 아니다.
11. 평화와 남북분단의 해결은 지역사회를 변형하는 데 있어 관광은 필수 조건이다.
    □ 매우 그렇다.
    □ 그렇다.
    □ 그저 그렇다.
    □ 아니다.
    □ 전혀 아니다.

C. 비무장지대에서 관광개발과 남북지역교류에 대한 평화적 영향

12. 귀하는 비무장지대의 경제적개발에 대해 어느정도 기대하십니까?
    □ 매우 높다.
    □ 높다.
    □ 그저 그렇다.
    □ 아니다.
    □ 전혀 아니다.
13. 비무장지대의 관광개발에 의한 경제성 지역의 자유관광은 어느정도 기대하십니까?

   A. 관광객 응직임
   a. 외국 관광객
      □ 매우 증가한다.
      □ 증가한다.
      □ 그저 그렇다.
      □ 감소한다.
      □ 매우 감소한다.
b. 국내 여행자
□ 매우 증가한다.
□ 증가한다.
□ 그저 그렇다.
□ 감소한다.
□ 매우 감소한다.
B. 관광객 평균 체제일
□ 매우 증가한다.
□ 증가한다.
□ 그저 그렇다.
□ 감소한다.
□ 매우 감소한다.
C. 일일당 관광객 지출비용
□ 매우 증가한다.
□ 증가한다.
□ 그저 그렇다.
□ 감소한다.
□ 매우 감소한다.
14. 관광객은 비무장지대를 위험한 관광지역으로써 인식하고 있습니다. 그러한 부정적 인식을 관광개발로써 긍정적으로 바꿀 수 있다고 생각하고 계실니까?
□ 매우 그렇다.
□ 그렇다.
□ 그저 그렇다.
□ 아니다.
□ 전혀 아니다.
15. 만약 남북평화협정이 성공적으로 이루어진다면, 이것은 다음 비무장지대 관광객들에게 매력을 줄 것이다.
(귀하의 의견을 정확으로 답해주시기 바랍니다.)
등급 1 - 매우 낮음 5 - 매우 높음
□ 문화유산유적지
□ 레저
□ 자연생태보전
□ 평화공원
□ 대단의 관광단지
16. 남북관광교류협력사업으로 비무장지대를 개발한다면 다음 사항들을 가다할 수 있습니다.
(귀하의 의견을 채용으로 담해 주시기 바랍니다.)
등급 1 - 매우 낮음 7 - 매우 높음

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>한국</th>
<th>북한</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>경제적 수익</td>
<td>경제적 수익</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>새로운 구직난 해결</td>
<td>새로운 구직난 해결</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>지역경제 안정</td>
<td>지역경제 안정</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>문화 교류</td>
<td>문화 교류</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>환경보호</td>
<td>환경보호</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>다양한 관광상품</td>
<td>다양한 관광상품</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>경제적 이익</td>
<td>경제적 이익</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17. 남북한으로 나뉘어진 비무장지대를 관광으로써 국토통일성을 이룰 수 있다는 견해에 귀하는 어느정도 동의하신니까?
☐ 매우 그렇다.
☐ 그렇다.
☐ 그저 그렇다.
☐ 아니다.
☐ 전혀 아니다.

18. 이론적으로, 귀하는 비무장지대 지역관광교류협력에 어느정도 호의를 가지고 있습니까?
☐ 매우 호의적이다.
☐ 다소 호의적이다.
☐ 그저 그렇다.
☐ 다소 부정적이다.
☐ 매우 부정적이다.

19. 비무장지대에서 지역관광교류협력에 대한 주요 취약점이 무엇이라고 생각하십니까?
(귀하가 생각하시는 모든 것에 √ 으로 답해 주시기 바랍니다.)
☐ 경제와 문화의 차이점
☐ 정치적 불안
☐ 관료 정치
☐ 경제 의존관계의 불안
☐ 협력관계에 대한 부족
☐ 자원부족
☐ 면접성

20. 남북관광교류협력으로 인해 귀하는 비무장지대의 관광개발이 다음 사항들에게 얼마나 영향을 미칠 것이라고 생각하십니까?
(귀하가 중요하다고 생각하시는 모든 사항에 √ 으로 답해 주시기 바랍니다.)
21. 남북한접경지역관광개발에 대한 지역주민의 태도는 어느정도 기대한다고 생각하십니까?
(귀하의 의견을 동급으로 답해 주시기 바랍니다.)
등급 1 - 매우 호의적  5 - 매우 협정적

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>매우 호의적</th>
<th>호의적 변화없음</th>
<th>호의적 변화없음</th>
<th>매우 호의적</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>남한접경지역</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>북한접경지역</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

22. 만약 남북평화협정이 성공적으로 이루어진다면 귀하는 다음 사람들에서 비무장지대 지역개발에 기대하는 성장은 무엇이라고 예측하십니까?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>기대 성장</th>
<th>매우 높음</th>
<th>높음</th>
<th>변화없음</th>
<th>낮음</th>
<th>매우 낮음</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>일반적 지역세</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>일자리 제공</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>수입원과 생활수준</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>투자</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>여행사</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>교통회사</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>호텔</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>레스토랑</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

23. 만약 폐쇄된 비무장지대가 관광객들에게 개방된다면, 귀하는 비무장지대를 방문할 계획이 있으십니까?
☐ 예  ☐ 아니오  ☐ 잘 모르겠다
24. 이래에 남북한 평화협정이 이루어지고 남북한 통일이 일어나다면, 귀하는 북한을 방문할 계획이 있습니까?
   □ 예 □ 아니오 □ 잘 모르겠다

D. 일반 사항

25. 귀하의 성별은
   □ 남성 □ 여성

26. 귀하의 직업은:

27. 귀하의 연령은
   □ 16-24 □ 25-34 □ 35-44
   □ 45-54 □ 55-64 □ 65 또는 그 이상

28. 현재 귀하는 남북한 관광교류협력에 관여하고 계십니까?
   □ 예 □ 아니오

29. 귀하의 거주지는 어디입니까?

30. 무엇이든 짧은 의견이 있으시다면 아래에 적어주시면 감사하겠습니다.


응답해 주셔서 대단히 감사합니다.
**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE STUDY: INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS**

**Your Opinions on the DMZ areas**

*Please tick only one answer for each question with boxes unless specified, or write your answers in the space provided.*

**SECTION A**

Q1. Have you been to Korea before?
   □ Yes □ No

Q2. If so, how many times have you been to Korea?
   □ Once □ Twice □ Three times □ Four times or more

Q3. Have you visited the DMZ areas before?
   □ Yes □ No

Q4. If so, how many times have you visited the DMZ areas?
   □ Once □ Twice □ Three times □ Four times or more

Q5. What is the purpose of this trip to the DMZ?
   □ Pleasure/Vacation
   □ Visiting friends / relatives
   □ Business
   □ Other (Please specify: )

Q6. What prompted you to take a trip to the DMZ areas?
   □ Advice of a travel agent
   □ Recommendations of friends/relatives
   □ Advertisements (TV, radio, newspapers, magazines)
   □ Progammes or articles (TV, radio, newspapers, magazines)
   □ Other (Please specify: )

Q7. How would you categorise this trip?
   □ Independent trip (includes travel with family, friends or on business)
   □ Package tour organised by tour operators
   □ Group tour organised by an organisation you are associated with
   □ Special training or other group trip sponsored by your company

350
Q8. Are you likely to visit the DMZ areas again?
□ Yes □ No

Q9. Would you recommend the DMZ areas to your friends or relatives?
□ Yes □ No

SECTION B

Q10. What is your overall perception about the current situation between South and North Korea?
□ Strongly positive
□ Positive
□ Neutral
□ Negative
□ Strongly negative

Q11. What is your overall perception about the future between South and North Korea?
□ Strongly positive
□ Positive
□ Neutral
□ Negative
□ Strongly negative

Q12. How much do you agree or disagree with these statements?
1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Neither agree nor disagree
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree
SECTION C

Q13. If the DMZ itself was opened, would you return to the DMZ?
□ Yes □ No

Q14. If the DMZ was open, would you visit it as a war site or as an ecological park etc., for example? (Please rank according to the likely rates of growth expected 1 – lowest 5 – highest).
□ War site (Cultural and Heritages tourism)
□ Leisure
□ Ecological park
□ Peace park
□ Theme park

Q15. If proper peace existed and if reunification occurred, would you visit North Korea?
□ Yes □ No

Q16. If so, why would you visit North Korea?

---

352
Q17. If political conditions changed between South and North Korea, would you think that have effect on your visitation to the South?
☐ Yes ☐ No

Q18. If political conditions changed, would you come back to South Korea again?
☐ Yes ☐ No

Q19. If so, what reason for the visit to South Korea?

SECTION D

Q20. You are:
☐ Male ☐ Female

Q21. Which of these age groups are you in?
☐ 16-24 ☐ 25-34 ☐ 35-44
☐ 45-54 ☐ 55-64 ☐ 65 or over

Q22. Your country of residence:
   Country: ____________________________

   Region (County, City, etc.): ____________________________

Thank you very much for your kind co-operation.
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE STUDY: DOMESTIC VISITORS

Your Opinions on the DMZ areas

Please tick only one answer for each question with boxes unless specified, or write your answers in the space provided.

SECTION A

Q1. Have you visited the DMZ areas before?
   □ Yes   □ No

Q2. If so, how many times have you visited the DMZ areas?
   □ Once     □ Twice     □ Three times     □ Four times or more

Q3. What is the purpose of this trip to the DMZ?
   □ Pleasure/Vacation
   □ Visiting friends/relatives
   □ Business
   □ Other (Please specify: )

Q4. What prompted you to take a trip to the DMZ areas?
   □ Advice of a travel agent
   □ Recommendations of friends/relatives
   □ Advertisements (TV, radio, newspapers, magazines)
   □ Programmes or articles (TV, radio, newspapers, magazines)
   □ Other (Please specify: )

Q5. How would you categorise this trip?
   □ Independent trip (includes travel with family, friends or on business)
   □ Package tour organised by tour operators
   □ Group tour organised by an organisation you are associated with
   □ Special training or other group trip sponsored by your company

Q6. Are you likely to visit the DMZ areas again?
   □ Yes     □ No

Q7. Would you recommend the DMZ areas to your friends or relatives?
   □ Yes     □ No
SECTION B

Q8. What is your overall perception about the current situation between South and North Korea?

□ Strongly positive
□ Positive
□ Neutral
□ Negative
□ Strongly negative

Q9. What is your overall perception about the future between South and North Korea?

□ Strongly positive
□ Positive
□ Neutral
□ Negative
□ Strongly negative

Q10. How much do you agree or disagree with these statements?

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Neither agree nor disagree
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree
### General Background of Knowledge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General Background of Knowledge</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Tourism can be a vital force for world peace.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Peace encourages tourism links between past hostile nations.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Investment in tourism is influenced by the peace process.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Comprehensive peace and solution of the South and North conflict is a prerequisite for tourism to prosper in the region.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The DMZ area region is a dangerous tourist destination.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### SECTION C

Q11. If the DMZ itself was opened, would you return to the DMZ?
- □ Yes  □ No

Q12. If the DMZ was open, would you visit it as a war site or as an ecological park, for example?
(Please rank according to the likely rates of growth expected 1-lowest, 5-highest).
- □ War site (Cultural and Heritage tourism)
- □ Leisure
- □ Ecological park
- □ Peace park
- □ Theme park

Q13. If proper peace existed and if reunification occurred in the future, would you visit North Korea?
- □ Yes  □ No

Q14. If so, why would you visit North Korea?
SECTION D

In this final section, please answer some questions about yourself. Please complete all questions. The information will be held in strict confidence and used for research purposes only.

Q15. You are:
   □ Male □ Female

Q16. Which of these age groups are you in?
   □ 16-24  □ 25-34
   □ 35-44  □ 45-54
   □ 55-64  □ 65 or over

Q17. Where in Korea are you living now?
   ____________________________  ____________________________
   (city/town)                    (county)

Q18. Which of the following describes your age of finishing full-time education?
   □ Up to 18 years  □ 19 to 22 years
   □ Over 22 years  □ Still studying

Q19. Your occupation?
   □ Government Official
   □ Military
   □ Self-employed/business owner
   □ Company employee
   □ Sales/Service worker
   □ Professional (professor, doctor, lawyer, etc.)
   □ Technical
   □ Agricultural/Fishery
   □ Student
   □ Homemaker
   □ Retired
   □ Other (Please specify: )

Q20. What is your total annual income?
   (Please tick your total household income and indicated in Won).
☐ Under 10,000,000
☐ 10,000,000 – 19,999,999
☐ 20,000,000 – 29,999,999
☐ 30,000,000 – 39,999,999
☐ 40,000,000 and over

Thank you very much for your kind co-operation.
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE STUDY: DOMESTIC VISITORS

안녕하십니까?
저는 영국에서 관광개발을 전공하는 박사과정의 학생으로서 한국관광에 관한 논문을 준비하고 있습니다. 본 조사는 비무장지대 관광개발을 파악함으로써 관광을 통한 남북교류협력의 촉진방안을 마련하고 장래 남북통일에 대비한 관광분야의 기초자료를 확보하는데 그 목적이 있습니다.
조사의 결과는 익명으로 처리되어 통계적 목적으로만 사용되며 답에는 맞고 틀림이 없으므로 느끼신대로 솔직하게 응답하여 주시면 됩니다. 아무도 역시 통일한국의 관광발전을 위한 소중한 자료로 이용될 수 있도록 협조하여 주시면 감사드리겠습니다.

귀하의 생각을 바탕으로 하여 물음에 응답해 주시면 됩니다. 답은 맞고 틀림이 없으므로 평소의 생각이나 느낌대로 대답하시는 것에 “☑”로 표시해 주시면 됩니다.

SECTION A

1. 귀하는 전에 비무장지대를 방문한 적이 있으십니까?
   ☐ 예 ☐ 아니오

2. 만약 방문하셨다면, 귀하의 비무장지대 방문은 몇번째이십니까?
   ☐ 1회 ☐ 2회 ☐ 3회 ☐ 4회 이상

3. 귀하의 비무장지대 방문목적은 무엇입니까?
   ☐ 관광 ☐ 방문 (친구, 친지) ☐ 업무 ☐ 기타 (적어주십시오: )

4. 귀하께서 비무장지대를 여행하게 된 동기는 무엇입니까?
   ☐ 여행사의 추천
   ☐ 친구나 친지의 추천
   ☐ 광고 (TV/라디오/신문/잡지)
   ☐ 보도내용 (TV/라디오/신문/잡지)

5. 귀하의 비무장지대여행은 어느 형태의 여행입니까?
   ☐ 개별여행 (가족여행, 업무여행, 친구와의 여행 등)
   ☐ 여행사 단체 관광
   ☐ 전용단체 또는 소속단체가 조직한 관광
   ☐ 회사 또는 소속단체가 여행비용을 대는 연수 또는 여행

6. 귀하는 비무장지대로 다시 방문할 의사가 있으십니까?
   ☐ 예 ☐ 아니오

7. 귀하는 비무장지대의 여행을 친구나 친지에게 추천하실 의사가 있으십니까?
   ☐ 예 ☐ 아니오
SECTION B

8. 남북관계의 현재 상황에 대한 귀하의 일반적인 견해는 어떻게 보십니까?
   □ 아주 긍정적임
   □ 긍정적임
   □ 보통임
   □ 부정적임
   □ 아주 부정적임

9. 장래 남북한 관계에 대한 귀하의 일반적인 견해는 어떻게 보십니까?
   □ 아주 긍정적임
   □ 긍정적임
   □ 보통임
   □ 부정적임
   □ 아주 부정적임

10. 다음 STATEMENT에 대하여 귀하는 어느정도 동의/비등의 허심니까?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>일반적 지식</th>
<th>아주 동의</th>
<th>동의</th>
<th>보통</th>
<th>비등의</th>
<th>아주비등의</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>관광은 세계평화에 지대한 반영을 한다.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>평화는 과거 적대국간에 관광으로써 기여한다.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>관광투자는 평화로써 영향을 준다.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>평화와 남북분쟁의 해결은 지역사회를 번영하는데 있어 관광은 필수조건이다.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>비무장지대는 위험한 관광지역이다.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SECTION C

11. 만약 폐쇄된 남북한 비무장지대를 관광객들에게 완전 개방한다면, 귀하는 비무장지대를 방문할 계획을 가지고 계십니까?
   □ 예 □ 아니오

12. 만약 폐쇄된 남북한 비무장지대를 관광객들에게 완전 개방한다면, 귀하는 어떤 분야에 관심을 가지고 방문할 계획을 가지고 계십니까? (귀하의 의견을 듣기로 담해주시기 바랍니다.)
   등급 1 - 매우 낮음 5 - 매우 높음
13. 만약 가까운 미래에 남북한 평화협정이 이루어지고 남북한 통일이 일어난다면, 귀하는
책임을 방출할 계획이 있으십니까?
 □ 예 □ 아니오
14. 만약 그렇다면, 어떠한 이유로 방출하실 계획이십니까?

SECTION D

15. 귀하의 성별?
 □ 남성 □ 여성
16. 귀하의 연령?
 □ 16-24 □ 25-34 □ 35-44 □ 45-54 □ 55-64 □ 65 이상
17. 귀하의 거주지는 어디입니까?

18. 귀하의 교육정도는?
 □ 고졸 이하 □ 고졸 □ 대졸 □ 대졸이상
19. 귀하의 직업은?
 □ 공무원 □ 군인 □ 기업인 □ 회사인 □ 판매, 서비스직
 □ 기술직 □ 농 농업 □ 학생 □ 주부 □ 퇴직자
 □ 기타 (적어주십시오: )
20. 귀하의 연수입은?
 □ 10,000,000원 이하
 □ 10,000,000 - 19,999,999
 □ 20,000,000 - 29,999,999
 □ 30,000,000 - 39,999,999
 □ 40,000,000 이상

응답해 주셔서 감사합니다.
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE STUDY: INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS

안녕하십니까?
지는 영국에서 관광개발을 전공하는 박사과정의 학생으로서 한국관광에 관한 논문을 준비하고 있습니다. 본 조사는 비무장지대 관광개발을 파악함으로써 관광을 통한 남북교류협력의 촉진방안을 마련하고 정해 남북통일에 대비한 관광분야의 기초자료를 확보하는데 그 목적이 있습니다.
조사의 결과는 익명으로 처리되어 통계적 목적으로만 사용되며 답에에는 맞고 틀림이 없으므로 느긋하게 숙제하게 응답하여 주시면 됩니다. 앞으로도 미래 통일한국의 관광발전을 위한 소중한 자료로 이용될 수 있도록 협조하여 주시면 감사드리겠습니다.

귀하의 생각을 바탕으로 하여 물음에 응답해 주시면 됩니다. 답은 맞고 틀림이 없으므로 평소의 생각이나 느낀대로 해당하시는 것에 "✓" 로 표시해 주시면 됩니다.

SECTION A

1. 귀하는 전에 한국을 방문한 적이 있으신가?
   □ 예 □ 아니오

2. 만약 방문하셨다면, 귀하의 한국방문은 몇번째이십니까?
   □ 1회 □ 2회 □ 3회 □ 4회 이상

3. 귀하는 전에 비무장지대를 방문한 적이 있으신가?
   □ 예 □ 아니오

4. 만약 방문하셨다면, 귀하의 비무장지대 방문은 몇번째이십니까?
   □ 1회 □ 2회 □ 3회 □ 4회 이상

5. 귀하의 비무장지대 방문목적은 무엇입니까?
   □ 관광 □ 방문 (친구, 친절) □ 업무 □ 기타 (적어주시십시오: )

6. 귀하께서 비무장지대를 여행하게 된 동기는 무엇입니까?
   □ 여행사의 추천
   □ 친구나 친지의 추천
   □ 광고 (TV/라디오/신문/잡지)
   □ 보도내용 (TV/라디오/신문/잡지)

7. 귀하의 비무장지대여행은 어느 형태의 여행입니까?
   □ 개별여행 (가족여행, 업무여행, 친구와의 여행 등)
   □ 여행사 단체 관광
   □ 친구단체 또는 소속단체가 조직한 관광
   □ 회사 또는 소속단체가 여행비용을 대하는 연수 또는 여행

362
8. 귀하는 비무장지대를 다시 방문할 의사가 있으십니까?
   □ 예  □ 아니오
9. 귀하는 비무장지대의 여행을 친구나 친지에게 추천하실 의사가 있으십니까?
   □ 예  □ 아니오

SECTION B

10. 남북관계의 현재 상황에 대한 귀하의 일반적인 견해는 어떻게 보십니까?
    □ 아주 긍정적임
    □ 긍정적임
    □ 보통임
    □ 부정적임
    □ 아주 부정적임

11. 장래 남북관계에 대한 귀하의 일반적인 견해는 어떻게 보십니까?
    □ 아주 긍정적임
    □ 긍정적임
    □ 보통임
    □ 부정적임
    □ 아주 부정적임

12. 다음 STATEMENT에 대하여 귀하는 어느정도 동의/비동의 하십니까?

   1- 아주 동의함         5- 아주 비동의함

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>일반적 지식</th>
<th>아주 동의</th>
<th>동의</th>
<th>보통</th>
<th>비동의</th>
<th>아주비동의</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>관광은 세계평화에 지대한 반영을 한다.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>평화는 과거 적대국간에 관광으로써 가야한다.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>관광투자는 평화로써 영향을 준다.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>평화와 남북분쟁의 해결은 지역사회를 변형하는데 있어 관광은 필수조건이다.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>비무장지대는 위험한 관광지역이다.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SECTION C

13. 만약 폐쇄된 남북한 비무장지대를 관광객들에게 완전 개방한다면, 귀하는 비무장지대를 방문할 계획을 가지고 계십니까?
   □ 예  □ 아니오
14. 만약 폐쇄된 남북한 비무장지대를 관광객들에게 완전 개방한다면, 귀하는 어떤 분야에 관심을 가지고 방문할 계획을 가지고 싶습니까? (귀하의 의견을 등급으로 답변하시기 바랍니다. (등급 1 - 매우 낮음 5 - 매우 높음)
- 전쟁터 (문화유산 유적지)
- 레저
- 자연생태보존
- 평화공원
- 대단히의 관광단지
15. 만약 가까운 미래에 남북한 평화협정이 이루어지고 남북한 통일이 일어나다면, 귀하는 북한을 방문할 계획이 있으십니까?
- 예
- 아니오
16. 만약 그렇다면, 어떠한 이유로 방문하실 계획이십니까?

SECTION D

17. 귀하의 성별?
- 남성
- 여성
18. 귀하의 연령?
- 16-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-54
- 55-64
- 65 이상
19. 귀하의 거주지는 어디입니까?

20. 귀하의 교육정도는?
- 고졸 이하
- 고졸
- 대졸
- 대졸이상
21. 귀하의 직업은?
- 공무원
- 군인
- 기업인
- 회사인
- 판매, 서비스직
- 기술직
- 농, 어업
- 학생
- 주부
- 퇴직자
- 기타 (적어주시십시오: )
22. 귀하의 연수입은?
- 10,000,000원 이하
- 10,000,000-19,999,999
- 20,000,000-29,999,999
- 30,000,000-39,999,999
- 40,000,000 이상

응답해주셔서 감사합니다.
韓国に訪問したことがある日本人からのアンケート

私は英語で観光開発を専攻する博士課程にある学生で韓国観光に関する論文を準備しております。
本調査は非武装地帯の観光開発を把握するとして観光を通じて南北交流協力の促進方向を模索して将来の南北統一に対備する観光分野の基礎資料を確保するのにその目的があります。
この調査の結果は匿名で処理して統計的客観性だけで使用します。答えは正と不がありませんので考えを率直に答えなさい。未来統一戦国の観光発展のための貴重な資料として利用できるようにご協力をお願い致します。

貴方の考えにもとづいて" "でチェックしてください。

1. あなたは今回の訪問の以前に韓国に訪問したことがありますか。
   1) はい
   2) いいえ

2. あなたは今回の韓国訪問が何番目の訪問ですか。
   1) 1回
   2) 2回
   3) 3回
   4) 4回以上

3. あなたは今回の訪問の以前に非武装地帯に訪問したことがありますか。
   1) はい
   2) いいえ

4. あなたは今回の非武装地帯訪問が何番目の訪問ですか。
   1) 1回
   2) 2回
   3) 3回
   4) 4回以上

5. あなたの今回の非武装地帯訪問の目的は何ですか。
   1) 観光
   2) 訪問
   3) 業務
   4) その他(具体的には__________________________)
6. あなたの今回の非武装地帯訪問のきっかけは何ですか。
   1) 旅行社の推薦
   2) ともだちなどの推薦
   3) 廣告(テレビ、ラジオ、新聞、雑誌)
   4) マスコミ(テレビ、ラジオ、新聞、雑誌)
   5) その他(具体的に__________________________________________)

7. あなたの今回の非武装地帯訪問の旅行形態は何ですか。
   1) 個別旅行(家族旅行、業務旅行、友達との旅行)
   2) 旅行社に通じて
   3) 所属団体、親睦団体など
   4) 会社などの旅行経費が支援する形態
   5) その他(具体的に__________________________________________)

8. あなたは非武装地帯に再び訪問する計画がありますか。
   1) はい
   2) いいえ

9. あなたは周囲の知人へ非武装地帯の訪問を推薦する思いがありますか。5点満点の中で選んでください。
   1) 非常に推薦する
   2) 推薦する
   3) 半分
   4) 推薦しない
   5) 全然推薦しない

10. 南北関係の現在状況についてあなたの一般的見解はどうですか。
    1) 非常に肯定的
    2) 肯定的
    3) 普通
    4) 否定的
    5) ひじょうに否定的

11. 将来の南北関係についてあなたの一般的見解はどうですか。
    1) 非常に肯定的
    2) 肯定的
    3) 普通
    4) 否定的
    5) ひじょうに否定的

12. 次の事項についてあなたはどのくらい同意しますか。 (ボックスのなかの番号にOをかけてください)
1) 非常に同意 2) 同意 3)普通 4)同意しない 5)ぜったい同意しない
a. 観光は世界平和に大きな反面を有する。
b. 平和は過去の敵対国間の間で観光で寄与する。
c. 観光投資は平和で影響を及ぼす。
d. 平和と南北分争の解決は観光が必須条件だ。
e. 非武装地帯は危険な観光地域だ。

13. もしあなたは非武装地帯が完全開放したら訪問する計画がありますか。
   1) はい
   2) いいえ

14. もし閉鎖していた非武装地帯を観光客に完全開放したらあなたは次の分野のなかでどの分野に関心がどのくらいか、評価してください。

        高い  低い
1) 戦場(文化遺産、遺跡地)
2) レジャー
3) 自然生態保存
4) 平和公園
5) 大規模の観光施設

15. もし南北統一になると北韓に訪問する計画がありますか。
   1) はい    問題 13-1へ
   2) いいえ  問題 14へ

16. なぜ訪問する思いですか。

17. もし韓国と北朝鮮との政治的状況が変わると(平和協定、または統一、あなたの訪問の果があると思いますか。
   1) はい
   2) いいえ

18. もし韓国と北朝鮮との政治的状況が変わると(平和協定、または統一、あなたの再び訪問するつもりですか。
   1) はい
   2) いいえ
19. 訪問の理由はなんですか。

20. 貴方の性別は。
   1) 男子
   2) 女子

21. あなたの年齢は。
   1) 24歳以下
   2) 25-34歳
   3) 35-44歳
   4) 45-54歳
   5) 55-64歳
   6) 65歳以上

22. 貴方のアドレスは。

____________________ 国
____________________ 地域

アンケートにお答えいただきまごとにしてくださってどうもありがとうございました。
各位好。
我是在英国学观光开发的博士班学生，正在撰写关于韩国观光的论文。本调查的目的在于调查非军事区的观光开发前景，通过观光促进南北韩交流与合作，面对南北韩统一确保观光领域的基础资料。
本调查采用匿名方式填写，仅供统计资料之用。由于答案没有对、错之分，希望被调查人随心所欲地回答每项问题。仅希望各位为了让此次调查成为统一后韩国观光开发的重要资料而积极予以合作。谢谢。

按照各位的想法，请回答每个项目

答案没有对、错，请各位按照自己的想法或感觉，以“√”表示。

SECTION A

1. 您在此次访问之前，有没有到过韩国呢？
   1）有
   2）没有

2. 您几次到访过韩国呢？
   1）1次
   2）2次
   3）3次
   4）4次以上

3. 此次访问之前，有没有到访过非军事区呢？
   1）有
   2）没有

4. 您几次到访过非军事区呢？
   1）1次
   2）2次
   3）3次
   4）4次以上

5. 您问非军事区的目的何在？
   1）观光
   2）探访（朋友、亲戚）
   3）工作
   4）其他（具体说明：________________________）

6. 您为何来非军事区旅游？
1) 旅行社的推荐
2) 朋友或亲戚的推荐
3) 广告（TV/广播/报纸/杂志）
4) 报道内容（TV/广播/报纸/杂志）
5) 其他（具体说明：）

7. 您此次非军事区旅游是哪种方式的旅游？
   1) 个人旅游（家庭旅游，公务旅游，和朋友一起旅游等）
   2) 旅行社组织的团体旅游
   3) 友好团体或所属单位组织的旅游
   4) 公司或所属单位负担所有旅游费用的进修或旅游
   5) 其他（具体说明：）

8. 您想不想再次访问非军事区？
   1) 想
   2) 不想

9. 若您把非军事区观光推荐给朋友或周边人士，满分程度5分中可以打几分？

   1) 积极推荐
   2) 推荐
   3) 没决定
   4) 不推荐
   5) 绝对不推荐

SECTION B

10. 对于目前南北韩关系，您有什么看法？
    1) 非常肯定
    2) 肯定
    3) 一般水平
    4) 否定
    5) 完全否定

11. 对于未来南北韩关系发展，您有什么看法？
    1) 非常肯定
    2) 肯定
    3) 一般水平
    4) 否定
    5) 完全否定

12. 对于以下项目，您的同意程度如何？[请在表格中的号码上划圈]
    1- 非常同意  2- 同意  3- 一般  4- 不同意  5- 完全不同意
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>非常同意</th>
<th>同意</th>
<th>一般</th>
<th>不同意</th>
<th>完全不同意</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. 旅游为世界和平作出极大贡献</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 在过去战对的两国营造和平时，旅游可起到积极作用。</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 旅游投资可影响到和平。</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 在谋求和平、南北韩关系改善以及地区繁荣的过程中，旅游是不可或缺的条件。</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. 非军事区是危险的旅游区</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section C

13. 如果完全开放关闭状态的南北韩非军事区，您有没有计划访问非军事区？
   1) 有
   2) 没有

14. 如果完全开放关闭状态的南北韩非军事区，您对以下各项目的关心程度如何？请分6个等级回答。


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>非常高</th>
<th>非常低</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. 战争遗迹（文化遗产遗迹）</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 休闲</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 自然生态环境</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 和平公园</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. 大规模旅游区</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15. 如果在不远的将来，南北韩签署和平协定，实现南北韩统一，您有没有计划访问北韩？
   1) 有 ➔ 请回答13-1项
   2) 没有 ➔ 请回答14项

16. 您访问的理由是什么？

17. 如果在韩国和北韩之间的政治情况发生变化（和平协定或统一），会不会影响到您的韩国访问？
   1) 会
   2) 不会
   3) 不太清楚

18. 如果政治情况发生变化（和平协定或统一），您会不会再次访问韩国？
19. 如果还是会访问的话，其理由是什么？

Section D

20. 您的性别
   1）男性
   2）女性

21. 您的年纪
    1）24岁以下
    2）25-34岁
    3）35-44岁
    4）45-54岁
    5）55-64岁
    6）65岁以上

22. 您的地址
    国家
    地区

谢谢您的积极合作，以上数据将作为重要资料供有关研究参考。
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Archer, B. (1998). *Tourism in East Asia and the Pacific Region*. The fourth Asia Pacific Tourism Association Conference in Tanyang, Korea, 18-21 August, pp. 4-12.


393


Korea Trade Association (KOTRA) (2002). *North Korea Attracting Foreign Tourists to Arirang Festival*. Seoul: KOTRA.


Langfitt, F. (2000). *Korea DMZ considered for Park* [Online]. Available e-mail: http://www.dmzforum.org/Baltimoresun.htm


Niksch, L. A. (2002). *CRS Issue Brief for Congress: North Korea’s Nuclear Weapons Programme*. Received through the CRS Web:


Managers and Researchers (pp. 219-231). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.


Publications.


Sons.


http://www.stat.ualberta.ca.


http://www.chosun.com


http://www.dmzforum.org/events.htm.


http://www.megastories.com/nkorea/glossary/war.htm

-------- (2001b). *The Demilitarized Zone is Anything But* [Online].
http://www.megastories.com/nkorea/glossary/dmz/htm

418
Web Sites

http://www.dmzforum.org
http://www.dmztour.com/english/text/top.htm
http://www.economist.com
http://www.gyeonggi.go.kr
http://www.hk.co.kr
http://www.knto.co.kr
http://www.koreaconomy.co.kr
http://www.koreaherald.co.kr
http://www.koreascope.org
http://www.latimes.com
http://www.media.grantie.k12.ut.us
http://www.nyu.edu
http://www.panmunjontour.com/english/text/top.htm
http://www.stat.ualberta.ca
http://www.unikorea.go.kr
http://www.usip.org
http://www.wttc.com
http://www.yonhapnews.co.kr