旅游教育系列教材

旅游英语阅读教程

An English
Course on

杨燕 主编
乌永志

陕西人民出版社

旅游教育系列教材

旅游英语阅读教程

An English Reading Course on Tourism

主　编　杨　燕　乌永志
编　者　张　芒　高佳璟　文晓莉
　　　　黄文英　杨　燕

陕 西 人 民 出 版 社

“旅游教育系列教材”编辑委员会

前　　言

《旅游英语阅读教程》一书是西安外国语大学旅游学院为高校旅游专业及旅游从业人员编写的“旅游教育系列教材”之一。

快速发展的旅游业已成为我国经济发展的支柱产业之一，旅游从业人员队伍不断壮大。然而，我国旅游业的现状是人力资源供大于求，而人才资源供不应求。旅游企业目前急需一大批既具有中西方文化知识、旅游知识，又具有外语能力的复合型中高级旅游人才。《旅游英语阅读教程》就是顺应市场需要而编写的。其目的是扩大旅游专业高年级学生旅游方面的知识，巩固和提高其英语语言知识和阅读能力，为未来的旅游经营与管理打下坚实的专业外语基础。

该教材内容新颖丰富，反映了国际、国内旅游学科的发展动态；选材范围广泛，内容涉及国内外旅游名胜古迹、文化习俗、游客、旅游资源、旅行社、饭店等与旅游相关的诸多方面的内容；选材体裁多样，有研究性文章，有数据资料，有旅游经典文章等。通过阅读这些英语原文，学生将对客源国文化概况、国内外游客心理特征、旅游管理、饭店管理、国内外旅游研究、自然旅游资源等有一个全面的认识。该书将把语言基本功的训练和旅游专业方面的知识培养有机结合起来，既提高了学生的英语语言水平，又传授了旅游专业的相关知识。

本书共有 16 个单元，每个单元由课文、常用词汇、注释、阅读理解问题和补充阅读材料等五部分组成。常用词汇表列增与题材相关的词和词组，旨在帮助学生扩大词汇量。每单元后的阅读理解问题除检查学生对所阅读的文章的理解外，还设置有 2 至 3 个扩充思考题，可供学生在课堂或课外讨论。补充材料供学生课外阅读，目的是进一步丰富学生的

文化知识。

在本教材编写过程中，我们参考了一些英语教材，并选用了一些作为课文。凡选用资料的书籍，我们在书后附录了参考书目。特此向这些编者致以衷心的感谢。

我们还要真诚地感谢外籍专家 Aram Son 和我院研究生高倩、王渊博在本教材编写过程中给予的热心帮助和大力支持。

由于时间短、任务急，又限于水平，错误和疏漏之处在所难免，敬请读者批评和指正。

编　者

2006 年 5 月

Contents

Unit One **Overview of Tourism Industry** .... (1)
——Supplementary Reading
A Brief History of Travel
Unit Two **Economic Impacts of Tourism** .... (11)
——Supplementary Reading
Cultural Effects of Tourism
Unit Three **The World Tourism Organization** .... (23)
——Supplementary Reading
U.S. and China Sign WTO Deal
Unit Four **Special Services and Products** .... (36)
——Supplementary Reading
Travel Growth and Employment
Unit Five **Special Segments of Business Travel** .... (49)
——Supplementary Reading
Geography and the Travel Industry
Unit Six **Ecotourism: Threat or Opportunity?** .... (61)
——Supplementary Reading
The International Tourist
Unit Seven **Prioritizing Cultural Heritage in the Asia-Pacific Region—Role of City Governments** .... (71)
——Supplementary Reading
System Geography
Unit Eight **Chinese Outbound Tourism** .... (81)
——Supplementary Reading
Common Health Problems
Unit Nine **Challenges of Globalization** .... (92)
——Supplementary Reading
The English Character

Unit Ten **Can Confucianism Help Human Civilization?** ……… (100)
——Supplementary Reading
Feast Fit for a Medieval King
Unit Eleven **United States of America** ……………………………… (110)
——Supplementary Reading
U.S. Now More Diverse, Ethnically and Racially
Unit Twelve **Presidential and Parliamentary Systems** ………… (123)
——Supplementary Reading
Frequent Traveler Program
Unit Thirteen **Seven Wonders of the Ancient World** ………… (138)
——Supplementary Reading
Sydney Opera House
Unit Fourteen **Types of Service in the Hospitality Industry** … (152)
——Supplementary Reading
Who Travels Today?
Unit Fifteen **China's Hotel Industry** ……………………………… (165)
——Supplementary Reading
The Growth of Hotel Chains
Unit Sixteen **United States Tourism Policy** ……………………… (180)
——Supplementary Reading
How Tourism Can Contribute to Socio-Cultural Conservation

Bibliography ………………………………………………………………… (194)

Unit One

Overview of Tourism Industry

The travel and tourism industry is the world's largest and most diverse industry. Many nations rely on this dynamic industry as a primary source for generating revenues, employment, private sector growth, and infrastructure development. Tourism development is encouraged, particularly among the developing countries around the world, when other forms of economic development, such as manufacturing or the exportation of natural resources, are not commercially viable.

The reasons people desire to travel are complex and varied. Contributing to the powerful growth tourism has experienced in a relatively short time frame has been the increased accessibility to the many components of the travel experience. Transportation to, from, and within parts of the world once considered remote has become more affordable for, and within the reach of, the majority of residents in many nations. Accommodations and restaurants in assorted budget categories are universally found in major cities, resort locations, adjacent to airports and thoroughfares, and in rural areas. Professional services provided by travel agencies and tour operators, marketing efforts by public sector tourism offices, advanced technology that rapidly brings the tourism components together in a flash for the potential traveler—all make today's travel experience safe, comfortable, and enjoyable.

Forms and Categories of Travel

Just as there are different types of visitors, there are different forms and categories of travel which take place, varying by traveler, destination, and motive for travel, such as international vs. domestic travel, intraregional vs. interregional travel, as well as inbound vs. outbound travel.

International and Domestic Tourism

According to the WTO, international tourism differs from domestic tourism and occurs when the traveler crosses a country's border. Not every international traveler is a visitor, however. The traveler is a visitor only if the trip takes him or her outside the usual environment, e.g., workers who cross borders for employment are not considered visitors. The interest in international tourism has always been strong, primarily for economic reasons, as this form of tourism plays an important role in trade and monetary flows among nations.

Domestic tourism has been overshadowed by the interest in international tourism, for it was thought initially to have little or no international impact, and statistics on the subject were felt to be a country's own business. It has become clear, however, that international and domestic tourism do relate to each other. Travelers' choices change depending on circumstances, and domestic tourism can be substituted for international tourism and vice versa under the influence of external factors, such as relative growth in real incomes, price differences between countries, and international political conditions. Over the past few decades, in many Western countries domestic holidays were largely replaced by outbound holidays, influenced by the rise in living standards and discretionary incomes, while developing countries have seen sharp increases in domestic tourism.

Regional Travel

Regions are geographically united subdivisions of a larger area characterized by definitive criteria or frames of reference. Three types of regions are used in tourism research. The first one refers to geographical location. Regions such as "the north" or "the west" are examples of this type. The second type refers to administrative areas, such as "Province X." The third combines criteria referring to location with criteria of a more physical nature. Examples of this type of region are "the lake district" or "the Pacific Basin." Regions of functional type can also be constructed, such as "urban areas" or "coastal areas." The term interregional travel refers to travel among various regions, whether in regions found within the same province or state, a country, or various regions throughout the world. Intraregional, on the other hand, refers directly to travel contained within the same defined region, whether domestic or international such as travel between countries of East Asia.

Inbound and Outbound Tourism

There are three forms of tourism at any level, in relation to a given area, e.g., domestic region, country, or group of countries:

—*Domestic tourism*, involving residents of the given area traveling (as visitors) only within that area;

—*Inbound tourism*, involving non-residents traveling as visitors in the given area;

—*Outbound tourism*, involving residents traveling as visitors in an area other than the given area.

If a country is the area of reference, the terms "domestic," "inbound" and "outbound" tourism can be combined in various ways to derive the following categories of tourism:

—*Internal tourism*, which comprises domestic and inbound tourism;

—*National tourism*, which comprises domestic tourism and outbound tourism;

—*International tourism*, which consists of inbound tourism and outbound tourism.

To avoid misunderstanding, the terms "inbound," "outbound," "domestic," "internal," "national" and "international tourism" are generally used with a country as the unit of reference. However, it should be recognized that there are political subdivisions which are less than countries and differ from states such as the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico and the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, both part of the United States.

While the concept of travel and tourism is as old as civilization itself, history reveals that travel was not always a pleasurable experience. A brief review of tourism's historical development is in order to fully appreciate today's modern tourism environment and to understand tourism's challenges as the world's population has approached the new millennium.

Early Ages

Logical motivators for the earliest of peoples in prehistoric civilizations to travel focused on gathering food, avoiding danger, and moving to more favorable climates. As mankind's skills and technologies increased, there was a decreased need in the nomadic existence, resulting in yet another travel motivator: the trade and barter of goods. As ancient world empires grew in Africa, Asia, and the Middle East, the infrastructure necessary for travel such as land routes and waterways was created and vehicles for travel were developed. The beginnings of official government travel were a direct result of rulers who sent their emissaries to observe the progress of wars throughout sprawling empires or to collect taxes from the citizenry. During the Egyptian dynasties, travel for both business and pleasure began to flourish, and hospitality centers were built along major routes and in the cities to accommodate travelers between central government posts and the outlying territories. During the height of the Assyrian empire, the means of travel were improved, largely for military use, and roads were improved, and markers were established to indicate distances. The Persians who defeated the Assyrians made further improvements to the road systems and developed four-wheeled carriages for transportation.

The early Greeks advanced travel and tourism developments in two particular areas. First, through the development of a coin currency, replacing the need for travelers to carry goods to barter at their final destination for other goods and services. Secondly, the Greek language spread throughout the Mediterranean area, making it easier to communicate as one traveled. Since most of the Greek towns and cities were located along the coast, travel was primarily by sea. Travel for government business was kept to a minimum because of the independent nature of the city—state system, but the Greeks liked to visit other cities for pleasure, particularly Athens. They also enjoyed traveling to religious festivals, and events like the Olympic Games held every four years at Olympia.

At the height of the Roman Empire, the ruling patrician class enjoyed their leisure during the periods of relative peace. Like the Greeks before them, they observed their own athletic and religious events and traveled to these sites. Sightseeing was also popular with the wealthy Romans, and many visited Greece. A ten-volume travel guide was published in 170 A.D. by the Greek, Pausanias. Entitled *A Guide to Greece*, the guide targeted the Roman tourist market and described the Grecian monuments, sculptures, and the stories and myths behind them. Romans also toured Egypt to see the Sphinx and the Pyramids. Alexandria was a cosmopolitan oasis for Roman aristocracy, since many nationalities were represented there including Egyptians, Greeks, Jews, Ethiopians, Indians, and Syrians. Egypt's weather was also a travel incentive for the Romans, as it offered a sunny, hot, and dry environment. The citizens of the Roman Empire also liked to shop when abroad, as most tourists do today. The practice of hiding purchases from custom officials probably originated with this class, a result of high duties, typically 25 percent, placed on imported purchases.

Asian civilizations also have a history of leisure travel to resorts, with known examples of second homes or seasonal retreats in China as well as in Japan. Chinese nobility and their guests retreated to the summer pavilions and villas in Suzhou, Hangzhou and other scenic areas.

Middle Ages

During the Middle Ages from about the 5th to 14th century A.D., trade and travel declined as roads fell into disrepair and overall travel conditions became difficult as well as dangerous. During this period, the Christian Church was the primary impetus for travel with the spreading of monasteries and the Christian religion. Monks and priests encouraged the public to go on pilgrimages, and by the 14th century, pilgrimages were an organized mass phenomena served by a growing network of charitable hospices with growing ranks of participants from most social classes. Christians went to Jerusalem and Rome, and even though the pilgrimages had a religious basis, they were also seen as social and recreational journeys.

In the latter part of the 13th century, Marco Polo explored the land routes from Europe to Asia. In China, Polo discovered a well-developed road system, the first having been built during the Zhou dynasty (1046—771B. C.). Polo's book on his travels was the West's main source of information about life in the East during this period. Other travel books began to appear with the advent of the printing press, and Sir John Mandeville's *Travels* in 1357 was printed in several foreign languages, with descriptions of travel to places as far away as Southeast Asia.

By the 15th century there is a record of an actual package tour which originated in Venice to the Holy Land. For the price of the package, the tourist received passage, meals, accommodations, donkey rides, and the bribe money necessary to avoid red tape. Early versions of today's convenience fast food stands popped up along heavily trafficked pilgrim travel ways. Roadside hawkers during high seasons would sell wine, fruits, fish, meats, bread and cakes from roadside tents.

The Renaissance

Travelers between the 14th and 17th centuries used as their travel motivator the desire to broaden one's experience and knowledge. In England, Queen Elizabeth I approved a form of travel to groom future diplomats, and the universities such as Oxford and Cambridge in England and Salamanca in Spain provided travel fellowships. England also issued a traveler's license which was good for two to three years and it disclosed travel restrictions, how much money, how many horses, and servants (usually three) the traveler could take. Tourists also were issued passports, but surrendered them at exit posts, and picked up new ones for each country they visited. Little cash was carried, instead they used a line of credit which worked like the modern day traveler's checks. The Elizabethan traveler usually went to Italy, by way of Paris and Frankfurt.

The loosely organized Elizabethan tour later became more highly structured into what became known as the Grand Tour. The organized Grand Tour had its start in the mid-1600s, and its popularity ran through the mid-1800s. The desire to gain new knowledge and experiences was still the prime motivator of travel for participants of the Grand Tour; and the Grand Tour was seen as the capstone to educational and cultural attainment of the upper classes. Typically, sons of well-to-do families traveled to specific countries to visit historical sites and ruins as well as to study art, architecture and history. There was even a tour guidebook for the Grand Tour travelers, the 1778 bestseller by Thomas Nugent.

The Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution, which lasted from about 1750 to 1850 created the base for mass tourism as we know it today. This period brought profound economic and social changes as workers moved away from basic agriculture in rural areas into the manufacturing plants and urban way of life familiar to many people today. The Industrial Revolution also introduced new machinery powered by steam for trains and ships. Social changes brought on by changes in occupations led to the expansion of a new middle class, an increase in leisure time, and for many, a demand for recreational travel activities leading to a decline in popularity of the elitist Grand Tour.

Initially, recreation tourist trips were generally only day trips because, most people still had only limited discretionary income and a five-day work week was not commonplace. Toward the end of the 19th century, workers began to get annual vacations. In order to escape congested and polluted urban areas, many turned to spas and seaside resorts for their holidays, which set the tone more or less for the modern leisure tourist.

Some destinations, until then visited primarily by the wealthy, were expanded, while others were newly established to capture this growing middle class market. To these destinations, the middle class represented a huge market compared with the small number of the earlier wealthy and aristocratic visitors. What the new tourists lacked in individual spending power, they more than compensated in terms of the total volume of arrivals.

Modern Tourism

It was the combination of desire, mobility, accessibility, and affordability that made mass travel possible. With the 20th century came new technologies such as aviation, computers, robots, and satellite communications, which have transformed the way that people live, work, and play. Modern technology is credited with the development of mass tourism for a number of reasons: it increased leisure time, provided additional discretionary income, enhanced telecommunications, and created more efficient modes of transportation.

As the world looks ahead to the next millennium, there is little doubt that tourism will continue to be one of the most dynamic growth sectors of the global economy. Despite periodic recessions, political upheavals, wars, and uncertainties about the price and availability of fuel, international tourism is now the largest single item in the world's foreign trade budget. It is three times bigger than world expenditures on defense. No longer an activity reserved only for the privileged few, tourism is now engaged in by millions of people who enjoy new places, seek a change in their environment, and look for meaningful experiences. As the new age of tourism evolves, it will be affected by a number of exogenous factors such as economic and financial developments, technological developments and innovations, environmental issues, and marketing factors affecting the structure of the travel and tourism operating sector and product development.

(By Chuck Y. Gee)

Words and Expressions

visitor profile **游客概况**

tourist characteristic **旅游者特征**

types of tourist activity **游客活动类型**

range of travel motivator **游客动机类型**

life cycle determinant **生活方式决定因素**

allocentric type **多中心型**

psychographic type **自我中心型**

independent traveler **个体旅游者**
household survey **家庭调查**
supplier survey **供应商调查**
international passenger survey (IPS) **国际旅客调查**
sample survey **抽样调查**

Notes

1. the Grand Tour **在中世纪的英国和其他一些欧洲国家的贵族子弟到欧洲其他国家为了教育和社交目的而进行的游学之旅。**
2. domestic tourism **国内旅游**
3. internal tourism **境内旅游**
4. inbound travel **入境游**
5. outbound travel **出境游**
6. the lake district **(英格兰)湖区 位于英格兰西北部** Cumbria **郡西边,总面积约** 2300 **平方公里,每年吸引大约** 1800 **万游客到访。湖区(**The Lakes**)占去湖区国家公园(**Lake District National Park**)之大部分。自一万年前冰河时期结束后全境天然景观几乎原封不动。**
7. intraregional tourism **区域内旅游**
8. interregional tourism **跨区域旅游**
9. Sir John Mandeville **约翰·曼德维尔是** 14 **世纪英国作家,著有《约翰·曼德维尔爵士航海及旅行记》**
10. Holy Land **圣地 指巴勒斯坦,系犹太教、基督教及回教之圣地**
11. discretionary income **可自由支配的收入**

Comprehension Questions and Questions for Discussion

1. Why do many countries, particularly developing countries around the world, encourage tourism development? What benefit does tourism bring to these countries?
2. What makes today's travel experience safe, comfortable and enjoyable?
3. According to the WTO, what is the difference between international tourism and domestic tourism? How is international tourism and domestic tourism related to each other?
4. How did the beginnings of official government travel come into being at the early ages of travel and tourism development?
5. How many types of regions are used in tourism research? What do they

refer to respectively?

6. In what particular areas did the early Greeks advance travel and tourism? Why was travel for government business in Greece kept to a minimum?
7. Why was the Roman tourist market targeted in a ten-volume travel guide published in 170 A.D. by the Greek, Pausanias? What can we infer about the tourism development in Roman Empire and Greece from the publication of the guide?
8. How did the Christian church help the development of travel during the Middle Ages?
9. Why do we say that the Industrial Revolution created the base for mass tourism?
10. Do you agree that modern technology is credited with the development of mass tourism in modern time? Why or why not?

Supplementary Reading

A Brief History of Travel

Throughout history, there have been travelers. The Old Testament describes the journey of the Israelites from Egypt to the Promised Land. The walls of a temple in Luxor, Egypt, chronicle the pleasure cruise of Queen Hatshepsut to the ancient land of Punt (now Somalia). History books give accounts of famous travelers, such as the Vikings, Marco Polo, and Christopher Columbus. Fossil remains of Homo erectus have been found in Western Europe, Africa, and China—revealing that even prehistoric people were travelers.

Requirements for Travel

In the time of the Roman Empire, a wealthy citizen could travel quite easily. The Roman government had built a magnificent network of roads. Fresh relays of horses were available every five or six miles. A single system of currency throughout the empire facilitated payments for food and lodging. Most important, the Pax Romana, or Roman peace, guaranteed travelers a high degree of safety.

In order for travel to flourish, there must be an efficient transportation system and an atmosphere of peace and political stability. Travel—especially travel for pleasure—also requires economic prosperity and leisure time. When the Roman Empire declined, so did travel. The wealthy class disappeared, roads deteriorated, and the countryside was overrun by hoodlums.

In the Dark Ages that followed (approximately 500 A. D. to 1450 A. D.), travel became what it has generally been throughout most of history—dangerous and difficult. In fact, the word travel, which originated during this time, comes from a root word meaning "heavy labor." Peasants rarely left their villages. When merchants and clergy had to travel, they journeyed by foot or by crude ox-drawn carts over rough terrain.

In was not until the period of the Industrial Revolution, which began in the mid-1700s in Europe, that travel started to be more common. Then, a series of advances in transportation—the development of the stagecoach, then the steamboat, and finally the railroad—made travel easier in North America as well as in Europe. In addition to technological changes, social changes contributed to the growth of travel. A middle class, with money and leisure time, was developing. Wishing to escape occasionally from bleak city life, these people retreated to seaside resorts for recreation.

In the twentieth century, the development of automobiles and motor coaches created a demand for better roads, and people were soon driving all over the United States and Canada. With the first transatlantic jet passenger plane flight in the late 1950s, fast, comfortable, and economical international travel became possible.

In the last 35 years, the volume of travel has increased tremendously. Partly the result of improvements in transportation, this increase is also attributable to economic prosperity and social changes. Whereas only wealthy people journeyed for pleasure in the past, today people from most economic classes in industrialized societies have money to spend on travel. And with more women in the work force, families have an additional source of income for travel. Paid annual vacations and holidays give people more leisure time to devote to travel. People are better educated today. In general, the more education a person receives, the more likely he or she is to travel. People are also living longer. Retired from the work force with their homes paid for, many senior citizens can take trips any time of the year. For most Americans, travel has become a normal expectation associated with the good life.

(By David W. Howell)

Unit Two

Economic Impacts of Tourism

Tourism in the Global Economy

Tourism is booming business. The tourism and travel industry is expected to be the biggest employer of the twenty-first century. According to the World Tourism Organization (2000) 663 million people spent at least one night in a foreign country in 1999, up 4.1 percent over the previous year. Spending on international tourism reached US $456 billion—a growth rate of nearly 3 percent over 1998 results. Domestic tourism arrivals are supposed to be ten times as high as international tourism, whereas domestic expenditures are three to four times as high. International tourism receipts grew faster than world trade (commercial services and merchandise exports) in the 1980s and now constitute a higher proportion of the value of world exports than all sectors other than crude petroleum/petroleum products and motor vehicle/parts/accessories. The results of 1999 show that destinations in East Asia and the Pacific are bouncing back to the growth rates they enjoyed before the financial crisis and that a tourism boom is underway in the Middle East and the Mediterranean. The World Tourism Organization's 2020 Vision predicts that the tourism sector will expand by an average of 4.1 percent a year over the next two decades, surpassing a total of one billion international travelers by the year 2010 and reaching 1.6 billion by the year 2020.

Tourism in the National Economy

Tourism is generally seen as a significant economic contributor to a nation's gross national product (GNP) since international visitors are a valuable source of foreign currency. One source of economic data on the economic significance of tourism for a country is its balance of payments, which is a record of the international transactions of a country. Kenya is an example of a country where net foreign exchange earnings from tourism are a significant percentage of gross receipts (90 percent in 1989), indicating that from a balance of payments perspective, Kenya's tourism industry is very important to the country. In contrast, tourism in Mauritius accounted for only

10 percent of its gross receipts in 1990. Other examples of tourism's contribution to GNP in the early 1990s include six percent in Tunisia, 18 percent in the Maldives, and 32 percent in Barbados.

Tourism has not had the recognition, nor the political and popular support it merits, given its size, its sustained growth and its tremendous capacity to create jobs. One of the traditional problems in analyzing the true economic impacts of tourism is that it is not considered to be an industrial sector of its own in national accounting systems. Tourism is often split up into other industry sectors, e. g. airlines to transportation and restaurant sales to retailing. Its estimated contribution to a country's Gross Domestic Product is generally quite inaccurate. Consequently, governments often underestimate the economic benefits that tourism provides. The World Tourism Organization has recently designed a Conceptual Framework for a Tourism Satellite Account (TSA), which sets international standards for measuring the contribution tourism makes to a country's economy and the welfare of its citizens. The World Tourism Organization encourages countries to develop a TSA to assist government officials, business executives and individual citizens to make informed choices. Unfortunately, only a very limited number of countries, mostly developed countries, can avail of such an account by now. It will take some years before the TSA-standards are implemented globally.

It is nevertheless urgent for most countries to invest in tourism development to have their share in foreign exchange earnings, income, and employment. Being considered as more labor-intensive than other industries, tourism is an interesting option for almost every country. For many developing countries tourism is one of only few options for economic development. For some it is even the only option. Intervention by development agencies to promote tourism in developing countries might be very profitable as a tool for economic growth and independence. Some types of tourism, however, are much more beneficial economically than others. In some countries facilitating tour operators and national tourist boards is much more efficient than in others.

Tourism in the Foreign Exchange Earnings

National governments embrace tourism as a way to increase foreign exchange earnings to produce the investment necessary to finance growth in other economic sectors and import raw materials. However, there is a danger of overstating the foreign exchange earnings generated by tourism unless the import factor is known. The value of goods and services that must be imported to service the needs of tourism is referred to as leakage. The money spent leaks from the destinations' economy and must be subtracted from foreign exchange earnings.

According to the Economist Intelligence Unit (1992) tourism leakage is generally less than for most alternative economic strategies, even agriculture. Leakage from manufacturing is twice as much in most countries. However, it is important that the true extent of leakage should be recognized so that appropriate economic strategies can be used.

The higher developed a country is economically, the more foreign exchange earnings it might gain from tourism. In this respect tourism is not different from other industries. For many developing countries that desperately need foreign exchange earnings, the import content of tourism is often very high, especially for small countries and island nations. Some small-island nations like Cape Verde, Mauritius, and the Maldives may have import contents of over 50 percent. A critical issue for destination areas is to determine the net foreign exchange earnings from different types of visitors and types of tourism purchases within the destination. The import proportion can vary significantly by type of tourism purchase. Planning of tourism should aim at developing the most profitable forms of tourism.

Impact of Tourism on Income

For both the public and private sector, as well as individuals, tourism can be a major source of income. The most popular method for estimating the income generated from tourism is by determining the income multiplier for the destination. Income multipliers measure the amount of local income generated per unit of visitor expenditure. Tourism generates revenues or income within the destination. The amount of income generated is difficult to determine because tourism is comprised of many sectors of the economy. Additionally, many small businesses are involved, which leads to great problems in gathering precise data. This holds specifically for developing countries with a substantial informal economy in which tourism expenditures are not registered at all in macro-economic statistics.

Visitors make an initial round of expenditures in the destination area. These expenditures may be for lodging, food, beverages, entertainment, clothing, gifts and souvenirs, personal care, medicines, cosmetics, photography, recreation, tours, sightseeing, guides, local transportation, and miscellaneous other items.

Local tour operators, handicraft sellers, hotel operators, restaurants, and other tourism businesses receive these expenditures as income. In the second round of expenditures, the tourism businesses use some of the money to purchase goods, pay wages and salaries, and other expenses. The income in the next (third) round may be spent or saved. For example, employees who have received wages or salaries may spend some of that on rent or food, and may put some into their savings. The money paid for goods in the third round may be spent on the producer' s raw materials such as seed, fertilizer and imported raw materials. Any money spent on imports leaks out of the destination's economy. This process continues until the additional income generated by a new round of transactions becomes zero. The major message that one gets from studying the multiplier effect is that it is wrong to just measure what visitors spend in the destination area. There are three levels of income that must be analyzed: *direct* (the first round of spending by visitors in the destination area), *indirect* (the second round of expenditures by businesses who receive the first round of visitor spending), and *induced* (the subsequent rounds of expenditures after the second round).

The total income impact of tourism equals the sum of the direct, indirect, and induced impacts. If the multiplier is found to be 2.0 then the indirect plus the induced are equal to 1.0. If the multiplier is calculated at 1.73, then the indirect plus the induced are 73 percent of the direct.

The size of the multiplier effect depends upon the extent to which the various economic sectors are linked to one another. This is a function of the diversity of activities within the destination. When tourism operators buy goods and services mainly from other local economic sectors, there is a smaller propensity to import and the multiplier effect is higher than if the reverse was true.

The size of the destination has a great influence on the size of the income multiplier. Most smaller island economies, for example, have income multipliers of less than 1.0. Larger countries with developed economies, such as Turkey or the United Kingdom, have higher multipliers in the range of 1.5 to 2.0.

On the other hand, many developing countries have substantial informal economic sectors. Street vendors, shoeshine boys, rickshaw drivers, masseuses, prostitutes, beach boys, beggars, pickpockets, bribes-taking officials, informal guides and porters get money from tourists that is neither registered nor taxed. This money has a big return in local economy. It is very dynamic and has a great multiplier effect as it is spent over and over again. Developing countries often have much higher income from tourism than is reflected in official macro-economic parameters.

Impact of Tourism on Employment

Travel and tourism is the world's largest creator of jobs in most countries, providing employment for over one hundred million people worldwide. International travel and tourism contributes about US $166 billion of tax revenues. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) has estimated that tourism employed 1 in 9 workers worldwide or about 212 million people, making it the world's largest employer. For many countries, tourism is the main employer.

Besides generating millions of jobs worldwide, the tourism industry in 1994 had a payroll of US $1.7 trillion, or 10.3 percent of total employee wages and salaries. Tourism's share of total employment compensation ranges from 4.9 percent in Eastern Europe, where tourism is in its beginning stages, to 18.7 percent in the Caribbean, where tourism is a mature industry. The image of tourism as a generator primarily of low-wage and low-skill employment is a misleading one, and underestimates tourism's impact on overall wages and salaries. In fact, many of the jobs at the technical, managerial, and professional levels require education and training which command compensation commensurate with these qualifications. In many cases, compensation in the tourism industry is competitive with high-technology industries.

A major argument for encouraging tourism development is that it produces many jobs. Tourism creates primary or direct employment in such areas as lodging, restaurants, attractions, transportation, and sightseeing operations, apart from the informal jobs mentioned above. Indirect employment is also created in construction, agriculture, and manufacturing. The amount of indirect or secondary employment depends upon the extent to which tourism is integrated with the rest of the local economy. The more integration and diversification that occurs, the more indirect employment generated. Tourism is considered to be more labor-intensive than other industries. For this reason, it is often argued that tourism deserves special development support.

The cost per job created depends upon the type of facility constructed. The cost is greater for a luxury hotel than for a smaller, more modest property. However, a luxury hotel offers more job opportunities per room and higher employment/output ratios than smaller properties. The larger properties are more inclined to use imported labor especially for managerial positions. The key to maximizing the economic and job returns is to use materials and personnel indigenous to the destination area while maintaining standards of quality acceptable to visitors.

Tourism is a highly seasonal business in many destination areas. To ensure a balance between market demand and staff requirements, tourism businesses tend to adopt one of two strategies. Employees are either laid off during the low season, or additional employees are imported from other regions during the high season. With the first approach, tourism cannot provide a meaningful job to a resident. With the second approach, there is an increased need for housing for employees who spend most of their wages outside of the destination area. Thus jobs and income are lost to the local area.

Generally, because tourism relies so heavily upon people for delivering a service, productivity gains are difficult to come by. The national output may be difficult to improve if tourism becomes a dominant part of the economy, particularly if the host destination lacks a strong industrial sector, where productivity gains are easier to obtain.

On the other hand, in developing countries with a low average level of education, schooling and training programs in tourism may easily raise the performance of small-business operators and staff and add substantially to the quality of the tourism product offered by the destination area.

Economic Impacts of Tourism to Developing Countries

Most of the poorest countries hardly have any tourism. They are in a state of war or are unsafe otherwise, like Afghanistan, Angola, Central-African countries, Chad, Ethiopia, Haiti, and Sudan.

Some are recovering from war, like Guatemala, Mozambique, Nicaragua, Somalia. Many lack the necessary tourism infrastructure. Sahel countries like Chad, Mali, and Niger have very limited rail transport facilities and less than one percent 'all-weather roads' per hundred kilometers of roads. So they are mainly fit for small-scale adventurous tourism with adapted equipment.

Quite a few of the poorest countries only have informal visits of ethnic relatives or traders from neighboring countries, apart from missionaries and development-aid workers. That holds for most countries in and south of the Sahel and Central Africa. Visits like these are insignificant from an income or employment point of view.

Almost every country is looking forward to the visits of tourists from developed countries that have quite a bit to spend. Europeans, Americans, Japanese or Australians spend a lot of money for a trip to a developing country. It is a lot, because they have to buy an intercontinental flight. This is rarely done with a company from the host country. More often the carrier has its seat in the generating country, as has the tour operator. A large part of the money involved never reaches the destination. This is called preleakage.

The money spent in the destination country also has very limited efficiency. The reasons are obvious. When a poor country wants tourism, it needs tourism accommodation and all kinds of facilities. The country has no financial reserves at its disposal to build hotels, an airport or infrastructure, borrowing money abroad enlarges the towering burden of debt. Giving a red-carpet welcome to foreign investors or making all appeal to a development bank is the only possibilities that rest. The country doesn't have capable building contractors to carry out these works. So contractors must be recruited from abroad. The foreign financier most probably will bring along the contractor. The country doesn't have a supplying industry either. The beds, air conditioners, TV sets and tennis balls must be imported. If a country has an agricultural sector, this sector probably consists of a coffee, cocoa or cotton monoculture. When it produces varied crops, then there is a chance that the products can't be distributed efficiently, aren't adequate from a quality point of view or aren't to the tastes of the tourists. The exotic appreciated by tourists is limited. So the menu must also be imported. The hotel needs managers and staff for service and maintenance, but the developing country only has unskilled workers to offer. Consequently, the management staff must be imported, as must the service and maintenance personnel, unless unskilled staff is employed.

A substantial part of all tourist expenditures, sometimes dozens of percents, thus leaks back to foreign countries, via interest and installments of loans, export of profits and salaries and import of consumer goods.

But there is more. By levying taxes via visa and airport tax, authorities in the poor country have the possibility to increase their financial means, it's true, but when these authorities have to borrow money abroad to finance construction or extension of airports, roads or sewer systems, the net revenues might turn out to be negative.

Tourism development requires space, the most beautiful spots of the country, if possible. Local populations are pressed to sell their territories for next to nothing. Some populations are just chased away without any compensation. Buying back territory is impossible; land prices are rising too fast for that. Moreover, where tourism is introduced, costs of living rise.

Beach resorts, aiming at conventional mass tourism, are very capital-intensive. Building resorts requires a lot of investment that generally has to be supplied from outside the region. Beach tourism is the only option and the worst option at the same time for many small island states. Small island states in the Caribbean, Pacific, Indian or Atlantic Ocean, having outstanding natural resources, not only suffer from huge leakage effects, lack of capital for investment, and lack of skilled human resources, but they are also operating in a highly competitive market. Long-term sustainable economic development is difficult for destinations that are dependent on the conventional beach markets.

It is nevertheless true that several of the larger developing countries are constructing big beach resorts that require huge investments. They are doing that for various reasons. Fonatur, Mexico government-based organization for tourism development, is responsible for the construction of six mega-resorts like Acapulco, of which Cancun is the first, to generate income and employment in the least developed regions of Mexico. Cancun in the Yucatan peninsula now employs many thousands of people, most of who have migrated from elsewhere. The cost per job created has been great.

(By Chuck Y. Gee)

Words and Expressions

travel frequency 旅游频率

en-route survey 旅途调查

consumer behavior　**消费者行为**
tourism demand　**旅游需求**
pull factor　**外在需求**
push factor　**内在需求**
demand analysis　**需求分析**
demand curves　**需求曲线**
elasticity of demand　**需求弹性**
demand determinant　**需求决定因素**

Notes

1. domestic expenditures　**国内旅游支出**
2. international tourism receipts　**国际旅游收入**
3. the Economist Intelligence Unit　**经济学家情报组织，1946 年经济学家小组事务所建立，是提供世界领先的国家发展分析的经济组织。**
4. net foreign exchange earnings　**外汇净收入**
5. multiplier effect　**乘数效应是指旅游收入在区域内的形成与流转能够给区域经济带来的实际增长**
6. WTTC (The World Travel and Tourism Council)　**世界旅游及旅行理事会是全球商业的领袖论坛，包含世界上近一百个最著名的企业的总裁、董事长和首席执行官。它是代表世界旅游和旅行业的各类私营企业的唯一载体。WTTC 的宗旨是提高对旅游和旅行业所造成的巨大经济影响、世界财富和就业的最大创造者的认识。WTTC 鼓励政府通过接受理事会的政策框架来发展和开发可持续性的旅游业及其潜力。**
7. labor-intensive industry　**劳动密集型产业是指单位资本占用劳动力较多或单位劳动占用资本较少的产业。一般认为，商贸餐饮、运输通信、文教卫等服务业和纺织服装、食品加工、电子通信设备等制造业以及建筑业，都属于吸纳劳动力相对较多的劳动密集型产业。**
8. leakage　**漏损，为了促进旅游业的发展，旅游目的地往往要从旅游外汇收入中拿出一部分到国外购买国内无法供给的、旅游业发展需要的某些物资，或者用于支付国外投资方的利润及员工工资等。这些从旅游目的地地区流失的外汇称为漏损。**
9. Yucatan peninsula　**尤卡坦半岛是玛雅人的故乡，位于墨西哥湾和加勒比海之间，为中美洲北部的半岛。半岛上的奇琴伊察玛雅古城遗址和先卡安生物保护区被联合国教育、科学及文化组织列入世界文化及遗产保护名录。**

Comprehension Questions and Questions for Discussion

1. Why do we say tourism is a booming business? How does the World Tourism Organization's 2020 Vision predict tourism expansion by the year 2010 and 2020?
2. What role does tourism play in the national economy? Use Kenya as an example to explain the economic significance of tourism for a country.
3. Why do governments often underestimate the economic benefits that tourism provides? What does the Conceptual Framework for a Tourism Satellite Account refer to? Why does the World Tourism Organization encourage countries to develop a TSA?
4. Why is there a danger of overstating the foreign exchange earnings generated by tourism? What is leakage?
5. What is the most popular method for estimating the income generated from tourism? What is income multiplier? What does the size of the multiplier effect rely on?
6. Do you agree with the idea that tourism only generates low-wage and low-skill employments? Why or why not?
7. How can tourism businesses ensure a balance between market demand and staff requirements in highly seasonal destination areas?
8. What hinder (s) most of the poorest countries' tourism development?
9. Why does the money spent in a developing country have very limited efficiency?
10. What is the conflict between the expansion of tourism and the regional development?

Supplementary Reading

Cultural Effects of Tourism

An influx of tourists from other cultures can have profound effects on a local culture. One of the most common consequences of tourism is that the host community adopts the social and cultural values of the visiting tourists. Because most people who can afford to travel abroad are from the United States, Canada, and Western Europe, it is primarily Western values that are spread throughout the world. Critics argue that, as a result, many local cultures are in danger of disappearing as the world becomes westernized. Others contend that the process works both ways. Local residents may adopt tourist values, but at the same time tourists also adopt the values of the countries that they visit. (This is known as cross-adoption.) American interest in foreign cuisine, for example, has in part resulted from American tourists who enjoyed eating local foods while abroad.

There is also some disagreement about the effects that tourism development can have on traditional arts and crafts. Some people say that local artistic standards suffer when cheap reproductions of native crafts are mass-produced for tourist consumption. They also claim that commercialization has a negative effect on local religious and social customs. In some places, for example, ceremonial dances that were once performed for religious purposes are now staged to entertain tourists.

On the positive side, tourism has been credited with helping traditional arts and crafts to survive. In the south-western United States, for example, tourist exposure to native cultures has greatly increased the demand for Indian arts and crafts, such as pottery, jewellery, and weaves. Indians of the Southwest have resisted the temptation to turn out mass-produced imitations, so the quality of the products has remained high. A similar picture emerges in parts of Canada, where tourist demands for souvenirs have perpetuated the Eskimo craft of soapstone carving.

Tourism not only helps sustain native art forms but may also contribute to ethnic preservation. For example, the assimilation of the Cajun population of Louisiana into the general population began in the 1930s, and by the 1950s this group had almost lost its unique identity. But then Cajun Louisiana was developed as a tourist destination. Local residents began to take pride in their cultural origins. Tourists from all over the nation expressed their appreciation for the hot, spicy Cajun food and the distinctive Cajun music, and took an interest in the Creole language. In this way, tourism helped the Cajuns preserve their cultural heritage and retain a separate ethnic identity. (Incidentally, the Cajuns present a good example of the cross-adoption discussed earlier. Local residents adopt the values of visitors from other parts of North America, while the tourists adopt certain Cajun habits, as evidenced by the popularity of Cajun-style foods in restaurants throughout the United

States.)

An influx of tourists from different cultures can, unfortunately, have less desirable consequences. The Pennsylvania Amish had lived in quiet obscurity for hundreds of years until they were "discovered" as a tourist attraction. The Amish people had no desire to make a profit from tourism. They just wanted to be left in peace. Others, however, had different ideas. They built motels, restaurants, golf courses, souvenir shops, and gas stations to cater to the growing bands of tourists. Today, the Amish are subjected to curious stares from busloads of visitors. They are photographed like freaks in sideshow. Tourism has disrupted their way of life.

To end this discussion of the cultural effects of tourism on a positive note, the development of a destination can often pay cultural dividends to the residents of the host community. Entertainment and recreational facilities developed for incoming tourists—including cinemas and theatres, cultural centres, sports stadiums, golf courses, and ski slopes—may also be used by the local population. Local residents can enjoy cultural and sporting experiences that were previously unavailable. In the United States, events such as the Spoleto Music Festival in Charleston, South Carolina, the Telluride Film Festival in Colorado, and the Tanglewood Summer Concert series in Lenox, Massachusetts, not only provide a tremendous tourist attraction, but also enhance the cultural lives of the local population.

(By David W. Howell)

Unit Three

The World Tourism Organization

Mission for the New Millennium

The World Tourism Organization (WTO), a specialized agency of the United Nations, is the leading international organization in the field of tourism. It serves as a global forum for tourism policy issues and practical source of tourism know-how.

With its headquarters in Madrid, Spain, the WTO plays a central and decisive role in promoting the development of responsible, sustainable and universally accessible tourism, with the aim of contributing to economic development, international understanding, peace, prosperity and universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms. In pursuing this aim, the Organization pays particular attention to the interests of developing countries in the field of tourism.

The WTO plays a catalytic role in promoting technology transfers and international cooperation, in stimulating and developing public-private sector partnerships and in encouraging the implementation of the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism, with a view to ensuring that member countries, tourist destinations and businesses maximize the positive economic, social and cultural effects of tourism and fully reap its benefits, while minimizing its negative social and environmental impacts.

In 2005, the WTO's membership is comprised of 145 countries, seven territories and more than 300 Affiliate Members representing the private sector, educational institutions, tourism associations and local tourism authorities.

Why Tourism?

At the start of the new millennium, tourism is firmly established as the number one industry in many countries and the fastest-growing economic sector in terms of foreign exchange earnings and job creation. International tourism is the world's largest export earner and an important factor in the balance of payments of most nations.

Tourism has become one of the world's most important sources of employment. It stimulates enormous investment in infrastructure, most of which also helps to improve the living conditions of local people. It provides governments with substantial tax revenues. Most new tourism jobs and business are created in developing countries, helping to equalize economic opportunities and keep rural residents from moving to overcrowded cities.

Intercultural awareness and personal friendships fostered through tourism are a powerful force for improving international understanding and contributing to peace among all the nations of the world.

The WTO recognizes that tourism can have a negative cultural, environmental and social impact if it is not responsibly planned, managed and monitored. The WTO thus encourages governments to play a vital role in tourism, in partnership with the private sector, local authorities and non-governmental organizations.

In its belief that tourism can be effectively used to address the problems of poverty, the WTO made a commitment to contribute to the United Nations Millennium Development Goals through a new initiative to develop sustainable tourism as a force for poverty elimination. The program, known as ST-EP (Sustainable Tourism-Eliminating Poverty), focuses the longstanding work of both organizations on encouraging sustainable tourism with a view to alleviating poverty and was implemented in 2003.

History

The World Tourism Organization had its beginnings as the International Congress of Official Tourist Traffic Associations set up in 1925 in the Hague. It was renamed the International Union of Official Travel Organizations (IUOTO) after World War II and moved to Geneva. IUOTO was a technical, non-governmental organization, whose membership at its peak included 109 National Tourist Organizations (NTOs) and 88 Associate Members, among them private and public groups.

As tourism grew and became an integral part of the fabric of modern life, its international dimension increased and national governments started to play an increasingly important role—their activities covering the whole spectrum from infrastructure to regulations. By the mid-1960s, it became clear that there was a need for more effective tools to keep developments under review and to provide tourism with intergovernmental machinery especially equipped to deal with the movement of persons, tourism policies and tourism's impacts.

In 1967, the members of IUOTO called for its transformation into an intergovernmental body empowered to deal on a worldwide basis with all matters concerning tourism and to cooperate with other competent organizations, particularly those of the United Nations' system, such as the World Health Organization (WHO), UNESCO, and the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO).

A resolution to the same effect was passed in December 1969 by the UN General Assembly, which recognized the decisive and central role the transformed IUOTO should play in the field of world tourism in cooperation with the existing machinery within the UN. Following this resolution, the WTO's Statutes were ratified in 1974 by the States whose official tourist organizations were members of IUOTO.

Thus IUOTO became the World Tourism Organization (WTO) and its first General Assembly was held in Madrid in May 1975. The Secretariat was installed in Madrid early the following year at the invitation of the Spanish Government, which provides a building for the Headquarters.

In 1976, WTO became an executing agency of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and in 1977 a formal cooperation agreement was signed with the United Nations itself. In 2003, the WTO was converted into a specialized agency of the United Nations and reaffirmed its leading role in international tourism.

Since its early years, WTO's membership and influence in world tourism have continued to grow. By 2005, its membership included 145 countries, seven territories and some 350 Affiliate Members, representing the private sector, educational institutions, tourism associations and local tourism authorities.

How WTO Works

The bodies of the World Tourism Organization are the:

General Assembly

The General Assembly is the principal gathering of the World Tourism Organization. It meets every two years to approve the budget and programme of work and to debate topics of vital importance to the tourism sector. Every four years it elects a Secretary-General. The General Assembly is composed of Full Members and Associate Members. Affiliate Members and representatives of other international organizations participate as observers.

Executive Council

The Executive Council is WTO's governing board, responsible for ensuring that the Organization carries out its work and adheres to its budget. It meets twice a year and is composed of 29 Members elected by the General Assembly in a ratio of one for every five Full Members. As host country of WTO's Headquarters, Spain has a permanent seat on the Executive Council. Representatives of the Associate Members and Affiliate Members participate in Executive Council meetings as observers.

Regional Commissions

WTO has six regional commissions—Africa, the America, East Asia and the Pacific, Europe, the Middle East and South Asia. The commissions meet at least once a year and are composed of all the Full Members and Associate Members from that region. Affiliate Members from the region participate as observers.

Committees

Specialized committees of WTO Members advise on management and programme content. These include: the Programme Committee, the Committee on Budget and Finance, the Committee on Statistics and Macroeconomic Analysis of Tourism, the Committee on Market Intelligence and Promotion, the Sustainable Development of Tourism Committee, the Quality Support Committee, the WTO Education Council, the WTO Business Council and the World Committee on Tourism Ethics.

Secretariat

The Secretariat is led by Secretary-General Francesco Frangialli of France, who supervises about 90 full-time staff at WTO's Madrid Headquarters. He is assisted by the Deputy Secretary-General David de Villiers of South Africa. These officials are responsible for implementing WTO's programme of work and serving the needs of Members. The WTO Business Council is supported by a full-time Chief Executive Officer at the Madrid Headquarters, a position that is financed by the Spanish Government. The Secretariat also includes a regional support office for Asia-Pacific in Osaka, Japan, financed by the Japanese Government. The official languages of WTO are English, Spanish, French, Russian and Arabic.

Regional Promotion Projects

WTO is in a unique position to carry out special projects that promote tourism to a group of Member States. The Silk Road and the Slave Route are two of these projects, initiated in cooperation with the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO).

- The Silk Road Project, launched in 1994, aims at revitalizing the ancient highways used by Marco Polo through tourism. The Silk Road stretches 12,000 km from Asia to Europe and 22 countries have joined forces for this project: Armenia, Azerbaijan, China, DPR Korea, Egypt, Georgia, Greece, Islamic Republic of Iran, Italy, Israel, Japan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Mongolia, Pakistan, Republic of Korea, Russian Federation, Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Turkey and Uzbekistan. Joint promotional activities include seminars, a brochure and a video.
- The Slave Route Project, initiated in 1995 as part of the United Nations' International Year of Tolerance, aims to boost tourism to western African nations. Its immediate goals are to restore monuments, enhance history museums and launch joint information campaigns in selected tourism generating markets, which will motivate foreign visitors to learn about the history of these countries and to discover their roots.
- World Tourism Day: Since 1980, Members of the World Tourism Organization have been celebrating World Tourism Day every year on September 27th. Events include parades, concerts, tourism fairs, seminars, dinners, dances, and free entrance to museums—anything and everything that draws attention to the important role that tourism plays in the local community.

Task Force for Destination Management

To reflect the growing decentralization of tourism administration, WTO formed a task force to focus on issues that are of special concern at the destination level. Some concerns of the task force include: management of congestion at coastal destinations; economic measurement of tourism at the local level; destination marketing for cities; information and communication technologies; human resource development; and risk and crisis management at individual tourism destinations. The Task Force for Destination Management meets periodically and acts as an informal advisory body of WTO, with the aim of encouraging new work in these areas and identifying ongoing WTO projects that are relevant to tourism officials working in destination management.

Business Council

WTO is unique among international intergovernmental organizations in that it is open to membership by the operating sector and promotes various methods of cooperation amongst its Members. Airlines, hotel chains, tour operators, trade associations, consultants, promotion boards and educational institutions make up approximately 350 Members of the WTO Business Council (WTOBC).

WTOBC utilizes a partnership approach to tourism as a method to promote public and private integration and as a model of understanding between the two sectors. To achieve their objectives, WTOBC aids Members in expanding their tourism businesses through industry networking, forming contacts with the necessary government officials strengthening industry-education relationship, and conducting specialized research projects of the private sector.

Currently, the WTOBC is undertaking numerous projects with the hope of creating more public-private partnerships and sustained cooperation amongst tourism industries. These projects include investigations into the factors that affect tourism, methods of managing congestion on sites, assisting small and medium size enterprises, and implementing new technology.

Under the guidance of its Board of Directors, WTOBC continues their research on the above-mentioned Projects accompanied by annual studies, data compilation, research publication and organization of conferences. The Council continues to promote integration between public and private sectors with themes that are of special interest to the business community which include:

——Public-Private Sector Cooperation—Enhancing Tourism Competitiveness

——Marketing Tourism Destinations Online—Strategies for the Information Age

——E-Business for Tourism

——Tourism Taxation—Striking a Fair Deal

——Changes in Leisure Time

Tourism & Technology

The Internet and other computer technologies are revolutionizing the way tourism business is conducted and the way destinations are promoted. WTO's work in the area of new Information Technologies (IT) aims to provide leadership in the field of IT and tourism, as well as helping to bridge the digital divide between the have and have-nots among WTO's membership.

WTO carries out new research and studies of IT in connection with the promotion and development of tourism, such as the publications Marketing Tourism Destinations Online and E-Business for Tourism. It communicates the content of these studies throughout the world in a series of regional seminars.

WTO also operates a Strategic Advisory Board on IT and Tourism that brings together a small number of high-level experts from destinations, private businesses and researchers.

Tourism technology is especially suited to cooperation projects between the public and private sectors. The objective is to keep all Members up-to-date on the constantly changing technologies that will affect the tourism industry in the years to come.

Education WTO. HRD

The WTO Human Resource Development Department (WTO. HRD) works to add value to the tourism sector of WTO Member States improving their capacity building and providing direct support in tourism education, training and knowledge. The WTO. HRD coordinates the activities of the WTO Education Council as well as those of the WTO. Themis Foundation with the common goal of achieving the tourism competitiveness and sustainability of WTO Members through excellence in tourism education.

Its mission is to build the knowledge capacity of WTO Members, providing leadership, initiative and coordination in quality tourism education, training and research through public-private partnerships among institutions and WTO Member States.

WTO. Themis Foundation

Based in Andorra and generously sponsored by its Government, the WTO. Themis Foundation provides the administrative back-up to WTO. HRD to develop and disseminate tourism education, training and knowledge products, thus optimising service to WTO Members.

Its mission is to promote quality and efficiency in tourism education and training in close coordination with WTO and its Human Resource Development Department (WTO. HRD), facilitating administration and management in implementing its programme of work and enlarging the scope of services to WTO Members.

WTO Education Council

The WTO Education Council (WTO.EdC) is made up of leading tourism education, training and research institutions as well as business schools worldwide that have obtained the WTO.TedQual Certification for at least one of their tourism education programmes. With over 100 members, it forms a chapter of the WTO Affiliate Members, and is well represented in the Board of the Affiliates, their decision-making body. The WTO.EdC is an active agent within WTO and in the development and implementation of the WTO.HRD Programme of Work.

The main human resource development products are:

WTO.TedQual: A framework of programmes for quality in tourism education. The WTO. TedQual Certification is granted to training and education institutions by means of a quality audit. The TedQual institutions can request membership in the WTO Education Council (Affiliate Members). There are also TedQual Seminars (Educating the Educators) for Member States and TedQual Consulting on quality issues for education and training centres.

WTO. Practicum: This is a biannual programme for officials from WTO Member States. It is carried out at WTO Headquarters for a period of two weeks and includes GTAT. TPS seminars, workshops, technical visits and working meetings with the responsible staff of the Organization.

WTO. Themis TedQual Practicum: A practicum programme designed especially for officials from WTO Member States who are proposed by their Governments as liaisons with WTO in matters of education and training.

WTO.GTAT: A set of programmes (General Tourism Achievement Test) designed to improve the performance of teaching and learning in tourism. These include software for examinations and course development and implementation, GTAT Courses to improve specific knowledge and/or prepare for exams, GTAT Diagnosis to ascertain strong and weak points in specific subjects, GTAT Exams and GTAT Certification of Proficiency for students and tourism professionals.

WTO.Sbest Initiative: A framework for a range of WTO Programmes aimed at contributing to excellence in destinations and tourism companies through quality training and education. Programmes include the WTO.Sbest Training, WTO. Sbest Audit and WTO Tourism Labour Market Observatory. Institutions, companies and destinations satisfactorily completing these programmes receive WTO. Sbest Awards. Many of these programmes are executed in coordination with the WTO Destination Management Task Force.

WTO. Tourism Labour Market Observatory: This programme was recently initiated by the WTO Education Council in conjunction with WTO. HRD and the WTO Destination Management Task Force. Its objective is to obtain quantitative and qualitative information on tourism labour markets in key destinations worldwide through panels of employers, workers, consumers and students. This is coordinated through WTO. Sbest tourism destinations and WTO TedQual Centres.

(Adapted from :World Tourism Organization)

Words and Expressions

United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) **联合国环境计划署**

The State Environmental Protection Association (SEPA) **国家环境保护委员会**

characteristics of intermediation **中介机构的特征**

UNDP (UN Development Programme) **联合国发展计划署**

UNSD (UN Statistics Division) **联合国统计署**

PRF (Pacific Rim Forum) **环太平洋论坛**

WWF (World Wildlife Fund) **世界野生动物基金会**

World Conservation Union **世界自然保护联盟**

International Association for Ecology **国际生态学协会**

World Federation for the Protection of Animals **世界动物保护联合会**

CIRED (Centre for International Research of Environment and Development) **环境与发展国际研究中心(环发中心)**

OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development) **经济合作与发展组织(经合组织)**

Notes

1. World Tourism Organization (WTO) **世界旅游组织是联合国的特别机构,是专门负责旅游事务的政府间国际旅游组织。其前身是国际官方旅游联盟,1975年改为现名,总部设在西班牙的马德里。其宗旨是促进和发展旅游事业,使之有利于经济发展、国际间相互了解、和平与繁荣。它的工作目标在于支持旅游业的可持续发展来创造财富,提供就业机会并促进不同宗教和种族之间的相互理解。主要负责收集和分析旅游资料,**

定期向成员国提供统计资料、研究报告，制定国际性旅游公约、宣言、规则、模板，研究全球旅游政策。

2. Global Code of Ethics for Tourism (GCET) 全球旅游行业公约是世界旅游组织制定的，旨在为促进旅游业发展的一系列准则原则，目的在于为旅游业界的中央和各地方政府、当地居民、旅游行业本身及其业内人士同时也为旅游者提供一定的指导。该公约是 1997 年在伊斯坦布尔召开的世界旅游组织大会的决议中提出的，1999 年被世界旅游组织大会所接受，并于 2001 年通过一个特别决议被联合国大会正式承认。该条约制定了十项计划，旨在保护旅游业发展所依赖的旅游资源的同时确保兼顾其经济效益。
3. Madrid 马德里，西班牙首都，是欧洲著名的历史古城。马德里市内文物荟萃，有许多名胜古迹和世界闻名的绘画展览馆。
4. foreign exchange earnings 旅游业的重要意义就在于外国游客的旅游支出为旅游目的地国家带来了外汇收入。
5. the United Nations Millennium Development Goals 联合国千年发展目标，是在 2005 年 9 月 7 日到 9 日召开的第 58 届联合国大会上通过的一项旨在促进世界和平和发展的远景目标。
6. ST-EP (Sustainable Tourism-Eliminating Poverty) 世界旅游组织提出的“可持续旅游·消除贫困”计划，主要是为了在联合国贸易和发展委员会的支持下帮助那些不发达国家通过旅游业实现脱贫。该计划包括四个方面：成立一个基金会，为不发达国家开创新的资金募集渠道；促进社会科学和旅游业对贫困和可持续性的研究，重点是那些可以用做发展蓝图的原则和做法；建立为最不发达国家的旅游项目募集资金的运作机制，评估其成果，推荐好的做法；建立一年一度的论坛，使有关各方能从旅游业、赞助人和民间团体那里得到交流和反馈。
7. Hague 海牙，荷兰第三大城市，位于荷兰西南部北海沿岸，有“欧洲最大最美丽的村庄”的美誉。13 世纪以来，海牙一直是荷兰的政治中心。海牙是现在联合国国际法庭的所在地。

Comprehension Questions and Questions for Discussion

1. What kind of agency is World Tourism Organization? What role does WTO play in promoting the development of tourism? What is its aim?
2. Why tourism is highly emphasized in the new millennium? What is the great significance of tourism toward the national economy?
3. What makes WTO encourage governments to play a vital role in tourism, in

partnership with the private sector, local authorities and non-governmental organizations?

4. Why did WTO make a commitment to contribute to the United Nations Millennium Development Goals to develop sustainable tourism? What has the program, known as ST-EP, focused on?
5. What did the World Tourism Organization develop from? How often is the General Assembly of WTO held? What are its major tasks?
6. Why were the Silk Road Project and the Slave Route Project launched? What are their respective aims?
7. For what purpose did WTO organize the Task Force for Destination Management?
8. What aims does WTO's work have in the area of new Information Technologies?
9. What evidence can indicate that WTO has paid great attention to tourism education, training and research work?
10. Please cite some examples in your life to illustrate the great significance of tourism to the national economy.

Supplementary Reading

U.S. and China Sign WTO Deal

China and the United States signed a historic agreement yesterday that will pave the way for Beijing to enter the World Trade Organization (WTO), 13 years after it applied to join.

While Beijing has still to complete negotiations with other WTO members, the U.S. was the toughest party to deal with.

The agreement, and after six grueling days and nights of negotiations, opens the way for China to join the world's principal trading body and is the mainland's most important economic event since December 1979, when it switched from state planning and isolationism to reform and the open-door policy.

Zhang Ligang, chief executive of eLong.com, an Internet start-up firm that was illegal when it was founded last week but became legal yesterday with the lifting of a ban on foreign investment in the Net, summed up the day. "If we say that Deng Xiaoping opened China to the world in 1979, we can say that this time China has entered the world."

The chief U.S. negotiator, trade Representative Charlene Barshefeky, described the deal as "profoundly important", "absolutely comprehensive" and an excellent one for American business.

At a meeting with Ms Barshefsky yesterday afternoon, President Jiang Zemin called the deal "good, historic and realistic", and a win-win for both sides, which showed that both countries saw the issue from a strategic viewpoint.

China's entry into the WTO will have profound ramifications for the country, binding her to international trading rules and encouraging foreign firms to invest by providing a system less based on rule by the idiosyncrasies of an official and more on transparent laws and regulations.

It will accelerate a process of closing money-losing and over-manned state companies and moving labor and capital into market-driven businesses. In the short term, it will drive up unemployment as inefficient, capital-intensive state industries shed labor and shut down.

It also marks a vital political victory for Prime Minister Zhu Rongji, the main proponent, along with Mr Jiang, of China's membership, who offered a similar deal in Washington in April.

The war in Yugoslavia, in which Beijing sided with Serbia, and the NATO bombing of the Chinese Embassy in Belgrade, froze negotiations from May until September.

For Mr Zhu, WTO membership will serve as a motor for reform of state companies, banking, insurance, securities and other industries.

At a news conference just before she left China, Ms Barshefsky said the support of the two presidents had been crucial. Presidents Bill Clinton and Jiang Zemin met in Auckland and agreed to put the talks back on track, with a deadline of the next round of WTO talks that will begin in Seattle on November 30.

Ms Barshefsky, full of energy despite the six-day marathon, presented the agreement's main details. Overall tariffs will fall to an average of about 17 percent and on farm goods to 14.5 percent to 15 percent, while China will make significant liberalizations on importing such goods, especially wheat, corn, cotton and other bulk commodities.

Beijing will eliminate non-tariff quotas within five years, some in two to three years. It will cut tariffs on imported cars from the current 80—100 percent to 25 percent by 2006 and allow foreign financial institutions to finance the purchase of cars.

It will allow 49 percent foreign investment in telecommunications firms from the date of entry, rising to 50 percent in two years, and will allow foreign banks to conduct local currency business with domestic companies two years after accession and with domestic individuals five years after.

Beijing also agreed to lift a ban on foreign investment in the Internet.

In return, Beijing received a concession on textiles, with Washington backing down from its demand that quotas on China's exports remain until 2010. Instead they will end in 2005, but with an "anti-import surge" mechanism remaining for a further four years, to prevent a flood of exports.

(By Mark O'neill)

Unit Four

Special Services and Products

As the tourism industry has matured and tourists have become more knowledgeable and sophisticated, special types of tourism services and products have been developed to meet their travel needs. These special services and products have grown out of changes and pressures affecting tourism supply components (such as destinations and attractions) and the travelling public. Both the leisure and business travel markets are affected by these changes and pressures. As a result, special services and products serve certain niche markets.

As greater numbers of people travel, and as tourists look for different travel experiences, those markets that were once considered too small to merit much attention by suppliers are now growing into substantial and profitable niches such as ecotourism, adventure tourism, health tourism, educational tourism and "new age" tourism dealing with people's interest in spiritualism and metaphysics.

Special Segments of Leisure Travel

In the area of leisure travel a significant and growing number of people, especially those who travel frequently, now approach tourism with different expectations. Rather than simply going on sightseeing tours and relaxing at pool side, these tourists search for more meaningful or intense experiences. Part of the reason for these newer expectations of travel lies in the development of the tourism industry itself. As tourism has grown and matured, it has become increasingly sophisticated and creative in the range of products and services it offers including destinations. Tourism suppliers are constantly innovating ways to differentiate themselves from other suppliers and stand out in the market. This innovation is part of the natural process of product development, where the accumulation of knowledge and experience enables suppliers to modify and improve their products.

In addition, this need to innovate comes from the competitive pressures of the market. Today's tourists are likely to be knowledgeable about the many different products in the market and concerned with getting the best value for their leisure dollar. Many tourists are seasoned travellers and are looking for new travel experiences. Thus, suppliers are under constant pressure to appeal to buyers who are becoming increasingly discriminating in their tastes and more conscious of value. The following special segments of the leisure tourism market reflect these factors.

Ecotourism

One form of tourism which has gained much attention in recent years is ecotourism. Although there are several definitions of this term, there is general agreement that in ecotourism the physical environment is the focus of the touristic activity. Ecotourism is defined as any tourism which:

- Provides a first-hand active experience of a place.
- Provides an educational experience which develops visitors' understanding and appreciation of the place visited and promotes both appropriate behaviours and a conservation ethic.
- Is environmentally responsible and uses various strategies to minimize negative impacts.
- Maximizes local economic returns.

One of the difficulties in analyzing ecotourism is the problem of determining its size. Although it is believed that ecotourism is a substantial and growing activity, its contribution to the tourism industry can only be estimated because few countries or regions monitor the number of visitors choosing ecotourism options. Examples of countries whose tourism growth appears to be driven by ecotourism are Belize (with tourism growth of nearly 140 percent in the period 1981—1990), Kenya (115 percent), and Costa Rica (31 percent). Certain trends in tourism, such as the increasing experience and sophistication of travellers and the increasing desire for self-development through travel, are believed to generate more interest in ecotourism experiences.

Ecotourism activities typically focus on providing access to remote, rare and/or spectacular natural settings. Tours which concentrate on wildlife viewing are another major form of ecotourism. The following examples demonstrate the various characteristics of ecotourism:

- In Costa Rica, a country which has been heavily promoted as an ecotourism destination, the operations of the La Selva Biological Station are a successful example of ecotourism. The station is run by a consortium of research institutions, which is called the Organization for Tropical Studies (OTS).

The primary activity of the station is scientific research, but the OTS offers access to tourists and the station is visited by approximately 13,000 tourists each year. Visitors are provided with accommodation in basic cabins and are allowed access to trails into La Selva, which is comprised of 2000 acres of virgin forest, swamps, and abandoned plantations. The income generated by visitors supports the operation of the research programmes.

- An Australian company provides tours in many parts of Australia and in Indonesia that take visitors into more remote natural environments and provide interpretation of these places and the wildlife. The tours often involve visits to research sites and contact with local residents. A substantial focus of the tours is the education of tourists to encourage their appreciation of the visited places. All guides are trained in both conservation principles and in minimal impact behaviour and travel techniques. The tours are run under a set of guidelines which include asking visitors not to collect artefacts, fossils or plants, removal of rubbish, restoration of campsites, and guidance for visitors on how to behave in cross cultural encounters. The tour company also offers employment to local people as guides and purchases local goods wherever possible.
- Cruises to Antarctica led by scientists with substantial experience with the Antarctic environment. These scientists give talks to passengers on the ecology, history, and geology of the Antarctic region. Tourist behaviour while onshore is strictly controlled, and visitors are not allowed to eat, smoke, or litter while off the boat. The cost of the cruise includes fees to government agencies, such as the New Zealand Department of Conservation, which are used to support environmental protection programmes.

As these examples demonstrate, ecotourism can be viewed as sustainable tourism for natural settings. In this way, ecotourism possesses the potential as a guide for the development of more sustainable conventional tourism.

Cultural Tourism

Cultural tourism refers to a segment of the industry that places special emphasis on cultural attractions. These attractions are varied, and include performances, museums, displays, and the like. In developed areas, cultural attractions include art museums, plays, and orchestral and other musical performances. Tourists may travel to specific sites to see a famous museum such as the Prado in Madrid or the Louvre in Paris or to hear the Vienna symphony orchestra. In less developed areas, they might include traditional religious practices, handicrafts, or cultural performances. An example of the latter type of cultural tourism is the U. S. Amish community in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania. The Amish live a traditional lifestyle without modern conveniences such as electricity and telephones. Tourism provides the Amish with an important source of income, through the sale of quilts, small handicrafts, and baked goods.

Cultural tourism and ecotourism are usually closely related, and elements of each are often found in tours and destinations that appeal to this market. An example is Africatourism, a tourism programme based on the cultural and environmental wealth of Africa. Among its features and benefits, Africatourism: "recognizes the natural qualities of Africa and its people and upholds them as a source of pride and confidence, all the way from the grassroots level... implies responsibility and stewardship toward the environment and embraces everything environmental, from fauna and flora through cultures, traditions, art forms, architecture, engineering, agriculture, and industry... [and] can be found and experienced only in Africa." This last feature—that Africatourism is unique to Africa—is key to cultural tourism and ecotourism, as it emphasizes the importance of the destination's place to the authenticity of the tourist experience.

One of the issues facing less-developed destinations that offer cultural attractions is the potential impact of tourism upon the local culture and society. By its nature, cultural tourism can bring together people of vastly different orientations towards modern values, a cash-based economy, and traditional religious practices. The meeting between such different peoples in the context of a tourist experience can have significant impacts, especially upon the local, traditional society. For example, a tourist may see a local handicraft primarily as a souvenir to be purchased and displayed at home, and thus the purchase of the handicraft as simply a transaction, much like the thousands of other transactions he participates in on a daily basis. The traditional craftsman, on the other hand, may perceive the exchange of money for the handicraft as a symbol of his or her relationship with the buyer and the buyer's society. The craftsman in this case may want certain customs to be followed in the exchange, or may expect the buyer to exhibit behaviour that indicates that the exchange is a meaningful event. In this and many other ways, there are opportunities in cultural tourism for greater understanding and mutual enrichment between cultures, as well as for misunderstandings and disappointment.

Rural Tourism

The primary tourism-generating markets are highly developed and urbanized areas. Many of the residents of these areas wish to escape from their modern urban and suburban environments, and visit simpler, less developed areas. For such tourists, rural tourism offers an ideal alternative. Like ecotourism, rural tourism is difficult to precisely define because it can take a multitude of forms.

An example of rural tourism is farm tourism or agri-tourism as found in many countries in Europe. In Austria, for example, there were about 21,000 farms providing about 109,000 rooms to farm tourists in 1994.

Farm tourism helps Austrian farmers diversify their income sources beyond traditional means such as cattle and timber, with the tourists' payment of room rent and their purchase of farm-grown produce. Another example is the youth hostel found in rural areas, which has been a long-standing way for young persons to travel economically around Europe. In many parts of the United States, particularly in the northeast region, there are numerous small inns, often run as a family business, that provide guests with a small-town experience.

One of the key aspects of rural tourism, and of several of the other special segments of leisure travel discussed below, is the experience of a way of life and environment that offer a sharp contrast to life in the modern city. For these segments of tourism, the environmental qualities of the destination are particularly important. Rural, adventure, and cultural tourism are often cited as the segments of tourism that hold the most promise of incorporating the principles of sustainability.

Adventure Tourism

Many tourists have the desire to participate in activities that provide them with a challenge, thrill, or intense experience. Some of these tourists want to test their physical skills in new or unusual ways, with activities like mountain climbing, hiking, or kayaking. Others want to face nature without the modern conveniences that make their lives safe and comfortable. Whatever their motivation, these tourists will seek destinations and products that can provide such intense experiences. In general, adventure tourism relies on natural, environmental features, such as mountains, rivers, forests, and the like. Unlike traditional tours, however, where such natural features are appreciated for their visual beauty, adventure tourism brings the tourist into close contact with the environment and makes it something to be challenged or wrestled with. In this way, adventure tourism, like rural tourism, takes the tourist back in time by providing dangerous or challenging situations that the modern tourists' forefathers may have faced. Historically, one of the most famous examples of adventure tourism has been the hunting safari in Africa, which combined the thrill of pursuing wild animals, the challenge of living in an untouched environment, and the beauty of the African landscape. Another well-known form of adventure tourism is mountain climbing, where climbers risk their lives to pit their skills against nature. A growth area of adventure tourism is the extreme sports tour. Extreme sports include established activities that, like mountain climbing, have a high degree of danger such as rock climbing, skydiving, and new variations such as snowboarding.

Health Tourism

Health tourism refers to travel to facilities and destinations for obtaining health-care services or health-related benefits. Health tourism thus encompasses many different types of activities which have in common an emphasis on the healthfulness of the tourist. The three main forms of health tourism include:

- Medical care. Travelling to a facility or physician to obtain special treatment or a quality of treatment unavailable in the traveller's home area. Examples of this would include hospitals or physicians that are world-renown for their treatment of certain diseases, or that offer experimental or unique treatments, such as the Mayo Clinic in the United States.
- Fitness and wellness. Travelling to a destination or facility, such as a spa or weight-loss clinic, for the purpose of engaging in preventative health measures, such as dieting, weight-loss, relaxation, and exercise. Many hotels and resorts already include spa and exercise facilities, which indicates how widely fitness and wellness practices have been adopted in people's lifestyles.
- Rehabilitation and recuperation. Travelling to a destination or facility that offers special care, or is located in an area considered to be particularly

beneficial to one's health, to recover from illness.

Health tourism is considered to be a segment with much potential. During the next decades, a generation of people who have become accustomed to modern medical care will be entering their retirement years. These people are expected to demand a level of health and comfort as they grow older that earlier generations could not expect. A large segment of this generation will also possess the economic means to pursue better health, including travel related to health tourism. Health tourism will also benefit from the world's growing knowledge of, and concern with, good health. The past decades have witnessed significant increases in public awareness in areas such as diet, environmental dangers (air and water quality, pesticides), and lifestyle (the consequences of cigarette smoking, alcohol consumption, stress, and the benefits of exercise). This increasing awareness, along with well-publicized advances in medicine, will continue to raise public expectations for their own health and well-being.

New Age Tourism

A growing number of tour operators are offering programmes that focus on metaphysics and spirituality designed for travellers in search of life's deeper meanings and wishing to escape from the excessive materialism of the world. New Age tourism includes elements of cultural tourism, health tourism and ecotourism. People who consider themselves part of the New Age movement share a belief in the importance of learning from ancient cultures, encompassing spirituality, metaphysics, yoga, meditation, natural healing, herbology and communion. The sites visited in New Age tourism are in their very nature sacred sites dating from the pre-Christianity era, such as Stonehenge, the Easter Islands, and the great pyramids in Egypt. These tours often take unconventional approaches to history and archaeology. For example, the pyramids are seen as a powerful energy vortex that emits a grid of energy lines encircling the world.

Another branch of New Age tourism centres on physical health, offering yoga, guided meditation, exercise, massage and organic vegetarian and other diets. Destinations such as Sedona, Arizona (U. S.), Bali (Indonesia) or Dominica in the Caribbean are chosen for their natural attributes and spiritual energy in healing. The premise is that a natural approach to physical health leads to spiritual health and fulfilment. As the concept of New Age tourism is relatively recent, there are no statistics currently available on the size of this market.

Educational Tourism

Although all tourism can be thought of as educational in the sense that the visitor learns about a destination's culture, society, and other aspects, the term educational tourism generally refers to travel in which the learning occurs within a structured or formal programme. A familiar and popular form of educational tourism is the "study abroad" programme, in which students attend schools or programmes (usually for a semester or academic year) in another location, often in a foreign country. Through such a programme, a student has the opportunity to take advantage of the destination's resources which might not be available anywhere else. One of the most popular reasons for attending a foreign school is to the opportunity to be immersed in the language and culture of the destination. Certain tours can also be considered as educational tourism. These tours are centred around significant historical, cultural, or scientific sites and are often led by a teacher with expertise in the sites. In contrast to sightseeing-only tours, educational tours often include books, lectures, and other supplemental materials to create a more formal learning experience.

The growth of the special travel segments is the result of greater product differentiation in the industry, which in turn is being driven by changes in the travelling public. Given the rapid growth and change of the tourism industry, it should be expected that new services and products will continue to appear. The proliferation of special services and products will provide the tourist of the coming century with an array of travel choices. Perhaps these choices will enable tourists in the future to design their "perfect" vacations.

(By Chuck Y. Gee)

Words and Expressions

natural resources **自然资源**

access control **进入控制**

destination amalgam **目的地集合体**

economic aspects of attraction **景点的经济状况**

user-oriented attraction **消费者导向型吸引物**

staged authenticity **表演的真实性**

barriers to demand　需求障碍
demand energizers　需求驱动力
demand growth forecast　需求增长预测
demand indicators　需求指标
indicators of tourism demand　旅游需求指标

Notes

1. niche markets　高端市场
2. tourism supplier　旅游产品提供方
3. seasoned travellers　成熟旅游者
4. Belize　伯利兹是位于中美洲东北部的英联邦成员国。面积 2.29 万平方公里,人口约 19 万,多为混血种人和黑人。居民中 60% 信奉天主教,其余多信奉基督教新教。
5. Kenya　肯尼亚居于东非,北接苏丹和伊索比亚,东邻印度洋,西与坦桑尼亚接壤,全国面积约为 582,646 平方公里。
6. Costa Rica　哥斯达黎加位于中美洲南部,东临加勒比海,西濒太平洋,北接尼加拉瓜,东南与巴拿马相连。
7. La Selva Biological Station　La Selva 生态站位于哥斯达黎加北部的原始热带雨林中。La Selva 最早是一个农场,在 1954 由莱斯利博士(Leslie Holdridge)为研究杂交种植而建的试验基地。1968 年被热带研究组织(OTS)购买,从此成为世界上最重要的热带雨林研究基地。
8. OTS (Organization for Tropical Studies 热带研究组织)　在 20 世纪 60 年代初,美国几所大学的科学家和哥斯达黎加大学结成合作关系,致力于对热带生物的研究和学习,从而促成了该组织的成立。目前已有美国、拉丁美洲和澳大利亚的 63 所大学和研究机构加入到其中。该组织在哥斯达黎加设有三个生态站:La Selva 生态站、Palo Verde 生态站和 Las Cruces 生态站。
9. Prado　普拉多博物馆建于 1758 年,是典型的新古典风格。普拉多画宫原为自然科学博物馆。1819 年改为绘画博物馆,收藏绘画、雕塑佳作约 5000 件,生动地记载了西班牙数百年来艺术风格的演变发展,许多珍品被誉为欧洲绘画史上的瑰宝。
10. Louvre　罗浮宫,这个举世闻名的艺术宫殿始建于 12 世纪末,当时是用作防御目的,后来经过一系列的扩建和修缮逐渐成为一个金碧辉煌的王宫。从 16 世纪起,弗朗索瓦一世开始大规模收藏各种艺术品,以后各代皇帝延续了这个传统,充实了罗浮宫的收藏。如今博物馆收藏的

艺术品已达 40 万件，其中包括雕塑、绘画、美术工艺及古代东方、古代埃及和古希腊罗马等七个门类。罗浮宫目前已经成为世界三大博物馆之一，其艺术藏品种类之丰富，档次之高堪称世界一流。其中最重要的镇宫三宝是世人皆知的“米洛的维纳斯”“达·芬奇的蒙娜丽莎”和“萨莫特拉斯的胜利女神”。

11. Vienna Symphony Orchestra　维也纳交响乐团
12. U.S. Amish community　阿米什社区在美国东部宾州的兰切斯特。阿米什人原是德国的一个种族。他们信奉的是基督教。后来由于宗教迫害，于 1750 年被迫逃到美国定居。美国政府为 25 万阿米什人专门划地建阿米什社区。社区的最高首领是教主。美国的阿米什人被世人视为是居住在世外桃源中，他们过着没有汽车、电话和电的原始生活。
13. fauna and flora　动植物体系
14. hunting Safari　狩猎旅行
15. Mayo Clinic　梅奥医院位于明尼苏达州的罗切斯特市，是由 William J. Mayo 和 Charles H. Mayo 两兄弟共同建立的一所著名的非营利性医院。
16. rehabilitation and recuperation　休养康复
17. People who consider themselves part of the New Age movement share a belief in the importance of learning from ancient cultures, encompassing spirituality, metaphysics, yoga, meditation, natural healing, herbology and communion. (on page 42)　认为自己属于新世纪运动的人都坚信学习灵性、玄学、瑜伽、冥思、自然康复、草药学以及交流等方面的古代文化有着重要的意义。
18. Stonehenge　巨石阵是英国伦敦西南部 100 多公里的索尔兹伯里平原上的一处史前遗迹。是由一些条形巨石围成圆阵组成的。关于巨石阵的年代，至今尚有争议。但是大多数史学家相信，巨石阵是公元前 2500 年到公元前 2000 年之间建造的。1986 年，“巨石阵、埃夫伯里和相关遗址”被列为世界文化遗产。
19. the Easter Islands　复活节岛是智利瓦尔帕莱索省的属岛。当地称“拉帕努伊岛”，意即“石像的故乡”，又名赫布亚岛，意即“世界之脐”。复活节岛以其石雕像而驰名于世。岛上约有 600 座以上的巨大石雕像以及大石城遗迹。
20. organic vegetarian　有机素食是指每道菜所用的选料均不采用化学肥料种植的蔬菜。
21. Sedona　沙多纳位于亚利桑那州凤凰城北方，是许多人前往大峡谷的必

经之道。这个被红岩石所环绕的小城,每年吸引着三四百万的游客前往,空旷的地区,红岩近在眼前,曾被 USA Weekends Annual Travel Report 喻为美国最美丽的十大景点之一。在这个最先由美国印第安人落脚的城市,处处可以看到印第安文化的影响,近几年来更受到许多退休人士的青睐,以及艺术家的狂热驻足,成为一个具有艺术气息的小城。

22. Bali 巴厘岛是印度尼西亚著名的旅游区,与首都雅加达所在的爪哇岛隔海相望,相距仅 1.6 公里。

Comprehension Questions and Questions for Discussion

1. How can tourism suppliers meet newer expectations of travellers in the area of leisure travel?
2. What are the changes in the leisure travel markets that have facilitated the development of the special segments?
3. What is ecotourism? Use Costa Rica, Australia and Cruises to Antarctica as examples to generalize the characteristics of ecotourism.
4. What potential impact can cultural tourism strike upon the local culture and society in less-developed destinations?
5. Whom does rural tourism aim at? How does farm tourism benefit Austrian farmers?
6. What is the difference between adventure tourism and other traditional tours?
7. What emphasis do the three main forms (medical care, fitness and wellness, and rehabilitation and recuperation) of health tourism have in common?
8. How did new age tourism come into being? What are the destinations (or sites) chosen for New Age tourism?
9. What does educational tourism refer to? What is the familiar and popular form of educational tourism?
10. What other kinds of special segments of tourism can you mention besides those discussed in the text?

Supplementary Reading

Travel Growth and Employment

As the travel and tourism industry grows, it generates new jobs. Between 1978 and 1988, there was a 22 percent increase in total employment in the United States. Travel industry employment increased and astonished 49 percent. Domestic travel, in fact, has been growing so rapidly that there have been shortages of workers in the hospitality industry, in travel agencies, and in the airline industry.

Direct Employment. The travel industry offers an unusually broad range of employment opportunities. Some workers, such as cruise directors, flight attendants, travel agents, and hotel desk clerks, interact with travelers on a daily basis. Others, such as hotel managers, accountants, and housekeepers, are behind the scenes working to ensure the comfort and safety of travelers. Jobs range from those requiring a high level of skill and intensive training to those requiring little skill and virtually no training. The following list indicates some of the employment areas in the travel industry:

- Managerial (hotel manager, historic sites supervisor, museum director).
- Technical (air traffic controller, safety inspector, motorcoach dispatcher).
- Marketing and sales (salesperson in a gift shop travel agent, airline reservation sales agent.)
- Clerical (motel desk clerk, clerk-typist in a state tourism department).
- Food and beverage preparation and service (chef, bartender, server).
- Cleaning service (hotel housekeeper, room cleaner, aircraft cleaner).
- Personal service (flight attendant, bell staff, social director at a resort).
- Mechanical (airplane mechanic, automobile mechanic, general maintenance worker).
- Transportation (airplane pilot, ship captain, bus driver).

The travel and tourism industry provides hundreds of thousands of job opportunities from coast to coast and border to border in the United States. In fact, the travel and tourism industry is ranked among the top three employers in all but 13 states. It is the largest employer in 13 states, the second largest employer in 15 states, and the third largest employer in 9 states. And unlike many other industries, the travel industry offers a high degree of flexibility; there is no need to go where the jobs are because they are everywhere. So if you want a job in the travel industry, you can probably find one.

The travel industry has long provided employment for women and minorities. More than 4.5 million women, nearly 1 million blacks, and almost 8000,000 Hispanic Americans are employed by the travel industry. In addition, the industry provides nearly 4 million jobs for youths between the ages of 16 and 14. Many of these jobs are part-time or seasonal. These jobs enable young people to earn money for education and explore possible future careers.

Another benefit of working in the travel industry is the possibility of free or reduced-rate travel. Many components of the travel industry, including airlines, car rental companies, cruise lines, travel agencies, and tour operator companies, offer pass privileges to their employees.

Indirect Employment. Many people have jobs that are indirectly related to the travel industry. These people supply support services for workers who deal directly with the public. Writers and editors for travel publications, researchers for marketing firms, and managers of contract laundry services for hotels are just a few of the many employees in support services.

In addition, certain kinds of organizations assist the travel industry in several vital areas. Some plan and finance new attractions. Others train new personnel. Instructors in vocational training institutions, real estate developers, and bankers are some of the employees in travel-related organizations.

(By David W. Howell)

Unit Five

Special Segments of Business Travel

Business travel has developed its own special markets. Meetings and conventions events now have professional planners to deal with the complex activities and needs that are unique to these events. In addition, destinations now compete vigorously to host these types of events.

Business travel has changed under the pressure of increased and divergent expectations of business travellers. One of the most important factors influencing business travel patterns has been the increasing cost-consciousness of corporations and other organizations. Because of pressure to reduce expenses, travel costs —including transportation, lodging, meals and entertainment —are increasingly perceived as unnecessary. Advances in communications technologies have also called business travel into question. The speed of e-mail and facsimile transmissions, and the capabilities of teleconferencing, have eliminated some of the reasons for earlier business travel. Increasingly, businesses are scrutinizing decisions to hold meetings by going through a needs assessment process. This process is designed to ensure that there is a shared understanding of the proposed meeting's issues and objectives among all participants, and that there are clearly defined measures of the meeting's success or effectiveness.

Within business travel, however, there are special segments that are based on face-to-face interaction and often incorporate elements of leisure travel that are growing increasingly important. Collectively, these segments are often referred to as the meetings, incentive, conventions and expositions (MICE) market. This market accounted for 983, 600 meetings, 77. 4 million attendees, and US $ 37.4 billion of business in 1995.

Meetings

Meetings can be defined as events designed to bring people together for the purpose of exchanging information. Meetings can be held on-premise at one of the companies or organizations that is convening the meeting, or off-premise at other sites, requiring the rental of meeting facilities. It is the off-premise meeting market that is of primary concern to the tourism industry. Meetings held by corporations and other businesses are classified as corporate meetings, while those held by associations are referred to as association meetings. Association meetings include activities of a variety of different types of groups, including social, military, educational, religious, and fraternal organizations, often collectively referred to as "SMERF." Corporate meetings account for about 25 percent of the meetings market, while organization meetings account for 75 percent.

The term "meetings" includes various types of events that differ in their size, subject matter, and agenda. While the criteria used to distinguish among the different types of meetings are not clear-cut, the terms themselves are useful in distinguishing among the many different kinds of events that businesses and organizations hold. A clinic is usually a small, "hands-on" educational meeting that emphasizes participant involvement in the learning process. A forum is a larger gathering at which issues of interest or concern to the audience are discussed, often led by a panel and moderator, and with opportunities for comments and questions from the audience. A seminar is similar to a forum, but often smaller and more focused in subject matter. A symposium is much like a forum, but generally refers to meetings where the subject matter of the meetings is academic or technical in nature. A workshop is similar to a clinic, generally led by a leader or facilitator, and devoted to skills building or training.

Meetings can also be categorized by their function. Major functional categories of corporate meetings are incentive trips, sales meetings, management meetings, training seminars, professional and technical meetings, new product introductions, and stockholder meetings.

Incentive Travel

Incentive travel refers to the segment of business travel that uses the allure of a trip as an incentive or reward for achievement. A typical example of incentive travel would be a company-paid vacation to a resort for top-performing salespersons. Sometimes this type of vacation will include motivational seminars, morale-building activities, and other activities that build upon a gathering of employees. Incentive trips also can include business-related group activities, such as the introduction of new products or promotional campaigns, or training programmes for employees. The incentive travel market has been showing strong growth in recent years: in 1995, 92,000 incentive travel programmes were planned in the U.S. vs. 60,200 in 1993. The average number of attendees in 1995 was 95, with an average trip length of nearly 4 days.

Short-term trips at which participants devote themselves to a particular issue or problem, and which are held at sites that provide a sense of isolation and relaxation to encourage in-depth thinking and group interaction, are often referred to as retreats. Retreats can be held for a variety of problem-solving, motivational, or morale-building reasons. However the incentive trip is organized, it should result in specific results that benefit the company. These results include greater employee productivity, increased skills, improved morale, and higher motivation to achieve company objectives.

As the incentive travel market has grown, organizations specifically dedicated to organizing incentive trips for companies have come into existence. These organizations, often referred to as motivational houses, function as specialized meeting planners, arranging travel, accommodations, transportation, and other aspects of the trip. Incentive travel planners are under increasing pressure to provide their clients with more than just travel plans. Rather, companies are viewing incentive travel more as a component of overall employee and business development. This trend towards performance marketing is part of changes in the incentive travel market, including:

- The decrease of pure leisure travel in favor of trips that include meetings and other business-related activities.
- A greater emphasis on group, as opposed to individual, travel, to facilitate business-related activities (such as meetings and seminars).
- Greater use of non-sales criteria in awarding incentive travel, including factors such as loyalty, spirit, and customer satisfaction.

As a result of these developments, and of the changing business expectation of incentive travel, planners are getting more involved with the goals of their client organizations.

Exposition

Expositions are generally large events at which vendors can display and market their products or services to a contingent of potential clients and buyers. The vendors or exhibitors pay a fee to set up their displays, usually based on the size of the area their displays require. Large expositions can cover hundreds of thousands of square feet of exhibition space. The goals of the exhibitors are to attract attendees, inform them of their product or service, and establish a contact that will lead to a sale.

Conventions

The term convention refers to an event that combines both meeting and exposition. The conventions market can be divided into those that are sponsored by professional and trade associations, and those that are sponsored by corporations. Associations account for about 70 percent of the market, and corporations about 30 percent.

Conventions have the reputation for generating high expenditures on a per visitor basis, as well as creating substantial economic impacts for the host economy. The many different segments of the tourism industry that benefit from convention expenditures include hotels, restaurants, car rental, ground transportation, entertainment, and retail.

There are several reasons for the high level of involvement of the government or the public sector with the convention business. First, high development costs and limited potential for realizing operating profits generally require that the government either own or subsidize the center. With modern centers approaching 186,000 square meters (2 million square feet) of exhibition space, development of a center almost always requires some form of public financing. Furthermore, the actual convention operations generally lose money or, at best, break even. This is due to the high cost of running a center, and to the fact that competition among centers tends to keep rent rates low.

From the government's perspective, the financial risks posed by a convention center are outweighed by their larger economic impact on the host community and economy. It is the ability of a center to generate visitor activity and revenues for such convention supporting businesses as hotels, restaurants, entertainment, and the surrounding area that provides the main reason for its development. The visitor expenditures, in turn, generate employment, tax revenues, and generally boost the area's economy, all of which serve to offset the center's operating loss and create an overall net benefit to the area. To the government, the operating loss it sustains is a worthwhile cost in light of the jobs, taxes, and healthier economy it gains. Because of their size and the amount of visitor activity they generate, conventions are often perceived as serving an underlying public purpose.

Secondly, large convention events bring prestige to a city. Large conventions or expositions are often covered in national and international news. For the duration of the convention, the host city may receive daily exposure and coverage from the media. From the standpoint of the host city's visitor industry, this kind of media attention can amount to valuable advertising. Cities often use conventions and other large events to create a positive image for themselves. In this respect, conventions are often very desirable to government leaders.

Major Components of the MICE Market

The MICE market has become a highly specialized and important segment of the tourism industry. As a result, there are several well-established components of the MICE industry, each of which serves a different function. These include: meeting planners, convention centers, convention and visitor bureaus, and event managers.

Meeting Planners

Planning a successful meeting requires a great deal of logistical coordination and oversight of many different areas. As a result, overall responsibility for a meeting is often given to professional meeting planners, many of whom specialize in different types of meetings. Some planners are independent businesses that perform their services for client organizations. Large organizations that hold meetings on a regular basis may employ their own planners on staff. The responsibilities of a planner will vary depending on the type of meeting being planned, facilities being used, sponsoring or host organization, and other variables.

Responsibilities of a Meeting Planner

Planning a large meeting is a complex and demanding task. A meeting planner is often responsible for both large issues such as the selection of a site and the arranging of transportation as well as smaller ones such as specifying each day's menu. The primary areas of responsibility for a meeting planner include the following:

- Selecting, or providing options for, a meeting site.
- Devising a marketing plan for the meeting, if necessary.
- Planning transportation to and from the site (including negotiating with airlines for discounted group air fares and arranging ground transportation).

- Arranging for and reserving hotel rooms for the attendees.
- Working with the meeting facility personnel to plan the layout of the meeting/exhibition room(s).
- Organizing the exhibition, and working with exhibitors.
- Ensuring that audio-visual equipment needs are met.
- Planning for the registration process, including any necessary requirements for accreditation of participants.
- Arranging for various food and beverage needs.
- Planning off-site tours and activities for non-participants and for attendees during non-meeting times.

As this list indicates, communication is vital to the planning process. Even a moderately sized meeting will require virtually hundreds of decisions, many of which require consultation among the sponsoring organization(s), the planner, and the meeting facility.

Site selection is a crucial part of the planning process. Planners must consider a number of criteria when choosing a site for an event. The most important criteria, in descending order of importance, are:

- Availability of hotels or other facilities for meetings.
- Affordability of the destination.
- Ease of transporting attendees to and from the location.
- Transportation costs.
- Distance travelled by the attendees.
- Climate of the location.
- Availability of recreational facilities such as golf, swimming, and tennis.

Convention and Visitors Bureaus

A convention and visitors bureau (CVB) is a non-profit organization that promotes the destination area it represents, usually a city, to travel buyers. A CVB's mission is based on the premise that travel to the area will benefit all supply sectors, such as accommodations, entertainment, transportation, and food and beverage, as it is known that tourist expenditures can have a positive "ripple effect" throughout the host economy. This is especially true of convention visitors.

CVBs reach tour wholesalers, meeting planners, and organizations through several channels, including trade shows, direct sales, and branch offices in major cities. Because the goal of a CVB is to have the travel buyer make a commitment to the destination area as a whole, it will generally not take a direct role in promoting individual businesses. Rather, it will facilitate a coordinated effort by these businesses to gain the buyer's travel business.

The main responsibilities of a CVB are:

- Developing a marketing strategy and destination image for the area.
- Promoting the area to potential travel buyers and planners.
- Facilitating the entire process of selling the area and hosting the event.
- Promoting the area's public attractions and amenities to the visitors.

In the 1990s, Central and Eastern European countries have begun to open their own CVBs in an attempt to improve their economies and utilize the potential of their rich historical and cultural resources. The International Association of Conventions and Visitors Bureaus (IACVB), through an initiative called Partnership for Peace, is using the expertise of established CVBs to assist these countries in the areas listed above. In another case, the Philippine Conventions and Visitors Corporation conducted a campaign to attract more small-to medium-sized conventions (conventions with about 500—800 delegates). Convention City Manila, as this campaign was called, specifically targeted this size of convention in recognition of the resource and facility limitations of the host city. The Corporation worked with airlines, hotels, and tour operators to build attractive packages for prospective conventions.

Convention Centers

Convention centers are large facilities that accommodate many of the events discussed in this chapter. Newly constructed and expanded centers are extremely large, with some new and expanded centers providing nearly two million square feet of exhibition space. For example, McCormick Center in Chicago, which currently has 148,800 square meters (1.6 million square feet) of exhibit space, is in the process of expanding to over 186,000 square meters (2 million square feet) by 1997. Convention centers earn revenue from a variety of sources, including the rent of the facility, food and beverage service, and concession stands.

One of the key aspects of a convention center is its location. Centers need to be within reasonable distance of a major airport, since most delegates will usually arrive by air. Centers should also be close to, or incorporate, adequate hotel accommodations. There should also be a variety of food, retail, and entertainment establishments in the vicinity of the center and the accommodations. These considerations are extremely important to an organization that is considering a convention site, because they are critical to the delegates' attendance and enjoyment of the event.

A newer development in the operation of convention centers is their use for smaller meetings, including those that do not require exhibit space. New centers are increasingly being designed to accommodate small meetings, so that space can be configured to provide a small meeting atmosphere and service. These smaller meetings enable centers to rent space during periods between major events, thereby increasing rent revenues. This additional rent is becoming increasingly important to convention centers. Centers often operate at a loss, with the expectation that the economic activity they generate will result in a net gain to the host community. However, as governments have come under increasing budgetary pressure, centers are being forced to sustain themselves without large governmental subsidies.

Conference centers are smaller than convention centers, and are an important part of the business travel market. These centers vary in type from executive centers that are geared toward top management, with sophisticated audio-visual capabilities and quality amenities, to resort centers, where the availability of recreational facilities is most important.

Event Managers

Once an event has been booked for the convention center, the center operator assigns it to an event manager. From this point forward, the event manager becomes the link between the center and the client, whether it is a planner or the sponsoring organization itself.

One of the key responsibilities of an event manager is to ensure that the event contract is followed. The contract between a convention center and a client for a specific event contains provisions for all aspects of the event, including the client's requirements for the event, the agreed upon rental, and the mutual responsibilities and obligations of both parties. The contract will also specify the consequences of cancellation of the event, non-performance by either party, and other contingencies. As planning and preparation for an event move forward, adherence to the terms of the contract must be enforced to prevent disputes and last-minute problems.

The business travel market is coming under increasing pressure from concerns over travel costs and the availability of new teleconferencing technologies. Despite these pressures, the special market segments have shown strong growth in recent years. Recognizing the greater role of the MICE market, cities are developing and expanding their meeting and convention facilities at a rapid pace. Large meeting events create business and publicity that are extremely valuable for the host destination.

As the MICE market grows, planners, convention centers, and other key components of the industry are becoming increasingly specialized and sophisticated. CVBs will play a vital role in the future, as destinations compete vigorously to fill their meetings and conventions facilities. With the growing availability of facilities and destinations, planners will have to ensure that they understand their clients' needs in order to best match them with what the market has to offer.

(By Chuck Y. Gee)

Words and Expressions

mass tourism **大众旅游**
planning and management **规划和管理**
planning and development **规划与开发**
independent tourism **散客旅游**
sustainable tourism **可持续发展旅游**
visiting friends and relatives (VFR) **探亲访友**
paid holidays entitlement **带薪假日**
familiarization tour (FAM) **旅游代理人团**
artificial attractions/resources **人造吸引物/资源**
destination image **目的地形象**
destination image formation **目的地形象塑造**

Notes

1. MICE (meetings, incentive, conventions and expositions) **会展**
2. incentive travel **奖励旅游**
3. meeting planner **会议策划人**

4. convention and visitors bureaus **会议观光局**
5. ripple effect **连锁反应**
6. IACVB（The International Association of Conventions and Visitors Bureaus） **国际会议及旅游局协会** 1914 **年成立。该协会致力于推动及策划国际大型会议的召开，促进旅游业的发展，现有会员** 420 **多个，遍布** 30 **多个国家和地区。**
7. Manila **马尼拉，菲律宾首都，位于菲律宾最大岛屿吕宋岛西岸，濒马尼拉湾。它是全国政治、经济、文化的中心，也是一个重要的交通枢纽和贸易港口。**
8. McCormick center **美国芝加哥迈考密展览中心**

Comprehension Questions and Questions for Discussion

1. What are the major factors that affect business travel patterns？
2. What can meetings be defined as？What are the differences between corporate meetings and association meetings？
3. Are there the clear-cut criteria to distinguish among the different types of meetings？How can meetings be distinguished one from another？
4. What changes has incentive travel market experienced？
5. Why is there a high level of involvement of the government or the public sector with convention business？
6. What can the host community benefit from convention business？
7. What are the major components of the MICE market？What are their functions respectively？
8. What are some of the concerns in choosing a convention center？
9. Can you identify the special business travel segments？How important are they to the overall business travel market？
10. How much do you know about the MICE market in China？

Supplementary Reading

Geography and the Travel Industry

As a travel professional，you should know geography. This does not mean that you must be able to plot the latitude and longitude of individual cities or memorize every country's chief exports and imports. Instead，you must know enough geography to give a traveler an idea of what to expect at his or her destination, and to make recommendations for travel there. Furthermore, you need to understand how geography influences the total travel industry.

Destination Geography

Many travel professionals deal in destinations, or places. Most travelers are not familiar with the destinations they have chosen. As a result, travel professionals must be able to answer questions regarding three aspects of the destination's geography: locational, cultural, and physical.

Locational. Locational geography refers to travelers' most basic question about their destination: where is it? A travel agent must be able to locate the place on a map and show the client its position in relation to other cities, regions, or countries.

The next question is: How do I get there? The travel agent must be able to plan an itinerary, or route, for the journey. Along with this the travel agent must know how accessible a particular destination is. Some travelers will only choose direct flights to well-traveled places, while others will find adventure in journeying to remote areas.

Once arrived at a destination, a traveler will expect other travel professionals to answer more specific questions. For example, a business traveler will want to know the location of factories, office buildings, and convention centers, and directions for how to get to each.

Cultural. Cultural geography refers to the political, historical, social, artistic, and religious characteristics of travel destinations. Travelers will ask questions such as: What should I see and do? Will I be able to communicate with the people? What kind of food can I expect? How much money will I need? Is it safe to drink the water?

Travel professionals use their knowledge to inform travelers about local customs and prepare travelers for various differences. If travel agents suspect that a destination will cause severe culture shock, they may suggest an alternate place to go. For example, they may discourage people who would be upset by crowds or by poverty from visiting certain cities in Asia.

Physical. Physical geography involves climate and terrain. Travelers will ask: What is the weather like? What kind of clothes should I bring along? Travel professionals should be able to inform travelers about the average temperature and rainfall of their destination. They should also advise travelers about and conditions that will seem unusual. For example, people who go to the Scandinavian countries (the "Land of the Midnight Sun") in the summertime should be aware that there will be almost 24 hours of daylight every day. Windows in hotel rooms are equipped with blackout curtains to prevent sunlight from disturbing sleep at night.

(By David W. Howell)

Unit Six

Ecotourism: Threat or Opportunity?

Maybe both the challenge for Central and Eastern Europe today is finding a balance between promoting tourism and minimizing its negative impacts on the environment.

As warm winds usher in the summer holiday season, daydreams inevitably turn to vacation scenes. Whether it be to isolated beaches, tall mountain peaks, or the bright lights of a big city the idea of leaving everyday life behind and "getting away from it all" is a siren's song more and more of us find irresistible. With bags packed and tickets purchased we are travelling to the far corners of the world, making tourism the world's fastest growing industry.

According to forecasts from the World Tourism Organization, the number of international tourist arrivals is expected to nearly double by the year 2010 to 937 million visitors. While tourism no doubt represents a huge boon to the global economy, this growing industry will also have a lasting impact on the environment. More travellers will certainly lead to some environmental degradation increased pollution from transportation, construction of more facilities to house and entertain these visitors; and like a herd of bulls in a china shop their sheer numbers can sometimes overwhelm a destination's carrying capacity.

And as the pressures of urban living increase more of these intrepid travellers are seeking pristine natural and cultural sites. The number of visitors to national parks and protected areas and to rural communities continues to rise. And while nature or "eco" tourism is generally considered to have a lower impact than mass tourism—requiring less infrastructure and development—even small scale use can damage the natural resources which attract tourists in the first place. Degradation of the corals of the Great Barrier Reef, deforestation in the Himalayas and disruption of feeding and breeding patterns of wildlife in Kenya's national parks all serve as warnings to the potential dangers of uncontrolled tourism.

And often the effects are not only ecological. Tourism, especially in rural and undeveloped areas has created a dependence on foreign income among the local population. It has displaced traditional customs and social interactions and made communities vulnerable to foreign economic conditions.

Still, tourism is in itself a positive activity. Whether people are interested in culture, relaxation, adventure or health, in the end the motivation is to break out of a routine and achieve some sense of bettering oneself. And it's hard to ignore the opportunities tourism presents for economic development in rural communities. Whether the primary impact is positive or negative largely depends on how this sector is managed. Management structures must be strengthened in order to sustain both environmental quality and a lively tourism industry.

Sensitive natural sites are in limited supply and disappearing at lighting speed. Many experts believe the use of the natural environment is at a critical stage. The challenge today is to promote tourism activities in natural areas, while minimizing the negative impacts on them. A challenge which is being taken up worldwide.

A number of initiatives have been introduced by international organizations and the tourism industry. One of the most recent is a joint study on implementing Agenda 21 for the Travel and Tourism Industry by the World Tourism Organization (WTO), the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), and the Earth Council. Respectively, the organizations represent government, business and NGO interests in tourism and the environment.

The Agenda 21 action plan sets out a systematic framework to make the tourism industry more environmentally responsible. It urges governments to work with local authorities and the private sector wherever possible to develop an environmental programme for management decisions regarding the industry and tourism destinations. Cooperation among all interested parties will be the key to developing successful management systems.

"Tourism can help the environment in many ways, especially by providing economic incentives to protect resources that have little other financial value, such as unique animal species, natural areas and cultural monuments," said WTO Secretary-General, Antonio Enriquez Savignac in announcing the project.

In addition, many international funding agencies have established programmes to encourage tourism which favours the protection of the environment, including the REC which has awarded several Earmarked Grants for ecotourism initiatives in Central and Eastern Europe.

As the countries of Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) continue to search for means of economic development, the tourism industry presents a number of unique challenges and opportunities. Many of them are actively wooing the world tourism market; and the numbers are on the rise. According to a recent Council of Europe report, the CEE region attracted more than 17% of arrivals to Europe in 1993, with Hungary leading the way as one of the top five world tourism destinations. The CEE countries boast a significant cultural heritage as well as many more untouched natural areas than in the West which present vast opportunities for ecotourism. But as many of these countries continue to struggle with the process of privatizing lands, and generating revenue, the pressure has mounted for exploitation of natural resources.

Because the tourism industry is in the relatively early stages in CEE there are still opportunities to develop a comprehensive management plan rather than an ad hoc system of add-ons. This vision is at the forefront for many countries in the region.

While Albania would be at the top of the alphabetical tourism "yellow pages," it is not likely to be the first place to come to mind when planning an eco-get-a-way. The country is still a virtual unknown on the vacation circuit, but according to Genc Pasko, the new Director for Albania's Ministry of Tourism, it is a top priority for the national economic development.

While at REC as a senior fellow earlier this year, Pasko described Albania's tourism as being in an "embryonic stage," but emphasized that it has been identified as an area where the country has an international competitive advantage. "Albania has been isolated in the past and not many people have had the chance to visit there, so our nature is untouched and our coast is unspoiled," says Pasko.

Indeed the bright Albanian sun shines on nearly 450 kilometres of relatively pristine coastline. The Albanian Alps, numerous lakes, vast forests and the rich cultural heritage of one of the oldest civilizations in Europe, round out the offerings which the Ministry of Tourism hopes will draw visitors and their much-needed hard currency to the country.

With funding from the European Bank for Reconstruction and

Development the ministry outlined a detailed set of guidelines for the tourism industry which includes long-term plans for environmental protection. Part of the development efforts includes the creation of national parks and protected areas. Some of Albania's most pristine and ecologically valuable areas, such as the lagoon at Diviaka, the marsh areas of Butrint Lake, and the inland forests at Lura are slated to receive protected designation. On the industry side, a PHARE programme for tourism in Albania is providing grants and loans to entrepreneurs who want to develop basic services and lodgings. And potential foreign investors have been quick to investigate development opportunities, particularly in the hotel industry in coastal areas.

Guidelines for the Development of Sustainable Tourism in Natural Areas

1. State clear conservation aims.
2. Establish an inventory of existing ecological resources and baseline environmental status.
3. Develop partnerships with all interested parties, especially local communities.
4. Assess the possible environmental degradation and carrying capacity.
5. Analyze tourist markets and visitor's needs.
6. Ensure that tourism supports a wide range of local economic activities.
7. Identify tourism activities that are compatible with the area.
8. Establish standards for quality.
9. Establish management policies that minimize environmental damage, such as zoning for building, and transportation and waste management.
10. Educate and train staff; establish programmes for educating visitors.
11. Create a communications and marketing strategy.
12. Establish a programme for monitoring and review.

But so far Albania has not lost sight of the need to safeguard the environment. Pasko says the ministry is committed to developing tourism in an environmentally friendly way and avoiding the overdevelopment that plagues other destinations. "We will try to develop a tourism that is different from our Mediterranean competitors. We want tourists to find in Albania what they have failed to find in other places," he says.

One of things they may very well fail to find, however, is an easy way to get there. While directly accessible by ferries from Italy and Corfu, overland transportation is another story. Of the few roads there, most are in poor condition and the rail system and the airport in Tirana are obsolete, making travel in the country slow and difficult at best.

To the north, Estonia's burgeoning tourism faces a similar set of issues, but with an added public relations challenge. The popular image of the Baltics is one of lands mired in industrial pollution and dotted with toxic sites from ex-military bases. Yet with only 1.5 million people and uneven land use Estonia has pockets of wildness that are better preserved than that in most Western countries. Tourism can play a vital role in preserving the environment by staving off other commercial, forestry and agricultural development.

One initiative which has taken on the challenge of promoting travel in Estonia aims to develop tourism "the natural way". The Kodukant Ecotourism Initiative is committed to conserving Estonian wildlife and culture while finding alternative livelihoods for rural people through sustainable tourism. This initiative puts significant emphasis on the premise that tours to attractive rural areas must provide an economic benefit to the people living in and around them—"striking a balance between profitability and sustainability."

In addition to its varied landscapes from seashores to mountains and rich biodiversity, Estonia boasts vast rural areas and farmlands. These relatively untouched areas offer numerous opportunities for tourists to enjoy outdoor activities, observe wildlife, and participate in local culture. The Kodukant initiative has developed a network of rural farms and tourism companies which operate under a set of standards developed with the help of local authorities and non-government organizations. The principles for the Natural Way tours include the stipulation that all organizers are local companies or residents; services and products are obtained from local sources; and that one percent of the profits are allocated for protection of the area's natural resources.

The principal of involving local communities in the process is echoed in numerous international initiatives. A joint study by WTO and the United Nations Environment Programme found this element to be essential to the success of ecotourism. "If ecotourism is to receive a higher priority in government plans, especially in developing countries considerable effort must be made to effectively involve local inhabitants in the tourism activity," the report concluded. Closer economic links between ecological preservation and tourism are developing, but much remains to be done.

Ultimately one of the most important goals of ecotourism must be the preservation of nature. Education about the inherent societal values of the environment will be key to reaching this goal. Protected sites are already being used for significant scientific research. Often the findings contribute to an increased recognition of the area's ecological value. The research can also serve to establish benchmarks for preservation, since the sites are often largely intact and relatively pristine ecosystems, they can serve as a basis for comparison.

A second component is educating the visitors. Tourists and their hosts should be taught about nature conservation and protection as well as respect for the culture visited. Often the ecotourist is eager to learn something from what he or she is seeing considering the landscape, ecology, and people. Local inhabitants can play a large role in how the visitors view the destination. By becoming educated hosts and guides they can encourage tourists to see their communities as more than a site for recreation.

Travel to wild places has the potential to inform and educate large groups of people about the importance of nature. This awareness will give vital support for efforts to protect the wild world in the future. At summer's end sightseers may return home with more than snapshots and a sunburn, today's ecotourist could bring back a greater appreciation for the natural world and the motivation to protect it.

Words and Expressions

waste disposal **垃圾处理**
recycling **循环利用**
environmental impact **环境影响**
environmental impact assessment **环境影响评估**
environmental indicators **环境指标**
auditing systems and procedure **监测系统和程序**
environmental code **环境准则**
environmental regulation **环境法规**
measurement criteria **衡量标准**
Visitor Orientation Center **游客服务中心**
Annual Physical Capacity **年实际容量**

Notes

1. the Great Barrier Reef　澳大利亚大堡礁，位于澳大利亚东北部昆士兰州的东海岸，是世界十大自然奇景之一。由 2900 个独立的珊瑚礁石群组成，堪称世界上最大的天然海洋公园、珊瑚水族馆。
2. Agenda 21　二十一世纪议程，是 1992 年 6 月 3 日至 14 日在巴西里约热内卢举行的联合国环境与发展大会通过的五个文件之一。
3. WTTC（the World Travel and Tourism Council）　世界旅游与旅行理事会，总部设在伦敦。
4. the Earth Council　地球理事会，是由前联合国秘书长特别顾问兼副秘书长摩里斯·斯特朗先生于 1992 年创办的一个极具影响力的国际性组织，宗旨是保护地球生态环境。目前全球已有 80 多个国家和地区加入该组织。
5. NGO（non-governmental organization）　非政府组织
6. REC（Regional Environmental Center for Central and Eastern Europe）　中、东欧地区环境中心，是由美国、欧洲委员会以及匈牙利于 1990 年联合建立的一个非赢利机构，其任务是协助解决中东欧地区的环境问题。
7. earmarked grants　指定款项
8. Alps　阿尔卑斯山，欧洲著名的山脉，西起法国东南部的尼斯，东至奥地利的维也纳。山脉呈弧形，长 1200 公里，平均海拔约 3000 米。
9. Butrint　布特林特科孚海峡和布特林特湖之间的小半岛。自史前时代就有人类聚居，它先后成为希腊殖民地、罗马人的城市和主教管辖区，随后进入拜占庭统治的繁荣时期，接着又被威尼斯人占领。城市在中世纪晚期被遗弃成为荒泽，现存的考古遗迹展现了城市发展过程中各个时期的风貌。1992 年作为文化遗产列入《世界遗产名录》。1997 年 12 月 6 日的世界遗产大会第 21 次会议将其纳入《世界濒危遗产名录》。
10. Butrint Lake　布特林特湖
11. PHARE programme　援助匈牙利和波兰的经济改造计划
12. Tirana　地拉那，阿尔巴尼亚首都
13. Estonia　爱沙尼亚，位于波罗的海东海岸，属海洋性气候。濒临里加湾、波罗的海和芬兰湾，海岸线长 3794 公里，与俄罗斯和拉脱维亚接壤。多湖泊和沼泽，沿海多岛屿。森林覆盖率为 43%，其他自然资源贫乏。爱沙尼亚在波罗的海拥有重要的战略地位，自古即为各强国的必争之地。
14. the Baltics　波罗的海国家，包括立陶宛、爱沙尼亚、拉脱维亚等。

15. the United Nations Environment Programme 联合国环境署

Comprehension Questions and Questions for Discussion

1. What examples can serve as warnings to the potential dangers of uncontrolled tourism?
2. Why do we say whether the primary impact is positive or negative largely depends on how tourism is managed?
3. What does the Agenda 21 action plan aim at?
4. What are the guidelines for the development of sustainable tourism in natural areas? Which do you think is the most important?
5. In which aspects are Estonia and Albania similar to each other?
6. What is the Natural Way tour? What are included in the principles for it?
7. What is one of the most important goals of ecotourism? What is the key to reaching this goal?
8. What are some of the reasons that quickened the development of ecotourism?
9. What can tourists do to achieve sustainability of ecotourism?
10. What role can local inhabitants play in nature conservation and protection?

Supplementary Reading

The International Tourist

International travel largely emanates from countries with a comparatively high standard of living, with high rates of economic growth, and with social systems characterized by declining inequality of incomes and a sizable urban population. In addition, these international travelers come from countries where large-scale industry and commerce comprise the foundations of the economy and where the communications and information environment is dominated by the mass media. The international market is largely made up of middle-income people, including the more prosperous minority of the working class, who normally live in large cities and earn their living in managerial, professional, white-collar, supervisory, and skilled occupations.

There are four extremes relating to the preferences of the international tourist: 1) complete relaxation to constant activity, 2) traveling close to one's home environment to a totally strange environment, 3) complete dependence on group travel to traveling alone, and 4) order to disorder. These extremes are not completely separate, and for most travelers there may be any number of combinations on any given trip. For example, a traveler may take a peaceful river cruise and then enjoy a strenuous swim in a quiet pool.

Relaxation Versus Activity

Historically, the first wave of mass international travel (the interwar and postwar years) occurred at a time when there was a sharp differentiation between work and leisure and when the working week for most people, including the middle class, was long and exhausting. Under these circumstances it was not surprising the demand concentrated on holidays that offered relaxation, recuperation, and rest. Essentially they provided an opportunity for winding down and getting fit for the next 49 weeks of arduous activity. Since then the balance between work and leisure has shifted sharply in favor of the latter. Usually the weekend is free, and the annual holiday leave for some workers has been lengthened. In other words, over the past decade people have become used to greater slices of leisure time. Relaxation is possible throughout the year, and there is less need to use a holiday exclusively for this purpose.

With the arrival of year-round leisure, there seems to be a surfeit of opportunities for relaxation, so that increasingly the people have started to use their non-holiday leisure time to acquire and exercise new activity skills — sailing, climbing, sports, horseback ridding. It is reasonable to forecast that the balance between leisure and work will continue to move in the direction of leisure and that the relative demand for activity-oriented travel will increase.

Familiarity Versus Novelty

Most people, when they make their first venture abroad, tend to seek familiarity rather than novelty: people speaking the visitors' language, providing the meals and beverages they are accustomed to, using the same traffic conventions, and so on. Having found a destination where the traveler feels at home, this sort of tourist, at least for the first few ventures abroad, will be a "repeater," going back time and again to the same place. Not until more experience is gained will the traveler want to get away from a normal environment—to mix with people who speak differently, eat differently, dress differently.

In the Western world the general change in social conditions seems to be in the direction of speeding up the readiness for novelty. Where previously the social climate and rigid structure of society had reinforced a negative attitude to change, we now find increasingly a positive attitude to change. People accept and seek innovation in industry, education, family life, the arts, social relationships, and the like.

In particular, in countries with high living standards, manufacturers faced with quickly saturated markets concentrate on developing new products and encouraging the consumer to show greater psychological flexibility. More and more markets are dependent on the systematic organization of rapid change in fashion to sustain and expand. With the blurring of class differences and rising standards of living, travel demand will likely reflect this climate and express fragmentation of the total market as people move away from the traditional resorts to a succession of new places.

(By David W. Howell)

Unit Seven

Prioritizing Cultural Heritage in the Asia-Pacific Region—Role of City Governments

Why Heritage?

The Asia-Pacific region is endowed with a vast and ancient cultural heritage that is more than 2000 years old. From the Indus Valley civilization in South Asia to the Chinese kingdoms and dynasties of East and Southeast Asia, ancient heritage has shaped much of the lives and value systems of the regions' peoples.

There is a growing recognition that cultural heritage and its conservation is a shared responsibility of all levels of government, proponents, and members of a community. We are now gradually moving away from simply making an inventory of heritage resources, to an integrated and interlinked approach to heritage management. Heritage is more than a record of the past—it is becoming an integral part of the urban identity now, and for the future.

Conserving this precious and ancient heritage has been a challenge to both governments as well as the civil society at large. This is particularly true for city governments that are in 'direct contact' with the manifestations of heritage at the local level. Cities have recognized that many of the old historic areas are in danger of being destroyed in the name of economic development and modernization. Many are indeed old cities that were seats of civilization for centuries—Delhi, Bangkok, Hue, Esfahan, Seoul, and Yangoon.

The criticality of cultural heritage for cities stems from three sets of factors. Social factors include enhancement of a city's image and identity (and hence leading to its residents' pride in the city), and integration into day-to-day living and development of value systems for the community. Politico-economic factors are more easily understood, and involve the role of heritage in tourism (and hence in the local economy), and its archaeological and historical importance. Finally, planning factors—particularly applicable to architectural heritage—involves the reuse, redevelopment and regeneration of heritage objects to preserve and integrate them into the larger developmental process of the city as a whole.

It is important, therefore, to place the issues of heritage conservation within the overall process of urban development, as well as interlink it with other issues such as tourism development, revitalization of the local economy and local governance. In responding to pressures for the future, inherent in its development pressures, economic conditions, and drive for modernization, it is vital not only to protect tourism resources, but also to promote community development that focuses on cultural landscapes.

To highlight the importance of heritage conservation and the need to focus attention on the issues, opportunities to share experiences and lessons among cities and its partners need to be provided. Hue in Vietnam and Lille in France, for example, have committed to preserve the architectural resources of Hue. With the involvement of French and Vietnamese experts, five traditional houses in Hue have been selected for rehabilitation and work on one of them is now in progress. Once this project is completed, the house will function as an office as other rehabilitation projects are launched, models of sensitive preservation presented, and advice offered to other historic building owners throughout Vietnam.

The three case studies presented below come from cities that have led the way in heritage conservation initiatives.

Kathmandu: the People's Heritage

The rich cultural heritage of the Kathmandu Valley region includes the cities of Kathmandu, Lalitpur and Bhaktapur that have a number of ancient shrines, temples, palaces and open squares. Besides a plethora of year-round fairs and festivals, the area also has many stone sculptures, bronze figures, wood-carvings and terra-cotta art to offer.

The responsible local government—Kathmandu Municipal Corporation (KMC)—has clearly realized the need for integrating cultural heritage conservation into a broad process of community and citizens participation. Two reasons are put forth, the importance of community involvement for the success of any heritage initiative, and the implications for civic pride and city-image building among citizens.

Preservation of cultural heritage is directly linked with the city's economy, with tourism being a major activity. The medieval city integrates its population with the city's cultural and historical attributes. These, in terms of religion, rituals and cultural activities are the essence of the city's economic and physical form. They are closely integrated with life in the city. The compatibility of these elements with modernization needs to be tested, but its future lies in integration, rather than separation.

Recognizing the importance of cultural heritage preservation and conservation, KMC established the Heritage and Tourism Department in 1997. KMC has been developing several strategies for heritage conservation, such as education and awareness programmes for an informed public, heritage tour for school children and media radio and television, encouraged responsible tourism, community participation, public-private partnerships, and financial incentives. KMC also encourages the local community to take on the responsibility of raising funds to support their own conservation activities. For example, the general public has agreed to donate 1000 grams of gold for the renovation of the "Tukan Bahal".

Penang: Preserving for the Future

Georgetown, Penang is a vibrant, living city with its intact traditional architecture, streetscape and matrix of socio-economic activities — ensuring its marketability as a heritage 'tourism product'. Penang has distinguished itself by identifying and maintaining the qualities, endowments and assets that collectively contribute to the city's cultural heritage.

The town was established in 1786 upon acquiring the island of Penang from a local sultan, and is named after King George IV of England. Today, Georgetown is the capital of Penang, and the administrative and commercial hub of the state. In order to develop and sustain its unique urban identity, the city has focused on interlinking physical planning, a sound policy framework, and sensitive master plans to create an urban area that is sustainable and enduring for future generations.

Penang has initiated studies and programmes that combine heritage conservation with the larger goal of local sustainability (for example, the 'Sustainable Penang' programme). It has also incorporated it into tourism plans and projects, enhancing its intrinsic value to the local economy, but more so to its future. The initiative's economic sustainability is ensured by partnerships with the private sector in building the tourism potential of Georgetown for visitors and residents alike.

Manila: Getting the Framework Right

For the Philippines, Intramuros (meaning 'within the walls') represents the beginning of recorded history on urban development. It was the seat of religion, government and education during several of its historical periods, and is intrinsically woven into Philippines' history.

But four centuries of misuse, war, lack of maintenance and pollution had taken its toll on Intramuros. The efforts in restoration and redevelopment of Intramuros started in 1965 to prevent further deterioration and incorporate it into the mainstream of urban development.

The uniqueness of the efforts in preserving Intramuros lies in the setting up of a separate urban planning and development agency for the historic area—the Intramuros Administration (IA)—that is responsible for its redevelopment and restoration. IA derives its organizational support from not only the national government (Planning Board, Department of Tourism), but also from the Metro Manila (Traffic management, infrastructure, waste collection, etc.).

Along with the setting up of IA, other supportive measures and actions have also been taken—classifying Intramuros as a 'cultural zone', drawing up integrated master plans for the area, removal of inappropriate land-uses, design guidelines and urban streetscape rules for future development, restoration of historic buildings and structures, etc.

Heritage Conservation: The Three-pronged Approach

In-depth analyses of the three case studies, and interviews and presentations of with city officials clearly point out the important lessons learnt for cultural heritage conservation and the role of city governments—

- The need for deeper and broader participation and awareness building among the citizens and civil society at large, as illustrated by the case of Kathmandu.
- The need for proper documentation and preservation programmes to be put in place, as illustrated by the case of Georgetown, Penang.
- The need for a strong institutional and policy environment, as illustrated by the case of Manila's Intramuros.

These three lessons are being presented here as a 'three-pronged approach' to heritage conservation:

- **Participation and Awareness-Building**

Programmes and projects have to be set up by local governments that aim at redevelopment and regeneration of heritage areas, particularly old buildings and others of architectural value. This not only ensures that the buildings are economically viable, but also enhances the city's character. The role of NGOs and citizens groups is also critical—in preservation activities, in generating ideas, in fostering civic pride, and in financial investment. Participation and awareness-building is further enhanced by fairs, festivals and other events such as competitions etc.

- **Documentation and Preservation**

Critical to good documentation and preservation implemented by city governments, is its integration into national organizations and programmes in heritage conservation. This ensures historical and cultural continuity, and enables a more holistic approach to conservation. Publications in a variety of formats targeted at different users include books, reports, brochures, guides, maps, and audio-visual products. Parallel to this is the need for local governments to support research and documentation efforts of universities and research institutions, including trusts and other private commissions that are involved in heritage conservation. Support can also be provided for educational courses, training of personnel, and in research activities. Setting up of museums (long-term) and organizing exhibitions (periodic/short-term) is useful for documentation and preservation activities.

- **Institutional and Policy Environment**

Having an effective and enabling institutional and policy environment goes a long way in creating the necessary incentives needed to prioritize heritage conservation. Developing special conservation plans and zoning controls, and integration into the city's overall master plans is important, so is the need for laws, legislations, rules and building codes. This can be done using existing local organizational and governance structures, or special units, commissions or agencies can be set up to deal specifically with heritage conservation, with full legislative and administrative/financial backing of the local government.

In conclusion, the question here is no longer whether we need heritage conservation—the question is indeed how to prioritize heritage conservation as an important aspect of a city's overall development, and to set up an appropriate framework for its integration and implementation within existing systems of development and management.

(By Hari Srinivas)

Words and Expressions

carrying unit **承载单位**
capacity planning **容量规划**
biological carrying capacity **生态承载能力**
physical carrying capacity **物质承载能力**
alien cultural and tourist experience **外来文化和旅游体验**
psychological carrying capacity **心理承载能力**
limits to acceptable change **接受变化的限度**
Values and lifestyle (VALS) **价值观及生活方式**
socio-economic characteristics for tourism **旅游的社会经济特征**
sociological basis of tourism development **旅游发展的社会学基础**
the Inventory of Wetland of International Importance **世界重要湿地名录**

Notes

1. cultural heritage **文化遗产**
2. the Indus Valley **自** 20 **世纪** 20 **年代起，在印度河谷先后发现几个古代城市遗址，著名的有哈拉巴和摩亨佐·达罗，因此统称为哈拉巴文化。古代印度是人类文明的发祥地之一，它和中国、埃及、巴比伦并列为东方的四大古国。印度的名称起源于印度河。中国汉代史籍译作“身毒”或“天竺”，直到唐代才改译为“印度”。**
3. “Heritage is more than a record of the past—it is becoming an integral part of the urban identity now, and for the future.” (Para. 2) **遗产不仅仅记载着历史，它现在和将来都是展示城市身份的不可或缺的部分。**
4. Hue **顺化是越南承天省的省会。它先后是越南旧阮、西山阮和新阮的三朝古都。**
5. Esfahan **伊斯法罕是伊朗中部古城，已有** 2500 **年历史，是昔日丝绸之路一个重要商业城镇，在** 12 **世纪的波斯基而拉王朝以及** 17 **世纪的沙法维王朝，曾两次成为首都。**
6. Yangoon **仰光，缅甸的首都，地处富饶的伊洛瓦底江三角洲，是缅甸政治、军事、经济、文化、教育中心。仰光古称“大光”，**18 **世纪中期是阳光河畔的一个渔村。**1755 **年改名为“仰光”(缅甸意为“战争中止”)。**1948 **年缅甸独立后定为首都。仰光市内有举世闻名的瑞得贡大金塔** (Shwedgen Pagoda)**，**sule **佛塔等。**
7. Seoul **汉城(韩国首都，现改译为“首尔”)**

8. Lille 里尔是法国弗朗德勒（Flandre）的都城，从 2004 年起，里尔成为了“欧洲的文化之都”。
9. rehabilitation projects 复原计划
10. Kathmandu Municipal Corporation（KMC） 加德满都市政府
11. Kathmandu Valley 加德满都谷地位于伟大的喜马拉雅山南坡，在印度与西藏之间，巴格马蒂河及其支流穿过谷地，在其周围已经发展了许多遗址，包括帕德冈、帕坦和加德满都接见厅（城市广场），斯瓦亚姆布（Swayambu）与博德纳特佛教圣庙，和伯舒伯蒂与钱古·纳拉扬（Changu Narayan）印度神庙。
12. 加德满都建立于公元 8 世纪，历史上曾经是皇家首都与宗教中心，现为尼泊尔国家的首都。
13. Patan（Lalitpur） 帕坦的原名是拉里特普尔（Lalitpur），意思是美丽的城市，始建于维拉·德瓦统治时期的公元 299 年，是尼泊尔最古老的城市。从 15 世纪末至 18 世纪中叶，这里一直是马拉王朝独立的帕坦王国的首都，并且是当时政治、军事和商业中心，在一段相当长的历史时期里，一直是加德满都的竞争对手，直到沙阿王朝统一尼泊尔并以加德满都作为首都以后，帕坦的地位和发展才开始相对加德满都衰落下来。
14. Bhadgaun（Bhaktapur） 巴克塔布（Bhaktapur，或译为巴克塔普尔），又被称为巴德岗（Bhadgaun），位于加德满都市区以东 14 公里处，是 14 世纪到 16 世纪马拉王朝在加德满都谷地的首府，被称为“信徒之城”，这里禁止车辆入内，是尼泊尔维护得最好的古都。此城始建于公元 9 世纪，主要古迹集中在旧皇宫广场（Durbar Square），陶马迪街（Taumadi Tole）和塔丘帕街（Tachupal Tole）。
15. King George IV of England 乔治四世是乔治三世的长子，封威尔士亲王。1810 年乔治三世病重，根据议会通过的《摄政法》成为摄政王。1820 年，乔治三世晏驾后，成为英国国王，称乔治四世。
16. sensitive master plans 总规划

Comprehension Questions and Questions for Discussion

1. From what aspects do we need to prioritize cultural heritage in the Asia-Pacific region?
2. Why does the writer say “Conserving this precious and ancient heritage has been a challenge to both governments as well as the civil society at large”? (Para. 3)
3. Why does “the criticality of cultural heritage for cities stems from three sets

of factors"? (Para. 4)

4. How can the issues of heritage conservation be solved?
5. What are the problems in the cities of Hue and Lille? Are there any similarities?
6. What do you learn from the three case studies?
7. Can you explain "three-pronged approach" to heritage conservation?
8. Why do you think that to prioritize heritage conservation is an important aspect of a city's overall development?
9. How much do you know about the current situation of cultural heritage conservation in China?
10. Some people say the Bell Tower in Xi'an has been causing serious traffic problems, so it should be moved somewhere else. What is your opinion?

Supplementary Reading

System Geography

In addition to knowing about specific destinations, travel professionals need a broad view of the influence of geography on travel. All travel components operate within a geographic system, or area. Each system has its own climate, terrain, and political and cultural divisions that determine the level of tourist activity and the kinds of travel enterprises needed. As travelers move from geographic system to geographic system, the kinds and types of components needed may change.

Physical. Climate is a major influence on travel. Warmer climates tend to draw more travelers than do colder ones. In the United States, the warm states of Florida, California, and Texas account for more than one-quarter of the nation's tourism receipts. In Europe, vacationers flock to the sunny Mediterranean.

Seasonal variations affect transportation and accommodation rates. Rates are generally lower in the off-season. Travel professionals should know what an area is like during the off-season as well as during the on-season. Some travelers may prefer to take advantage of less crowded conditions and lower rates in the off-season.

Terrain, too, is a major influence on travel. Some fortunate areas have a marvelous natural attraction that stimulates tourism; people flock to Arizona, for instance, to see the Grand Canyon. Travel enterprises in a mountainous area will take advantage of the terrain by building ski resorts. An area with many lakes will build a resort industry offering visitors opportunities to swim, water ski, and fish.

The terrain determines how accessible an area is. Few people vacation in the Amazon River basin because the dense jungle makes travel difficult. Terrain also determines what transportation is necessary to get to an area. Travel professionals should know if a large body of water lies between the originating point and the point of destination of an overland journey. If so, they may need to schedule transportation on a ferry.

Cultural. Geographic areas have political boundaries —city, state, country. Governments influence how open or how closed an area is to travel and what restrictions are placed on travelers, travel industries in Western Europe, for instance, are more highly developed than are those in Eastern Europe because, until very recently, the governments of the East European nations restricted travel. Travel to the Persian Gulf area was severely restricted in the early 1990s when war broke out. The governments of many nations advised their citizens to stay away from the area.

Travel professionals need to inform clients about the requirements for passing from one political jurisdiction to another. For international travel, this means helping clients obtain passports, visas, or other travel permits; informing them about necessary vaccinations; and explaining customs regulations. Travel professionals should be able to explain how to exchange currency. People who are traveling between states in this country may also require certain information, such as differences in traffic laws.

Locational. The location of a geographic area influences travel and the type of travel components. Remote, undeveloped locations may have a standard of living different from what a traveler is used to. Items commonplace to the traveler—such as toothpaste, toilet paper, or ketchup —may be unavailable or very expensive. Travel professionals need to prepare travelers for these differences.

Countries with small geographic areas, high standards of living, and high population density generate the most international travel. The countries of Western Europe —where travelers can cross several international boundaries in a short amount of time—are the best example. The United States and Canada, with their high standards of living, do not generate as much international travel because of their large size and more isolated location. Australia and New Zealand provide good examples of how geographic isolation can hamper international tourism, although this is now changing.

(By David W. Howell)

Unit Eight

Chinese Outbound Tourism

An Overview of the Outbound Chinese Market

With a population of over 1.3 billion and a rapidly expanding economy, China has the potential to exert greater influence over the development and marketing of tourism destinations worldwide over the next decade than perhaps any other country on the globe. According to the World Tourism Organization's forecasted figures from the Tourism Vision 2020 Report, China is expected to become the fourth largest generator of outbound tourists in the world, representing 6.4% of the total market share or nearly 100 million outbound travelers by 2020. Currently, only 0.7% (9.23 million) of the China mainland population travels abroad. Although small in international arrival numbers, mainland Chinese traveling abroad are considered by many to be a lucrative market outspending existing major markets in several Asian and Western countries as per capita income has quadrupled since 1983 resulting in soaring levels of disposable income. As the increasingly prosperous traveling population takes advantage of international travel opportunities, mainland China is expected to impose an enormous impact upon those 'friendly' destinations.

Overcoming Traveling Barriers

Due to the country's economic growth and prosperity, rapidly increasing disposable incomes, single currency purchasing power, more leisure time and a continuing ease on travel restrictions the mainland Chinese nationals are motivated to travel. Membership within the World Trade Organization will ensure and enhance the opportunities to travel internationally as it will require further relaxation of official travel controls by government, and travel barriers that once prevented Chinese nationals from traveling abroad will continually be eliminated.

Two key components have a role in making international travel a reality: the availability of travel time and the monies to do so. In 1995, the Chinese government implemented a single currency system allowing for the transaction of purchasing travel package tours and other foreign goods and services. During this same period the government eliminated the six-day work week policy and, in addition to weekends, the government allotted three 'golden' travel weeks resulting in nearly 110 days of available leisure time to travel either domestically or internationally.

Destination Origin

Recent research has been conducted on the origins of the outbound mainland Chinese traveler. It has been found that the majority of outbound international travelers have typically been residents of one of three major regions: Shanghai, Beijing and Guangdong. It has been suggested that although these areas are dominant in the amount of international outbound travelers they produce, there is a growing number of travelers emerging from the hinterlands or outskirt provinces. This indicates that the demand for international travel is expanding, almost parallel to the economic growth in the regions. In addition, there are strong indicators suggesting outbound travelers are increasingly taking advantage of their opportunities to visit multiple destinations once abroad. One study reports the average number of destinations visited by mainland Chinese travelers doubled from 1.3 in 1993 to 2.5 in 1999.

Mainland Chinese nationals traveling for long-haul pleasure trips tend to be 25 to 44 years of age (62%), male (58%), and married (76%). Compared to the general adult population in China, they have higher educational status (61% college/university), and are considerably more affluent as 69% of long-haul pleasure travelers have incomes of more than 3000 RMB per month and hold professional rank positions. Research analyzing future trends among mainland Chinese travelers indicates that: family travel is increasing in demand; young travelers 25 to 35 will be seeking adventure type experiences; senior travel is on the rise (those 55 and older) as their population numbers are increasing; investments are soaring and more leisure time is available to them.

Destination Choice

It has been long recognized that the perception of a destination affects destination choice. A destination choice will be made if the potential traveler believes this particular destination will produce maximum satisfaction of a need or needs among alternative destinations. How do mainland Chinese choose a travel destination? The following are considered the top five key factors in motivating the Chinese in making travel decisions (other than visiting with friends, family and relatives):

1) 'Seeing something different'
2) 'Increasing knowledge about a foreign destination'
3) 'Rest and relaxation'
4) 'Being able to share travel experiences after returning home'
5) 'Experiencing a different lifestyle/culture'.

In contrast, the following destination characteristics have been found as barriers to travel, indicating why mainland Chinese nationals will not choose a destination over an alternative:

1) 'The feeling of cultural discrimination'
2) 'The image of high cost'
3) 'The image of low value'
4) 'Language and cultural barriers'
5) 'Lack of variety of things to do'.

Travel to the U.S.

A recently conducted study reveals that the U. S. ranks first among countries most desired to visit by the China outbound market. The U. S. currently, is not a destination with ADS 'Approved Destination Status'. In fact, the visa requirements for mainland Chinese visitors to the U. S. are very restrictive. Despite the non-ADS approval and the U. S. government's visa restrictions, the number of Chinese travelers to the U. S is predicted to rise nearly 15% between 2000—2010. Profile research on the mainland Chinese travelers to the U. S. reveals that the majority of visitors are on average 40 years of age, male (72%), private business management or executives (80%) and nearly 67% are repeat visitors. Their length of stay is nearly 29 days spending a substantial amount of money—$848. 80—on gifts. The top activities they participate in include: shopping (90%), dining (81%), sightseeing in cities (47%), visiting historical places (40%), theme parks (32%) and gambling/casinos (23%).

Government Regulations, History and Development

Before 1978, outbound leisure travel from mainland China was not allowed as holidays were regarded as counterproductive to the then production economy where demand exceeded supply, in addition to the concept that enjoying leisure through travel was regarded as creating social inequality and therefore as unethical and contrary to communist ideology. However, in 1979 China adopted its Open-up Policy and began moving toward a market economy under reforms instituted by Deng Xiaoping, and since has tripled the size of its economy. After 1979, economic reforms and the open-up policy gained dominance in Chinese politics.

The Chinese political environment began to shift from the old Chinese paradigm of 'from social stability comes economic equality' towards 'China's political stability can only be maintained if economic prosperity is achieved'. As the economic impact of tourism began to be recognized in creating demand and stimulating economic development, travel and tourism became a new growth point of China's economy and was promoted to the forefront of its economic reform and policy development. In the late 1980s, The China Travel Service (CTS), then the only sanctioned travel agency, embarked on organizing groups yearning to visit Hong Kong and Macao for leisure purposes. In May of 1991, the relaxation of travel regulations helped to encourage outbound travel further.

Nine major travel agencies were now permitted to package trips for mainland Chinese nationals to Hong Kong, Macao and six ASEAN countries: Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand, Philippines, Indonesia and Brunei. Soon after, tourism became more of a reality for Chinese travelers in a 'western' sense with the 1997 declaration, the 'Provision Regulations on the Management of Outbound Travel by Chinese Citizens at Their Own Expense'. This provision allows those with available funds to travel at their own expense to ADS destinations, rather than relying on the historical policy of having one's family member from the overseas destination solely paying for the trip. By the year 2002, there were more than 22 countries given ADS approval, with Australia and New Zealand awarded as the first Western countries to receive ADS. Most recently, several countries representing the European Union (EU) were designated with ADS approval and will now allow restricted travel by mainland China tours for leisure purposes. Consequently, some research suggests that the U.S. is next in line for ADS approval, however, others feel this reality is still years away.

The Chinese Travel Trade Complex System of Control

In what are still the early stages of outbound travel from mainland China, government travel policies often play an important function in the development of the Chinese outbound market. The Chinese government maintains supremacy over its outbound market by controlling: 1) the destinations in which its citizens visit through the ADS policy on destination approval, 2) who pays for the trip and how much monies are spent in traveling, as well as 3) who promotes travel or participates in the travel arrangements. Various key government agencies are involved in the management of outbound travel in China. The China National Tourism Administration (CNTA) is China's National Tourism Organization (NTO) which controls the environment within which the travel sector operates. The Public Security Bureau (PSB) is in charge of monitoring and issuing passports to mainland Chinese nationals and the Civil Aviation Administration of China (CAAC) supervises the distribution of airline tickets, as well as, overseeing the aviation sector.

China's Distribution System

China has a unique distribution system. Unlike the U. S., Japan and Korea, there are no wholesalers and retailers in the Chinese tourism distribution system, or at least the roles are not clearly defined. It has been suggested that strict licensing, high profitability of tour packaging and quality control requirements are the root causes for the blurring of the wholesaling and retailing functions in Chinese business practices. As a result, the Chinese outbound industry is controlled and operated by only a few large Chinese outbound operators. China's state controlled travel companies however, have evolved as travel activity has grown. For example, major companies such as China Travel Services (CTS), China International Travel Service (CITS), China Youth Travel Service (CYTS) and China Comfort Travel Service (CCTS), now consist of vast networks of entities with minimal relationships between various cities and branches.

Chinese travel agencies are divided into three categories: 'A', 'B' and 'C'. China has 360 Category A travel agencies authorized to operate travel business, of which sixty-seven are permitted to deal with the outbound tourism market. As there are no independent retail outlets, all operators must handle the full dynamics of the wholesaling and retailing role, including developing a capability and performance structure for creating products, estimating future demand and selling the product. Category B agencies are restricted to arrange tour-related activities for foreign tourists coordinated by Category A travel agencies and domestic tourists, while Category C agencies are restricted to handling domestic travel only.

Future of the Distribution System

Currently, as a strategy to conform with regulations imposed by the World Trade Organization, the Chinese government has moved in a positive direction by endorsing 'strategic partnerships' between the established Chinese travel companies and foreign entities such as Touristik Union International (TUI) and American Express. In considering the future of the Chinese travel trade, researchers suggest that as the outbound industry matures, competition between entities will intensify at the market level, resulting in competition shifting towards greater emphasis on cost and service. This trend will eventually force the industry into creating the appropriate infrastructure by developing common distribution channels and subsequently segmenting the industry into wholesaling and retailing functions.

(Adapted from 2003 World Tourism Organization)

Words and Expressions

destination management organizations (DMO) **目的地管理机构**
destination management system (DMS) **目的地管理系统**
travel agent **旅行代理商**
tour operator **旅游经营商**
national tourism office **国家旅游办事处**
European travel agent **欧洲旅游代理商**
horizontal intermediary **横向中介机构**
vertical intermediary **纵向中介机构**
retail travel agent **旅行零售代理商**
destination components **目的地构成要素**
destination common feature **目的地共同特点**

Notes

1. Approved Destination Status (ADS) **批准旅游目的地,出国旅游的目的地国家,由国务院旅游行政部门会同国务院有关部门提出,报国务院批准后,由国务院旅游行政部门公布。目前,国务院已批准为出境旅游目的地国家(地区)有** 54 **个。**
2. ASEAN Countries **东南亚国家联盟,简称"东盟",其前身是由马来西**

亚、菲律宾和泰国三国于 1961 年 7 月 31 日在曼谷成立的东南亚联盟。1967 年 8 月 7 日至 8 日，印度尼西亚、泰国、新加坡、菲律宾四国外长和马来西亚副总理在曼谷举行会议正式宣告东南亚国家联盟成立。20 世纪 80 年代后，文莱（1984 年）、越南（1995 年）、老挝（1997 年）、缅甸（1997 年）和柬埔寨（1999 年）五国先后加入该组织，使东盟由最初成立时的五个成员国发展到目前的 10 个成员国。

3. Package Trip　包价旅游，指旅行社通过事先计划、组织和编排旅游活动项目，向旅游者推出的包揽一切有关服务工作的旅游形式。它包括旅游日程、目的地及行、宿的具体服务等级和各处旅游活动的内容安排，并以总价的形式一次性地收取费用。包价旅游又可分为团体包价和散客包价。
4. the China Travel Service（CTS）　中国旅行社，始建于 1949 年 11 月，是新中国的第一家旅行社。
5. the Management of Outbound Travel by Chinese Citizens at Their Own Expense　中国公民自费出国旅游管理暂行办法，1997 年 3 月 17 日国务院批准，1997 年 7 月 1 日国家旅游局、公安部发布。
6. the European Union　欧洲联盟，简称欧盟（EU），位于欧亚大陆西部，面积 333.7 万平方公里，人口 3.76 亿。总部设在比利时首都布鲁塞尔，是当今世界一体化程度最高的区域政治、经济集团组织。其前身是欧洲共同体，即欧洲经济共同体、煤钢共同体和原子能共同体的统称。1993 年 11 月，《欧洲联盟条约》（又称《马斯特里赫特条约》）生效，欧共体演化为欧洲联盟。欧盟现有 15 个成员国：法国、德国、意大利、荷兰、比利时、卢森堡（创始国）、英国、丹麦、爱尔兰（1973 年加入）、希腊（1981 年）、西班牙、葡萄牙（1986 年）、奥地利、芬兰和瑞典（1995 年）。欧盟共有 11 种官方语言，按照规定，欧盟所有官方文件必须以上述 11 种文字印刷。
7. the Civil Aviation Administration of China（CAAC）　中国民用航空总局
8. China International Travel Service（CITS）　中国国际旅行社总社
9. China Youth Travel Service　中国青年旅行社
10. China Comfort Travel Service　中国康辉旅行社
11. Touristik Union International（TUI）　国际旅游联盟，是一个代表世界汽车驾驶组织和旅游俱乐部的非营利性的民间协会，其宗旨是研究国际旅游中出现的一切问题，提出建设性的改革意见，扶持旅游业的发展，保护旅游业的利益，现其全球会员已超过两亿。TUI 于 1898 年成立于卢森堡，是由欧美 17 个俱乐部创建的，总部现设立在日内瓦。经过一个世纪的发展，TUI 已拥有 138 个会员国，分布在全球 83 个国家，

包括一些国家的旅游局、汽车协会、旅游和汽车俱乐部。

Comprehension Questions and Questions for Discussion

1. Nowadays, more and more Chinese people travel abroad. What motivates Chinese nationals to travel?
2. There are two factors that make Chinese people's international travel a reality. What are the two factors? Please explain them in detail.
3. Some research has been done on mainland Chinese traveling abroad. What are the future trends among mainland Chinese travelers?
4. It is recognized that the perception of a destination affects destination choice. What are the factors that motivate Chinese to make travel decisions?
5. What hinder(s) mainland Chinese nationals from choosing one destination over the other?
6. When Chinese travelers make a trip to the United States, what is the maximum amount of time allowed to stay there? What are the most popular activities that Chinese travelers like to enjoy in the United States?
7. Government travel policies often play an important function in the development of the Chinese outbound market. How does the Chinese government maintain supremacy over its outbound market?
8. What makes the China tourism distribution system unique?
9. The future trend of the Chinese travel trade lies in that the competition will shift toward greater emphasis on cost and service. How will this trend affect the Chinese travel industry?
10. If you were the director of the Chinese Traveling Administration, what would you propose in order to improve the Chinese outbound market?

Supplementary Reading

Common Health Problems

Any travelers going out of their own country should think about medical care before they leave. This is especially true for those who have a preexisting medical condition that might flare up while they are away. Travelers prepare for such an emergency by getting a directory of doctors throughout the world.

A list can be obtained from the International Association for Medical Assistance to Travelers (IAMAT), the World Medical Association, or the International Health Care Service.

Diarrhea. Whether it's called Montezuma's Revenge or Delhi Belly, diarrhea ranks as one of the most common illnesses of people traveling abroad. The cause is usually an unfamiliar intestinal bacteria picked up from untreated water or unclean food. Symptoms may also include fever and vomiting.

Travelers can help prevent diarrhea by watching their eating and drinking habits. They should avoid dairy products unless they're sure the milk or cream in the product was pasteurized. They should also avoid "cold" food, such as sliced meats or hard-boiled eggs, unless they're certain of the refrigeration. Raw or undercooked meat and raw fruits and vegetables may also cause problems. Most travelers have heard "Don't drink the water," but not all travelers realize that they must be careful about the ice added to beverages. In addition, travelers should be sure not to swallow any water when brushing their teeth.

If diarrhea does occur, it's vital to prevent dehydration. Diarrhea victims should drink plenty of liquids —tea, bottled water, soda pop, or broth. An over-the-counter diarrhea medicine may be taken. If symptoms persist longer than three days, a physician should be consulted. The nearest American embassy or consulate will have a list of local doctors who speak English.

Dysynchronosis. The symptoms of this traveler's disease are irregular sleeping and waking and physical exhaustion. Dysynchronosis (meaning "time out of sync") sounds frightful until you hear its common name—jet lag.

Jet lag results from transatlantic and transpacific flights. Because travelers pass through several time zones in a short period of time, the body's natural biological clock becomes confused. For instance, passengers might take off from Chicago at 5:30 P.M. and fly nonstop to London. They arrive at 1:00 A.M. Chicago time, but it's already 7:00 A.M. London time. The travelers are ready for bed, while Londoners are ready for a full day's activities. It will take two or three days for the travelers' biological clocks to reset themselves to the new time schedule.

To minimize the effects of jet lag, some authorities suggest that, before departing, travelers gradually adjust their eating and sleeping schedule to that of their destination. However, this is often difficult to do, especially in the busy and exciting week before departure. Travelers should try not to become overtired on the day of departure. During the flight, they should drink plenty of nonalcoholic liquids and try to doze for a while. Sleeping pills, motion sickness medicine, tobacco, and caffeine tend to aggravate jet lag.

Once arrived at their destination, travelers should not attempt a full day of sightseeing. Nor should they sleep themselves out, or they will be wide awake at the wrong times. Instead, they should rest for two or three hours and then force themselves to get up and pursue some activities, such as a short sightseeing trip.

Sleepy travelers should not try to drive a car the first day or two. This would be especially hazardous in the British Isles, where Americans must adjust to driving on the left side of the road!

Motion Sickness. In the movies, motion sickness is often treated with humor. The audience laughs at passengers on a cruise ship moaning and groaning in their berths or turning green and handing their heads over the railing. But in real life, motion sickness is miserable.

Motion sickness is caused by the effect of motion on the fluid in the inner ear. Its symptoms are dizziness, nausea, vomiting, and fatigue. Travelers can become sick while riding in an airplane, car, train, or boat.

Prescription and over-the-counter drugs are available to minimize the effects of motion sickness. A popular prescription medication is in the form of a small adhesive patch, which the traveller places behind his or her ear. The medication is slowly released into the bloodstream for 72 hours. The patch must be applied from 4 to 16 hours before exposure to motion. Acupressure wristbands have also gained popularity in recent years.

Altitude Sickness. Travelers to Mexico City (altitude 7349 feet), La Paz, Bolivia (altitude 12,200 feet), and other destinations with high altitudes may experience breathlessness, headache, heart pains, nausea, and severe fatigue. Altitude sickness develops when the body doesn't receive enough oxygen. Although sea-level air and high-mountain air contain the same percentage of oxygen, the reduced air pressure at higher altitudes makes oxygen less available to the lungs.

After two to six days, the traveler's lungs and heart will become accustomed to the higher altitude. To prevent acute altitude sickness, vacationers should rest during the first day, eat and drink with moderation, and have their main meal at midday. Stopping to rest during the ascent or descent—even staying overnight at lower altitude—helps the body adjust to the change in altitude. Skiers and mountain climbers should limit strenuous activity to half a day during the first 24 to 48 hours. For people who must travel directly to high altitudes, a prescription drug called acetazolamide is available.

Unit Nine

Challenges of Globalization

It is almost ironic that we keep promoting not only a more integrated Asian region, but also an Asian region more integrated with the rest of the world, yet one of the big dilemmas faced by countries, societies and communities today is the decision of whether to embrace or reject globalization. The backlash against globalization has become so pervasive in some countries that little by little the notion that globalization is inexorable has lost force. Actually, some people have started to speak about the possibility of de-globalization scenario in the years to come. I don't want to join the hysteria of those who are overemphasizing globalization's demise. But I do believe that the matter certainly deserves some serious discussion and attention.

Engine of Growth

That globalization has been a powerful engine of growth for rich countries should by now not be a matter of great controversy. It should also hardly be disputable that in the developing world, globalization by supporting economic growth has been a very effective engine in reducing poverty.

The evidence is overwhelming. Since 1980, a group of two dozen developing countries representing 3 billion people have become significantly more open and have also managed to have their GDP per capita grow twice the rate of rich countries. Yet despite their substantially increasing population, these countries were able to reduce both the sheer number and the proportion of their people living in extreme poverty.

It is a very solid observation that increasing openness, economic growth and poverty alleviation have occurred together in the most successful developing countries. Despite the evidence, the misleading perception that globalization is fundamentally a system to make the rich richer, far from being subdued, has instead continued to spread. In reality, globalization has helped to solve some important problems, including poverty, as mentioned. But, admittedly, it has also created other problems. True globalization as in many economic and social processes has its downside. For one thing, markets can end up producing both winners and losers. This highlights the importance of creating sound social safety nets.

Poverty: The Great Challenge

Time and again, it has been demonstrated that when people lack education, training, good health, security and elemental infrastructure, they would be hindered from taking advantage of the tremendous opportunities presented by the market economy and globalization at large. Around 2 billion people live in countries with scant involvement in globalization. Dealing with the distress and marginalization from globalization requires good institutions and clever policies. They are important tasks to be accomplished by both developed and developing countries.

In speaking about the challenge of making globalization inclusive for all developing countries, it is essential to admit that the primary responsibility for achieving economic growth and fighting poverty lies within developing countries themselves. There is no way around building a strong system of a good government, imposing macro-economic discipline and making sufficient investment in infrastructure and education. And, of course, there is no way around the construction of strong public institutions capable of guaranteeing the rule of law, including the protection of property rights, and also of conceiving and implementing the right economic and social policies.

Open Economies in Focus

Developing countries must also have open economies. No country has ever taken off without participating in the international flows of trade and investment. There might be some questions about the optimum speed and sequence with which to open, but hardly any doubt about the need to do it. It is true that much progress has been made by developing countries in liberalizing trade over the last two decades. But it is equally true that there is still significant room for further trade liberalization by developing countries. But in this endeavour, rich countries must lead by example and, as evidenced lately, they are failing badly to do so.

Rich countries' trade barriers are overly concentrated in sectors of greater export potential on poverty reduction impact in developing countries. Developing countries were persuaded to go along with the new WTO round of trade liberalization, because they were told it offers the only way of addressing the many long-standing trade and development issues, particularly the rich countries' hugely harmful agricultural protectionism. And yet, the Doha Round, which was launched with great fanfare in November, 2001, has to date back to a story of myths and lies, unattained agreements and consequently, mounting frustration, particularly for developing countries. There should not be any doubt by now that no other topic on the Doha Agenda will be resolved unless the agricultural stumbling block is removed. There is a real risk that the negotiations will be stalled for a long time, while trade disputes mushroom out of control. The multilateral trading system and the process of global integration would then be seriously jeopardized. It is in the best self-interest of the major trading partners to prevent this from happening.

China: Export in Controversy

One of the current trade issues of some controversy that deserves careful analysis and clarification is the question of China's export performance. The issue is becoming dangerously politicized, by virtue of a highly misleading argument. I have modestly tried to put some facts straight and contribute as constructively as possible on this issue. For example, when last November, the U. S. authorities imposed import quotas on some Chinese textiles, I immediately warned that although that decision would affect only a minor portion of the U.S.-China trade, it should not be taken lightly. I predicted it would be only a matter of time before the U. S. Government could be inundated with demands from other interest groups that would want their piece of the protectionist pie, as unfortunately now seems to be happening.

I then submitted that, while it is certainly true that China's trade surplus with the United States has reached more than $ 100 billion a year, it does not follow that losses in U.S. manufacturing jobs in recent years have been caused by China's trade and exchange rate policies as some people are wont to claim. The real reasons are different and much more complicated. The U.S. trade deficit is large because the U. S. national expenditure exceeds its national income, which is possibly a matter of domestic macro-economic policy. This gap is reflected in a current account deficit that was close to $ 550 billion last year. China figures in a big portion of this deficit because it is now the United States' second largest trading partner, and because, thanks to its openness to trade and foreign investment, China is taking advantage of its own increasingly productive and low-cost labour force to become a leading player in the assembly of manufacturable goods in world markets. Even so, Chinese exports have not, in general, displaced American goods in global markets. Rather, China's world market share has grown at the expense of other labour-abundant countries that, through their own decisions, have failed to enhance their competitiveness as quickly as China has.

The new Asian giant, China, exports a lot, but also imports a lot. Thus, its total trade surplus is relatively modest. I do not tire to repeat that China must not be seen by other developing countries, including my own country, Mexico, as an adversary in world markets. China must be seen as a great opportunity and as a strategic partner. It is not emphasized enough that China has an increasingly open economy. It's ratio of trade, exports plus imports to GDP will be 50 percent this year. Its average import tariff is much smaller than those of most other large emerging economies. China has seen its total imports grow in recent years. It is now the third largest importer in the world. And the United States and many other countries have benefited from this evolution. Since 2001, China has been the most dynamic market for U.S. exports. Last year alone, U.S. exports to China grew by more than 20 percent. If anything, overall trade with China has been supportive of, not destructive to, U.S. economic activity. Furthermore, U.S. companies have benefited from China's policy of tapping world markets. One fourth of China's largest exporters are American companies, not to mention those that are already obtaining a significant chunk of their total revenues from sales in China's domestic market.

Inadequate evidence of China's alleged trade protectionism has made China-critics concentrate on this country's exchange rate policy. They accuse China of fostering its exports by manipulating its currency and demand that the *Yuan* be allowed to float at market rates. Influential people on the other side of the Pacific have asked for China to have "a monetary policy that is fair." A frequently overlooked fact is that China keeps its currency pegged by having its central bank buy surplus dollars and reinvest them abroad, essentially in U.S. treasury bonds. By doing this, China is helping to finance the U.S.'s huge fiscal and current account deficits. It is also, in a sense, replicating the United States' very expansive monetary policy, thus helping to invigorate global economic growth, something that Europe and Japan, for the most part, have failed to do. Were China to suddenly stop buying surplus dollars, upward pressure on U.S. bonders would mount. Other foreign investors in U.S. securities would follow suit and before long, interest rates would rise significantly. This would have a disastrous effect on consumers and business expenditure in the United States. The present recovery would prove quite short-lived.

Whether the China-critics like it or not, the American and Chinese economies have become interdependent to no minor extent, which is actually good news for global peace and prosperity. This fact seems to be well grasped in China, as they have been able to confirm during my conversations with some distinguished Chinese leaders in recent days. It is also gratifying to hear that Chinese leaders are well aware of the many policy challenges they must continue to address vigorously. And this commitment is very important—the economic rational of the consequences of interdependence is quite straightforward. Trade, by being mutually beneficial, gives each party a stake in the well-being of the other. But the rationale is not only economic. Contacts generated by trade, investment and migration may serve to make a country's people aware of the values, culture and customs of the people of other countries. If this awareness is supported by an economic interdependence perceived as beneficial, then over time it would give rise to a convergence of values, which would make the conflict among the interdependent parties less likely, if not impossible.

(By Ernesto Zedillo, former Mexican President)

Words and Expressions

investment incentives policy **投资激励政策**
plan failure **计划失灵**
future strategy **未来发展战略**
strategic planning **战略规划**
international tourism planning **国际旅游规划**
national tourism planning **国内旅游规划**
regional /local tourism planning **地区/区域旅游规划**
target market **目标市场**
brand name and image **品牌和形象**
financial evaluation **财务评估**
tourism balance sheet **旅游损益表**

Notes

1. elemental infrastructure **基础设施**
2. trade liberalization **贸易自由化**
3. trade surplus **贸易顺差，贸易盈余，出超**
4. trade deficit **贸易逆差**
5. The backlash against globalization has become so pervasive in some countries that little by little the notion that globalization is inexorable has lost force. (Para. 1) **在某些国家反全球化情绪已愈演愈烈,全球化是不可避免的这一观念已逐渐弱化。**
6. the Doha Round **多哈回合**
7. the Doha Agenda **多哈发展议程,**2001 **年** 11 **月,在卡塔尔首都多哈举行的世贸组织第四次部长级会议启动了新一轮多边贸易谈判。新启动的多边贸易谈判又称"多哈发展议程",或简称"多哈回合"。该轮谈判确定了八个谈判领域,即农业、非农产品市场准入、服务、知识产权、规则、争端解决、贸易与环境以及贸易和发展问题。农业问题是"多哈回合"中最核心的内容之一,是解决其他议题的关键。**
8. trade protectionism **贸易保护主义,目前主要由两种形式表现出来:一是反倾销;二是技术壁垒和绿色壁垒。**

Comprehension Questions and Questions for Discussion

1. What are the evidences of globalization as an effective engine in reducing poverty in the developing world?
2. What are the problems solved or created by globalization?
3. What preparation should almost every country do to take advantage of opportunities presented by market economy and globalization?
4. What are trade barriers in rich countries?
5. Use examples to illustrate the problems in U.S. China trade.
6. Why does U.S. suffer from trade deficit? How about the situation in China?
7. What is China's exchange rate policy at present? Does it have any influences on U.S.?
8. How do you understand "Trade, by being mutually beneficial, gives each party a stake in the well-being of the other? But the rationale is not only economic." in the last paragraph? Use examples to illustrate it.

9. In your opinion, what are the advantages and disadvantages of globalization?
10. What challenges will China have when facing globalization?

Supplementary Reading

The English Character

I

No Englishman believes in working from book learning. He suspects all theories, philosophical or other. He suspects everything new, and dislikes it, unless he can be compelled by the force of circumstances to see that his new thing has advantages over the old. Race-experience is what he invariably depends upon, whenever he can, whether in India, in Egypt, or in Australia. His statesmen do not consult historical precedents in order to decide what to do: they first learn the facts as they are; then they depend upon their own common sense, not at all upon their university learning or upon philosophical theories. And in the case of the English nation, it must be acknowledged that this instinctive method has been eminently successful.

II

The last people from whom praise can be expected, even for what is worthy of all praise, are the English. A new friendship, a new ideal, a reform, a noble action, a wonderful poet, an exquisite painting—any of these things will be admired and praised by every other people in Europe long before you can get Englishmen to praise. The Englishman all this time is studying, considering, trying to find fault. Why should he try to find fault? So that he will not make any mistakes at a later day. He has inherited the terrible caution of his ancestors in regard to mistakes. It must be granted that his caution has saved him from a number of very serious mistakes that other nations have made. It must also be acknowledged that he exercises a fair amount of moderation in the opposite direction—this modern Englishman; he has learned caution of another kind, which his ancestors taught him. "Power should be used with moderation; for whoever finds himself among valiant men will discover that no man is peerless." And this is a very important thing for the strong man to know—that however strong, he cannot be the strongest; his match will be found when occasion demands it. Not only Scandinavian but English rulers have often discovered this fact to their cost.

Ⅲ

The judgment of the Englishman by all other European peoples is that he is the most suspicious, the most reserved, the most unreceptive, the most unfriendly, the coldest-hearted, and the most domineering of all Western peoples. Ask a Frenchman, an Italian, a German, a Spaniard, even an American, what he thinks about Englishmen; and every one of them will tell you the very same thing. This is precisely what the character of men would become who had lived for thousands of years in the conditions of northern society. But you would find upon the other hand that nearly all nations would speak highly of certain other English qualities—energy, courage, honour, justice (between themselves). They would say that although no man is so difficult to make friends with, the friendship of an Englishman once gained is more strong and true than any other. And as the battle of life still continues, and must continue for thousands of years to come, it must be acknowledged that the English character is especially well fitted for the struggle. Its reserves, its cautions, its doubts, its suspicions, its brutality—these have been for it in the past, and are still in the present, the best social armor and panoply of war. It is not a lovable nor an amiable character; it is not even kindly. The Englishman of the best type is much more inclined to be just than he is to be kind, for kindness is an emotional impulse, and the Englishman is on his guard against every kind of emotional impulse. But with all this, the character is a grand one, and its success has been the best proof of its value.

(By Lafcadio Hearn)

Unit Ten

Can Confucianism Help Human Civilization?

In a world of economic globalization, how can people of the world coexist peacefully? Confronted with the deterioration of environment, can human beings live soundly with nature? Can they be rational in a world where terrorism and conflict shadow human existence? Can the answers to these questions be found in Chinese Confucianism?

Confucianism, an ancient philosophy that developed from an emphasis on the veneration of ancestors and the maintenance of rituals to harmonize with heaven, has been a major cultural influence on China for centuries. It was founded more than 2500 years ago by the great Chinese thinker Kong Zi, commonly known in the West by the Latin version of his name, Confucius. Confucianism has nearly dominated the history of China, especially in feudal times. It has greatly influenced Chinese tradition, culture and historical development, and has been an important part of Chinese traditional values.

However, Confucianism in the 19th century was diminished by the advances of Western powers and the weakness of China, which caused many people to adopt a critical and suspicious attitude toward traditional Confucian values. During the Cultural Revolution from 1966 to 1976, Confucianism was heavily criticized and resisted, leading to the disappearance of Confucianism as the state orthodoxy.

But Confucianism has grabbed people's attention once again in recent years. More children in China are reading Confucian books, such as *The Analects of Confucius* and *The Great Learning*, and are even reciting those books.

The revival of Confucianism has created a heated discussion about whether Confucianism can help or hinder China's effort to modernize.

Some say that modern society has to turn to Confucianism to maintain sustainable development. Some even assert that human beings need to return to the values of 2500 years ago and learn from the wisdom of Confucius if they really want to survive in the future.

Opponents argue that Confucianism is a backward and conservative tradition that has been responsible for all of China's social illnesses. It cannot and should not be the dominant ideology of modern society.

A Positive Impact on Civilization

There are several features of Confucianism that explain why it could promote dialogue and communication among different ethnic groups in Chinese history. Firstly, it is a kind of ethical humanism, providing universal ethical norms and principles, which embrace the spirit of humanitarianism, tolerance and equality, such as "benevolence charity and humanity love," and "do not do to others what you would not want yourself." Secondly, it emphasizes harmony, which is embodied in the following words "stay in harmony while tolerating differences" and "all things are nourished together without their injuring one another. The courses of the seasons, and of the sun and moon are pursued without any collision among them." Those thoughts have been universal principles addressing problems of human relations and between different cultures. Thirdly, the "mean" doctrine of Confucianism leads to the pursuit of the equilibrium of firmness and flexibility, for example, "beyond is as wrong as falling short" and "taking hold of two extremes, determining the mean and employing it in the government of people."

We have to admit that Confucianism, which evolved from ancient rural life, does have its limitations. With Western civilization dominating the world, Confucianism has gradually retreated as China moves toward modernization. But why hasn't it disappeared? Having survived the influences of Western civilization and undergone self-examination, Confucianism has refined itself and adapted to modern life. Confucian scholars have strived to establish a healthy interaction between the Chinese tradition and other great traditions of the world, especially that of Western philosophies. In the late 20th century, Confucianism regained a foothold in China as a national culture and has become significant in the world as a universal value. The modernization of Confucianism is closely linked with globalization.

Western culture has greatly influenced the development of human society in the past several centuries. Look what we have done today. The esurient exploitation of nature has caused an enormous waste of natural resources, the depletion of the ozone layer, toxic ocean water, environmental pollution and an imbalanced ecosystem. All these dreadful phenomena have greatly endangered the living condition of human beings. Western philosophy, which believes that "heaven and human are separate," cannot be excused for these problems with nature. Some 1500 of the world's leading scientists, including the majority of Nobel laureates in the sciences, issued a warning in November 1992, which asserted, "human beings and the natural world are on a collision course."

Different from Western philosophies, the Chinese philosophy emphasizes the "oneness of heaven and humans"—human beings' activity must be analyzed in the research of "heaven (the rule of nature)" and vice versa. The "oneness of heaven and humans," cornerstone of Confucianism, was first illustrated in *The I Ching*, or *The Book of Change*, an ancient Chinese divination manual and book of wisdom. This model of thinking reflects the inner link between human and nature and will be helpful in addressing the relationship between them.

The most important thing is that China cannot solve its own problems by using Western methods, and vice versa. We should find a point at which Chinese and Western cultures converge, and start anew from this point.

In the 21st century, we have seen the development of science, technology and economy brought about by Western rationalism as well as democracy and rule of law. Indeed, it has promoted the prosperity and strength of the Western world. However, on the other hand, we have also witnessed two worldwide conflicts inflicted by Western powers. Even today, we are still threatened by terrorism, international conflict and a possible technological war. If Western rationalism can embody the Confucius humanitarian spirit such as "do not do to others what you would not want yourself" and "stay in harmony with each other while tolerating differences," then genuine peace and prosperity will be within our reach in the foreseeable future.

At present, we should not only reinstall and spread Confucius' wisdom and his philosophy, but also cultivate a new rationalism embodying his theories —fully integrating human virtues and human knowledge. The whole world should learn to recognize the interrelationship between life and the value of life, the reciprocity of development, the diversity of the world and the openness of study so as to advance global ethics.

Useless in the Modern World

The Internet described a few male and female youths wandered along Beijing's streets, wearing Ming Dynasty (1368—1644) costumes to promote a

Chinese Renaissance. Somebody even asserted that the European Renaissance had vigorously revitalized science, thus China will also need a Renaissance to address the social problems of the modern world. The idolization of the ancients is no longer confined to elders but also piercing into youths.

Some argue that ancient Greeks had a spirit of science and democracy. As a result, the European Renaissance could stimulate a science revolution and an industrial revolution. But since ancient China did not have this spirit, the supposed renaissance in China is useless in modern development.

Ancient European scholars paid more attention to nature and cultivated many encyclopaedic scholars, like Plato and Socrates, while China did not. When Confucius was trying hard to reinstate old values like the veneration of ancestors and the maintenance of proper rituals with clan society features, when Lao Tse, the founder of Taoism, was propagating the destruction of all human knowledge and the return to a primitive society, the great thinkers of ancient Greek and Rome were pondering the origin of the world. Is it water? Fire? Soil? Wind? Atoms?

The fundamental question of Western philosophy has been to clarify the relationship between substance and consciousness, which is poles apart from ancient Chinese philosophers. Ancient Chinese philosophers put all their emphasis on political, social and ethical problems, thus can only be regarded as political theorists, sociologists or moral philosophers. In the Song Dynasty (960—1279), their followers were just interested in the "mind". The great American Sinologist John King Fairbank had deep insight into Chinese culture and philosophy, which even surpassed that of some Chinese experts. In his book, *The United States and China*, Fairbank states that the central point of Chinese philosophy has focused on the relationship of human society and individual, not the conquest of nature. He also compared the differences between ancient Chinese and Western scholars. He noted that the Chinese system for promoting officials separated literary men from craftsmen. This separation of mind and hand were quite distinct from the scientific forerunners of early Europe since Leonardo Da Vinci.

In human history, whenever progress broke the old rule before new ones could be established, there would be trend toward restoring old customs. People tend to look backward instead of forward. They would unconsciously imagine that old things were perfect. China has tried many times to restore ancient beliefs, but all have failed.

Confucianism reached a peak during the Song and Ming dynasties, when Western science was flourishing and enabled colonialists to expand their territory. Without a doubt, Confucianism could not lift its responsibility for China's dragging behind. Practice is the sole criterion of truth. It is proven by history that Confucianism cannot revitalize the Chinese nation. Why should people still hang onto it?

Science and technology are the first productive forces. Poor technology has been a main impediment of our economic development. What we need is not a so-called renaissance, but to face challenges with new thinking and by putting ourselves into the international arena.

The Chinese nation, guided by Confucianism, created a static equilibrium in its long feudalist history, in which stability was better than development. This kind of stability was beneficial to the ruling class, but even the ruled could accept static equilibrium. The economic basis of ancient China—a self-sufficient economy—was a weak agricultural economy and could not sustain foreign powers. This kind of economy bore an inborn resistance to commercial production and competition. Therefore, the vast peasantry class also needed a stable social order. Sometimes, if the brutish rulers destroyed this social order, the peasants would rise up and shake off the oppressive governments. But they never thought of fully abolishing that social order or leaping out of the confined equilibrium to seek a way out. Perhaps, Confucianism and Chinese traditional culture was responsible for that tragedy.

(From Beijing Review April, 2004)

Words and Expressions

direct socio-cultural impact **直接社会文化影响**
indirect socio-cultural impact **间接社会文化影响**
induced socio-cultural impact **诱发社会文化影响**
negative socio-cultural impact **消极社会文化影响**
dependence on tourism **对旅游的依赖性**
government revenue multiplier **政府收入乘数**
Keynesian model **凯恩斯模型**
social, technological, economic and political factors (STEP) **社会、技术、经济、政治因素**

strength, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT)　**优势、劣势、机会与威胁**

Notes

1. Cultural background: The historical importance of education in Chinese culture is derived from the teachings of Confucius and philosophers of the middle and late Chou eras. Fundamentally, these philosophies taught that social harmony could be achieved only if humans were free from deprivation and given proper education. Confucius taught that all people possessed the same potential, and that education was the corrective means to curb any tendencies to stray from ethical behavior.
2. Confucianism　**孔教,亦称"儒教",将孔子学说视作宗教的称谓。历来封建统治者都试图把孔子神圣化,将儒、佛、道三教并列。儒家中的今文经学派,从董仲舒到康有为,都曾看待孔子如同宗教之教主。但"孔子创教"之说则始于康有为的《孔子改制考》。儒教承认存在天堂和地狱(神、鬼),但不关心其他世界的事,而将注意力完全放在现实世界,创办自己的三纲五常理论框架。**
3. The Doctrine of the Mean　**《中庸》,原是《小戴礼记》中的一篇。一般认为它是战国末或秦汉之际儒家"思孟学派"的作品。后来,本篇独立成书,成为儒家最重要的经典"四书"之一部。**
4. the Analects of Confucius　**《论语》,是儒家创始人,著名思想家、教育家孔丘(前**551**—前**479**)及其弟子言行的记录。**
5. the Great Learning　**《大学》,原本是《礼记》中一篇,在南宋前从未单独刊印。传为孔子弟子曾参(前**505**—前**434**)作。自唐代韩愈、李翱维护道统而推崇《大学》(与《中庸》),至北宋二程百般褒奖宣扬,甚至称"《大学》,孔氏之遗书而初学入德之门也",再到南宋朱熹继承二程思想,便把《大学》从《礼记》中抽出来,与《论语》、《孟子》、《中庸》并列,到朱熹撰《四书章句集注》时,便成了"四书"之一。按朱熹和宋代另一位著名学者程颐的看法,《大学》是孔子及其门徒留下来的遗书,是儒学的入门读物。所以,朱熹把它列为"四书"之首。**
6. …"benevolence charity and humanity love,"…Kindness: the fundamental virtue of Confucianism. Confucius defines it as Aì Rén (**爱人**), "love others."
7. …"do not do to others what you would not want yourself."…　**"己所不欲,勿施于人"**

8. …"stay in harmony with each other while tolerating differences"… **"求同存异"**
9. …"all things are nourished together without their injuring one another. The courses of the seasons, and of the sun and moon are pursued without any collision among them."… **"…万物并育而不相害。道并行而不相悖。…"(出自《中庸》第三十章)**
10. "the 'mean' doctrine of Confucianism leads to the pursuit of the equilibrium of firmness and flexibility…"(Para. 8) **儒教的中庸之道最终追求的是稳定性与灵活性的平衡。(《中庸》开篇便讲:喜怒哀乐之未发,谓之中。发而皆中节,谓之和。中也者,天下之大本也。和也者,天下之大道也。致中和,天地位焉,万物育焉。所谓中庸之道,就是以"中"为本,以"和"为外在表现形式,以"中和"为用的德行。)**
11. …"beyond is as wrong as falling short" **…"过犹不及"**
12. …"taking hold of two extremes, determining the mean and employing it in the government of people,…" **"执其两端,用其中于民。"(出自《中庸》第六章)**
13. …"oneness of heaven and humans"… **"天人合一"**
14. Lao Tse **老子,姓李,名耳,谥曰聃,字伯阳,楚国苦县(今鹿邑县)人。约生活于前**571**年至前**471**年之间,曾做过周朝的守藏史。老子是我国人民熟知的一位古代伟大思想家,他所撰述的《道德经》开创了我国古代哲学思想的先河。他的哲学思想和由他创立的道家学派,不但对我国古代思想文化的发展作出了重要贡献,而且对我国**2000**多年来思想文化的发展,也产生了深远的影响。**
15. *The I Ching* **《易经》**; *The Book of Change* **《周易》**

Comprehension Questions and Questions for Discussion

1. Is Confucianism more of a philosophy or belief than a religion? Why do you think so? Can you summarize the history of Confucianism?
2. What's your opinion about "…whether Confucianism can help or hinder China's effort to modernize?"(Para. 5)
3. What are the features of Confucianism?
4. Give evidence to prove "…Western culture has greatly influenced the development of human society in the past several centuries". (Para. 10)
5. What are the basic differences between Western philosophy and Confucianism?

6. What is fundamental question of Western philosophy?
7. Why should people still hang onto Confucianism since it reached a peak during the Song and Ming dynasties?
8. Do you know other features and doctrines of Confucianism besides these mentioned in this article?
9. In your opinion, what are the other aspects that may help human civilization?
10. How do you understand the title of the article "Can Confucianism Help Human Civilization"?

Supplementary Reading

Feast Fit for a Medieval King

America may have exported many eating experiences like the fast food meals of multinational chains McDonald's and KFC, but it has kept two of the better experiences to itself.

The restaurant chain Medieval Times offers a banquet in the style of the medieval period in Europe, and the four-course meal served by "serfs" and "wenches" in English medieval costumes comes with a wonderful and colorful evening's entertainment. It is a show that is a representation of what it would be like to attend a knightly jousting tournament in the Middle Ages in Europe.

There are six Medieval Times "castles" in the United States. The Buena Park "castle" that I visited near Los Angeles with my family is near two other famous American entertainment theme parks—a block north of Knott's Berry farm and 10 minutes from Disneyland.

The Buena Park Medieval Times "castle" has entertained more than 4 million visitors since it opened in 1986.

There is nothing much on the outside of the Buena Park Medieval Times "castle" building to indicate what lies within an arena with seating for 1120 people around a huge, sand-filled equestrian rink where the show takes place. The show that comes with your Medieval Times restaurant meal was developed in Spain where the Andalusian stallions used in sunning displays of horsemanship are revered.

Before guests find their seats they are photographed with their host, Don

Raimundo II, Count of Perelada, and his lady. Then guests are assigned a color for the knight that is to be their favorite.

But first, the meal. There may be more exciting meals around but the food is good quality and value for money. You receive soup. Roast chicken, spare ribs you are allowed to eat these with your fingers baked potatoes and pastries that come with the $US 35.95 ticket (children 12 and under $22.95) but the evening also comes with two rounds of beer, a fruity wine cocktail and coffee, and a show that has skill, color and excitement.

The knights begin the tournament, set in 1093 A.D., with various games that demonstrate their horsemanship and weapon skills. Games like the ring-pierce, where they try to pierce a ring while riding at high speed, taught knights how to ride while performing battlefield manoeuvres.

Four magnificent white Andalusian horses perform a Spanish cuadrilla or choreographed movement with stunning precision. Two ambassadors then arrive at the tournament riding black stallions, and demonstrate delicate dressage movements. The known as the capriole in which the horse jumps with all hooves off the ground.

Then the jousting begins. It is fast, colorful and choreographed like professional wrestling.

There are goodies and baddies and, with luck, your knight will win the tournament. The riding skills take months of practice to perfect.

Another restaurant chain, Claim Jumper, is not billed as an evening's entertainment. It is just that it tends to take that long to get through the meals. We caught up with a Claim Jumper just out of Denver. We sat around a cozy fire while waiting to be called to our table for our meal.

The décor is strictly that of the old mining period in 19th century America. There are miner's lamps, pickaxes, and an atmosphere that makes you feel as if you could get up from the table, and begin panning for gold, or searching for coal. The menu tends to be straight out of the Old West with solid steaks as the central part of the menu.

The Claim Jumper chain has been in business for 20 years and most outlets are in California where people like the large meals which are the restaurant chain's claim to fame. In fact, as part of the fun for a family's night out, children weighing under 36kg on arrival are charged at 5c for any 450gm weight increase when they leave. The size of the meals is so large that the biggest winner from this night out is the family at home who will benefit from the leftover food taken home in special cartons.

(By Colin Moore)

Unit Eleven

United States of America

History

'Give me your tired, your poor/your huddled masses yearning to breath free,' reads the inscription on the Statue of Liberty. And the world did, fuelling the dynamism of America with waves of ambitious immigrants from every downtrodden corner of the globe. Immigration is one of the defining characteristics of America's national identity, though calling the U. S. a 'nation of immigrants' neatly sidesteps Native Americans (already here) and African-American slaves (brought against their will).

It's believed that the continent's first inhabitants walked into North America across what is now the Bering Strait from Asia. For the next 20,000 years these pioneering settlers were essentially left alone to develop distinct and dynamic cultures. In the modern U.S., their descendants include the Pueblo people in what is now New Mexico; Apache in Texas; Navajo in Arizona, Colorado and Utah; Hopi in Arizona; Crow in Montana; Cherokee in North Carolina; and Mohawk and Iroquois in New York State.

The Norwegian explorer Leif Eriksson was the first European to reach North America, some 500 years before a disoriented Columbus accidentally discovered 'Indians' in Hispaniola (now the Dominican Republic and Haiti) in 1492. By the mid-1550s, much of the America had been poked and prodded by a parade of explorers from Spain, Portugal, England and France. The first colonies attracted immigrants looking to get rich quickly and return home, but they were soon followed by migrants whose primary goal was to colonise.

The Spanish founded the first permanent European settlement in St. Augustine, Florida, in 1565; the French moved in on Maine in 1602, and Jamestown, Virginia, became the first British settlement in 1607. The first Africans arrived as 'indentured labourers' with the Brits a year prior to English Puritan pilgrims' escape of religious persecution. The pilgrims founded a colony at Plymouth Rock, Massachusetts, in 1620, and signed the famous Mayflower Compact—a declaration of self-government that would later be echoed in the Declaration of Independence and the U.S. Constitution.

British attempts to assert authority in its 13 North American colonies led to the French and Indian War (1757—1763). The British were victorious but were left with a nasty war debt, which they tried to recoup by imposing new taxes. The rallying cry 'no taxation without representation' united the colonies, who ceremoniously dumped caffeinated cargo overboard during the Boston Tea Party. Besieged British general Cornwallis surrendered to American commander George Washington five years later at Yorktown, Virginia, in 1781.

In the 19th century, America's mantra was 'Manifest Destiny'. A combination of land purchases, diplomacy and outright wars of conquest had by 1850 given the U. S. roughly its present shape. In 1803, Napoleon dumped the entire Great Plains for a pittance, and Spain chipped in with Florida in 1819. The Battle of the Alamo during the 1835 Texan Revolution paved the way for Texan independence from Mexico, and the war with Mexico (1846—1848) secured most of the southwest, including California. The systematic annihilation of the buffalo hunted by the Plains Indians, encroachment on their lands, and treaties not worth the paper they were written on led to Native Americans being herded into reservations, deprived of both their livelihoods and their spiritual connection to their land.

Nineteenth-century immigration drastically altered the cultural landscape as settlers of predominantly British stock were joined by Central Europeans and Chinese, many attracted by the 1849 gold rush in California. The South remained firmly committed to an agrarian life heavily reliant on African-American slave labour. Tensions were on the rise when abolitionist Abraham Lincoln was elected president in 1860. The South seceded from the Union, and the Civil War, by far the bloodiest war in America's history, began the following year. The North prevailed in 1865, freed the slaves and introduced universal adult male suffrage. Lincoln's vision for reconstruction, however, died with his assassination.

America's trouncing of the Spaniards in 1898 marked the USA's ascendancy as a superpower and woke the country out of its isolationist slumber. The U. S. still did its best not to get its feet dirty in WWI's trenches, but finally capitulated in 1917, sending over a million troops to help sort out the pesky Germans. Post-war celebrations were cut short by

Prohibition in 1920, which banned alcohol in the country. The 1929 stock-market crash signalled the start of the Great Depression and eventually brought about Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal, which sought to lift the country back to prosperity.

After the Japanese dropped in uninvited on Pearl Harbour in 1941, the U. S. played a major role in defeating the Axis powers. Atomic bombs dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki in 1945 not only ended the war with Japan, but ushered in the nuclear age. The end of WWII segued into the Cold War—a period of great domestic prosperity and a surface uniformity belied by paranoia and betrayal. Politicians like Senator Joe McCarthy took advantage of the climate to fan anticommunist flames, while the USSR and USA stockpiled nuclear weapons and fought wars by proxy in Korea, Africa and Southeast Asia. Tensions between the USSR and USA reached their peak in 1962 during the Cuban Missile Crisis.

The 1960s was a decade of profound social change, thanks largely to the Civil Rights movement, Vietnam War protests and the discovery of sex, drugs and rock 'n' roll. The Civil Rights movement gained momentum in 1955 with a bus boycott in Montgomery, Alabama. As a non-violent mass protest movement, it aimed at breaking down segregation and regaining the vote for disfranchised Southern blacks. The movement peaked in 1963 with Martin Luther King Jr's 'I have a dream' speech in Washington, D. C., and the passage of the landmark 1964 Civil Rights Act and 1965 Voting Rights Act.

Meanwhile, America's youth were rejecting the conformity of the previous decade, growing their hair long and smoking lots of dope. 'Tune in, turn on, drop out' was the mantra of a generation who protested heavily (and not disinterestedly) against the war in Vietnam. Assassinations of prominent political leaders—John and Robert Kennedy, Malcolm X and Martin Luther King Jr—took a little gloss off the party, and the American troops mired in Vietnam took off the rest. NASA's moon landing in 1969 did little to restore national pride.

In 1974 Richard Nixon became the first U. S. president to resign from office, because of his involvement in the cover-up of the Watergate burglaries, bringing American patriotism to a new low. The 1970s and '80s were a period of technological advancement and declining industrialism.

A conservative backlash, symbolized by the election and popular two-term presidency of actor Ronald Reagan, sought to put some backbone in the country. The U. S. then concentrated on bullying its poor neighbours in Central America and the Caribbean by meddling in the affairs of El Salvador, Nicaragua, Panama and Grenada. The collapse of the Soviet Bloc's 'Evil Empire' in 1991 left the U. S. as the world's sole superpower, and the Gulf War in 1992 gave George Bush the opportunity to lead a coalition supposedly representing a 'new world order' into battle against Iraq.

Domestic matters, such as health reform, gun ownership, drugs, racial tension, gay rights, balancing the budget, the tenacious Whitewater scandal and the Monica Lewinsky 'Fornigate' affair tended to overshadow international concerns during the Clinton administration. In a bid to kick-start its then-ailing economy, the USA signed Nafta, a free-trade agreement with Canada and Mexico in 1993. In 1994 it invaded Haiti in its role as upholder of democracy, and in 1995 committed thousands of troops to operations in Bosnia. It hosted the Olympics in 1996 and enjoyed, over the next few years, the fruits of a bull market on Wall Street.

The 2000 presidential election made history by being the most tightly contested race in the nation's history. The Democratic candidate, Al Gore, secured the majority of the popular vote but lost the election when all of Florida's electoral college votes went to George W. Bush, who was ahead of Gore in that state by only 500 votes. Demands for recounts, a ruling by the Florida Supreme Court in favor of partial recounts, and a handful of lawsuits generated by both parties were brought to a halt when the U. S. Supreme Court split along party lines and ruled that all recounts should cease. After five tumultuous weeks, Bush was declared the winner.

The early part of Bush's presidency saw the U. S. face international tension, with renewed violence in the Middle East, a spy-plane standoff with China, and widespread global disapproval of U. S. foreign policy with regard to the environment. On the domestic front, a considerably weakened economy provided challenges for national policymakers.

The climate of fear and anger following the terrorist attacks on U. S. soil on September 11, 2001, prompted the 'War on Terror'. This saw the invasion of Afghanistan and the overthrow of the repressive Taliban regime, who were held accountable for sponsoring the strikes against the U. S.

In March 2003, the U. S. and its 'coalition of the willing' launched a contentious pre-emptive strike against Iraq. The toppling of Saddam Hussein's dictatorship has done little to ease tensions in the Middle East.

Culture

After WWII, the focus of the international art world shifted from Paris to New York. Artists leaving war-torn Europe brought the remnants of surrealism to the Big Apple, inspiring a group of young American painters to create the first distinct American painting style, abstract expressionism.

The relentless ascendancy of mass media gave birth to pop art. Slick, surface-oriented and purposely banal paintings like Andy Warhol's Campbell's Soup Cans are now American icons.

The U.S. has churned out a veritable forest of literature. The illustrious line-up begins with Walt Whitman, Herman Melville, Nathaniel Hawthorne, Emily Dickinson, Henry James and Edith Wharton, and moves into the modern era with William Faulkner, Ernest Hemingway, Scott Fitzgerald, John Steinbeck, Jack 'Backpack' Kerouac, Arthur Miller, both the Williams, Saul Bellow, John Updike and Toni Morison.

For a trawl through the mean streets of America, try anything by Jim Thompson, Chester Himes or Raymond Chandler. James Ellroy and Elmore Leonard are arguably the hardest-hitting crime novelists.

When we think of U. S. cities, we think of skyscrapers, those architectural testaments to market forces and American optimism. Chicago is a living museum of high-rise development. New York boasts its fair share of stunners, too. Despite increasing homogenisation, rural America retains its idiosyncrasies, and distinctive vernacular architectural styles persist in New England (clapboard), California (Spanish Mission) and New Mexico (adobe).

The elusive concept of 'American-ness' is often defined by cinema and television. The advent of TV in the 1950s shook Hollywood's hegemony to its core, but both forms of media have managed to coexist, even operating synergistically. The global distribution of American movies and TV shows has shaped the world's perception of the country to a high, if not entirely accurate, degree.

The American music industry is the world's most powerful and pervasive, though groundswell movements remain the driving force of American pop. African-Americans' influence, including blues, jazz and hip-hop, can hardly be exaggerated.

Rap, America's inner-city sound, places an equal emphasis on an ultra heavy beat, sound montage, street creed and macho posturing. Its appeal to middle-class white America will no doubt bemuse sociologists for decades.

Environment

The continental U. S. stretches across North America 'from sea to shining sea'. There are three major mountain ranges: the Appalachians in the east, the titanic Rocky Mountains in the west and the Sierra Nevada along the border of Nevada and California. The country has abundant natural resources and vast swathes of fertile soil.

The Atlantic Coast is the most heavily populated area and retains strong traces of its European heritage. This is where the oldest American cities such as Boston, New York, Washington and Philadelphia are located, and where most of the major events in early American history took place. The central northeast is marked by the humongous Great Lakes (Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie and Ontario), which occupy an area larger than most European countries. The rivers and canals linking the lakes to the Atlantic Ocean made virtual seaports out of midwestern cities like Chicago and Detroit.

The central area drained by the Mississippi, Missouri and Ohio Rivers is the grain basket of the country. Farther west, on the Great Plains, are the country's chief grazing areas. This is cowboy country, though today the trusty steeds tend to be battered pickup trucks rather than hi-ho Silvers. Desert predominates in the southwest, where the climate and degraded soils keep population density to a minimum, and where you really don't need much of a wind to see tumbleweed bouncing across the highway. Cross the Sierra Nevada and you're on the West Coast, which was settled by Americans only 150 years ago but has been on a headlong rush into the future ever since.

The USA borders Canada to the north and Mexico to the south. Alaska juts out from north-western Canada; Hawaii lies 2500 miles (4000km) off the country's western coast, in the middle of the Pacific.

With such varied topography, the U.S. has extremely diverse ecosystems. The most impressive flora are the huge sequoias of the West Coast, some of which are believed to be the oldest living things on earth. The eastern states are home to leafy hardwood forests of maple, oak and elm, which burst into colour in autumn.

The largest land mammals, such as black and grizzly bears, elk and deer, roam the north-western states. The southern states are home to some of the most interesting fauna, including the marsupial opossum and the alligator. Beasties to avoid include rattlesnakes, bears, wild boar, alligators and Hank, a gas station attendant from Perth Amboy, New Jersey.

The USA is a federal system, and powers not delegated to the federal government by the Constitution are retained by the states. Nevertheless, the powers of the central government have increased over the years relative to those of state governments. Each state has its own constitution and a government that generally mirrors that of the federal government. The governor is the state's chief executive, and a state senate and a house delegation enact state laws (Nebraska alone has a unicameral state government), and a state police and court system enforce them. Among other things, states are responsible for education, criminal justice, prisons, hospitals, administration of elections, regulation of commerce and maintenance of highways. Many of these things are now done in cooperation with federal government, especially for funding purposes.

The states are further divided into counties, boroughs, parishes, cities, towns, school districts and/or special districts that provide services like police, sanitation, schools and so on. Local government units often combine to administer a large urban area as a single unit, as in the five boroughs of New York City.

Getting There & Away

Your main option for getting to the U.S. is either by air or, from the closer countries, by road or train. The main international airports are in Boston, New York, Washington, Miami, Chicago, Dallas-Fort Worth, Houston, Atlanta, Denver, Seattle, San Francisco and Los Angeles, with hundreds of smaller airports dotted all over the country.

For those travelling into the U.S. from Canada and Mexico, you have the option of driving, catching a bus or an Amtrak train.

Most visitors arrive by air, and heavy competition on popular routes means that inexpensive flights are often available. The main international airports are in Boston, New York, Washington, Miami, Chicago, Dallas-Fort Worth, Houston, Atlanta, Denver, Seattle, San Francisco and Los Angeles. There are connecting flights from these airports to hundreds of other U.S.

cities.

Getting Around

The choices for traversing this massive country are myriad, be it via subway, bus, rail, bike or your own two feet.

The number of domestic airlines, competition on popular routes and frequent discounting makes flying in the U.S. a relatively inexpensive proposition (though fares can be high on less popular routes).

For a country that owes so much to the penetration of railroads and that has such a potent railroad mythology, the U.S. has a train system that can be surprisingly impractical and not always comfortable. Ticket prices vary in value, but the earlier you make a reservation, the cheaper the ticket.

Greyhound has an extensive, cheap and efficient bus network, and travelling by bus enables you to meet the 35 other people stuck in America without a car. In rural areas, local bus services are often less than adequate.

Urban public transportation is generally quite good; catching the subway in New York or the El in Chicago is as integral a part of the American travelling experience as hopping on a double-decker bus in London.

America created car culture, so don't be surprised by the fact that nearly everyone of legal driving age has a car and uses it at every possible opportunity. Anyone who has seen an American road movie will know that the country's highways are not only nifty ways to cover large distances, they are also rich in mythic resonances. A road trip along Route 66, for example, is no A to B from Chicago to Los Angeles—it's a pilgrimage along America's 'mother road', closely bound up with the history of America's expansionist West, the Dust Bowl refugees and, of course, the sweet voice of Nat King Cole.

The ubiquity of the automobile often means that local public transportation options are few and far between, but the good news is that Americans tend to be far from stingy with their vehicles, so if you're sticking around for a while you may well find wheels easier to borrow than you think. Rental cars are plentiful and relatively cheap, though major agencies require you to be at least 25 years old. Drive-aways are a peculiarly American phenomenon. It's basically a car delivery system that unites cars that need to be delivered over long distances with willing drivers. If a car needs delivering to a place you're prepared to go, you're given insurance, a delivery date and a set of keys, and Bob's uncle.

Cycling is an increasingly popular way to travel around small areas, since roads are good, shoulders are wide and cars generally travel at safe speeds.

Walking is considered an un-American activity unless it takes place on hiking trails in national parks.

Words and Expressions

service encounter **服务界面**
strategic alliance **战略联盟**
operational limit **经营限制**
restrictive assumption **限制假设**
supply constraint **供给限制**
economic structure **经济结构**
economic factor **经济因素**
political factor **政治因素**
social factor **社会因素**
technological factor **技术因素**
WTO Development Guidelines **世界旅游组织开发指南**

Notes

1. Bering Strait **白令海峡，是太平洋的北部水域，介于亚洲和北美之间，西为西伯利亚东北部，东为阿拉斯加，南为阿留申群岛，北边通过白令海峡与北冰洋相接。**
2. Pueblo **普埃布洛族，美洲约** 25 **个土著民族之一，居住在新墨西哥的北部、西部及美国亚利桑那州东北部的村庄中。普埃布洛人是居住在悬崖上的阿那萨齐民族的后裔，他们以陶器、编篮、编织和金属制造方面的出色技艺而闻名。**
3. Navajo **纳瓦霍族，居住亚利桑那、新墨西哥和犹他州东南部的美洲印第安人。是美国同时期的美洲印第安人部落中人口最稠密的。纳瓦霍族人以豢养家禽、技术熟练的纺织者、制陶者和银匠而著名。**
4. Iroquois **易洛魁，美洲土著居民邦联。**
5. Leif Eriksson **莱夫·埃里克逊，挪威著名航海家、探险家。**
6. Hispaniola **伊斯帕尼奥拉岛，海地和古巴西部的西印度群岛中的一个岛屿，为海地和多米尼加共和国所在地。哥伦布** 1492 **年发现了该岛，最初它被叫做埃斯帕尼奥拉岛。岛的西部（现在的海地）于** 1697 **年被西班牙**

割让给法国。

7. Mayflower Compact “五月花号公约”，英国第一批清教徒移民1620年乘船驶往北美殖民地，上岸前制定的政治纲领。这个公约成为1691年前普利茅斯自治政府的基础。它影响后来的《独立宣言》、《美国联邦宪法》和林肯的“民有、民治、民享”思想。
8. Abraham Lincoln 亚伯拉罕·林肯（1809—1865），美国政治家，第16任美国总统（1861—1865），美国南北战争时期的北方领袖。1865年4月他在剧院观剧时，被奴隶主支持者、演员约翰·魏克斯·布思刺杀。
9. Franklin Roosevelts 富兰克林·罗斯福（1892—1945），美国第32任总统（1933—1945），任美国纽约州州长（1929—1932）参加总统的竞选诺言是为美国人民实施新政，他的政策以实行和计划、采取措施增加就业、协助工业和农业从大萧条中复苏，参加第二次世界大战为显著特征。他是唯一一位连任三届（1936，1940和1944）的美国总统，死于任上。
10. Martin Luther King Jr. 马丁·路德·金（1929—1968），美国黑人律师，著名黑人民权运动领袖。一生曾三次被捕，三次被行刺，1964年获诺贝尔和平奖。1968年被种族主义分子枪杀。他被誉为近百年来八大最具有说服力的演说家之一。
11. Voting Rights Act 《选举权法》是继1964年《民权法案》（Civil Rights Act）后通过，旨在保障全体公民不分种族皆享有选举权。
12. John Kennedy 约翰·肯尼迪，美国历史上最年轻的总统，也是第一个罗马天主教总统。1960年11月9日，约翰·肯尼迪当选美国总统。他提出“新边疆”的竞选口号，倡导在科学技术、经济发展、战争与和平等各个领域开拓新天地。1961年，肯尼迪在选民投票过程中以极小的差距赢得总统的位置，击败了共和党人尼克松。1963年，遇刺身亡。
13. Robert Kennedy 罗伯特·肯尼迪是美国前总统约翰·肯尼迪的弟弟。约翰·肯尼迪担任总统期间，罗伯特·肯尼迪担任司法部长。1968年6月5日，他在洛杉矶被人暗杀。
14. NASA 美国国家航空和航天局（National Aeronautics and Space Administration，简称NASA），其前身是成立于1915年的美国国家航空咨询委员会（National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics，简称NACA），是美国最主要的航空科学研究机构。苏联于1957年发射了世界上第一颗人造地球卫星后，美苏在宇宙空间技术方面的竞争日益加剧。于是，美国国会对NACA进行了改组，于1958年正式成立NASA，负责协调和指导美国的航空和空间科研机构。
15. Richard Nixon 理查德·尼克松（1913—1994），第36任美国副总统

(1953—1961)与第37任美国总统(1969—1974)。尼克松是美国历史上唯一一位同时当过两届副总统与两届总统的人，但也是唯一一位于在位期间，以辞职的方式离开总统职位的美国总统。他在1974年8月因“水门事件”曝光之后被迫辞去总统职务。在尼克松的任期内，透过乒乓球活动尝试与中华人民共和国建立外交关系，并支持中国进入联合国，史称“乒乓外交”，改善了中国大陆与美国的关系。尼克松于1972年2月访问中国大陆，是美国总统第一次访问一个同美国没有正式外交关系的国家，对中国大陆的七天访问被称为“改变世界的一周”。1994年4月18日，尼克松在新泽西州家中突患中风，22日在纽约康奈尔医疗中心逝世，享年81岁。

16. Grenada 格林纳达位于东加勒比海向风群岛的最南端，先后沦为法、英殖民地，1974年独立，为英联邦成员国。

17. NAFTA 《美加自由贸易协定》(North America Free Trade Agreement) 1992年8月12日，美国、加拿大及墨西哥三国签署了一项三边自由贸易协定——北美自由贸易协定。1994年1月1日，该协定正式生效。协定决定自生效之日起在15年内逐步消除贸易壁垒、实施商品和劳务的自由流通，以形成一个拥有3.6亿消费者，每年国民生产总值超过6万亿美元的世界最大的自由贸易集团。

18. Taliban 塔利班在波斯语中是学生的意思，它的大部分成员是阿富汗难民营伊斯兰学校的学生，故又称伊斯兰学生军。它的领导人是穆尔维·奥马尔(Maulvi Mohammed Umar)。

Comprehension Questions and Questions for Discussion

1. It is said that it was Columbus who first discovered and reached the North America. Is that true? Why or why not?
2. The pilgrims signed the famous Mayflower Compact in 1620. What is the significance of the Mayflower Compact?
3. How did people from so many different countries create the “American culture” in the United States?
4. How much do you know about President Franklin Roosevelt and his New Deal policy?
5. The war between the U.S. and Iraq in 1992 was called the Gulf War. How much do you know about it? What is its significance?
6. As we all know, George W. Bush won the 2000 presidential election against Al Gore. How was this outcome decided?

7. The American mass media is very influential all over the world. How is the concept of 'American-ness' defined?
8. The Atlantic Coast is the most heavily populated area in America. How many key cities do you know along the Atlantic Coast? What are they?
9. The federal government and the states co-govern the U.S. What are the states responsible for?
10. What are some of the problems that Americans face now?

Supplementary Reading

U.S. Now More Diverse, Ethnically and Racially

The portrait of America emerging from the 2000 census, which released the last of its state-by-state figures on Friday, is that of a more ethnically and racially diverse country, with suburbs filling with new immigrants and a continuing migration from the Frost Belt to the Sun Belt.

The census figures, used in the redrawing of Congressional districts, show that the Hispanic population grew 58 percent to 35.3 million people since 1990, pulling into rough parity with blacks as the nation's largest minority. In Florida, Hispanics now outnumber blacks, and in California, the largest state, they outnumber blacks and make up one-third of the population.

The fastest-growing county in the fastest-growing state —Clark County, Nev., home to Las Vegas —nearly doubled in size, to 1.4 million, largely from an influx of Hispanic immigrants.

For the first time, Americans had the option of identifying themselves as belonging to more than one race. Nearly 7 million people, or 2.4 percent of the nation, described themselves as multiracial. The new choice was a hit in places where people of different races have long intermarried, like Alaska and Hawaii, but drew scant interest in states like Mississippi, where recent memories of segregation and oppression linger.

At the same time, the non-Hispanic white population is a shrinking share of the country, dropping to 69 percent from 76 percent a decade ago. Non-Hispanic whites are now a minority in California and may soon be in Texas.

Many non-Hispanic whites are moving to what demographers call the New Sun Belt, states like Georgia, North Carolina and South Carolina, where in most cases they are meeting new immigrants from Asia and Latin America.

"The New Sun Belt states are becoming like little melting pots," said William H. Frey, a demographer at the University of Michigan, "they 're also attracting middle-class whites away from the expensive, congested suburbs around New York, Los Angeles and San Francisco."

These shifts are reflected in the reapportionment of seats in Congress. New York and Pennsylvania each lost two House seats, while Texas, Georgia, Florida and Arizona are gaining two House members each.

Suburbs particularly in newer, more affordable areas farther out from urban centres, are booming in places like Washington, Houston and Denver. Yet analyses of the 200 census data by researchers at the State University of New York at Albany suggest there has been little change in the tendency of whites, blacks, Latinos and Asians to live apart from one another.

Among cities, there were winners and losers. The population of New York City exceeded eight million, growing at a rate that outpaced the state and suburbs for the first time in decades.

Reversing a trend that began in the 1950's Chicago gained in numbers, inching up 4 percent to 2. 9 million people, largely on the strength of immigrants from Mexico and other Central American countries.

Other Rust Belt cities, however, like Cleveland, Pittsburgh and Detroit suffered drops in population. Virtually every major city in Ohio, except Columbus, continued a decades-long population decline.

(By Eric Schmitl)

Unit Twelve

Presidential and Parliamentary Systems

Democracies operate on the basis of either a presidential or a parliamentary system. The United States has a presidential and Britain a parliamentary system. Other democratic countries in general follow one scheme or the other, although with numerous variations.

In the United States the voters elect the members of the House of Representatives for two-year terms, the members of the Senate for six-year terms, and the president for a four-year term. So far as the Constitution is concerned, the House, the Senate, and the presidency might be controlled by three different political parties. Cooperation among them is not assured. Congress and the president may be at loggerheads on issues of either domestic or foreign policy, and so, for that matter, may the two houses of Congress. The scales are weighted against action, or at least action is difficult unless a substantial consensus exists. This was, in fact, what the Founding Fathers intended. Their memory of King George III was still fresh. Some of them wanted to adopt safeguards against a tyranny of the majority.

The presidential system can be described in terms of the separation of powers and checks and balances. Both houses of Congress and the president have their separate powers. Where agreement between the Congress and the president is necessary to action each can check the other; and in many respects so can the two houses of Congress check each other. Thus, the possibility of ill-considered action is reduced, and so is the possibility that one faction or one segment of the population will gain complete control. At the same time, the possibility of paralysis within government is increased.

In a presidential system, the president has a cabinet, which he or she selects. Its members are heads of the various departments of government—for example, the Department of State, the Department of Defense, the Department of Justice, and so on. In the United States, those appointed to these posts are not members of Congress, though the appointments must be approved by the Senate.

In Britain's parliamentary system, the voters elect the members of the House of Commons—the lower house of parliament. They do not elect anyone to the executive branch of the government. Nominally, executive powers are in the hands of the queen (or king), but actually they are in the hands of a prime minister, for the queen acts on his or her advice.

The queen names the prime minister, selecting a person who can command majority support in the House of Commons. This ordinarily means that the prime minister is a member of the House and the leader of its majority party. In the absence of a majority party, the prime minister is a person who can form a majority coalition. The prime minister selects others who serve in the cabinet, administering the various departments of government. They are ordinarily drawn from the House of Commons, though a few regularly come from the House of Lords.

The House of Lords is the upper house of parliament. Its members get their positions by heredity or through appointment by the queen. The powers of the House of Lords are limited.

The prime minister does not have a fixed term of office. She must resign (and the cabinet with her) whenever she loses a vote of confidence in the House; and in no event is she to serve for more than five years without resigning and calling for a new election.

In 1990 Margaret Thatcher lost the support of so many members of her own party in the House that she chose to resign both as party leader and as prime minister, but her party remained the majority party in the House, so the queen simply requested the new party leader to become prime minister and form a new cabinet. No general election occurred. Transfers of power without new elections are more common in other parliamentary systems in which the cabinets tend to be based on multiparty coalitions.

Despite Thatcher's experience in 1990, the British prime minister tends to get more stable support from the House than the president gets from Congress, even when his own party is in control. This is so for several reasons. In the United States the parties are loosely organized and concern themselves with local and state affairs as well as with national affairs. National organs of the party and the president himself rarely have much influence over the selection of the party's candidates for election to the Senate and House. Once the candidates have been selected, national organs have a choice about contributing to their campaigns, and the president has a choice about the nature and extent of the support that he gives, but few of those elected are so dependent on national or presidential support for re-election that they must toe a party line. Mavericks—those who are persistently independent—may suffer a few penalties, but defiance of the president or other national leaders does not necessarily impair their careers to any serious extent.

In Britain the situation is different. The parties are more tightly organized, and the people are oriented more toward national affairs. In selecting candidates for the House of Commons, the local branches are more inclined than their counterparts in the United States to limit themselves to persons whose loyalty to the national party leadership is unquestioned.

Further, members of the majority party in the House have a special reason to be loyal to the prime minister, for if they deprive her of majority support, they put their own tenure of office in potential jeopardy, for she may ask the queen to dissolve the House and call for new elections. And at the extreme a prime minister in good standing with her party can see to it that a defiant party member is not renominated when the next election occurs. Any member of the party who refuses to toe the party line may be expelled.

In addition to all this, the prime minister controls patronage that she can use to encourage loyalty. She appoints not only members of the cabinet but also numerous junior ministers and others. Over 100 of Margaret Thatcher's parliamentary supporters, for example, depended on her for their paid posts.

Nevertheless, as Thatcher's experience suggests, it would be wrong to think that the prime minister is secure in her tenure and that the House is simply a rubber stamp. The two main parties—the ones that have formed all the cabinets in recent decades—both face a certain amount of dissidence within their own ranks. In Thatcher's case the dissidents specifically challenged her leadership, and ultimately she faced the threat of a vote of no confidence. In other cases members have tended increasingly to take an independent line on specific issues without meaning to pose any general challenge, and prime ministers have tended to put up with the dissidence rather than use the weapons at their disposal to enforce conformity. They have simply accepted defeat without resigning. And the opposition party, remaining a minority, has had no good basis for complaint. The dissidents rarely transfer their loyalty to the other party.

Legislatures and Their Functions

Virtually all states, even those that are authoritarian, have a legislative assembly of some kind.

When an assembly has two chambers, it is said to be bicameral. Countries set up bicameral assemblies for a variety of reasons. One chamber is always thought of as representing the people in general. Second chambers permit the recognition and representation of some kind of subdivision of the people. Perhaps the subdivisions are the states in a federal system—which is the case in the United States. Perhaps the subdivisions are distinct national, tribal, or ethnic communities. Perhaps the subdivision is a social class, as in Britain.

Much more often than not, one of the two chambers becomes dominant. This is the case in Britain. The United States is an exception to the rule.

Legislatures perform a number of functions. As the name suggests, the *legislative* function—the enactment, amendment, and repeal of laws—is nominally the central function. In performing this function, the House and Senate in the United States proceed in parallel, duplicating each other's efforts to a considerable extent. Any member of either house may introduce a bill, of which she may or may not be the author. Most members of Congress are willing to introduce any bill a constituent wants to; or they may introduce a bill sponsored by a lobbyist, by some governmental agency, or by the president.

Once introduced, a bill goes to a committee, which may take no action at all or which may give it varying degrees of consideration. The holding of public hearings is the most prominent type of consideration, as people from inside and outside government testify for or against whatever is proposed. If the committee then chooses to proceed, it reports the bill to the House or the Senate, as the case may be, either in its original form or revised, and recommends for or against adoption. Then the House or Senate decides whether and when to consider the bill.

If both houses adopt a bill in precisely the same form, it goes to the president for his signature. He may sign it, in which case it becomes law. Or he may veto it, in which case it does not become law unless Congress overrides the veto by a two-thirds vote in each house. Or he may do nothing, in which case the bill becomes law anyway, provided Congress remains in session for more than ten days after submitting it to him; if he fails to sign, and if

Congress adjourns in less than ten days, a pocket veto is said to occur.

In the British parliamentary system, a high proportion of the bills considered are sponsored by the cabinet, and since the cabinet represents a majority in the House of Commons, it can ordinarily get its bills adopted, though they may be subjected to searching criticism, especially by members of the opposition. Members sometimes introduce bills of their own, but the cabinet can ordinarily block them if it chooses to do so.

Legislatures in other advanced democracies play comparable roles. In countries that are minimally democratic if not authoritarian, the legislative function is likely to be weaker and more marginal than in Britain. In such countries the executive branch proposes the legislation in the confident expectation that it will be endorsed. The most that the legislature is likely to be able to do is to influence the executive by means that do not involve an open confrontation.

In the United States, Congress has an important oversight function. That is, it watches over the administration of the law. Members may speak out in Congress as they please without fear of punishment, criticizing, as they will. Either house may hold hearings on virtually any subject or on any aspect of the work of any governmental agency. Officials in the executive branch can be obliged to testify at these hearings and to answer questions that members of Congress pose. Through hearings, Congress can put the spotlight of publicity on any kind of governmental action or inaction, and either house may initiate new legislation on the basis of what its hearings reveal. Congress can create and abolish executive agencies, and it controls appropriations for each agency.

The General Accounting Office may play a role in the oversight function. It serves Congress and for the benefit of Congress can make special studies of the performance of executive and other governmental agencies.

In Britain, the House of Commons does not exercise the oversight function to the same extent as Congress, but it schedules sessions (question periods) during which members of the House may pose questions to cabinet ministers. And the conventions of the British government require the minister questioned to respond in serious fashion, even if the response involves an acknowledgment of some kind of governmental shortcoming.

It goes without saying that in performing the above functions, legislatures share in managing conflict. And depending on circumstances, their decisions may promote loyalty to the system or make for national disunity and perhaps disintegration.

In some countries legislatures perform judicial or quasi-judicial functions. In Britain the House of Lords is the highest court of appeal, its judicial functions being performed by members known as "law lords." In the United States the House may impeach federal officials, in which case the Senate serves as the trial body. If the Senate convicts, the impeached person is removed from office.

Legislators everywhere perform a communication function. It is their job to inform governmental agencies about attitudes back home. And it is their job to explain governmental policies to their constituents and to provide critical appraisals.

One of the incidental functions of a legislature is to serve as a forum in which political leaders can gain experience, build up a network of contacts and friends, and become visible, thus preparing themselves and making themselves available for higher office. Of course, this function is shared with other agencies. In the United States activities in various realms—for example, in a political party, or in the business world, or in connection with state government (notably in the governorship)—may give a person the standing that takes her into the cabinet or even into the presidency. Nevertheless, a considerable number of those who go into the highest levels of government have had previous experience in Congress. In parliamentary systems, as indicated, the performance of members in the legislature is likely to be crucial to their selection for service in the cabinet and in the prime ministry.

Legislatures perform a symbolic function. They symbolize participation by representatives of the people in the processes of government. They thus help promote the belief that the government is legitimate that it is worthy of support. Especially in some marginally democratic countries, the government needs this symbol, weak as it may be.

The Executive Branch

The executive plays a powerful role in both the presidential and the parliamentary systems. The executive includes not only the president and prime minister but also their staffs and the whole civil and military service of the government.

The president and prime minister perform a number of functions. They are party leaders. Candidates for the presidency and the prime ministry lead in the election campaign and, if they are successful, tend to carry others into office on their coattails. Whether or not that happens, the political fortunes of many others are in some degree dependent on the political fortunes of the president or prime minister. It is in their interest that he should do well. The situation thus strengthens his role.

Further, the executive takes the lead in formulating the policies of the government in both domestic and foreign affairs. In the United States the president proposes the budget—the general plan for raising and spending money. She proposes particular pieces of legislation and has the opportunity to veto bills adopted against her will. She makes decisions on which the security and peace of the country depend—the most fateful decisions that anyone can make. In Britain the prime minister plays a comparable role.

The president and prime minister have recruiting functions. In addition to the members of their cabinets, they must appoint a great many other persons to governmental and party positions. Their appointments are crucial to the quality of their administrations—and also to the political careers of those involved.

Generally, presidents and prime ministers are opinion leaders. They have fuller and more ready access to the media than do members of the legislature. This puts them in a unique position to influence the public and thus to put indirect pressure on members of the legislature to support their program.

A qualifier needs to be added, with the United States as an illustration. The power of the president varies with his personality and skills and with the assertiveness of Congress. Especially since a president led the United States into the Vietnam War, and since Nixon was forced out of office because of Watergate, the U.S. Congress has played a relatively more powerful role with respect to both domestic and foreign affairs than had earlier been the case. And that role is all the more powerful now that the elections of 1994 have implicitly repudiated the leadership of the president and put his adversaries in control of both houses of Congress. Similar variations in the power of the two branches of government are to be expected in other countries, though the parliamentary system does more to assure the dominance of the executive.

The president and prime minister have ceremonial functions. In Britain the queen and the royal family perform a large portion of these functions, and in the United States the president can delegate some of them to the vice president and other members of the administration. But some of the ceremonial functions must inescapably be performed by the president and prime minister themselves.

With the presidency and the prime ministry go considerable staffs, and the president and prime minister are heads of the whole administrative branch of the government. They not only appoint people to many positions, as noted above, but also direct their subordinates in work and are responsible for what their subordinates do. Nominally their control over the whole executive branch is complete, and people speak of "the administration" of a president or prime minister.

Again, however, as in the case of power relations between the executive and the legislature, the situation is mixed. Neither the top elective officials in government nor their political appointees can attend to everything. Especially in the larger countries, the activities of government are too extensive to be controlled in any direct way by those who temporarily occupy this or that political position.

Every long-established government has a permanent civil service, and it, too, is likely to be powerful. Its members are for the most part experienced and knowledgeable, commanding more expertise than the political leaders who rotate in and out of the top offices. They are likely to be in close touch with the interest groups affected by what they do, and are thus able to negotiate some degree of consensus among those most intimately concerned with a given problem. In the absence of any special issue, they can simply follow standard operating procedures in implementing established policies. The president or prime minister, or the members of the cabinet, or even the legislature, can reach into the civil service here and there for special purposes and work their will, but by and large the civil service goes on functioning regardless of comings and goings in the top executive offices and in the legislative branch of government.

Roughly the same kinds of propositions hold true with respect to the military. In democratic countries (and, for that matter, in some non-democratic countries as well) the military is subordinate to the civilian government; in the United States the president is the commander in chief. But at the same time, the career military leaders are presumably competent and knowledgeable and have a set of more or less stable expectations concerning the government's policies and their own role. Political leaders generally find it wiser to try to keep the military happy than to intrude in ordinary operations. They necessarily play an important role in fixing the budget for the armed forces, which implicitly gives them considerable power; but apart from that, they tend to give the military a relatively loose rein. Military leaders, however, are subject to the law like everyone else.

The Judiciary

Democratic government, like all governments, includes courts, whose function is to interpret the law and to determine whether and how it applies in particular cases. The cases may concern a variety of matters—among them the legitimacy (the legality) of a governmental action, disputes between private parties concerning their respective rights, and questions of the violation of criminal law.

With respect to the legitimacy of a governmental action, we start with the proposition that those who administer the law necessarily interpret it, saying that the law permits or requires them to take or not to take some action. In most cases everyone agrees, and no problem arises; but it is always possible that someone who is affected by the decision may disagree.

In the United States, where the doctrine of judicial review is accepted, the person who disagrees may say that the law is somehow contrary to the Constitution, that it is therefore not valid law, and that the executive must therefore be barred from enforcing it. Or the dissenter may accept the law as valid but claim that the executive is giving it a wrong interpretation. In either case, the issue is argued before a court, which renders a judgment. The judgment of a lower court may be appealed, of course, but the appeal is to a higher court, ultimately the Supreme Court, and not to any agency in another branch of government.

In Britain and in some other democracies, the doctrine of judicial review is not accepted. In Britain's case, the easy explanation is that it lacks a written constitution, and therefore any measure enacted into law through proper procedures is valid. But the rejection of judicial review does not necessarily depend on the absence of a written constitution. Whenever any legislature adopts a bill and whenever any executive signs it into law, they are both saying implicitly that they have a right to do what they are doing. They find that the constitution permits it, whether the constitution is written or unwritten. And it is arguable that their finding should bind the courts.

Disputes among private parties concerning their respective legal rights may be settled by courts in civil suits. One party submits a claim to the court, and the other party must respond. Representatives of each side present their arguments, whether to a jury or to a judge, and a judgment is then rendered. If enforcement action is required, the executive branch of government becomes involved, but otherwise the matter is one for the courts alone.

Public prosecutors take the initiative in criminal actions, the theory being that the public has an interest in acting against crime. Democracies generally accept the assumption that an accused person is innocent until proven guilty. Due process must be afforded—which substantially means (in this context) that the judicial proceedings must be fair. A jury mayor may not be involved. In the case of those found guilty, the court imposes the kind of penalty for which the law provides; and it is the duty of the executive branch to enforce the penalty. An international consensus on most of these matters is registered in the Covenant on Civil and Political Rights.

Courts are arranged in hierarchies, from lower to higher. The general rule is that cases come into the court system at one of the lower levels, and the judgment of the court at the lower level may be accepted by the parties as final. At the same time, the law always grants the possibility of appeal (on questions about the law, not necessarily about findings of fact). If an appeal occurs, the case goes to a higher court, and it must decide what to do. If it sees fit, it may hear relevant arguments and then either affirm or reverse the judgment of the lower court. Potentially, depending on circumstances, appeals may go up to the highest court of the land—in the United States, the Supreme Court.

(By Vernon Van Dyke)

Words and Expressions

Chernobyl Disaster **切尔诺贝利事件**
Iranian Crisis **伊朗危机**
Kangaroo island **袋鼠岛**
Airline Loyalty Scheme **航空公司忠诚计划**
Single European Act **单一欧洲法案**

European Investment Bank　欧洲投资银行
public policy framework　公共政策框架
vertical integration　纵向一体化
quality assurance　质量担保
quality management　质量管理
yield management　收益管理
intervention policy　政策干预
administrative framework　行政管理框架

Notes

1. King George III　乔治三世(1738—1820),英国及爱尔兰的国王,汉诺威皇朝的第三任君主。乔治二世的孙子,1760年即位,直到1820年,执政60年。
2. Congress　美国国会由参议院和众议院两院组成。参议院又称为上院,众议院又称为下院。参议院由各州自行选举,每州不论大小各选出两名参议员,现在参议院由100名参议员组成。参议院议长由美国副总统担任,但他只是主持会议,没有投票权,只有当投票结果为双方相等时,他才有权将自己的一票投到自己认为合适的一方。每位参议员的任期为六年,但每两年选举一次,每次选举要有1/3参议员被重新选举。参议员的资格是必须年满30周岁,具有美国国籍必须超过九年,选举时必须是选举州的居民。众议院议员总数为435名,由根据人口密度划分的国会选举区选举各自的议员,保证每位议员的选区人口总数近似,不足一个选区人口的小州,起码也要有一位众议员。每十年经过人口普查,确定一次选区划分。众议院自行选举议长。众议员任期两年。在任何政府部门任职的人,不得被选为任何一院议员。
3. Parliament　英国议会是英国政治的中心舞台,是英国的最高立法机关。政府从议会中产生,并对其负责。英国的国会为两院制,由上议院(the House of Lords)和下议院(the House of Commons)组成。上议院又称贵族院,主要由王室后裔、世袭贵族、新封贵族、上诉法院法官和教会的重要人物组成。上议院议员不由选举产生,部分是世袭贵族。上议院是英国最高司法机关,议长由大法官兼任。和下议院相比,上议院的权力相对有限,保留着历史上遗留下来的司法权,有权审查下议院通过的法案,并通过必要的修正案,还可以要求推迟它不赞成的立法,最长可达一年。下议院又称平民院或众议院,其议员由直接选举产生,任期五年。下议院的主要职权是立法、监督财政和政府。

4. Margaret Thatcher　玛格丽特·希尔达·撒切尔（Margaret Hilda Thatcher，通称撒切尔夫人）(1979 年至 1990 年任英国首相)，1925 年 10 月 13 日诞生于英格兰格兰瑟姆镇一个经营杂货的小商人家庭，1979 年当选为英国历史上首任女首相。玛格丽特·撒切尔作为"铁娘子"早已闻名于世。撒切尔夫人在政治上属于英国保守党的右翼。她把英国工党的意识形态和政见称为"社会主义"、"集体主义"、"总体主义"。撒切尔夫人步入政坛时，大英帝国已开始走向衰落，她为英国开出了以提倡自由竞争、减少政府干预、控制货币发行量和回归家庭美德为特征的"撒切尔主义"处方。撒切尔夫人任英国首相长达 11 年之久，不仅在英国而且在世界政治舞台上都发挥了一定的影响。1990 年 11 月辞去首相职务。1992 年 6 月被封为终身贵族。
5. Mavericks　是世界闻名的巨浪区，距加利福尼亚的半月海湾大约半英里远。Jeff Clark 在 1975 年第一个在这里冲浪。自从 1992 年以来，这个地区为那些参加年度 Mavericks 冲浪比赛的巨浪冲浪者们提供了终极挑战的机会。

Comprehension Questions and Questions for Discussion

1. The United States and Britain have two different political systems. Can you describe the differences between the presidential and parliamentary system briefly?
2. Both the British prime minister and the American president need to get support from the central government in their elections. Why is it easier for the British Prime Minister to get more support from the House than the American President from the Congress?
3. The legislature assembly of many countries have two chambers, which is called bicameral assembly. Why do countries set up bicameral assemblies?
4. Legislatures play important roles in a country's bicameral assembly. What are the functions of legislatures?
5. A bill has to undergo certain procedures before it becomes a law. How can a bill become a law in the United States?
6. Which governmental institutes play the oversight function in the United States?
7. It is said that the executive plays a powerful role in both the presidential and the parliamentary systems. What roles do the British prime minister and the American President play respectively?

8. How do you understand the relationship between the executive and the legislature?
9. The reactions to the doctrine of judicial review in Britain and in the US are different. How are they different?
10. The political system in every country has its own advantages and disadvantages. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the British parliamentary system and the American presidential system?

Supplementary Reading

Frequent Traveler Program

If you fly 100,000 miles on Continental Airlines, the company will give you two round-trip, first-class tickets to Hawaii or two round-trip, business-class tickets to Europe. The Sheraton Hotel chain awards points for every dollar you spend at one of their hotels, which you can redeem for discounts on gifts and travel expenses. If you rent a car from General Rent-A-Car, you can earn credits toward free car rentals, free mileage, or the use of more luxurious cars.

These are all examples of frequent-traveler programs. Airlines, hotels, and other suppliers use frequent-traveler programs to attract, keep, and reward loyal customers. The idea is simple: the more you use the same companies for your travel needs, the more free travel and other discounts you receive in return.

Most of the major airlines began frequent-flier programs in the early 1980s after the airlines were deregulated and began to compete more aggressively for customers. Since then, the frequent-flier programs have mushroomed into multimillion-dollar giveaways. An estimated 22 million travelers are enrolled in frequent-traveler programs and several hundred thousand people take free trips each year.

The frequent-flier programs have been a particular boon to business travelers who must fly thousands of miles each year on company business. In some cases, the corporations allow their employees to keep the frequent-flier bonuses for their own personal use. Many companies, however, require that their employees turn their free mileage over to the company travel department so other employees can use it for business trips. In this way, the company can save on travel costs.

The airlines have the oldest and most extensive frequent-traveler programs, but other travel suppliers also have similar plans. Several hotel chains have "frequent-stayer" clubs or plans that allow guests to earn points toward free rooms, discounted meals, and other perks. Some chains offer "recognition" to frequent guests in the form of extra services. These services can include express check-in and check-out, newsletters, gift certificates, and exclusive weekend packages. One hotel goes so far as to embroider the names of frequent guests on hotel robes.

Many car rental agencies and some cruise lines also offer special programs to repeat customers. A typical car rental program offers a free weekend day with a minimum two-day rental. Most cruise lines work in conjunction with airlines. For example, a flier who has logged 80,000 miles on US Air can buy a three-day cruise on a Carnival ship and get a second three-day cruise for free. Other cruise lines offer discount rates to frequent fliers.

Commonly, frequent-traveler plans are tied into one another. If you are a member of American Airlines AAd-vantage frequent-flier club, you can use your accumulated miles to receive discounts on certain foreign airlines, such as Qantas and British Airways. Other options are to rent a car at Avis, stay at a Hilton hotel, or take a cruise on a Royal Viking ship, all at discounted rates.

Travel agents have long been ambivalent about frequent-flier clubs. Many do not like the programs because they do not receive commissions on free flights. Other travel agents accept the clubs because a free flight often generates commissions from hotel bookings and car rentals. Travel suppliers have had mixed results with their frequent-traveler programs. Many hotel chains have tried, then dropped, their point systems in favor of recognition programs, and some car rental agencies have had only modest success with their programs.

For many airlines, the frequent-flier clubs may be too successful. An airline has to spend just as much to honor a free ticket as one that had been paid for, but free flights generate no income for the company. By the late 1980s, the airlines began to realize that they had given away a lot of free miles that had not yet been used. By 1989, according to one analysis, frequent fliers had accumulated \$750 million worth of unclaimed free travel.

Fearing a run on free tickets, the airlines began to look for cheaper ways to entice customers to cash in their free miles. Some held auctions at which customers could bid accumulated miles for such prizes as golden retriever puppies and round-the-world trips. Others issued glossy catalogs in which they offered discounts on the purchase of cars, jewelry, furs, and vacation homes. The auctions and discount purchase programs were only moderately successful. Most frequent fliers, the airlines have found, still want free travel more than anything else as a reward for their loyalty.

(By David W. Howell)

Unit Thirteen

Seven Wonders of the Ancient World

The Seven Wonders of the World, now often called the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World were great man-made structures for travelers to see on a world tour. Lists of the so-called Seven Wonders of the World sometimes vary. The following list, from about the 6th century A. D., was a standard one: 1) the pyramids of Egypt; 2) the Hanging Gardens of Babylon; 3) the statue of Zeus at Olympia; 4) the Mausoleum at Halicarnassus; 5) the temple of Artemis (Diana) at Ephesus; 6) the Colossus of Rhodes; and 7) the Pharos (lighthouse) of Alexandria.

The Great Pyramid of Khufu

In the 26th century B. C., as Egyptian civilization was reaching its height, three kings—Khufu, his son Khafre, and his grandson Menkaure—ordered the construction of three huge pyramids that would serve as their tombs. The first of these, the great pyramid, is the largest ever built. It stands with the other two pyramids and the Great Sphinx in a cluster near the town of Giza.

In the eyes of man, it is the original Wonder, the Wonder from which all others descend. Prehistoric tribes on unknown islands or deep within unpenetrated forests surely constructed remarkable cities and spectacular totems to their God or gods. But this, a monumental tomb that Egypt's King Khufu ordered more than 4500 years ago to honor and accommodate none but himself, is the Wonder of Wonders.

Khufu (2551—2528 B. C.; also known as Cheops or Suphis) ruled for two dozen years during the Fourth Dynasty (2574—2465 B. C.) and was rumored to have been quite a tyrant. Beyond that, and the fact that he was the son of a pyramid-building king named Snefru, precious little is known. He clearly approved of Egypt's Old Kingdom tradition of erecting pyramid-shaped superstructures to encase royal tombs, and chose the plateau of Giza, on the west bank of the Nile across from Cairo, as the site for his own.

It is believed that 100,000 men, probably farmers displaced by the river's annual floods, worked on the pyramid for up to four months each year for at least 20 and perhaps 30 years. The word "toil" doesn't begin to tell the tale. Consider that the pyramid's 2,300,000 blocks of stone average 2.5 tons apiece (the heaviest are 15 tons; the smaller ones are placed nearer the top); consider that the blocks needed to be dragged by teams of men up ramps made of mud and brick, and that the ramps then had to be raised for the edifice's next level; consider that only the interior stones were quarried nearby because Khufu's architect wanted a better quality white limestone for his casing layer, and this high-grade rock needed to be brought from quarries on the other side of the Nile, then up from a harbor at the plateau's edge; consider that dense granite blocks were needed for the burial chamber in the pyramid's center and to serve as plugs for the corridors, and that the heavy granite could be supplied only by a quarry in Aswan, nearly 600 miles south; consider that the pyramid as designed was required to grow to a height of 481 feet (having lost its uppermost stones to Arab invaders circa 650 A.D., it is now about 450 feet tall) and that its base spread over some 13 acres. . . and then consider that ancient man, through blood, sweat and no doubt a considerable flow of tears, pulled it off. As a physical specimen it is a great Wonder (and was once even more wondrous, since its current eroded, uneven surface used to be perfectly smooth and white). And as a study in engineering and human endeavor, it is a marvel beyond compare.

There are other terrific structures and statuaries in the realm of Khufu's pyramid on the Giza plain, all installed between 2500 and 2400 B.C. Two other gargantuan pyramids contain the tombs of King Khafre, who was Khufu's son, and of King Menkaure. Nestled in the shadows of the three tremendous constructs are smaller but still grand pyramids containing the remains of the kings' several queens. And then there's the Great Sphinx, which lies serenely near Khafre's tomb and was probably built for him. But, properly, it is only Khufu's pyramid—the Great Pyramid, the highest building on earth for more than 43 centuries—that is considered a Wonder of the World. It is the Wonder by which all others are measured.

The Hanging Gardens of Babylon

The story of the Hanging Gardens reads like a fairy tale, and that is as it should be. Set in the 6th century B.C., it goes like this: Nebuchadnezzar II, ruler of Babylon, senses that his wife's lassitude is due to the bland, baked

Mesopotamian landscape, a dreary contrast to the lush mountain greenery of her Persian birthplace, Media. To ameliorate Amyitis's gloom, the king orders a fantastic, many-storied, brick-and-bitumen structure with terraces from which all manner of flora are to sprout, their life support being a complex irrigation system that draws water from the Euphrates. Amyitis is delighted by her husband's sympathetic gesture, and Nebuchadnezzar is pleased to see his wife's spirits brighten. Everyone in Babylon lives happily ever after (at least until Nebuchadnezzar dies in 562 B.C. and the kingdom begins a rapid decline that will lead to its conquest by the Persians in 539 B.C.).

Some of the above might actually have happened, or none of the above might have happened. There are no contemporaneous accounts of any majestic gardens, hanging or otherwise, and it is an interesting if melancholy fact that one of the most inspiring and poetic of the Seven Ancient Wonders may be purely mythical.

What we think we know of them, unconfirmed by any Babylonian cuneiform or the evidence in archaeological digs, springs from the accounts of Greeks writing just before the time of Christ's birth. Perhaps finally putting oral tradition to page, Strabo, a geographer, wrote, "It consists of vaulted terraces, raised one above another, and resting upon cube-shaped pillars. These are hollow and filled with earth to allow trees of the largest size to be planted." Quintus Curtius, who came after Strabo, put the trees at "twelve feet in circumference, and fifty feet in height. Supporting these are twenty thick walls, eleven feet distant from each other, surmounted with ranges of stone arches, over which is extended a four-sided pavement of stone, strong enough to bear earth piled high, and water supplied for irrigation." The historian Diodorus Siculus wrote most gloriously of the entire effect: "This garden was four hundred feet square, and the ascent up to it was as to the top of a mountain, and it had buildings and apartments, out of one into another, like unto a theater."

In the ruins of ancient Babylon vaulted structures have been found within the site of the Southern Palace, and theories have blossomed. But while the city's famous surrounding wall has been located, the gardens have not been. Which isn't to say there haven't been believers. Saddam Hussein was one, and his harebrained scheme in the 1980s to rebuild Nebuchadnezzar's golden city as a sort of theme-park attraction—a project halted first by lack of funds and then by war—included not only a spanking new Ishtar Gate and a repaired wall, but also a Tower of Babel and, yes, Hanging Gardens.

The Temple of Artemis at Ephesus

Greek colonists at Ephesus, in Asia Minor, built the famous temple of Artemis. The early settlers found the Asiatic inhabitants worshiping a many-breasted nature goddess whom they identified with their Artemis (called Diana by the Romans). They raised a shrine to her, which was rebuilt and enlarged from time to time. The fourth temple was the one regarded as the wonder of the world. Dedicated about 430 B. C., it is said to have been built by contributions from all the great cities of Asia and to have taken 120 years to complete. This great temple was set on fire in 356 B. C. on the night Alexander the Great was born, according to tradition.

Artemis, goddess of fertility in Asia Minor, held a particular thrall in Ephesus, a city approximately 30 miles south of what is now the Turkish city of Izmir. While the foundation of the temple that would honor her was built in the 7th century B. C., the base lay bare for decades until Croesus, the fabulously wealthy king of Lydia who had recently conquered Ephesus, commissioned a plan from the architect Chersiphron. This man's masterwork was of marble and it was wider and longer than a football field and surrounded by rows of columns on four sides. There was a large altar in a separate building that faced the temple, and the entire site inspired deep reverence in worshipers of Artemis in much the same way that the Vatican influences Catholic pilgrims today.

Modern excavations have revealed that the goddess—and the temple—received offerings from pilgrims from as far away as Persia and India. But one man, clearly, was troubled by all this. After standing for two centuries, the temple was burned down in 356 B. C. by a disturbed individual named Herostratus who was seeking either notoriety or immortality, or both. Artemis herself could not be so easily destroyed, and in the next several decades a similar but even larger temple, sponsored in part by Alexander the Great, the new conqueror of Persia, rose on the spot. In 262 A. D., the Goths wrecked this second iteration, and by then, Christianity was on the march, with converts being made day by day. When St. John Chrysostom ordered the temple destroyed for good in 401, it was the rare Ephesian who much cared. The city itself slowly followed its once glorious building into ruin.

This so-called wonder was essentially forgotten until 19th century excavations rekindled interest, an interest that extends to the present day.

The Statue of Zeus at Olympia

The statue of Olympian Zeus was erected at Olympia, in the Peloponnesus of Greece, by the great sculptor Phidias in the 5th century B. C. It was a towering structure of ivory and gold, 40 feet high, majestic and beautiful.

In the 5th century B. C. , a statue was wanted for a Doric temple that had been built in Olympia, a town best known for having hosted those eponymous athletic events every quadrennial since 776 B. C. The right man for the job was clearly Phidias, the Athenian sculptor who had mastered a technique for making massive replicas out of wood, ivory and gold, and whose 40-foot-tall statue of Athena was the main attraction in the Parthenon's central hall. Soon after that masterwork was dedicated in 438 B. C. , Phidias ventured west and set up camp in Olympia, there to create Zeus.

In his workshop adjacent to the temple, he fashioned pieces of the statue's core, which would eventually contain 27,545 cubic feet of wood, for later assembly in the temple. To these would be affixed ivory and plates of gold. The figure that Phidias designed was of a seated Zeus, a scepter in his left hand. On his head is a sculpted wreath of olive sprays and in his right hand he holds a figure of Victory made from ivory and gold. His sandals are made of gold, as is his robe.

The completed statue — 40 feet tall upon a base 20 feet wide and three feet high, thoroughly filling the temple's west end—honored the god of gods, and drew flocks of worshipers to Olympia. However, when religious observance in the region changed with the rise of the Roman Empire, the statue's fate became questionable, even dicey. The emperor Caligula tried to have it moved to Rome in the 1st century A. D. , but it proved impossible to build a scaffolding that would stand up to the task. In 393 the Christian emperor Theodosius I declared the Olympic Games a pagan extravaganza and shut them down, meanwhile ordering the Zeus temple closed. One report has it that the statue was finally transported from Olympia to Constantinople, where it was consumed in a fire. Another maintains that Theodosius II ordered it and the temple demolished in the 5th century, and remnants of Zeus that existed in Olympia were pulverized in an earthquake. Fragments of the statue turned up in an 1875 dig. Later excavations found the site of Phidias's workshop and clay molds that served in making the statue of Zeus. They testify to an artistic creation of a superhuman scale, suggesting the awe Olympians must have felt for the giant god overlooking them from the hilltop.

The Colossus of Rhodes

The Colossus of Rhodes was a great bronze statue, erected about 280 B.C. by the citizens of Rhodes, capital of the Greek island of the same name. It represented their sungod Helios and was said to be 105 feet high. According to legend, it straddled the harbor entrance, but it is more likely that it stood to one side. The statue was overthrown by an earthquake in 224 B.C., but its huge fragments long were regarded with wonder. Nearly a thousand years later, in 656 A.D., a Moslem dealer bought the fragments as old metal and carried them away to be melted down.

By accounts, it was a celebratory tribute to the Greek sun god Helios, patron of the island of Rhodes, just off what is now Turkey in the Aegean. After successfully weathering a siege and reaching a peace agreement with the expansionist Macedonians in 304 B.C., the Rhodians decided to build a statue. Planning took several years, and construction another dozen. No machine existed to hoist materials, so a hill surrounding the statue had to be built higher at each stage, and as much as 10 tons of iron (for the frame) and 15 tons of hammered bronze (for the skin) were brought up and put in place. With sun rays crowning Helios's head, the 110-foot-tall Colossus was finished in 282 B.C.

In the years after its untimely demise, Colossus was usually depicted as straddling the entrance to Mandraki's harbor, one of the principal gateways to Rhodes. This was almost certainly not the case in antiquity. Such a Colossus would have been impossibly huge, even if his legs were spread very, very wide. And when he collapsed, as this Helios did, he would have blocked entrance to the harbor—and there is no written or other evidence of this. The Colossus was probably on a point east of Mandraki, or elsewhere in Rhodes.

The ruins of Rhodes's monument lay in state for nearly a thousand years. In 654 A.D., Arabs invaded, sacked and sold the Colossus's remaining parts to a Syrian. It was said that 900 camels were required to transport the metal from the island.

The question many have asked, inspired by old etchings and engravings, appears to have a simple answer, and that is yes. The Colossus of Rhodes did inspire French sculptor Frederic-Augusta Bartholdi when, in the 19th century, he fashioned his most famous work as an offering to the United States of America. The Statue of Liberty was not only Colossal in conception; in framework and covering, it was built in much the same way, extraordinary testimony to the engineering and artistry that was in effect so long, long ago.

The Mausoleum at Halicarnassus

The Mausoleum at Halicarnassus derived its name from King Mausollos of Caria. It might be supposed that this structure had everything to do with King Mausollos of Caria, not least since the grandiose tomb bequeathed to the world a word for all grandiose tombs, and did so in his name. But, in fact, the construction of the world's first mausoleum has as much to do with a woman named Artemisia, who was Mausollos's sister, wife and grief-stricken widow.

Mausollos, a leader of the kingdom of Caria in Asia Minor in the 4th century B.C., was a study in contrasts, a man from a society of shepherds and rustics who, himself, had Grecian impulses and manners; a ruthless warlord who nevertheless dreamed of a Greek and non-Greek brotherhood, and who tried to build his capital in Halicamassus into a mini-Athens. Besides the marvelous brick-and-marble palace that rose there for Mausollos and Artemisia, other public works during his tenure included a splendid shrine of Apollo and a park by the waterfront worthy of any resort destination.

Mausollos died in 353 B.C. Either just before or just after, Artemisia commissioned a memorial suitable for her sibling-spouse. She would not challenge the pyramid-mad Egyptians in erecting the world's biggest tomb but would outdo them in style. She pillaged Greece for its best architects and artists, assembling a veritable all-star roster. Pythias drew designs; Timotheus, Bryaxis and Leochares made statues. Scopas, sculptor of sculptors, left his job at the Temple of Artemis at Ephesus to help with this other major project. The fruits of their labor—a six-acre site whose focus was a burial chamber encased within a temple, which sat upon a 125-by-105-foot podium and included a crowning 24-step pyramid with a four-horse chariot statue for a hat—were beyond stunning.

The tomb was unfinished when Artemisia followed Mausollos to the grave in 351 B.C. But the craftsmen stayed on because they felt they were working on something special, a sublime resting place for the king and queen. They did rest in peace for many centuries. An earthquake shook them up along the way, knocking blocks from the mausoleum's roof, but it wasn't until the Crusades of the late 15th century that the tomb came under mortal pressure. The invading Knights of St. John of Malta decided to build a castle. In 1494 they began disassembling the temple, and by 1522 all major stones had been carted away for other uses.

Today, a foundation and a few ruins in Halicarnassus hint at what once was. In the still-standing crusader castle in nearby Bodrum, massive marble blocks glisten, whispering that they were intended for Mausollos, with love, from Artemisia.

The Pharos of Alexandria

The Pharos of Alexandria, in Egypt, was forerunner of modern lighthouses. The name belonged originally to an island lying off the coast. When Alexander the Great laid out the city he connected the island of Pharos with the mainland by means of a mole, or causeway. On the eastern point of the island his successors, Ptolemy I and Ptolemy II, erected a great lighthouse of white marble. It was this structure, said to have been 400 feet high, that came to be known as the Pharos of Alexandria.

First an island lent its name to a strange building, and then the building gave the world a word meaning "lighthouse." The island in Alexandria's harbor was Pharos, and after two Egyptian rulers, Ptolemy I and II, oversaw construction of a skyscraper with a fire at its summit, the phrase "sailing in by Pharos" circulated among mariners. Soon the island and its beacon were synonymous, and today faro means lighthouse in Italian, while phare is the word in French. Ptolemy I was Alexander the Great's successor and enjoyed a four-decade reign, during which Alexandria grew to be a golden city, the Paris or New York of its day. The bustle in Alexandria's port was increasing daily when, in 290 B. C., Ptolemy ordered a lighthouse built—one larger, more splendid and more effective than any other. The enormous project was already seven years old when Ptolemy died circa 283 B. C. His son and successor watched as perhaps another 15 years of work went into the lighthouse. Limestone and granite blocks of up to 75 tons were quarried and dragged to the site; newly devised hoisting systems, perhaps involving early cranes, lifted them into place while, elsewhere, sculptors fashioned immense statues of Poseidon and Ptolemy to grace the lighthouse. The lower, square tier was finished, then the octagonal middle level and, finally, the cylindrical cupola to house the flame. The 400-plus-foot lighthouse, which finally came online circa 270 B. C., was the world's second tallest building after the Great Pyramid, and would retain that status for nearly 17 centuries. Even today it would stand proudly alongside 40-story office towers.

As mentioned, the lighthouse was remarkably long-lived, and so we have historical accounts. In the 10th century A. D., the Moorish scholar Idrisi offered this description: "It is kept lit night and day as a beacon for navigators throughout the whole sailing season; mariners know the fire and direct their course accordingly, for it is visible a day's sail away. By night it looks like a brilliant star; by day one can perceive its smoke." A day's sail in Idrisi's time could have been a hundred miles, so the Pharos's reach was vast indeed. Various reports have it that a large glass or a magnifying device of some other sort served to intensify the fire's glow-beckoning seamen, shouting of Alexandria's glory.

(By Robert Sullivan)

Words and Expressions

budget/economy accommodation **廉价/经济住宿设施**
camping and caravan site **野营和房车露营地**
campus accommodation **校园住宿设施**
Youth Hostel Association (YHA) **青年招待所协会**
medical facility accommodation **医疗住宿设施**
self-catering accommodation **餐饮自理住宿设施**
bed and breakfast (B&B) **提供床和早餐的住所**
accommodation classification **住宿业分级**
grading system **等级评定体系**
service quality model **服务质量模型**

Notes

1. The Pyramids of Egypt **埃及的金字塔(Pyramids)建于4500年前,是古埃及法老(即国王)和王后的陵墓。陵墓是用巨大石块修砌成的方锥形建筑,因形似汉字"金"字,故译作"金字塔"。埃及迄今已发现大大小小的金字塔110座,大多建于埃及古王朝时期。在埃及已发现的金字塔中,最大最有名的是位于开罗西南面的吉萨高地上的祖孙三代金字塔。它们是大金字塔(也称胡夫金字塔)(the Great Pyramid of Khufu)、卡菲王**

金字塔（the Pyramid of Khafre**），和门金字塔（**the Pyramid of Menkaure**），与其周围众多的小金字塔形成金字塔群，为埃及金字塔建筑艺术的顶峰。**

2. The Great Pyramid of Khufu **大金字塔是埃及现存规模最大的金字塔，被喻为"世界古代七大奇观之一"。它建于埃及第四王朝第二位法老胡夫统治时期，原高** 146.59 **米，因顶端剥落，现高** 136.5 **米，塔的四个斜面正对东南西北四个方向，塔基呈正方形，每边长约** 230 **多米，占地面积** 5.29**万平方米。塔身由** 230 **万块巨石组成，它们大小不一，分别重达** 1.5 **吨至** 160 **吨，平均重约** 2.5 **吨。据考证，为建成大金字塔，一共动用了** 10 **万人花了** 20 **年时间。**
3. The Pyramid of Khafre **卡菲王（**Khafre**）金字塔是排行第二的金字塔，旁边就是人面狮身，以卡菲王的脸作为人面狮身像的容貌，而人面狮身像据说是太阳神（**Horus**），被认为是法老陵墓的守护神。**
4. The Pyramid of Menkaure **第三座金字塔是曼考王（**Menkaure**）金字塔，十六层使用花岗岩建筑，其他则以砖块完成，而当时为了防止盗墓，建筑金字塔的工人全都被坑杀了。**
5. The Hanging Gardens of Babylon **巴比伦空中花园建造于大约公元前** 600 **年。这座神话般的建筑是尼布甲尼撒二世为他的一个妃子修建的，大约** 400 **英尺见方，高出地面** 75 **英尺。据说它要由奴隶们转动机械装置从下面的幼发拉底河里抽上大量的水来灌溉花园里的花草。**
6. Ptolemy I **托勒密一世（**367B.C.—283B.C.**），古埃及国王（**305B.C.—285B.C.**），托勒密王朝创建人，称王以后，号"索特"（**Soter**，意为"救星"），建都于亚历山大城，并在该地建图书馆和博物馆。**
7. Nebuchadnezzar II **尼布甲尼撒二世（**Ptolemy I **之子）（**605B.C.—562B.C.**），新巴比伦王国国王。即位后，大举进攻腓尼基和巴勒斯坦，与埃及争夺势力范围。公元前** 586 **年攻陷耶路撒冷，灭犹太王国，俘虏大批犹太居民。前** 567 **年远征埃及，并掠夺大量财富，利用宗教，巩固王朝统治，在位期间国势处于全盛时期。**
8. The Ishtar Gate **伊斯塔门，新巴比伦城内城八座城门中最宏伟的一座，始建于大约公元前** 575 **年。它是古西亚所遗留下来的最璀璨的文化瑰宝之一。伊斯塔门采用独特的琉璃砖饰面装饰技术，即用重复的龙和公牛图样雕刻的琉璃砖排满墙面。这些龙和牛的图案象征着当时人们所敬奉的** Marduk **和** Adad **神，蓝色的底色很好地衬托出了这些明亮的黄色雕刻。**
9. Tower of Babel **巴别塔：根据《圣经·旧约》，诺亚在巴比伦的子孙想建**

造一座"塔顶通天"的塔以扬名,同时反抗上帝。上帝便变乱他们原来统一的语言,使之互不相通,结果塔未能通成,而人类分散到世界各地。

10. the Temple of Artemis at Ephesus 埃斐索斯的阿耳忒弥斯神庙建造于公元前550年希腊城邦埃斐索斯,现在的土耳其西海岸。阿耳忒弥斯是希腊的涉猎女神,阿拉伯人称她Lat,埃及人称她依西斯(Isis),而罗马人则称她为戴安娜(Diana),在古代的希腊阿耳忒弥斯女神深受敬仰,因此兴建了七大奇观之一——阿耳忒弥斯神殿。

11. Izmir 伊兹密尔,即士麦那(Smyna),土耳其西部一城市,位于伊兹密尔海湾,是爱琴海的一个海湾。

12. Ephesus 以弗所是古希腊小亚细亚西岸一重要贸易城市。

13. Alexander the Great 亚历山大大帝生于公元前356年,马其顿王菲力浦之子,是历史上第一位征服欧亚大陆的著名帝王。公元前336年菲力浦遇刺,亚历山大继承王位率领希腊联军进攻波斯并直入小亚细亚攻占两河流域。波斯帝国崩溃,波斯王被杀,随后又进军埃及并越过印度河进入恒河,因士兵思乡而被迫退回。亚历山大一生倡导民族地位平等,将希腊思想和法律传播至世界各地。

14. the Statue of Zeus at Olympia (宙斯神像)宙斯是希腊众神之神,为表崇拜而兴建的宙斯神像是当时世界上最大的室内雕像,宙斯神像所在的宙斯神殿则是奥林匹克运动会的发源地。宙斯神殿建于公元前470年,于公元前456年完工,由建筑师Libon设计,宙斯神像则由雕刻家Pheidias负责。宙斯神殿是多利斯式(Doric-style)的建筑,整座神像及他所穿的长袍都是由黄金制成,他头戴橄榄编织的环,右手握着由象牙及黄金制成的胜利女神像,左手拿着一把镶有闪烁耀眼金属的令牌,上面有一只鹰停留着,而他所坐的宝座则以狮身人面像、胜利女神及神话人物装饰,神像约高13米(40尺),相当于四层高的现代楼宇。

15. Athena 雅典娜,智能女神,女战神,即罗马神话中的密涅瓦,宙斯和墨提斯的女儿。她把纺织、缝衣、油漆、雕刻、制陶等技艺传授给人类。她与海神波塞冬相争,因出示第一棵橄榄枝而获胜,遂成为雅典城的保护神。

16. The Colossus of Rhodes 罗得斯巨型雕塑位于希腊罗得斯岛(island of Rhodes)通往地中海(Mediterranean Sea)的港口。在公元前305年罗得斯联邦和马尔他(Malta)的安帝哥尼(Antigonids)发生了一场战争,战胜的罗得斯联邦得到大批战利品,为了纪念这场战争,他们变卖战利品来建造罗得斯岛巨像。巨像高度为33米,加上大理石的台座可达50米。在纪元前227年的大地震中倒塌,被放在那里置之不理,然而在

672 年伊斯兰军队的进攻中，巨大的雕像的残骸被犹太商人卖掉，现在什么都没留下。

17. Helios 赫利俄斯，太阳神，泰坦巨神许珀里翁的儿子。他每日乘四马金车在天空中奔驰，从东到西，晨出晚没，用光明普照世界。在许多神话中，他同阿波罗混为一体。

18. the Statue of Liberty 自由女神耸立在纽约港口的自由岛上，是美国人民渴望自由的象征。神像重 45 万磅，高 46 米，底座高 45 米。她身着罗马古代长袍，头戴光芒冠冕，右手高擎长达 12 米的火炬，左手紧抱一部美国《独立宣言》，身体微微前倾，神态端庄安详，亲切自然。在塑像内部还有 168 阶螺旋状楼梯，游人可自此登上像顶。在女神冠冕下有 25 个铁窗，凭窗远眺，可以俯视纽约全港景色。创作这一艺术杰作的是 19 世纪后期才华横溢的雕塑家——(Frederic-Auguste Bartholdi) 弗雷德里克·奥古斯特·巴托尔迪。

19. The Mausoleum at Halicarnassus 摩索拉斯陵墓是大约公元前 353 年为摩索拉斯和他的妻子修建的 (现在的土耳其西南地区)。整座建筑高达 135 英尺，由两名希腊设计师设计，外面装饰着奇异的雕刻花纹。陵墓总体似神殿，上部为金字塔形，顶上有大理石雕塑，由建筑师彼提阿斯设计建成。由于这座陵墓被西方传诵为古代陵墓的奇迹，故现在西语中的"陵墓"一词，也以 Mausoleum 为词源了。15 世纪初毁于大地震。现在伦敦大英博物馆还收藏有一点剩余的雕刻。

20. King Maussollos (of Caria) 摩索拉斯，加里亚王国国王。加里亚王国位于小亚细亚西南部，都城是哈里卡纳苏斯。摩索拉斯于公元前 353 年死去，其妻接过政权，为了纪念他，就按照丈夫生前拟就的陵墓图样，修建摩索拉斯陵墓。

21. The Pharos of Alexandria (亚历山大灯塔) 遵照亚历山大大帝 (马其顿国王) 的命令，亚历山大城的法罗斯灯塔于公元前 300 年建在一座人工岛上，它至少有 122 米高，用闪光的白色石灰石或大理石建成。当亚历山大灯塔建成后，它的高度当之无愧地使它成为当时世界上最高的建筑物。他的设计者是希腊的建筑师索斯查图斯。1500 年来，亚历山大灯塔一直在暗夜中为水手们指引进港的路线。它也是六大奇迹中最晚消失的一个。14 世纪的大地震彻底摧毁了它。

Comprehension Questions and Questions for Discussion

1. Why do you think the Great Pyramid of Khufu is the original Wonder, or the Wonder of Wonders in the eyes of men?

2. It is believed that the majestic Hanging Gardens of Babylon may be purely mythical. Do you agree? Why or why not? What do you know about the fairy tale of the Hanging Gardens of Babylon from this article?
3. Why did Greek colonists build the Temple of Artemis at Ephesus? What happened to the temple and the goddess in the end?
4. What does the Statue of Zeus look like according to its design by the superb sculptor Phidias?
5. Under what circumstance did Rhodians decide to build the statue, Colossus? How was the 110-foot-tall Colossus finished when no machine existed to hoist materials around 282 B. C.?
6. In what aspect did the Colossus of Rhodes exert influence on French sculptor Frederic-Auguste Bartholdi?
7. Did King Mausollos of Caria have anything to do with the word "mausoleum"? Why did Artemisia pillage Greece for its best architects and artists after the death of Mausollos?
8. What made the craftsmen stay on the unfinished tomb even after Artemisia died?
9. What makes all these structures "wonders"? Which wonder do you particularly like the best and why?
10. At present, Taj Mahal has figured on the top ten list of the new "Seven Wonders of the World." Can you name the rest popular monuments?

Supplementary Reading

Sydney Opera House

It is pretty hopeless as avenue for opera, it took 17 years to build, its architect was forced to resign and it was never properly finished inside. None of this matters. The Sydney Opera House, by the reclusive Danish architect, Jorn Utzon, is the mother and father of all modern landmark buildings. It has come to define not only a city, but an entire nation and continent.

Beyond that, it is a global expression of cultural modernity. Everyone in the world with media access knows what the Sydney Opera House looks like. First designed in 1956 and finally declared complete in 1973, the opera house was the single best-known modern building in the world until the arrival of

Frank Gehry's equally extraordinary Bilbao Guggenheim in 1997. But it will outlive the Guggenheim as an international architectural icon—because it did all the difficult work first.

In the pantheon of classic modern buildings, Utzon's creation has the status of myth. The myth states that the unknown architect, then in his thirties, submitted rough sketches to the competition judges, that he ignored most of the rules, that his design was only selected after being plucked at the last moment from the reject pile by one of the judges, and that the design was unbuildable.

But Sydney is remarkable for another reason: it is a complete one-off. It does not fit into any stylistic or chronological category. None of Utzon's other buildings—churches, government departments, houses—looks anything like it, and architects today who try to copy his concept always end up looking very second-rate indeed. It is "modern", certainly, but it is an expressive modernism that was quite at odds with the rectilinear "international style" of its time. It has more in common with the work of the American maverick genius Frank Lloyd Wright, for whom Utzon worked briefly. Of course its location is an enormous help, sitting as it does on a promontory with water on three sides and the famous Sydney Harbor Bridge as a picture-postcard backdrop. But Utzon masterfully exploited the site as nobody else could.

Utzon left Australia in high dudgeon in 1966, never to return, before he could finish designing the interiors.

As with Sir Christopher Wren at St Paul's Cathedral, Utzon was humiliated and removed from overseeing the final stages of his masterwork. But for all his manifold difficulties, which other contemporary architect can claim an equivalent achievement? The Sydney Opera House showed us that anything is possible, and it demonstrated that sheer, seductive beauty for its own sake is nothing to be ashamed of.

(By Hugh Pearman)

Unit Fourteen

Types of Service in the Hospitality Industry

In order for us to understand what service is and what it means to those of us involved in a service industry, we must expose some basic human needs. Abraham Maslow, a noted psychologist, identifies five needs: 1) physiological such as hunger, thirst and sleep; 2) safety or protection from danger, threat or deprivation; 3) love or the need to associate with others and receiving affection; 4) esteem for our own self-respect and the respect of others; and 5) self-actualization or self fulfillment.

When we think of giving service to another person, what we are doing is attempting to satisfy the human needs of love and esteem. When we fail to give good service, we are failing to support our guests' needs for his self-respect and his need to feel loved or at the least, cared for. As a consequence our guest may feel, perhaps in a small way, rejected, isolated and resentful. When we succeed at giving good service, we have met some of our guests' basic needs by appealing to their status, self-respect or need to be cared for. The physiological need for food is not what Maslow was identifying as a basic need.

Lately we have seen our service industry concentrate on increasing employee productivity by using computers and a host of mechanical and electronic labor-saving devices. While this change is not only justified, but necessary, some hotels and restaurants have let the very essence of our industry take a back seat to mechanization and computerization.

We are beginning to enter what many sociologists and economists have termed the post-industrial era. That is to say, we Americans can no longer build the best mousetraps, or television sets, or cars. We can certainly remain competitive, but we can no longer outstrip the competition as we once did. In this post-industrial era then, what can we, as future hospitality managers, offer to our guests? We could sell service, and that is what will differentiate our operation and our business from that of our competition.

What does giving good service mean to our guests and, in turn, for our business? A hotel and a restaurant depend on return business or repeat guests to provide them with a certain market base. Offering good service builds on the base and develops loyal customers for our operation. Advertising and promotion techniques are necessary in today's media-filled world. Yet there is probably no equal to a fair value for the guest's dollar and an environment where our guest knows he is welcome. Let us look at the types of service offered by hotels and restaurants.

One of the most important services a hotel offers, other than a room in which the guest lives, is food and beverages. We will discuss the types of food and beverage service in the following section, but first let us look at hotel services. As mentioned, the primary purpose for the existence of a hotel is to provide a room for either temporary or permanent residence. The room should provide a safe and sanitary environment for our guests. When we say safe and sanitary, we are including many basic hotel services: security, privacy, a room free from germs that may cause illness, clean and sanitary sheets, towels, pillow-cases, safety from malfunctioning equipment, laundered clothes and shined shoes, a person to carry heavy bags and a person to park cars. Each of these services is the responsibility of several departments in the hotel.

Pretend that we are guests entering a hotel to purchase its services. The first person we meet that offers us service is the door attendant. He greets us and will assist us in getting out of our car or cab. He will help us with our luggage and summon a bellhop. The door attendant usually portrays the character of the hotel—in foreign hotels he may be dressed in native clothes. He will offer us suggestions for places to visit, give us directions, call for a cab or limousine, or direct the garage attendant to bring our car.

The next person that offers us service is the bellhop. Her first duty will be to help us with our luggage until we register at the front desk. She may secure the bags until we have been assigned a room and will then help us transport our luggage to our room. In showing us into our room, she will check the room for cleanliness and for the proper functioning of the equipment such as the television and the air conditioner. When we register at the front desk, the front desk clerk greets us and discusses with us the type of room we desire. After we reach an agreement as to the type of room and the price, she will ring for the bellhop.

One person we seldom see but who performs one of the most important functions in a hotel is the room attendant or maid who is responsible for keeping our room clean. This includes furnishing us with fresh clean towels, clean bed linens, and a clean bathroom. The room attendants work in conjunction with a house attendant who is responsible for keeping the public areas such as the hallways, the lobby and the elevator vestibules. Each of these employees generally has very little direct guest contact, yet the very time that they do have contact is during a guest complaint. The effectiveness with which the housekeeping staff (room and house attendants) performs their functions, especially when they have guest contact is critical.

Another person or persons we seldom see or recognize, is the hotel security force. While house-keeping personnel job-function when they have guest contact is critical, guest contact for the security force is super critical. When a security officer has guest contact for an official purpose, it is either because the guest is rowdy or her personal security has been violated. The manner in which security performs its job functions when confronting a guest is of utmost importance.

It is beyond the scope of this chapter to detail every employee in the hotel with whom we, as guests, have contact, or with the many other services offered by a hotel. As an example, however, hotels may offer bottle beverage sales, laundry and dry cleaning services, banquet or meeting rooms and the related sales staff, engineering employees to provide maintenance or repair functions and, many other sundry services.

Let us concentrate on the food and beverage department and what service is provided in either the hotel restaurant or an independent restaurant. Let us assume we are managers touring our food and beverage departments or our own restaurant. In a hotel, among the food and beverage services, we may find a room service department. The function of the room service department is to provide prepared food, wine, and either set-ups for liquor or prepared cocktails to our guests in their respective rooms. The specific type of table service used for room service may vary as to the class of hotel. This leads us to the specific types of service we may offer our guests in our restaurant.

Dining room service in the United States has traditionally been delegated to European trained Maitres d'hotel who were schooled through long apprentice training programs. Few trained Maitres d' hotel, waiters or waitresses are immigrating to the U. S. today. Good food and the chef's art can be destroyed by poor service. It is important, if we are to become complete and effective managers, that we learn about the types of dining room service.

Perhaps the most elegant type of service is cart service. Most professionals in our industry refer to cart service as "French Service", and some refer to it as "Russian Service". What distinguishes this type of service from the others is that the food is brought to the guests' table in either a raw state or semi-prepared state, and the final preparation is performed at the guest's tableside by a captain or *chef de rang*. The captain is assisted by a writer or *commis de rang*, and they work together closely as a team preparing items such as Crepes Suzette, Steak Diane and Caesar Salad. The captain and the waiter must be well trained to offer this elegant, personalized, professional service. Because of the elegance that we are offering our guests, we schedule more captains and waiters per guest than we would for American or plate service. Also, we serve fewer guests in an evening and we have to allow more space in our dining room to offer this type of service. You can see very easily why we would have to charge higher menu prices if we offer cast service. There are some other reasons why the menu prices would have to be higher than plate service: 1) it may be difficult to find trained service personnel which means, either we must pay a premium wage, conduct our own training program, or both; 2) if we need to provide more space per guest, that space (at $ 40—$ 75 per square foot) costs us more to construct; and 3) we need to purchase additional equipment such as gueridon and rechaud or cart and portable burner and sauté pans. Our control over the quality of preparation may be less because we may have five captains in, the dining room preparing food as opposed to one cook in the kitchen who ordinarily would prepare the food.

We might ask, "Why would anyone offer cart service with all those disadvantages?" Quite simply, if we have a market for this type of service and we can make a profit, we decide yes. We determine whether we have a sufficient market by conducting a feasibility study. If we were to open our elegant restaurant in some European countries, it would not be acceptable to the guests if we used plate service.

Another type of formal elegant service that we do not see very often in the U. S. is platter service. Platter service is universally accepted in fine restaurants the world over, yet it is not always referred to as platter service. Most professionals in our industry use "Russian Service" while a fewer number of industry professionals use "French Service". In order to avoid confusion, we will refer to it as platter service. In those European countries where the patrons will not accept plate service in elegant restaurants and where cart service is not feasible, platter service is usually implemented. While platter service is cumbersome for *a la carte* (made-to-order) fare, it is fast, convenient and elegant when used in banquet situations with preset menus.

Unlike cart service, the food is fully prepared in the kitchen by the chef or cook, placed on platters, garnished and the waiter brings the food to the guest on the platter. The waiter places a hot, empty plate in the center of the guest's place setting and serving from the guest's left side, he transfers the food and the garnishes onto the guest's plate using a serving spoon and dinner fork. While served from their right in cart service, guests are served, from their left side and the waiter serves with his right hand. Soup may be served in a silver soup cup, which is placed in the center of the guest's cover in a soup bowl before each guest. The waitress then gently spills the soup into the bowl by grasping the cup's handle pouring away from the guest. Soup may also be served from a soup tureen and transferred to the guest's bowl. While the silverware setting for platter service may be complete (all utensils preset), the silverware setting for cart service is minimal, sometimes only a knife and fork are set.

Platter service offers a measure of elegance as compared to plate service, but is less personalized than cart service. Less space (per guest) is required; however, if setting banquet style, 30 inches should be allowed for each patron's place setting since service personnel must be able to move comfortably between guests. The level of proficiency of the staff need not to be specialized and service teams, although helpful, are not compulsory as it is with cart service. It is a faster type of service and therefore offers a higher guest turnover rate. It is cumbersome for *a la carte* service: the waiter takes the order, places or picks-up in the kitchen, brings food into the dining room, sets the food on a secondary warming surface, places empty plates, retrieves the food and one-by-one transfers food to the guest's plate. You can see quite easily how cumbersome this would be if each person in a party of four ordered different items. Yet platter service is most feasible for elegant banquet service.

There are some disadvantages to platter service, however. High initial investment is in silver; this additional service inventory is difficult to control and replacement and repairs can get expensive. After the waiter has served three or four guests from one platter, the platter looks picked-over and unappetizing.

Most professionals agree that plate service and American service are synonymous. Plate service is what you will find in most table service restaurants in the U. S. The food is plated in the kitchen and placed in the center of the cover in front of the guest. Plate service is designed to be fast and stations are strategically placed in the dining room so as to provide quick service. Guests should be served from the guest's left and removed from the right, while beverages are served and removed from the right. There are few managerial disadvantages to plate service and many advantages.

Only two disadvantages seem apparent to this writer: 1) it is not as elaborate or as personal as platter or cart service and 2) service personnel may become bored with their jobs sooner than they might if they were more challenged. This leads to a higher employee turnover rate. The advantages for plate service are numerous.

Plate service is fast; guest turnover is maximized. Both portion and quality control are excellent as the food is prepared and plated in the kitchen. Because the skill level for service personnel is less than that for platter and cart, employees are easier to locate. Moreover, each service person can serve more people at one time thereby reducing the service payroll. The number of square feet is less and this allows for more seats in a given area. You obviously have calculated that, if you decide on plate service, your menu prices can be lower. While plate, platter and cart are the three predominant forms of service, there are several others we should mention.

The service is considered Family Style Service when the food is brought to the table on platters, placed on the table and the guests serve themselves. You can compare family style service to a typical American Thanksgiving dinner. When the function of serving the food, family style, is assumed by a server, this may be referred to as *Service a La Ritz* or Luxury English Service.

The singular distinguishing feature of Buffet Service is that the guest helps himself from a display table (buffet table). Buffets can be elaborate or simple and offer some distinct advantages to managers. Both food production and service can be accomplished with fewer employees and buffets can be effective sales tools. Several disadvantages of buffet service include unappetizing, picked-over food, excessive waste due to poor portion control and over preparation, and sanitation can be a problem.

Banquet service requires a considerable amount of planning. Since service is simultaneous (i. e. guests being served at the same time) all arrangements, menus, beverages, wines and timing must be made in advance. All of the rules of service etiquette apply to banquet service as with the other types of service. Banquet service is very fast—one waitress can serve twenty or more guests and each server's productivity is very high. Both labor (staff hours) and food waste is at a minimum.

This discussion should be considered introductory, however, you will probably agree that the subject of service is most important to a food service manager. Too often service is given scant attention during the planning phrases of a restaurant or other food service establishment. The formal, elegant types of service present more disadvantages on the surface, yet that difference may be just what you need to distinguish your restaurant from that of your competition.

(By David W. Howell)

Words and Expressions

stakeholders **利益集团**
principal generators **主要客源产生地**
exogenous variable **外部变量**
tourist area life cycle **旅游地生命周期**
regional dimension **区域份额**
drivers of change in tourism **旅游变化的驱动力**
tourism-related variable **旅游相关变量**
tourism destination in decline **衰退的旅游目的地**
quality of service (SERVQUAL) **服务质量**
regional share of tourism **旅游区域市场份额**
domestic tourism measurement method **国内旅游的衡量办法**

Notes

1. Abraham Maslow **马斯洛(1908—1970),美国社会心理学家、人格理论家和比较心理学家,也是人本主义心理学的主要创建者之一,心理学第三势力的领导人。马斯洛出生于纽约市布鲁克林区。**1934 **年获得博士**

学位。1967 年当选为美国心理学会主席。他是《人本主义心理学》和《超个人心理学》两个杂志的首任编辑。主要著作有：《动机与人格》(1954)、《存在心理学探索》(1962)、《宗教、价值观和高峰体验》(1964)、《科学心理学》(1966)、《人性能达的境界》(1971)等。

2. the post-industrial era　1973 年美国社会学家贝尔出版了《后工业社会的到来》一书。他把人类社会的发展进程区分为前工业社会（即农业社会）、工业社会和后工业社会三大阶段。在前工业社会里，占压倒多数的劳动力从事包括农业、林业、渔业、矿业在内的采集作业，生活主要是对自然的挑战。工业社会是生产商品的社会，生活是对加工的自然的挑战，技术化、合理化得到了推进。后工业时代的社会是以服务为基础的社会，最重要的因素不是体力劳动或能源，而是信息。

3. housekeeping staff　家务部员工一般有家务部主管（Housekeeping Supervisor）、副主管（Assistant Housekeeper）、客房服务员（Room Attendant）、制服室员工（Uniform/Linen Attendant）、公共区域保洁员（House Attendant /Public Area）、贴身服务生（Room Valet）、洗衣房员工（Laundry Sorter/Checker）等。

4. Maitres d' hotel　餐厅领班（Food and Beverage Manager）

5. Cart Service（Gueridon/Trolley）　旁桌式服务，端菜入餐厅的方式相同于"法式服务"，用服务车推出菜肴。服务员到餐厅后先将大银盘和干净的餐盘放置在预先摆在客人餐桌旁的补助桌上，服务员在旁桌上分菜到餐盘上，然后再端盛好菜的餐盘上桌。这种方式在美国和德国被称为"法式服务"（French Service），但在法国旁桌式服务则指"俄式服务"（Russian Service）。

6. French Service　法式服务是由西查·李兹于 20 世纪初发明的一种用于豪华饭店的服务方式，故又称李兹服务。法式服务是一种最周到的服务方式，由两名服务员一组共同为一桌客人服务。法式服务的上菜方式是使用服务车推出菜肴，服务员当客人面进行烹制表演或切割装盘，服务员助手用右手从客人右侧送上每一道菜。其中黄油、面包和配菜应从客人左侧送上。从客人的右侧用右手斟酒或上饮料，从客人右侧撤盘。

7. Russian Service（Platter Service）　俄式服务又称银盘式服务，食物在厨房内制备完成后，将适当份量装盛于精致大银盘，由服务员端至客人餐桌边，服务员由客人右侧将餐盘放在客人面前，再由银盘中取食物至客人餐盘中，以反时针方向依次服务所有客人，分菜时按逆时针方向围桌行走，因为这样可避免退行。斟酒、上饮料和撤盘都在客人右侧操作。此种服务方式非常适合私人小型宴会使用。

8. American or plate service 美式服务起源于美国，又称为餐盘服务。美式服务是最简单、快速而廉价的服务方式。一名服务员看数张餐台（通常一个人看管 20 个餐位），而且这个服务员要完成客人整个就餐过程的接待服务工作。美式服务上菜方式是由厨师在厨房中装好盘，服务员直接端着装上菜肴的餐盘送给客人。一般要求服务员能一次端四个主菜盘。用于上菜的手端一个盘，另外一只手端三个盘子，盘底不压食物。上菜时站在客人左侧，用左手从客人左侧送上餐盘，但从客人右侧撤掉用过的餐盘及餐具，从右侧斟酒。
9. British Service 英式服务又称家庭式服务。其服务方法是服务员先将加过温的热空盘放到主人面前，再将装着整块食物的大盘从厨房中拿到餐桌旁，放在主人面前，由主人亲自动手切肉装盘，并配上蔬菜，服务员把装盘的菜肴依次端送给每一位客人。调味品、沙司和配菜都摆放在餐桌上，由客人自等或相互传递。英式服务家庭味很浓，许多工作由客人自己动手（主人也是饭店的客人），且节奏缓慢，不适合饭店接待客人，因此在旅游饭店中已很少采用此种服务方式。
10. crepes Suzette（苏瑞特可丽饼）由蛋、奶油、面粉组合的可丽饼（crepe），其中又以苏瑞特可丽饼（crepes Suzette）最为出名。

Comprehension Questions and Questions for Discussion

1. Why do you think the author mentions the noted psychologist, Abraham Maslow at the very beginning of the passage?
2. Among the five basic human needs Abraham Maslow identifies, which need (s) should be satisfied or cared for when we think of giving service to another person? Why?
3. Why do some hotels and restaurants have let the very essence of our industry yield to mechanization and computerization?
4. What kind of mutual beneficial relationship does giving good service have to the guests and to the business?
5. Do you agree that a safe and sanitary room service takes the responsibility of several departments in a hotel? Why or why not?
6. What is the function of the room service department in the food and beverage section of a hotel?
7. What are the respective features of the main forms (plate, platter and cart) of service mentioned by the author?
8. What are the reasons that higher menu prices are charged when a cart

service is offered?

9. Why is plate service the most popular type of service in America? What are the disadvantages of plate service when it is compared with cart service and platter service?
10. Among the different types of service discussed in the text, which type of service do you prefer? Why?

Supplementary Reading

Who Travels Today?

In the past, wealthy travelers had similar expectations of travel. For example, in the 1920s, anyone who was anybody took the grand tour of Europe. It was fairly easy for hotel managers, captains of cruise ships, and other travel professionals to anticipate the needs of these travelers and to serve them satisfactorily.

Today's travelers are not so similar in nature; they form a larger and more diverse group of people. However, as a travel professional, you can begin to know today's travelers and their motivations, needs, and expectations (MNEs) by dividing travelers into three general categories: the vacation and leisure traveler; the business and professional traveler; and the traveler visiting friends and relatives.

The Vacation and Leisure Traveler

The family taking a two-week vacation to Disney World. The college student spending the summer exploring Europe. The retired couple taking a one-week cruise to Bermuda. These people represent the vacation and leisure traveler. Rather than lying in a hammock in the backyard, they use their leisure time to travel.

Discretionary Travel: Vacation and leisure travel is often called discretionary travel. The word discretion refers to the ability to make a choice, judgment, or decision. (You may have heard someone say, "Use your own discretion," when you've had a decision to make.) Vacation and leisure travelers take trips because they want to —travel is voluntary for them. They choose whether to stay home, drive to the mountains, or fly to the Caribbean.

Likewise, the money that vacation and leisure travelers spend is called discretionary income. Discretionary income is the money that's left over after the necessities of life—shelter, food, clothing—have been purchased. People choose how they want to spend their discretionary income. While some choose to spend it on travel, others may choose to spend it on boats or second homes. Since there is much competition from many industries for consumers' discretionary income, the components of the travel industry work together to persuade consumers to spend their money on travel.

The Pleasure Seekers: In general, vacation and leisure travelers seek pleasure and relaxation. However, since what gives pleasure varies from individual to individual, one person's idea of the perfect vacation is another person's idea of a total waste of time and money. Some travelers enjoy exploring ancient ruins, while others prefer sunbathing by the ocean. More will be said about specific motivations for pleasure travel later in this chapter.

Another feature of vacation and leisure travel is that the pleasure comes not only during the trip but also before and after. Planning the itinerary, shopping for clothes to take along, and researching the destination can be as enjoyable as the trip itself. Once back home, putting together a scrapbook about the trip or talking about it to friends and relatives sustains the pleasure.

Purchasing Travel Products and Services: When they purchase travel products and services, vacation and leisure travelers are essentially buying an experience they hope will be pleasurable. To satisfy their needs, vacation and leisure travelers will select products and services from several of the travel components. They will certainly select products from the tourism component, such as tickets to a theme park or a concert. They will probably purchase hospitality products and services, although some vacationers travel by recreational vehicle and camp along the way. Depending on the size of the group, the type of trip, the distance of destination, and the time involved, vacation travelers may or may not choose air transportation. For example, even though air transportation is sometimes less expensive, families who want to visit many sites en route to their destination will find it more convenient to travel by automobile.

Vacation and leisure travelers have time to shop around for the product that best suits their needs. Often they wait for a bargain to appear before they decide on a definite trip. Their schedules are usually flexible so that they can take advantage of the travel restrictions that accompany discounted airfares.

Vacation and leisure travelers are likely to purchase a package of travel products, including transportation, accommodations, and sightseeing.

The Business and Professional Traveler

A sales representative who sells pharmaceutical products to physicians and pharmacists throughout Pennsylvania, Ohio, and West Virginia. An efficiency expert who inspects operations at a company's branch locations. A lobbyist for a Midwestern farmers' co-op who must attend congressional hearings in a Washington, D.C. These people represent business travelers.

Business travel is no discretionary travel. Business travelers usually do not have a choice about whether or not they want to travel; nor do they usually decide where they want to travel. Travel is part of their job description. They must travel to get their job done.

A variation of business travel is professional travel. Professional travelers attend conventions and seminars related to their jobs. These meetings usually provide participants with information and skills to help them perform their jobs better. For example, a physician might attend a medical convention to obtain the latest information on the treatment of allergies. A sales representative might attend a seminar on how to improve selling skills.

Professional travel is also no discretionary in the sense that travelers do not decide the date or location of the convention or seminar. On the other hand, it is discretionary in that attendance at conventions and seminars is often optional. Some professional travelers are also business travelers, and vice versa. For example, a salesperson who often travels for business may also attend an annual sales convention.

Time is very important for business and professional travelers. They must arrive at meetings on time. They must get their work done on time. Since every minute away from their home office costs money, they can't afford to waste time on delays and errors.

When they purchase travel products and services, business and professional travelers are essentially buying time. Products that furnish convenience of location, speed, and efficiency provide them with time. Business and professional travelers generally purchase air transportation to and from their destination, a rental car for on-demand local transportation, and accommodations in a major hotel near their meeting site.

The schedules of business and professional travelers are less flexible than those of vacation and leisure travelers. Often, because they can't plan their trips far in advance, they can't take advantage of discount airfares and other bargains. To obtain speed, efficiency, and convenience, business and professional travelers must often pay higher prices for travel products and services.

The Traveler Visiting Friends and Relatives

The father who takes his children to Michigan every summer to visit their grandparents. Alumni who attend their college's reunion. The son and daughter who return home because their father is ill. These people represent the traveler visiting friends and relatives.

Travelers visiting friends and relatives, often referred to as VFR, form the largest group of travelers. VFR travel may be discretionary or no discretionary, depending on the reasons for the trip. If a traveler must go out of town because of an emergency, such as an illness or a death in the family, then the travel is no discretionary. On the other hand, if a traveler wants to visit high school friends or spend some time with family members simply to enjoy their company, then the travel is discretionary.

Travelers who visit friends and relatives for pleasure are like leisure travelers in their purchase of travel products. Travelers who visit friends and relatives because of an emergency are more like business travelers, with an added element of stress. In either case, they are likely to purchase only transportation, and perhaps some tourism products. The friends and relatives usually supply the accommodations (a spare bedroom or the living-room sofa) and meals.

(By David W. Howell)

Unit Fifteen

China's Hotel Industry

According to at least one forecast, by 2020 the People's Republic of China will be the world's number-one tourist destination, with annual arrivals of 130 million. This is an impressive statistic considering that China's international tourism industry got underway only as recently as 1979, as a result of the country's Open-up Policy. Just 21 years later, in 2000, China welcomed 31 million tourists, who spent US$16.2 billion.

In addition to inbound visitors, China's own increasingly affluent population is traveling more within the country. The nation's affluence stems from average annual economic growth of 9.8 percent between 1979 and 1997. Even with a predicted slowdown, annual growth should still average 7 percent over the next 10 years. China's growing economy stimulates more internal business travel, and those business travelers need hotel rooms. Concurrently, the government has boosted leisure travel by loosening travel restrictions and introducing a five-day workweek and substantial vacation time. Given that there were 744 million domestic travelers in 2000, it is clear that domestic tourism no longer suffers from the stigma of being a politically and socially unacceptable bourgeois activity, as was formerly the case. To encourage tourism the government has provided nearly US$97 million to upgrade travel-related infrastructure, including roads, seaports, and airports, as well as to improve tourist sites.

Entry into the World Trade Organization (WTO) will be a significant event for China. Internally, in addition to infrastructure investments, work is progressing to improve the legal system, liberalize foreign-investment restrictions, and enhance the rights and privileges of foreign investors. Moreover, to take maximum advantage of China's WTO entry, multinational corporations contracted for investments totaling US$38 billion during the first nine months of 2000, 28 percent above the same period in the previous year. Those multinationals include the world's top hotel firms, many of which already have a foothold in this potentially massive market. WTO membership should fuel continued economic growth and stimulate increased movements of both domestic and international travelers, thereby increasing hotel business and creating more opportunities for hotel developments.

In 2000 China's stock of hotels stood at 10,481, comprising 948,185 rooms. The hotel industry will need to expand further to meet the growing demand from both international and domestic travelers.

China's own hotel companies are relatively small and immature when compared to foreign multinational hotel companies, most of which have already declared China as a key target for expansion. To date, overseas involvement in China's hotel business, although encouraged and even supported by the government, has still been much under government control. However, China's WTO entry should mean the eventual removal of such controls and expose the local industry to greater competition from foreign companies. For example, the government will need to forgo its hotel-ownership hegemony, because the WTO agreement provides that China will have hotels that will be 100-percent foreign owned within three years after WTO entry.

The question I examine in this article is whether indigenous or foreign-owned hotel firms are better positioned to benefit most from China's hotel-industry growth, or whether international partnerships will become the norm. I examine China's relatively small hotel industry within its complex home environment, and in relation to the global hotel industry. I identify some of the advantages and disadvantages held by local and foreign companies, bearing in mind the peculiar business context existing during China's transitional stage as it moves from a politically dominated, centrally planned economy toward a market economy.

Profile of China's Hotel Industry

Before 1978 China offered few accommodation facilities of international standard. What existed was of poor quality and was insufficient to satisfy the sudden influx of overseas tourists to China under its Open-up Policy. The top priority of the tourism sector at that time was to build hotels that met international standards. From 1986 to 1991 the Chinese government invested RMB 6 billion into its hotel industry (about US $1.25 billion at 1990 exchange rates). The government's investment and restructuring of the hotel industry, plus its encouraging external investment and allowing the entry of foreign-owned hotel companies, resulted in 2354 newly opened hotels by

1992.

In 1992 China widened its economic reform and Open-up Policy. Increased business activity and international tourist arrivals stimulated hotel investment. In just four years, from 1993 to 1997, China doubled its hotel capacity to 5201 hotels and 701,736 rooms. However, the annual increase of hotels and rooms often exceeded the increases of inbound travelers and domestic tourists. As a consequence, since 1996 occupancy rates have been around 55 percent. Oversupply combined with the effects of the Asian economic crisis that started in 1997 handed the Chinese hotel industry a financial loss in 1998. That first-ever loss totaled RMB 4.656 billion—or about US $ 0.6 billion. Despite this setback, the stock of hotel rooms still grew by 16.2 percent from 1998 to 1999, although annual room growth slowed to 6.6 percent in 2000. Thus, in 2000 China had a total of 10,481 hotels with 848,145 rooms and achieved 55.85 percent occupancy.

The oversupply just mentioned was the result of early steps to ease China's initial hotel shortage stemming from the Open-up Policy in 1978, when the government implemented a diversification and decentralization policy for hotel investment. While this policy did accelerate hotel development, decentralization resulted in a mélange of hotel-ownership structures, including the state itself, collectives, private entities, alliances, stock companies, and foreign investors, as well as investors from Hong Kong, Macao, and Taiwan. In 2000 the government subdivided the stock-company category into shareholding cooperatives, limited-liability companies, limited-liability shares, and "others." The complicated ownership structures resulted in a lack of coordination in decision making in hotel construction, while at the same time hotel developers had no business experience with hotel-chain operation. Available management systems are equally varied. This complexity of ownership and management creates unusual problems for expansion and growth.

Hotel ownership. State ownership (which might be national, provincial, regional, or municipal) is still the dominant mode, accounting for 63 percent of all hotels and rooms. The chief problems occasioned by state ownership are the failure to separate hotel management and ownership and effective monitoring of the state's assets. One might think that the government could create some sort of group or chain among hotels that are owned by a particular state entity, but most state-owned properties exist as independent units, giving them the combined disadvantages of being small and facing the bureaucratic restrictions attached to state ownership. An example of the difficulties of such a situation is the China Post & Telecom Tourism Group, a newly organized holding company under the Ministry of Information Industry (MII) with the specific purpose of bringing MII hotels together under one group. Most of the hotels under the MII, however, are owned in the name of local bureaus, and they are unwilling to shift their assets to the holding company.

Past studies attribute the slow growth of Chinese hotel chains mostly to the business environment and the distinctive aspects of the Chinese political, economic, and social systems—in particular, the protectionism of local authorities. I am not the only observer who believes that creation of hotel chains in China needs to start with reform of the ownership system. One idea is to establish an ownership-trading market to allow a restructuring of China's hotel assets.

Hotel groups. In 1999 China's 7035 hotels involved 30 foreign hotel companies and 39 local hotel-management companies. The diverse ownership structure, however, renders the relationship between owner and operator even more tenuous than one might typically find outside of China. The issues involved in ownership and control over assets and operations are a central difficulty in hotel agreements universally. The complexities of hotel ownership in China make such negotiations even more problematic, and thus chain formation is difficult.

Performance. Performance varies according to ownership type. Hotels funded by outside interests, including foreign investors and those in Hong Kong, Macao, and Taiwan, have realized the highest revenues but have also involved the biggest investments in fixed assets. These high levels of investment are not surprising as all "foreign" hotels are in the 4-and 5-star categories.

Today only 16 percent of China's hotels are chain operated, most of those being 3-star or higher. By contrast, as long ago as 1987 it was estimated that 64 percent of hotel rooms in the United States were controlled by or affiliated with hotel chains. In 1998 over five million of the total of 15.4 million hotel rooms worldwide—or about one-third—were controlled by the top-300 hotel chains. Thus, one could easily argue that there is potential for more hotelchain development in China.

Hotel operators. The list of China's top-ten operators in 2000 indicates two things. First, the biggest single operator is based in China, but foreign firms dominate the top ten, having 80 out of the 143 hotels (60 percent) and 32,036 out of the 52,837 rooms (61 percent). Second, most of the indigenous companies are small compared to the total size of some of the foreign operators. I would argue that foreign companies have on their side all the advantages of large size, along with experience in developing and managing chains.

Ownership and Management Mechanisms

The Chinese government has been able to control the number of and conditions of entry for foreign hotel companies, sometimes helping and sometimes hindering entry or subsequent operations. Unhelpful were high import taxes on essential operating equipment and furnishings, and the requirement that foreign general managers have a "shadow" local general manager. Policies that have provided advantages to joint-venture hotels include tax breaks and other financial incentives, plus permission to apply market-based employment policies—that is, managers may hire and fire at their discretion.

After 20 years of development, China's hotel industry is characterized by a complicated scenario of fierce competition, multiform ownership and management systems, and geographically imbalanced distribution—meaning that some areas are oversupplied while others need hotel rooms.

Independent hotels. Chinese hotel owners generally prefer to manage themselves rather than losing control by hiring a management company. The decision of whether to be part of a group or to stay independent is normally based on a comparison of the conditions and benefits of both systems. In other countries the validity of the group brand, a well-targeted marketing effort, and suitable packages of specific operating procedures are strong attractions for independent hotel owners to affiliate with a chain. Such market-based points fail to apply to the many Chinese hotels owned by the state or collectives, which traditionally are not motivated by profit. What does motivate China's independents to affiliate, however, is the prospect of technology transfer. It is not uncommon for a hotel in China to revert to independent operation at the end of a contract period, having gleaned the requisite management expertise during the time of the contract.

Joint-venture hotels. One key approach for alleviating China's hotel shortage in the early 1980s was to attract foreign investment to build hotels. One result of this initiative was the Beijing Jianguo Hotel, a Sino-U. S. joint-venture property, which opened in 1982 under a management contract with Hong Kong's Peninsula Group. Afterward more foreign companies entered China to invest in and manage hotels.

The foreign-owned hotel companies expanded gradually, concentrating on China's key business and tourist destinations. This foreign involvement greatly changed the operation of Chinese hotels, particularly through technology transfer. As most joint-venture hotels were part of a chain, the concept and practice of hotel chains and branding were introduced to China. Indigenous hotel-management companies adapted the methods of those foreign companies.

Domestic hotel chains. The rise of domestic tourism and the lack of suitable economy and budget hotels caused an imbalance between supply and demand in that market segment. In 2000 China recorded 744 million domestic travelers, but only 600 1-star and 3061 2-star properties. Some domestic groups are already developing budget brands. The well-established luxury-hotel chain Shanghai Jin Jiang Group has created a "Jin Jiang Star" brand of 1-and 2-star hotels, with five properties already open and two more being developed. Gloria Hotels, which currently has mainly 4-and 5-star hotels, is likewise planning a 3-or 2-star brand, to be called Gloria Inn. It will later develop a 1-star brand specifically for the domestic market.

In addition to the immediate business advantages to be gained by domestic or foreign companies that can fill the gap in the low-end sector are the potential advantages of brand recognition when large numbers of Chinese travel abroad. China is already Asia's second-largest source of international travelers, with 9.2 million leisure trips in 1999. Observers expect China to take over first place from Japan in 2002, with outbound numbers of 25 million, increasing to 50 million by 2010. By 2020, Chinese traveling abroad will likely number as many as 100 million. Thus, there are clear benefits of creating brands within China that would be recognized and used by travelers both within and beyond China.

Mergers and acquisitions. According to the Hotels' 325 survey, "The big are getting bigger, but the small are getting bigger too." Merger and acquisition activity is the norm within the world's top-300 hotel companies. Of the five million hotel rooms included in the Hotels magazine 1997 annual survey, the ten biggest companies controlled more than 100,000 rooms each, for a total of 2.7 million rooms. By 2000 just nine companies each controlled more than 100,000 rooms, but due to mergers their total room count was 2.89 million of the 5.72 million rooms listed in the 2000 survey.

A significant acquisition from the China perspective was the US$ 1-billion purchase by Marriott International of the Renaissance Hotel Group, including New World Hotels International, which has a strong presence and a long history in China. Not many other operators can follow Marriott's lead in this instance, however, because China has few other potential targets for large-scale acquisitions or mergers. The local chains that do exist, such as Jin Jiang, Gloria, and Kingdom, are probably "not for sale," being keen to further develop their own businesses. Most of the remaining hotels are those independents with their peculiar ownership and generally poor quality, along with almost total dependence on domestic business. Thus, for the near term, expansion of foreign companies inside China will probably involve investment to develop new properties rather than acquisition.

Management contracts. To reduce the reliance on foreign companies and gain some share of the domestic hotel-management market, the White Swan Hotel Management Company was set up in Guangzhou in 1988. Since that time, 39 hotel-management companies have started in China, operating about 100 hotels nationwide. However, the growth of these indigenous companies has been slow, and they are mainly located in a few highly developed areas such as Beijing (twelve companies) and the Guangdong Province in southern China, bordering Hong Kong (nine companies). When one considers that of the 100 hotels just two companies have 41 hotels between them (Jian Guo has seven hotels, and Jin Jiang operates 34), it becomes clear that the majority of companies manage just one or two properties. Indeed, many of China's operators are not management companies in the accepted sense of operating a hotel chain. Instead, the firms are often created to look after a specific property in an effort to separate ownership from management, and contract periods are commonly for just one or two years.

Hotel franchising. American-style franchising is uncommon in China. One of the greatest obstacles to the expansion of franchising is China's legal system, which many franchisers believe does not adequately protect their contractual rights. Nevertheless, franchising is making some headway. Most notably, Cendant's Days Inn brand announced the opening in China of ten franchised hotels totaling 1500 rooms. This is the largest single addition to their brand at any one time, and the company's first hotel venture in China.

Consortia. Several hotel consortia have developed in China. The first three were the Lianyi Hotel Group, sponsored by Beijing Xiyuan Hotel with ten other hotels; the Hualong Tourist Hotel Group; and the Friendship Tourist Hotel Group. More consortia or referral systems were formed in later years: VIP Hotel Club, the Friendship Hotels, and CITIC Hotels Affiliation. None of these has expanded to a large scale, but they do provide some joint marketing, reservations, and purchasing services. It seems likely that the existing indigenous consortia will grow to serve the increasingly complex needs of China's independent hotels and smaller groups, which sorely need access to global distribution systems, technology solutions, and the ability to process data. In particular, consortium membership may be attractive to many state-owned independent hotels that do not want to relinquish ownership or management control.

Contrasts: China and Everyone Else

While China does not have the same economic profile or infrastructure developments as those found in North America and Europe, such developments are considered to be just a matter of time. Right now, however, the differences are considerable, most notably in terms of the economy and government policies, but also simply in the industry's size and market mix.

Industry size. China's hotel industry is small compared to those of other countries. China moved from a position of virtually zero hotels in 1979 to having over 10,000 just 20 years later. Today, there's still considerable room for growth, both at home and abroad. Chinese officials are trying to ensure that overseas hotel companies do not dominate the market and crowd out local companies. Concurrently, to counteract leakage, Chinese operators may try to locate hotels in foreign countries for Chinese people to use. For instance, China Travel Service (Hong Kong) Limited, the biggest travel company in China, has set up CTS (HK) Ltd. to develop and operate four hotels in Hong Kong and several others around Asia to accommodate Chinese mainland outbound travelers. (Affiliations among Chinese hotels, Chinese airlines, and other Chinese companies could ensure that even more money is retained when Chinese people travel abroad.)

Guest mix. At the moment, China's hotel industry is bifurcated, with a set of (high end) hotels typically used by international visitors and another (low end) set frequented by domestic travelers. This stands in contrast to most countries, and it means that high-end hotels cannot rely much on local travelers to fill rooms. It also means that the type and quality of products and services available in the two groups of hotels is different. While this situation will change over time, just as it has in other countries, at present the bifurcation greatly influences the potential for affiliation between hotels in China. So the government faces the major policy decision of determining whether expanded hotel groups and alliances will exist within or across these now-distinct international and domestic markers.

Some of the government and economic factors are changing. China's policy of creating special economic zones is being expanded. These zones have a business environment akin to western market economies. However, the pace of change will need to accelerate if China is to take full advantage of WTO membership. Such changes will be key factors in helping or hindering indigenous hotel companies' growth in relation to foreign companies' expansion. While it's now possible for foreign companies to take majority or full ownership in hotel properties, there remain subtle means to ensure the need for local partners—even without the effects of guanxi. No matter who owns a property, its managers have to rely on the availability of local labor, reliable water and power, and a host of peripheral—but essential—services for which having a local partner may pay high dividends.

Operating in a Chinese Context

The formation of hotel groups or chains might appear to be a logical way to develop China's hotel industry, but any policy for developing groups or chains must occur within a Chinese context. Indigenous hotel companies are making progress in adapting overseas hotel concepts and initiating their own ideas, and the few companies that are now established should be able to grow once they can overcome the problems of local protectionism. Domestic operators have the knowledge of the internal workings of the Chinese political, regulatory, financial, and social systems, and a natural affinity with local cultural norms and Chinese-based business practices. These domestic operators, however, do not enjoy the technological and marketing advantages accruing to foreign firms, and access to financing is an additional problem for local operators.

Foreign hotel companies already enjoy the advantages of economies of scale, global recognition and networking, and well-established managerial and technological expertise. They also have the advantage of being able to bypass local protectionist policies. To prosper, however, international firms will have to appreciate China's political, social, and cultural frameworks, in particular the need to work with local partners who are part of the guanxi network.

Partnerships between local owners and foreign operators should have the most potential for success within the short-to medium-term, combining international-companies' expertise with the local knowledge and connections of domestic operators. Indigenous companies will probably become stronger in the medium-to long-term as they continue to glean as much information as possible from foreign partners and competitors for use in their own businesses. Forecasts and expectations aside, it will be interesting to see how China's hotel industry actually evolves in this complex but potentially rewarding market.

(By Ray Pine)

Words and Expressions

hotel capacity **酒店客容量**
occupancy rates **入住率,居住率**
marketing mix **市场营销组合**
annual arrivals **年入境旅游人数**
generation markets **客源产生地市场**
travel propensity **旅游倾向**
gross travel propensity **总体需求倾向**
displacement effect **替代效应**
approved destination status (ADS) **已批准目的地国家**
hospitality franchise system (HFS) **酒店业特许经营体系**

Notes

1. multinational corporations **跨国公司,主要是指发达资本主义国家的垄断企业,以本国为基础,通过对外直接投资,在世界各地设立分支机构或子公司,从事国际化生产和经营活动的垄断企业。**
2. foreign multinational hotel companies **国外跨国酒店集团**
3. Asian economic crisis 1997 **年亚洲经济危机**

4. implemented a diversification and decentralization policy **实行多样化与分权化政策**
5. While this policy did accelerate hotel development, decentralization resulted in a mélange of hotel-ownership structures, including the state itself, collectives, private entities, alliances, stock companies, and foreign investors, as well as investors from Hong Kong, Macao, and Taiwan. **尽管此政策的确加速了酒店业的发展，但管理分权化引发了酒店所有权结构的混乱，包括国有企业、集体企业、联合企业、股份公司、外国投资商以及香港、澳门和台湾的投资商等。**
6. subdivide the stock-company category into shareholding cooperatives, limited-liability companies, limited-liability shares, and "others." **将股份公司划分为股份持有合作公司，有限责任公司，有限责任公司等类。**
7. The chief problems occasioned by state ownership are the failure to separate hotel management and ownership and effective monitoring of the state's assets. **国家所有制引起的主要问题是无法将酒店管理和酒店所有权与有效的国有资产的监控区分开。**
8. the holding company **控股公司**
9. the protectionism of local authorities **地方政府保护主义**
10. ownership-trading market **所有权交易市场**
11. The issues involved in ownership and control over assets and operations are a central difficulty in hotel agreements universally. **影响酒店达成协议的普遍困难是所有权、资产控制和经营等方面的问题。**
12. indigenous companies **本国公司**
13. essential operating equipment and furnishings **基本操作装置与设施**
14. a "shadow" local general manager **区域总经理**
15. tax breaks **税务减免**
16. a complicated scenario of fierce competition **激烈竞争的复杂情形**
17. the group brand **集团品牌**
18. Hong Kong's Peninsula Group **香港半岛集团**
19. budget hotels **廉价旅馆**
20. Shanghai Jin Jiang Group **上海锦江集团是中国规模最大的综合性旅游企业集团之一，以酒店、餐饮服务、旅游客运业为核心产业，并设有酒店、旅游、客运、地产、商贸、金融、食品、教育八个事业部。**
21. Gloria Hotels **凯莱国际酒店管理有限公司成立于**1992**年，是由中国粮油食品集团（香港）有限公司投资创建的酒店管理集团公司，名列全球**

酒店管理 300 强之一。旗下有 3 家凯莱商务酒店，9 家凯莱大酒店（有 3 家即将开业），1 家凯莱大饭店，3 家度假酒店。

22. merger and acquisition activity　合并与收购活动
23. Marriott International of the Renaissance Hotel Group　万豪国际集团是全球首屈一指的酒店管理公司，业务遍及美国及其他 67 个国家和地区，管理超过 2800 家酒店。
24. the White Swan Hotel Management Company　广州白天鹅宾馆是中国第一个中外合作的五星级宾馆，也是我国第一家由中国人自行设计、施工、管理的大型现代化酒店。共接待了 40 多个国家的元首和政府首脑。
25. hotel franchising　酒店特许经营
26. Cendant's Days Inn　胜腾国际酒店集团有限公司，是全球最大的连锁酒店经营业主，在世界五大洲拥有超过 6600 家酒店，以及超过560，000 间各式客房。旗下拥有众多知名酒店品牌，戴斯是胜腾旗下的知名酒店品牌之一。胜腾同时也是全球最重要的旅游及地产服务的供应商，最大的租车服务运作经营商及最大的分时度假组织之一。胜腾在纽约股票交易所上市，是《财富》500 强企业之一。
27. consortia　酒店联盟
28. Lianyi Hotel Group　联谊酒店集团
29. Beijing Xiyuan Hotel　北京西苑饭店 1954 年建立，主楼 1984 年开业，2000 年重新装修，2002 年 11 月 26 日挂牌五星级。
30. Hualong Tourist Hotel Group　中国华龙旅游饭店集团（协会）成立于 1987 年。集团由创始阶段的 7 家成员单位现已发展为 31 家单位，遍布全国 28 个主要旅游城市，其中五星级宾馆 3 家、四星级宾馆 10 家、三星级宾馆 18 家。
31. Friendship Tourist Hotel Group　友谊旅游饭店集团现有 27 个成员单位，遍布 15 个省市。
32. referral systems　查询系统
33. Friendship Hotels　（北京）友谊宾馆是亚洲最大的花园式宾馆，建于 1954 年，占地面积 33 万 5 千平方米，建筑古朴典雅，具有中国浓郁的民族特色，拥有国际标准的客房和餐饮、娱乐、商务、会议等配套服务设施。
34. CITIC Hotels Affiliation　中信（中国国际信托投资公司）隶属酒店
35. China Travel Service（Hong Kong）Limited　香港中旅（集团）有限公司（简称港中旅），其前身香港中国旅行社是我国早期银行家陈光甫先生

于 1928 年 4 月 28 日在香港创办的。1952 年香港中国旅行社移交中国政府，1953 年由中央人民政府侨务委员会正式接收，1954 年独立注册为"香港中国旅行社有限公司"，成为中国的第一家旅行社。目前是中国最早最大的以旅游业为主业，集旅游、酒店、客货运输、实业投资、地产建筑、科技通讯、金融、贸易为一体的海内外知名的大型综合性跨国企业集团。

Comprehension Questions and Questions for Discussion

1. By which ways does Chinese government encourage the domestic tourism?
2. Give an example of how China's WTO entry has an influence on the China's hotel industry.
3. According to the passage, what are the chief problems occasioned by state ownership?
4. Why does the author argue that there is potential for more hotel-chain development in China although only 16 percent of China's hotels are chain operated?
5. As mentioned, there are not so many chain hotels in China and majority of hotels are operated independently. Discuss the reasons why chain hotels are difficult to be established in China.
6. The Chinese government has been able to control conditions of entry for foreign hotel companies. Give some examples how the government hinders and helps the conditions of entry for foreign hotel companies.
7. Discuss the recent tendency of domestic hotel chains for the domestic market.
8. Why is American-style franchising uncommon in China?
9. Summarize briefly the China's hotel industry from 1979 to 2000.
10. Forecast China's hotel industry in terms of the type of hotels, the management style, and the major market segments.

Supplementary Reading

The Growth of Hotel Chains

As you have read, the first chain operation in the United States was started by Ellsworth Statler in the early 1900s. The success of Statler's hotels encouraged the formation of other chains, including Hilton Hotels, which opened its first property in Dallas in 1925. The Depression, which forced so many individually owned hotels out of business, proved to be a bonanza for the chains, since they were able to buy bankrupted properties at low prices.

Chains such as Hilton and Sheraton had established themselves before World War Ⅱ. By the 1950s, they were being joined by scores of others. The introduction of the concept of franchising (described in detail later in this chapter) served as a tremendous stimulus to the growth of hotel and motel chains, and by the early 1970s there were almost 200 in operation. Hundreds of independent city hotels and mom-and-pop, or family-run, motels were forced into bankruptcy by their inability to meet rising costs and to compete with the chains. Today, over 50 percent of the rooms in United States hotels are provided by chain outfits.

Holiday Inn is the largest lodging chain in the world, with more than 360,000 units in about 1900 properties. Holiday Inn was launched in 1950 when entrepreneur Kemmons Wilson opened the first "Holiday Inn Hotel Court" on the outskirts of Memphis, Tennessee. Wilson had been dissatisfied with motel accommodations on a family vacation trip. He decided to build his own cabin in order to offer a full range of services at low to moderate prices.

Holiday Inn pioneered innovations that were revolutionary for the times but subsequently became standards for chain operations. These included a swimming pool and restaurant on the premises, air conditioning throughout, a television and telephone in every room, baby sitters on call, and free accommodations for children under 12 sharing a room with their parents. In 1965, the company installed the hotel industry's first nationwide computerized reservations system.

Over the years, the Holiday Inn hotel system has evolved from a chain of economy motor courts into a multibillion-dollar-a-year network of lodging places serving multiple markets. Holiday Inn is now a major presence in the United States resort and convention industry as well as in overseas markets.

The international growth of the big United States chains has been one of the major developments in the hospitality industry in the last 35 years. A few leading chains gained an early foothold on the overseas market—including Intercontinental in Latin America (1946), Hilton International in Puerto Rico (1949), and Sheraton in Canada (1949)—but the greatest period of expansion came after the commercial debut of the jet airplane. Chains moved into the Caribbean and Europe and later into the Middle East, Africa, the Far East, and the Pacific. Holiday Inn, the leader, with properties in more than 50 countries outside the United States, is followed by Sheraton, Ramada, and Marriott. Other big names on the international scene include Quality International, Days Inn, and Hilton Hotel.

Not only have American chains expanded overseas, but more recently foreign chains have moved to the United States. Trust house Forte (United Kingdom), Meriden (France), Four Seasons (Canada), Regent International (Hong Kong), and Accor (France) are all well established in the United States.

(By David W. Howell)

Unit Sixteen

United States Tourism Policy

A coherent federal policy for travel and tourism has eluded the United States for nearly 50 years and remains in limbo.

By closing the U. S. Commerce Department's Travel and Tourism Administration, the 104th Congress and President Bill Clinton did what Presidents Ronald Reagan and Jimmy Carter had previously tried but failed to do. Until it folded for lack of funding in April 1996, the agency was responsible for developing, coordinating, and spearheading the government initiative in tourism and travel. The life and death of the USTTA, which experienced only marginal effectiveness during its lifetime, was an example of the United States' essential disinterest in a strong international tourism policy. Hamstrung by weak funding and poor support from the beginning, the USTTA caught much criticism from industry leaders and politicians.

Tourism receipts come from two sources, and thus tourism policy may take two directions. Source one is domestic tourism, by far the biggest component of the American tourism industry. An example of domestic tourism might be a trip from your home in Sacramento to the Grand Canyon, during which you spend money for travel, lodging, food, souvenirs, and perhaps the IMAX or a Harveycar bus tour. The second source is international travelers, such as a Japanese group that might spend time at the Grand Canyon as part of a three-week, escorted motor coach tour through the western United States. The international market is estimated at more than $300 billion now and projected to be almost $600 billion by the year 2005.

In this article we explain the dimensions of tourism policy in several countries and compare U.S. tourism policy to a framework devised from that analysis. The United States' world share of international tourism peaked in 1992, at 19.3 percent. By 1994 that share had sunk to 15.7 percent. Estimates for international tourism in 2000 put the U.S. market share at 14 percent. A 1-percent drop in market share is equivalent to losing well over $1 billion in business receipts. Some analysts believe that translates into 80,000 to 90,000 fewer jobs.

The point of most countries' international tourism policy is to increase that nation's share of international tourism. This can be accomplished, for instance, by marketing to residents of other nations, offering incentives to would-be tourism developers, and easing travel restrictions on visitors. While the United States has the luxury of attracting a substantial share of world tourism with little official effort, U. S. policy could be much more expansive than it is. The travel and tourism industry is the nation's number-one surplus-producing export, the nation's number-two employer, and the nation's third-largest industry in terms of total sales receipts. Yet the industry's size does not translate into a strong tourism policy.

The level of resources put forth by the government in the pursuit of tourism and travel via the USTTA was \$17 million in 1995, its last year of operation. Some 33 other nations, including Cyprus and Indonesia, put more money toward international tourism than does the United States. Canada's National Tourism Organization, for instance, was funded with \$104 million from public and private sources.

A structural problem that seems to interfere with setting U. S. tourism policy is the distance between the policy makers (legislators) and policy implementers (the industry). With the closure of the USTTA, the official focus of tourism policy now centers on a small office in a small agency within the Department of Commerce, with annual funding of just \$2.2 million. Most telling, U.S. tourism policy focuses primarily on marketing the U.S. as a destination for international tourists. As we discuss later, a comparison with other countries' tourism policies shows that international marketing is only one part of tourism policy.

A Sprawling Industry

No one will dispute that the American travel and tourism industry is large, although its actual economic impact is a matter of debate because the industry encompasses parts of many related industries. Moreover, while one can tally the number of jobs directly attributable to the tourism industry, the level of secondary employment is also open to question. Direct jobs involve providing services to travelers (e.g., positions in hotels, restaurants, airlines, travel agencies, and car-rental agencies). Indirect jobs are those derived from providing secondary services or services one step removed from guests and travelers (e.g., companies manufacturing hotel and food-service equipment, food and supply vendors, and banks).

A 1994 tally by the U.S. Congress found 6.3 million employees in direct jobs in the U.S. travel and tourism industry and another 8 million in indirect jobs in 15 interrelated businesses. The size of this labor force is second only to that of health-care services. The growth of the tourism-related labor force from 1985 to 1994 was 43 percent, more than twice the rate for all U.S. industries.

Revenue

Congress found that "domestic and international travel and tourism expenditures totaled $433 billion in 1995, with $415 billion spent directly within the United States and an additional $18 billion spent by international travelers on United States carriers traveling to the United States." That level of turnover places travel and tourism as the nation's third-largest industry, behind auto sales and food retail sales. Of this total, expenditures by international guests totaled $77 billion, not including the $18 billion spent on domestic carriers.

Even better news for the travel industry is the finding by the same congressional study that the travel and tourism industry generated an $18.6-billion foreign-exchange surplus in 1995. (However, this was down from a $22-billion surplus in 1993.) The industry has generated surpluses only since 1989, when the industry recorded its first surplus of $5.2 billion. The 1995 trade balance made the travel and tourism industry America's number-one export for that year.

Taxes. Another indicator of the travel industry's importance is the level of tax receipts it generates. The AH&MA estimated in 1995 that tourism revenues accounted for $64 billion in federal, state, and local taxes. Just two years prior, tax receipts totaled $51 billion, reflecting a 25 percent increase. The industry is taxed rather heavily, via sales and use taxes, bed taxes, and other surcharges on specific items (including fuel). In an era when tax increases are generally unpopular, local communities have found that bed taxes are easy to implement since the taxed product is paid for by transient visitors who have no input in local politics. This is particularly true since travel and tourism businesses are fragmented politically and have yet to become an organized, effective political bloc. A bed tax that is a nuisance to hotel operators, for example, does not trouble restaurant or car-rental operators.

Plethora of Organizations

More than 180 international nongovernmental and intergovernmental organizations seek to influence national tourism policies around the world. The oldest such organization is the Central Commission for the Navigation of the Rhine, formed in 1815. The premier organization is the World Tourism Organization (WTO), headquartered in Madrid.

WTO. Chartered in 1975, the WTO is the official tourism voice to the United Nations and aims to promote and develop tourism on a global scale. To accomplish this end, the WTO collects and publishes data on world tourism trends, finances tourism research, conducts training programs, and presses for international legislation for reducing passport, visa, and travel restrictions. Recent policy initiatives by the WTO are the standardization of travel signs and an end to organized sex tours in Asia and Latin America.

WTO membership exceeds 100 countries, with hundreds of corporations and associations as auxiliary members. The United States, however, is not one of those members, as it pulled out of the WTO in December 1996 due to cuts in government funding. Several large American corporations and nonprofit associations still remain as members.

U.S. Agencies, Associations, and Organizations

After the demise of the USTTA in April 1996, Congress chartered an interim organization identified as the United States National Tourism Organization (USNTO), which was signed into law by President Clinton in October 1996. The USNTO essentially is a planning structure for future tourism-development activities. Meantime, most of the essential functions of the now-defunct USTTA have been picked up by other government agencies and nonprofit organizations. Some of those agencies include the following.

Travel Industry Association. The nonprofit Travel Industry Association of America (TIA), comprising more than 1000 member organizations, firms, and government agencies, has a primary purpose of promoting travel to and within the United States. Private-sector members range from lodging corporations to travel agencies to airlines. Public-sector members include municipal convention and visitor bureaus, regional tourism organizations, and state-government travel offices. The TIA's programs include tourism marketing, research, lobbying, and training. Following the demise of the

USTTA, the TIA took the lead to accelerate the establishment of the USNTO. TIA's goal in this matter was to create an interim NTO to maintain a presence abroad and allow time for a permanent NTO to be established. The USNTO has a two-year sunset clause, at which time it will be reevaluated by Congress.

Travel and Tourism Government Affairs Council. The 36-member Travel and Tourism Government Affairs Council (TTGAC) is considered the lobbying arm of the Travel Industry Association. Its delegates work closely with Washington politicians and monitor the proposed bills coming out of the House and Senate.

Council activities in the past have included asking both major political parties to add planks to their party platforms in praise of travel and tourism, seeking extensions for the visa-waiver pilot program, and supporting laws favorable to travel and tourism. The TTGAC also provides policy analysis at no charge to members of Congress, providing research papers, issue analysis, newsletters, and other information on potential policy effects.

USA Marketing Council. The USA Marketing Council is the marketing arm of the TIA. In the absence of the USTTA, the council is seeking more than $5 million in federal grants to market to specific countries. In comparison, the USTTA spent an average of $1 million annually on marketing.

U. S. Travel Data Center. The U. S. Travel Data Center (TDC) is a nonprofit, privately supported agency that measures the economic impact of travel and tourism. It is financed by grants and membership fees. The membership comprises educational institutions, private corporations, and government agencies.

The objective of the TDC is to develop standard research techniques and methodology to measure and acknowledge trends over time and geographical areas.

International Trade Administration. The International Trade Administration (ITA) has absorbed personnel and many essential functions from the USTTA. The new office within this agency, funded with $2.2 million, is the Office of Tourism Industries (OTI). The OTI's chief duties will include technical assistance and research and coordinating the Tourism Policy Council. Until a permanent national tourism organization can be established, the Office of Tourism Industries within the ITA will be the principal point of contact for U.

S. tourism policy.

Tourism Policy Council. Representatives from 13 federal agencies constitute the Tourism Policy Council (TPC), which coordinates federal activities, policies, and programs related to tourism and recreation. Coordinated through the Department of Commerce, the TPC was established under the International Travel Act of 1961. Since remnants of tourism policy are scattered throughout many different government agencies, this committee remains as the government's only means for coordinating policy activities.

In addition to coordination and minimizing overlap, the TPC focuses on strategic allocation of resources, communication, and coordination of federal activities with public-and private-sector customers. In 1995 the TPC issued a report containing 52 specific recommendations in nine areas for improving the way the federal government organizes and delivers travel and tourism related programs and services. The Commerce Department's report is summarized in the accompanying box.

National Tourism Board. Established under statute to be the governing authority of the interim National Tourism Organization, the National Tourism Board (NTB) has 48 members, each elected by a major national tourism-industry trade association. This board has the responsibility for directing and securing funds for the USNTO.

Executive branch involvement. As part of the Commerce Department, the USTTA was under direct control of the government's executive branch. With the USTTA facing budget cuts in 1993, the late Commerce Secretary Ron Brown suggested a White House Conference on Travel and Tourism, which was held in October 1995 with attendance of some 1700 delegates. Out of the conference came a recommendation for a national tourism organization primarily funded by private-sector entities. This was the seed for the 1996 law creating the USNTO following the demise of the USTTA.

Toward a Tourism Policy

A government can stimulate, direct, and control tourism in three different ways—through tax policy and other legislation, through research, and through direct spending. It can offer financial incentives or implement restrictions to steer the private sector's involvement. Low-cost loans, tax holidays, or industry licensing are examples of ways by which government can influence private-sector actions. Government can also make explicit regulations governing the industry's actions, such as establishing hotel-rating standards and the like. The government may sponsor research and data collection that will benefit the industry. Census data and infrastructure-capacity research are special projects carried out by the government, for instance. Last, the government can spend money on promotion to generate demand. Such spending mostly focuses on overseas promotion where the government has contacts in and knowledge of a specific feeder market.

U. S. tourism policy has explicitly involved generating international demand, and providing data collection and research. It turns out that the government also has a number of implicit policies. These implicit policies can be revealed by comparing U. S. actions with those of other countries. For instance, one can compare the agency that controls tourism policy with similar agencies in other countries to evaluate the tourism industry's ability to influence government policy. One can also compare a range of stated policies and goals with those from other nations. While each country is different, comparative techniques provide a means to judge a country's stand on an issue.

National Tourism Organizations

A country's national tourism organization is the focus of development and implementation for national tourism policies. An NTO's function varies with the amount of government authority it is given. An NTO may be a government department or agency, it may be a private-sector organization independent of the government, or it may have a semblance of both private-sector and government involvement.

Approximately 30 percent of WTO nation-members have an NTO that is considered to be an independent ministry of tourism.

In this case, the NTO is considered to have a high level of influence and would be on equal footing with other cabinet members. Spain, Mexico, and France represent this type of structure. Some 60 percent of WTO members have a tourism bureau or agency set within a larger department or a government-funded, quasi-public organization managed with private-sector leadership. Such NTOs have less influence due to their secondary positions in the government's policy-making structure. Canada and the United Kingdom use this type of organization structure, and the nascent USNTO would typify this arrangement. Finally, about 10 percent of WTO nation-members have a private-industry association as their travel agency. The frequency of this type of structure is declining, and it is not considered to be as influential in government policy as other structures. Japan and Hong Kong are two examples of nations with this arrangement.

U.S. Policy, Such as It Is

Government policies are a combination of explicit goals and implicit agendas. Federal tourism policy has few explicit policies.

Marketing and promotion. This is the most visible and longstanding part of U.S. tourism policy. Formerly handled by the defunct USTTA, marketing is the province of the USNTO, which is seeking funds from the private sector and from municipal and state agencies. No firm connection has been established between tourism promotion and the nation's share of the global tourism market.

Foreign earnings. The USTS was created in 1961 explicitly to improve the balance of tourism payments after a decade of exporting tourism dollars. In contrast, the new charter for the USNTO says nothing about creating a favorable balance of payments, although such a policy appears to be implicit for the new agency.

Domestic promotion and marketing. The Constitution gives the federal government no standing in this matter, leaving it perforce with an implicit policy of allowing individual states to promote themselves and their regions.

Public infrastructure and superstructure. The actions of a variety of government agencies (e.g., Federal Highway Administration, Federal Aviation Administration) amount to a set of implicit policies that have resulted, for instance, in an extensive web of hard-surface highways but only nominal maintenance of rail systems.

Industry licensing. Certification of safety standards for airplanes and ships, rules for fire prevention, and food-sanitation regulations are distributed among federal agencies, and many of these responsibilities (such as gaming licensure) devolve to the states.

Employment and productivity. Many states have statewide or regional policy initiatives. Labor shortages in travel and tourism have been legendary caused partly by age demographics and partly by low-end pay scales. One could say that the implicit policy is to leave matters alone unless the situation is critical.

Private-sector involvement. Several policy points arise under this heading. First, the federal government explicitly created a ruling committee for the

USNTO consisting of 48 positions from private-sector organizations. This committee, called the National Tourism Board, is to represent the private sector in the formulation of tourism policy. Second, the federal government does not offer the tourism industry special treatment for guaranteed and low-interest loans other than those available to all businesses through the Small Business Administration. Finally, one group of businesses does have explicit federal policy protection, namely, the concession operators in national parks, who receive favorable contracts to conduct their operations.

Decentralized participation. The U.S. has no explicit policy, in part because of the federal system, which involves high levels of participation from state agencies, educational institutions, municipal organizations, and industry associations. In effect, this constitutes an implied policy.

Research and data collection. This function is designated as part of the USNTO. Until the USNTO can organize with sufficient funding, the Office of Tourism Industries within the Commerce Department performs this function.

Protection of tourism assets. Policy initiatives can be found in a variety, of departments (e.g., Environmental Protection Agency, Bureau of Land Management). State and local municipalities maintain their own policies in this area, many of them more restrictive than federal regulations.

There is no guarantee that the current NTO will make headway where its predecessor stalled, particularly in the absence of substantial funding. Until the interim NTO can achieve permanent funding (from whatever sources), this cornerstone of U.S. tourism policy will be questionable. Moreover, the USNTO has been established as a second-or third-tier government agency seemingly distant from the center of government influence. Other than the policies of marketing the United States and collecting information, the federal government seems to have no overarching strategy or policy relating to tourism.

U.S. tourism policy is clearly on the back burner for the nation's policy makers. The shape of the USNTO is still unfolding but it seems to have only two primary functions: international marketing and data collection and research to support that marketing effort. Concerned with only a few functions, the USNTO is aptly placed within an agency within the Department of Commerce.

The fact that many powers are reserved to the states is a strong reason for the shape of federal policy. The federal government, however, has never been shy about taking on whatever responsibilities seem to affect the nation as a whole. So far the industry has been unable to consolidate into one political front to convince lawmakers of the essential value of a coherent tourism policy. Weakening the case is the negative perception that many policy makers seem to have of the travel industry. Compared to other industries such as health care, communications, or manufacturing, travel and tourism is often perceived as nonessential or even degrading because of its service connotations. Study after study has shown that the travel and tourism industry is an economic cash cow that can create jobs, increase tax receipts, and develop a positive balance of payments more effectively than many other industries. A coherent travel policy may have to wait until the industry is able to consolidate its many trade associations and interest groups to tell a unified story to policy makers.

(By Charles Brewtun, Glenn Withiam)

Words and Expressions

auxiliary members **辅助成员**
an interim organization **临时组织**
infrastructure-capacity research **基础结构能力调查**
Federal Highway Administration **联邦公路局**
Federal Aviation Administration **联邦航空局**
Environmental Protection Agency **美国环境保护局**
Bureau of Land Management **土地管理局**
TSA (Travel Satellite Account) **旅游卫星账户**
price flexibility **价格弹性**
model of tourism system **旅游体系模型**
based theory model **基础理论模型**

Notes

1. U.S. Commerce Department's Travel and Tourism Administration **美国商业部旅游局**
2. Ronald Reagan **罗纳德·里根，美国第** 49 **届总统，生于** 1911 **年** 2 **月** 6 **日美国伊利诺伊州坦皮科城。**1937 **年进入好莱坞华纳兄弟电影公司当电影和电视演员，曾在** 50 **部影片中担任角色。**1980 **年** 11 **月** 4 **日里根竞**

选总统获胜，1984 年 11 月竞选连任成功。在任期间，里根推行一项经济复兴计划，主张缩减政府规模和权力，减少税收，降低通货膨胀率和削减社会福利。2004 年 6 月 5 日，里根在加利福尼亚的家中去世，享年 93 岁。

3. Jimmy Carter　吉米·卡特，美国第 39 任总统。1924 年 10 月 1 日生于佐治亚州普兰斯。1977 年竞选总统获胜。卡特在担任美国总统期间，中美两国正式建立了外交关系。1997 年 11 月，印度英·甘地纪念基金会授予他 1997 年度英·甘地奖，以奖励他为全球和平、裁军和发展所作的贡献。2002 年获诺贝尔和平奖。
4. marginal effectiveness　边缘效益
5. Sacramento　美国萨克拉门托市是加利福尼亚州首府，建于 1772 年，位于加州北部，四面环山，有“中央山谷”之称。面积 2546 平方公里，由多拉多、普雷瑟、萨克门托市、约罗四个县组成。市区人口 150 万，其中萨市约 31 万，总面积 13882 平方公里。拥有 NBA 著名的球队萨克拉门托国王队。
6. Grand Canyon　科罗拉多大峡谷位于美国亚利桑那州西北部科罗拉多河中游，科罗拉多高原的西南部，是地球上最为壮丽的景色之一。
7. IMAX (Image Maximum「最大影像」) 是一种能够放映比传统底片更大和更高解像度的电影放映系统。
8. Canada's National Tourism Organization　加拿大国家旅游组织
9. The AH&MA 美国旅馆和汽车旅馆协会 (American Hotel & Motel Association，简称 AH&MA) 总部在华盛顿，下设八个职能部 (成员关系部、政府协调部、公关部、市场销售部等) 和内华达分部，还有协会的信息中心、教育研究所、杂志社、印刷厂以及两个专业委员会 (国际会议协会，饭店销售协会)、美国饭店基金会 (AHF)，在美国 50 个州设有分会，有的州称之饭店与餐馆协会，现有会员 1 万多个酒店和餐馆，300 多个国际会员。
10. plethora of organizations　繁多的组织
11. The Central Commission for the Navigation of the Rhine　莱茵河航行中央执委会
12. Travel Industry Association of America (TIA)　美国旅游业协会，总部位于华盛顿。
13. Sunset clause　日落条款，就是每两年要对设定的许可事项进行评估。
14. Travel and Tourism Government Affairs Council　旅游政府事务委员会
15. visa-waiver pilot program　免签证试行计划

16. The USA Marketing Council is the marketing arm of the TIA. **美国市场委员会是美国旅游业协会的市场依托。**
17. The U.S. Travel Data Center (TDC) **美国旅游数据中心**
18. The International Trade Administration (ITA) **国际贸易管理署**
19. Office of Tourism Industries (OTI) **旅游产业办公室**
20. Tourism Policy Council **旅游政策委员会**
21. National Tourism Board (NTB) **国家旅游委员会**
22. Commerce Secretary Ron Brown **商务部长隆布朗,在克林顿时期任职。1996年4月3日,布朗乘坐的波音737飞机在从波黑境内的图兹拉前往克罗地亚途中,因天气恶劣,在克罗地亚最南端的杜布罗夫机场附近撞山坠毁,布朗一行33人全部遇难。**
23. White House conference on travel and tourism **白宫旅游会议,美国总统克林顿执政后,曾于1995年10月30日专门召开"白宫旅游会议",这是美国历史上第一次白宫旅游会议,总统克林顿,副总统戈尔,交通部长佩纳,商务部长布朗等和近两千名代表参加了会议,这也是旅游发达国家实行政府主导的一次具体行动。**
24. tax holidays **免税期**
25. establishing hotel-rating standards **建立酒店等级标准**
26. overarching strategy or policy **支配性战略或政策**
27. an economic cash cow **金牛产品,摇钱树**

Comprehension Questions and Questions for Discussion

1. Why do the authors think the actual economic impact of tourism industry is a matter of debate although the American travel and tourism industry is large?
2. What is the major function of U. S. Travel Data Center?
3. What are the chief duties of international Trade Administration?
4. In which three different ways can a government stimulate, direct and control tourism?
5. Explain the three types of NTO's organization structure depending on the amount of government authority.
6. Give examples of countries that have an NTO considered to be an independent ministry of tourism.
7. What is the most important and visible part of U. S. Federal tourism policy?

8. From the author's point of view, what is the problem of U. S. Federal tourism policy?

Supplementary Reading

How Tourism Can Contribute to Socio-Cultural Conservation

Tourism can contribute to positive developments, not just negative impacts. It has the potential to promote social development through employment creation, income redistribution and poverty alleviation. Other potential positive impacts of tourism include:

- **Tourism as a force for peace**

  Traveling brings people into contact with each other and, as tourism has an educational element, it can foster understanding between peoples and cultures and provide cultural exchange between hosts and guests. Because of this, the chances increase for people to develop mutual sympathy and understanding and to reduce their prejudices. For example, jobs provided by tourism in Belfast, Northern Ireland, are expected to help demobilize paramilitary groups as the peace process is put in place. In the end, sympathy and understanding can lead to a decrease of tension in the world and thus contribute to peace.

- **Strengthening communities**

  Tourism can add to the vitality of communities in many ways. One example is that events and festivals of which local residents have been the primary participants and spectators are often rejuvenated and developed in response to tourist interest.

  The jobs created by tourism can act as a vital incentive to reduce emigration from rural areas. Local people can also increase their influence on tourism development, as well as improve their job and earnings prospects, through tourism-related professional training and development of business and organizational skills.

- **Facilities developed for tourism can benefit residents**

  As tourism supports the creation of community facilities and services that otherwise might not have been developed, it can bring higher living standards to a destination. Benefits can include upgraded infrastructure, health and transport improvements, new sport and recreational facilities, restaurants, and public spaces as well as an influx of better-quality commodities and food.

- **Revaluation of culture and traditions**

  Tourism can boost the preservation and transmission of cultural and historical traditions, which often contributes to the conservation and sustainable management of natural resources, the protection of local heritage, and a renaissance of indigenous cultures, cultural arts and crafts. The tour operator Travel Walji's, for example, is complementing conservation efforts not only by providing direct financial assistance, but also by providing indirect support, such as tourism development aid, to a remote mountain destination in the Karakorum region of South Asia. The aid has helped revive local music and traditional activities like sword dancing.

- **Tourism encourages civic involvement and pride**

  Tourism also helps raise local awareness of the financial value of natural and cultural sites and can stimulate a feeling of pride in local and national heritage and interest in its conservation. More broadly, the involvement of local communities in tourism development and operation appears to be an important condition for the conservation and sustainable use of biodiversity.

These are some positive consequences of tourism that can arise only when tourism is practiced and developed in a sustainable and appropriate way. Involving the local population is essential. A community involved in planning and implementation of tourism has a more positive attitude, is more supportive and has a better chance to make a profit from tourism than a population passively ruled—or overrun—by tourism. One of the core elements of sustainable tourism development is community development, which is a process and a capacity to make decisions that consider the long-term economy, ecology and equity of all communities.

Bibliography

(参 考 书 目)

Brewton, Charles and Withiam, Glenn. United States Tourism Policy. *Cornell Hotel & Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 2,1998

Dyke,Vernon Van. *Introduction to Politics*. Chicago:Nelson – Hall Inc.,1996

Gee, Chuck Y. *International Tourism:A Global Perspective*. Madrid:The World Tourism Organization,1997

Hearn, Lafcadio. The English Character. The *World of English* 148,2000:17 – 24

Howell,David W. CTC. *Passport:An Introduction to the Travel and Tourism Industry*. Ohio:South – Western Publishing Co.,1993

Moore,Colin. Feast Fit for a Medieval King. *The World of English* 146,2000:98 – 102

O'Neill, Mark. U.S. and China Sign WTO Deal. *The World of English* 140,2000:116 – 119

Pearman, Hugh. Sydney Opera House. *The World of English* 153, 2001:81 – 90

Pine,Ray. China's Hotel Industry. *Cornell Hotel & Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 6,2002

Sullivan, Robert. *The Seven Wonders of the World:Yesterday, Today and Tomorrow* 12, 2003

World Tourism Organization. *Chinese Outbound Tourism:Executive Summary*. 2003

Zedillo, Ernesto. Challenges of Globalization. *Beijing Review* 3, 2004

http://www.bjreview.com.cn

http://www.greenhorizon.rec.org

http://www.heritage.org

http://www.pacificislandtravel.com

图书在版编目（CIP）数据

旅游英语阅读教程/杨燕，乌永志主编．—西安：陕西人民出版社，2006
（旅游教育系列教材）
ISBN 7-224-07748-8

Ⅰ．旅…　Ⅱ．①杨…　②乌…　Ⅲ．旅游-英语-阅读教学-高等学校-教材　Ⅳ．H319.4

中国版本图书馆CIP数据核字（2006）第103521号

旅游英语阅读教程

主　　编：杨　燕　乌永志
出版发行：陕西人民出版社（西安北大街147号　邮编：710003）

印　　刷：西安市建明工贸有限责任公司
开　　本：690mm×960mm　16开　12.625印张
字　　数：220千字
版　　次：2006年8月第1版　2006年8月第1次印刷
印　　数：1-1000
书　　号：ISBN　7-224-07748-8／H·308
定　　价：18.00元