

*V. R. F. Series*

**No.481**

*May 2013*

**Tourism and Regional Integration  
in Southeast Asia**

**Vannarith Chheang**

日本貿易振興機構 アジア経済研究所

INSTITUTE OF DEVELOPING ECONOMIES, JAPAN EXTERNAL TRADE ORGANIZATION

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

I owe a deep debt of gratitude to the Institute of Developing Economies (IDE-JETRO) for the opportunity to conduct a research project on the ‘tourism and regional integration in Southeast Asia’ from July 2012 to January 2013. I would like to express my sincere appreciation to the staff and researchers of the institute for their warm hospitality. My knowledge and research experience have been enriched thanks to the large pool of diverse experts working on various issues in different regions and countries.

I am especially indebted to my research counterpart, Ms. Maki Aoki, and research advisor, Ms. Etsuyo Arai, for their constructive comments and encouragement throughout the research writing process. I would like to thank Ms. Naomi Hatsukano and Mr. Makishima Minoru for introducing me to this program and their continued support during my stay at IDE. In addition, I am grateful to IDE research fellows, especially Mr. Nobuhiro Aizawa, Mr. Takahiro Fukunishi, Mr. Kenmei Tsubota, Mr. Kiyoyasu Tanaka, Mr. Yasushi Ueki and Mr. Kazu Hayakawa for their time and friendship.

I would like to thank all the staff members working at the International Exchange Division, Research Coordination Office, and Library for always being approachable and responsive and for their excellent work in making the life of visiting fellows here comfortable and enjoyable. In particular, I am indebted to Mr. Takao Tsuneishi, Ms. Chisato Ishii, Mr. Tatsufumi Yamagata, Mr. Koshi Yamada and Mr. Taiki Koga for their support and friendship. Many thanks also go to all the visiting fellows (Ms. Gao, Prof. Scarlett, Prof. Somchai, Prof. Ramaswamy and Prof. Khan) for spending time together sharing stories and experiences.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	i
LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES.....	iv
SUMMARY.....	v
INTRODUCTION.....	1
CHAPTER 1	
REGIONALISM AND TOURISM IN SOUTHEAST ASIA: A REVIEW OF LITERATURE	
Introduction.....	4
1.1. Regionalism in Southeast Asia.....	4
1.1.1. Definition of regionalism.....	4
1.1.2. Driving forces of regionalism.....	6
1.1.3. The objectives of regionalism.....	6
1.1.4. Regionalism in Southeast Asia.....	7
1.2. Tourism in Southeast Asia.....	12
1.2.1. Definition of tourism.....	12
1.2.2. Driving forces of tourism.....	13
1.2.3. Roles of tourism.....	13
1.2.4. History of tourism in Southeast Asia.....	14
1.2.5. The impacts of tourism in Southeast Asia.....	16
1.2.6. The state and tourism development.....	20
1.2.7. Multi-stakeholder partnership.....	21
1.3. Tourism and Regionalism.....	21
Conclusion.....	22
CHAPTER 2	
TOURISM DEVELOPMENT POLICY IN SOUTHEAST ASIA	
Introduction.....	23
2.1. ASEAN: Emerging Global Tourism Destination.....	23
2.2. Tourism Development Policies.....	29
2.2.1. Brunei.....	29
2.2.2. Cambodia.....	30
2.2.3. Indonesia.....	32
2.2.4. Lao PDR.....	32
2.2.5. Malaysia.....	34
2.2.6. Myanmar.....	35
2.2.7. The Philippines.....	36
2.2.8. Singapore.....	38
2.2.9. Thailand.....	39
2.2.10. Vietnam.....	41
Conclusion.....	43
CHAPTER 3	
REGIONAL COOPERATION AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT	
Introduction.....	44
3.1. Regional Tourism Cooperation.....	44
3.2. ASEAN Cooperation Framework.....	46
3.3. Sub-Regional Cooperation Framework.....	49
3.3.1. BIMP-East ASEAN Growth Area (EAGA) Cooperation.....	50

3.3.2. The Singapore-Johor-Riau (SIJORI) Triangle.....	50
3.3.3. The Indonesia-Malaysia-Thailand Growth Triangle (IMT-GT) .....	51
3.3.4. Cambodia-Lao PDR-Vietnam (CLV) Growth Triangle .....	52
3.3.5. Cambodia-Lao PDR-Thailand (CLT) Triangle .....	52
3.3.6. The Growth Quadrangle (China, Lao PDR, Thailand and Myanmar) .....	53
3.3.7. Ayeyawady-Chao Phraya-Mekong Economic Cooperation Strategy (ACMECS) ...	53
3.3.8. CLMV Tourism Cooperation .....	53
3.3.9. Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS) .....	54
Conclusion .....	58
<b>CHAPTER 4</b>	
<b>REGIONALISM-TOURISM LINKAGES</b>	
Introduction .....	60
4.1. Regionalism Promotes Tourism .....	60
4.1.1. Political will and commitment .....	60
4.1.2. Institutional and regulatory development .....	63
4.1.3. Sub-regional cooperation framework .....	65
4.1.4. Public-private partnerships .....	65
4.1.5. Tourism's collective attractiveness .....	66
4.1.6. Infrastructure development and transport connectivity .....	66
4.2. Tourism Promotes Regional Community Building .....	67
4.2.1. Cooperative culture .....	68
4.2.2. Development and poverty reduction .....	69
4.2.3. Identity construction .....	71
4.2.4. Social inclusion and institutions .....	71
4.2.5. Human connectivity .....	72
Conclusion .....	73
<b>CONCLUSION</b> .....	<b>74</b>
<b>APPENDICES</b> .....	<b>77</b>
<b>REFERENCES</b> .....	<b>85</b>
<b>THE AUTHOR</b> .....	<b>93</b>

## LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

### Tables

1. Sources of Tourism in Southeast Asia.....	24
2. Tourist Arrivals in ASEAN .....	25

### Figures

1. Regionalism in Southeast Asia.....	12
2. Tourism Structure in Southeast Asia.....	43
3. Regionalism-Tourism Nexus.....	75

## *SUMMARY*

Regional cooperation for the development and promotion of tourism is receiving more political and economic attention, particularly in the context of globalization and regionalization. In the interconnected Southeast Asian region, tourism development has become one of the high-priority development cooperation areas. The state is the main actor or driver in crystallizing regional cooperation and integration, while development partners and the private sector are the key supporters and implementers of the tourism development projects. It is argued that the regionalism-tourism development linkage has mutual and causal relationships, which reinforce each other and move along the same trajectory. The incentives and benefits generated from the tourism industry encourage other economic sectors to develop, which generates a chain of spillover effects.

Learning from Southeast Asian regional cooperation and integration, we can see that tourism is one of the key industries in connecting the region through three dimensions: people, institutions and infrastructure. Tourism cooperation is widespread; regional interest and regional tourism products are becoming common regional public goods. The concept of sovereignty over the tourism sector is relatively much more flexible and negotiable than with other sectors. Integration of tourism products and the connectivity of tourism services and infrastructure are the objectives of regional cooperation on tourism.

Within the discourse of the regionalism-tourism nexus, it is argued that regionalism supports tourism based on the existing high level of political will and commitment, multi-stakeholder partnerships, institutional and regulatory development, sub-regional cooperation framework, tourism's collective attractiveness, and deterritorialization (time and space compression) through infrastructure connection and cross-border facilitation. On the other hand, tourism promotes regionalism by promoting cooperative culture, development and poverty reduction, identity construction, development of social inclusion and institutions, and the improvement of human connectivity.

## INTRODUCTION

Studies on regional cooperation and integration especially in the Asia Pacific region have been undergoing remarkable changes over the last decades through the integration of mainstream theories on international relations and political economy with area studies. Holistic approaches, hybrid methodologies and case studies have gradually gained a base in examining and understanding the region. This is due to the fact that there is an increasing engagement of different actors or stakeholders from different sectors in shaping the nature and characteristics of Asian international relations and foreign policy.

The Southeast Asian region is endowed with diverse historical memories, cultural values, ethnicity, and political and economic systems. It has been shaped by the five largest ethical systems, namely Hinduism, Buddhism, Islam, Christianity and Confucianism. India, China and Europe had been the key sources shaping the cultural, political and economic landscape of the region for centuries. Since the end of the Cold War, there has emerged a new era of international cooperation and multilateralism in the Asia-Pacific. The speed and nature of regional cooperation and integration have impacted, to a large extent, the geostrategic and socioeconomic landscape of the region, which generate complex economic interdependence<sup>1</sup> and connectivity both nationally and regionally.<sup>2</sup> The interconnection and linkages between national and regional political, economic, and social institutions and norms are transforming Southeast Asia into a contested region. The region has taken the path, with gradual steps, towards realizing a harmonious region and regional community. To build unity within diversity and to have one vision and one identity are the means to realize a peaceful and prosperous Southeast Asian region.

Given the preexisting multiple channels of contact, communication and cooperation in the region as well as the increasingly significant role of sectoral regionalism, the tourism industry has always been one of the key sectors in connecting different parts of the region and sub-region. It is therefore necessary to study and

---

<sup>1</sup> Complex interdependence refers to a situation among a number of countries in which multiple channels of contact connect societies (that is, states do not monopolize these contacts); there is no hierarchy of issues (Keohane and Nye, 2006: 258).

<sup>2</sup> Connectivity generally refers to physical, social and institutional harmonization and linkages.

understand the dynamics of inter-relationships between tourism development and regionalism in Southeast Asia. The tourism industry, an emerging economic sector in the region, is generally believed to draw states into a web of mutual self-interest creation and expansion. This encourages them to engage actively, although there is some competition between the states to be the hub of the regionally integrated tourism industry.

There is a growing consensus among the ASEAN leaders and other relevant stakeholders to promote and strengthen regional cooperation in tourism development in order to tap the emerging market of this industry under the framework of win-win cooperative partnerships. For instance, the tourism minister of Malaysia stated in 2012 with respect to tourism in Southeast Asia that: ‘the foremost objective is to strengthen regional cooperation in the development of tourism products and services geared towards tapping the new and rapidly growing segment of travelers in the Asia Pacific region’ (UNWTO, 2012: 22).

As a result of regional cooperation efforts over the last decades in promoting the tourism industry, the number of international tourist arrivals in ASEAN has increased remarkably, from 20 million in 1991 to 81.2 million in 2011. However, tourism is very vulnerable to external shocks such as international conflicts, terrorism and infectious diseases. For instance, severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) in the early 2000s seriously impacted the tourism industry in the region, and the border conflict between Cambodia and Thailand over the area surrounding the Preah Vihear Temple heavily impacted the tourism industry along the border and the cooperation between the two countries.

The high vulnerability of the tourism industry necessitates preventive mechanisms and crisis management systems. It therefore heightens the need for countries in a given region to further cooperate and coordinate in the security sector in order to create a favorable environment for tourism development. Tourism cooperation can lead to the creation of a combined political will and efforts in other fields as well, such as regional cooperation to provide security and safety for international tourists in the region (for instance, see the study by Krakos, 2003).

By its nature, the tourism sector is complicated and multidimensional. It can be examined from social, cultural, economic, political, environmental and institutional

perspectives. To put it in a broader context, all sectors are interconnected. Cooperation in one sector naturally leads to cooperation in the other sectors as well. Only through integrating different sectors and mobilizing different actors to move in unison can a complete regional community be created. The tourism sector is part of such dynamic regionalism. Tourism is one of the products of globalization and regionalization, but it is also one of the factors shaping that processes.

This research report attempts to examine the characteristics of tourism development in the region and the linkage between regionalism and tourism development. It further elaborates on the current discourse of regionalism in Southeast Asia by integrating the tourism industry as one of the key sectors of regional cooperation and integration. Moreover, the study attempts to develop and contribute to the studies on sectoral regionalism through the framework of regional and sub-regional institutional analysis for regional tourism development and cooperation. It aims, specifically, to address two questions: What are the status and characteristics of tourism development and regional cooperation in Southeast Asia? What are the critical causal relationships between regional cooperation and tourism development?

**CHAPTER 1**  
**REGIONALISM AND TOURISM IN SOUTHEAST ASIA:**  
**A REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

***Introduction***

This chapter provides an overview of the existing studies and discourses on regionalism and tourism in Southeast Asia in order to examine different approaches, assumptions and conclusions. To link regionalism and tourism in Southeast Asia requires an understanding of the nature of international cooperation and regionalism in general and sectoral cooperation in particular. This chapter has three parts: definition and characteristics of regionalism, tourism development and regional cooperation in tourism development in Southeast Asia. It argues that tourism is a key sector to analyze regionalism in Southeast Asia.

***1.1. Regionalism in Southeast Asia***

**1.1.1. Definition of regionalism**

Regionalism has become one of the key theories of international relations since the end of the 1960s. The first wave of regionalism started in the 1950s when the dynamic momentum of European regional integration began. Studies on regionalism were strongly dominated by realism, which focuses on the implications of the security dilemma arising from an anarchical international system, sovereignty issues and the central role of the state. The second wave of theorizing on regionalism started at the end of the 1980s when the proliferation of regional groupings gained momentum in different parts of the world — from Europe to North America, Latin America and South and Southeast Asia. International political economic (state and market interaction) and interdisciplinary approaches such as area and comparative studies became more popular for examining and understanding the second-wave or new regionalism (Wunderlich, 2007).

There are different definitions regarding regionalism, but they are, more or less, within a similar conceptual framework with different periods and regional contexts. For

instance, Beeson and Stubbs (2012: 1) define regionalism as ‘a state-led project that promotes a definable geographic area by means of the development of specific institutions and strategies...is very much a conscious, coherent and top-down policy of states as well as sub-state and non-state actors, coordinating arrangements and activities in a particular part of the world’. Regionalism can be explained as ‘a top-down process imposed and managed by governments and other state-sponsored actors’ and regionalization is ‘a more unplanned and undirected bottom-up process involving mainly private political, economic and civil society actors’. Regionalization can promote ‘formal regulatory mechanisms and regional governance’. Moreover, regional integration is understood as a ‘condition or a process, and in its most common sense can be described as the formation of institutions and the creation of a new polity by bringing together a number of different constituent parts’ (Wunderlich, 2007: 3-4). Sridharan (2007) refers regionalism as inter-governmental cooperation to achieve common interests through both institutionalization and socialization processes. Regionalism can be examined from four dimensions: institutional, political, economic and social.

Regionalization, putting it in a broader perspective, is a complex process which operates in overlapping cycles. The first stage, which might be called the foundational stage, sees regions as being conceived and then built on the basis of the identification of boundaries and connections. The increasing use of the concept of ‘region’ by different actors then fixes it in a broader cultural context but also leads into a second phase. In this phase, the regional concept becomes the property of additional regionalizers of various degrees of power and influence who modify the concept according to their needs and interests (Charrier, 2001: 332).

The differences and tensions of different approaches to understanding regionalism from different disciplines reflect the necessity of having ‘a certain degree of analytical and theoretical eclecticism but also conceptual clarity’ (de Lambaerde *et al.*, 2010). State and non-state actors (e.g., the market and civil society organizations) are generally recognized as the driving force of regional cooperation and integration based on interests and identity calculation (involving both cost benefit analysis and emotional judgment). It is conducted both formally (de jure) and informally (de facto). The institutionalization of regional cooperation is based on political will and common interests (Tarling, 2006).

In this study, regionalism is a policy perspective that focuses on the importance of regional integration and promotes regional cooperation. It is defined as the multi-actor (state, market and people) led regional mechanisms and institutions (political, economic and social institutions) with the goal of achieving common interests, vision and identity. Regionalization is the process in which different stakeholders act together to implement and realize regionalist ideologies and policies. It is a process that promotes the formation of regions.

### **1.1.2. Driving forces of regionalism**

In general, regionalism is driven by a convergence of interests, perceptions, preferences, identities and a sense of the comfort of key actors in the region. However, it needs to ‘adopt an evolutionary perspective which takes account of the changing structural conditions embedded in the physical, economic and geographical environment to which institutions must adapt as well as the changing perceptions and self-understanding of relevant actors’ (Camilleri, 2003: 25). This means that geography, historical conditions, sociocultural value system, political system and culture, global political economic system, globalization, and calculated national and group interests have a strong impact on shaping regional architecture and cooperation. State, market and civil society organizations are the combined forces that create regional community and identity.

### **1.1.3. The objectives of regionalism**

The objectives of regional cooperation and integration are ‘to pursue and promote common goals in one or more issue areas... [regionalism] ranges from promoting a sense of regional awareness or community (soft regionalism) through consolidating regional groups and networks, to pan- or sub-regional groups formalized by interstate arrangements and organizations (hard regionalism)’ (Fawcett 2004: 433). Regionalism aims to create a common sense of identity and destiny, combined with the creation of institutions that express that identity and shape collective action (Evans 2005: 196). Political security and economic and sociocultural interests are the motivating factors of regional cooperation and integration.

#### **1.1.4. Regionalism in Southeast Asia**

The definition of Southeast Asia can be derived from different angles such as the geographies of knowledge and memory or the economics and politics of space (Kratoska *et al.*, 2005). Bounded geography, climatic similarities, common ecological features and other observable shared natural characteristics of the states of Southeast Asia are not adequate to define a political region. A definition needs to consider the diversities of ethnicity, religion, history, political and economic systems, and different levels of development and modernization (Weatherbee, 2010: 14-18). The core of international relations in Southeast Asia consists of ‘transactions based on a complex of broad and deep interests pursued by state and non-state actors in a dynamic interaction’ (Weatherbee, 2010: 297). Moreover, it needs to take into consideration the emerging dynamic role of human movement, either through migration or through tourism, in shaping the regional landscape.

In the context of international relations, the concept of Southeast Asia dated back to the Pacific War when the Western powers strategically defined Southeast Asia as a regional actor. The Cold War further brought the regional nature of Southeast Asia to the wider Asia Pacific region and the globe with the establishment of the US-driven Southeast Asian Treaty Organization (SEATO) and two failed indigenous attempts at regionalism, namely the Association of Southeast Asia (ASA) and MAPHILINDO. After these three short-lived institutions, the region’s countries came together again to establish the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) on 8 August 1967. ASEAN was established by the five original member states of Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore and Thailand then joined latter by Brunei in 1984, Vietnam in 1995, Lao PDR and Myanmar in 1997 and Cambodia in 1999. In the future, Timor Leste is expected to become part of the ASEAN family as well when conditions and requirements are met. Then, there will be eleven countries geographically located in Southeast Asia.

ASEAN, founded in 1967, has been a driving force in strengthening regional cooperation and integration and shaping regional comprehensive architecture towards a community under three pillars, namely a political security community, an economic community, and a sociocultural community. Southeast Asia, taking into consideration the progress of regional institutional, political, economic and sociocultural development,

is regarded as one of the successful and dynamic regions in the world featuring progressive development in regionalism with Asian characteristics. However, theorizing on international relations in Southeast Asia is a work in progress since there are different and conflicting theories and approaches (Acharya and Stubbs, 2009). One of the most relevant theoretical frameworks, in addition to liberal institutionalism and neo-realism, to explain regionalism in Southeast Asia is social constructivism, in which is emphasized the role of history, norms and identity in influencing state behavior and interactions.

ASEAN regionalism can be regarded as 'soft regionalism' (Soderbaum, 2011: 21). Regionalism in Southeast Asia involves both interstate relations and the relations with the global system. In post-Cold War Southeast Asia, the three elements constructing regionalism are, firstly, the fact that ASEAN is a politico-economic group; secondly, the fact that ASEAN is a unique inter-state system with diverse political and economic systems; and thirdly, the fact that sovereignty remains a challenge for ASEAN integration (Palmujoki 2001: 32). In addition, historical and sociocultural factors also determine the nature of international cooperation and integration in Southeast Asia. There are at least four groups of actors constructing the region and regionalism in Southeast Asia. The first group focuses on geographical delimitation of space, multiple actors and a relatively self-contained network of political and military interactions. The second group emphasizes the term 'proximity' to convey the institutional dimension of interaction. The third group applies the role of 'economic interdependence', 'shared political attitudes and behavior' and even social and cultural homogeneity. The fourth group stresses geographical proximity, international interaction, common ethnic, social, cultural or linguistic bonds and a sense of identity (Camilleri, 2003: 2).

To understand the nature and characteristics of regionalism in Southeast Asia is challenging since it is so diverse in history and culture as well as in political and economic systems. There are different camps of theorists and scholars looking at Southeast Asian regionalism as it dynamically evolves over time. Tim Huxley (1996: 200) observed that there are three interrelated features standing out in the literature on Southeast Asia's international relations: firstly, the dominance of extra-regional scholarship and the relative absence of regionally indigenous research and writing;

secondly, an overwhelming emphasis on regional security and the related preponderance of realist perspectives on the region; and thirdly, the increasingly perceived utility of the idea of contextualizing the Southeast Asian region.

Three key theoretical frameworks explaining the nature of international relations in Southeast Asia after the Cold War are realism, liberalism and constructivism. Neo-realists argue that ASEAN is shifting towards a more rules-based institutional form, while constructivists place their emphasis on identity building (Eaton and Stubbs, 2006: 135). Different approaches provide different pictures of regionalism in Southeast Asia. However, it needs to be noted that only through the integration of different approaches can Southeast Asian regionalism be understood completely.

From the realist and neo-realist perspective, it is argued that ASEAN, in its search for regional order, has constructed an 'embryonic security community', collective internal security, and regional cooperation to contain and reduce intra-mural tensions (Leifer, 1987). In such case, realism (the building of individual state military capabilities to assure their interests) and neoliberalism (interstate cooperation to create institutions and regimes for the peaceful settlement of conflicts) can coexist (Simon, 1995). Realist institutionalism is another angle of looking at Southeast Asian regionalism with the inclusion of negative norms, which are power politics and bargaining, in order to maximize national interests through regional institutions (Khoo, 2004, Soon, 1990: 114).

The liberalists and neo-liberalists examine Southeast Asian regionalism by emphasizing on institutional building, economic integration and interdependence, and democratic values. They believe that economic interest is the core driving force of regional cooperation and integration, and it is mainly supported by public-private partnership. Through economic cooperation and integration, it can lead to building confidence and trust between the nation states. It is believed that from de facto (informal) economic integration through trade and investment, it can lead to the development and strengthening of the formalization of regional cooperation institutions. Market-driven regionalism is supported by the regional production network, competitive division of labor, economic interdependence and connectivity (Hiratsuka and Kimura, 2008). Functionalists reinforce the view that cooperation on low-politics

issues such as non-traditional security and economic issues can generate a spillover effect to other fields of cooperation such as political security and strategy.

Regional cooperation is not only driven by security and economic interests but also by cognitive factors such as knowledge and ideas that shape the perceptions, beliefs, expectations and preferences of the actors (Haas, 1990). It is embedded within the normative structure of an international community, where certain practices and rules have been institutionalized to promote international cooperation (Nguitragool, 2011: 7). Moreover, culture has emerged to be one of the driving forces in creating the de facto regionalism in Southeast Asia as well. Some scholars emphasize the in-progress cultural community building in which ordinary citizens can gradually take center stage (Katsumata, 2012: 155).

There is increasing acceptance of the relevance of constructivism in examining and explaining international relations and regionalism in Southeast Asia. It is argued that constructivism is more insightful than balance-of-power realism (Peou, 2002: 119). From cultural and social points of view, Southeast Asian regionalism is constructed based on norms creation, collective identity, and the regional code of conduct which shapes states' behavior and interests (Busse, 1999). Identities can constitute the crucial link between, on one hand, the structure of the regional environment and the interests of various actors, and on the other hand, the formation of policies (Wunderlich, 2007: 39). Identity formation can be understood through cross-cultural communication (Emmerson, 1984). Among the ASEAN norms, the ASEAN way has been regarded as the key element in helping mediate differences among ASEAN leadership as well as limiting interference by non-ASEAN states (Haacke, 2003).

To understand more broadly about regional cooperation and the durability of regionalism in Southeast Asia, one needs to understand also the historical development of the region because cooperation within international society<sup>3</sup> does not hinge only on changes in identity but also on the nature and extent of institutional development (Narine, 2006). To understand the actions of states, we need to understand their

---

<sup>3</sup> International society exists when a group of states, conscious of certain common interests and common values, form a society in the sense that they conceive themselves to be bound by a common set of rules in their relations with one another and share in the operation of common institutions. Institutions are a set of habits and practices shaped to achieve the realization of common goals (Bull 1977: 13).

identities and the interests stemming from them. Changes in identity can cause changes in interests as well as actions (Wendt, 1999). ASEAN states have developed their collective identity based on ASEAN's norms and practices, which are important to them and shape their actions (Acharya, 2001).

It can be generally concluded that geography, history, culture, economic and political systems, political culture and attitudes, population, and communitarian strain are all combined to create an Asian approach to regionalism (Beeson and Stubbs, 2012: 2-3). ASEAN member states prefer to apply a more informal approach rather than rules-based cooperation (Acharya and Johnson, 2007: 246). The ASEAN approach generally refers to principles of non-use of force in intramural conflicts, non-interference in the domestic affairs of another member country, and regional autonomy. The procedural norms of ASEAN include consultation, consensus-based decision-making, quiet diplomacy and low-level institutionalization.

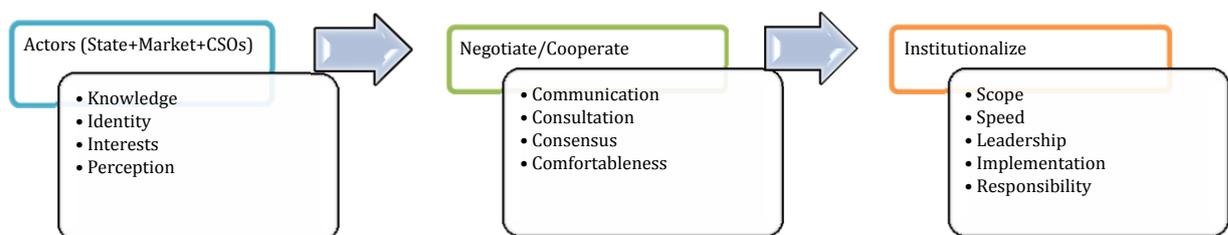
The principles and procedures of the ASEAN approach have been the foundation promoting confidence-building measures and practical cooperation within ASEAN and between ASEAN and its external partners. However, the Asian economic crisis in 1997 and the evolving open regionalism in the Asia Pacific region centered on ASEAN, and the increasing strategic competition between China and the United States demand an institutionalist reordering and strategic re-adjustment in the Asia Pacific region in which institution-building had to go beyond the ASEAN norms and provide for more rules-based interaction and working culture, the region had to develop more interactive and intrusive regionalism, and institutions had to become more involved with social movements and the civil society through a more economically and socially inclusive regionalism (Acharya, 1999).

Regionalism in Southeast Asia has been evolving over time in both concept and practice. Based on the unique historical, sociocultural, geographical, economic, political and security contexts, Southeast Asia generates its own type of regionalism in light of its characteristics, particularly the ASEAN approach and its continuous modification to meet new challenges stemming from regional and global realities, and strategic perception and calculation. How far ASEAN can move forward to realize its own

community and regional governance regime<sup>4</sup> depends much on the political will and resources of the member states. By combining power assumptions, liberal institutionalism and constructivism, a synergic model of regime formation can be built. The difficulties that ASEAN currently faces in carrying out its regionalist project are indelibly interdependent with a growing divide between the democratic and authoritarian regimes in Southeast Asia (Roberts, 2012: 187), maintaining unity and having one voice, and strengthening its central role or driving force in an open and extended regionalism in the wider Asia Pacific region. The challenges facing ASEAN community building are the lack of clear vision, model, and leadership (Zha and Hu, 2006), the lack of efficient resources to address trans-boundary issues (Elliott, 2003: 29), and the development gap within the member states.

To summarize, regionalism in Southeast Asia refers to the multi-actor driven process based on their knowledge, identity, interests, and perception (KIIP). The regionalization process, which is based on negotiation and cooperation, is mainly implemented through communication, consultation, consensus and comfort (4Cs). The scope and speed of regional institutionalization is widening and deepening, while leadership, implementation and responsibility are being emphasized (see Figure 1).

**Figure 1: Regionalism in Southeast Asia**



## 1.2. Tourism in Southeast Asia

### 1.2.1. Definition of tourism

According to the United Nations' World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), tourism is defined as 'a social, cultural and economic phenomenon which entails the

<sup>4</sup> International regimes are defined as principles, norms, rules and decision-making procedures around which actors' expectations converge in a given issue area. Principles are beliefs of fact, causation and rectitude. Norms are standards of behavior defined in terms of rights and obligations. Rules are specific prescriptions or proscriptions for action. Decision-making procedures are prevailing practices for making and implementing collective choice (Narine 1998: 38).

movement of people to countries or places outside their usual environment for personal or business/professional purposes'<sup>5</sup>. The tourism industry is one of the most dynamic and fast growing economic sectors in the world.

### **1.2.2. Driving forces of tourism**

Located in the tropical region with a comfortable climate and diverse historical, cultural, heritage-related, and ecological attractions, the nation states in Southeast Asia have emphasized tourism development through the establishment of national tourism boards (NTBs) or ministries of tourism and other tourism agencies in order to tap tourism resources and industry. The private sector, with favorable conditions created by the local and national governments, has become active in exploring and expanding business opportunities in the tourism sector.

The end of the Cold War and the reemergence of international cooperation and human movement across borders and the rapid development of globalization and regionalization have contributed to the robust development of the tourism industry. Tourism is recognized as one of the fastest growing industries in the world. It brings along major opportunities and challenges for countries in Asia and the Pacific. ASEAN countries have become one of the most attractive tourist destinations in the world. With the efforts of the regional governments in integrating the tourism sector to be part of regional cooperation and socioeconomic development, tourism has now been emerging as one of the key national and regional policies for ASEAN.

### **1.2.3. Roles of tourism**

It is generally claimed that international tourism can push economic growth through foreign exchange generation, alleviation of balance of payments, a sector less subject to trade restrictions or barriers, a sector with relatively high elasticity of demand compared with primary products, labor intensiveness, reduction of regional disparities in income and employment, high spillover effects, contribution to government revenues through tax, and promotion of image which in turn can attract foreign direct investment. In the meantime, tourism also creates some negative impacts on socioeconomic and

---

<sup>5</sup>UNWTO, <http://www.unwto.org/>

environmental aspects if there is no appropriate governance mechanism in place to manage it in a sustainable and holistic manner (Walton, 1993: 215-6).

The World Travel & Tourism Council and World Tourism Organization, in their open letters to heads of state and government in 2012, emphasized three roles of tourism. Firstly, through the creation of sustainable enterprises and decent jobs, tourism provides the necessary security and stability for millions of people worldwide to build better lives. Secondly, tourism is one of the export sectors of developing countries and the primary source of foreign exchange earnings in the vast majority of these, creating much needed employment and opportunities for development. At the same time, it has the power to deliver significant international earnings for environmental protection as well as give economic value to cultural heritage. It also brings people together in order to learn and understand each other, fostering mutual respect and tolerance. Thirdly, as tourism activity continues to grow, tourism is increasingly interconnected with environmental sustainability. Environmentally responsible tourism is one of the new growth poles of the 'green economy', providing sustainable infrastructure, business opportunities and jobs and income (World Tourism Organization, 2012). These are the general beliefs within the governments of ASEAN during the development and planning process of tourism industry. They strongly believe that the well-managed tourism industry can contribute to economic development and poverty reduction.

#### **1.2.4. History of tourism in Southeast Asia**

Tourism is a long-established economic and development activity in Southeast Asia dating back to the nineteenth century (Hitchcock *et al.*, 2009: 8). It has grown remarkably over the decades. The Asia Pacific is one of the most dynamic regions which attracts both domestic and international tourists from all over the world. An increasing trend has been observed in intra-regional tourism development over the years thanks to cheaper communication and transportation costs, higher incomes/affluence and diversity of tourism products. It is estimated by the World Tourism Organization that, in the year 2020, the Asia Pacific region will be the world's second-most important tourist destination after Europe.

The Southeast Asian tourism industry, with its enormous diversity of tourism potentials, has been increasing rapidly and is estimated to grow further. Tourism has

become one of Southeast Asia's growth industries. Southeast Asian governments are trying to promote the tourism industry as part of their source of foreign exchange earnings and employment providers. Almost all countries in Southeast Asia can be regarded as tourism-developing states which are actively implementing public-private sector partnerships for tourism development. Tourism is generally believed to be 'one of Southeast Asia's foremost industries...one of the important factors' and it has been strongly promoted by various member states of ASEAN (Hitchcock *et al.*, 1993: 1-3).

Tourism in Southeast Asia is the result and reflection of the past colonialism. The image of Southeast Asia as a tourist space was generally developed by the colonial powers. It was developed together with the capacity of transportation technology in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. However, it was disrupted by regional conflicts and wars. Only after peace and stability were restored in the mid-1980s did hospitality and tourism development reemerge and grow remarkably in Southeast Asia. Southeast Asia is rich in tourism products ranging from ecotourism to cultural and heritage tourism. In addition, cruising is also one of the important tourism products in Southeast Asia, particularly for Singapore, Malaysia, Indonesia, the Philippines, Thailand and Vietnam.

The downturn of the global economy in the 1980s after the oil crisis in the 1970s forced the governments in ASEAN to find other sources of foreign exchange receipts through different means, among which tourism was regarded as the key industry (Walton 1993: 215). Up until the early 1980s, Southeast Asian countries relied largely on agriculture and the export of primary products. Diversification of the sources of economic growth has been the key challenge and task for the governments in the region. Tourism has emerged since the late 1980s as one the key economic sectors in which the region has a comparative advantage and which can quickly earn foreign currency. In addition, not much capital is needed to invest in the industry.

The tourism industry can help diversify the region's economic development base and encourage and support other related industries and services to grow concurrently, such as transport, catering, hotel, the arts, and handicraft production. The development of infrastructure alongside tourism can assist the process of industrialization and modernization (Hitchcock *et al.*, 1993: 3). However, tourism in Southeast Asia is highly

vulnerable to political and financial instability in the region and other external shocks, such as the spread of pandemic diseases, terrorism and other natural disasters.

### **1.2.5. The impacts of tourism in Southeast Asia**

Tourism is one of the most sophisticated industries, involving as it does a variety of actors. It impacts many aspects of society. Southeast Asia tourism reflects multiple voices from different actors who both determine and are impacted by development agenda. Tourism has wide social, cultural, economic, political and environmental implications (Hitchcock *et al.*, 2009: 42, Cohen, 2008: 11). By reviewing the existing studies on the impacts of tourism in Southeast Asia, we can categorize the impacts of tourism into cultural, environmental, economic and health impacts.

#### **Cultural impacts**

The key literature on tourism in Southeast Asia tends to focus more on the relationship between tourism on one hand and culture and ethnicity on the other hand. It is generally argued that tourism leads to reinvention and production of local cultures (MacCannel, 1984). Culture is an object of conscious manipulation, invention, and consumption, within a broader social, economic and cultural context. Within this, culture is dynamic and is adaptive to new environments, which in this case is the globalization of tourism. It is suggested that sustainable tourism should be implemented across a wider range which includes not only the preservation of the environment and culture but also the invention of new products to meet the demands of tourists (Yamashita *et al.*, 1997).

There is a complex and dynamic relationship between international tourism, ethnicity, and Asian and Pacific societies. Tourism has become an 'intrinsic part' of the changing global and local culture. By observing several case studies in Southeast Asia, it was found that tourism and the state have interacting roles in shaping particular concepts of ethnicity and culture. In addition, the intersection of state policies, tourism development and ethnic politics contributes to the construction of a range of ethnic options available to the groups (Picard and Wood, 1997).

There is clear evidence that tourism has a strong impact on local cultures for better or worse (Michaud and Jean, 1997; Smith, 1977; Teo, 1994; Winzeler, 2011: 221-249). Tourism can help revitalize local cultures (McKean 1989) and maintain local cultures (Geriya, 2003; Kahn, 1997; King, 1993; Putra and Hitchcock, 2005). However, negative aspects of tourism are also presented, such as the downgrading of indigenous belief systems and the absence of cultural understanding (Crystal, 1989; Hughes-Freeland, 1993) and cultural management (Jenkins and King, 2003; Soubert and Hay, 1995).

Tourism 'is just one of many ways in which the contemporary world system brings about change in the societies within it' (Yamashita *et al.*, 1997). This means that local cultures are developed by the local residents and government to shape their identities and values in order to attract tourists. For instance, Picard (1993) analyzed the impacts of tourism on culture in Bali. Culture is the focus of touristic promotion in Bali. Balinese people have integrated foreign culture and values into their own culture. Colonization, regionalization, and touristification in Bali have transformed Balinese society from within. Balinese culture has been produced for the purposes of tourism development planning. It is argued similarly that the paradise in Bali 'was not simply discovered there: it was created' under Dutch colonialism (Yamashita, 2003: 25).

Tourism in Southeast Asia is a phenomenon in which state and tourism development agencies have impact on the notion of the formation, construction, operationalization and conservation of cultural and historical heritages. Due to the complexity of heritage tourism, it is necessary to adopt a broad cross-disciplinary and comparative approach. Such an approach needs to address the issues of agency, competing discourses, local-level interactions, identity, sociocultural change and cultural invention (Hitchcock *et al.*, 2010). There is therefore a strong connection between tourism and cultural development in Southeast Asia.

### **Environmental impact**

In Southeast Asia, tourism without proper management partially damages the local environment, especially in the coastal areas (Parnwell, 1993). However, at the same time, tourism can promote environmental preservation as well, for instance as

seen in parks conservation in Indonesia and Malaysia (Cohen, 1993). Tourism is widely viewed by ASEAN leaders as part of the efforts to promote green development in the region. Speaking at the ASEAN Tourism Forum in Phnom Penh in late 2011, Cambodian Prime Minister said: ‘Tourism is acclaimed as the green gold in fostering socioeconomic development and poverty alleviation as well as contributing to the development of the green economy’.<sup>6</sup>

However, there are some difficulties in dealing with tourism and environmental management in the Southeast Asian region. Detailed knowledge of the environmental impacts of tourism does not exist, and regional institutional arrangements are limited. ‘One of the most significant difficulties of effective environmental management in the region is the establishment of appropriate and effective institutional arrangements for managing the relationship between tourism and the environment’ (Hall, 2000: 96). The challenge for ASEAN is how to develop tourism in a sustainable way by taking into consideration ecological sustainability, economic sustainability, and equity and strengthening of the partnerships between regional institutions, national governments, the private sector and local communities.

In order to promote sustainable tourism, ASEAN’s National Tourism Organizations (NTOs) have introduced key principles such as advocating the creation of national and local steering committees on sustainable development, compiling and documenting laws, guidelines, and best practices for sustainable tourism, institutionalizing local community participation, connecting tourism projects with poverty alleviation measures, establishing a program for the integrated development of human resources and monitoring sustainability by applying common standard indicators (Cruz 2005: 115).

### **Economic impact**

The availability of tourism products and the strong tourism development policies from the government as well as the investment of the private sector make Southeast Asia a destination for millions of tourists. The increasing number of tourists has a great

---

<sup>6</sup> “Cambodia hosts ASEAN tourism conference”, *Euronews*, 21 January 2011, <http://www.euronews.net/2011/01/21/cambodia-hosts-asean-tourism-conference/>, accessed on 19 July 2012.

impact on the local socioeconomic development in the region. Many studies have been conducted to examine the impacts. The findings show that tourism produces more positive than negative economic impacts. There is a positive correlation between tourism and foreign exchange earnings, income generation, and employment creation. Tourism is generally economically significant in Southeast Asia (Walton, 1993). It contributes to economic growth in different aspects such as rural handicraft development (Parnwell, 1993), local community development and poverty reduction (Nimmonratana, 2000), and local agricultural product development (Forsyth, 1995).

Tourism products are more geographically confined than others. It is locally available and the local people can use it for their community development and poverty reduction. However, in some cases, internal migration driven by the tourism industry can conversely reduce the opportunities of the local community. So, it is necessary to examine what the real benefits to the local community of tourism are. Some argue that, in addition to the visible link between income-generating opportunities and poverty reduction, we need to examine further the geographically attached employment opportunities as 'poverty might stem from where they live and what they do' (Yamagata, 2009: 93).

### **Health impact**

Sex tourism is one of the key aspects of increasing the tourism industry in the region (Hall, 1992). This development has produced negative impacts on society, especially in terms of the spread of HIV/AIDS. There are many cases in the Southeast Asian region showing that sex tourism results in the spread of HIV/AIDS (Cohen, 1988; Leheny, 1995; Ryan and Hall, 2001). Child sex tourism is creating more negative social and economic implications for the destination countries (Montgomery, 2001). Without proper management of the health impacts caused by the tourism industry, it can create long-term social and economic consequences. Furthermore, the tourism industry also contributes to the spreading of pandemic diseases such as SARS and bird flu.

### **1.2.6. The state and tourism development**

In many developing countries, the state usually plays a catalytic or central role in formulating and planning tourism development policies in the early stage; this is due to the lack of expertise and limited involvement of the private sector in this field. However, this tendency is apt to change slightly in the face of the emerging role of the private sector in the tourism industry. The public sector has a significant and effective role in managing the environment and image of tourism (Wong, 2003), while the private sector is the actor in exploring the opportunities and shaping the tourism service and products landscape.

States in Southeast Asia play an important role in promoting tourism. They are the planners of tourism development. Southeast Asian governments, regardless of their different political systems and levels of development, consider tourism to be a significant source of income and employment. As the privatization of the tourism industry is underway, Southeast Asian tourism policy needs to address several important issues such as the 'distribution issue', 'the political organization of power', 'the political climate', and the 'sustainability issue' (Ritcher, 1993). States establish a regulatory framework and environment within which the tourism industry can develop and operate. The governments set the policies and regulations with regards to the movement of people within and between countries. In addition, the governments influence the location of tourism facilities and development areas. Tourism, in addition to its economic role, can also be used by some states to achieve certain political and/or strategic goals (Hall, 2001: 18-22).

Nation-states in Southeast Asia have been promoting the tourism industry not only to drive economic development but also to support 'ideologically driven definitions and symbols of national identity and ethnicity' (Sofield, 2000: 15). In addition, states use tourism for their political interests, power bargaining, public image creation (Richter, 2001: 283) and cultural politics and identity (Chang, 1997). To prove this, various case studies can be found in Thailand (Elliot, 1983; Peleggi, 1996), Myanmar (Hall 1997; Henderson 2003), Singapore (Chang, 2009; Leong, 1997; Ooi, 2003), Indonesia (Adams, 1997; Dahles, 2001) and the Philippines (Richard, 2001; Richter, 1999, 2001) where states use the tourism industry to serve their political and strategic interests.

### **1.2.7. Multi-stakeholder partnership**

Public-private partnership has played a significant role in tourism development in Southeast Asia. The private sector works together with the public sector to promote the tourism industry through marketing and investment to provide services and experiences to tourists. For instance, taking the case of Thailand, the government policy continuously played a major role in shaping tourism policy and supporting the growth of the private sector (Cohen 2008: 2-3). In the case of Vietnam, the private sector is working closely with state institutions and officials to mediate, interpret and implement the rules and regulations, laws, policies and directives developed by the central government for governing private tourism business activity (Bennett, 2009: 162).

It is necessary for private industry, local governments and community groups to work in partnership in planning and developing tourist destinations which involve sensitive natural and cultural resources, identifying and providing readily available sources of financing for tourism projects, particularly those involving community-based projects, training and educating current and prospective tourism industry workers, promoting sustainable tourism advocacy campaigns on the national and local levels, and establishing a continuous and credible system of evaluation, monitoring and accrediting of tourism organizations, services and destinations (Alampay, 2005: 15).

### **1.3. Tourism and Regionalism**

Studies on the linkage between tourism and regionalism in Southeast Asia are scarce. Peggy Teo and her colleagues examined tourism connectivity in Southeast Asia within a regional context. There are few levels of tourism interconnectedness and cooperation in Southeast Asia, and these are foreign direct investment in tourism, government-to-government initiatives and regional bloc collaborations. Tourism creates a win-win partnership for all countries in the region, although it works through networks of competition and cooperation. Tourism is the new reality of an increasingly interconnected Southeast Asia (Teo *et al.*, 2001). Regional integration has a generally positive impact on tourism growth in the region (Wall, 1998).

## ***Conclusion***

A review of the existing literature on regionalism and tourism in Southeast Asia provides a space to explore the linkages between regionalism and tourism development in the region. Southeast Asian regionalism consists of multi-layered, multi-level and multi-network international relations and cooperation driven by different actors and sectors. The state, the market, and civil society organizations are the key actors shaping regional cooperation and institutions. Different theories look at regionalism in Southeast Asia from different angles and perspectives with different conclusion. It is necessary to integrate those different views and to understand Southeast Asian regionalism through holistic lenses.

The studies on the tourism sector in Southeast Asia reveal that tourism is one of the emerging economic sectors in Southeast Asia. It contributes relatively significantly to national and regional development. Most of the studies on tourism in Southeast Asia focus on the cultural, economic and environmental impacts caused by tourism and the public policy on tourism management. The impacts caused by tourism are mixed and diverse. The state is the key actor in developing the tourism industry, taking into account broad interests ranging from economic and political interests to cultural ones. Given this nature, tourism is an interesting case to explore within the context of dynamic and evolving regionalism. Tourism can play a complementary role, as part of functional cooperation, in forming common identities, norms and interests within the region. Tourism can motivate different actors to promote cooperation and partnership at both the national and international levels. Moreover, the gradual process of institutionalization of tourism cooperation in the region can strengthen the overall regional institutional development.

## CHAPTER 2

### TOURISM DEVELOPMENT POLICY IN SOUTHEAST ASIA

#### ***Introduction***

ASEAN, which currently has ten member states, is emerging to be one of the most popular global tourism destinations, with diverse tourism products and services together with regional interconnectedness through regionalization. This chapter provides an overview of the tourism development policy in Southeast Asia in general. It then examines different policies and the status of tourism development of each member country of ASEAN with a focus on tourist arrivals, the contribution of tourism to national economic development, and government policies for developing the tourism industry.

#### ***2.1. ASEAN: Emerging Global Tourism Destination***

In 2011, the number of tourists travelling around the world reached 980 million, an increase of 4.5% as compared to 2010 (with 51% from Europe, 22% from Asia Pacific, 16% from the Americas, 6% from the Middle East and 5% from Africa). Tourism created 235 million jobs, equivalent to 8% of the total global employment, and generated revenue for the economy of approximately USD900 billion, equivalent to 5% of the world's GDP and 45% of total service exportation in developing countries. In particular, ASEAN received approximately 79 million international tourists, an increase of 7.4% (in which intra-ASEAN travelers amounted to 34 million, equivalent to 43% of the total figure). ASEAN destinations attracted 81.2 million visitors in 2011, an average increase of a million visitors each year for the last two decades. Three out of four visitors to ASEAN are from Asia, 46.5% from within ASEAN and 27.6% from other Asian markets.<sup>7</sup> The intra-ASEAN travel and tourism reflect the increasing regional connectivity, and this is a significant factor in realizing an ASEAN community.

According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), the number of world tourists reached one billion in 2012 and it will reach 1.6 billion in 2020 and 1.8 billion in 2030. It displays an average annual growth of 43 million. This

---

<sup>7</sup> "ASEAN spells out tourism priorities ahead of 2015", *Bangkok Post*, 27 August 2012, <http://www.bangkokpost.com/business/economics/309580/asean-spells-out-tourism-priorities-ahead-of-2015>.

also means that there are around 5 million cross-border tourists per day. Asia Pacific is seen as an attractive inbound tourist market, which claims around 30% of the market share of the total global tourist market. Asia Pacific is becoming a major world source market (the number of tourists from Asia Pacific increase by 17 million annually), and the BRICS countries (Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa) will become the main outbound market since the middle-income population in those countries has been increasing gradually.<sup>8</sup>

In particular, ASEAN is expected to receive approximately 107 million international tourists in 2015. Southeast Asian tourism is strongly linked with Northeast Asian countries like China, Japan and South Korea. These three countries are very important markets for Southeast Asia. Intra-ASEAN tourism, which accounts for about half of the total number of international tourists traveling to ASEAN, is emerging to be the most important element for regional cooperation and ASEAN community building (see Tables 1 and 2).

Table 1: Sources of Tourism in Southeast Asia

Country	2010			2011		
	Intra-ASEAN	Extra-ASEAN	Total	Intra-ASEAN	Extra-ASEAN	Total
Brunei Darussalam	109.9	104.4	214.3	124.2	117.9	242.1
Cambodia	853.2	1,655.1	2,508.3	1,101.1	1,780.8	2,881.9
Indonesia	2,338.5	4,664.4	7,002.9	3,258.5	4,391.2	7,649.7
Lao PDR	1,990.9	522.1	2,513.0	2,191.2	532.3	2,723.6
Malaysia	18,937.2	5,640.0	24,577.2	18,885.3	5,829.0	24,714.3
Myanmar	512.3	279.2	791.5	100.4	716.0	816.4
The Philippines	298.2	3,222.3	3,520.5	331.7	3,585.8	3,917.5
Singapore	4,779.6	6,859.0	11,638.7	5,372.2	7,799.1	13,171.3
Thailand	4,534.2	11,402.2	15,936.4	5,529.9	13,568.4	19,098.3
Viet Nam	465.9	4,584.0	5,049.9	838.4	5,175.6	6,014.0
ASEAN	34,820.0	38,932.7	73,752.6	37,732.9	43,496.1	81,229.0

Source: ASEAN Secretariat, <http://www.aseansec.org/5167.htm>.

<sup>8</sup> WTO Tourism Highlights, <http://mkt.unwto.org/en/publication/unwto-tourism-highlights-2012-edition>, accessed on 12 January 2013.

Table 2: Tourist Arrivals in ASEAN

Country of origin	2010		2011	
	Number of tourists (thousands)	Share of total	Number of tourists (thousands)	Share of total
	Thousands	Percent	Thousands	Percent
ASEAN	34,820.0	47.2	37,732.9	46.5
European Union-25	6,971.1	9.5	7,325.9	9.0
China	5,415.9	7.3	7,315.6	9.0
Japan	3,464.9	4.7	3,926.3	4.8
Australia	3,350.9	4.5	3,862.0	4.8
USA	3,286.1	4.5	3,664.4	4.5
Republic of Korea	2,680.5	3.6	2,838.0	3.5
India	2,478.0	3.4	2,711.3	3.3
Taiwan (ROC)	1,549.8	2.1	1,808.1	2.2
Hong Kong, SAR	905.7	1.2	1,299.1	1.6
Top ten country/regional sources	64,922.8	88.0	72,483.6	89.2
Rest of the world	8,829.8	12.0	8,745.4	10.8
Total tourist arrivals in ASEAN	73,752.6	100.0	81,229.0	100.0

Source: ASEAN Secretariat, <http://www.aseansec.org/5167.htm>.

The economic impact of tourism, according to the measurement made by the World Tourism Organization, is categorized into direct contribution and total contribution. The direct contribution to the GDP reflects the internal spending on tourism (total spending within a particular country on tourism by residents and non-residents for business and leisure purposes) as well as government spending (spending by the government on tourism services directly linked to visitors, such as cultural or recreational tourism products). The direct contribution of travel and tourism to the GDP

is consistent with the output, as expressed in national accounting, of tourism-related sectors such as hotels, airlines, airports, travel agents and leisure and recreation services that deal directly with tourists.

The total contribution of tourism includes its spillover effects to other economic activities. The indirect contribution includes the GDP and jobs supported by tourism investment spending (an important aspect of both current and future activity that includes investment activity such as the purchase of new aircraft and construction of new hotels); government spending which boosts tourism activity in many different ways as it consists of administration, security services, resort area security services and resort area sanitation services, etc.; domestic purchases of goods and services by the sectors dealing directly with tourists, including purchases of food and cleaning services by hotels, fuel and catering services by airlines and IT services by travel agents (World Tourism Organization, <http://www2.unwto.org/en>).

Regional institutions and cooperation mechanisms have been developing to address the emerging tourism industry and to further promote it in the interest of economic growth and community building. In the late 1980s, the regional leaders started to encourage regional tourism cooperation. In the Manila Declaration of 15 December 1987, among other trade issues, tourism was also encouraged. The declaration states: ‘ASEAN shall encourage intra-ASEAN travel and develop viable and competitive tourist activity. The year 2002, the 25<sup>th</sup> Anniversary Year of ASEAN, was declared Visit ASEAN Year’ (see Appendix 1).

In 2002, at the 8<sup>th</sup> ASEAN Summit in Phnom Penh, Cambodia, the ASEAN leaders adopted the ASEAN Tourism Agreement (ATA). Its objectives are to facilitate travel into and within ASEAN, strengthen cooperation in the tourism industry to improve its efficiency and competitiveness, minimize restrictions on trade in tourism and travel services, develop an integrated network of tourism and travel services to maximize the complementary nature of the region’s tourist attractions, promote ASEAN as a single tourism destination, enhance mutual assistance in human resources development and training, and together create favorable conditions for public and private sector partnerships (see Appendix 2).

In 2004, the ASEAN tourism ministers advanced their cooperation by adopting the Vientiane Declaration on Enhancing ASEAN Tourism Cooperation to strengthen regional cooperation in promoting tourism. Specifically, they are committed to (1) undertaking specific measures to expedite the implementation of the ASEAN Tourism Agreement, particularly the visa exemption initiative to increase tourist travel in ASEAN in accordance with the leaders' decision at the Bali Summit in October 2003; (2) advancing integration of tourism in accordance with the ASEAN Concord II by 2010 through development of ASEAN Tourism Vision and a roadmap to achieve the target of integration; (3) assisting new members towards the integrated ASEAN tourism through provision of technical assistance, among others, in the areas of capacity building, human resources development, promotion of investment and protection of the environment and cultural heritage; (4) working closely with relevant ASEAN bodies and agencies in our Member Countries to ensure coherence of policies and initiatives related to tourism development in ASEAN and to adopt appropriate measures to prevent all threats to tourism; (5) strengthening partnership with the private sector such as travel agencies, airlines, hotels and tourism related establishments as well as the media, other countries and international organizations in advancing tourism development in ASEAN; (6) working closely with the ASEAN Secretariat, the ASEAN NTOs and the private tourism associations and groups such as ASEAN Tourism Association (ASEANTA), Federation of ASEAN Travel Association (FATA) and ASEAN Hotel & Restaurant Association (AHRA) to ensure that that all of the above decisions are implemented with efficiency and urgency; and (7) requesting the ASEAN Secretariat to be the main coordinator for the implementation of Tourism Cooperation Programs and Initiatives and to strengthen cooperation with the private sector for activities where the private sector could play a leading role.

According to the ASEAN Tourism Strategic Plan 2011-2015, the ASEAN tourism leaders aim to increase the number of tourists to the region. It is possible through the preservation of authentic and diverse tourism products, enhanced connectivity, a safe and secure environment and increased quality of services, while at the same time ensuring an increased quality of life and opportunities for residents through responsible and sustainable tourism development by working effectively with a wide range of stakeholders. The plan provides the implementing roadmap through (1)

engaging the private sector to participate in joint promotion and marketing of ASEAN tourism activities; (2) building deeper understanding of identified tourist markets, such as, China, Japan, Republic of Korea, India, US, EU and Russia; (3) using the visit ASEAN campaign logo; (4) organizing collectively an ASEAN tourism area at international tourism events; (5) developing a common ASEAN audio-visual presentation; (6) promoting ASEAN tourism heritage sites; (7) developing an ASEAN tourism portal; (8) undertaking the marketing of cruises as an attractive ASEAN tourism package; (9) providing incentives in the development of tourism infrastructure; (10) undertaking a study on tourism areas which can be promoted for investment; (11) implementing an ecotourism project; (12) organizing an ASEAN tourism investment forum; (13) establishing ASEAN tourism standards initially focusing on an environmental management certification system for hotels; (14) establishing ASEAN minimum competency standards for tourism professionals; (15) establishing a tourism resource management and development framework; (16) developing an intra-ASEAN curriculum; (17) creating an ASEAN tourism research databank; (18) developing the language capacity of local tourist guides; and (19) developing an ASEAN crisis communication framework and action plan.

In the early stage of tourism development at the national and local levels, some common characteristics of tourism policy planning and development exist. It is top-down policymaking process by developing national tourism development plans and investment projects. Moreover, it lacks of attention to environmental issues, good governance and democratic participation especially from the local people. Recently, however, there are encouraging signs of tourism development, such as increasing regional efforts to address pandemic diseases, environmental protection, human trafficking and cultural preservation. In addition, tourism has become one of the key sources of economic growth from diversified sources of tourist arrivals. Most importantly, there are good signs of increasing inbound regional and domestic tourists and the level of heritage protection (Richter, 2009).

## ***2.2. Tourism Development Policies***

### **2.2.1. Brunei**

Brunei, the smallest and least populated country in the region, is struggling to diversify its sources of growth and to not rely too much on oil and gas. The tourism industry is emerging as one of the factors contributing to realization of economic diversification and development strategy. The government's vision is to make Brunei a Service Hub for Trade and Tourism (SHuTT). SHuTT aims to promote trade, tourism, business networks and communication through Brunei Darussalam (Tisdell, 2002: 1). Brunei can be a niche market of ecotourism. The government of Brunei started to pay serious attention to developing the tourism industry in early 2000 and held the Visit Brunei year-long campaign in 2001 (Anaman and Looi, 2000: 134).

Since the tourism industry is relatively competitive, it is a challenge for small states like Brunei to develop such an industry. Countries that can provide unique tourist attractions have an upper hand in maintaining a competitive advantage (Tisdell, 2001). Brunei has several features that can attract international tourists, namely its peace, tranquility and high assurance of personal safety; relatively unique natural and man-made attractions in close proximity; modern and reliable services and facilities, such as reliable availability of the electricity supply and a well-developed infrastructure in both urban and rural areas; direct international air links; friendly and helpful people; a considerable variety of scenery in close proximity, with natural scenery close to urban areas; and a convenient base for touring the natural attractions of Borneo (Tisdell, 2002: 12).

The Tourism division is part of the ministry of industry and primary resources. The government has introduced four pillars of tourism products, namely culture, heritage, nature and contemporary Asia. In the concept statement of Brunei Tourism, it states, 'Brunei Tourism is committed to working closely with both local and overseas industry partners and the media to position Brunei Darussalam as a distinctive, exciting and undiscovered travel destination in Asia'.<sup>9</sup> In his letter dated 9 January 2012 to join the Global Leaders for Tourism Campaign, His Majesty Sultan Hai Hassanal Bolkiah Mu'izzaddin Waddualah stated that Brunei would do its best to support tourism.

---

<sup>9</sup> Official government website of Brunei Tourism, Ministry of Industry and Primary Resources, [www.bruneitourism.travel/contact/concept.html](http://www.bruneitourism.travel/contact/concept.html), accessed on 18 July 2012.

Tourism is of strategic importance for Brunei and is based on its two principal resources, namely its pristine rainforest and its spiritual cultural heritage. He stressed that environmental protection and conservation must be the core of tourism.

Tourism in Brunei is a relatively small sector, but it has the potential to grow. In 2011, there were 242,000 international tourists who visited Brunei. The tourism industry contributed about 2% of the GDP in 2011, and it is expected to be 1.9% in 2022 (World Economic Forum, 2012). However, there is some potential to develop the industry and expand its economic role through the improvement and establishment of new retail stores, chains of restaurants, and recreation. In the first three quarters of 2012, air transport, hotel and restaurant services grew about 20% (ADB, 2012: 187). Brunei's goal is to receive 400,000 annual visitors by 2016 with two growth clusters, namely natural and cultural clusters. The natural cluster concentrates on ecotourism, wildlife, adventure and education. The cultural and Islamic cluster emphasizes museums, handicrafts and Kampong Ayer, a 'water village'. Secondary offerings include diving, beach tourism and wellness products as well as cruise tourism.<sup>10</sup> Of international tourist arrivals to Brunei, 51.3% come from ASEAN countries.<sup>11</sup>

### **2.2.2. Cambodia**

Tourism is one of the key economic sectors, in addition to agriculture and textiles, that promotes economic growth and income generation. Tourism has been regarded as one of the key pillars of national economic development strategy. Cambodian economic performance remains relatively high in the region. In 2011, Cambodia had a growth rate of 6.8% stemming from increased exports of garments, footwear, and milled rice as well as tourism. Tourist arrivals increased by 14.8%, which amounted to 2.9 million tourists and receipts of about USD1.3 billion in 2011. Growth in tourism benefited the hotels and restaurants, retailing, and transport and communications subsectors (ADB, 2012: 189). In terms of its share of GDP, tourism directly contributed 9.5% in 2011 and it is expected to be 8.5% of GDP in 2022 (World Economic Forum, 2012).

---

<sup>10</sup> 'Brunei Darussalam: Tourism's Time to Shine', *Economic Update*, Oxford Business Group, 10 September 2012, available at [http://www.oxfordbusinessgroup.com/economic\\_updates/brunei-darussalam-tourism%E2%80%99s-time-shine](http://www.oxfordbusinessgroup.com/economic_updates/brunei-darussalam-tourism%E2%80%99s-time-shine), accessed on 10 November 2012.

<sup>11</sup> ASEAN-Japan Center, <http://www.asean.or.jp/en/>, accessed on 10 December 2012.

In its national socioeconomic plan for the years 2006-2010, tourism policy was developed and integrated as part of national unity and identity building, improvement of living conditions for the local people, employment opportunities, connection with other economic sectors, preservation of historical and cultural heritages, protection of ecology and biodiversity, and public-private partnerships for tourism development. In addition, the government also tries to diversify tourism products, tourism infrastructure development such as road connections, promotion, and human resources development in order to expand the benefits generating from the tourism industry (Chheang, 2009).

In his remarks in July 2012, Cambodian premier emphasized some key principles and elements of tourism development. It includes the preservation of cultural and natural heritage, respect for local people and communities with consideration for increasing the quality of services for tourists, fair and inclusive growth of tourism with reduction of the negative impacts of tourism on the socioeconomic status and the environment, sustainable management of tourism through the preservation of tourism products, and stakeholders' collaboration among state, private persons and development partners. Cambodia is expected to attract seven million foreign tourists by 2020 with estimated annual revenue of USD5 billion that year. To realize this goal, Cambodia needs to pay more attention to quality tourism, the improvement of infrastructure and services, and law implementation to safeguard tourists.<sup>12</sup>

The international tourist arrivals in Cambodia have increased from about 120,000 in 1993 to 2.8 million in 2011 and 3.5 million in 2012. It is projected that Cambodia will receive approximately 4.5 million in 2015 and 7 million in 2020, generating around USD5 billion and creating around 80,000 jobs (Thong Khon, 2012a). The source of tourist arrivals in Cambodia is mainly Southeast and East Asia. In 2010, ASEAN ranked at the top of tourist arrivals in Cambodia, with 853,180 tourists (35.6% of total tourists), followed by South Korea (289,702 tourists, 12.1%), China (177,636 tourists, 6.3%) and Japan (151,795 tourists, 6.3%).<sup>13</sup>In 2012, tourists from ASEAN accounted for 42.2% of the total tourist arrivals in Cambodia. It reflects the increasing significance of the intra-ASEAN tourism industry.

---

<sup>12</sup> Ministry of Tourism of Cambodia, <http://www.tourismcambodia.org/news/index.php?view=detail&nw=66>, accessed on 2, November 2012.

<sup>13</sup> ASEAN-Japan Center, <http://www.asean.or.jp/en/>, accessed on 10 December 2012.

### **2.2.3. Indonesia**

The Indonesian government emphasizes national identity, unity of the nation a multicultural society, people's welfare and international cooperation as the vision for its tourism development strategy. The tourism development strategy aims to carry out conservation and culture development based on cultural values, to develop (1) promotions and tourism destinations in order to obtain a competitive advantage, (2) culture and tourism resources and (3) clean government and public accountability.<sup>14</sup>

Indonesian policy on sustainable tourism development is directed to support the four pillars of the national development strategy, which are pro-poor, pro-growth, pro-job and pro-environment as reflected in the Tourism Law of 2009, National Tourism Development Master Plan 2010-2015, National Master Plan of Acceleration and Expansion of Indonesian Economic Development 2011-2025, National Long-term Development Plan 2004-2025 and National Tourism Strategic Plan 2010-2014.<sup>15</sup>

Indonesia is emerging to be one of the key tourist destinations in Southeast Asia due to its diverse tourism products. International tourist arrivals in Indonesia have grown from about 5.5 million in 2007 to about 7.6 million in 2011. The growth rate in 2009 was the lowest due to the impact of the global economic crisis, which started in the United States in 2008. In 2010, there was a quick rebound thanks to the Visit Indonesia Year 2010, a campaign that promoted the tourism industry in that country. The direct contribution of tourism to the GDP was 3% in 2011, and it is expected to be 3.5% of the GDP in 2022 (World Economic Forum, 2012). The key sources of tourist arrivals to Indonesia, in 2010, were ASEAN (3,052,285 tourists, 43.6%), Australia (771,792 tourists, 11%), China (469,365 tourists, 6.7%), Japan (418,971 tourists, 6%) and South Korea (274,999 tourists, 3.9%).<sup>16</sup>

### **2.2.4. Lao PDR**

In the late 1980s, Lao PDR started economic reform with a free market economy in which the tourism industry was identified as one the key sectors which requires more attention and promotion. The government then created an action plan to develop and promote natural, cultural and historical tourism as the key element of the service sector.

---

<sup>14</sup> Ministry of Tourism and Creative Technology of Indonesia, <http://www.budpar.go.id/budpar/asp/detil.asp?c=48&id=771>, accessed on 19 July 2012.

<sup>15</sup> Indonesia Tourism Performance 2011, United Nations World Tourism Organization.

<sup>16</sup> ASEAN-Japan Center, <http://www.asean.or.jp/en/>, accessed on 12 December 2012.

Infrastructure development and travel facilitation are the top priorities of the government. Such proactive policy has generated visits by international tourists to the country. From 1990 to 2005, the number of tourists grew at a rate of 27.6% per annum (Lao PDR Tourism Strategy 2006-2020: 4-5). The government of Laos is trying to attain 3.5 million tourist arrivals by 2015 with the expectation of generating about USD500 million in revenue. In 2011, tourist arrivals increased by 9%, amounting to 2.7 million persons, with a revenue of about USD400 million which supported the hotels and restaurants as well as transport subsectors. In terms of its contribution to GDP, tourism accounted for 5.8% of the GDP, and it is expected to reach 5.4% in 2022. In 2010, the main sources of tourist arrivals to Lao PDR were ASEAN (1,990,932 tourists, 79.2%), followed by China (161,854 tourists, 6.4%), US (49,782 tourists, 2%), France (44,844 tourists, 1.8%), UK (37,272 tourists, 1.5%), Japan (34,076 tourists, 1.4%), Australia (30,538 tourists, 1.2%) and South Korea (27,312 tourists, 1.2%).<sup>17</sup>

The government has introduced its national tourism development policies by implementing an open-door policy regarding foreign cooperation on economics and culture with foreign nations, promoting tourism to improve the level of local people's lives and to encourage the integration of local products, promoting the arts and cultures as well as the ancient archeological and historical monuments, providing better distribution of revenues and incomes generated from the tourism industry to remote areas and especially to ethnic groups, enhancing friendship and good cooperation with all nations, and implementing strategies for ecotourism and community-based tourism in order to alleviate poverty.<sup>18</sup>

In addition, the Tourism Strategic Plan 2006-2020 has six key elements, as follow: (1) transform Laos into a globally well-known destination for the cultural and nature tourists with consideration for sustainable development and poverty reduction, (2) link tourism with socioeconomic development and the construction of the national image, prestige, and identity, (3) effectively integrate tourism to be part of the national economic development plan, (4) promote stakeholders' collaboration and partnership in tourism development, and (5) strengthen tourism cooperation with international organizations and regional countries, especially the countries in Asia Pacific, ASEAN,

---

<sup>17</sup> ASEAN-Japan Center, <http://www.asean.or.jp/en/>, accessed 12 December 2012.

<sup>18</sup> Laos Tourism Administration, [http://www.tourismlaos.org/web/show\\_content.php?contID=2](http://www.tourismlaos.org/web/show_content.php?contID=2), accessed on 16 October 2012.

and the Mekong Sub-region and (6) strengthen institutional and regulatory reform to support tourism industry (Lao PDR Tourism Strategy 2006-2020).

#### **2.2.5. Malaysia**

Since the 1980s, the tourism industry has become more important for Malaysia. Annually, there is increasing investment in new facilities and capital equipment, particularly in transportation, services, hospitality and tourism-related businesses. The government of Malaysia tries to realize the potential of the tourism industry for strengthening the services sector. Coordination and intra-sector linkages are necessary to generate high multiplier effects. Diversification of tourism products and sustainable management of the industry are the principles of the tourism development strategy (Nanthakumar *et al.*, 2008).

The National Tourism Policy was first announced in the Sixth Malaysia Plan (1991-1995) and revised in the Seventh (1996-2000) and the Eighth (2001-2005) policy plans. The tourism development plan includes encouraging equitable economic and social development through the promotion of rural enterprises, accelerating urban-rural integration and cultural exchange, and encouraging ethnic community participation; developing environment-friendly tourism products, as well as promotion of cultural and natural heritage; provision of soft loans for small- and medium-size tourism-related projects; and adoption of an integrated approach to planning, continuing human resource development, and preservation and beautification of tourism and historical sites (Cruz, 2005: 86-87).

International tourist arrivals in Malaysia in 2011 amounted to 24.71 million persons with the receipt of USD19.4 billion. The direct contribution of tourism to the GDP was 6.7% in 2011, and it is expected to be 6.8% of GDP by 2022 (World Economic Forum, 2012). The government has the ambitious target of receiving 36 million tourists in 2020 with a receipt of USD1 billion. In its tourism transformation plan, Malaysia introduces several interconnected themes such as affordable luxury, family fun, events, business tourism and nature adventure especially to attract international tourists from the East Asian region. The current top tourist arrivals are from Singapore, Indonesia and Thailand (UNWTO, 2012: 22-23). Malaysia plans to

receive 36 million tourist arrivals by the year 2020.<sup>19</sup> Top international tourists visiting Malaysia in 2010 came from ASEAN (18,826, 276 tourists, 76.6%), China (1,130,261 tourists, 4.6%), India (690,849 tourists, 2.8%), Australia (580,695 tourists, 2.4%), UK (429,965 tourists, 1.7%), Japan (415,881 tourists, 1.7%) and South Korea (264,052 tourists, 1.1%).<sup>20</sup>

### **2.2.6. Myanmar**

Myanmar, after opening up and political reform in 2011, has great potential to attract both investors and tourists. Economic growth in 2011 was at 5.5%, stemming from investment in hydropower, natural gas, and oil. Agriculture remained subdued owing to flooding and currency appreciation, which affects exports. International tourist arrivals rose by 26% after the national elections in November 2010 and the political and economic reforms (ADB, 2012: 206). In 2011, there were 391,000 international tourists visiting Myanmar, an increase of 26% as compared with 2010. The top ten sources of international tourists visiting Myanmar in 2010 were Thailand (59,692 tourists, 19.2%), China (46,141 tourists, 14.9%), South Korea (18,930 tourists, 6.1%), US (16,504 tourists, 5.3%), Japan (16,186 tourists, 5.2%), Malaysia (16,186 tourists, 5.2%), Taiwan (14,170 tourists, 4.6%), France (13,143 tourists, 4.2%), Singapore (12,114 tourists, 3.9%) and Germany (11,082 tourists, 3.6%).<sup>21</sup>

The outcomes of the Travel Leaders' Symposium on Myanmar's Tourism, held on 27 November 2011, noted that tourism was a priority sector for promoting broad-based national socioeconomic development. The tourism development policy focuses on maintaining cultural diversity and authenticity, conservation and enhancement of the environment, quality of products and services, ensuring health, safety and security of tourists, institutional strengthening, human resource development and minimizing unethical practice.<sup>22</sup> The President of the Union of Myanmar, U Thein Sein, stated during the meeting with UNWTO Secretary-General Taleb Rifai in May 2012 that

---

<sup>19</sup> 'Malaysia aims 36 million tourist arrivals by 2020', *News Straits Times*, 19 September 2012, <http://www.nst.com.my/latest/malaysia-aims-36-million-tourist-arrivals-by-2020-1.145762>, accessed on 10 November 2012.

<sup>20</sup> ASEAN-Japan Center, <http://www.asean.or.jp/en/>, accessed 12 December 2012.

<sup>21</sup> ASEAN-Japan Center, <http://www.asean.or.jp/en/>, accessed 12 December 2012.

<sup>22</sup> Mekong Tourism Forum 2012, <http://mekongtourismforum.org/site/download/>, accessed on 20 December 2012.

‘Tourism is a major sector of the economy not only for Myanmar but also for all countries around the world. It brings benefits to the country, boosts its economy and creates employment opportunities...tourism should be considered a “smokeless industry” and one that “boosts growth, creates job opportunities, conservers the environment and helps to maintain traditional arts and crafts”’.<sup>23</sup>

Strategic directions for the development of tourism include: implementing the policies and guidelines of the government in a timely manner; developing and encouraging national and international investment opportunities; strengthening collaboration among the public sector, private sector and ordinary citizens; cooperating with regional organizations and neighboring countries in tourism development such as marketing and promotion, human resource development, connectivity programs, infrastructure development, facilitation of travel and product development; promoting the country’s image and profile at international and regional tourism fairs, shows and exhibitions; organizing domestic tourism events to attract more international tourists; developing tourism professionals; focusing on quality tourism and minimizing the negative impacts of tourism; improving tourism infrastructure such as accommodations and transportation; strengthening safety and security for tourists; and upgrading and diversifying tourist destinations and attractions.<sup>24</sup> Moreover, Kyi Thein Ko, Secretary General of Myanmar Tourism Federation (MTF), and MTF Senior Tourism Advisor Daw Kyi Kyi Aye stressed partnerships, communication among stakeholders, and human resource development (HRD). Myanmar wishes to develop international air hubs at its major destinations, expressways, better vehicles, and more overland routes to neighboring countries.<sup>25</sup>

### **2.2.7. The Philippines**

Tourism has been viewed by the government as one of the key industries for earning foreign currency and for employment generation. In 1991, the government

---

<sup>23</sup> ‘Myanmar set to rejoin UNWTO’, World Tourism Organization, 11 May 2012, <http://media.unwto.org/en/press-release/2012-05-11/myanmar-set-rejoin-unwto>, accessed on 20 December 2012.

<sup>24</sup> Ministry of Hotels & Tourism, Myanmar, <http://www.myanmar-tourism.org/>, accessed on 10 November 2012.

<sup>25</sup> ‘Myanmar unveils tourism plans’, Pacific Asia Travel Association, 16 October 2012, [www.4hoteliers.com/4hots\\_nshw.php?mwi=10529](http://www.4hoteliers.com/4hots_nshw.php?mwi=10529), accessed on 10 November 2012.

issued its Tourism Master Plan in order to optimize the economic contributions of tourism in combination with environmental sustainability. The primary objectives of the plan are optimizing the contribution of tourism to economic growth at the national and regional levels, enhancing and contributing to social cohesion and cultural preservation at the local level while developing tourism on an environmentally sustainable basis, and developing a diversity of destinations and markets to minimize exposure to major internal and external threats to tourism activity. In the 2001-2004 Mid-Term Philippine Development Plan, one chapter is devoted to the tourism industry under the theme 'Putting the Philippines on the International Tourism Map'. It aims to implement reforms that would meet the industry's development requirements, rebuild the country's image, strengthen competitiveness and further strengthen domestic tourism while protecting and preserving the environment, its sociocultural heritage, and the welfare and rights of women and children (Rodolfo, 2005: 23).

The Tourism Management Plan was developed to provide a comprehensive planning framework for the development of tourism so that it can play a key role in the development of the regional economy; elaborate a vision of the future direction and content of tourism development, which can help to focus and guide the actions of the various stakeholders towards a shared goal; identify areas for tourism development, related tourism facilities and supporting infrastructure; and specify the major programs, roles and responsibilities of key players, institutional arrangements and resource requirements for achieving the vision.<sup>26</sup>

The Philippine Tourism Master Plan outlines policies designed to promote sustainable tourism, which include promoting sustainable tourism products; developing a spread of complimentary tourism products; maximizing the use of local resources; maximizing local ownership, livelihood opportunities, individual initiative, and self-reliance; encouraging domestic tourism as a means to improve the people's quality of life, conserve and promote national heritage, and heighten their sense of national identity and unity; promoting environmental conservation; and developing human resources (Cruz, 2005: 87). Philippines President Benigno Aquino III placed emphasis on infrastructure development and air connectivity. The Pocket Open Skies Policy is

---

<sup>26</sup> Ministry of Tourism of the Philippines, <http://www.tourism.gov.ph/SitePages/tourismpolicy.aspx>, accessed on 10 November 2012.

implemented in order to ease restrictions on foreign airlines and open up the country to more foreign visitors.<sup>27</sup>

To achieve the projected growth in tourist numbers and expenditures over the next decade, the government's strategy is moving towards an investment-driven approach.<sup>28</sup> Anchored on the development of highly competitive but environmentally and socially responsible tourism that promotes inclusive growth, the tourism sector was projected to achieve 16% growth in visitor arrivals, which would generate USD27 billion in tourism revenues in 2012 and create 400,000 new employment opportunities, especially in the rural areas.<sup>29</sup>

The Philippines received four million international tourists in 2011 with receipts of over USD3 billion, accounting for more than 25% of the country's exports of services. The sector accounted for about 9% of GDP. In 2010, the top sources of tourist arrivals in the Philippines were ASEAN (18,826,276 tourists, 76.6%), China (1,130,261 tourists, 4.6%), India (690,849 tourists, 2.8%), Australia (580,695 tourists, 2.4%), UK (429,965 tourists, 1.7%), Japan (415,881 tourists, 1.7%) and South Korea (264,052 tourists, 1.1%).<sup>30</sup>

### **2.2.8. Singapore**

Although Singapore is a small city-state in Southeast Asia, it has attracted a relatively large number of international tourists. Tourism receipts have almost doubled from USD 12.6 billion in 2009 to USD22.2 billion in 2011. It is projected that the number of tourist arrivals will be between 13.5 and 14.5 million persons in 2012. It is also projected that tourism receipts will reach USD23 to 24 billion in 2012, an increase of up to 8% from 2011. In 2010, the key sources of tourist arrivals came from ASEAN (4,819,751 tourists, 41.4%), China (1,171,337 tourists, 10.1%), Australia (880,486 tourists, 7.6%), India (828,903 tourists, 7.1%), Japan (528,817 tourists, 4.5%), UK

---

<sup>27</sup> 'President Aquino of the Philippines rallies support for tourism, joins UNWTO/WTTC campaign', World Tourism Organization (2012), <http://media.unwto.org/en/press-release/2012-03-01/president-aquino-philippines-rallies-support-joins-unwtowtcc-campai>, accessed on 20 December 2012.

<sup>28</sup> Ministry of Tourism of the Philippines, <http://www.tourism.gov.ph/SitePages/tourismpolicy.aspx>, accessed on 10 November 2012.

<sup>29</sup> Department of Tourism Year-end Report 2011 for the Philippines, <http://www.tourism.gov.ph/SitePages/PublicationsDownloads.aspx>, accessed on 10 November 2012.

<sup>30</sup> ASEAN-Japan Center, <http://www.asean.or.jp/en/>, accessed on 12 December 2012.

(461,714 tourists, 4%), US (416,990 tourists, 3.6%), Hong Kong (387,552 tourists, 3.3%) and South Korea (360,673 tourists, 3.1%).<sup>31</sup>

According to the government policy, Singapore plans to be the hub of international travel in Southeast Asia. It has a vision of being a leading economic development agency in tourism based on three principles (i.e., partnership, innovation and excellence). Tourism development and planning emphasize strong foundations in manpower, service quality and resources such as land, infrastructure and technology.<sup>32</sup> At the start of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the government introduced Tourism 21 with strategic guidelines to reflect the new global and regional tourism development trend and the emerging domestic issues. Tourism 21 recommends regionalization as one of the key tourism development strategies by emphasizing methods and means to promote Singapore as the regional tourism hub and business center. Regionalization would promote regional tourism investment, develop local enterprises and enhance stronger linkages to the region's major tourism destinations.<sup>33</sup>

### **2.2.9. Thailand**

Tourism has been one of the key industries in Thailand since the Second World War. Thailand is regarded as a mature tourist destination in Southeast Asia and a touristically developed country in the developing world. This is thanks to the variety of tourism products, services and infrastructure, promotion strategy and global image of Thailand (Cohen, 1996). Thailand's Prime Minister, Yingluck Shinawatra, recently stated 'the stand of the Thai government towards tourism is one of strong support, as evidenced by the announcement of 2012 as the Miracle Year of Amazing Thailand...in this regard, we need to focus on the needs of tourists and leave them with the best possible impression. We need to make sure that relevant infrastructure for hotels and restaurants is in place, as well as advancing in other areas such as visa facilitation'.<sup>34</sup>

The First Five-year Tourism Development Plan (1977-1981) was developed to increase foreign exchange earnings and help reduce the national deficit in the balance of

---

<sup>31</sup> ASEAN-Japan Center, <http://www.asean.or.jp/en/>, accessed on 20 December 2012.

<sup>32</sup> Singapore Tourism Board, <https://app.stb.gov.sg/asp/index.asp>, accessed on 10 November 2012.

<sup>33</sup> Singapore Tourism Board, <https://app.stb.gov.sg/asp/index.asp>, accessed on 10 November 2012.

<sup>34</sup> 'Thailand reiterates strong commitment to sustainable tourism development', World Tourism Organization (2012), <http://media.unwto.org/en/press-release/2012-05-11/thailand-reiterates-strong-commitment-sustainable-tourism-development>, accessed on 10 November 2012.

trade payments through tourism with the focus on marketing and physical development. The Second Five-year Tourism Development Plan (1982-1986) emphasized expanding the industry by intensifying promotion and marketing, supporting public investments to develop tourist destinations and encouraging private sector investments in the services businesses. The Third Five-year Tourism Development Plan (1987-1991) focused on marketing, research, advertising, promotions and public relations as well as development and conservation of tourism resources. The Fourth Five-year Plan (1992-1996) focused on the renovation, restoration and maintenance of tourism resources (Rodolfo, 2005: 37-43).

After the financial crisis in 1997, the Thai government intensified tourism development. The then Thai Prime Minister Thaksin had a vision to turn his country into 'the tourism capital of Asia', a 'medical hub', and a regional air transport hub. For instance, the construction of Suvarnabhumi Airport and upper-end luxurious establishments is part of the tourism development plan (Cohen, 2008: 4). By improving infrastructure connectivity and creating more favorable conditions for transport and communication, Thailand expects to welcome more international tourists. Transformation of Bangkok into a regional tourism hub is part of the strategic development plan of the kingdom.

In the Fifth Five-year Tourism Development Plan (1997-2001), some strategies are laid out, including reducing the volume of pollution, establishing appropriate criteria for garbage and waste management, promoting ecotourism in local communities and improving environmental protection and preservation. The Sixth Five-year Plan seeks to build on the success of the 'Amazing Thailand' marketing and promotion campaigns, develop the potential of new and emerging markets through targeted marketing strategies, encourage the diversification of the country's tourism product base, enhance Thailand's position as the tourism gateway to the GMS, foster the expansion of tourism development in rural areas, assist local administrations and provincial governments in the effective management of tourism development, encourage the conservation and presentation of Thailand's unique natural and cultural heritage, identify opportunities for future investment and employment creation, enhance industry operational standards and human resource skill levels, improve the tourism sector's information and analytical

database, and reinforce Thailand's image as a safe and friendly destination (Rodolfo, 2005: 43-46).

As the tourism industry makes up about 6.5% of the country's GDP, the Thai government has a vision to transform Thailand into the center of tourism in Asia with quality and sustainability, in order to enable a thorough income distribution to the community by focusing on the distinctive and graceful Thai culture, and to develop national sports to become one of Asia's leading nations in sports as well as a center of sports that generates income, jobs, and sports excellence and develops a sustainable quality of life in society. The government has a mission to promote, support and develop tourism and sports with effective management in order to generate national revenue, to integrate and coordinate the tasks of tourism and sports which systematically link to all sectors in order to accomplish sustainable national economic and social development, and to enhance the regional and global competitiveness of the tourism and sports industries.<sup>35</sup>

In 2011, tourism supported 4.4 million jobs, which is over 11% of total employment and also contributed THB1,735.5 billion to the economy, which accounted for 16.3% of GDP. Top sources of tourist arrivals in Thailand in 2010 were ASEAN (4,534,235 tourists, 28.5%), China (1,122,219 tourists, 7%), Japan (993,674 tourists, 6.2%), UK (810,727 tourists, 5.1%), South Korea (805,445 tourists, 5.1%) and India (760,371 tourists, 4.8%).<sup>36</sup>

#### **2.2.10. Vietnam**

After the opening up and *Doi Moi*<sup>37</sup> policy in the mid-1980s, the tourism industry in Vietnam has grown remarkably. The total international arrivals in 2011 reached 6,014,032, representing a 19.1% growth over 2010 (Ministry of Tourism of Vietnam). Top tourist arrivals in 2010 came from ASEAN (1,017,540 tourists, 20.1%),

---

<sup>35</sup> Ministry of Tourism and Sports of Thailand, <http://www.mots.go.th/main.php?filename=index> EN, accessed on 10 November 2012.

<sup>36</sup> ASEAN-Japan Center, <http://www.asean.or.jp/en/>, accessed on 12 December 2012.

<sup>37</sup> *Doi moi* refers to the economic renovation or reform policy. It has been successful in transforming Vietnam from a stagnant, unstable, centrally planned Soviet-style economy to a dynamic and quickly growing market-oriented economy grounded in a socialist society.

China (905,360 tourists, 17.9%), South Korea (495,902 tourists, 9.8%), Japan (442,089 tourists, 8.8%) and US (430,993 tourists, 8.5%).<sup>38</sup>

The tourism industry contributed 4.3% of the GDP and provided 3.7% of all jobs in 2011. Vietnamese Vice-President Nguyen Thi Doan stated, ‘The tourism sector has been a major factor in job creation, economic development and poverty alleviation in Vietnam, leaving no-doubt that tourism has played a crucial role in our country’s overall socioeconomic development’.<sup>39</sup>

Vietnam focuses on maintaining social and political stability, thereby providing favorable conditions for investment in tourism, tourism products development and tourism service improvement. In addition, it places emphasis on human resources development by training professionally qualified personnel to meet the requirements of the industry for pursuing regional and global tourism, generate employment and develop human resources based on touristic development trends (Vu Duc Minh, 2003:33). The head of the Vietnam National Administration of Tourism, Nguyen Van Tuan, stated, ‘We will keep improving the quality of the tourism environment and services. Promotion programs will be launched inside and outside the country. Socioeconomic efficiency is the ultimate target, and enterprises provide impetus for sustainable development. Building tourism products and promoting trademarks are breakthrough factors...’<sup>40</sup>

The development strategy for Vietnam Tourism to 2020, with a vision to 2030, states that tourism is one of the key economic sectors contributing to economic growth, so it is necessary to increase the proportion of tourism in the GDP. The strategy sets forth strategic guidelines for developing tourism in a focused, modern and sophisticated manner, toward high competitiveness while ensuring sustainability, preserving and upholding the values of culture, landscapes and environment, enhancing both inbound

---

<sup>38</sup> ASEAN-Japan Center, <http://www.asean.or.jp/en/>, accessed on 10 November 2012.

<sup>39</sup> ‘Tourism plays major role in Vietnam’s socioeconomic development says Vice-President’, World Tourism Organization (2012), <http://media.unwto.org/en/press-release/2012-05-02/tourism-plays-major-role-vietnam-s-socio-economic-development-says-vice-pre>, accessed on 23 December 2012.

<sup>40</sup> Indochina Pioneer, <http://www.indochinapioneer.com/blog/vietnam-tourism-news-udates/vietnams-new-tourism-strategy-until-2020.html> , accessed on 20 December 2012.

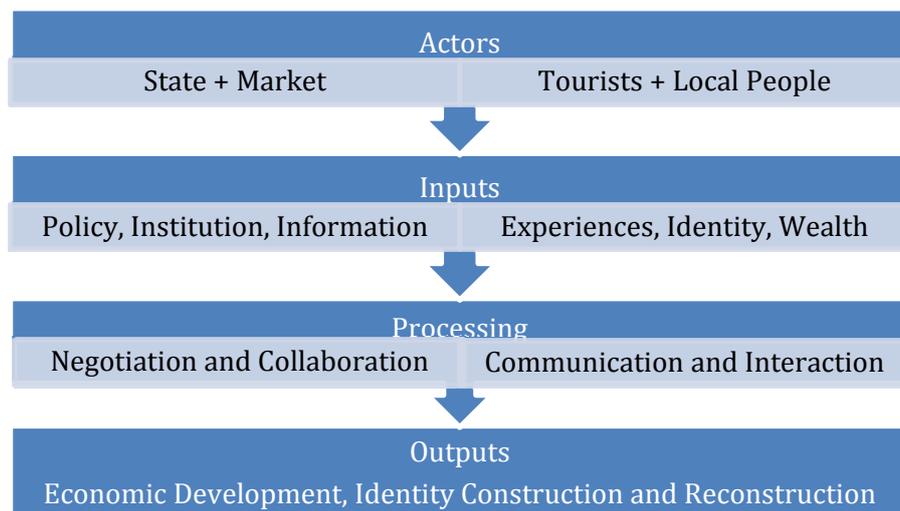
and outbound tourism, strengthening socialization to mobilize internal and external resources, and taking full advantage of specific potentials of different regions.<sup>41</sup>

### **Conclusion**

Tourism development in Southeast Asia has been progressing remarkably over the last decade, displaying a strong and positive trend. Tourism is generally regarded as one of the key driving forces of national and regional economic development. Although different countries have different approaches and policies towards tourism development, they adopt the common theme that tourism needs to be managed in an effective and sustainable manner. The governments are active in promoting and developing tourism in response to national, regional and global tourism dynamism.

The key actors in tourism development are the state, market, tourists and local people. The interactions among these actors create both public and social institutions together with market mechanisms. Through the process of negotiation, cooperation and communication between different actors and institutions, economic development and identity construction is generated (see Figure 2).

**Figure 2: Tourism Structure in Southeast Asia**



<sup>41</sup> Vietnam Administration of Tourism, <http://www.vietnamtourism.gov.vn/english/index.php?cat=0105&itemid=5482>, accessed on 12 December 2012.

## CHAPTER 3

### REGIONAL COOPERATION AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

#### *Introduction*

This chapter examines the linkages between regional cooperation and tourism development with a focus on ASEAN cooperation frameworks and sub-regional cooperation mechanisms such as the Singapore-Johor-Riau (SIJORI) Triangle, BIMP-East ASEAN Growth Area Cooperation, Cambodia-Lao PDR-Vietnam Growth Triangle, Cambodia-Lao PDR-Thailand Triangle, Indonesia-Malaysia-Thailand Growth Triangle, Cambodia-Lao PDR-Thailand-Myanmar Growth Quadrangle, China-Lao PDR-Thailand-Myanmar Growth Quadrangle, CLMV Tourism Cooperation and the Greater Mekong Sub-region.

#### *3.1. Regional Tourism Cooperation*

Cross-border cooperation can promote tourist destinations and travel corridors with complementary locations. It can attract more tourist arrivals to such connected and diverse destinations. Infrastructure facilities such as airports, roads and railways can be shared. Moreover, tourist congestion in one location can be dispersed and spread to other places in order to avoid such congestion, and the economic benefits generated from tourism can be spread as well (Grundy-Warr and Perry, 2001).

International cooperation in tourism planning and development has been recognized as a means towards sustainable and inclusive tourism. Although there are some existing constraints in cross-border cooperation given that different countries have different development priorities particularly in transport and visa policy, cooperative efforts in regional tourism planning are instrumental to maximizing tourism profits (Timothy, 2000). It is clear that ‘well-founded policies of tourism planning in a regional framework will encourage development and offer more social and economic benefits to the population in the regions concerned’ (Nuryanti, 2001: 310).

Several cases have shown that different regions have promoted a link between regional cooperation and tourism development. For instance, in Central America, the tourism-regionalism nexus has been developed as an incremental part of economic

integration and confidence-building measures. It is argued that tourism has emerged as a primary development strategy for Central American countries. At the same time, tourism has become a driving force for the regional political-economic integration project, facilitating consensus between governments over the regional developmental model and mechanism (Ferguson, 2010: 1). In addition, foreign direct investment in tourism, inter-governmental initiatives and regional collaboration are the key constitutive elements of tourism interconnectedness. The questions of how the interconnections are generated, how states play one against the other, and how states cooperate determine the role of tourism in changing the social and economic landscape in Southeast Asia (Teo *et al.*, 2001: 1-10).

In the context of Southeast Asia, tourism is one of the major sources of foreign exchange earnings and employment. It is necessary to strengthen regional cooperation on tourism such as technical cooperation in international tourism marketing, cooperation in tourism publicity and other marketing efforts, tourism manpower development, and cooperative tourism investment and finance. More specifically, this requires both supportive and preventive measures. For the supportive measures, there should be an ASEAN single visa, regional security and safety for tourists, multi-modal transport connections and facilitation, and tourist destination specialization and connection. For the preventive measures, regional cooperation needs to emphasize pro-poor tourism development, preservation of local culture and environment and control of the spread of infectious diseases (Apichai Puntasen, 1988: 38-44).

In the early 1990s, there were several attempts to strengthen regional cooperation on tourism; for instance, in 1992 there was a Visit ASEAN Year campaign, but it failed to deliver results due to the Gulf War. In late 1995, the ASEAN Subcommittee on Tourism was terminated due to the lack of resources. A subsequent effort to establish an ASEAN Tourism Association (ASEANTA) also faced challenges because Malaysia refused to be part of it. In late 1990s, ASEAN tourism ministries successfully came up with a plan to set up a basic framework for cooperation in several areas including marketing, training, research and information dissemination, facilitation of intra-ASEAN travel, transport and human movement, enhanced public-private sector collaboration, and coordination of tourism policies and programs. The framework

specifically addressed the need to develop human resources and promote sustainable tourism development (Chaipan, 1998: 40).

The dynamic of regional integration in East Asia and the Pacific has had a positive impact on tourism growth in the region, for instance, in the case of Indonesia (Wall, 1998). The increasing level of trans-boundary intergovernmental cooperation in tourism planning and development allows Southeast Asia to receive increasing number of international visitors especially from the region. Such development considerably contributes to building trust and confidence among the regional leaders in promoting other fields of cooperation (Timothy, 2000). Several tourism development triangles have been established to connect tourism products and tourist destinations in the region such as SIJORI (Singapore, Johor, and Riau) between Indonesia, Malaysia and Singapore, the Indonesia-Malaysia-Thailand growth triangle, Cambodia-Laos-Vietnam triangle and Cambodia-Laos-Thailand triangle.

Infrastructure connectivity plays a critical role in developing the tourism industry. Singapore and Thailand are the leading countries in connecting regional tourism by investing in big infrastructure projects especially airports and road connections with neighboring countries. There is a positive correlation between infrastructure development and tourism development. It is argued that ‘the future prospects for further growth in tourism will be contingent upon regional cooperation to assist in the greater integration and development of transport modes upon which the region’s tourism industry relies’ (Page, 2000: 74). It is therefore necessary for the government and private sectors to invest in linking regional infrastructure to promote the tourism industry to realize a vision to create Southeast Asia as a single destination for international tourists. Such tourism-oriented infrastructure development also plays a significant role in promoting trade in goods and services in the region as well.

### ***3.2. ASEAN Cooperation Framework***

Tourism is regarded as one of the sources of income and employment generation in all countries in Southeast Asia. Studies have shown the dynamic impacts of the tourism industry in different sectors of the economy, politics, society and environment in the dynamic emerging economies of Southeast Asia. The recent wave of regionalization, together with the speed of tourism development, has shaped the

regional economic, political and social landscape largely. Tourism has played a significant role in connecting the people in the region and narrowing the regional development gap through the flow of tourists and income generation for the local community. In addition, the receipts and revenues generated from the tourism industry can partially compensate for the loss of revenues coming from tariffs due to the implementation of trade liberalization in the context of regional economic integration.

Tourism is part of the regional integration process in Southeast Asia. Tourism attracts political will to strengthen regional cooperation and the maintenance of peace, security and safety for the international visitors. Regional states have played significant role in connecting tourism with identity building and economic growth. It is argued that “tourism is an important component of the new reality of a globalized world and an increasingly interconnected Southeast Asia”. (Hall, 2001: 24).

In 1992, for the first time in ASEAN history, a Visit ASEAN Year was promoted to mark the 25<sup>th</sup> anniversary of the founding of ASEAN. Ten years after the first Visit ASEAN Year campaign, the ASEAN leaders signed the ASEAN Tourism Agreement in Phnom Penh at the eighth ASEAN Summit in November 2002. The objectives of the agreement are to (1) facilitate travel into and within ASEAN, (2) enhance cooperation in the tourism industry to improve its efficiency and competitiveness, (3) substantially reduce restrictions to trade in tourism and travel services among ASEAN member countries, (4) establish an integrated network of tourism and travel services in order to maximize the complementary nature of the region’s tourist attractions, (5) promote ASEAN as a single tourism destination with world-class standards, facilities and attractions, (6) enhance mutual assistance in human resource development and training in the tourism sector, and (7) create favorable conditions for the public and private sectors to engage more deeply in tourism development, intra-ASEAN travel and investment in tourism services and facilities.

In the Master Plan of ASEAN Connectivity adopted in Hanoi in 2010, there are three main pillars of ASEAN connectivity: national and regional physical linkages, regional institutional harmonization and standardization, and people-to-people relationships. The tourism industry is a crosscutting sector relating to all three pillars of connectivity. Measures to facilitate the movement of people including tourists and migrant workers are integrated as part of the regional integration mechanism.

ASEAN is trying to promote a single tourist destination for the whole Southeast Asian region. It strongly encourages investments in tourism, strengthens human resources development, ensures sustainable tourism, and facilitates intra-ASEAN travel. In the Vientiane declaration on enhancing ASEAN tourism cooperation by the ASEAN tourism ministers in 2004, it emphasized on visa exemption to increase tourist travel in ASEAN, advancing integration of tourism through the development of an ASEAN tourism vision and roadmap, assisting new members towards integrated ASEAN tourism through provision of technical assistance, capacity building, human resources development, promotion of investment, and protection of the environment and cultural heritage. It also urged regional efforts in ensuring coherence of policies and initiatives related to tourism development and to adopt appropriate measures to prevent all threats to tourism, encouraged partnership with the private sector in advancing tourism development in ASEAN, and requested the ASEAN Secretariat to be the main coordinator for the implementation of tourism cooperation programs and initiatives.

Acknowledging the increasing importance of tourism as an economic engine and a tool for development and change in the region, the ASEAN Tourism Strategic Plan (ATSP) 2011-2015 was endorsed by the ASEAN Tourism Ministers at their 14th Meeting. ATSP is the continued action plan of the Roadmap for Integration of Tourism Sector (RITS) which was completed in 2010. ATSP was initiated to achieve the overall goals of the ASEAN Community by 2015 through promotion of growth, integration and competitiveness of the tourism sector. It also aims to deepen social and cultural understanding through the promotion of intra-regional tourism. The ATSP provides a balanced set of actions and activities to realize the following vision:

By 2015, ASEAN will provide an increasing number of visitors to the region with authentic and diverse products, enhanced connectivity, a safe and secure environment, and increased quality of services, while at the same time ensuring an increased quality of life and opportunities for residents through responsible and sustainable tourism development by working effectively with a wide range of stakeholders.

Moreover, the concept rationale of Asia's ten perfect paradises was adopted to promote diverse but integrated tourism products from the ten member states of ASEAN. Furthermore, ASEAN adopted a Mutual Recognition Agreement (MRA) on tourism professionals that will increase the equality of tourism human resources and will

facilitate the mobility of tourism professionals within the region using the ASEAN Minimum Competency Standards for Tourism as the basis. In further enhancing ASEAN as a world-class tourism destination, the ASEAN member states also adopted the standardization of tourism services covering green hotels, food and beverage services, public restrooms, home stays, ecotourism, and heritage tourism. The ASEAN Green Hotel Award was presented in 2008 and 2010 to provide recognition to hotels that fulfilled the ASEAN Green Hotel Standards.

Expanding tourism cooperation with the Plus Three countries (China, Japan and Korea) is necessary for developing East Asian intra-regional tourism and community building. In the chairman's statement at the ASEAN Plus Three (APT) in November 2012, the leaders stated: 'we look forward to the signing of the Memorandum of Cooperation on ASEAN Plus Three Tourism Cooperation, which will be one of the key instruments for strengthening good relationships and cooperation in the tourism industry between ASEAN and the Plus Three countries.

ASEAN as a regional institution has played important role in forging and fostering regional cooperation on tourism. Tourism policy coordination and harmonization reflect the strong political will of the state actors in institutionalizing tourism cooperation in order to achieve common interests and objectives of realizing an ASEAN community by 2015.

### ***3.3. Sub-regional Cooperation Framework***

Sub-regional cooperation and integration mechanisms and frameworks play a significant and complimentary role in Southeast Asian regional integration and community building in general and in tourism cooperation and development in particular. Since the early 1990s, there have been a number of initiatives to establish a sub-regional cooperation framework, such as growth triangles and quadrangles. The concept of growth triangles, mainly driven by economic interests, has been developed and integrated to be part of the regional integration in Southeast Asia. Cross-border cooperation is necessary for strengthening tourism industries. Trans-boundary cooperation has fostered investments in the tourism industry across countries (Grundy-Warr and Perry, 2001). However, to maintain and advance the development of the

triangles, it requires strong trust and confidence and a win-win cooperation strategy (Thant, 1996).

### **3.3.1. BIMP-East ASEAN Growth Area (EAGA) Cooperation**

BIMP-EAGA was created in 1994 and involves the border regions in the four maritime ASEAN countries of Brunei Darussalam, Indonesia (the islands of Kalimantan, Sulawesi, Papua and Moluccas), Malaysia (the states of Sabah, Sarawak and Labuan), and the Philippines (the islands of Mindanao and Palawan). BIMP-EAGA promotes development through trade, investment and tourism from within and outside the sub-regions.

At the workshop on ‘Potential Development to Promote Connectivity on BIMP-EAGA’ held on March 21-22, 2012, in Brunei Darussalam, the importance was recognized of communication exchange between related parties and data collection to devise better strategies. However, more government support is needed for implementation and for policy initiatives such as a single transport document for customs, immigration, quarantine and security purposes that can be used in all transport modes.<sup>42</sup>

### **3.3.2. The Singapore-Johor-Riau (SIJORI) Triangle**

This triangle is designed and developed to promote economic cooperation, economic links, and people-to-people contact among the three countries of Indonesia, Malaysia and Singapore. At the beginning, it focused on connecting Singapore with the Riau Province in Indonesia and southern Johor in Malaysia. To optimize the complementarity between the three adjacent areas, the pact tries to strengthen and combine the management expertise, financial capital, technology and infrastructure of Singapore with the abundant labor, land and natural resources of the neighboring Johor State in Malaysia and Riau Province in Indonesia.

---

<sup>42</sup> ‘Workshop on Potential Development to Promote Connectivity on BIMP-EAGA’, Economic Research Institute for ASEAN and East Asia, 21-22 March 2012, [http://www.eria.org/press\\_releases/aseaneconomiccommunity/FY2012/03/how-to-enhance-the-connectivity-on-bimp-eaga-1.html](http://www.eria.org/press_releases/aseaneconomiccommunity/FY2012/03/how-to-enhance-the-connectivity-on-bimp-eaga-1.html), accessed 10 November 2012.

But later on, as more states from Malaysia and Indonesia joined the group, SIJORI was renamed Indonesia-Malaysia-Singapore Growth Triangle (IMS-GT). The group was formalized with the signing of a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) on 17 December 1994. Although exclusive to the participating countries, this growth triangle contributes to the benefit of the ASEAN region as a whole, and it is inclusive and open to the participating countries that enter into other forms of economic cooperation. Tourism is one of the key areas of the joint triangle development policy and cooperation framework.

### **3.3.3. The Indonesia-Malaysia-Thailand Growth Triangle (IMT-GT)**

The Indonesia-Malaysia-Thailand Growth Triangle (IMT-GT) is a sub-regional cooperation initiative formed in 1993 by the governments of Indonesia, Malaysia and Thailand to accelerate economic transformation in less-developed provinces. Concerning tourism development, they commit to increase the number of tourist arrivals, enhance tourism products in each of the sub-regions, facilitate the full exploitation of the unique tourism products, promote tourism projects in an integrated manner with infrastructure development plans and improve tour packaging potential among the sub-regions (Knight, 1996).

Since its formation, the IMT-GT has grown in geographic scope and activities. It is now composed of 14 provinces in southern Thailand, 8 states of Peninsular Malaysia, and the 10 provinces of Sumatra in Indonesia. In its development roadmap for 2007-2011, it had a vision to realize a seamless, progressive, prosperous and peaceful sub-region with a better quality of life for the local people. The six areas of cooperation in the IMT-GT roadmap are infrastructure and transportation, trade and investment, tourism, Halal products and services, human resource development, and agriculture, agro-based industry and the environment. In the joint statement of the 6<sup>th</sup> Summit of IMT-GT in April 2012 in Phnom Penh, the leaders reaffirmed their commitment to pursue the vision set forth in the roadmap. They believe that sub-regional integration contributes to achieving the common aspiration of an ASEAN Economic Community and the realization of ASEAN as a region of equitable economic development. Practical cooperation and implementation of the road map was highlighted.

### **3.3.4. Cambodia-Lao PDR-Vietnam (CLV) Growth Triangle**

This triangle was proposed by Cambodia in 1999 and was officially announced in the same year at the First CLV Summit in Vientiane, Lao PDR. The objectives of the triangle are to enhance cooperation for development and poverty reduction along the border area of the three countries while maintaining stability and security there. It is considered one of the primary priority tasks in the development cooperation among the thirteen provinces located at the border area of the three countries.<sup>43</sup> At the Sixth Summit held in Phnom Penh, Cambodia, in 2010, the action plans for development were issued, focusing on the six areas of transport, trade and investment, energy, agriculture, tourism, and environment. Regarding tourism cooperation, the three countries agreed to share information relating to tourism products, strengthen joint tourism promotion and investment, encourage intra sub-regional tourism, develop human resources, and connect tourism products and destinations under the framework of ‘Three Countries One Destination’.

### **3.3.5. Cambodia-Lao PDR-Thailand (CLT) Triangle**

This triangle was launched in 2003 with the focus on tourism cooperation and development. The three countries agreed to promote cross-border facilitation of tourism and to ease travel into and within the three countries through border checkpoints, to develop and promote tourism attractions in the Emerald Triangle area, and to enhance cooperation between public and private sectors of member countries, especially at the local level.

In order to promote tourism development, international border checkpoints need to be simplified. Local authorities are trying to explore the feasibility of creating ‘One Stop Service’ at the designated international border checkpoints in the triangle in order to provide high-quality services and remove barriers and lengthy immigration procedures that constrain the flow of tourists traveling between the three countries. They also cooperate in human resource development activities by sharing resources, skills, training facilities and tourism professionals and experts.

---

<sup>43</sup> Currently, there are 13 provinces included in the GT. Cambodia: Strung Treng, Ratanakiri, Modul Kiri and Kratie; Laos: Sekong, Attapeu, Saravan and Champasak; and Vietnam: Kon Tum, Gia Lai, Dak Lak, Dak Nong and Binh Phuoc. These provinces have a total area of 143,900 square kilometers and a population of about 6.8 million.

### **3.3.6. The Growth Quadrangle (China, Lao PDR, Thailand, and Myanmar)**

This quadrangle consists of Yunan Province in China and the countries of Laos, Thailand and Myanmar with the objective of formalizing and developing existing cross-border trade, tourism and transport links among these countries. Historical, geographical, ethnological and cultural proximities drive this sub-region closer together in terms of political and economic cooperation. Border cooperation has increased the flows of goods, services, capital and people in the sub-region, which in turn create a favorable political climate for further cooperation (Mya Than, 1996: 205-245).

### **3.3.7. Ayeyawady-Chao Phraya-Mekong Economic Cooperation Strategy (ACMECS)**

ACMECS was launched in 2003 with the participation of Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar and Thailand. In 2004, Vietnam joined the group. The main objective is to transform the border areas of the five countries into zones of economic growth, social progress and prosperity, and to blend local, national and regional interests for common benefits, shared prosperity, enhanced solidarity, peace, stability and good neighborliness. The areas of cooperation include trade and investment facilitation, agricultural and industrial cooperation, transport linkages, human resources development and tourism cooperation. Tourism is highlighted for the purpose of promoting and advertising a common tourism market in the region with a 'Five Countries, One Tourism Destination' strategy. Flight connections, infrastructure linkages, and a single visa are priorities.<sup>44</sup> Cambodia and Thailand were the first countries to implement the single visa agreement on 26 December 2012. Since 27 December 2012, tourists can apply for a visa from either the Cambodian or the Thai embassies.

### **3.3.8. CLMV Tourism Cooperation**

CLMV countries (Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar and Vietnam) are the least developed countries in ASEAN. The tourism industries in these four countries contribute significantly to poverty reduction and economic development. In 2011, there were over 12.3 million international tourists visiting the four countries, in which the

---

<sup>44</sup> 'Tackling Tourism Issue', *Phnom Penh Post*, 24 August 2012.

exchange of visitors among the four countries accounted for 2.1 million, or 17% of the total number of tourists. At the recent Tourism Ministerial Meeting in September 2012, the ministers set up policy guidelines for tourism cooperation in order to reach the target of receiving 25 million international visitors by 2015. The four ministers signed the CLMV Tourism Joint Cooperation Plan for 2013-15 which focuses on information exchange on tourism planning and marketing, cooperation on joint tourism product development, mutual assistance on human resource development, establishment of standardization of tourism services and quality improvement, cooperation on tourism investment promotion, cooperation with third-party international organizations, and the holding of annual tourism ministerial meetings.

### **3.3.9. Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS)**

The Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS) cooperation framework comprises Cambodia, China, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Thailand and Vietnam. In 1992, with the ADB's assistance, the six countries entered into a program of sub-regional economic cooperation designed to enhance economic relations among the countries. The program has contributed to the development of infrastructure to enable the development and sharing of the resource base and to promote the freer flow of goods and people in the sub-region. It has also led to the international recognition of the sub-region as a growth area.

Since the early 1990s, the governments of the Greater Mekong Sub-region have increasingly cooperated in various sectors to develop their social and economic infrastructure with support from international and national organizations, especially the Asia Development Bank and UNESCO. Thailand is the hub of regional tourism development has been very active in promoting regional tourism cooperation (Tirastayapitak and Laws, 2003).

Tourism is a dynamic sector in the Greater Mekong Sub-region and continues to be an important component of the overall GMS Economic Cooperation Program. Over the years and despite the recent global economic slowdown, the tourism industry has remained resilient and continues to serve as a driving force for poverty reduction by creating jobs, generating foreign exchange revenues and enhancing the economic value

of natural and cultural heritage assets. It has served as an instrument for empowering local communities through community-based tourism and livelihood activities and for promoting gender equality by linking women to the tourism economy through direct and indirect employment opportunities.<sup>45</sup>

Tourism development in the Greater Mekong Sub-region has experienced quite remarkable growth in the last year due to the rich of cultural and natural resources of this region that attract international tourists. However, the concept of a single tourist destination is not yet fully developed due to the fact that infrastructure connectivity and integrated tourism development and marketing strategy are not truly developed. Investment in the tourism sector so far has focused on transportation networks and commercial development rather than harmonization and integration of social, environmental, cultural and ethical dimensions. The social and environmental impact assessment of tourism is still limited (Tirastayapitak and Laws, 2003).

In 2001, the leaders from the region adopted a strategy to strengthen regional cooperation in cross-border trade, investment, tourism, and human resource development. In the same year, four GMS countries, Cambodia, Lao PDR, and Vietnam signed a landmark cross-border agreement to facilitate the flow of people and goods. The agreement aims to simplify and harmonize legislation, regulations and procedures relating to cross-border transport to facilitate speedy joint inspections. Looking at the priority tourism connecting nodes in the region, there are eleven border checkpoints where tourist flows and tourism development can be facilitated.<sup>46</sup>

Tourism development cannot be detached from regional cooperation. At the Mekong Tourism Forum in Siem Reap in 2010, Mr. Kuosuom Saroeth, Secretary of State, Ministry of Tourism of Cambodia, said, ‘the Mekong Tourism Forum represents an inclusive, cooperative effort to encourage both public and private sector participation to represent the GMS as a single destination. We hope to expand our marketing

---

<sup>45</sup> ‘Tourism, Dynamic Area in Economic Sector’, *The Sunday Leader News* (September, 2012), <http://www.thesundayleader.lk/2012/09/23/tourism-dynamic-area-in-economic-sector/>, accessed on 10 November 2012.

<sup>46</sup> Bavet/Mok Bai on the Cambodia/Vietnam border; Sapa on the Vietnam/Yunnan border; Mengla/Mohan on the Laos/Yunnan border; Wanding/Ruili/Kyugok/Muse on the Myanmar/Yunnan border; Tachchilek/Mae Soi/Chiang Kong on the Laos/Thai border; Nong Khai on the Laos/Thai border; Mayawadi/Mae Sot on the Myanmar/Thailand border; Lao Bao on the Vietnam/Laos border; and Savannakhet on the Laos/Thailand border.

networks, promote the GMS, and its stakeholders, and pool our collective resources to create synergy between the six countries of the region'.<sup>47</sup>

The significant role of tourism in socioeconomic development and the political willingness to promote such an industry encourage other sectors to develop in order to serve tourism. Tourism is moving from the national to the regional level in terms of planning, development and management. It is part of the regional cooperation and integration process especially in the Greater Mekong Sub-region. Such regional tourism development becomes part of the overall regional development in which the public and private sectors work together to facilitate the movement of tourists, goods and services.

As a result of 20 years of cooperation in the Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS), international tourist arrivals have grown to 30 million each year, which generates significant economic and social benefits. The tourism sector contributes over USD30 billion in annual receipts to the GDP annually and is directly involved in the reduction of poverty through the creation of employment in the form of more than 6 million jobs, many of which are taken up by women, youth and ethnic minorities.<sup>48</sup>

According to the Mekong Tourism Coordinating Office, there are several cooperation areas: human resources development, heritage management, pro-poor tourism, private sector collaboration, cross-border facilitation and infrastructure connectivity. To promote human resource development, initiatives include a human resource development program for public officials,<sup>49</sup> hospitality skills capacity-building for trainers in vocational institutions and academic institutions,<sup>50</sup> and qualifications upgrades for scholars and researchers in academic institutions offering tourism and hospitality management degree programs.<sup>51</sup> Concerning heritage management, there are

---

<sup>47</sup> Mekong Tourism Forum, 2010, <http://mekongtourismforum.org/site/2010/05/mekong-tourism-forum-opens-in-cambodia/>, accessed on 10 November 2012.

<sup>48</sup> Mekong tourism forum, 2012, <http://mekongtourismforum.org/site/programme-2011/forum-overview/>, accessed on 20 December 2012.

<sup>49</sup> The main objectives are to build up a 5-10 year countrywide HRD plan within the NTOs to develop a corps of public officials to become GMS sustainable tourism specialists at the national and provincial levels, to enable cascading effects, and to actively promote gender equality.

<sup>50</sup> The main objectives are to train a corps of master hospitality skills trainers in each GMS country and ensure a cascading effect to raise the standards of service to international levels.

<sup>51</sup> The main objectives are to raise the academic standards of universities and colleges offering tourism and hospitality management courses and to update the curriculum with the new concepts of STD (sustainable tourism development).

several policies, such as upgrading tourism management at cultural heritage sites,<sup>52</sup> ecotourism development along trans-boundary biodiversity corridors,<sup>53</sup> mitigation of negative social impacts and promotion of responsible tourism practices,<sup>54</sup> preserving the soul of the ancestors through the protection of traditional living cultures<sup>55</sup> and linking the religious heritage of the region.<sup>56</sup>

With respect to pro-poor tourism, the main objectives are to use tourism as a tool to assist in reducing poverty in the areas of greatest need by broadening the current approach and mainstreaming a wider approach into all aspects of tourism planning and management concerning poverty reduction. Pro-poor tourism can include measures to reduce leakages and improve the linkages between the poor and the tourism industry, an increase in the opportunities for the poor to become involved in the industry, and a tourism tax policy to support the poor (Development Analysis Network, 2007).

To strengthen public-private partnerships, the sub-regional cooperation scheme provides private sector support and facilitation programs, encouragement of small and medium enterprise (SME) business regulatory reforms, and the introduction of measures that will improve the small enterprise investment and business environment throughout the GMS sub-region. For cross-border facilitation, upgrading of key border checkpoints is needed by improving border checkpoint facilities and services, instituting a single GMS visa pilot project in cooperation with ASEAN, and developing and maintaining

---

<sup>52</sup> The main objectives are to strengthen the capacity of heritage managers to manage tourism so that it becomes a real tool for protection, to set up a framework and course for training guides specialized in cultural heritage, and to institutionalize heritage management training at the sub-regional and national levels.

<sup>53</sup> The main objectives are to guarantee the best possible management and protection of natural heritage using tourism to create related livelihood activities for local communities and to engage them more in the conservation effort for their natural resources.

<sup>54</sup> The main objectives are to address negative social impacts (HIV/AIDS, sex exploitation), which increasingly tend to occur if not carefully controlled. It is therefore necessary to promote socially responsible tourism.

<sup>55</sup> The main objectives are to raise the levels of knowledge and awareness of, as well as to preserve and document, quickly fading cultural traditions as well as to create and implement frameworks for involving the ethnic communities in the planning, development, and organisation of ethnic tourism in their communities.

<sup>56</sup> The main objectives are to develop tourism thematic circuit-linking heritage sites, to increase knowledge about these civilizations, and to share the knowledge and experience among heritage site managers and institutions.

GMS tourism sector development data and information system facilities<sup>57</sup> and infrastructure networks.<sup>58</sup>

At the Mekong Tourism Forum in 2012, there were some suggestions regarding different aspects of regional cooperation and communication for developing tourism in the region. Firstly, it was suggested to promote information exchange and transparency by reducing restrictions on tourism-related business and investment and strengthening public-private partnerships. Secondly, it was pointed out that there is a need to further promote cross-border collaboration for innovation and creativity in tourism services and products. Thirdly, steps were encouraged to strengthen the linkage between tourism and peace and harmony in the region, with respect to gender equality and protection of human rights. Fourthly, it was suggested that there is a need to link tourism with environmental protection and conservation. Finally, under the framework of legal harmonization and tourism development, it was suggested to accelerate the implementation of single visa agreement and common standard on work permits and licenses for tourism professionals.

### ***Conclusion***

The chapter has identified a conceptual framework and practices concerning regional and sub-regional cooperation for tourism development. It shows that there are many regional and sub-regional cooperation frameworks and initiatives to promote tourism in Southeast Asia. This reflects the strong political commitment of the countries in the region in working together to jointly develop tourism in order to strengthen economic performance and regional economic integration. However, there are remaining challenges that need to be addressed, particularly the issue of fair distribution of tourism revenues.

---

<sup>57</sup> The main objectives are to refine data collection in order to demonstrate what the real impacts of tourism on key destinations are, to facilitate better planning, to choose the most profitable target markets, and to allow more equitable distribution of benefits to women and ethnic communities, poverty reduction, and mitigation of negative social impacts.

<sup>58</sup> The overall objective of all the following projects is to transform economic corridors and/or specific regional roads into touristic scenic roads favoring economic development boosted by tourism activities along these roads. For this purpose, the plan is to develop an integrated tourism development plan combining management, capacity building, infrastructure and superstructure, and socioeconomic and cultural needs. The specific objectives are to alleviate poverty, generate employment, provide infrastructure and catalyze the provision of facilities by the private sector.

After reviewing tourism development policies within the framework of regional and sub-regional cooperation, there are some issues which are not well addressed, such as sustainable tourism development, the linkage between tourism and poverty reduction, local community tourism development, and the support given to tourism-related small and medium enterprises. Ghimrie pointed out that 'regional tourism development is occurring in a haphazard manner, with little attention to managing existing socioeconomic inequalities and center-periphery relations' (Ghimrie, 2001: 99).

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **REGIONALISM-TOURISM LINKAGES**

#### ***Introduction***

After reviewing the existing literature on regionalism and tourism in Southeast Asia and examining the current tourism development policies and the current state of tourism development and regional cooperation in the first three chapters, this chapter attempts to develop a conceptual understanding of the nexus or interconnectedness between regionalism and tourism. It is divided into two sections under the themes of ‘promotion of tourism through regional cooperation’ and ‘tourism’s impact on regional community building’. An attempt is made to identify the factors that make cooperation in tourism possible. It can be said that transnational cooperation in tourism development spreads out to other sectors, supporting regional integration and community building. Both state and non-state actors have played significant roles in linking regionalism with tourism.

#### ***4.1. Regionalism Promotes Tourism***

##### **4.1.1. Political will and commitment**

Understanding the political will and its momentum involved in developing and promoting regional cooperation on certain issues is necessary in order to examine the current state of performance and future development of regional affairs. Tourism is one of the key sectoral bodies of ASEAN regional cooperation and integration. The regional leaders share a common position and have shared interests in integrating the tourism industry sector by developing and strengthening regional institutions and engaging different actors. It seems that sovereignty over the tourism resources is one of the most flexible and agreeable areas or sectors for forging consensus when it comes to regional negotiations and cooperation. The government leaders at both the local and national levels have expressed a strong political will to cooperate with neighboring countries and regions in promoting tourism cooperation particularly through joint marketing strategy, infrastructure connections, and transport facilitation.

A review of different statements made by different leaders from the region truly demonstrates that tourism cooperation is highly and widely recognized as one of the forefront areas for regional cooperation. For instance, in early 2002 at the ASEAN Tourism Forum in Indonesia, the then Indonesian President Megawati stated, ‘Tourism helps bind our region together and encourage an appreciation of each country’s unique culture. Therefore, the roles of all sectors involved in tourism become important and interdependent’<sup>59</sup>.

At the Bo'ao Forum for Asia in China in November 2002, three government representatives from Southeast Asia emphasized promotion of regional cooperation to develop tourism. Surakiat Sathirathai, the then Thai Minister of Foreign Affairs, said that Asian countries and regions should take advantage of the diversity in their natural environments and cultural heritage to cooperate in regional tourism. Myra P. Gunawan, the then Deputy Chairperson for Tourism Affairs of the Indonesia Culture and Tourism Board, emphasized the need for realizing ASEAN as a single tourist destination so as to help increase its share of the world tourism market. In addition, the then Vietnamese Deputy Prime Minister Vu Khoan encouraged regional countries to strengthen regional stability and security through cooperation in order to develop tourism in the region.<sup>60</sup>

Cambodia, a small and less developed economy in the region, has been working actively in developing its tourism industry through regional cooperation. On many occasions, the Cambodian Prime Minister Hun Sen emphasized the linking of Cambodian tourist destinations with the region in order to facilitate more tourist flow to the country (Chheang, 2009). Moreover, the Cambodian Minister of Tourism Thong Kon noted that ‘cultural tourism and ecotourism play a vital role as a means of bringing together and connecting the people from intra-ASEAN to the globe with the aim of recognizing their identity and creating a sense of belonging and consolidating unity in diversity, and furthermore, mutual assistance’.<sup>61</sup>

---

<sup>59</sup> “Megawati opens ASEAN Tourism Forum 2002”, *Arab News*, 26 January 2002

<sup>60</sup> “Asia Plans Platform for Regional Tourism Cooperation”, *China Daily*, 20 November 2002

<sup>61</sup> Ministry of Tourism of Cambodia, <http://www.tourismcambodia.org/news/index.php?view=detail&nw=76&#comp>, accessed on 1 January 2013.

Thai Prime Minister Ying Luck is also trying to develop the Thai tourism industry through the ASEAN Connectivity Master Plan. She stated ‘we’ll build up varied infrastructures as part of an ASEAN community connectivity scheme. This will link our tourist spots with their surrounding neighborhoods and areas inside of the other ASEAN member countries...we’re looking for ways and means to keep the foreign tourists going places and staying in Thailand longer than they may have planned’.<sup>62</sup> In Malaysia, the government is interested in transforming Malaysia into the regional hub of medical tourism and a regional shopping haven<sup>63</sup>. Under the motto of ‘Malaysia Truly Asia’, the Malaysian government is also trying to strengthen national unity among different ethnicities in the country and project Malaysia as a harmonious society domestically and in the region at large.

Tourism can play a significant role in connecting peoples and building a collective ASEAN identity as well. Under the theme of ‘ASEAN Tourism for a Global Community of Nations’, the ASEAN Tourism Forum in January 2012 in Indonesia stressed that ‘with the ASEAN states committed to a common regional identity, the impetus to develop tourism in all aspects becomes even more profound. ASEAN is indeed well poised to scale new heights and offer the world a truly wondrous paradise: ten diverse countries, one community of destinations’. In addition, the then ASEAN Secretary General, Surin Pitsuwan emphasized, ‘our strategy is designed to help build global recognition of Southeast Asia as a competitive, world-class tourism destination...Our focus is on drawing visitors to the region and encouraging them to visit more than one country. As each has its own unique attractions, we will capitalize on the sophisticated marketing capacity and resources of our individual national tourism organizations to spread the word’.<sup>64</sup>

Deputy Minister of Information, Culture and Tourism Mr. Chaleune Warintrasak spoke highly about the regional commitment in promoting quality tourism in the region at the recently concluded 32<sup>nd</sup> ASEAN Tourism Forum in Vientiane, Lao PDR. He stated, ‘the participants at the meetings agreed on and endorsed the Vientiane

---

<sup>62</sup> “Thailand to launch Andaman Sea tour campaign”, *Xinhua News*, 2 November 2012

<sup>63</sup> “KL truly a shopping haven”, *Asiaone*, 23 November 2012

<sup>64</sup> “ASEAN spells out its tourism priorities ahead of 2015”, *Global Travel Industry News*, 15 August 2012 <http://www.eturbonews.com/30675/asean-spells-out-its-tourism-priorities-ahead-2015>, accessed on 15 January 2013

Action Programme, aiming to develop and promote ASEAN tourism towards a new international quality, ensure sustainability and preserve the environment and safety in keeping with the slogan ‘ASEAN Hand in Hand Conquering Our Future’ and in particular to realise the ASEAN Community by the end of 2015’.<sup>65</sup>

The challenge for the regional tourism cooperation is no longer a matter of political will but the actual capacity and resources of the member states of ASEAN and the private sector in further connecting tourism infrastructure. The Indonesian Minister of Tourism Mari Elka Pangestu stated:

The main problem in promoting ASEAN as a single tourist destination is connectivity and tourism infrastructure. To attract more tourists to ASEAN, we should improve connectivity and accessibility by road, sea, air, and rail within the region. In my opinion, we should prioritise the strengthening of domestic, regional and international connectivity and the developing of tourist destinations through cooperation in infrastructure building, both soft and hard infrastructure. In order to meet infrastructure needs, joint frameworks such as public-private partnerships should be welcomed.<sup>66</sup>

#### **4.1.2. Institutional and regulatory development**

Institutions are defined as a set of rules, regulations, and guidelines that stipulate the ways in which states should cooperate and compete with each other. These rules are negotiated by states with mutual acceptance of standards of behavior defined in terms of rights and obligations (Mearsheimer, 2006: 257). Institutions fulfill a wide range of functions, from political representation to policy implementation. Institutional building is based on the acceptance of increased interdependence and the need to create a stable pillar to manage and optimize these interactions. Regional institutions are set up for the benefits of cooperation. Institutions are shaped by political, economic and sociocultural dynamics. Institutions create a new frame of action based on ‘togetherness’ and contribute to imagined social constructions (Du Rocher, 2005).

---

<sup>65</sup> Tourism forum ends, logo passed to Malaysia, *Vientiane Times*, 25 January 2013  
[http://www.vientianetimes.org.la/FreeContent/FreeContent\\_Tourism\\_forum.htm](http://www.vientianetimes.org.la/FreeContent/FreeContent_Tourism_forum.htm), accessed on 28 January 2013.

<sup>66</sup> “ASEAN Tourism Needs Better Connectivity and Infrastructure”, *ASEAN tourism press release*, 22 November 2012.

It can be argued that ‘regulatory regionalism is one of the possible trajectories of state transformation, which itself is a process associated with shifts in the global political economy...state transformation and the associated emergence of a multitude of new modes of regulatory governance — regional or otherwise — is now an inescapable part of the political landscape in Asia’ (Hameiri and Jayasuriya, 2012: 185). Nation states in Southeast Asia have adopted a transformative approach towards building a regional governance system responding to their defined needs and interests.

The development of regional institutions in Southeast Asia, although it is relatively slow, generally pushes different sectors to grow at different time and speed. State sovereignty remains one the key variables in determining which sectors can be effectively implemented. Tourism is one of the favorable sectors because tourism cooperation is not a matter of surrendering sovereignty, but it is more about joint performance and actions to achieve common interests and goals. Institutionalization of tourism cooperation can proceed well across boundaries of sovereign states without much constraint. Regional cooperation on tourism has been considerably strengthened overtime with some concrete action plans and real implementation.

The ASEAN leaders adopted the Master Plan on ASEAN Connectivity 2011-2015 in Hanoi in 2010 with the objectives of realizing an ASEAN Community by 2015 through enhanced physical infrastructure development (physical connectivity), effective institutions, mechanisms and processes (institutional connectivity) and empowered people (people-to-people connectivity). Regarding infrastructure issues, ASEAN agreed to address the challenges, which include the poor quality of roads and incomplete road networks, missing railway links and inadequate maritime and port infrastructure. One of the institutional connectivity issues is the facilitation of the movement of vehicles and the regulatory harmonization of the transport system.

ASEAN member states have implemented the 2006 ASEAN Framework Agreement for Visa Exemption of ASEAN nationals to support ASEAN integration and connection as one community. Currently, all ASEAN peoples can move freely among the ten countries without visa requirement. However, the plan to have an ASEAN common visa for non-ASEAN nationals requires more time and dialogue. It is believed

that such a visa policy will contribute to promoting ASEAN as a single tourist destination.

In the ASEAN Tourism Marketing Strategy 2012-2015, four tourism products were identified for further development and integration regionally: culture/heritage, nature, community-based tourism, and cruise/river-based tourism. The national tourism organizations of the member states of ASEAN work collectively to increase the number of international tourists travelling to Southeast Asia and visiting more than one country. Under the theme 'ASEAN for ASEAN', it focuses on intra-ASEAN tourism and human mobility.

#### **4.1.3. Sub-regional cooperation framework**

Regional integration in Southeast Asia is strongly supported by sub-regional cooperation frameworks such as growth triangles among different countries and the Mekong cooperation mechanism among the countries sharing the Mekong River. The tourism sector is one of the driving forces motivating and encouraging national and local governments to strengthen cooperation along the border areas. Such sub-regional arrangements have created favorable conditions for the trans-boundary movement of people, goods and services.

#### **4.1.4. Public-private partnerships**

Regionalism in Southeast Asia is led by the governments/states. The regional and national tourism cooperation policies are also mainly driven by the ASEAN member states. The role of the states in developing tourism industry creates a framework and favorable environment conducive to the growth and flourishing of non-state actors in joining the industry. Tourism-related private sector and non-governmental organizations have developed in the past decades in tandem with the ASEAN regional integration process and the evolving dynamic role of tourism industry in socio-economic development in the region. The ASEAN Tourism Association (ASEANTA) created in early 1970s is a non-profit tourism association comprising both public and private tourism sector organizations all over ASEAN. It plays a complementary role in shaping tourism development growth and policies in the ASEAN

region. The mission of the association is to strengthen cooperation among the member states, work towards enhancement of standards of service and facilities for tourists, improve tourism professionalism, foster friendship among the ASEAN people, promote ASEAN intra-regionalism and ASEAN tourist destinations, and provide assistance to regional governments and agencies with regards to tourism matters.

The private sector increasingly plays a significant role in developing tourism in the region. The exponential growth of air and road connectivity with the region and the world and the fast development of the airline industries have contributed to the development of the tourism industry and intra-ASEAN travel. The rapid development of budget airlines has made air travel more affordable and accessible to the travellers/tourists within the region. Investment in trans-ASEAN highways and railways will further boost transportation linkages and generate more human movement across borders. Moreover, civil society organizations especially social enterprises have been developed to link tourism with local community development, environmental protection, and social protection.

#### **4.1.5. Tourism's collective attractiveness**

Diverse historical and cultural features and landscapes are the key assets of ASEAN tourism development. Through the integration and connection of its tourism products and destinations, ASEAN can attract more tourists and expand the tourism market for both regional and extra-regional sources of tourist arrivals. The regional governments are trying to establish a collective regional tourism attractiveness or cluster of tourism attractions in order to draw more tourist inflows. This has become one of the key policies in tourism development; as Pearce correctly points out, 'Rather than go it alone, individual countries collaborate to create a more attractive single destination area than each is able to achieve on its own' (Pearce, 2001: 51).

#### **4.1.6. Infrastructure development and transport connectivity**

An integrated transport network, as the key deterritorialization factor, is vital to promote trade, investment and tourism. The growth of tourism destinations is strongly correlated with the development of infrastructure connectivity in the transnational

regions and the extended metropolitan region. ‘The evolution of gateways and hubs is increasingly being recognized as a powerful spatial entity that may influence the nature of the production system that is going to shape the regionalization of tourism patterns and activities within Southeast Asia’ (Page, 2001: 85). It is clear that the transport revolution and expansion especially through air and road connectivity, such as gateways and hubs, in the region have played a significant role in developing and expanding the tourism industry in Southeast Asia.

The ASEAN leaders have been developing a regional transport network since 1994 when the ASEAN Plan of Actions in Transport and Communications was put into action for the period of 1994-1996, followed by the Transport Action Agenda and Successor Plans of Actions 1996-1998 and 1999-2004 and the ASEAN Transport Action Plan (ATAP) 2005-2010; these cover land, air, and maritime transport and transport facilitation. From 2011 to 2015, the ASEAN Strategic Transport Plan (ASTP) was adopted to further accelerate the implementation of ATAP and the realization of an ASEAN Community by 2015.

The ASEAN Highway Network project, the Singapore-Kunming Rail Link (SKRL), the ASEAN Open Sky Policy, the ASEAN Multilateral Agreement on Air Services (MAAS), and the ASEAN Multilateral Agreement on the Full Liberalization of Passenger Air Services (MAFLPAS) are some of the concrete policies and agreements that promote the full implementation of the ASTP. To finance such transport connectivity, the ASEAN Infrastructure Fund was created with initial funds of USD500 million. Financial support from the key dialogue partners such as China, Japan and South Korea, and the regional and international financial institutions such as the Asian Development Bank, plays a significant role in financing infrastructure development projects.

#### ***4.2. Tourism Promotes Regional Community Building***

It is increasingly believed that ‘tourism is an important component of the new reality of a globalized world and an increasingly interconnected Southeast Asia. Moreover, it is indicated that tourism is not just a passive receptor of politics but that tourism influences political perspectives’ (Hall, 2001: 24). Regional interconnectedness and interactions in tourism cooperation have been taking shape in Southeast Asia

recently with a strong dynamic development trend. It is therefore necessary to have a regional approach to, and a regional analysis of, tourism (Pearce, 2001). In the context of regionalization, tourism is regarded as ‘one of the softest and arguably least controversial means of cementing regional cooperation and integration’ (Parnwell, 2001: 234). It is viewed as the political and economic magnet attracting states’ attention and efforts. For Southeast Asia, the tourism industry is regarded as one of the sectors supporting the three pillars of ASEAN Community building.

In the blueprint for the ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community (2009-2015), it states that the primary goal of the blueprint is ‘to contribute to realizing an ASEAN Community that is people-centered and socially responsible with a view to achieving enduring solidarity and unity among the nations and peoples of ASEAN by forging a common identity and building a caring and sharing society which is inclusive and harmonious, where the well-being, livelihood, and welfare of the peoples are enhanced’. In the blueprint for the ASEAN Economic Community (2009-2015), tourism is one of the four priority service sectors (the other three are air transport, e-ASEAN, and healthcare) to be liberalized and promoted. In the blueprint for the ASEAN Political-Security Community (2009-2015), one of the key elements is promotion of understanding and appreciation of the political systems, culture and history of ASEAN member states.

Looking from a broader perspective, tourism contributes to strengthening the culture of cooperation, promoting development, narrowing the development gap, building common identity, enhancing social institutions and inclusion, and promoting people contacts. These combined effects can push forward the realization of a regional community.

#### **4.2.1. Cooperative culture**

Tourism, a non-sensitive issue, has a spillover effect in which successful cooperation in one area can result in cooperation in other. Tourism can be regarded as an issue of low political sensitivity which focuses on technical and economic cooperation. It is part of the engine of the dynamic open regional system in which it contributes to maintaining and developing the structure and culture of regional

cooperation (Collins, 2012). Such dynamism contributes to the strengthening of a habit of cooperation between and among states. It is believed that cooperation and integration in the tourism sector can spread out to other related sectors such as transport, service and other connectivity projects.

Tourism contributes to the building and nurturing of cooperative relationships and win-win partnerships between and among regional countries. The practice of transferring of tourism expertise and information connections together with joint efforts in marketing strategy within the region create a push factor for other areas to follow. Tourism not only encourages and motivates governments to cooperate to promote marketing and tourism resources management but also strengthens regional cooperation and the combination of regional resources to cope with transnational issues caused by the tourism industry, such as pandemics and chronic diseases (e.g., HIV/AIDS and SARS), human trafficking, pollution and terrorism (Ritcher 2009: 144).

#### **4.2.2. Development and poverty reduction**

Governmental cooperation and regional integration in Southeast Asia after the end of the Cold War have been mainly driven by both political and economic factors and actors. Some may argue that it is a market driven economic regionalism. The role of regional cooperation and institutions is to support and advance economic development of the nation-states and the overall regional economic growth (Palmujoki 2001: 21). Cultural industry, in which tourism is part of it, is an element of economic development. Cultural diversity in Southeast Asia is the foundation of tourism development and poverty reduction. It is argued that:

Cultural diversity and cultural industries have become linked as key elements in new development strategies. This linkage comes about because the assets for developing the cultural industries are to be found within the infinitely rich — and bottomless — pool of cultural resources...Therefore, as the asset base on which to build new industries and to tackle issues of development in all communities, including the poorest, the cultural industries have immense possibilities...The challenge for governments is how to use creativity and cultural industries as a comprehensive strategy for poverty reduction and as an engine for local economic development (Otmazing and Ben-Ari, 2012: 9).

According to studies conducted by the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP), tourism already contributes substantially to foreign exchange earnings, employment and government revenue as well as direct, indirect and induced income in a number of countries in the region. It has also been found to help reduce regional economic disparities within countries, since areas suitable for tourism development are often situated far from the main centers of other economic activities. However, very importantly, a clearly defined policy towards tourism must first be in place; otherwise, adverse effects on a country's economy, society, culture and environment can be expected.<sup>67</sup>

Tourism resources and labor-intensive industries are the two main comparative advantages for the less-developed countries in ASEAN. Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, and Vietnam (CLMV) have great potential for developing the tourism industry through regional cooperation and connectivity. Tourism plays a role in reducing the development gap between rich and poor countries in the region as well since the flow of tourists is usually from the more developed to the less-developed countries. Tourism is one of the main economic sectors in these CLMV countries. For instance, at the 2011 Mekong Delta Economic Cooperation Forum in Ca Mau Province, Vietnam, tourism was regarded the second priority of the strategic planning for socioeconomic development, after investment promotion policies.

However, the key remaining issue is the link between tourism on one hand and poverty reduction and local community development on the other hand. In many cases, the benefits generated from the tourism industry are not well distributed. For instance, the local people in Siem Reap Province cannot effectively participate and receive benefits from tourism development there, although there has been a remarkable increase in international tourist arrivals in the last decade. The level of tourism leakage is high. It is estimated that about 40% of the revenue from tourism is leaked out through the import of tourism products and services due to the lack of reliable local supply chain of both products and services (Chheang, 2010).

---

<sup>67</sup>UNESCAP, <http://www.unescap.org/jecf/p08tourism.htm>.

### **4.2.3. Identity construction**

Identity is one of the key aspects of international relations, especially in Asia. It is sometimes an even more difficult agenda item to negotiate than other items. Huntington argued that ‘cultural characteristics and differences are less mutable and hence less easily compromised and resolved than political and economic ones’ (Huntington, 1993: 26). Tourism plays a significant role in promoting intercultural relations through the mediated form of communication, and interaction creates the process of cultural diffusion and common identity construction. Culture is symbolic, learned, shared and adaptive. There are three levels of culture: cultural practices, cultural logics and worldview. Culture is one of the important elements in understanding international relations since it explains human actions at every level of society, from the interpersonal to the international (Anderson *et al.*, 2008: 103-126).

Interests and preferences are generated through interaction and communication. The policies and actions of actors are shaped by the perception of their own identity and interests. The presence of tourists can be viewed by the local people as a sign of cultural identity construction (Wood, 1997: 2), and such cultural identity construction is related to the process of nation building (Pelleggi, 1996), which in turn contributes to regional building process.

### **4.2.4. Social inclusion and institutions**

It is believed that an increase in contact among individuals from diverse groups can create an opportunity for mutual acquaintances, enhance understanding and acceptance among the interacting group members, and consequently reduce inter-group prejudice, tension and conflict. Thus, increased contact creates social harmonization and inclusion. International tourism has been recognized for the opportunities it provides for such social contact and communication to occur (Sonmez and Apotolopoulos, 2000: 35). Sofield similarly posits that ‘cultures pile on top of cultures in a heap that appears to have no organizing principles beyond the fact that the “culture” of communications is supported by the mass movement of people (tourists)’ (Sofield, 2001: 105).

Tourism can create a compression of geography which turns Southeast Asia into a connected region with a vast continuum, through geographical and social connectivity.

It is argued that tourism relates to the process of nation building and the national integration of social groups (Leong, 1997). Cooperation in tourism can lead to the strengthening of social institutions as well. Social institutions are generally referred to as ‘practices consisting of easily identifiable roles, coupled with collections of rules or conventions governing relations among the occupants of these roles’ (Young, 1986: 107). Socialization is one of the key approaches and policies in developing and strengthening regional cooperation and integration in Southeast Asia. The interaction between and among the state leaders and elite groups has contributed to building trust and confidence. Such personal relationships and trust promote regional cooperation.

#### **4.2.5. Human connectivity**

The future of Asian regionalism will depend not just on governments and opinion leaders, but also on businesses and the general population across the region (Beeson and Stubbs, 2012: 426). This means that human movement significantly contributes to constructing the region. It is safe to say that tourism remarkably contributes to the interconnectedness of peoples and cultures, and in the context of the countries of Southeast Asia, it has been an important agent or factor in opening peoples and cultures to tourists from neighboring countries (Sofield, 2001: 118).

People-to-people connectivity is stated in the ASEAN Master Plan of Connectivity adopted in Hanoi in 2010, and it now is one of the three pillars connecting the region. In the Chairman’s Statement of the Second East Asia Summit (EAS) Foreign Ministers Meeting in July 2012 in Phnom Penh, it stated ‘The Ministers emphasized the importance of people-to-people exchanges, particularly among the youth and students, with a view to fostering a sense of togetherness, mutual respect and understanding of each other’s traditions and values’.

The increasing cultural exchanges and people-to-people contacts lead to the consolidation of cultural diversity within the region and the ‘deterritorialization of cultures and peoples’ in which the notion of a national citizenship signifying a single, homogenized culture shared by the citizens has become irrelevant (Dijkstra *et al.*, 2001: 55). Diversity is the strength of ASEAN, and the vision is to create an inclusive community with the principle of ‘unity within diversity’.

Host-guest relations in the tourism industry are the main characteristic of tourist experiences. Such relations can create a sense of mutual understanding and adaptation. It is expected that, through tourism, people will come to mutually respect different cultures, traditions, religions, and languages and find a common value in the spirit of unity in diversity since they will have grown up in a diverse cultural environment. However, cultural tourism must be harnessed wisely as it vitally interacts, enhances and nurtures mutual understanding, awareness and love amongst people (Thong Khon, 2012b).

### ***Conclusion***

It is clear that regionalism and tourism are interconnected. The regional cooperation and integration process has created a favorable condition for the development of the tourism industry. The tourism industry can be regarded as a cooperative magnet attracting regional countries to cooperate to gain mutual benefits generated from the industry. However, to maintain the positive nature and momentum of such a regionalism-tourism nexus, development of sustainable tourism is required. Sustainable tourism development consists of preserving local cultures, conserving the local environment, maintaining the quality of tourism destinations, products and services, fair distribution of revenues and incomes generated from the tourism industry, and multi-stakeholder participation in tourism planning and management. Moreover, positive interaction and communication between hosts (local people/community) and guests (tourists) need to be maintained and sustained. It is necessary to have quality tourist experiences together with a positive attitude on the part of the local people towards tourists.

## CONCLUSION

Tourism in Southeast Asia is emerging to be one of the economic, political and sociocultural dynamisms with increasing impacts on many sectors, including cultural, environmental, socioeconomic and health impacts. The states, markets, tourists and local people are acting interconnectedly to shape the development and functions of tourism. The state plays a role in regulating and institutionalising, while the private sector provides information, investment and services. The tourists gain experiences, and the local people obtain incomes. Tourism provides space for both tourists and local people to share their cultural identity and values, based on which the formation of unity in diversity can take place. Through such interaction and engagement among the actors, a pattern of regional cooperation and identity construction or even reconstruction is drawn and directed.

Regional cooperation to develop and promote tourism is becoming more dynamic in the context of globalization and regionalization. In Southeast Asia, tourism development is one of the prioritized development cooperation areas. States are the main actors in crystalizing regional cooperation and integration, while development partners and the private sector are the key supporters of the tourism development projects. It can be argued that regionalism-tourism development linkage is a mutual and causal relationship in which all parties support each other and move along together. The incentives and benefits generated from the tourism industry encourage other supporting industries and infrastructure to develop.

Learning from Southeast Asian regional cooperation and integration, we can see that tourism is one of the key industries that connects the region through three dimensions: people, institutions and infrastructure. Tourism cooperation is a common regional interest, and regional tourism products are becoming common regional public goods. The concept of sovereignty over the tourism sector is much more flexible and negotiable than with other sectors. Tourism product integration and the connectivity of tourism services and infrastructure are the objectives of regional cooperation on tourism.

Within the discourse of regionalism-tourism nexus, it is argued that regionalism supports tourism based on the existing high level of political will and commitment,

multi-stakeholder partnerships, institutional and regulatory development, sub-regional cooperation framework, tourism’s collective attractiveness and deterritorialization. On the other hand, tourism supports regionalism by promoting cooperative culture, development and poverty reduction, identity construction, social inclusion and institutions, and human connectivity (see Figure 3).

Figure 3: Regionalism-Tourism Nexus



Regionalism-tourism nexus reflects the increasingly interconnected and integrated nature of Southeast Asia. However, the regional cooperation framework and institutions for tourism development do not adequately and effectively address the issues of sustainability. Some argue that the future trajectory of ASEAN tourism lies in its relations with the natural environment and ‘future tourism-environment connections will be based on their impact on the environment, with the focus on sustainable tourism and the scope for ecotourism and tourism to protect the environment’ (Wong, 2001: 227).

ASEAN should consider creating a strategic framework to link tourism with regional integration by stressing poverty reduction, narrowing of the development gap, and identity construction. It is important to create an ASEAN Tourism Working Group to engage in development of an ASEAN Tourism Charter, more or less similar to the

one produced by Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC). The APEC Tourism Charter was endorsed at the first APEC Tourism Ministerial Meeting in Korea in 2000. The charter reflects a collective political commitment to link tourism with the economic, cultural, social and environmental wellbeing of the member economies. There are four main policy objectives: the removal of impediments to tourism business and investment, increased mobility of visitors and demand for tourism goods and services, sustainable management of tourism outcomes and impacts, and enhanced recognition and undertaking of tourism as a vehicle for economic and social development.

Moreover, ASEAN should create its own code for sustainable tourism with detailed action plans. Within the framework of APEC, the sustainable tourism code urges the member economies to conserve the natural environment, ecosystems and biodiversity, respect and support local traditions, cultures and communities, maintain environmental management systems, conserve energy and reduce waste and pollutants, encourage a tourism commitment to the environment and cultures, educate and inform others about the local environment and cultures, and cooperate with others to sustain the environment and cultures.

## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1 Key points of the Manila Declaration Philippines, 15 December 1987

1. Member states shall strengthen national and regional resilience to ensure security, stability and growth in the ASEAN region.
2. ASEAN regionalism founded upon political, economic, and cultural cohesion is more vital than ever for the future of Southeast Asia.
3. ASEAN shall pursue regional solidarity and cooperation under all circumstances, especially whenever pressures and tensions of any kind, arising from within the region or from without, challenge the capacities, resourcefulness, and goodwill of the ASEAN nations.
4. Intra-regional disputes shall be settled by peaceful means in accordance with the spirit of the Treaty of Amity and Cooperation in Southeast Asia and the United Nations Charter,
5. While each member state shall be responsible for its own security, cooperation on a non-ASEAN basis among the member states in security matters shall continue to accordance with their mutual needs and interests.
6. Member states shall strengthen intra-ASEAN economic cooperation to maximize the realization of the region's potential in trade and development and to increase ASEAN's efficacy in combating protectionism and countering its effects.
7. Member states shall encourage an environment in which the private sector can play an increasing role in economic development and in intra-ASEAN cooperation.
8. ASEAN functional cooperation shall promote, increase awareness of ASEAN, wider involvement and increased participation and cooperation by the peoples of ASEAN, and development of human resources.
9. ASEAN shall remain firmly resolved in eradicating the scourge of drug abuse and illicit societies and debilitates its peoples.

#### **AND DO HEREBY AGREE AS FOLLOWS:**

**12. ASEAN shall encourage intra-ASEAN travel and develop a viable and competitive tourist industry. The year 1992, the 25th Anniversary Year of ASEAN, is declared as "Visit ASEAN Year".**

**Appendix 2**  
**ASEAN Tourism Agreement**  
**Phnom Penh, 2002**

ARTICLE 1

OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this Agreement are:

- (1) To cooperate in facilitating travel into and within ASEAN;
- (2) To enhance cooperation in the tourism industry among ASEAN Member States in order to improve its efficiency and competitiveness;
- (3) To substantially reduce restrictions to trade in tourism and travel services among ASEAN Member States;
- (4) To establish an integrated network of tourism and travel services in order to maximise the complementary nature of the region's tourist attractions;
- (5) To enhance the development and promotion of ASEAN as a single tourism destination with world-class standards, facilities and attractions;
- (6) To enhance mutual assistance in human resource development and strengthen cooperation to develop, upgrade and expand tourism and travel facilities and services in ASEAN; and
- (7) To create favourable conditions for the public and private sectors to engage more deeply in tourism development, intra-ASEAN travel and investment in tourism services and facilities.

ARTICLE 2

FACILITATION OF INTRA-ASEAN AND  
INTERNATIONAL TRAVEL

Member States shall facilitate travel within and into ASEAN by:

- (1) Extending visa exemption arrangement for nationals of ASEAN Member States traveling within the region on the basis of bilateral visa exemption agreements concluded between Member States that are ready to do so;
- (2) Harmonising the procedures for issuing visas to international travelers;

- (3) Phasing out travel levies and travel taxes on nationals of ASEAN Member States traveling to other ASEAN Member States;
- (4) Encouraging the use of smart cards for ASEAN business and frequent travelers and, where appropriate, for cross-border travel on the basis of bilateral agreements concluded between Member States that are ready to do so;
- (5) Improving communications with international travelers through the use of universal symbols and multi-lingual signs and forms; and
- (6) Easing the process of issuance of travel documents and progressively reducing all travel barriers.

### ARTICLE 3

#### FACILITATION OF TRANSPORT SERVICES

Member States shall facilitate transport within and into ASEAN by:

- (1) Cooperating in promoting accessibility by air to and amongst Member States through the progressive liberalisation of air services;
- (2) Improving the efficiency of airport management and other related services;
- (3) Developing appropriate policies to encourage cruising, travel by ferries, and leisure boats by providing adequate infrastructure and facilitating seamless travel;
- (4) Enhancing cooperation in developing measures in support of efficient and safe travel and tourism in terms of land transport and travel insurance; and
- (5) Encouraging cooperation and commercial arrangements among ASEAN airlines.

### ARTICLE 4

#### MARKET ACCESS

Member States shall conduct continuous negotiations on trade in tourism services as provided for by the ASEAN Framework Agreement on Services.

### ARTICLE 5

#### QUALITY TOURISM

Member States shall ensure quality tourism by:

- (1) Encouraging all levels of government and local communities to carry out programmes to ensure the preservation, conservation and promotion of the natural, cultural and historical heritage of Member States;
- (2) Encouraging visitors to learn, respect and help preserve the natural, cultural and historical heritage of Member States;
- (3) Encouraging where appropriate the adoption of environmental management standards and certification programmes for sustainable tourism and for assessing and monitoring the impact of tourism on local communities, culture and nature, especially in environmentally and culturally sensitive areas;
- (4) Promoting the use of environmentally sound technologies to preserve and conserve the natural heritage, the ecosystems and biodiversity and to protect endangered flora and fauna as well as micro-organisms;
- (5) Strengthening measures to prevent tourism-related threats on and exploitation of cultural heritage and natural resources; and
- (6) Taking stern measures to prevent tourism-related abuse and exploitation of people, particularly women and children.

## ARTICLE 6

### TOURISM SAFETY AND SECURITY

Member States shall ensure the safety and security of travelers by:

- (1) Stepping up cooperation among law-enforcement agencies in charge of tourist safety and security;
- (2) Intensifying the sharing of information on immigration matters among law-enforcement agencies; and
- (3) Taking all necessary measures to ensure communications and assistance systems to deal with visitors' concerns.

## ARTICLE 7

### JOINT MARKETING AND PROMOTION

Member States shall intensify joint action to market and promote travel into and within ASEAN by:

- (1) Supporting the Visit ASEAN Campaign, which calls for thematic tour packages and attractions to encourage visitors to focus on specific areas of interest;

- (2) Promoting ASEAN's richly diverse nature, culture and arts;
- (3) Fostering cooperation among ASEAN national tourism organisations and the tourism industry, particularly airlines, hotels and resorts, travel agencies and tour operators, in marketing and promoting transnational tour packages, including the sub-regional growth areas;
- (4) Calling on airlines of Member States to expand their tourism promotional programmes;
- (5) Holding ASEAN-wide promotional events within the region and overseas;
- (6) Expanding and strengthening ASEAN cooperation in overseas markets and major international tourism and travel-trade fairs;
- (7) Promoting ASEAN as a brand in the international market;
- (8) Strengthening support for the ASEAN Tourism Forum;
- (9) Promoting investment opportunities in the ASEAN tourism industry;
- (10) Cooperating in the use of information technology in the ASEAN tourism and travel-trade industry; and
- (11) Fostering public-private partnerships in tourism marketing and promotion in cooperation with international and regional tourism organisations and other relevant bodies.

## ARTICLE 8

### HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

Member States shall cooperate in developing human resources in the tourism and travel industry by:

- (1) Formulating non-restrictive arrangements to enable ASEAN Member States to make use of professional tourism experts and skilled workers available within the region on the basis of bilateral arrangements;
- (2) Intensifying the sharing of resources and facilities for tourism education and training programmes;
- (3) Upgrading tourism education curricula and skills and formulating competency standards and certification procedures, thus eventually leading to mutual recognition of skills and qualifications in the ASEAN region;
- (4) Strengthening public-private partnerships in human resource development; and

(5) Cooperating with other countries, groups of countries and international institutions in developing human resources for tourism.

## ARTICLE 9

### IMPLEMENTATION

1. Member States shall draw up the necessary Protocols, Memoranda of Understanding or any other instruments to carry out the provisions of this Agreement. In the implementation of these instruments, two or more Member States may proceed first if other Member States are not ready to implement these arrangements.

2. The ASEAN Tourism Ministers shall supervise, coordinate and monitor the implementation of this Agreement.

## ARTICLE 10

### AMENDMENTS

Any amendments to this Agreement shall be made by consensus and shall become effective upon the deposit of instruments of ratification or acceptance by all Member States with the Secretary-General of ASEAN.

## ARTICLE 11

### SETTLEMENT OF DISPUTES

1. Any dispute between Member States as to the interpretation or application of, or compliance with, this Agreement or any Protocol thereto, shall be settled amicably by consultation.

2. If a settlement cannot be reached, the dispute shall be dealt with in accordance with the Protocol on Dispute Settlement Mechanism for ASEAN signed on 20 November 1996 in Manila, the Philippines.

## ARTICLE 12

### FINAL PROVISIONS

1. This Agreement shall enter into force upon the deposit of instruments of ratification or acceptance by all Member States with the Secretary-General of ASEAN.

2. This Agreement shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of ASEAN, who shall promptly furnish each Member State a certified copy thereof.

3 Nothing in this Agreement can be construed to prevent enforcement in good faith of any measures made by Member States to protect national security or public order, public morals, religion, human life and health, as well as social and cultural values.

DONE at Phnom Penh, Kingdom of Cambodia on the 4th day of November 2002, in a single copy in the English language.

**Appendix 3**  
**Vientiane Declaration on Enhancing ASEAN Tourism Cooperation (Key Points)**  
**Vientiane, Lao PDR, 2004**

1. UNDERTAKE specific measures to expedite the implementation of the ASEAN Tourism Agreement, particularly the visa exemption initiative to increase tourist travel in ASEAN in accordance with the Leaders' decision at the Bali Summit in October 2003;
2. ADVANCE integration of tourism in accordance with the ASEAN Concord II by 2010 through development of ASEAN Tourism Vision and a roadmap to achieve the target of integration;
3. ASSIST new members towards the integrated ASEAN tourism through provision of technical assistance, among others, in the areas of capacity building, human resources development, promotion of investment and protection of environment and cultural heritage.
4. WORK closely with relevant ASEAN bodies and agencies in our Member Countries to ensure coherence of policies and initiatives related to tourism development in ASEAN and to adopt appropriate measures to prevent all threats to tourism;
5. STRENGTHEN our partnership with the private sector such as travel agencies, airlines, hotels and tourism related establishments as well as media, other countries and international organizations in advancing the tourism development in ASEAN;
6. WORK closely with the ASEAN Secretariat, the ASEAN NTOs and the private tourism associations and groups such as ASEAN Tourism Association (ASEANTA), Federation of ASEAN Travel Association (FATA) and ASEAN Hotel & Restaurant Association (AHRA) to ensure that that all the above decisions are implemented with efficiency and urgency;
7. REQUEST the ASEAN Secretariat to be the main coordinator for the implementation of Tourism Cooperation Programmes and Initiatives and to strengthen cooperation with the private sector for activities where the private sector could play a leading role.

IN PURSUANCE THEREOF, WE HEREBY AGREE TO:

1. ADOPT the Implementation Plan for the ASEAN Tourism Agreement.

2. “SOFT-LAUNCH” the Third-Phase of Visit ASEAN Campaign (VAC) to further promote intra-ASEAN travel.
3. INSTRUCT ASEAN NTOs, in cooperation with the ASEAN Secretariat and the private sector, to implement this Declaration.

## REFERENCES

- Acharya, Amitav (1999). Realism, institutionalism, and the Asian economic crisis. *Contemporary Southeast Asia* 21 (1): 1-29.
- Acharya, Amitav (2001). *Constructing a security community in Southeast Asia*. London: Routledge.
- Acharya, Amitav and Johnson, A. (eds.) (2007). *Crafting cooperation: Regional international institutions in comparative perspective*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Acharya, Amitav and Stubbs, Richard (eds.) (2009). *Theorizing Southeast Asian relations: Emerging debates*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Adams, Kathleen M. (1997). "Touting touristic "Primadonas": Tourism, ethnicity, and national integration in Sulawesi, Indonesia", in Michel Picard and Robert E. Wood (eds., pp.155-180). *Tourism, ethnicity, and the state in Asian and Pacific societies*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.
- Anaman, Kwabena A. and Looi, Chee N. (2000). Economic impact of haze-related air pollution on the tourism industry in Brunei Darussalam. *Economic Analysis and Policy* 30 (2): 133-143.
- Anderson, Sheldon; Hey, Jeanne A.K., Perterson Mark Allen; Toops, Stanley W. Toops; and Stevens, Charles (2008). *International studies: An interdisciplinary approach to global issues*. Boulder: Westview Press.
- Apichai Puntasan (1988). ASEAN cooperation in tourism. Discussion Papers Series No. 98, Thammasat University, Bangkok, pp.1-45.
- ASEAN Secretariat Homepage, <http://www.asean.org/19595.htm>
- Asian Development Bank (ADB) (2012). <http://www.adb.org/news/adb-norway-help-myanmar-manage-tourist-boom>.
- Beeson, Mark and Stubbs, Richard (2012). "Introduction", in Mark Beeson and Richard Stubbs (eds. pp.1-8). *Handbook of Asian Regionalism*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Bennett, Jonathan (2009). "The development of private tourism business activity in the transitional Vietnamese economy", in Michael Hitchcock, Victor T. King and Michael Parnwell (eds., pp.146-164). *Tourism in Southeast Asia: Challenges and new directions*. Denmark: NIAS Press.
- Bull, Hedley (1997). *The Anarchical Society*. London: Macmillan.
- Busse, Nikolas (1999). Constructivism and Southeast Asian security. *Pacific Review* 12(1): 39-60.
- Camilleri, Joseph A. (2003). *Regionalism in the new Asia-Pacific order*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.
- Chaipan, Chaiwoot (1998). ASEAN Economies in transition and the role of tourism: Lessons from Thailand. Economic Research Center Discussion Paper, Nagoya University, Japan, No. 106, pp. 1-44.
- Chang, T.C. (1997). From "instant Asia" to "multi-faceted jewel": Urban imaging strategies and tourism development in Singapore. *Urban Geography* 18(6): 542-562.
- Chang, T. C. (1999). Local uniqueness in the global village: Heritage tourism in Singapore. *Professional Geographer* 51(1): 91-103.
- Chheang, Vannarith (2009). Hun Sen's talks and tourism development in Cambodia: The discourse of power. *Ritsumeikan Journal of Asia Pacific Studies* 24: 85-105.

- Chheang, Vannarith (2009). Tourism development in Cambodia: Opportunities for Japanese companies; in Uchikawa Shuji (ed.) Major industries and business chance in CLMV countries. Bangkok Research Center, IDE-JETRO, Research Report No. 2; pp. 7-41.
- Chheang, Vannarith (2010). Tourism and local community development in Siem Reap. *Ritsumeikan Journal of Asia Pacific Studies* 27: 85-101.
- Cohen, Erik (1988). Tourism and aids in Thailand. *Annals of Tourism Research* 15(4): 467-486.
- Cohen, Erik (1993). "Open-ended prostitution as a skillful game of luck: Opportunity, risk and security among tourist-oriented prostitutes in a Bangkok *soi*", In Michael Hitchcock, Victor T. King, and Michael J. G. Parnwell (eds, pp.155-178). *Tourism in Southeast Asia*. London: Routledge.
- Cohen, Erik (1996). *Thai tourism: Hill tribes, islands and open-ended prostitution*. Bangkok: White Lotus Press.
- Cohen, Erchheangcamik (2008). *Explorations in Thai tourism*. United Kingdom: Emerald.
- Collins, Alan (2012). "Functional cooperation and ASEAN institutionalism: Responding to HIV/AIDS", in Ralf Emmers (ed, pp.43-57). *ASEAN and institutionalization of East Asia*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Crystal, Eric (1989). "Tourism in Toraja (Sulawesi, Indonesia)", in Valene L. Smith (ed, pp.139-168) (2<sup>nd</sup> Edition). *Hosts and guests: The anthropology of tourism*.
- Dahles, Heidi (2001). *Tourism, Heritage and National Culture in Java*. Surrey: Curzon Press.
- de Lombaerde, P., Soderbaun, Fr, van Langenhove, L. and Baert, F. (2010). The problem of comparison in comparative regionalism. *Review of International Studies* 36: 713-753.
- Department of tourism year-end report 2011 of the Philippines, Manila. [e-services.tourism.gov.ph:8080/didcs/.../Year-end%20report.pdf](http://e-services.tourism.gov.ph:8080/didcs/.../Year-end%20report.pdf)
- Development Analysis Network (2007). Pro-poor tourism in the Greater Mekong Sub-region. Phnom Penh: Cambodia Development Resource Institute.
- Dijkstra, Steven; Geuijen, Karin; and De Ruijter (2001). Multiculturalism and social integration in Europe. *International Political Science Review* 22(1): 55-84.
- Drakos, Konstantinos and Kutan, Ali M. (2003). Regional effects of terrorism on tourism in three Mediterranean countries. *Journal of Conflict Resolution* 47(5): 621-641,
- Du Rocher, Sophie Boisseau (2005). "Institutions as drivers for region-building", in Sophie Boisseau du Rocher and Bertrand Fort (eds., pp.101-103). *Paths to regionalization: Comparing experiences in East Asia and Europe*. Singapore: Marshall Cavendish.
- Elliot, James (1983). Politics, power, and tourism in Thailand. *Annals of Tourism Research* 10(3): 377-393.
- Emmerson, Donald K. (1984). "Southeast Asia" What's in a name? *Journal of Southeast Asian Studies* 15(1):1-21.
- Fawcett, Louise (2004). Exploring regional domains: A comparative history of regionalism. *International Affairs* 80 (3): 429-446.
- Ferguson, Lucy (2010). "Tourism development and regional integration in Central America", Real Instituto Elcano: ARI86/2010.

- Forsyth, Timothy J. (1995). Tourism and agricultural development in Thailand. *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(4): 877-900.
- Geriya, Wayan I, 2003, "The impact of tourism in three tourist villages in Bali", in Shinji Yamashita and J.S. Eades (eds., pp.81-94). *Globalization in Southeast Asia: Local, national and transnational perspectives*. New York: Berghahn Books.
- Ghimire, Krishna B. (2001). Regional tourism and South-South economic cooperation. *The Geographical Journal* 167(2): 99-110.
- Grundy-Warr, Carl and Perry, Martin (2001). "Tourism in an inter-state borderland: The case of the Indonesian-Singapore cooperation", in Peggy Teo, T.C. Chang and K.C. Ho (eds. pp.64-83). *Interconnected worlds: Tourism in Southeast Asia*. Tokyo: Pergamon.
- Haacke, Jurgen (2003). ASEAN's diplomatic and security culture: A constructivist assessment. *International relations of the Asia-Pacific* 3(1): 57-87.
- Hall, Colin Michael (1992). "Sex tourism in Southeast Asia", in David Harrison (ed, pp. 64-74). *Tourism and the less developed countries*. New York: John Wiley & Son.
- Hall, Colin Michael (1997). *Tourism in the Pacific rim* (2<sup>nd</sup> edition). South Melbourne, Australia: Longman.
- Hall, Colin Michael (2000). "Tourism and the environment: Problems, institutional arrangements and approaches", in C. Michael Hall and Stephen Page (eds). *Tourism in South and Southeast Asia: Issues and cases*. Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann.
- Hall, Colin Michael (2001). "Tourism and political relationship in Southeast Asia", in Peggy Teo, T.C. Chang and K.C. Ho (eds., pp.13-26) *Interconnected worlds: Tourism in Southeast Asia*. Amsterdam: Pergamon.
- Hameiri, Shahar and Jayasuriya, Kanishka (2012). "Regulatory regionalism in Asia", in Mark Beeson and Richard Stubbs (eds. pp.177-185). *Handbook of Asian Regionalism*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Hass, E.B. (1990). *When power is knowledge: Three models of change in international prospects*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Henderson, Joan C. (2003). The politics of tourism in Myanmar. *Current Issues in Tourism* 6(2): 97-118.
- Hitchcock, M., King, V. T., and Parnwell, M. (1993). *Tourism in Southeast Asia*, London: Routledge.
- Hitchcock, M., King, V.T. and Parnwell, M. (eds.) (2009). *Tourism in Southeast Asia: Challenges and new directions*. Denmark: NIAS Press.
- Hitchcock, M., King, V.T. and Parnwell, M. (eds.) (2010). *Heritage tourism in Southeast Asia*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.
- Hughes-Freeland, Felicia, 1993, "Packaging dreams: Javanese perceptions of tourism and performance", in Michael Hitchcock, Victor T. King, and Michael J. G. Parnwell (eds). *Tourism in Southeast Asia*. London: Routledge (pp.138-154).
- Huntington, Samuel P. (1993). The clash of civilizations? *Foreign Affairs* 72(3): 22-49.
- Huxley, Tim (1996). Southeast Asia in the study of international relations: The rise and decline of a region. *Pacific Review* 9(2): 199-228.
- S. Iswaran (2012). Speech at the tourism industry conference on March 23, 2012. Singapore.
- Jenkins, Gwynn and King, Victor T. (2003). Heritage development in a Malaysian city: George Town under threat. *Indonesia and the Malay World* 31(89): 44-57.

- Katsumata, Hiro (2012). Japanese popular culture in East Asia: a new insight into regional community building. *International Relations of the Asia-Pacific* 12: 133-160.
- Kahn, Joel S. (1997). "Culturalizing Malaysia: Globalism, tourism, heritage, and the city in Georgetown", in Michel Picard and Robert E. Wood (eds., pp.99-127). *Tourism, ethnicity, and the state in Asian and Pacific societies*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.
- Keohane, Robert O. and Nye, Joseph S. (2006). "Power and interdependence revisited" in Stephen Chan and Cerwyn Moore (eds. pp.254-280). *Theories of international relations*. Volume II. London: Sage.
- Khoo, Nicholas (2004). Deconstructing the ASEAN security community: A review essay. *International Relations of the Asia-Pacific* 4(1): 35-46.
- King, Victor T. 1993, "Tourism and culture in Malaysia", In Michael Hitchcock, Victor T. King, and Michael J. G. Parnwell (eds.pp.99-116). *Tourism in Southeast Asia*. London: Routledge.
- Knight, Manuel (1996). "Tourism", in Myo Thant and Min Tang (eds.) *Indonesia-Malaysia-Thailand Growth Triangle: Theory to Practice*. Manila: Asian Development Bank Publication.
- Kratoska, Paul H., Raben, Remco, and Nordholt, Henk Schulte (eds.) (2005). *Locating Southeast Asia: Geographies of knowledge and politics of space*. Athens: Ohio University Press.
- Leheny, David (1995). A political economy of Asia sex tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(2): 367-384.
- Leifer, Michael (1987). *ASEAN's search for regional order*. Singapore: G. Brash for the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, National University of Singapore.
- Leong, Laurence Wai-Teng (1997). "Commodifying ethnicity: State and ethnic tourism in Singapore", in Michel Picard and Robert E. Wood (eds., pp.71-98). *Tourism, ethnicity, and the state in Asian and Pacific societies*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.
- MacCannel, Dean (1984). Reconstructed ethnicity: Tourism and cultural identity in Third World Communities. *Annals of Tourism Research* 11(3): 375-391.
- McKean, Philip Frick, 1989, "Towards a theoretical analysis of tourism: Economic dualism and cultural involution in Bali", in Valene L. Smith (ed., pp.119-138) (2<sup>nd</sup> Edition) *Hosts and guests: The anthropology of tourism*. Pennsylvania: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Mearsheimer, John J. (2006). "The false promise of international institutions", in Stephen Chan and Cerwyn Moore (eds., pp.255-303) *Theories of International Relations*, Volume 1. London: Sage Publications.
- Mekong Tourism Forum (2010). <http://mekongtourismforum.org/site/2010/05/mekong-tourism-forum-opens-in-cambodia/>, last access on October 12, 2012.
- Mekong Tourism Forum (2011). <http://mekongtourismforum.org/site/>, last access on October 12, 2012.
- Michaud, Jean, 1997, "A portrait of cultural resistance: The confinement of tourism in a Hmong village in Thailand", in Michel Picard and Robert E. Wood (eds., pp.128-154). *Tourism, ethnicity, and the state in Asian and Pacific societies*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.

- Montgomery, Heather (2001). "Child sex tourism in Thailand", in David Harrison (ed, pp. 191-201). *Tourism and the less developed world: Issues and case studies*. New York: CABI Publishing.
- Nanthakumar, L., Ibrahim, Y., Harun, M. (2008). Tourism development policy, strategic alliances and improvement of consumer price index on tourist arrival: The case of Malaysia. *Tourismos* 3(1): 83-98.
- Narine, Shaun (2006). The English school and ASEAN. *Pacific Review* 19(2): 199-218.
- Nimmonratana, Taksina (2000). "Impacts of tourism on a local community: A case study of Chiang Mai", in K.S. Chon (ed., pp.65-86). *Tourism in Southeast Asia: A new direction*. New York: The Hamworth Hospitality Press.
- Nguitragool, Paruedee (2011). Environmental cooperation in Southeast Asia: ASEAN's regime for transboundary haze pollution. London and New York: Routledge.
- Nuryanti, Wiendu (2001). "Bali and beyond: Locational effects on the economic impact of tourism", in Peggy Teo, T.C. Chang and K.C. Ho (eds., pp.13-26) *Interconnected worlds: Tourism in Southeast Asia*. Amsterdam: Pergamon.
- Ooi, Can-seng (2003). Identities, museums, and tourism in Singapore: Think regionally, act locally. *Indonesia and the Malay World* 31(89): 80-90.
- Otmazgin, Nissim and Ben-Ari, Eyal (2012). *Popular culture and the state in East and Southeast Asia*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Page, Stephen (2000). "Transport and infrastructure issues in Southeast and South Asian tourism", in C. Michael Hall and Stephen Page (eds) *Tourism in South and Southeast Asia: Issues and cases*. Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann.
- Page, Stephen (2001). "Gateways, hubs and transport interconnections in Southeast Asia: Implications for tourism development in the twentieth-first century", in Peggy Teo, T.C. Chang and K.C. Ho (eds., pp.84-99) *Interconnected worlds: Tourism in Southeast Asia*. Amsterdam: Pergamon.
- Palmujoki, Eero (2001). *Regionalism and globalism in Southeast Asia*. New York: Palgrave.
- Parnwell, Michael J. G. (1993). "Environmental issues and tourism in Thailand", in Michael Hitchcock, Victor T. King, and Michael J. G. Parnwell (eds., pp.286-302) *Tourism in Southeast Asia*. London: Routledge.
- Pearce, Douglas G. (2001). "Towards a regional analysis of tourism in Southeast Asia", in Peggy Teo, T.C. Chang and K.C. Ho (eds., pp.27-43) *Interconnected worlds: Tourism in Southeast Asia*. Amsterdam: Pergamon.
- Peleggi, Maurizio, 1996, National heritage and global tourism in Thailand, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23:2, 432-448.
- Peou, Sorpong (2002). Realism and constructivism in Southeast Asian security studies today: A review essay. *Pacific Review* 15(1): 119-38.
- Phnom Penh Post (2012). Tackling tourism issue. Friday, 24 August 2012.
- Picard, Michael (1993). "Cultural tourism" in Bali: National integration and regional differentiation, In Michael Hitchcock, Victor T. King, and Michael J. G. Parnwell (eds., pp.71-98). *Tourism in Southeast Asia*. London: Routledge.
- Picard, Michael and Wood, Robert (eds.) (1997). *Tourism, ethnicity, and the state in Asian and Pacific societies*, Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Ritcher, Linda K. (1993). "Tourism policy making in Southeast Asia", In Michael Hitchcock, Victor T. King, and Michael J. G. Parnwell (eds., pp.179-199). *Tourism in Southeast Asia*. London: Routledge.

- Ritcher, Linda K. (1999). After political turmoil: The lessons of rebuilding tourism in three Asian countries. *Journal of Travel Research* 38:41-45.
- Richter, Linda K. (2001). "Where Asia wore a smile: Lessons of Philippine tourism development", in Valene L. Smith and Maryann Brent (eds., pp.283-297). *Hosts and guests revisited: Tourism issues of the 21<sup>st</sup> century*. New York: Cognizant Communication Offices.
- Richter, Linda (2009). "Tourism policy-making in Southeast Asia: A twenty-first century perspective", in Michael Hitchcock, Victor T. King and Michael Parnwell (eds., pp.132-45). *Tourism in Southeast Asia: Challenges and new directions*. Denmark: NIAS Press.
- Roberts, Christopher B. (2012). *ASEAN Regionalism: Cooperation, values and institutionalization*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Ryan, Chris and Hall, C. Michael (2001). *Sex tourism: Marginal people and liminalities*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Simon, Sheldon W. (1995). Realism and neoliberalism: International relations theory and Southeast Asian security. *Pacific Review* 8(1): 5-24.
- Smith, Valene L. (ed.) (1977). *Hosts and guests: The anthropology of tourism*. Scotland: A. & C. Black.
- Soderbaum, Fredrik (2012). "Theories of regionalism", in Mark Beeson and Richard Stubbs (eds. pp.11-21). *Handbook of Asian Regionalism*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Sofield, Trevor H.B. (2000). "Rethinking and reconceptualizing social and cultural issues in Southeast and South Asian tourism development", in C. Michael Hall and Stephen Page (eds.). *Tourism in South and Southeast Asia: Issues and cases*. Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann.
- Sofield, Trevor H.B. (2001). "Globalization, tourism and culture in Southeast Asia", in Peggy Teo, T.C. Chang and K.C. Ho (eds., pp.103-120) *Interconnected worlds: Tourism in Southeast Asia*. Amsterdam: Pergamon.
- Sonmez, S. and Apostolopoulos Y. (2000). Conflict resolution through tourism cooperation? The case of the partitioned island-state of Cyprus. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing* 9(3): 35-48.
- Sourbert, Son and Hay, Suong Leang (1995). Case study on the effects of tourism on culture and the environment in Cambodia. UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok.
- Sridharan, Kripa (2007). *Regional cooperation in South Asia and Southeast Asia*. Singapore: ISEAS.
- Teo, Peggy (1994). Assessing socio-cultural impacts: The case of Singapore. *Tourism Management* 15(2): 126-136.
- Teo, Peggy, Chang, T.C. and Ho, K.C. (eds) (2001). *Interconnected worlds: Tourism in Southeast Asia*. Amsterdam: Pergamon.
- Thant, Myo (1996). "Growth triangles in Southeast Asia: Perspective and opportunities for economic co-operation", in Imran Lim (ed., pp.247-261) *Growth triangles in Southeast Asia, Strategy for development*. Kuala Lumpur: ISIS.
- Theerapappisit, Polladach (2003). Mekong Tourism Development: Capital or Social Mobilization? *Tourism Recreation Research* 28(1): 47-56.
- Thong Khon (2012a). Brief Report and Welcome Remarks at the 2011 and First Semester of 2012 Stocktaking, and the Second Semester of 2012 and 2013

- Direction-Setting Conference of the Ministry of Tourism Chaktomuk Conference Hall, 3 July 2012.
- Thong Khon (2012b). Remarks at the Farwell Dinner Reception of “12th EATOF General Assembly and 12th East Asia Inter-regional Tourism Forum” in Siem Reap, 30th November 2012.
- Timothy, Dallen J. (2000). “Tourism planning in Southeast Asia: Bringing down borders through cooperation”, in K.S. (Kaye) Chon (ed., pp.21-38) *Tourism in Southeast Asia: A new direction*, New York: The Hamworth Hospitality Press.
- Tirastayapitak, Aree and Laws, Eric (2003). Developing a new Multi-Nation tourism region: Thai perspectives on the Mekong initiatives. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research* 8(1):1-14.
- Tisdell, Clem (2001). *Tourism economics, the environment and development*. Edward Elgar, Cheltenham, UK.
- Tisdell, Clem (2002). Tourism as a contributor to the economic diversification and development of small states: Its strengths, weaknesses and potential for Brunei. Working Paper No. 12, Economic Theory, Application and Issues, The University of Queensland.
- United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP), <http://www.unescap.org/jecf/p08tourism.htm>
- Vu Duc Minh (2003). Touristic human resources in Vietnam. *Vietnam Economic Review*, June 2003, pp. 27-33.
- Wall, Geoffrey (1998). “Indonesia: The impact of regionalization”, in Frank M. Go and Carson L. Jenkins (eds., pp.138-149) *Tourism and economic development in Asia and Australia*, London: Pinter.
- Walton, John (1993). “Tourism and economic development in ASEAN”, In Michael Hitchcock, Victor T. King, and Michael J. G. Parnwell (eds., pp.214-233). *Tourism in Southeast Asia*. London: Routledge.
- Weatherbee, Donal E. (2010). *International relations in Southeast Asia: The struggle for autonomy*. Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.
- Wendt, Alexander (1999). *Social theory of international relations*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Winzeler, Robert L. (2011). *The peoples of Southeast Asia today: Ethnography, ethnology, and change in a complex region*. Lanham: ALTAMIRA Press.
- Wood, Robert E. (1997). “Tourism and the state: Ethnic options and constructions of otherness”, in Michael Picard and Robert E. Wood (eds. pp.1-34). *Tourism, ethnicity, and the state in Asian and Pacific societies*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.
- World Tourism Organization (WTO), Open Letter to Heads of Government, [http://www2.unwto.org/sites/all/files/pdf/final\\_golden\\_book\\_open\\_letter\\_text\\_0.pdf](http://www2.unwto.org/sites/all/files/pdf/final_golden_book_open_letter_text_0.pdf)
- World Tourism Organization (WTO), Myanmar set to rejoin UNWTO, <http://media.unwto.org/en/press-release/2012-05-11/myanmar-set-rejoin-unwto>
- Wong, Poh Poh (2001). “Southeast Asian tourism: Traditional and new perspectives on the natural environment”, in Peggy Teo, T.C. Chang and K.C. Ho (eds., pp.215-230) *Interconnected worlds: Tourism in Southeast Asia*. Amsterdam: Pergamon.
- Wong, Poh Poh (2003). “Tourism development and the coastal environment on Bintan Island”, in Stefan Gossling (ed., pp.263-282). *Tourism and development in tropical islands*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.

- Wunderlich, Jens-Uwe (2007). *Regionalism, globalization and international order*. Hampshire: Ashgate.
- Yamagata, Tatsufumi (2009). Industrialization cum poverty reduction: The cases of Bangladesh and Cambodia, in Takashi Shiraishi, Tatsufumi Yamagata, and Shahid Yusuf (eds., pp.93-111). *Poverty reduction and beyond: Development strategies for low-income countries*. IDE-JETRO.
- Yamashita, Shinji; Din, Kadir H., and Eades, J.S. (eds) (1997). *Tourism and cultural development in Asia and Oceania*. Bangi: Penerbit Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.
- Yamashita, Shinji, 2003, *Bali and beyond: Explorations in the anthropology of tourism* (Trans. With introduction by J.S. Eades), New York: Berghahn Books.
- Young, Oran R. (1986). International regimes: Toward a new theory of institutions. *World Politics*, 39(1): 104-22.
- Zha, Daojiong and Hu, Weixing (2006). *Building a neighborly community: Post-cold war China, Japan, and Southeast Asia*. Manchester and New York: Manchester and New York.

### News Sources

- Asiaone, “*KL truly a shopping haven*”, 23 November 2012.
- The Brunei Times, “*Three Rs to boost tourism in Brunei*”, 17 April 2012.
- China People Daily, “*Asia Plans Platform for Regional Tourism Cooperation*”, 20 November 2002.
- Global Travel Industrial News, “*ASEAN spells out its tourism priorities ahead of 2015*”, 15 August 2012.
- Norneo Post, “*Najib unveils 11 etp projects and nine under three economic corridors*”, 17 November 2012.
- Vientiane Times, “*Tourism forum ends, logo passed to Malaysia*”, 25 January 2013.
- Xinhua News, “*Thailand to launch Andaman Sea tour campaign*”, 2 November 2012.

## **THE AUTHOR**

Vannarith Chheang is serving as the executive director of the Cambodia Institute for Cooperation and Peace (CICP), one of the leading think tanks in Cambodia dealing with international cooperation and regional integration, and is a member of ASEAN-ISIS, CSCAP, NADI and ERIA. He was a research fellow at the Institute of Developing Economies (IDE-JETRO), Chiba, Japan, from July 2012 to January 2013, where he conducted this research project. He has been awarded the East West Centre's Asia Pacific Leadership Program and Southeast Asia Fellowship Program, CSIS-Pacific Forum Young Leaders Program, World Economic Forum's Young Global Leaders Program, and Asian Public Intellectuals Fellowship Program. He can be reached via [chheangcam@gmail.com](mailto:chheangcam@gmail.com).