

Sondre Svalastog

The nature of resources for tourism and recreation

Working paper no 68, 1998

Summary

The first part of the article is devoted to discussing the concept of *resources* and the professional approach to this phenomenon. The author goes on to put into effect the traditional theory which divides resources into *land, work force and capital*. A central point in the article is that resources consist not only of *material things and conditions* (concrete resources) but equally of *non-material conditions* (abstract/non-physical conditions) and that many resources are culturally determined.

Then follows a section dealing with the relationship between *resource quality, knowledge and awareness* on the one hand and *competitive power* on the other. The concepts of *knowledge and awareness* are key factors, but must also be further divided into the knowledge and awareness imparted by schools and universities as opposed to the experience and skills rooted in tradition.

The facts and ideas taught in our schools and universities can be termed institutionalized knowledge and are common throughout large areas and cultural spheres. The experience and skills rooted in tradition, however, are more likely to be confined to smaller areas. They are transmitted and maintained by practical participation and can often be extremely important for tourism.

Finally the question of resource analysis is addressed. The enclosed report is a description of an analysis programme developed here at the college in Lillehammer and made use of by several Norwegian municipalities and regions. Several of these analyses have been posted on the Internet by the college library but unfortunately they are all in Norwegian.

Key words: Identification of resources. Evaluation of resources. Time and resources.

About the author

The author's qualifications are that of an economist specialising in geography and planning (Bachelor of Agriculture/Doctor of Economics). He is professor of planning in the Faculty of Tourism and Applied Social Science at the Lillehammer State College of Higher Education. His research work in recent years has been concentrated on the themes of *tourism planning, resource and production theory, and sustainable development/sustainable tourism*.

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Foreword

The work hereby presented in English consists of two parts. The main section, which gives the report its title, is a book chapter which the author has published in Norwegian (editors Jacobsen & Viken, 1997). The enclosed report outlines the basis and structure of the project "Identifying and evaluating resources for tourism and recreation".

The enclosure itself (pages 22-26) is the document used by Buskerud and Nordland, the two counties co-operating in the project, when they offer their respective municipalities the opportunity to take part in the analysis programme. This document could well be regarded as an operational version of the contents of the article. The references to this document (pages 27-30) have been specifically designed by the author to underline the nature of the reality in which the author works.

The manuscript draws on a wide range of professionally relevant premises and supporting material. The references are few but nevertheless extensive enough to reveal in all clarity the author's understanding of reality. Although the work is modest in scope, the author would like to take the opportunity to express special thanks to the three following scholars, colleagues and fellow professionals.

Firstly, Sigmund Borgan, who, when the author was studying agricultural economy at the Norwegian University of Agriculture, introduced him to the fascinating field of resource theory. Secondly, Brian S. Duffield, the geographer, for an influential article in *GeoJournal* Vol.9 No.1 of 1984, (see also reference No.7 on pages 28-29 of the report) and also for inviting the author to stay for a year in Edinburgh where he was head of the Tourism and Recreation Research Unit at the University of Edinburgh. Finally, but by no means least, the geographer Anthony S. Travis, for his article "Physical impacts: trends affecting tourism. Managing the environmental and cultural impact of tourism and leisure development" (*Tourism Management*, December 1982. See also reference No.4 on pages 27 of the report).

During the coming autumn the author intends to write a book chapter based on the work carried out within "The Nordic Research Programme on Tourism and Sustainable Development". It will also be published by the Scandinavian University Press and from a professional point of view will have much in common with this present article. The author would be very grateful for any comments or suggestions arising from the views put forward in this article.

Lillehammer, August 1998

Sondre Svalastog

The nature of resources for tourism and recreation

The concept of „resources“ is used in economics to denote something material or non-material that can be transformed into consumer goods (cf. Ringstad 1995:15-16). Thus, a resource is something that exists and is evaluated on the basis of its potential to satisfy human needs, either
Sondre Svalastog: *The nature of resources for tourism and recreation. Lillehammer College: Working paper no 68, 1998*

directly or indirectly. Examples of resources found near at hand in daily life are the moors on which cloudberries grow, woods that are of a standard to make forestry profitable, or a beautiful landscape; but the same can be said of knowledge and skills too. The theory of resources tends to designate as „neutral material“ everything that we see or possess around us, which does not have this capacity to satisfy human needs. The choice of this kind of demarcation makes the concept of resources a purely economic concept linked to the current competitive situation.

Resources which cannot appropriately be employed in the contemporary competitive situation can be called „resting“ or „resources that are inapplicable at the present moment“. In both theoretical and practical terms, it is useful to establish a category named resting resources, since they have the same characteristics as those resources which are employed today, but are qualitatively different. History justifies the supposition that what appears today to be neutral material or resting resources continues to constitute a great reservoir of future resources. For example, new knowledge and shifts in values will also transform the evaluation of the basic resources available (Peach and Constantin 1972:3-21). The study of resources is interdisciplinary and therefore places great demands on specialists.

In this chapter, the concept of resources will be discussed and made operational in view of the tourist industry. Resources will be understood as an entity within the field of economics, and as something linked to time and space.

Various approaches to the theory of resources

Among those who have devoted considerable attention to the field of the tourist industry we find geographers; one reason for this is because large sectors of the tourist industry have their basis in the natural data, and nature has had a central place within the discipline of geography throughout all its history. One can therefore see geographers' interest in outdoor recreation and the cultivated landscape as an indirect consequence of their competence vis-à-vis nature (see e.g. Cornish 1934). Besides this, geographers have made a contribution within the field of the tourist industry because this field actualises the dimensions of time and space in a particular way. Put in simple terms: geographers have gone to various localities (individual places, regions and countries) and analysed these with a view to their suitability for known purposes, and have placed the information about these localities within a spatial framework.

Architects are another group who over time have made a considerable contribution through the analysis of the potential provided by specific localities for tourism and recreation. This is because the visual milieu is considered to be important (Fridgen 1991:210-232, Gunn 1994:350-352). Landscape architects and the designers of buildings have attempted to develop methods for the analysis of the qualities of a landscape, and have often undertaken systematic endeavours to improve the visual milieu. While this can be correct and important in the context of the tourist industry, it is not the case that the visual milieu is equally important for every form of tourism. One may compare here the differences between the tourist who is a sight-seer and one who is a salmon-fisher, or between classical recreation-tourism and a place for base-tourism where the decisive factor is the availability of tourist experiences within a radius of one day's journey from a main base.

However, the disciplines of geography and architecture lack theories and models to explain on a theoretical and fundamental basis what can count as tourist resources, and thus the entire spectre of resources. An approach to resources presupposes such a foundation: the first thing to be acquired is an overview of the thing to be sought, and the terms which will permit its evaluation. The consumer good which is to be produced will itself furnish the criterion for such an analysis of resources.

Making the concept of resources operational - first stage

Within the field of economics, it is traditional to divide resources into the main categories of „land“, „workforce“ and „capital“. This is an old and abstract set of concepts, which can easily lead to false conclusions in a post-industrial age; this set of concepts was developed in order to analyse how human needs were met in a situation of deficiency.

Table 1. Making the concepts of resources operational - first step

Starting-point	Operationalisation: first step
Land	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - climate - air and its qualities - flora - fauna - lakes, water and watercourses - geological situation - topological situation - extent of the areas involved
Workforce	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - energy - knowledge
Capital	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - buildings - machines - stores of raw materials - semi-manufactured products and parts

Table I shows the first stage in making this set of concepts operational. The table represents an introductory concretisation of the phenomenon, but the concepts are still abstract (i.e., they cannot be correlated to concrete needs and desires), and still marked by their origin as concepts developed to analyse the *production of goods*, rather than the *production of services* to which the tourist-industrial sector is linked to a very high degree.

A timely question is where the cultural potentials or resources are concealed in the categories of «land», «workforce» and «capital». Does this systematisation provide a place for these potentials?

Cultural potentials of a non-concrete kind can have a very central significance for the leisure tourist industry, as is the case for example with journeys to Stiklestad in Nord-Trøndelag county or to Israel. A considerable number of the tourists who come to Israel come in order to visit places linked to religion. No buildings survive from the earliest Christian period, but this is not essential: the essential point is that this is where the Christian religion had its origin, and that this is where the places where important events took place are located. It is difficult to travel through Israel without coming to places that have great significance for the three great religions (Hudman and Jackson 1994:411). On a global basis, there are many places of great historical or religious interest, which precisely for this reason generate a considerable volume of tourism, although nothing in material terms is supplied there.

Making the concept of resources operational - second stage

In the context of localisation and production, the twin concepts of *factors of localisation* (or: *localisation determinants*) and *factors of production* (or: *input factors*) are used. The former refers to the total co-ordinates of the conditions which make an economic activity possible, while the latter is limited to the concrete input in a production or some other economic activity. The totality of production factors is in itself an important factor of localisation, but it takes on this function only when an overview of the entire situation of resources is achieved (cf. Smith 1981:45-67).

In order to avoid misunderstandings in what follows, it is important to specify the following three elements. First, all production and economic activity are dependent on a set of input factors. These can be physical input factors which are unexploited, various semi products, know-how, other non-physical potentials of a cultural and social kind, etc. For pedagogical reasons, to make it easier to understand this point, geographers and economists have established a common terminology which takes its starting-point in that particular localisation factor which has had the greatest influence on the localisation.

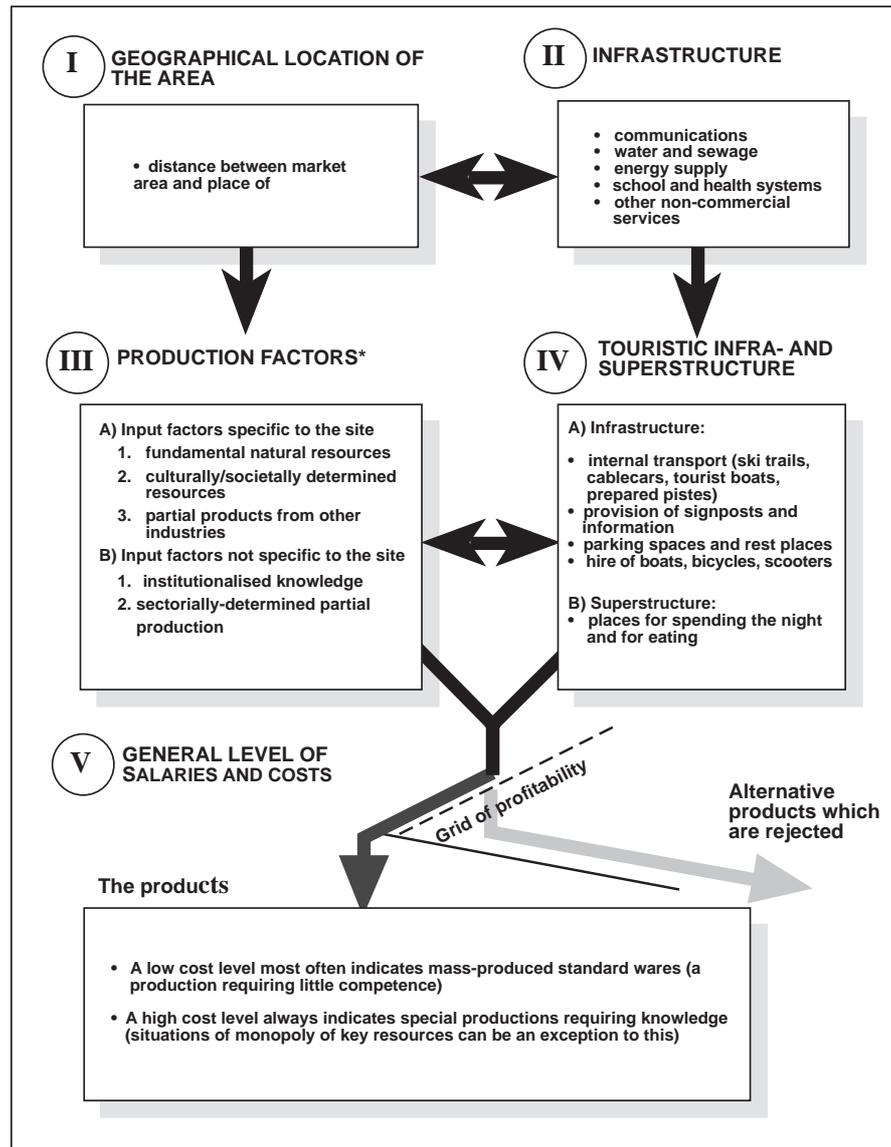
Accordingly, where interest in the resources specific to the place has been the decisive factor, the production or economic activity is described as *resource-based* or *based on raw materials*. Production and economic activity located where the market (the customers) are found is called *market-based* or *market-orientated*. Examples in the service sector of such activity are a

doctor's surgery, a lawyer's office, cinemas and leisure activities such as riding, golf, etc. Correspondingly, we find an energy-based localisation, a workforce-based localisation, a network-based localisation, and so on (Bennett 1979:13, Holte 1982:104-108, Paterson 1976:214-221).

Secondly, we must be aware that we are confronted with two main categories of production factors. The first embraces material things and circumstances, e.g. access to territory, existence of game for hunting, existence of flora, access to energy, and climate. The second main category embraces non-material matters such as competence and other factors of a social and cultural kind. This has consequences for the way in which the totality of a field of resources is analysed.

Thirdly, it becomes gradually necessary to think in dynamic (rather than static) terms of the development of localisation and production. The level of salaries and of the cost of living must be introduced as a real and central localisation factor, and the dynamic element must be knowledge,

creativity, communication and culture (these four nouns begin with „k“ in the Scandinavian languages, and they have been called the „k-variables“: Andersson and Strömquist 1988:29). A high level of salaries and prices is a localisation factor which requires that much weight be attached to the acquisition of knowledge, in order to master the demanding development of the product, to carry out arduous production processes, to operate speedy changes, and to make direct communication in a complex market. The relationships between localisation factors and production factors are set out in Figure 1.



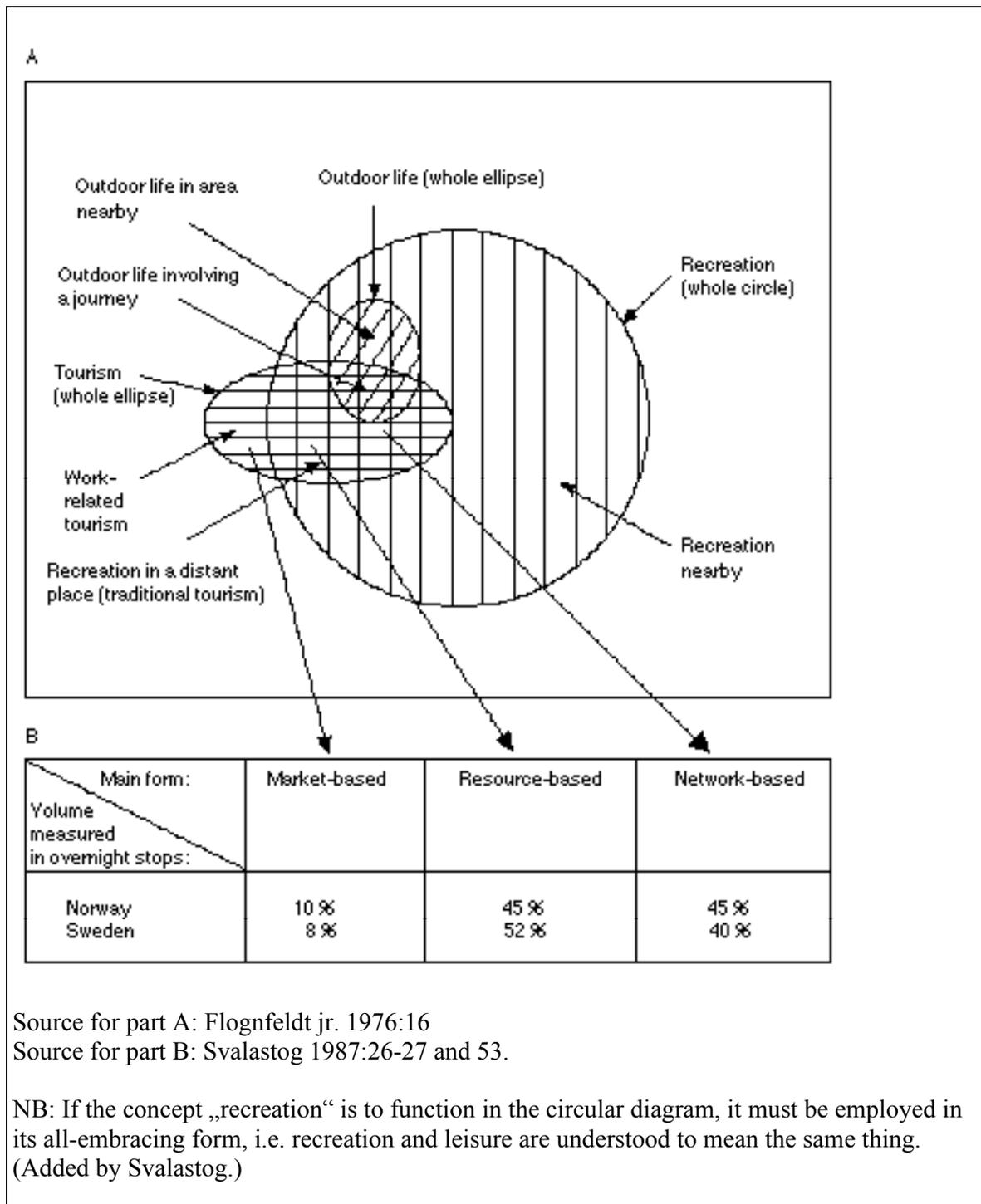
*)We prescind from the energy factor, since it can be understood in this context as a neutral factor. Buildings and machines are included in group IV "Touristic infra- and superstructure". Stores of raw materials are not relevant as a factor in the production of services.

Figure 1. Resource-based tourism and the determinants of localisation (factors which determine form - extent - pace of development.

Main forms of tourism

Work-related tourism is mainly orientated to densely populated areas and demand for tourist services occur where people have tasks to perform. This demand is linked to individuals who travel to carry out a specific commission, to self-employed persons who make use of a variety of services offered to them (e.g., legal, economic and other kinds of professional expertise), to political and diplomatic delegations, and to participants in courses, meetings and conferences linked to the exercise of their own profession and to the tasks involved in their work.

The leisure sphere provides the other two main forms. The preferred name for the first one, "network-based tourism" or the tourism of visits. This is linked to personal networks, i.e. to the fact that people have family, acquaintances and friends with whom they wish to maintain contact. In geographical terms, the distribution of network-based tourism corresponds broadly to the pattern of residence.



Figur 2. Shows the main forms of tourism, segmented in a localisation perspective.

The other main form within the leisure sphere is here called „resource-based tourism“. This is the part of tourism which is governed by *the possibilities of recreation, activity and specific experiences* offered by an area. To some extent, we can equate *resources* with *attractions*. But a large part of the research into tourist attractions has primarily a perspective drawn from the theory of information or from semiotics (see: Jacobsen & Viken 1997, chapter 6 and Leiper 1990), or else takes its starting-point in marketing research. Important tourist attractions are for example the fjords on the west coast of Norway, the rock carvings, glaciers such as Jostedalbreen and mighty waterfalls such as Niagara. In Norway, many imposing waterfalls (e.g., Rjukan) have been reassigned to other purposes. There is often competition for resources which can be used for several purposes, and in some cases the one purpose excludes the other. The Vöring falls remain a considerable attraction, even if in this case the flow of water is limited, since the water-course is regulated for hydroelectric production.

The quality of resources is important in order to strengthen competitiveness

The primary factor in determining what kind of resource-based tourism can be developed in a particular area is the kind of *raw materials* (resources) and of *knowledge* that are accessible. It is, however, not enough to have access to the relevant resources and competence. Leisure tourism is to a large extent *a production exposed to competition*, and competitiveness is linked to *the quality and price of the product*. The quality and thereby also the competitiveness of a tourist product are determined primarily by two factors: the quality of the raw materials and the quality of skill and knowledge.

The quality of the raw materials on which the production depends is important for competitiveness. In many cases, it will be possible to produce high-quality products from ordinary raw materials, but the use of ordinary raw materials in a high-quality production can make the product more expensive, so that a price-handicap results; normally, it is not possible to impose this burden on a production which is exposed to competition. A concrete example from the tourist section is the localisation of Alpine ski slopes. Modern technology makes it possible in areas with little snow to compensate for this through the use of snow which the operators themselves produce. It is also possible to produce snow and thereby prolong the season in autumn and winter in lower-lying areas which are exposed to the sun, but the production of snow costs a lot of money in terms of the operation itself, of investments and of maintenance.

If we express this in terms of the theory of resources and production, we may say that the quality of the resource factor climate (more precisely: the resource factors precipitation and temperature) is not good enough to ensure a first-class product. An Alpine ski product of high quality presupposes stable and long winters, i.e. the absence of periods with above-zero temperatures and landscapes on which snow falls. It also presupposes a stable quality on the slopes.

Table 2. Operationalisation of the resource-element climate

Days when snow-cover is certain:	Centrally important in view of the site's possibilities for ski sport
Number of days with summer	

temperature:	One of the central factors for sun and bathing
Number of days without rain:	How great is the probability of good conditions for spending time outdoors?
Humidity:	Does the site have a dry or damp climate? Very important for certain forms of tourism linked to recreation and to health.
Wind speed:	Significant inter alia for the localisation of sporting activities and recreational tourism
Length of the day - sun:	In Finland, Norway and Sweden as example, areas with midnight are especially interesting etc.

In table 2, some climatic circumstances have been made operational. This table shows that climatic qualities can be correlated to concrete product-areas and consumer goods. In a similar way, each individual resource factor can be made operational. Table 3 gives a total overview of the individual resource elements which must be made operational in relation to specific forms of tourism.

Knowledge has a qualitative aspect, and the quality of knowledge has an effect on the final product in the same way as the quality of the raw materials. Thus, when high-quality products are to be developed and produced, it is not sufficient to have access to the right kind of competence: *the competence must be of such a high level that it ensures the effective production of products of high quality.* In a country with high cost levels such as Norway, it is imperative that the level of knowledge should match the best in the world, within those product areas where the decision is taken to commit one's activities. *A presupposition for competitiveness is that one is able to lead in the development of products and resources.*

Table 3. Resource elements from figure 1, box III, concretised

<p>A Input factors specific to the locality</p> <p>1 Fundamental natural resources</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - climate - air - flora - fauna
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- lakes, water and watercourses
- geological situation
- topological situation
- extent of the areas involved

2 Culturally-determined resources

a) Material things and situations (concrete resources)

- prehistorical survivals
- monumental buildings and sites
- other buildings and sites with special value in terms of information and experiences
- cultivated landscape (how people have adapted to the local potentials for leading their lives and production), etc.

b) Non-material situations (abstract/non-physical situations)

- places of cultural focus
- locations of important events
- contemporary cultural producers
- cultural situations emerging by means of social commerce, place and customs, etc.
- traditionally-determined knowledge and skills

3 Partial products from other industrial branches, e.g.

- glass-blowers, breweries, wine cellars, distilleries and power-plants.

B Input factors non-specific to the locality

1 Institutionalised knowledge

- peak competence possessed by a few persons for the development of products and for giving advice in very general terms
- the general level of knowledge (determinative of the quality in the workforce)

2 Sectorially-determined partial products, such as deliveries from:

- sites of activity and play-spaces, etc.
- zoos
- pleasure parks of various kinds
- futuristic constructions, fantasy-lands, etc.

Two main types of knowledge and understanding exist. The first chief category is that which is mediated in schools and universities, called „institutionalised knowledge“, and this is knowledge common to rather large fields and cultural spheres. The second main form is determined by tradition, and is often linked to smaller areas: this is informal knowledge or skills which can be of considerable interest to important sections of the tourist branch. Examples are Norwegians' traditionally-determined skills in understanding, travelling in and exploiting bare mountains, or in travelling in small boats along the coast and in the polar regions. Some of this knowledge is

transmitted through praxis: it can be difficult to maintain it by means of the lecture-room or theoretical discussion.

Since the access to resources is decisive both for what can be produced in an area and for the competitiveness of what is produced, the situation of the resources has vital significance.

Making the concept of resources operational - third stage

Decidedly the most important of the production factors which are shown in the figure 1, box III are those found in category A. The reason why these have priority over the production factors in category B is that they are specific to particular places. The production factors in category A are often called „key resources“ for resource-based tourism. Travis, for example, has formulated this as follows: „the more fundamental resources [...] which generate tourism“ (Travis 1982:257). Kelly (1990) pursues the same line of thought when he discusses „resource-based recreation“ and speaks of „fundamental resources“. This means that they can give a place the presuppositions for the development of special products. This may be a question of raw materials of a specially high quality: an example would be some of the best salmon rivers in Norway, or a situation of virtual monopoly in the sphere of raw materials, such as the area round the Vöring falls. This may also be a question of skills and traditions linked to a specific place, as well as locally-determined economic activities such as festivals, yearly concert events, or industrial activity involving experiences of a special quality.

The overview of resources which we possess is not finite. When new wishes and interests arise, or when there is an improvement in the capacity to respond to these with better products, other input factors can become relevant, with the result that *neutral material* changes its status and becomes *a resource*. This is the logical consequence of the correlation which exists between resources and needs/wishes, which was the starting-point of our first remarks (cf. Peach and Constantin 1972:15-16).

The commercial part of the tourist and leisure industry must meet a variety of needs: *necessities*, *comfort*, and to some extent also *luxury needs* (Svalastog 1994:155-161). Historically speaking, we can observe a development from a period in which the central concern was to meet necessities („recreation“ in the original sense of the term) to a stage where the tourist and leisure industry increasingly meets needs of comfort and luxury. This heightens the image of tourist resources as something relative and determined by the historical period.

Since various types of tourism are based on a variety of resources, there is in principle a big leap involved, when we attempt to discover what can count as a resource in connection with tourism and recreation. There exist some typologies of tourists which can be used to ascertain which needs and consumer wishes tourism must address.

The necessity of establishing a direct correlation between *needs* and the *products which answer these needs* can be illustrated by means of the tourist product *freshwater fishing*. Most inland lakes and watercourses have fish, and in most cases it is this kind of fish that is prized both by sport fishers and by those who are fishing for food. But the quality (size, form and

colour) is such that most of the fish found here are uninteresting to those sport fishers who travel abroad to pursue their hobby. Freshwater fishing must be divided into several categories at least, if we are to find a realistic orientation in a concrete place and in the context of a relevant development of the product. Here is such a typology:

- *Fishing as a way of passing the time* is a form that can most easily be illustrated by means of the boy who stands on the river bank or goes along a pond on a warm summer day with a bamboo rod and worms to fish for perch. Here, the size has no importance. If the boy catches anything, it will probably not be used for anything other than cat food.
- *Fishing for food* is something often practised by holiday-makers, very often from the base of their own holiday home. The usual equipment is a net and otter. Such fishing is often a combination of acquiring a certain amount of food for the family dinner and finding something to do for parts of one's holiday or free days. Modest demands are made of the size and quality of the fish.
- *Sport fishing in the international class* is usually carried out with fly or spinning bait as instruments, and here the primary point is the size of the fish. The attractiveness is linked to the probability that big fish will be caught, and to the struggle to land these fish. Inland lakes and watercourses with fish that attract international interest have become a rare sight in Norway. To some extent, this is because very many lakes and watercourses have been reassigned from their traditional use in order to produce electricity (i.e., the supply of water has been regulated, and often reduced), or because acid rain reduces the quality of the living environment in the water. But in some cases where there still exists the potential to develop attractive sport fishing, there is insufficient awareness that it is necessary to develop an outstanding resource-basis, if one is to succeed in offering a product that is internationally competitive.
- *Fishing as a part of the local subsistence* is carried on at particular periods of the year by the people who live in the place itself, for various kinds of culinary preparation, to be sold as fresh food, etc. One must not confuse the size of fish in a nutritional context with the types and sizes of fish that are of interest for international sport fishing.
- *Fishing farmed fish from a pond* is a partial product that probably has little international competitiveness. It is also problematic in a high-cost area. If competitive products are to be developed, these must broadly be high-quality products.

These examples from fishing illustrate the existence of a hierarchy of needs that the tourist branch must meet (see: Jacobsen & Viken 1997, chapter 4). Fishing for food is a form of quasi-work, which contributes for many practitioners to meeting a *necessity*. Fishing to pass the time in the context of family holidays offers to some extent a parallel to school and to organised leisure activities for children of school age for which parents take the responsibility. Seen from the parents' perspective, this kind of fishing in a leisure context can meet a need for *comfort*. The passionate sport fisher wishes, however, to achieve a quite different goal by means of his activity: primarily, this goal is *excitement* and *prestige*, conferred by his having access to the most exclusive fishing waters. Some fishers of this type are even educated in the tradition whereby big fish are released again into the water after the experience of having brought them to land. Both this category of hobby fishers and the passionate salmon fishers who travel halfway round the world are satisfying explicitly *luxury* needs. The classical hunt for trophies is a corresponding example, where it is the trophy, not the booty, that counts.

Time and resources

The following quotation exemplifies how resources must be evaluated in a time perspective:

„Likewise unfortunate is the tendency to think of resources in terms of a single asset, e.g., coal, rather than in terms of the whole complex of substances, forces, conditions, relationships, institutions, policies, and so on, which alone help to explain the way coal functions as a resource at a given time and place.

This preoccupation with single tangible phenomena in nature creates the false impression of resources as things static, fixed, whereas actually they are as dynamic as civilization“ (Peach and Constantin 1972:8).

Thus, resources are not something static, and this holds true also of tourist and recreation resources. We shall take Lillehammer in the period between 1854 and 1990 as a concretisation of this reality, to show how the resource potential or presuppositions change in certain areas, viz.:

- technique
- values
- skills
- changes outside the area
- changes inside the area
- relative (sociological) changes in the relationships between competing tourist areas
- changes in salaries and costs in relationships between different countries

We begin this survey with the following postulate: between 1854 and 1990, Lillehammer never at any time had such poor presuppositions for leisure tourism as at the close of this period. This is because what previously had been decisive presuppositions had become less important by the close of the period, because important resources had been weakened in absolute terms in the course of this period, and in part also because technical changes have weakened the position of Lillehammer as a tourist area.

1854: The railway from Oslo to Eidsvoll was opened, and Lake Mjøsa had already a steamboat connection from Eidsvoll to Lillehammer. The entire route from Oslo to Lillehammer was linked up in a manner unparalleled by any other inland area. In terms of communications, Lillehammer was without competition until the completion of the canal between Bandak and the North Sea in 1892; another important element of competition was the opening of the railway line to Bergen in 1909. Thus, Lillehammer acquired an advantage in 1854 in the field of infrastructure, and remained the only inland town in such a position until 1909.

1880-1950: This is the period of the „Lillehammer colony“ of painters. They lived here and worked here for large parts of the year. Four factors worked together to give Lillehammer a significant colony of artists in this period. First, there were good communications to Oslo (infrastructure); secondly, the town offered a varied range of hotels and boarding-houses (superstructure); thirdly, the price level was low when compared to Oslo. The fourth and perhaps most decisive factor was connected to the air, the light, the cultivated landscape and the space

within which this landscape was set (a series of basic natural resources). The interplay of these factors is documented by Boym (1990:41-42).

1870-1970: Values appreciated by holiday visitors changed. The main season was originally linked to the period without snow, and time was employed in conversation in the drawing-rooms and going for excursions - on foot in the summer and on skis in the winter. Lillehammer has a terrain suited to these activities. In the twenty years from the mid-1960's onwards, excursions on skis lost their popularity and were replaced by Alpine ski sport. Lillehammer does not have the topographical circumstances which would permit the development of a wide-ranging and competitive offer of Alpine sports. This change of preferences in the market explains why a systematic and long-lasting development of Alpine sport could begin in the mid-1960's, for example in Hovden in Aust-Agder county, Hemsedal in Buskerud county, Beitostölen in Oppland county and Trysil in Hedmark county.

1945-1990: As has been pointed out above, resources are something relative, and it is easy to draw erroneous conclusions if this fact is forgotten. The point emerges clearly if we compare the two winter sports sites Geilo in Buskerud county and Lillehammer in the post-war period. In the first part of this period, Lillehammer, a town with a railway station, had the advantage of tarmac roads, pavements, street lighting, parks and benches, short distances between the tourist facilities, a gallery, cinema, museums, etc., whereas things were different in Geilo. The paths were full of puddles, there were no pavements, the distance between the tourist facilities was relatively great, and there were no galleries, swimming pool, souvenir shop, bookshop, etc. This changed in the course of this period, so that Geilo acquired the same small-town advantages that Lillehammer once had, but without the massive disadvantage of motor traffic and noise and air pollution. Thus, even if Lillehammer - when seen in isolation - had not changed in any way at all during this period, we can see that what happens in other places involves far-reaching consequences for Lillehammer too.

1952-1990: 1952 represents a watershed in time, since the rationing of consumer goods was basically over by this point. The development of salaries and prices in the course of the post-war period had pushed Norway up from the category of nations with low prices to the category of the „top ten“ in terms of salaries and prices. This means that changes become necessary: it is no longer possible to manufacture successfully products that could be produced at competitive prices in the low-cost situation. New products demand persons with competence, and in some cases a different production apparatus. The tourist industry in Lillehammer met the new situation in a defensive manner. The firms maximised the advantages of large concerns in well-known product concepts, and oriented themselves increasingly to that protected section of the demand for their products which was linked to work-related tourism.

1960-1980: Environmental resources in the town were destroyed when characteristic low buildings were torn down and replaced by architecture which was foreign to the locality, or else international in character, including large and simple elemental buildings (Sveen 1977:65-66, Sveen 1980:116-127, Kolloen and Larsen 1988). This destruction of resources was not imposed on the town from the outside, but is connected to the evaluations made by local builders. In the course of the 1980's, awareness of the visual milieu has gradually grown, and a systematic cultivation and development of resources in this field has been undertaken.

1960-1990: Acting together, changes in skills (e.g. in the knowledge of languages and in the ability to swim), economy and technology establish the presuppositions for a strong growth in aeroplane journeys abroad in this period. These changes have their effect on the national level, and they do not fail to affect Norwegian producers who supply goods and services to the touristic demand which is exposed to competition. (See Note 1).

1990-: Around 1990, Lillehammer was the fourth most polluted town in Norway in terms of NO₂. Only Stavanger, Drammen and Oslo had higher levels. Lillehammer exceeded the boundary levels set by the World Health Organisation for nitrogen oxides (Sjösten 1990:10). Besides this, massive traffic on the E18 road meant that the town was plagued by noise day and night. External changes in the production life can thus weaken the resource potential (pure air) in an area. We find many similar examples in central Europe (the combination of air and noise pollution). In many places, this has destroyed the presuppositions which previously existed for classic „health-resort tourism“.

Resource analysis as a challenge

An analysis of resources is a triple challenge which embraces the following stages:

1. a systematic search for the presence of various resources;
2. a qualitative evaluation of what one has discovered;
3. a spatial treatment of what is present, i.e. the clarification of the possibilities and limitations inherent in the location - the aspect of accessibility.

The extent of a resource analysis depends on its goal. If it is the public authorities who initiate the resource analysis, the challenge will usually be to clarify what resources with relevance to leisure tourism are found in a particular area (the entire spectrum in table 3). If the resource analysis is initiated by a firm or an investor, its aim will usually be limited to the resources for a more narrowly defined production.

In order to achieve a qualitative evaluation, it is necessary to compare the quality of what has been identified with what has been identified in alternative production areas. The demand made on the resources must also be accommodated to the production which is in question here. Usually, the most demanding task is to produce for demands generated by holiday tourism, *inter alia* because such demands are virtually boundless. Those who have a great deal of money can in principle choose that which is absolutely best in the whole world. And large portions of the rest of the population also have the financial means to pay for quite long journeys. In other words, people can function as very quality-conscious or demanding purchasers. This is why production for demands generated by holiday tourism mostly requires a basis in unique resources.

We have however many examples of resource-based tourism which depends on resources that are far from outstanding. How is this to be explained in this perspective? What is involved here is usually a resource-based production to meet demands for day-excursions, weekend stays and other short stays related to leisure activity. The time spent on the journeys related to these demands is often very limited, so that what is offered must be developed on the basis of the resources which exist within the relevant distance or time of the journey (Clawson, Held and Stoddard 1960:136). Thus the great challenge in resource analysis is to discuss resources as

something relative, and to make direct correlations between the resources and types of product and products.

Conclusion

In this paper, I have attached great weight to the demonstration that resources are *something relative*, and that they contain a *dynamic element*. It has also been important to show that resources for tourism and recreation embrace partly *physical and concrete circumstances*, and partly *non-concrete resources* and potentials. The spectrum of resources is itself very wide-reaching, because the tourist sector must develop consumer goods which are meant to satisfy *necessities, the need for comfort, and luxury requirements*. The Norwegian cost level also makes it necessary to create a professional foundation for product development on an independent basis. The conditions of production in Norway mean that the imitation of wares and services produced by others will be relevant only to a small degree. It is against this background that everything connected with the understanding, cultivation and development of resources becomes important.

The products offered at present are seldom optimal, when considered from the perspective of the needs they are meant to meet. This makes it necessary to look properly at typologies of tourism which provide systematic information about which *needs* are to be satisfied. Hotels, restaurants, entertainment facilities, stores and other enterprises can only indirectly say something about this, so that they do not provide the most useful information when we seek to identify potentially relevant industrial resources for the tourist branch, and how these industrial resources should be treated, so that the finished products can satisfy existing demands better than today.

The main indicators that should be employed to assess the quality of the products offered by the tourist industry today are *profitability* and *competitiveness*. These two main indicators clearly tell us that this industry today faces great challenges both on the production side and in terms of necessary changes. A process of change will necessarily challenge the entire area covering *the search for resources, their evaluation, their development and their employment*.

Notes

1. *Protected industries versus industries which are exposed to competition:*

*By *protected industry* we mean those industries, or parts of industries, which produce goods and services which it is not possible, or only possible to a limited extent, to import from outside the border of the country.

* By *industry which is exposed to competition* we mean:

- the traditional export industries and
- industries which produce goods and services for the domestic market, but where demand can be directed at potential foreign producers.

The marked based tourism (work-related tourism) is protected from competition from outside the borders of a country. *The resource-based* tourism is to a great extent exposed to competition from outside the borders - particularly the holiday tourism. *The network-based* tourism is both *protected* and to a great extent *non-commercial*.

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Enclosure : Research project: Identifying and evaluating resources for tourism and recreation (See Ref. 1)

General introduction

1. The situation today is that we are able to carry out systematic analysis to identify and evaluate resources for tourism and recreation (See Ref. 2), e.g. along the lines I set out in the chapter entitled "Reiselivsnæringens ressursgrunnlag" ("The nature of resources for tourism and recreation"). See in particular Figure 1 and section III (page 239). (See Ref 3)

The identifying and evaluating of resources for tourism and recreation is a 3-part operation consisting of the following stages:

- 1) An identification of the resources available
- 2) A qualitative evaluation of these resources
- 3) A situation review of the resources with regard to access.

So far there is a clear parallel to the mapping of mineral resources, as not all areas bear resources of that kind that we are looking for. In addition, the resource aspect is highly complex (as is the case when dealing with different minerals), so that the possibilities for development can differ from area to area. Thus they provide a basis for varying types of tourism.

2. On the basis of the situation revealed (the range of resources encompassed (See Ref 4): natural resources, cultural resources, semiproducts of interest for the sector concerned, and resources based upon know-how/human resources) one can go on to discuss

- a) The type(s) of tourism most suited to the area concerned on the basis of the resources available.
- b) The products or product development the present situation would best appear to support.

3. It is hardly possible to analyse resources in any systematic or practical manner without taking into account the sociological basis of each type of tourism. This knowledge is necessary in order to identify the factors of production (resources or input elements) and to evaluate the basis which gives an area touristic potential.

Resource theory makes the unreserved statement:

"Our conclusion may be clearly drawn. The word "resource" does not refer to a thing or substance, but to a function that a thing or a substance may perform, or to an operation in which it may take part, namely the function or operation of attaining a given end such as satisfying a want. In other words, the word "resources" is an abstraction reflecting human appraisal and relating to a function or operation (See Ref. 5). As such, it is akin to such words as food, property or capital, but is much wider in sweep than any one of these - - -" (See Ref. 6).

In other words we cannot grasp the potential of the resources concerned without taking into account the various users (tourist categories) and their *needs, motives, values and attitudes towards life*. It is therefore necessary and proper to choose a sociological approach to the phenomenon of tourist resources (See Ref 7). A general outline and description of associated wants can be found in my doctoral thesis «Lokalisering av reiseliv. Om ressursanalyser, den romlige fordeling og lokal innpassing» (See Ref. 8). («Localization of Tourism. About identifying and evaluating resources, spatial distribution, and adaption to local carrying capacity» Second Edition and second printing). See especially the chapter: «Resource analysis», pages 83-119.

4. Natural resources and socially-determined resources of interest for tourism and recreation are largely subjects to the same laws as other biological resources, i.e. there is an upper limit to optimal use and they can be overused to the point where they lose much of their value. They can, however, also be developed over time in volume, capacity and quality. It is extremely important to be aware of these facts, because those areas (municipalities/regions/countries) which today act on this awareness and create a programme aimed specifically at fostering and developing their resources will gain an advantage compared those areas (municipalities/regions/countries) which do not grasp these possibilities. (See Ref. 9)

The project

The research project is carried out by employing students who have chosen «Identifying and evaluating resources for tourism and recreation» as the subject for their final diploma. It also requires giving the undersigned the financial freedom to work exclusively on finding solutions to specific problems and acting in co-operation with the municipality concerned. The maximum capacity for a year is to carry out 9 analyses.

In other words we supply the basic material for a municipal plan for the sector of tourism or, if the municipality so desires, an update of existing plan. There still remain the administrative aspects of area utilization and the preparation of material for political consideration and the setting of priorities.

The project is carried out on the following conditions

1. A cash subsidy of - - - NOK is to be paid by each participating municipality. A third of this amount is payable upon our confirmation that the municipality is included in the project. A further third is to be paid when field work commences and the final third payment is due when the report on the work is completed.
2. A local contact person shall be appointed to discuss and assist in solving a wide range of practical problems (e.g. council chairman, councillor, head of planning and development section, business consultant, director of tourism, etc). A desk and access to a telephone shall also be made available during the period of field work. It is an obvious advantage if the person appointed as contact also has a professional interest in the work to be carried out, so we put emphasis on that reality when we negotiate the agreement.
3. In the vast majority of cases the student conducting field work will have a car and driving licence. If the person concerned has a licence, but no car, we hire a car (preferably from «Rent-A-Wreck» in order to save money). If, however, a driving licence is lacking, transport has to be organized locally.) From experience we find that this problem is readily solved when one or more persons in the municipal administration share the task, normally some of those municipal employees mentioned above. The municipality can, however, reserve the right to find some other solution to this problem. (Travel and transport expenses are covered out of the subsidy of the project.) Students using their own cars will be paid NOK 2.00 per kilometre.
4. The contact person is expected to find accommodation for the student during the period of fieldwork. This should be of a modest standard (bed-sitter, holiday cabin, guest house etc.) and within normal travelling distance if the student have a car. If the student has no means of transport, accommodation must be found in the vicinity of the municipal administrative office.
5. The municipal technical department is responsible for preparing and making available the following:
 - a) An A-4 map showing the municipality in relation to county communications and population.
 - b) An A-4 map of the municipality showing roads, towns, the names of rural

districts, (school districts), lakes and rivers. These details should be the subject of closer discussion between the field worker and the technical staff concerned.

We for our part have to provide a general map placing the municipality concerned in a national context.

In return for participating in the project the individual municipality can expect the following benefits.

1. A report consisting of:

- a) **An analysis of actual resources** in the area, i.e. a systematic study of the potential for leisure tourist activities in the municipality.
- b) A review of the municipality's accessibility and situation with regard to the potential market (i.e. **a localization analysis**).
- c) **A product-** (See Ref. 10), **profitability-** (See Ref. 11) and **profile analysis** (See Ref. 12) indicating the type/s of tourism possible in the light of the resources available and which of these should be chosen on the basis of profitability and image of the region.
- d) **A documented account of how the demand for Norwegian tourist products has developed** during the post-war period and an indication of probable future growth in both short-term and long-term demand.
- e) A summary of **the potential for further development of the tourist resources** within the municipality and the substance of **sustainable tourist development**.

2. During the course of the project 3 meetings will be arranged (two of the seminars are a 3-day meeting, and one a 2-day meeting). The first and the last of these meetings usually take place in Lillehammer, while the intermediate meeting takes place in one of the counties we co-operate with. A summing-up seminar of 2-day length normally takes place some time after the submission of the analysis reports. It is a condition that the contact person appointed by the municipality should attend these meetings.

The idea behind these meetings is to consider the central problems arising from this type of analysis work. Certain themes are dealt with by myself, but the main contribution comes from leading experts brought in from outside.

3. At the beginning of 1996 this project became a joint venture between Lillehammer College and the architectural firm of Didrik Hvoslef-Eide A/S in Oslo. Starting in the early 1970's, this company has established itself as a leader in the field of applied tourist planning in Norway and in order to obtain more direct access to this expertise our project has become a shared venture between Lillehammer College and Hvoslef-Eide A/S. Formal qualifications possessed by the head of the company, Didrik Hvoslef-Eide himself, include professorships in physical planning from the Agriculture University of Norway and in architecture from the Norwegian College of Architecture in Oslo.

This co-operation in no way affects budget arrangements, administration or the programme schedule developed from previous work. Nordland and Buskerud, the two municipalities co-operating in this project, have been supplied with updated summaries of all project carried out by Hvoslef-Eide in the field of tourism and leisure activities since the early 1970's.

4. In my opinion, the fact that participants are introduced to a method of working which we are convinced will lead to benefit is just as important as the report itself. If the most serious investment error are to be avoided and an optimal use of potential resources for tourist recreational activities achieved, the following factors must be given close consideration:

RESOURCE POTENTIAL ↔ TYPE OF TOURISM ↔ THE PROFILE (IMAGE),
FORMAT AND THE WAY YOU OPERATE

The work covers a period of roughly 6 months, and we put stress on the following points:

- * The analyses are carried out by students with a minimum of 5 semesters of study behind them.
- * The scheme as a whole is well-tried so we know that it works.
- * Each student is given the backing of extensive individual assistance and advice.

The student's net contribution represents 5 months' work. In addition there is the total time devoted to the programme by myself and people taking part in the seminars, which can be assessed overall at one month's work with each area.

Nevertheless, we do not guarantee the final result. Each individual municipality must take a calculated risk, but experience shows that the risk involved is very small.

Sondre Svalastog
Professor/Responsible for this project

References

- ¹ My other two research projects are at present:
- Co-ordinator for «The Nordic Research Programme on Tourism and Sustainable Development», and
 - Co-ordinator of a «Norwegian network group for product studies and product development in the field of tourism and recreation»

2. At least within the English-speaking world, economists (resources economists) and geographers have long been accustomed to dividing the commercial part of the tourist business into a *resource based* part and a *market based* part. See so early works as those of Marion Clawson, R. Burnell Held, and C. H. Stoddard: «Land for the Future» (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, for Resources of the Future, Inc., 1960.) In this work they use the words «resource based» and «user oriented» (The concept «user oriented» corresponds to the concept «market based» activities or business.)

The resource-based part of the tourist industry is exposed to international competition, while the market based part of the industry is not exposed to international competition in the same way. The resource-based part of tourism is formed by leisure-time traffic, while the market-based is constituted by work-related travel. In addition to these two main groups that cover, broadly speaking, the commercial part of the tourism, we need a concept to cover the non-commercial part of the phenomenon. I myself prefer to call that part of the tourism *network-based*.

3. Svalastog in Jacobsen & Viken (editors): "TURISME. Fenomen og næring" Universitetsforlaget Oslo - Stockholm 1997. (Jacobsen & Viken, editors: "TOURISM. Phenomenon and industry" The Scandinavian University Press, Oslo - Stockholm 1997).

4. Anthony S. Travis "Physical impacts: trends affecting tourism. Managing the environmental and cultural impacts of tourism and leisure development", especially the subsection "The resource base of tourism", *Tourism Management*, December 1982. I became acquainted with this at a critical stage of my work on the question of resources, and the work of Travis has been of great inspiration to me. I am in great debt to Anthony S. Travis.

5. The meaning "by taking part of an operation" very often means a process of production where the input (resources or factors of production) changes identity, but in other cases it can mean transportation from one place to another or through time (store). The main challenge by transportation from one place to another (geographically) is normally to avoid damages (changes). The challenge in connection with transportation through time is sometime to avoid changes (fx. damages on fruit and vegetables) and sometimes the transportation itself is a very important part of the production - fx. in wine and cheese production.

Another professional challenge here are the mastering of the whole range of close related concepts as: factors of production (often synonym to the concept: resources, and in the tourism- and recreation business often attractions (not man made)), intermediate-products or components (semiproducts) and products. A dinner can for sure be a product in relation to a group going out for an evening, but it is only a component in relation to a week-end in Paris or a holiday on cruise. In relation to an analysis of resources the standard of the cuisines of a place or a region will be regarded and evaluated as resources. When a tourist on visit to North Cape go to the souvenirshop and buy a typical Nordic sweater, he for sure buy a product. Do the same tourist instead go to the «Husfliden» (A arts and crafts shop) and buy the outfit to do it by himself, what he buys is for sure regarded as products from the different suppliers, but the sweater and the necessary outfit is only components in a holiday-trip to North-Cape.

Within all kind of production of luxury goods and services, which a great part of the tourism and recreation business are dealing with, quality turns into a relative idea. That is the nature of making goods for the luxury market. A classical work on the nature of luxury consumption and production is: Thorstein B. Veblen: «The Leisure Class» See especially the chapter that are dealing with luxury products from the great fashion houses and Veblen's analysis of quality in relation to the market. Furthermore it is very important to grasp the distinction between

Sondre Svalastog: The nature of resources for tourism and recreation. Lillehammer College: Working paper no 68, 1998

production in an economic sense and production in a technical sense. For a general introduction to the theory of production see: Frisch, R. 1965. «Theory of Production» Holland: Reidel Publishing Company.

6. W. N. Peach & James A. Constantine: «Zimmermann's World Resources and Industries», Third Edition, page 9, Harper & Row, Publishers, New York/Evanston/San Francisco/London 1972. (First edition 1933).

7. Geographers have a long and extensive tradition of working with the question of resources, and specially with resources for tourism, outdoor-recreation and conditions for activities in the countryside. In spite of all traditions, the geographer Brian S. Duffield had to conclude in the following way in a summing-up article about «The Evaluation of Resources»:

«It was inevitable that a major focus of the interest of geographers in tourism would be in the interaction of tourists and the resources they use - - -»

«From the late 1960's geographers struggled in an attempt to devise objective procedures to evaluate and measure the quality and value of landscape for recreational purposes - - -»

«Techniques grew evermore sophisticated in terms of their utilisation of developments in statistical analysis and computing thus echoing contemporary trends in British geography as a whole (Coppock et al. 1974; Duffield and Coppock 1975b). By the mid 1970's the various techniques that had been devised were already themselves the subject of critical review (Penning-Rowsell 1973; Crofts and Cook 1974) and the objectivity of those based on the Linton approach were being questioned (Gilg 1975) - - -»

«Appleton's contribution (1975) was valuable in highlighting the theoretical deficiencies in many of the techniques that had been developed - - -»

«Geographers have yet to overcome these difficulties and the last decade has seen little substantive work in this field, an indication perhaps that solutions to this intractable problem lie outside the geographical discipline - - -» (my emphasis) (Brian S. Duffield: «The Study of Tourism in Britain - A Geographical Perspective» p.p. 27- 35 in *GeoJournal* 19.1/1984)

In my opinion Brian S. Duffield put forward the key question here, without giving the answer, although some of the references he uses do bring him close to an answer. The resource-bases for tourism and leisure activities is of such a kind that we have to identify them through a sociological approach so we can explain what kind of needs to be solved.

If those of us that work with tourism in high-cost countries want to take a global lead in product development, we have to establish a so good and relevant know-how and understanding that we are able to create better products than the market itself is able to ask for. The market can only ask for products they already knows. The market can choose (like and dislike), but never create.

8. Sondre Svalastog: «Lokalisering av reiseliv. Om ressursanalyser, den romlige fordeling og lokal innpassig» (2. utgave/2. opplag). Skriftserien nr 92/1994. Høgskolen i Lillehammer.

9. In a very early work about *places and carrying capacity*, J. Alan Wagar grasped this reality and possibility for a specific area by stating: « - - -managers often have the misconception that each acre of recreation land has a natural (i.e., inherent) level of durability. This is simply not so. Many means are available to extend the durability of most sites - fertilizing and irrigation, rest-rotation of use, supplemental planting, and so forth - - -» (J. Alan Wagar, 1968: «The Place of Sondre Svalastog: *The nature of resources for tourism and recreation. Lillehammer College: Working paper no 68, 1998*

Carrying Capacity in the Management of Recreation Lands» at *Third Annual Rocky Mountain-High Plains Park and Recreation Conference Proceedings 3 no. 1*, Ft. Collins, Colorado, Utah State University.)

Concerning the *cultural landscape, townscapes, buildings* (in the concept of Anthony S. Travis: *man made resources*) and the *society* on whatever level one might choose to study we face the same reality. The work of architects and landscape architects has *improving the quality* as its ultimate goal (in our context: the resource base), by fostering a clearer identity and stronger vitality in a municipality, a region, a county or a nation. The main tools for obtaining results concerning the social part of a society involve clarifying fundamental *values*, maintaining and creating practical and theoretical *skills* that match the values and *resources* of the society.

For Norwegian and practical cases see:

Developing the physical resource basis in a costal area: Kjell Skarheim: «Risør skjærgård og driften av denne» i Sondre Svalastog (editor:) «*Turisme ved kysten*» Informasjonsserien nr 55 - 1985. Lillehammer 1985: Oppland Distriktshøgskole.

(Kjell Skarheim. «The Risør skerries and their management». Article in «Costal tourism» (Editor: Sondre Svalastog). Information series No. 55 - 1985. Lillehammer 1985: Oppland Regional College).

Developing the cultural landscape in an area for recreational tourism: Didrik Hvoslef-Eide: «En miljømessig og estetisk stedsutvikling - relatert til en bærekraftig utvikling» i «Reiselivsplan for Buskerud 1996-1999» Drammen 1997: Buskerud fylkeskommune.

(Didrik Hvoslef-Eide. «Environmental and aesthetic local improvement in relation to sustainable development». Drammen 1997: Buskerud county).

The challenge of revitalization and strengthening the social- and cultural situation in a municipality: «Kommuneplanen for Lom kommune 1996 - 1999» Lom 1996: Lom kommune. («Overlall development plan for Lom municipality 1996 - 99» Lom 1996)

10. In order to find out what products the actual area has conditions for, we here drew upon theory and models developed by Michael Porter, Harvard School of Business. The project at Harvard is carried out under the main heading «The competitive advantage of Nations». Porter started the project early in the 80's and it is still going on. Many books, articles and reports have been published by Porter himself, people he has cooperated with, and people that have used Porter's approach in order to clarify what kind of production a particular area has the best condition to support. The works of Porter are also often used to identify weak fields so that systematically developing work can be started.

11. In these context *profitability analysis* does not mean traditional business calculation. In the context here *profitability analyses* mean qualitative studies of production alternatives. In other words we are sorting out here product alternatives that cannot match the actual level of costs. Industry exposed to international competition cannot become profitable in a high-cost country unless the product is a niche-product, a know-how product or a special-product. Ordinary products in a high-cost situation can never become profitable and give the necessary value-added.

We do not develop sustainable tourism unless we develop a tourism by prescribing alternatives that are able to pay sufficient for every factor of production. And scholars that are concerned with the tourism industry have a special responsibility to do a job so the industry develops in such a

Sondre Svalastog: The nature of resources for tourism and recreation. Lillehammer College: Working paper no 68, 1998

way that they can afford to pay the locale workforce enough. A business sector cannot become sustainable in an economic sense unless it can afford to pay the employees so well that they can settle down and get the sufficient basis for establishing a family and creating cultural and social continuity.

A very useful book that illustrates the connection between the *level of know-how* in a society - what *kind of products* you can *expect to be developed*, and *the salary* the industry can afford to pay the workforce (and of course other factors of production), is Peter Dicken: «Global Shift. The Internationalization of Economic Activity» (Second Edition) London 1992: Paul Chapman Publisher Ltd

12. We more and more often see that the question of profile for the actual area has been discussed in the comprehensive plan (overall plan/municipality plan) for the area. In connection to tourism development that is an important task to clarify. A profile discussion promotes the identity.