

Tourism in Cyprus

Balancing the benefits and costs

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Foreign tourism to Cyprus has grown rapidly since the mid-1970s and has yielded considerable economic benefits. However, some environmental damage has resulted, particularly from the tourist accommodation construction programme. Furthermore, in a few areas the large concentrations of foreign tourists at particular times have caused stresses within the host community. On the other hand, many aspects of traditional Cyprus culture have been revitalized by tourism. Stricter control of tourism developments, while encouraging a more even seasonal and regional distribution of tourists, should enable the economic benefits of tourism to be maximized while minimizing the environmental, social and cultural costs.

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Submitted 25 June 1990; accepted 31 August 1990.

Cyprus is the third largest island in the Mediterranean covering an area of just over 3500 square miles (see Figure 1). It has an intense Mediterranean climate with hot, dry summers from mid-May to mid-September and rainy, rather changeable winters from November to mid-March. Cyprus has a population of about 660 000, and the distribution by ethnic group is just under 80% Greek Cypriots, just under 20% Turkish Cypriots and a few percent of other minorities such as Maronites and Armenians. On becoming independent from British rule in 1960, Cyprus was a unified country, but in July 1974 Turkey invaded Cyprus and the country was partitioned, with Turkish Cypriots residing in the northern part of the island (37% of the land area) and Greek Cypriots residing in the southern part of the island.

Tourism can bring substantial economic benefits, and it was assigned a high priority in the development effort of Cyprus mainly because of the following considerations:¹

- foreign exchange earnings – these were assuming increasing importance because of the decline of the contribution of some of the traditional sources of foreign exchange such as minerals and foreign bases;
- contribution to national income;
- employment-generating capacity;
- regional development.

Development and characteristics of Cyprus tourism

Strong growth in international visitor arrivals took place during the 1960s and early 1970s, rising from a figure of just over 25 000 in 1960 to over a quarter of a million in 1973 – an increase of over 900%. By contrast, world international tourist arrivals increased over the same period by 175%. The establishment of the Cyprus Tourism Organization (CTO) in 1969 was instrumental in achieving this growth in visitor arrivals. The CTO is a statutory body which is subsidized by the Cyprus government, and is responsible for the promotion and development of the island's tourist industry.

The partitioning of Cyprus in 1974 had a major effect on the tourism sector. Considerable physical damage was caused to the infrastructure, and the partition line established between the Turkish and Greek zones effectively divided the island into two with no freedom of movement between the zones. The highly developed tourist regions of Famagusta

¹A. Andronicou, 'Tourism in Cyprus', in E. deKadt, *Tourism – Passport to Development?*, Oxford University Press/World Bank/Unesco, Oxford, UK, 1979, pp 237–264.

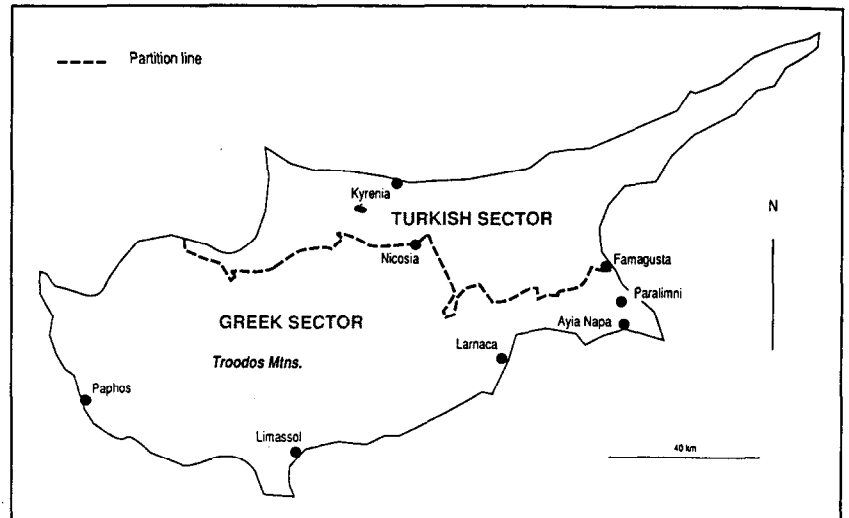


Figure 1. Map of Cyprus.

Table 1. Composition of tourist arrivals ranked in order of importance of origin country, 1989.

Country of usual residence	Tourist arrivals × 10 ³	% of total
UK	549.6	39.9
Sweden	114.7	8.3
West Germany	108.7	7.9
Lebanon	87.5	6.4
Finland	87.2	6.3
Greece	59.0	4.3
Switzerland	45.8	3.3
Netherlands	35.3	2.6
Norway	30.1	2.2
Austria	27.3	2.0
France	26.3	1.9
All countries	1377.6	100.0

Source: Cyprus Tourism Organization, *Tourism in Cyprus 1989*, CTO, Nicosia, Cyprus, 1990.

Table 2. Composition of tourist arrivals by age and sex (%).

Age/sex	1977	1983	1988
Age			
Under 15	14.3	11.7	9.5
15-29	25.9	24.7	26.1
30-44	33.1	30.5	27.1
45-59	18.9	22.1	24.4
60 and over	7.9	10.3	11.9
Not stated	0.0	0.7	1.0
Sex			
Male	58.8	53.6	49.0
Female	41.2	46.4	51.0

Source: Ministry of Finance, Department of Statistics and Research, *Tourism Migration and Travel Statistics 1988*, MOF, Nicosia, Cyprus, 1989.

and Kyrenia were located in the Turkish zone, which caused substantial problems for the tourist sector in the Greek zone, as in 1973 more than half of all visitors to Cyprus stayed in Famagusta (where over 50% of the island's bed capacity was concentrated). Overall it is estimated that 65% of the bed capacity existing in 1974 was located in the Turkish sector, together with about 40% of the restaurants and bars.

This article concentrates on the development of tourism in the southern (Greek) zone after the partitioning of the island. The major problems facing the tourism sector were the re-establishment of Cyprus as an international tourist destination, the creation of new hotel accommodation and ancillary facilities to replace those lost, and the construction of a new airport in Larnaca to replace Nicosia International Airport which ceased to operate and has been under United Nations control since 1974. Intensive efforts by the CTO, the Cyprus government and the private sector have resulted in spectacular growth over the post-partitioning period. The number of international tourist arrivals in the Greek zone in 1976 was 172 100, and this rose year by year to reach a total of 1 377 600 in 1989 – an increase of 700%. By contrast, over the same period world international tourist arrivals increased by 83%. The growth of inward international tourism in Cyprus is shown in Figure 2.

The composition of tourist arrivals in Cyprus in 1989 ranked in order of importance of origin country is shown in Table 1 for those origins where arrivals exceeded 20 000. The UK is clearly the dominant source market, accounting for 40% of total tourist arrivals. The Scandinavian countries are also important, with Sweden, Norway and Finland jointly accounting for 17% of arrivals. The only non-European country to feature in the top 11 group of source markets is Lebanon, with just 6% of tourist arrivals. Lebanon used to be a far more important source country, but the political turmoil there has resulted in a substantial reduction in arrivals. In spite of the close ties between Greece and southern Cyprus, Greece provides just 4% of tourist arrivals.

Table 2 shows tourist arrivals in Cyprus broken down by age and sex for the period 1977-88. It can be seen that the tourist population has aged over the period. The largest category of tourists is in the 30-44 year age-band, and this is followed by the 15-29 year age-band. (The average age of tourists is about 37 years.) The proportion of male tourists

(X 1000)

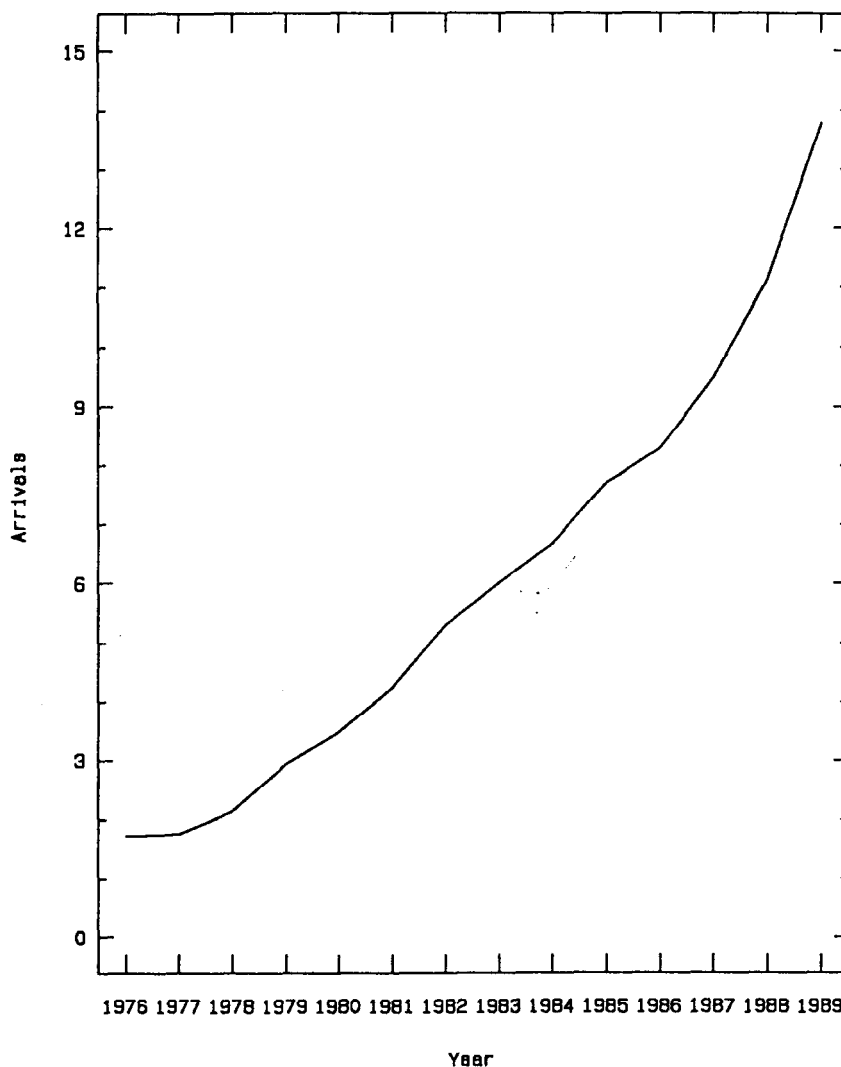


Figure 2. International tourist arrivals in Cyprus, 1976-1989.

arriving in Cyprus has decreased since 1977 from 58.8% to 49.0%. The first year in which female foreign tourist arrivals outnumbered male arrivals was 1988.

Table 3 shows how the average length of stay of tourists in Cyprus has changed over the period 1977-88. The proportion of tourists staying less than one month increased from 81.3% in 1977 to 93.9% in 1988. By contrast, the percentage of tourists staying between one and two months in Cyprus decreased from 13.1% to 4.1%, and those staying longer than two months decreased from 5.1% to 1.0%. Cyprus has become much more of a short-stay destination than it was in the late 1970s.

Table 3. Composition of tourist departures by length of stay (%).

Time-band	1977	1983	1988
< 1 month	81.3	88.4	93.9
1-2 months	13.1	8.1	4.1
> 2 months	5.1	2.7	1.0
not stated	0.5	0.8	1.0

Source:
Ministry of Finance, Department of Statistics and Research, *Tourism Migration and Travel Statistics*, MOF, Nicosia, Cyprus, various issues.

Tourist arrivals in Cyprus are subject to strong seasonality patterns. Table 4 shows the distribution by month for 1988. The most popular months for tourists are July and August, but the periods April to June and September to October also attract high numbers. The least popular month for international tourists visiting Cyprus is January, followed by February, December, November and March.

Table 5 shows the type of accommodation used by tourists visiting Cyprus. The categories considered are hotels, hotel apartments and

Table 5. Composition of tourist departures by type of accommodation used (%).

Country	Hotels		Hotel apartments		Other	
	1983	1989	1983	1989	1983	1989
<i>Europe</i>						
Austria	80.0	72.5	5.6	13.7	14.4	13.8
Finland	60.9	44.1	27.7	47.5	11.4	8.4
France	68.5	62.8	1.7	10.5	29.8	26.7
West Germany	74.1	69.0	5.1	14.0	20.8	17.0
Greece	30.1	48.0	2.0	5.3	67.9	46.7
Norway	44.8	38.1	35.2	49.0	20.0	12.8
Sweden	43.7	36.8	25.0	52.5	31.3	10.7
Switzerland	82.0	77.6	7.8	13.2	10.2	9.2
UK	45.6	42.5	11.1	28.8	43.3	28.7
<i>Asia</i>						
Lebanon	43.1	37.4 ^a	6.7	13.5 ^a	50.2	49.0 ^a

Note:

^adenotes 1988 figure

Sources:

Cyprus Tourism Organization, *Tourism in Cyprus 1989*, CTO, Nicosia, Cyprus, 1990; and Ministry of Finance, Department of Statistics and Research, *Tourism, Migration and Travel Statistics*, MOF, Nicosia, Cyprus, various issues.

Table 4. Composition of tourist arrivals by month, 1988

Month	Tourist arrivals × 10 ³	% of total
January	26.0	2.3
February	33.3	3.0
March	66.3	6.0
April	92.6	8.3
May	121.8	11.0
June	115.8	10.4
July	152.1	13.7
August	153.0	13.8
September	129.5	11.6
October	117.8	10.6
November	58.7	5.3
December	44.8	4.0
Quarter 1	125.6	11.3
Quarter 2	330.2	29.7
Quarter 3	434.6	39.1
Quarter 4	221.3	19.9
Total	1111.8	100.0

Source:

Ministry of Finance, Department of Statistics and Research, *Tourism Migration and Travel Statistics 1988*, MOF, Nicosia, Cyprus, 1989.

Table 6. Supply of tourist accommodation (number of units).

Accommodation category	1983	1988
<i>Hotels (with star grading)</i>	115	162
five-star hotel	5	7
four-star hotel	16	27
three-star hotel	35	51
two-star hotel	30	41
one-star hotel	29	36
<i>Hotel apartments</i>	99	206

Source:

Ministry of Finance, Department of Statistics and Research, *Tourism Migration and Travel Statistics 1988*, MOF, Nicosia, Cyprus, 1989.

other tourist accommodation establishments (including tourist villas), and 'other', where the latter denotes unlicensed establishments, own homes, tourists staying with friends and relatives, and so on. Table 5 shows the percentages of tourists staying in the different categories of accommodation in 1983 and 1989, and also how the preference patterns for different kinds of accommodation vary according to the nationality of the tourist. Thus, for example, the tastes of Scandinavians changed considerably over the period with a marked movement away from hotels towards hotel apartments. Although this follows the overall pattern, the change was more marked (as measured by percentage point changes in accommodation categories) in the case of Scandinavia. By contrast, Greece exhibited an increase in the proportion of tourists staying in hotels. The 'other' category of accommodation showed a decline in popularity over the period.

Table 6 shows how the supply of hotel and hotel apartment accommodation has evolved over the period 1983–88, in terms of the number of units. The greatest increase in supply occurred in the hotel apartment category, where the numbers more than doubled over the period.

The CTO is promoting Cyprus as an international conference centre in its efforts to alleviate seasonality problems. The existence of a good hotel stock, modern facilities, trained personnel and a first-class communication system which links the island with the outside world makes Cyprus a highly appropriate venue for conferences. The development of the conference trade over the period 1983–88 is shown in Table 7. Over this period the number of conferences increased by 138%, and both the number of participants and the corresponding guest-nights more than doubled. The average conference duration decreased slightly. Conference receipts are low as a percentage of total tourism receipts, but this proportion grew substantially over the period. In 1988, 33% of all conferences were held in the low season (November to March), helping to alleviate seasonality problems.

Table 7. Conference tourism

Conference statistics	1983	1988
Number of conferences	278	661
Number of participants (× 10 ³)	12.5	29.7
Number of guest-nights (× 10 ³)	75.1	163.6
Average conference duration (days)	6.0	5.5
Conference receipts: total		
tourism receipts (%)	1.1	2.4

Source:

Cyprus Tourism Organization, *Annual Report 1988*, CTO, Nicosia, Cyprus, 1989.

Table 8. Contribution of tourism to balance of payments.

	1977	1983	1988
Tourism receipts (US \$ × 10 ⁸)	58.3	332.1	782.8
Tourism receipts: Invisibles earnings (%)	17.3	38.4	46.2
Imports of capital goods (US \$ × 10 ⁶)	77.4	101.5	204.0
Imports of fuel (US \$ × 10 ⁶)	86.2	227.8	167.9

Source:

International Monetary Fund, *International Financial Statistics*, IMF, Washington, DC, various issues; and Cyprus Tourism Organization, *Annual Report 1988*, CTO, Nicosia, Cyprus, 1989.

Economic impact of tourism

The economy of Cyprus showed obvious symptoms of underdevelopment in 1960. Agriculture played a major role in economic activity, accounting for 46% of employment. Manufacturing activity at this time was negligible, and exports were limited, with primary commodities such as minerals and agricultural products predominating. Underemployment was widespread and mass emigration was taking place. By the late 1980s substantial economic development had occurred in Cyprus, together with considerable improvements in the country's infrastructure, such as roads, ports, airports, electricity and telecommunications. The economic base of the country had become completely transformed, and the major factor in bringing about this change was the impressive performance of the tourism sector.

The contribution of tourism to the balance of payments in Cyprus is shown in Table 8 for the period 1977–88. The ratio of international tourism receipts to invisible earnings rose from 17.3% in 1977 to 46.2% in 1988. Table 8 also shows the value of tourism receipts compared with imports of capital goods and imports of fuel (*FOB*) over the same period. It can be seen that although the value of tourism receipts was lower than the value of either of these two categories of imports in 1977, by 1988 the value of tourism receipts was more than twice the total value of imports for both these categories.

Table 9 shows international tourism receipts as a percentage of exports for several important, comparable European tourist-receiving countries in 1988. Tourism receipts form a much higher proportion for Cyprus (38.0%) than for the other countries, the next highest figure being recorded for Spain (25.6%).

The economic contribution of tourism can also be measured by the ratio of international tourism receipts to gross domestic product (GDP), and Table 10 gives this ratio for Cyprus and the comparator countries in 1988. Cyprus has by far the largest ratio (18.5%), almost four times the size of that for Spain, the second ranked country.

Tourism can generate considerable employment opportunities, both directly in the tourism sector and also in other sectors such as construction. The number of people directly employed in the hotel sector in Cyprus in 1989 was 14 250, compared with 6 900 in 1983, representing an increase of 107%. It is estimated that the total number of people employed both directly and indirectly in the tourism sector is about 50 000.

In addition to the economic benefits of tourism considered so far, there are certain economic costs associated with tourism development. International tourism causes inflationary pressures, in that rich tourists can afford to buy items at high prices, and thus retailers increase their prices and provide more expensive goods and services. In addition, inflation can be caused by increasing land values. Growth in the tourism sector creates additional demand for land and competition from potential buyers forces the price of land to rise. The demand for hotels,

Table 9. Comparisons of international tourism receipts as % of exports, 1988.

Country	%
Cyprus	38.0
Greece	18.9
Spain	25.6

Sources:

International Monetary Fund, *International Financial Statistics*, IMF, Washington, DC, August 1990; and World Tourism Organization, *Current Travel and Tourism Indicators*, WTO, Madrid, Spain, January 1990.

Table 10. Comparisons of international tourism receipts as % of GDP, 1988.

Country	%
Cyprus	18.5
Greece	4.6
Spain	4.8

Sources:

International Monetary Fund, *International Financial Statistics*, IMF, Washington, DC, August 1990; and World Tourism Organization, *Current Travel and Tourism Indicators*, WTO, Madrid, Spain, January 1990.

holiday homes and tourist facilities provides income for builders, real estate agents and landowners, and local residents are forced to pay more for their houses. This can cause considerable hardship, particularly for young people. A further problem is the seasonality which affects tourism in Cyprus. Many hotels close during the off-season while others operate with low occupancy rates. This causes considerable problems for those employed in the tourism sector, as it is difficult to find alternative work in the off-season.

Environmental impact

The environment often provides the major impetus for tourism to take place. The existence of beautiful scenery, a good climate and unique landscape features has an important influence on the popularity of specific localities, regions or countries. Conservation of the environment is critical if tourists are to be attracted in the future. Budowski suggests that the following three different relationships can exist between those promoting tourism and those advocating environmental conservation:²

- Tourism and conservation can coexist in a situation in which both parties promote their respective positions, remain in isolation and establish little contact with each other. This situation is unlikely to hold over the long term because of the substantial changes in the environment which tend to occur with high tourism growth rates. This stage is, therefore, usually followed by either a symbiotic or conflicting relationship.
- Tourism and conservation may enjoy a mutually supportive or symbiotic relationship where they are organized in such a way that each benefits from the other. From the perspective of the conservationist, environmental features and conditions are left as close as possible to their original state but, at the same time, they provide benefits to the tourists who view and experience them.
- Tourism and conservation may be in conflict. This is particularly likely to happen when tourism has a detrimental impact on the environment. In some situations the effects of tourism have stimulated conservatory measures in order to protect fragile ecosystems, but more commonly the damage is already beyond repair.

In Cyprus, tourism has stimulated the rehabilitation of existing historic sites, buildings and monuments.³ The Cyprus government and the CTO have laid great emphasis on the preservation of old historic buildings, and the excavation and restoration of archaeological monuments. The Cyprus government provides direct funding for major restoration and conservation work, although revenue from admissions covers most of the cost.⁴

Most of the tourist development in Cyprus has been concentrated in the coastal areas, and although it can be argued that part of the land on which hotels and other forms of tourist accommodation have been built might have been used for agricultural purposes, in most cases the land was not fertile agricultural land. The only exception is Paphos Airport which involved the use of some fertile agricultural land in construction, but this only represented a small proportion of the total available agricultural land in Cyprus.

The development of specialist holidays concentrating on flora and

²G. Budowski, 'Tourism and conservation: conflict, coexistence or symbiosis?', *Environmental Conservation*, Vol 3, 1976, pp 27-31.

³For a more detailed discussion of several of the points in this and the next section as they relate to Cyprus, see A. Andronicou, *Development of Tourism in Cyprus: Harmonization of Tourism with the Environment*, Cosmos, Nicosia, Cyprus, 1987.

⁴See R. Wilson, 'The impact of tourism on the economy of Cyprus', *Manchester Papers on Development*, Vol 4, No 2, 1988, pp 226-243.

fauna has created an awareness of the species found on Cyprus. The interest shown by visitors has aroused a corresponding interest among a section of the host population in the island's birds, flowers, trees and so on.

Coastlines often receive the full force of recreational pressures, and in addition to tourism, activities such as electricity generation and oil refining are located on coasts. Tourism, therefore, adds to stresses which are already present in fragile coastal areas. Detrimental effects which have occurred include the elimination of some plants and animal habitats, the obliteration of geological features by excavation, water pollution and a diminution in the aesthetic qualities of the scenery.

The intensity of the hotel construction programme in Cyprus, and the short period within which these hotels have been built, together with the design styles adopted, have undoubtedly had a detrimental impact on the environment. There has been a failure to integrate resort infrastructure with aesthetically pleasing characteristics of the natural environment. Large dominating hotel buildings are sometimes out of scale and clash with their surroundings. This is referred to by Pearce as 'architectural pollution', and it is the inevitable result of the positioning of the buildings in widely different architectural styles and, equally importantly, of their shape, volume and height.⁵ The failure to incorporate adequate environmental considerations into the architectural design of hotels, restaurants and other buildings providing entertainment for tourists has led to aesthetically unpleasant buildings, and furthermore these buildings are usually high and block the views of the sea. Coastal resort development has tended to sprawl along the coastline as a response to the need to take advantage of the beach as a primary resource. This ribbon development is usually not visually pleasing.

Although tourist development has caused considerable damage to the environment, far greater damage has been caused by the huge residential building construction programme which took place in Cyprus over the period 1977–84. For example, whereas in the Limassol and Larnaca regions only 112 units of hotel accommodation were built over the period, more than 700 huge units of residential building blocks were constructed and are now operating along the same coastal regions.

Social and cultural impacts of tourism

The social and cultural impacts of tourism are the methods by which tourism contributes to changes in value systems, individual behaviour, family relationships, collective lifestyles, moral conduct, creative expressions, traditional ceremonies and community organizations, ie social and cultural impacts are the effects on the people of host communities caused by their direct and indirect associations with tourists.⁶ The greater the divergence of cultural and economic characteristics between the tourist and the host population, the more pronounced is the social impact. Also the more rapid and intense the tourism development that is taking place, the greater are the social and cultural impacts.

In Cyprus, hospitality forms an integral part of the culture, and the people have a welcoming attitude towards foreigners. Furthermore, the society's culture emphasizes ideologies and value systems which attach great importance to individual achievement. As the tourist policy

⁵D.G. Pearce, 'Form and function in French Resorts', *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol 5, 1978, pp 142–156.

⁶M. Fox, 'The social impact of tourism: a challenge to researchers and planners', in B.R. Finney and A. Watson, *A New Kind of Sugar: Tourism in the Pacific*, University of California, Santa Cruz, CA, USA, 1977, pp 27–48.

Table 11. Contact ratio values, 1985.

Area	Contact ratio	
	Annual average	Peak day value
Limassol	19.5	7.3
Larnaca	24.4	13.9
Ayia Napa/Paralimni	3.0	1.5
Paphos	17.7	10.8
Hill Resorts	43.0	16.6
Total	18.0	9.5

Source:

A. Andronikou, *op cit*, text reference 3.

followed by the Cyprus government and the CTO has been to aim at the middle and high income groups, and the tourists come mainly from Europe, tourism has not had as marked an adverse effect on the values and attitudes of Cypriot society as may otherwise have been the case. In certain areas such as Ayia Napa, however, the influx of large numbers of tourists has influenced social behaviour and social values, and caused a certain amount of antagonism. Bryden suggests that:

there may be a relationship between tourism density, expressed in the annual numbers of tourists as a proportion of the population . . . and the growth of resentment towards tourists . . . The inference here is that tourism density . . . is an indicator of the degree of confrontation between tourists and indigenes and that this confrontation gives rise to resentment of tourists.⁷

The concept of 'tourism density' is thus used as a measure of 'social carrying capacity' which Mathieson and Wall define as 'host peoples' levels of tolerance for the presence and behaviour of tourists'.⁸ An alternative measure used by Andronikou is the 'contact ratio', which is the inverse of tourism density, that is the ratio of the local population to tourist population.⁹ Now, whereas Andronikou suggests that the minimum value that the contact ratio can fall to before the social impact resulting from tourist development becomes detrimental is about eight, most authors now do not believe that a single specific value can be given for social carrying capacity.¹⁰ Mathieson and Wall point out that:

Carrying capacity remains an elusive concept, but the time when researchers and managers sought one mythical magic number, which could be approached with safety but exceeded at peril, have passed.¹¹

Nevertheless, inspection of Table 11 does suggest that it is highly likely that the social carrying capacity in Ayia Napa has been overreached. The extreme concentration of tourists here has resulted in a modification of social attitudes among young people, especially towards sexual behaviour. This is part of the 'demonstration effect' which introduces foreign ideologies and ways of life into societies that have not been exposed to tourist lifestyles. The close and continued contact of Cypriot youth with young foreign tourists has resulted in them adopting different sets of values on morality, style of dressing, and so on, in comparison with prevailing traditional attitudes, and as a result the bonds of closely knit families are in some cases being loosened.

The development of tourism in Cyprus has helped create a demand for traditional crafts and handicrafts and this has given an impetus to the revitalization of these crafts. The tradition of the pottery industry goes back hundreds of years and is practised in a small number of villages some distance from the tourist resorts. These villages now attract tourists who come to admire the artisans who still use their old tools, and show great dexterity and high skill quality. Other traditional crafts being practised include weaving (the end products being curtains, lace,

⁷See J.M. Bryden, *Tourism and Development*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, 1973, p 92.

⁸See A. Mathieson and G. Wall, *Tourism: Economic, Physical and Social Impacts*, Longman, London and New York, 1982, pp 21-22.

⁹*Op cit*, Ref 3.

¹⁰*Ibid*, p 27.

¹¹*Op cit*, Ref 8, p 21.

tablecloths and so on), embroidery, basketry (making use of canes, reeds and wild grass), jewellery, wood-carving and leather-making. All these crafts have been revitalized and re-established through the demand created for these products by the influx of foreign tourists. Most of the goods produced are handmade and represent real works of art.

Tourism has also created a demand for drama performances, flower shows, art festivals, folklore dances and so on. These have expanded and flourished in recent years and are now put on for the benefit of both tourists and the local population.

Conclusions

The objectives of the Cyprus government regarding the future of tourism on the island include the following:¹²

- a greater emphasis on the preservation and improvement of the environment;
- a greater emphasis on those source markets from which middle and upper income tourists are attracted;
- a reduction in the rate of increase of new tourist accommodation together with greater emphasis on high grade accommodation;
- a reduction of the seasonality problem through lengthening the tourist season by developing various specialized forms of tourism such as conference tourism, special interest tourism and out-of-season long-stay holidays for senior citizens;
- an improvement in the ancillary facilities necessary to provide recreation opportunities for active holidays.

It is critical that conservation of the environment takes place, as otherwise the very resource which attracts tourists will be destroyed. Appropriate legislation can limit hotel development and ensure that new buildings blend more into the natural environment. Effective cleaning of public areas and strict control of sea cleanliness are essential, particularly if high-spending tourists are to be attracted to the island.

Special interest holidays could include those based on water sports, for example windsurfing, scuba-diving and water-skiing, but in order to attract out-of-season holiday-makers, activities which are not so dependent on good weather are more appropriate. Activity holidays such as those based on tennis, horse-riding and golf can take place all year round. Other special interest holidays include health centre-type holidays, where sauna, steam-bath, massage and various other treatments are available – these are proving increasingly popular. Holidays which involve visits to archaeological sites, rambling holidays, mountaineering holidays etc can all help to alleviate seasonality problems. A further benefit of such holidays is that they are not beach-based, and therefore visitors can be dispersed away from the overcrowded coastal regions to the (low occupancy rate) inland resorts.¹³ The CTO should actively market such holidays.

Tourism has been a major factor in the growth of economic prosperity in Cyprus over the last 30 years. The foreign exchange, income and employment generated by tourism have transformed the economy from an underdeveloped and mainly agricultural society to a modern European economy. However, the high growth in international visitor arrivals to the island has caused substantial damage to the environment,

¹²*Op cit*, Ref 3; and D.A. Gillmor, 'Recent tourism development in Cyprus', *Geography*, vol 74, No 324, 1989, p 262–265.

¹³A. Andronicou, 'Cyprus – management of the tourist sector', *Tourism Management*, Vol 7, No 2, 1986, pp 127–129.