Original Paper

Tourism and Urbanization, An Interconnected Evolution

Amir Gohar¹*

¹ Department of Landscape Architecture & Environmental Planning, University of California at Berkeley, United States
* Amir Gohar, Department of Landscape Architecture & Environmental Planning, University of California at Berkeley, United States

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Abstract
While there is extensive literature on the evolution of tourism and the urbanization process, the interlinks between these two evolutions are not yet fully explored; maybe because they are separate disciplines, or taught independently of each other. This research navigates the spatial dimension of travel evolution alongside the attendant expansion of the urbanization process. It defines the nexus between tourism as a global demand and the physical infrastructure that accommodates such a force. The built environment, manifested in both its urban forms and its systems of mobility, is shaped by, and has been shaping, many factors including tourism. Using comparative narratives that describes tourist curiosity, the tourism routs and the tourism destinations across time, this work further explores the historical relationship between urbanization and tourism by emphasizing how the evolution of each has influenced the other. It analyzes different eras and identifies how the tourist, the travel mode and the destination have influenced each other through time. Considered one of the world’s oldest tourist destinations, Egypt is used here to demonstrate the interlocking relationship of tourism and urbanization. The research concludes that appreciating these two phenomena in isolation proves challenging insofar as the evolution of tourism through time can not only be attributed to the tourism demand but also to the shape and form of the destination and the mobile systems available in each era and locale.

Keywords
History, tourism, urbanization, mobility, evolution, Egypt

1. Background
Although the urbanization process has been well documented throughout history and the evolution of travel has been studied with equal thoroughness, the connection between those two phenomena remains
significantly understudied. This is primarily because many scholars study tourism through various specialized optics: anthropological, social, cultural, economic, business, and hospitality (see Figure 1). Such an approach to tourism tends to ignore the actual connections between these approaches.

Tourism in its multifaceted aspects—as a career, as a subject of research, as a field of education, and as a discipline—is studied in schools and academic departments with a narrow lens. Leading universities and research bodies have siloed tourism within departments and schools such as anthropology, cultural geography, forestry, business, hospitality and recreation. Few of these collaborate or share the common platforms that are needed to better understand the relationship between tourism and the built environment, while tourism’s real-world, real-time scope dictates widening the aperture.

At most universities, there exists no discipline that currently addresses ecotourism as a crosscutting industry, although a handful of departments consider some aspects of ecotourism. For instance, at the University of California at Berkeley, the anthropology department focuses on the tourist, seeing tourism as a sociopolitical encounter and interface; the landscape architecture and environmental planning department focuses on mitigation of tourism’s ecological impacts, particularly on coastal development; and the environmental science, policy and management department focuses on ecology systems and the rights of indigenous people that may be threatened or displaced by tourism development. Although the specialized focuses taken by particular disciplines are certainly valid, the study of contemporary tourism (especially ecotourism, sustainable tourism, and community-based tourism) requires broader, more interdisciplinary attention. Within the current structure of university departments and centers, interdisciplinary communication could substantially advance our understanding of the increasing economic and environmental influence of global tourism in general, and ecotourism in particular, and could provide opportunities for further research and instruction in ecotourism.

The evolution of tourism has happened alongside the evolution of the built environment; the history of urbanization, in particular, is an essential aspect of an interdisciplinary approach to tourism.
This study examines the conjoined histories of urbanization and tourism in Europe and North Africa, with a particular focus on Egypt as one of the oldest and most significant tourism destinations. As an exemplar of the layered influence of various historical eras on the evolution of tourism, Egypt demonstrates milestones in the co-evolution of urbanization and systems of mobility alongside tourism. It is a mistake to assume that new nomenclature, or the key concepts it seeks to capture, is always indicative of changing eras; new terminologies often emerge to describe age-old phenomena. For example, one cannot claim that there was no “sustainable tourism” before the term sustainable development became part of the lexicon in the early 1970s. Only when practical tradition encounters a larger paradigm shift, such as sustainability, does a substantive, broadly accepted concept materialize. Herein lies the tipping point at which language reflects custom.

In the evolution of urbanization and tourism, scholars agree on some noteworthy milestones as points of noticeable change. These milestones or eras are not necessarily at equal intervals of time (as shown in Figure 2); rather, they highlight the points of significant change in the evolution of both urbanization and tourism.
Figure 2. Timeline Combining the Evolution of Urbanization and Tourism

2. Tourism and Urbanization as Separate Fields

2.1 Urbanization

Mumford (1961), Schuyler (1986a), Steiner et al. (1988), Kostof (1991, 1992), Tyrrell (1999), Merchant (2007), Steinitz (2008), Castells (1985, 2010), AlSayyad (2001, 2014), Hall (1998) and Daniels (2009) rank among the urban and landscape historians and theorists who documented in depth the evolution of the urban landscape throughout history and who periodize the major transitions from early cities to the current contemporary city. They depict the transformations of cities’ shape, form, size, and public sphere, as well as the way in which cities have merged with both natural and man-made landscapes. Their research focuses primarily on land-use dynamics and how the density, shape, form, structure, and importance of city centers and suburbs have been transformed through time.

Newton (1971), Barlow (2001b), and Davis (2005) also investigate the evolution of garden design, parks, and parkways in relation to planning and design, and classify parks according to site, scale, and role in urban milieu.

Scholars and institutions such Tisdale (1942), the National Library of Medicine (1968), Montgomery (2004), Leite and Garburn (2009), Encyclopedia Britannica (2009), the U.N. World Urbanization Prospects report (2014), and the U.N.–Habitat World Cities report (2016) define the urbanization process from slightly different angles based on factors like social habits, size of population, dominating economic activities, and the shape and form of the built environment. Nevertheless, these definitions share the following commonality: they all agree that urbanization entails an increase in the populations of cities and towns and a decrease in the population of rural areas. Although the first precedents of cities began during the early civilizations of Mesopotamian and Nile River cultures and continued and expanded through the Classical, Medieval, and Renaissance periods, urbanization accelerated dramatically during the industrial revolution, when workers, attracted to centralized, largely factory-based labor, gathered in urban manufacturing hubs. This new dynamics sparked the shift of societies...
from a rural to a primarily urban way of life by the early 20th century.

Depending on the context of their research, scholars reference infrastructure development—that is, the development of structures, mobility systems (paths, roads, and transit systems), public space, and water and power supply—as an essential component of the urbanization process. In this research project, the use of the term “urbanization” in regards to tourism means “Any changes or additions to the built environment that occurred as consequence of the physical, social and economic forces in tourism development.” The term “tourism infrastructure” is sometimes used interchangeably with “tourism urbanization,” and both refer to the built facilities, such as resorts, hotels, service points, information centers, airports, travel stations, and tourism ports. This research project, however, makes a clear distinction between the fixed urban infrastructure that serves tourism and the travel mode (ships, trains, care, plane, and air jet) that brings the tourist to the tourist destination.

2.2 Tourism

Towner (1988), Towner (1991), Smith (2003) and Walton (2009) have thoroughly investigated the evolution of tourism vis-à-vis class, socioeconomics, unions, labor, and institutions. They documented tourism’s class-based origins as an activity accessible only to the privileged and wealthy, and examined how the industrial revolution made it possible for the middle class to travel in addition to how the formation of labor unions disseminated tourism among the working class.

E. Cohen (1979, 1988), L. Cohen (2008), Kirshenblatt-Gimblett (1998), Graburn (1997, 2001), and MacCannel (2011) have addressed the cultural dimensions of tourism: the encounter between the guest and the host, the concept of “staged authenticity,” the ethics of travel, the influence of socioeconomic class on travel, the commoditization of culture, and tourist motivations. Finally, cultural and human geographers such as Law (1993), Harris et al (2002), and Mbaia et al. (2011) shed a light on tourism in city centers, the attitudes of locals toward visitors, and interaction patterns created during the tourist visit.

This research focuses on tourism-related development and the changes it causes in both the natural and the built environments. The following table clarifies the components of this study and how it excludes urbanizing developments that were not a result of tourism.

Table 1. Examples of the Tourism Destination, the Travel Mode, and the Tourist

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main category</th>
<th>Subcategory</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Destination city</td>
<td>Tourism urbanization</td>
<td>Hotel, resort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-tourism urbanization (Not part</td>
<td>Government building residential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of this research)</td>
<td>district</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tourism infrastructure</td>
<td>Airports, harbors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation</td>
<td>Travel mode</td>
<td>Train, air jet, car</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People</td>
<td>The tourist</td>
<td>Class, education, wealth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This research will address the following subcategories: tourism urbanization and Infrastructure, travel mode, and the characteristics and preferences of the tourist (see Figure 3).

3. Tourism Development as a Subset of Urbanization

3.1 Travel Shapes Its Urban Destination

Human and cultural geographers confirm that people, as they live and interact with their spaces and cities, shape both the built forms and the open landscapes of those places. According to Harvey (2008), cities evolve according to the socioeconomic characteristics of their inhabitants, who shape and reshape their built environments (buildings, streets, open spaces, parks, alleys, and corridors). This interaction also influences residents’ daily habits and lifestyles. Thus, the relationship between residents and cities is an ongoing, reciprocal one. Tourism destinations are subject to the same forces, but there, the mutually shaping relationship between place and people also includes visitors. Travel and inter/extra-cultural encounters influence and shape the built form.

For example, Mexican travelers to the United States influence their built environment back home. According to Sara Lopez’s (2013) research on Mexican immigrants/travelers to the United States, migrants modified their houses in rural Mexico to resemble their U.S. homes after experiencing American domestic architecture; they also transferred capital and knowledge of construction techniques back to their home country, competing with U.S. juggernaut construction companies. Without their travel to the United States, they would not have brought this influence to Mexico. Tourism, therefore, as Fridgen (1991) contends, is one of the important economic activities that shape the urban development process.

Similarly, tourists also influence changes in land use in historic urban centers. Daher (2007) confirms that in many areas of the world, city centers are shifting to accommodate leisure and tourism because of the economic benefits they derive from such activities. Furthermore, Pearce (1987) and Shoval (2018)
assert that tourism development and activities transform cities, even though the tourism-initiated changes are difficult to distinguish from the changes caused by day-to-day city activities and dynamics. Tourism, as a genuinely urban phenomenon, produces not only urban places, but also urban cultures and is considered to be one of the elements of the urbanisation of the seaside, even mountains and deserts (Coëffé & Stock, 2021). Tourism changes cities’ land use, infrastructure capacity, services, and streetscapes (such as signage), as well as underlying urban management governance policies.

3.2 Three Main Pillars of the Tourism System

As Fridgen (1991) maintains, sustainable tourism is a subset of sustainable development. Figure 4 illustrate the relationship between sustainable development, tourism, and sustainable tourism development.

![Figure 4. Tourism Development as a Subset of Sustainable Development](source: Fridgen 1991)

This research focuses on the three main pillars of tourism as a subset of urban development, and makes three primary arguments: first, that the shaping of tourism development is a subset of the shaping of urban development; second, that the characteristics of tourists form a subset of the characteristics of the local residents and city users; and third, that the tourists’ travel modality is a subset of the local transportation network (see Table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MAIN CATEGORY</th>
<th>SUBSET</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Urbanization</td>
<td>D: tourism destination (resort, hotel, camp, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobility</td>
<td>TM: travel modality (railway, charter flight, car, bus, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People</td>
<td>T: tourist/traveler (social class, education, economic status, etc.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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While each of these pillars directly influences and shapes the others, the relationship between them remains fluid and difficult to capture. In each evolutionary era of urbanization and tourism development, the pillar that is most influential changes; in one era, urbanization may be the most influential, and in another era, the most influential pillar may be mobility. Figure 5 demonstrates the relationship between the three pillars, and the rest of this paper examines the connections and influences between Destination (D), Tourist (T), and Travel Modality (TM) throughout history.

Figure 5. The Three Connections between the Three Main Tourism Pillars

3.2.1 The Destination
The first tourism pillar is the destination (D). As previously argued, tourism has changed tourist destinations in terms of their shape, form, size, land use, infrastructure, and tourism accommodations (Daher, 2007; Lopez, 2013; Pearce, 1987, 2001). Law (1993) contends that urban authorities invest in tourism to promote their city’s image, and that tourism thereby revitalizes and physically regenerates the city, in addition to creating new jobs. Tourist destinations, whether they are coastal or protected areas, city centers, historic sites, or amusement parks, are geared to serve and host the tourist. At the same time, as Gunn (2002) argues, tourism exerts stress on numerous resources, including environmental (water, trees, soil); social (urban infrastructure, transportation); and cultural (historical attractions) resources. It leads to the development of certain activities whose growth might not have been originally incorporated into the planning process.

3.2.2 The Travel Modality
As the second pillar of the tourism system, the Travel Modality (TM) has influenced the shaping of the built environment. The modality of travel, which is part of the city infrastructure and exists within the natural landscape, informs and is informed by the tourism industry. Brodsky-Porges (1981), Hunt and Lyne (1991), and Mugerauer (2009) have explained how instrumental the railway was in enabling
Thomas Cook to take tourists on packaged journeys, and how increased demand for travel has helped to sustain train service to a variety of destinations. In subsequent sections of this research, the interaction between the travel modality, the built environment, and the tourist throughout the evolution of tourism will be explored.

3.2.3 The Tourist/Traveller

The tourist/traveler is the third central pillar of the tourism industry in each era of its evolution. This study explores the influence of the tourist’s socioeconomic characteristics on tourism, examining aspects such as social class, income bracket, education level, as well as the tourist’s degree of curiosity and learning. The terms “tourist” and “traveler” are used interchangeably in the literature; there is no clear difference between tourists and travelers, although Dunn (2005) and Cohen (2011) draw some distinction between the two, and travel magazines and informal travel journals such as The Huffington Post, Travel Today, Quora, Bored Panda, and Travel Tips highlight the following differences:

- The traveler explores the destination more extensively, does not stick to the set itinerary, tends to blend with the local population and interacts with the local culture, focuses on learning, and experiences nature;
- The tourist is new to a place, seeks exotic experiences, sticks to a specific itinerary, is keen on documenting his/her memories, stands out from the local people, and follows guided tours.

Because this narrative examines both the tourist and the traveler through the evolution of tourism, the (T) will refer to the two definitions merged.

4. Evolution of Tourism and Urbanization

Capturing the dimensions of human curiosity is impossible; the curious mind finds its way out of any categorical lines that would encircle it. Two major problems preclude clear categorization of the role of curiosity in the various eras of tourism: first, there have always been many types of touristic curiosities, making it nearly impossible to winnow them down to distinct or clearly defined categories. The types of tourism driven by curiosity can encompass various types of tourism: adventure, revolution, sex, altruism, ecology, leisure, history, education, and spiritual pilgrimage (Cohen, 1984; Cohen & Dann, 1991; Urry, 1990; Urry & Cooper, 1991). Second, it is rare to find tourists who are curious about one type of tourism only. For example, it is rare to encounter tourists who are interested only in medieval churches, say, or only in achieving a perfect tan, and who are not also curious enough to also visit local museums.

As landscape planners, we cannot ignore the importance of a full understanding of the tourism industry. Therefore, I lay out here a basic timeline of tourism that is periodized according to tourism’s level of interaction with the natural and built environment in each era.

While Thurot and Thurot (1983), Cohen (1988), Wang (1999), and Graburn (2001) argue that tourism evolved through time and was interlinked with class, socioeconomic status, education, purpose, political power, and personal motivations, scholars have paid less attention to the growth of tourism...
and its relation to the urbanization process. Although this evolution has occurred gradually, the following milestones (see Table 3) capture major phenomena that signal a direct interface between tourism and the built environment. These milestones are not necessarily linked to a single site; they are relevant to several sites, although they have specific relevance to Egypt as an ancient and ongoing destinations for travelers.

Table 3. Eras of Tourism Evolution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ERA</th>
<th>YEAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ancient Civilizations</td>
<td>4500 BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roman Road Network</td>
<td>300 BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pilgrimage</td>
<td>1200 AD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Era of the Grand Tour 1660</td>
<td>1660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Railroad Transport &amp; Industrial Revolution</td>
<td>1820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial Car Available for Public</td>
<td>1890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WWI and the British Empire</td>
<td>1920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WWII and the Jet Era</td>
<td>1945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmentally Sound Development</td>
<td>1983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solidarity, Philanthropy &amp; Pro-poor Tourism</td>
<td>1990</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The diagram in Figure 6 will be used to illustrate the leading tourism pillar in shaping the built environment during each particular era. The darker its shade, the more influence it had in comparison to the other two pillars. They will be coded according to their importance: black is primary, grey is secondary, and white is complementary.

Figure 6. The Three Main Pillars Influencing and Shaping Urbanization in Tourism Destinations
4.1 Ancient Civilizations, 4500 BC

The systematic measurement of tourism began at the outset of the 20th century, when tourism’s economic impact became an essential part of national economies (Towner, 1988). The documentation from prior eras is primarily based on historical sources that did not necessarily aim to document tourism-related activities.

Of course, the earliest form of human travel through the landscape was by foot, a travel modality that continues to this day. By at least 7000 BC, hunting and fishing societies used wooden sledges, an early example of a travel modality used to move through the landscape (Gascoigne, 2001). Domestication of cattle and the advent of the Neolithic agricultural revolution encouraged people to settle, bringing the Egyptian and Greek civilizations into existence. These civilizations invited humans to settle there in increasingly large numbers; at the same time, these civilizations became attractive destinations for travelers seeking economic and cultural opportunities, conquest, leisure, trade, and resource extraction. This era witnessed the invention and use of the wheel and the first four-wheel wagon used for travel (in ancient Greek times, circa 3500 BC). Over time, in order to reduce the weight of the wagon, it was modified to a two-wheel cart (Anthony, 2007; Gascoigne, 2001).

As indicated above, and as shown in figure 7, the interaction between the three pillars of travel (T), (D), and (TM) occurred simultaneously; one could argue that people were the main drivers for travel and that tourist curiosity (T) was the main influencer of the tourism triangle during this period. The main drivers of these ancient civilizations were the desire to find shelter and resource extraction. The destination (D) was formulated and shaped without prior influence by travelers (T), and the travel modality (TM)—wheels and trails—simply facilitated the flow of travel.

Figure 7. In Ancient Civilizations 4500 BC, (T) Has the Largest Influence, Followed by (TM); (D) Was Already Shaped

Ancient Egyptians built cities in orderly forms inspired by the gods and influenced by the sophisticated, calculated engineering of this era (Kostof, 1991). According to Casson (1974), Egyptians built the first cluster of cities around the Nile about 3000 BC, and, as a result, new patterns of movement emerged. These new movement patterns included routes that were transited by couriers, by traders traveling between the new urban centers, by state officials traveling in the performance of their responsibilities, and by visitors traveling for leisure. Egypt thus began to experience domestic tourism, primarily
inspired by the curiosity of the traveler who moved from city to city. Such tourism was dependent on
the transportation modality available at the time: principally carts and sailing ships. Egypt also attracted
foreigners who traveled there by cart, camel, chariot, or sledge (Kemp, 2006; Reshafim, 2001; Wolf,
1996) to see and experience Egyptian civilization firsthand or (in the case of travelers from Byblos) to
engage in commercial trading. During this era, the main destination locale existed before the advent of
tourism and was therefore not created or built to accommodate the tourist in any way. The
tourist/traveler (T) primarily initiated the tourism activities, and enhancements to or improvements of
pathways and roads occurred accordingly. In this era, the tourist (T) thus affected the travel modalities
(TM), and neither had much influence on the destination (D).

4.2 Roman Road Network, 300 BC

During the Roman Empire, the demand for movement increased as the empire expanded. This, in turn,
induced the Roman Empire to build an enormous and well-built system of roads, the physical
infrastructure most vital to the maintenance and development of the Roman state.

In his book Studies in Ancient Technology, Forbes (1955) maintains that, in some areas, the Romans
simply improved the inherited system of trails, but in other areas, they built new roads in uncharted
territory. Gascoigne (2001) adds that the availability of intensive manual labor (mainly soldiers,
prisoners of war, and slaves) enabled the Romans to construct straight, short roads rather than being
forced to follow the contours of the terrain. Forbes (1955) confirms that these roads were highly
gineered for both drainage and durability. Both accounts note that this complex network of
constructed roads facilitated horse-drawn travel for war, trade, tourism, and communication purposes.
Ancient Roman religious’ activities such as festivals, rites, and feasts also contributed to the
development of travel and tourism. These frequent ceremonies, which were based on specific calendar
events or held at regular intervals, stimulated travel across the entire empire (Fridgen, 1991). However,
when the Roman Empire fractured into numerous independent states, the Roman road network
fragmented as well. The dispersed and variable governance of these states could not maintain such a
massive travel network, and the roads began to deteriorate (Casson, 1974).

As shown in Figure 8, The travel infrastructure and means of mobility (TM) in this era influenced both
the destination (D) and traveler choices (T). Roads were created for other purposes and the flow of
tourism travel followed—thus the famous motto: “All Roads Lead to Rome.”
According to Lindsay (1965), the Romans held numerous festivals and leisure events that created a need for domestic travel between cities in the Roman province of Egypt. The major cross-border routes were Roman roads that opened up trade routes and newly conquered areas. One example is the Roman road network connecting the Red Sea to the Nile, which still retains its historical value as a tourist route. Krzywinski (2000) and Snyder (2003) assert that this Roman road facilitated mobility between the Far East and Europe before the construction of the Suez Canal. In the Roman era, traders and travelers would unload their boats on the Western shore of the Egyptian Red Sea and take the Roman roads west toward the Nile, crossing the Eastern desert to the river. They would then load another set of boats to sail northward toward Alexandria and finally to Europe through the Mediterranean (see Figure 9). Throughout this journey, specific road systems guided the travelers across the desert and over the Red Sea mountain range.

Figure 8. During the Roman Empire 300 BC, (TM) Facilitated (T), but Had Little Influence on (D)

Figure 9. Segment of the Roman Road Connecting the Red Sea with the Nile; Part of the Trade Route from Asia to Europe
4.3 Pilgrimage, 1200 AC

According to Mumford (1961), there have always existed ceremonial places that served as pilgrimage goals, and that these pilgrimage sites influenced the evolution of cities. While human performances and rituals are occasional and transient, the edifices or structures that support them are permanent cosmic personifications. Cohen (1984, 1988) identifies pilgrimage as a crucial component of tourism in more traditional societies. (Note 1) Coleman and Eade (2004) assert further that in the Christian, Mormon, Hindu, Islamic, and Sufi (Note 2) traditions, the meanings of pilgrimage are very similar, and that sacred travel is another form of social mobility. Consequently, pilgrimage is not limited to a specific culture or geography. Influenced by the desire to reach their destination, tourists at times used existing routes from previous eras (e.g., the Roman roads) or created their own trails as they journeyed to pilgrimage sites such as Jerusalem or Mecca. Thus, the built forms of cities that accommodate pilgrimages, which bring massive pilgrim influxes during the high season, have transformed through the ages. González and Medina (2003) confirm that pilgrimage and cultural tourism have generated new physical spaces and advanced economic dynamics in destination cities. In addition, the rapid urbanization of pilgrimage destinations puts both tourists and locals equally at risk for unplanned growth induced by the influx of visitors. This is evident in sites like Mecca, where the expansion due to tourism pilgrimage exceeded the city’s capacities, causing environmental and social problems (Ascoura, 2013). Additionally, when El-Shazli, a Sufi pilgrimage town, experienced the expansion of its guesthouses exceeding the areas suitable for development, areas became vulnerable to flood risks (Gohar & Kondolf, 2016). Two parallel forces influence travel here: the eagerness to reach the destination and the influx of people (T), which shape the landscape, and the built environment in the destination site (D). Therefore, the evolution of the destination city cannot be observed in isolation; it can only be measured in conjunction with the extent of travel to the destination and the tourists’ interactions in it (see Figure 10).

![Figure 10. In This Pilgrimage Era 1200, (D) Is Shaped by the Influx of Visitors (T); (TM) Is the Least Significant Pillar in Pilgrimage Travel](image)

Muslims traveling as pilgrims from North Africa to Mecca used some trails dating back to Roman times, and they also created their own pathway networks. This North African journey took place on
caravan routes that led to the shores of the Red Sea; pilgrims then crossed the Red Sea and journeyed from there to the Holy Mosque of Mecca in Medina. In the course of this journey, some Muslim travelers, including Sufi leaders, lost their lives because of the dry, harsh environment. Subsequently, devout followers honored these leaders with monumental graves, which in turn generated visitation and became minor pilgrimage destinations. A prime example is the El-Sheikh El-Shazlishrine, which served as a center for the construction of an entire village that included guesthouses (see Figure 11).

![Figure 11. Example of Routes for Pilgrimage Travel from North Africa to Mecca Via the Egyptian Red Sea](image)

4.4 Era of the Grand Tour, 1660
Brodsky-Progres (1981), Towner (1988, 1995), Heafford (2006), and Humphreys (2012) consider the connection between upper-class Europeans’ travel for education and their travel to enjoy spas and seaside resorts. The custom of upper-class educational tours contributed to the improvement and development of the built environment of the destinations—mainly spas and seaside resorts.

The upper-class mindset of this era regarded travel as an enlightening experience: “All tourists are dear
to Hermes, the god of travel, who is patron also of amiable curiosity and freedom of mind.” This quotation, attributed to George Santayana, encapsulates this upper-class attitude (Flamm et al., 2014); the upper classes would send their children on trips from which they were expected to return as accomplished men and women. Cohen (1984) concludes that the route of the traditional Grand Tour provided the geographical backbone from which tourism increasingly expanded into peripheral areas. By this era, carts had been improved into carriages: glass windows were introduced, along with a leather suspension system for an easier ride Gascoigne (2001).

During this era, the connection between tourism and landscaping started to emerge. Two noteworthy British landscape architects, Capability Brown and Charles Bridgeman, were working during this period; both designed estates, known for their naturalistic landscape style and elegance, that were lauded as the pinnacle of fashion. These estates were frequently painted by artists and so appeared in numerous collections. Kostof (1992) confirms that this era saw the advent of parks in within the city for recreational use—a key component of city formation, parks were designed to be enjoyed and experienced by upper-class visitors and travelers. In addition to the parks’ role in attracting visitors, land use shifted as a result of tourism during this time. Guesthouses for government officials and upper-class travelers were constructed. Benfield (2013) is one of the few researchers who establishes the nexus between garden landscaping and tourism; while gardens complemented the resorts and spas visited by the elite, they were also places of curiosity themselves. As such, travelers frequented destinations with elaborate and ornate gardens. During the Grand Tour, when travelers made stops between main centers, they would lodge in accommodating homes (similar to Airbnb today) or set up temporary tent camps. In this way, the Grand Tour from Europe to the Orient served as a source of experiential learning for the traveler.

In this era, as shown in Figure 12, the curiosity of the traveler or tourist (T) largely influenced destinations (D). Travel modalities and infrastructure (TM) did not significantly change; rather, travel capitalized on routes and means of transport from previous eras. The primary influencer of the destinations and tourism facilities was the traveler (T) with his/her unique idiosyncrasies (such as class, education, wealth, and specific interests).

![Figure 12. During the Grand Tour 1660, Tourist-Driven Travel (T) Shaped Both Destinations (D) and Travel Modes (TM)](image-url)
The flow of tourism toward Egypt led to increased establishment of guesthouses, resorts, and private estates as the Grand Tour itinerary expanded from Europe to Egypt. Hotels multiplied and Europeans bought estates in many places in Egypt, including Fayoum City. The following excerpt is from a letter sent by a member of the aristocracy who owned an estate in Egypt and was traveling on one of the Grand Tours from Europe. (Note 3)

God willing, expect us to come to you on the 23rd. as soon as you receive this letter of mine, do your best to have the bathroom heated, having logs brought in and collecting chaff from everywhere, so that we can bathe in warmth since it is now winter… See to it that we have everything we need, especially a nice pig for my guests—but let it be a good one, not like the last time, skinny and worthless. And send word to the fishermen to bring us some fish (Casson, 1974).

The image in Figure 13 is a good representation of this era; it can be found in the McClung Museum as a gift of the Knoxville couple who used it to trace their travels in Egypt as part of the Grand Tour.

![Image of a group of people in a desert landscape with a pyramid in the background.](image-url)

**Figure 13. Traveling within the Grand Tour, Extended to Reach Egypt**

*Source:* Evans, University of Tennessee, 2005.

### 4.5 Railroad Transport and the Industrial Revolution, 1820

For nearly 2000 years, the speed of travel had hardly changed; the roads that Napoleon built were similar to those built and used by Caesar (Wolf, 1996). Initially, railways transported commercial products and, later, people; they also certainly shaped both the physical landscapes and the socioeconomic class structures in cities.
Schuyler (1986b), Archer (1997) and Barlow (2001a) articulate the influence of the railways on the growing pattern of built environments. The railway changed the dynamics of travel across classes and across borders. Figure 14 shows the change in land use caused by the movement of social classes. The elite moved away from the city center to escape congested neighborhoods, which encouraged real estate development in the villages, or “suburbs.” The middle class also relocated from the city, causing further urbanization of these villages. Railways brought workers to the city, and these workers brought their social ways of life. There are divergent views as to whether the railway brought the city to the country or vice versa (Cronon, 1992). Nonetheless, it spawned more than a two-way socioeconomic movement; it restructured the entire economy, changing land values, land use, and socioeconomic geographies. Tourism activities were part of this transportation change; for instance, with the invention of the railway, mobility became cheaper and more accessible, permitting larger numbers of people to travel widely for pleasure. This greater ease of travel, paired with the development of parks, inspired the middle class to appreciate their environment and engage with nature (Archer, 1997).

Walton (2009) describes the evolution of tourism from a class-based activity, limited to elite groups and religious scholars, into a popular pursuit that was formalized in 1830 by Thomas Cook as packaged tourism (a precursor of our modern tourism). Walton remarks that historical records for standardized tour packages (companies’ and tour operators’ documentation) offer us plausible data about tourism of the era. Nevertheless, these records do not include the undocumented tourism that occurred through non-packaged tours. Towner (1988, 1995) assert that Thomas Cook as an entrepreneur was instrumental in democratizing tourism, which had previously been limited to the upper classes. In 1896, the Suez Canal was completed. This was an Egyptian achievement of global import, and it serves as a resounding example of how huge projects can influence travel patterns. Fridgen (1991) and Wolf (1996) argue that the Suez Canal shortened voyages between the East and the West and therefore encouraged more tourism from Europe to the East.

Both the nature of the tourist (T) who is curious to see other parts of the world and the improvement of transportation (TM) influenced accommodation facilities, both in quantity and quality. The ability to travel now extended beyond the upper class, and the opportunity to cater to the middle classes via packaged tours made it possible for destination sites (D) to support more resorts and city hotels (see Figure 15).
Figure 15. The Railroad, 1820, (TM) Played a Vital Role in the Tourism Boom (T), which Affected the Destination (D)

Since antiquity, Egypt has been a destination for travelers and immigrants. According to Gregory (2001), Egypt during the industrial revolution was a space for capital accumulation and a place to invest in real estate; since the mid-19th century, when Thomas Cook chose Egypt as the destination for his third group tour outside Great Britain (the first two were to Europe and the United States), it has been a modern tourist destination. Until World War II, members of the British aristocracy would spend a majority if not the entirety of the winter season in Egypt (Abdelwahab, 1996). Figure 16 shows pictures of trains that were used in Egypt during this period.

Figure 16. (Left) Wagons-Lits Coaches at the Inauguration of a New Service between Luxor and Aswan in 1926; (Right) Locomotive Built by the North British Locomotive Company in Scotland for the Egyptian State Railways in 1905-1906

Thomas Cook’s first trip to Egypt, in 1869, took people via steamboat down the Nile from Cairo to Aswan. Over time, Cook engaged more local people to provide help; he also improved ships and the related infrastructure so that the trip was smoother, quieter, and safer (Gregory, 2001; Hunter, 2004). Thomas Cook eventually added train excursions on the Nile connected to his steamer travel packages (see Figure 17).
4.6 Commercial Automobile, 1890

Although Nicolas-Joseph Cugnot is widely credited with building the first full-scale, self-propelled mechanical vehicle (a steam-powered tricycle, circa 1769), the car as a means of conveyance for the public entered into use by the end of the 1800s; the first Mercedes, built in 1885, was awarded the patent for the concept. The car was commercialized at the same time that urban public spaces were increasing and parks were being incorporated into cities; thus, day trip destinations and the means to visit them emerged together. Schuyler (1986b), Newton (1971), and Steinitz (2008) confirm that one of the main reasons for the incorporation of parks and recreational open spaces within the city limits was the deterioration of city life as a consequence of the industrial revolution. The objective was to improve quality of life and increase access to public green spaces. Parks changed from hunting grounds for the aristocracy to public areas set aside to preserve a sense of nature in cities and towns and to offer space for sporting activities. The creation of these incorporated recreational areas, together with the availability of means to take short-distance trips, spurred local tourism and caused bed and breakfast-style accommodations to proliferate near popular destinations. These day trips seeded changes in land use in certain areas in the city; these areas changed from housing-only areas to what we now call mixed-use areas containing housing, accommodations, and commercial services.
In this era, the automobile (TM) influenced land use by encouraging hosting facilities to increase in the existing city structures (D); it allowed for more travel by car owners (T) from both the upper and middle class (see Figure 18).

![Figure 18. In the Commercial Automobile Era, the Private Car (TM) Influenced Tourism and People’s Curiosity (T), and Land-Use Changes at the Destinations (D) Followed](image)

According to Refaat (1997) and Al-Aswany (2015), the first car brought into Egypt was a French De Dion-Bouton belonging to Khedive Ismail’s grandson, Prince Aziz Hassan (see Figure 19). In 1904, accompanied by two friends, the prince made a historic 210-kilometer journey from Cairo to Alexandria in over ten hours, despite the hundreds of difficulties resulting from the absence of roads and bridges. At the end of 1905, there were approximately 110 motorized vehicles in Cairo and 56 in Alexandria, as well as 50 motorcycle sidecars and two Dietrich-type omnibuses belonging to the newly formed Cairo Omnibus Company.

![Figure 19. Photo of Prince Aziz Hassan’s French Dion-Bouton car at the Base of the Pyramids](image)

*Source: Egyptian Gazette, 1904.*
The car began to shape tourism and day-use destinations in Egypt after the launch of the Touring Club D’Egypte. (Note 4) This group encouraged local tourist trips and supported international tourism by conveying people from the railway station to other destinations in Egypt’s main cities.

4.7 WWI and the British Empire, 1920

At the end of WWI, the signing of the Treaty of Versailles heralded the formation of new nations and inspired curiosity for exploration and learning (Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, 1998). Tourism in this era was predicated on an eagerness for self-improvement; travelers wanted to learn new languages and cultures during vacation travel (Cohen, 2011; Gyr, 2010). Imitating mind-stimulating activities, travel now banded together people with specific, shared interests. Tent-camping expeditions, for example, were organized to destinations that heightened awareness and knowledge of wilderness areas, or that focused on natural, cultural and ethnic attractions in remote areas. The demand for such niche experiences created markets that catered to these interests, and specific trails in wilderness areas started to form (Cohen, 1974). Winter (2011) asserts that WWI cemeteries also generated visits from travelers related to or interested in perpetuating memories of those buried there.

During the period of British colonization, tourists were part of the growing numbers of Westerners, missionaries, teachers, traders, developers, professionals, messianic dreamers, and empire builders (Hunter, 2004) who traveled to the ends of the empire. These Western travelers influenced Egypt’s built environment in many ways—for example, this era witnessed the formalization of the planning process in colonized countries. Cities like Cairo and Alexandria started to show the influence of European cities; new buildings were often planned by architects from the United Kingdom. In his book *Architecture and Urbanism in the British Empire*, Bremner (2016) describes Cairo as “Paris on the Nile,” and the city of Alexandria commissioned the Scottish architect William H. McLean to devise a new town plan for its expanded port and its surrounding zones.

The post-war tourist curiosity (T) generated interest in seeing and traveling to other nations. Cities in colonized nations were hugely influenced by the European cities—mainly London and Paris. This influence helped these destinations (D) attract visitors. Furthermore, the improvements in the railway and highway networks (TM) facilitated travel. During this era, the three pillars played parallel roles in shaping tourism dynamics (see Figure 20).

![Figure 20. In the WWI Era, the Three Pillars Played Parallel Roles in Influencing the Built Environment during This Era](image-url)
Although the fledgling air service between London and Paris became popular by the 1920s, the remainder of the journey to Egypt remained time-consuming. Before long-distance air travel was available for the whole route to Egypt, tourists could either journey overland across Europe and then board a steamer to cross the Mediterranean, or they could simply make the entire trip by sea, a journey that took around two weeks (Fletcher, 2011). Upon arriving in Alexandria or Port Said, travelers would take the train to Cairo (see Figure 21, right, for the Cairo train station during this era), and then continue either by train or by ship to upper Egypt to see antiquities and archeological sites. The spectacular discovery of the tomb of Tutankhamen in 1922 brought tourists to Egypt in droves, and as Luxor became a greater tourist magnet, the Valley of the Kings was thronged with visitors hailing from all over the world, each wanting a glimpse of the latest treasure to be removed from the tomb. To accommodate these waves of tourists, hotels, such as the Hotel Cecil in Alexandria, began to develop around attraction areas (Figure 21, left).

![Figure 21. (Left) Hotel Cecil in Alexandria in 1920; (Right) Cairo, Main Train Station. (Egypt-Through-Time article, September 2013)](image)

The following images (Figure 22) are examples of posters used during this era to advertise for both hotels and Nile cruises.
In response to the increase in tourism during the British imperial era, the tourist destinations changed, especially in numbers of hotels around popular attractions. This change in the built form extended to include main mobile hubs, such as train stations and airports. These establishments’ architecture was influenced by European architecture, especially British architecture. In this era, the travel modality (TM) was still undergoing the same rapid transformation as in the preceding era; it primarily developed in response to the colonial demand for non-touristic transportation, but the Nile Cruises, which specifically and exclusively served travelers to upper Egypt, developed in response to tourism’s demands.

4.8 WWII and the Jet Era

After the successful military use of jet aircraft in WWII, commercial jet usage servicing the public was initiated. The ease and affordability of air travel increased travel for large segments of the middle class. Mass tourism emerged alongside the growth of the middle class, the democratization of tourism in rich countries, the increase of wages, the improvement of living standards, and the shortening of the work year (E. Cohen, 1984; Mason, 2003; Theng et al., 2015). In response, charter tourism established itself with offers of inexpensive holidays abroad and developed into a flourishing market sector. International tourism first extended to neighboring countries and then to more distant destinations (Gyr, 2010). At the end of the 1960s, with support from multinational companies and transportation amenities, locations at great distances from industrial centers became tourism hubs for thousands of holidaymakers (Lanfant et al., 1995).

The tourist (T) curiosity drove tourists to explore and learn from nature and to use their increased means to travel and see other territories. This increase in curiosity and means, together with the change in travel modality (TM) produced by the charter flights, influenced tourism in this era. The destinations (D), however, did not evolve further from the previous era (see Figure 23).
Tour packages continued to frequent Egypt’s main attractions near urban centers; as such, tourism boomed in Cairo, Luxor, Aswan, and Alexandria. Because travelers used, and their hosts maintained, urban structures built in previous eras, tourists made use of local transportation such as the tram, the local railway, and the Nile cruises (Refaat, 1997; Towner, 1995; Towner & Wall, 1991; Wolf, 1996).

4.9 Environmentally Sound Tourism Development

While incorporation of environmental factors in urban development began in the previous era, during this period environmental considerations became tantamount, especially after the introduction of environmental legislation in both Europe and North America. The Brundtland Commission, in its 1987 report titled “Our Common Future,” popularized the concept of sustainability. The report defined sustainable development as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs,” and “sustainable tourism” rose to significance (United Nations, 1987).

According to Briassoulis (2002), in the travel industry, sustainable development requires wise management of natural, built, and sociocultural resources in tourism destination areas. Resources created mainly for tourism are also used by the local population. With the new awareness of sustainability and the increase in environmental advocacy, tourism development began to incorporate environmentally sound development practices. In this context, ecotourism emerged as a tourism brand that is, theoretically, in harmony with local ecological systems. The idea of ecotourism is an old one; it seems to have taken on its modern manifestation in the late 1960s and early 1970s (Nelson, 2009), although the term “ecotourism” was introduced by Mexican architect Hector Ceballos-Lascuráin. In July 1983, he argued that ecotourism “involves travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural aspects”. Ecotourism has been touted as an alternative form of tourism with lower impact on local environments and cultures. With the increase of environmental awareness, those seeking to minimize their global footprint have pursued ecotourism. The tourism industry has developed eco-destinations to cater to tourists who consider themselves more environmentally responsible.
Eco-destinations are primarily shaped by environmental principles and legislative frameworks. They are also a direct response to the tourist (T) who is seeking this kind of attraction. Therefore, the eco-destination built environments (D) build camps and lodging facilities that are environmentally sound. Transportation changes (TM) do not factor heavily into the decision to visit the site; the rigorous trip or the adventurous travel mode is seen as part of the experience. As such, the means of transportation do not inform the flow of tourism to such destinations (see Figure 24).

Figure 24. Eco-Destinations (D) Are Shaped according to Environmental Principles, Attracting Responsible Tourists (T); there Are Few Changes to the Travel Mode in this Era

Egypt has a few examples of ecotourism facilities designed around environmental principles and ecologically sound development practices, though they are not typical. Before the Camp David Accords of 1978, Egypt’s mainstream tourism was concentrated in large cities close to Egypt’s rich antiquities, the Nile, and sites of ancient ruins and civilizations. Beach activities were restricted to coastal cities such as Alexandria. Following the peace treaty, many areas in the Red Sea were opened to exploration, including natural and cultural heritage sites that offered germinal opportunities for ecotourism. Ecotourism got its start through the work of a handful of local entrepreneurs who deliberately took the initiative and propelled the movement of travel to undeveloped areas where not many visitors had gone before. Above all, two noteworthy pioneers for this movement are Sherif El-Ghamrawy, who founded Basata Ecolodge in Nweiba’a, Sinai in 1986 (Figure 25), and Hossam Helmi, who founded Shagra Ecolodge in the Marsa Alam area in 1990 (Figure 26).
Although these ecolodges are located at opposite ends of the Red Sea in Egypt as in the map figure 27, it became clear through several meetings and interviews with their owners, Hossam Helmi and Sherif El-Ghamrawy, that the development sites are predicated on shared environmental values and have been spearheaded by individuals who believe in the value of ecological sustainability. These two eco-developers have blazed a path by defining the ecolodge in the Egyptian context. The built form and its ecological footprint are guided by their unwavering sense of responsibility and by their profound respect for the local environment and culture.

Figure 25. View of Basata Ecolodge


Figure 26. Panoramic View Looking Northward toward Marsa Shagra Ecolodge, Marsa Alam
In present-day Egypt, ecotourism is perceived as an alternative to mass tourism that offers a source of economic progress for the local population. Eraqi (2008) contends that local Egyptian communities can derive socioeconomic value from their indigenous ecotouristic activities.

4.10 Solidarity, Philanthropy, and Pro-Poor Tourism, 1990

Philanthropy tourism (which is not as systematic as other tourism, relying more on individual interest) also plays a role in influencing local communities, their livelihoods, and therefore their built environments (Ceballos-Lascurain, 2008; Frenzel, 2013; The Center for Responsible Travel, 2014).

In philanthropic tourism, tourists volunteer to perform philanthropic activities supporting other communities: vulnerable areas, forests, rivers, coastlines, and other environmental or cultural landscapes. Travel for the purpose of helping wildlife rangers in Africa, or supporting underprivileged villages in Pakistan, or providing post-disaster relief to disaster-hit areas, are all examples of such philanthropic or solidarity tourism. This type of travel is primarily inspired by the traveler/tourist and his/her desire to make the destination a better place. Tourism literature, as well as literature in other fields such as international development and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), have noted the significance and proliferation of this kind of travel activity (Dodds & Joppe, 2005; Eraqi, 2010; Park & Levy, 2011; World Tourism Organisation, 2015).

As Nobel laureate Wangari Maathai commented at a conference in Tanzania in 2008, “Travel philanthropy was born out of the frustration with conventional aid and ineffective philanthropic giving, as a form of development assistance flowing from the travel industry and travelers directly into conservation initiatives, community projects and philanthropic organizations” (Novelli, 2015).
number of organizations and companies provide responsible tourists and travel companies with the opportunity to “give back” to the communities they visit. In so doing, many of these organizations also give their own financial resources, time, and talent to improve the well-being of local communities (The Center for Responsible Travel, 2014).

According to Ashley and Hayson (2006), there are potential business benefits to serving in the pro-underprivileged (Note 5) tourism sector; these include enhanced social licenses to operate and/or increased corporate brand recognition. The authors also show that successfully implementing a pro-underprivileged service approach depends on the company’s context and circumstances. Dodds and Joppe (2005) assert that both government and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) have helped create and promote protocol and policies around both sustainable tourism and CSR. Corporations and nonprofits have also sponsored projects aimed at supporting local communities through volunteer travel; many of these trips have helped to preserve natural areas or empower post-disaster communities. According to Park and Levy (2011), the highest-performing CSR initiatives tend to be popular environmental practices focused on energy, waste, and water management. Hotel executives reported that cost savings and branding-related outcomes were the greatest benefits from CSR implementation.

Philanthropic tourism initiated by the tourist (T) has not played a significant role in building the destination environment (D); rather, it works to improve local environmental and social conditions. The tourist demand for tourism practices that protect the environment also influences the built form. The travel modality (TM) did not play a distinctive role in this era as travelers used a variety of travel modalities to reach to their destinations (see Figure 28).

Figure 28. In the Solidarity Tourism Era, Travelers (T) Lead the Shift to Philanthropic Tourism; Most Are Curious about the Destination (D), which They Shape and Reshape. The Travel Mode (TM) Is less Significant in This Era

In Egypt, the tourism business sector uses their enforcement of and/or compliance with CSR regulations to gain a competitive edge in tourism markets (Eraqi, 2010). The guided tourism businesses (hotels and tour operators) leverage neighboring local communities by advertising day visits, which offer tourists the chance to experience local food or buy local crafts to support local tribes. These day trips often slot in neatly to tourist divers’ travel schedules. It is suggested that tourist divers wait 12-18 hours after their final dive (Note 6) before flying; however, the longer the time between the
final dive and the flight, the more nitrogen the tourist expels from his/her system, minimizing the risk of decompression sickness. Many tourist divers schedule a local-community day trip at the end of their diving vacation. The economic retention of such visits is disputable, as are its impacts on local livelihoods, but there is a philanthropic component—a desire to experience local communities—to such trips from Red Sea resorts. The map below shows the locations of local communities visited during tourism trips. Some, like the El-Qu’lan community, are on the coast; others, such as the Wadi El-Gimal community, are a bit inland; and still others, such as El-Sheikh El-Shazlivillage, are in the deep mountain range.

Figure 29. Main Local Communities in the Southern Red Sea region

5. Findings

The eras of tourism evolution influence the shaping of the built environment, directly or indirectly; the study of tourism and urbanization cannot be separated from one another, because it is difficult to separate their mutual influences. It is thus essential to understand the connection between urbanization and tourism to predict how tourism development can inform the sites where it occurs and how local development at tourist destinations shapes tourism activities in the area. The three pillars—tourism (T), modes of travel (TM), and destinations (D)—are all responsible in various measures for the formulation, shaping, and reshaping of tourism systems. Each pillar’s
influence is unequal in each era and in relation to different types of tourism. Governments and policy makers need to appreciate the relationship between these pillars of tourism and urbanization, which should influence and inform their daily practices and decisions when managing urban development, city planning, and areas designated for tourism development.

Tourism’s global environmental footprint must be studied using this cross-disciplinary approach in which transportation, tourism facilities, and the characteristics of the tourist are thoroughly appraised. The current division that treats these subjects for different disciplines will result in continued faulty perception of what actually happens at tourism sites.

While in some eras mobility infrastructure was created for non-touristic reasons (such as the Roman roads built for conquering lands, or the railways designed to transport mining resources and crops), the systems became strong means of transporting tourists. In other eras, however, where distinctions are less clear-cut, further analysis is needed to appreciate the connection between urbanization and tourism that these findings have illustrated. In these eras, we have determined that, although there is not a direct causative link, the connection nonetheless exists, serving as an invisible bridge to further touristic urbanization.

6. Conclusion

This research aimed to explore the relationship between the identified three pillars of tourism (destination, travel mode, and tourist) and how they influenced each other and, consequently, the tourism industry throughout history.

This research revealed that the intersection of both tourism and urbanization process is phenomenal. For example, the developers of tourism facilities, infrastructure and hotels in upper Egypt were clueless that the railway industry was one of the major reasons to transport British tourists to their land in the era of the industrial revolution. While the three pieces (Thomas cook tourism business, rail way industry, and hotel building in the destination) are very separate activities, the occurrence of them together have influenced the tourism industry as well as the urbanism/development patter in the destination area.

Unlike other economic activities, global and local tourism are also largely impacted by other non-touristic factors (e.g., war, trade, and industry). Egypt, with its particular geography, location, resources, and context, has witnessed each stage of the evolution of tourism. In Egypt, the pillars of tourism have been alternating in a dynamic way for thousands of years. There has constantly been urbanization around tourism attractions and modes of transportation. Egypt is unique because it experienced a fluid synergy between the three modalities.
Figure 30. The Three Pillars of Tourism (D), (TM), and (T), in All Eras Combined
The substantial growth of the tourism sector is driven and encouraged by changes in social, economic, urban, infrastructural and technological forces. Globally, the urbanization process has attracted people to live in cities and therefore made these cities attractive for the tourist curiosity. Consequently, cities evolved to incorporate tourism development as part of their urban fabric in order to further accommodate the increased tourist curiosities. The research confirms that this intertwined relationship continues to occur as a process that is possible to observe and capture and less likely to be measured as a whole. Future research needs to investigate the interlocking connections between tourism and urbanization throughout the ages across disciplines (e.g., anthropology, sociology, economics, urbanization, and infrastructure). Further investigation is needed to discern how one of the pillars becomes the primary influence, overtaking the other pillars, in any given location and era.

7. Recommendation
- This research shows that across all eras tourism and urbanization are inseparable processes. Cities and local governments should coordinate with tourism authorities to manage for urban growth that takes into account future tourism projections. Tourism should be fully integrated in the wider city agenda as a means ensure its effective contribution to the development of inclusive, resilient and sustainable cities.
- Transportation sector should take into account the potential tourism influx that occurs as a result of improved cities and destinations. It also should incorporate increased uses by tourist the more the services improved.
- While urban infrastructure is developed to serve its local residents, it often become in demand by tourists especially with increased and improved services. In addition, innovation and technological shifts play a role in shaping and directing travel. Whether it’s the train, the care, the jet,… or any other new invention, all have created a significant shift in the tourism industry.
- Tourism contribution in the making of cities is inevitable, therefore, city planners should take into account incorporating the tourist as potential user that will share, public spaces, transportation systems, hotels, .... and other leisure facilities. The landscaping g of these cities should include tourist friendly elements such as multi-language signs and maps.
- Class-base tourism has its direct influence on designing and implementing the infrastructure of the destination. The shaping of a tourism destination is influenced by the market segment and social class that target such a destination. In addition, Travel with a purpose or to support a cause (such as ones based on ecological awareness, serving other communities, ..etc) plays a role in influencing the local practices and shape the local destinations.
- Further research is required to continue future projections of the relationship of these three pilers: tourist curiosity, travel infrastructure and the shaping of the tourism destination. These future projections will need to take innovations and tech technological shifts in considerations such as internet, virtual reality, social media and other innovative developments that influences the tourism industry.
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Notes

Note 1. Traditional societies are communities with areas of life that are not primarily regulated by economic criteria; they also include sedentary groups in modern societies, such as peasants.

Note 2. Hindus traveled to Himalayan Char Dham-Badrinath, Kedarnath, Gangotri, and Yamunotri; Christians traveled to Jerusalem and Bethlehem; Mormon traveled the Mormon Pioneer Trail, and Muslims traveled to Mecca.

Note 3. The writer (unknown name) lived in Egypt and the estate he refers to is near Fayoum Lake.
Note 4. Tour d'Egypte is a professional road cycling stage race held each February in Egypt. Tour d'Egypte is part of the UCI Africa Tour.

Note 5. Pro-underprivileged is a term used to described local people as real persons that deserve the benefits of the system (Sakhuja, 2008)

Note 6. After a single no-decompression dive, a minimum pre-flight surface interval of 12 hours is suggested. After multiple no-decompression dives per day, or multiple days of diving, a minimum pre-flight surface interval of 18 hours is suggested. For dives requiring decompression stops, there is little experimental or published evidence on which to base a recommendation; for decompression diving, a pre-flight surface interval substantially longer than 18 hours appears prudent.