Forever young and new – cruise tourism

Dr Wendy R London (corresponding author)

*Adjunct Research Fellow – Cities Research Institute
Griffith University, Queensland*
w.london@griffith.edu.au
dr.wendy.london@gmail.com

Wallace Farias

*Professor in Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure
Federal Institute of Brasília, Brazil*
wallace.farias@ifb.edu.br

Abstract

Geo-political events, socio-economic conditions and technological advances have directly influenced the leisure cruise tourism sector. However, despite these challenges, cruising continues to experience exceptional growth, often re-inventing itself as a direct response. Projecting into the future, climate change, ongoing geo-political conflict and changes in technology are likely to produce the next epochs of reinvention of leisure cruising, as already being demonstrated. This chapter discusses the major milestones which define each of the broad challenges identified above and describes the cruise industry's response to them.

1 Introduction

Little did Cleopatra know that when she boarded her barge for a cruise down the Nile around 50BC that she may well have enjoyed the world's first known leisure cruise. A solo, royal passenger on an ornate barge triggered an industry which today caters to more than 26 million passengers cruising on more approximately 315 vessels (Cruise Market Watch, 2018) and contributes more than US\$126 billion to the world's economy (Florida-Caribbean Cruise Association, 2018). Cruising continues to be the fastest growing sector within the leisure tourism industry (MacNeill & Wozniak, 2018). That growth can be attributed to two paradigmatic factors. First, leisure cruising is an industry which has, and continues to, embrace technological innovation. Technology continues to change the operational characteristics of passenger ships as well as the nature and quality of passengers' experience at sea. Secondly, the industry continues to demonstrate its remarkable nimbleness by responding to challenging global events. Economic downturns, war and terrorism are just some of the events which have tested and ultimately proven the cruise industry's resiliency, ie, its ability to reinvent itself and

grow even stronger (Branchik, 2014). This chapter first identifies the milestones which have defined the evolution of the cruise industry and then speculates how the cruise industry might respond to future challenges.

2 Turning point one: the birth of leisure cruising

It is highly likely that the merchant galleys in the Middle Ages often carried passengers seeking adventure as well as cargo (Braudel, 1972). However, it was not until 1817 when the Black Ball Line, which was contracted by the government to transport mail and newspapers, also advertised regular, fixed date sailings for passengers between Liverpool and New York. Black Ball Line therefore became the first passenger line to offer regularly scheduled services (Bosneagu, Coca & Sorescu, 2015). Its majestic, medium-sized packet ships would take at least 23 days from New York to Liverpool, and at least 40 days for the return voyage, offering passengers all that the North Atlantic had to offer.

It was not until steam ships were deployed for passenger transport, though, that the first shoots of the modern leisure cruising industry can be detected. The Peninsular & Oriental Steam Navigation Company (P&O) also offered mail and passenger services but by 1822, steam ships were used for their voyages between England and the Iberian Peninsula (Napier, 1990). P&O and other companies deployed steam ships to carry both mail and passengers across the North Atlantic (Geels, 2002). The most high profile of these companies was the British and North American Royal Mail Steam Packet Company which became Cunard (Sloan, 1992), later famous for her regal ocean liners which transported passengers from Dover to New York. The first known effort to advertise cruising with all of the imagery associated with leisure cruising surfaced in 1833, when the *Francesco I*, a Sicilian vessel, advertised a three-month Mediterranean cruise to Taormina, Catania, Syracuse, Malta, Corfu, Patras, Delphi, Zante, Athens, Smyrna and Constantinople (Koteski *et al.*, 2016). Mediterranean cruising became popular.

The first company which appeared to convey a unique selling proposition (USP) in relation to customer comfort and elegance was Cunard. On 4 July 1840, Cunard's first ship, *Britannia*, sailed from Liverpool to New York with a cow onboard to ensure that the passengers had fresh milk (Maxtone-Graham, 1972). This cow would have had no inkling that she started a trend, a trend which continues to both define and be symbolic of a highly competitive cruise sector which sells images of exemplary service and luxury. She can be considered to be the first of many cows which have proven to be lucrative for

the cruise lines as the cruise lines continue to overtake their competitors by offering ever-elaborate and technologically advanced services.

The official start of the modern leisure cruise era, though, is generally thought to have occurred in 1844 when the P&O Steam Navigation Company advertised tours to the Mediterranean from Southampton (Artmonsky, 2012). It also appears that P&O commissioned the first cruise critic when it invited British poet, William Makepeace Thackeray, to travel free on three of those voyages and write about his experiences (Artmonsky, 2012). Soon thereafter, the modern cruise atlas was born (see, eg, Holland America Line, 2018; Princess Cruise Lines, 2017), promoting cruises for pleasure. Services were later extended to India, the Orient, Australia and New Zealand.

The trend started by Cunard's cow continued in the 1850s and 1860s. Significant enhancements were made to passenger comfort (Maxtone-Graham, 1972). No longer did passengers share their vessels with mail or cargo, but instead, could take advantage of greater deck space. Passenger vessels began to offer entertainment. Undoubtedly the single most important enhancement during this time was the installation of electric lights. In 1889, the *SS Valetta* became the first ship to use artificial lighting (Koteski, et al., 2016). During the 1880s and 1890s, cruising became a popular holiday option, commended for its health benefits, with Mark Twain (in *The Innocents Abroad*) and the *British Medical Journal* (1897) recognising the value of spending days at sea while doing nothing. However, this curative environment was tempered by the waves of immigration which were heading to the United States. Passenger ships – luxurious, leisure ocean liners – also carried immigrants in what was known as steerage class. Immigrant passengers provided their own food, and slept in the hold wherever they could find room (Branchik, 2014; Maxtone-Graham, 1972).

While electric lighting alone had a profound effect on leisure cruising, the new era of industrialisation made bigger, faster and even more luxurious ships possible, leading to robust growth in the industry. In 1880, the *SS Ravenna* became the first ship ever to be built with a totally steel superstructure (Koteski et al 2016). Advances in marine engineering made it possible to build more extravagant, sumptuous ships which offered such facilities as swimming pools, gymnasias, opulent theatres and expansive dining rooms where passengers no longer had to share tables (Maxtone-Graham, 1972). Industrialisation also meant that more people could afford taking a sea-going holiday, both in terms of money and leisure time.

The year 1896 marked the deployment of three, European-owned luxury liners for transportation across the Atlantic, but it wasn't until the start of the 20th Century that a vessel was built exclusively for luxury cruising, the *Prinzessin Victoria Luise*, owned by Hamburg-America Line (Polat, 2015). Cruise lines soon began to compete for passengers, offering them a choice of speed, luxury or both. German shipping lines were first to market with super-liners, designed as ornate, floating hotels.

Speed was Cunard's objective with the *Mauritania* and the *Lusitania*. However, luxury was not forgotten, as passengers were required to dress for dinner, and romance was one of the key images embodied in their advertising campaigns. On the other hand, luxury was the key driver for the *Titanic* and the *Olympic* owned by White Star Line. Unfortunately, speed meant that passengers seeking fast transit times had to share dining tables and forego the benefits and enjoyment of large public rooms. Luxury meant that passengers could have a swim or play a set of tennis.

The popularity of cruising gave rise to competition between the cruise lines, an increase in the number of luxury liners for transport, and the start of repositioning cruises. Repositioning is a fundamental, basic operational strategy of the modern cruise industry. In other words, lines such as the Hamburg-America Line sent their trans-Atlantic ships on long Southern cruises during the Northern Hemisphere's winter. Some ships were built specifically to operate both as trans-Atlantic liners during the clement weather in the Northern Hemisphere and cruise ships for winter cruising in warmer waters (Karuk, 2015).

Unfortunately, this bold start to modern cruising suffered two disastrous events. In 1912, the *Titanic* hit an iceberg and sank, and in 1916, the *Britannic* hit a mine and sank. However, despite these events, and the winds of war described in the next section, the cruise industry embodied the spirit of Molly Brown and proved to be unsinkable.

3 Turning point two: the winds of war, waves of immigration and economic downturn

War had a profound effect on the cruise industry. Ships which carried passengers in great style in the preceding decades were appropriated for troop transport in both World Wars (Maxtone-Graham, 1972; Chalkiti & Sigala, 2006). During World War I, no new cruise ships were built. Following World War I, German superliners became the currency of reparations, given to both Great Britain and the United States (McCutcheon 2009). Between the wars, the industry demonstrated its resiliency. The period from 1920 to the 1940s was considered to be the glamour years for trans-Atlantic ships, with rich and famous American tourists replacing immigrants. This growth slowed with the Great

Depression when fortunes disappeared and passenger numbers fell. It also resulted in a period of consolidation for the industry. In 1934, the White Star Line merged with Cunard to form Cunard White Star with a fleet of 25 vessels.

At the start of World War II, ships were once again converted into troop transports, putting an end to trans-Atlantic cruising until after the war. British Prime Minister Winston Churchill credited the technologically advanced, speedy *Queen Mary* and *Queen Elizabeth* for shortening World War II by a year because of their speed (Chalkiti & Sigala, 2006). The two *Queens* took troops from the United States to their European theatres of war, potentially leaving the ships empty on their return voyages. However, sailing empty was never going to be an acceptable option, so on their westward journeys, the ships became lifelines for refugees seeking new lives in the United States and Canada. Because there were no American-built ocean liners during this period, the United States Government subsidised the construction of luxury vessels which could be converted to troop carriers if needed (Lane, 2001). In 1947, Cunard launched *Caronia*, reputedly the first purpose-built cruise ship (Chalkiti & Sigala, 2006).

4 Turning point three: the impact of air travel

The peace dividend arising out of war invariably includes advances in technology. In the case of the cruise industry, these advances had a potentially dampening effect. Regular travel by sea commenced again after World War II, but in 1958, air transport became the preferred method of travel across the Atlantic (Maxtone-Graham, 1972). On 4 October 1958, a DeHavilland Comet 4 owned by British Overseas Airline Corporation (BOAC) became the first jet aircraft to fly across the Atlantic, from London to New York (with a stopover in Gander, Newfoundland) (Miller, 2011). Three weeks later, Pan American World Airways took delivery of the first Boeing 707 aircraft and flew it in the reverse direction, from New York to Paris (Miller, 2011).

Thus, travelers took to the skies, leaving passenger ships empty and some passenger lines bankrupt. Passenger ships were sold, surrendered to the elements or scrapped (Maxtone-Graham, 1972). More people flew across the Atlantic than crossed it by ocean liners. By 1960, jet travel accounted for 70% of the trans-Atlantic market. By 1970, only 4% of travellers went by sea (Stansfield, 1977). Bruised but undaunted, the cruise lines once again re-invented themselves, and in the 1960s, offered vacation trips to the Caribbean (Wilkinson, 2006).

5 Turning point four: oil shocks and the reinvention of ocean cruising

The next shock came from the oil embargo of 1973-74. Some passenger lines continued to prosper but others disappeared. Many ocean liners were sold or scrapped (Miller, 1995). The cruise lines were also thwarted by new regulations coming into force, making it difficult to retrofit older ships to comply. However, at the start of the 1970s, Royal Caribbean launched its first ship, the *Song of Norway*, which was the first ship specifically designed for warm weather cruising (Valenti, 1998). In 1977, cruising literally took off through the power of television. *Love Boat* first aired on 24 September 1977, running until 24 May 1986. The legend of Captain Stubing continues, creating images of high-jinks onboard, and warm tropical settings onshore.

The resurgent, popularity of the cruise industry led to substantial investment by the cruise lines. Ship design embraced the new style of cruising, setting the stage for the design of today's cruise ships. For example, passenger cabins were now designed for comfort. Cruising became casual, with onboard entertainment. No longer was the focus on point-to-point destination travel. This casual popularity also marked the end of the opulent and romantic era of cruise. The great ocean liners of the 1930s and 1940s were no longer economic to operate because of their high fuel consumption and deep draught preventing them from entering shallow ports (Karuk, 2015). The last transatlantic voyage took place in 1986, except for Cunard, which blended the ethos of transatlantic ocean liners with modern cruise line features and facilities. International celebrities were invited to provide entertainment. A voyage onboard Cunard's *Queen Elizabeth 2* ocean liner was "advertised as a vacation in itself" (Mason, 2017). During this period, many new ships were built, and older ships were re-purposed for leisure cruising. Among these was the ocean liner, the *SS Norway* (formerly the *SS France*), the largest passenger ship in the world at that time at 316 metres (1,035 feet) and carrying approximately 2,000 passengers. The *Norway*, the first Sovereign-class cruise ship, found new life as the Caribbean's first mega cruise ship (Chapman, 1993), sporting a multi-storey atrium, glass lifts and the first entire passenger deck to have private balconies (Mason, 2017).

6 Turning point five: coming of age

The cruise lines came of age in the 1980s, with many new ships being built or refurbished from older ships, new cruise lines being established and others changing their names through consolidation or

mergers. Cruise ships became more and more self-contained, capturing passenger shopping revenue with new, onboard shops and other facilities. Additionally, Royal Caribbean was the first cruise line to quarantine even more passenger revenue by acquiring a private island. Cruise passengers could now enjoy a seamless ship to shore experience, without wandering into the nearest town, spending their money there. Golden times returned again, until the temporary shock of the Iraq-Iran War, when oil prices increased to US\$35 a barrel. And once again, two ships, Cunard's *Queen Elizabeth 2* and P&O's *Canberra* were appropriated for war duty in 1982, as the British Government moved troops to fight in the Falklands War [between Argentina and Britain]. The power of television was once again recognised when, in 1984, Carnival Cruise Lines famously used Kathie Lee Gifford to advertise cruises for the very first time on US television.

Terrorism reached the cruise industry on 7 October 1985 when four members of the Palestinian Liberation Front hijacked the *Achille Lauro*, killing a 69-year old disabled American, Leon Klinghoffer and throwing him overboard. However, little effect on the industry was felt, and the industry continued to grow. It is a feeling of safety and security, even during an intensive era of airplane hijackings and land-based terrorist attacks that characterised, and continues to characterise, the cruise industry.

7 Turning point six: the floating resort

The floating resort was born in the 1990s. Until the early 1990s, the *SS Norway* was the largest ship at sea. However, during this period, *Monarch of the Seas* was launched by Royal Caribbean International. Although smaller than the *Norway* at less than 74,000 tons, *Monarch of the Seas* carried 2,744 passengers. In 1995, Princess Cruise Line's *Sun Princess* became the largest cruise ship, at 77,000 tons. In 1996, Carnival Cruise Lines launched the 101,353 ton *Carnival Destiny*. Although the largest ship to be put into service, she only carried 2,642 passengers, fewer than the *Sun Princess*. In that same year Royal Caribbean announced that it had signed contracts for two 130,000 ton ships, thereby further acknowledging the popularity of the industry.

Thus, ships became small towns. They became even more self-contained than was required by their structure, offering services, features and facilities that were more commonly associated with being on land and not in the middle of vast oceans. Ice skating rinks, rock climbing walls, expansive spa facilities, full service casinos, bowling alleys and shopping malls began to appear (*see, eg*, Kwortnik, 2008) giving rise to competition within the industry (Paris & Teye, 2011) and between land-based and floating

resorts (Kester, 2003). Internet cafes, followed by wireless internet in all areas of the ship including in passenger cabins, meant that passengers no longer had to venture onshore looking for services. This growing 'self-sufficiency' of ships potentially poses a threat for destinations seeking to capture cruise passenger revenue (Braun & Tramell, 2006; London, 2012).

However, it wasn't only the addition of expansive passenger-oriented facilities and features which signalled a paradigmatic change in cruising in the 1990s. Twentieth Century technology and innovation, the descendants of the previous century's Age of Industrialisation, gave rise to many technical enhancements which have set the baseline for the 21st Century's ships. Navigational features such as GPS and Voyage Data Recorders and the more fuel efficient Azipod propulsion systems are among the technical advancements implemented by the cruise lines.

Safety also came very much to the forefront. A bundle of industry-wide measures was also introduced in the 1990s to improve passenger and crew safety and environmental management in the face of the growth of the industry. Amendments to industry codes such as SOLAS¹ (International Maritime Organisation, 1974); MARPOL² (International Maritime Organisation, 1973); and STCW95³ (International Maritime Organisation, 1978) introduced new safety and pollution control measures, and better training standards. In 2001, guidelines for shore power were also introduced, with cruise lines starting to equip their ships with the necessary facilities to connect (Sulligoi, *et al.*, 2015).

8 Turning point seven: terrorism and economic downturn

The first decade of the 21st Century represented another significant watershed period for the cruise industry. The tragic events of 11 September 2001 and the Global Financial Crisis (GFC) of 2007-2008 both had a significant impact on the cruise industry. Counter-intuitively, though, both events resulted in a stronger and bigger cruise industry. For example, the initial slowdown in tourism following 9/11 was reversed when 30 new ports were created in the United States (F-CCA, 2009; *see also* Wilkinson, 2006). This meant that millions of risk-adverse North Americans who were afraid to fly could drive to their cruise ships within one day. In addition, far-flung destinations such as New Zealand and Australia were perceived to be safe, thereby attracting cruise passengers from within those regions who preferred not to fly long distances. During this period, new cruise lines emerged, while others merged.

¹ The International Convention for the Safety of Life at Sea.

² The International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution from Ships.

³ The International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification, and Watchkeeping for Seafarers.

Six years after 9/11, the GFC once again threatened the viability of the cruise industry. However, the industry's nimbleness, flexibility and ability to withstand economic as well as geo-political shocks was once again proven (*see, eg*, Müller & Wieckowski, eds, 2017). Passenger numbers continued to grow, with the cruise industry offering deeply discounted fares which attracted people who had never even contemplated a cruise. The GFC also saw the cruise lines respond by attracting new generations of cruisers, and multi-generational groups cruising together. As a result of the expansion into non-traditional demographic groups, at least one cruise company (Royal Caribbean Cruise Lines) began to deploy increasingly feature- and technology-rich mega cruise ships which could be mistaken for land-based resorts. New passengers continue to be attracted to cruising from the growing middle classes in India, China and Russia (Branchik, 2014), with some ships being retrofitted to cater to Asian tastes.

9 Turning point eight: the widening of the Panama Canal

The semi-annual migration of the largest cruise ships from the Northern to the Southern Hemisphere and *vice-versa* could have been severely impeded if not for one extraordinary engineering feat, the widening of the Panama Canal. Repositioning floating cities such as the 228,081 grt,⁴ 6,680 passenger *Symphony of the Seas* would have become long, protracted and expensive had the Panama Canal not been widened. Moving post-Panamax ships (ie, those too big to transit the original canal) from the East Coast of the United States to the increasingly popular Australasian cruise region would have meant long, expensive and somewhat tortuous journeys around Cape Horn. Now, the future's mega ships can transit the Panama Canal, offering attracting and relaxing repositioning cruises between the two highly seasonal cruising regions. Size no longer matters.

10 Turning point nine: the future

10.1 Climate change

Cruise itineraries are increasingly being altered mid-cruise to avoid ferocious weather systems, but terrain changes to coastal and island destinations caused by rising sea levels are likely to have a much more profound impact on cruising. Well-constructed concrete and steel piers may or may not survive the inexorable march of the sea (Koetse & Rietveld, 2009), but the wooden jetties which greet cruise passengers on low-lying islands are likely to disappear, as may entire coastal villages. Also, the ease in

⁴ GRT refers to gross registered tonnage, the measurement by which a ship's internal volume capacity is measured (ie, not weight).

repositioning ships to the Southern Hemisphere made possible by the widening of the Panama Canal is welcome in the short-term, but may result in yet another reinvention of the industry in the future. While the construction of ever-bigger, ever-technologically feature rich mega cruise ships potentially pose a threat to destinations as passengers prefer to stay onboard their floating resort, these mobile resorts may pose an alternative means for both the traditional land-based tourist and the cruise passenger to have their “island” holiday. In other words, the traditional, *land-based* island-hopping tourist may find themselves as passengers on these resort-like *floating* tropical islands when low-lying islands become unviable for tourism. Within this scenario, the ship becomes the island in the midst of the South Seas.

Another scenario can also be considered. Extreme weather will disrupt port operations (Koetse & Rietveld, 2009) and result in significant changes to navigation. For example, port entrances may become increasingly inaccessible by sand bars; high winds may make transit through narrow harbour entrances more and more dangerous; and higher swells may make it difficult or even impossible to keep ships stable enough for passengers using gangways. These events may make the operation of large ships untenable. Moreover, very large, mega ships present a particularly exaggerated threat to fragile environments. Therefore, the “golden age” of mega liners may wane, with an increasing deployment of smaller ships. In fact, this trend appears to have started already, with more and more passengers expressing a preference for smaller cruise ships which offer more opportunities for enrichment and exploration and less emphasis on water slides and glitz (Harpaz, 2018).

10.2 Conflict

Continuing global instability poses a threat to cruise tourism. However, if the past is a guideline, the industry will continue to reinvent itself, or perhaps more pragmatically, adopt strategies to cope with the threat. Terrorism, conflict and local tensions can cause itineraries to be changed at short notice, and sometimes on a longer term basis (eg, the Eastern Mediterranean). The widening of the Panama Canal may prove to be a key ingredient to any strategy given that ships can easily be re-deployed to calmer regions. Cruise ships could once again be requisitioned to carry troops. Peace time dividends could result in the creation of a class or design of ship which eludes today’s crystal ball gazers. It is impossible to try to reach any conclusion about what the cruise industry would look like after any protracted, devastating epoch of 21st Century conflict, but given the industry’s past track record of reinvention and adaptation, someone, somewhere, will sow the seeds of the next version of leisure cruising.

10.3 Technology

Cruise ships are already sporting advanced technology. New propulsion systems including hybrid systems and wind power; onboard recycling plants; new hull paints which lower water resistance and increase speed; and greater use of lighter and recycled materials for ship fit-outs are just some of the advanced technologies which are being implemented to make cruise ships more environmentally friendly (Witthaus, 2018). Onboard many of these ships, futuristic technology greets passengers, contributing to their cruise escape, and in many respects, makes the 'floating island' concept entirely possible. For example, cruise ship design is starting to blend in more with the sea around it. One new ship is dispensing with balconies in favour of cabins with the same design illusion as infinity pools and movable decks which can take advantage of the time of day and the weather (Ekstein, 2017). Others offer underwater bars and submersibles (Goldsbury, 2017). Still others are offering virtual excursions, cabins which mimic other environments such as outer space and dining experiences which take passengers to onshore destinations to match their food through a combination of augmented and virtual reality (Kim, 2017). At least one super-yacht cruise ship designer has already produced a concept for a floating island, complete with tiki huts, palm trees and a water-spouting volcano (Souza, 2016).

Is the future of cruising "non-cruising"? Even today, virtual and augmented reality can offer cruisers the 21st Century equivalent of arm chair traveling. It makes practical sense, but does it make emotional sense, and does it satisfy the cruise passenger's desire for authenticity, relaxation and the opportunity to purchase mementos of their "trip"? (Guttentag, 2010). Or, is it a gimmick which is reminiscent of the fantasy worlds being created on the ships themselves? Or, is it the new cruise ship of the next Millennium?

10.4 Future growth

From a solo passenger enjoying a leisurely cruise on a barge down the Nile to the more than 26 million passengers who cruise today, cruise tourism has demonstrated consistent, strong growth. The prospect for greater growth is clear. New cruise lines, new ships, new ship designs, new home ports, new destinations and new markets are all factors which signal substantial future growth. The number of new cruise ships alone is a key indicator of the growth in the market. Cruise line capacity at the end of 2018 is forecast to be 537,000, distributed among 314 ships, with 37 more ships to be deployed between 2018-2020 (Cruise Market Watch, 2018). These new ships represent an increase in capacity

of 99,895 berths, adding US\$11.7 billion in annual revenue to the industry during the same period (Cruise Market Watch, 2018).

Underpinning much of this growth is the changing demographic of cruise passengers and to an increasing extent, a response to the need to deploy environmentally sensitive and responsible ships. In terms of the changing demographic, no longer are cruise ships the sole domain of older, well-heeled passengers from North America. Younger, active, environmentally-conscious cruisers from a greater diversity of source markets are driving sustainable change and growth. New ships and new cruise lines sporting such features as active cruise experiences, hybrid energy plants and a more intimate cruising experience are making their debut. North American cruise passengers are being joined by the growing middle classes in Southeast Asia and India, with a growing number of ships being homeported (based) in these markets.

The growth in the number of ships is generating concomitant growth on land. Coastal hamlets, towns and cities are being added to the 1,200 cruise ports currently operating at a rapid rate. This growth is being driven by both the cruise lines and potential destinations. The cruise lines continuously seek to refresh their itineraries by adding new destinations to attract repeat cruise passengers as well as new ones. Coastal communities of all sizes increasingly seek to partake in the revenues generated by cruise tourism. In fact, the interest in cruise tourism is so pervasive that there are many instances where the number of cruise passengers visiting a destination outnumbers the local population. Fundamental to this expansion is a destination's ability to offer interesting activities onshore, and at least a minimal level of amenities. However, passengers on small and exploration ships tend to want to pursue adventure and relatively unexplored destinations, thereby inspiring the addition of undeveloped and small ports.

There are no signs that this growth will abate. Even without the cruise lines' aggressive international expansion, only one-quarter of the US population has ever taken an ocean cruise (Market Watch, 2018). Given that there are still a lot of people to attract to cruising, and as ships respond to consumer trends and implement the latest technologies to offer totally new cruising experiences, the future for cruising remains stellar.

List of references

- Artmonsky, R. (2010) *P&O: A History*. London: Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Bosneagu, R., Coca, C.E. and Sorescu, F. (2015). Management and Marketing Elements in Maritime Cruises Industry. European Cruise Market. *EIRP Proceedings*, 10. Romania: Danubius University Press.
- Branchik, B., (2014). Staying afloat: a history of maritime passenger industry marketing. *Journal of Historical Research in Marketing*, 6(2), 234-257.
- Braudel, F. (1972). *The Mediterranean in the Age of Phillip II*, I. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Braun, B.M. and Tramell, F. (2006). The sources and magnitude of the economic impact on a local economy from cruise activities: evidence from Port Canaveral, Florida. In R. Dowling (ed) *Cruise Ship Tourism*, 280-289. Wallingford: CABI Publishing.
- Brida, J. & Aguirre, S. (2008). The impacts of the cruise industry on tourism destinations. In V. Castellani and S. Sala (eds) *Sustainable tourism as a factor of local development*, 110-117. Trento: Tangram Edizioni Scientifiche Trento. http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=1298403
- Cruise Market Watch (2018). *Capacity*. <https://www.cruisemarketwatch.com/capacity/>
- British Medical Journal (1899). The therapeutic value of ocean voyages. *British Medical Journal*, 2(2027), 1301-1302.
- Cerić, D. (2018). Cruise tourism: from regional saturation towards global dynamic equilibrium. In D. Müller and M. Więckowski *Tourism in Transitions: Recovering Decline, Managing Change*, 59-80. Cham: Springer International Publishing.
- Chalkiti, K. & Sigala, M. (2006). Profiling Samuel Cunard: an assessment of his contributions to the contemporary cruise sector. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 18(3), 5-14.
- Chapman, A. (1993). Watch the Port of Miami. *Tequesta*, 53, 7-30.
- Ekstein, N. (2017). New cruise ship reimagines what it means to be outdoors. *NZHerald.co.nz*, 15 March, <http://www.nzherald.co.nz/news/print.cfm?objectid=11818604>
- Florida-Caribbean Cruise Association (F-CCA) (2009). *Cruise Industry Overview – 2009*, Pembroke Pines: F-CCA. <http://www.f-cca.com/downloads/2009-cruise-industryoverview-and-statistics.pdf>
- Florida-Caribbean Cruise Association (F-CCA) (2018). *Cruise Industry Overview – 2018*. Pembroke Pines: F-CCA. <http://www.f-cca.com/downloads/2018-Cruise-Industry-Overview-Cruise-Line-Statistics.pdf>
- Geels, F.W. (2002). Technological transitions as evolutionary reconfiguration processes: a multi-level perspective and a case-study. *Research policy*, 31(8-9), 1257-1274.
- Goldsbury, L. (2017). Cruise lines get adventurous with submersibles, go-karts, sky diving. *The Australian*, 25 February. <https://www.theaustralian.com.au/life/travel/cruise-lines-get-adventurous-with-submersibles-gokarts-sky-diving/news-story/99244807cce9c97bcdaddf2fcf8163f7>

Guttentag, D.A. (2010). Virtual reality: applications and implications for tourism. *Tourism Management*, 31(5), 637-651.

Harpaz, B. (2018). Boom in small ship cruising: 'it's not about the slides.' *Financial Post*. 30 January. <http://business.financialpost.com/pmn/business-pmn/boom-in-small-ship-cruising-its-not-about-the-slides>

Holland America Line (2018). *Cruise atlas: April 2018 – April 2019*. Seattle: Holland America Line. https://digital.cenveomobile.com/publication/?i=419531&p=&pn=#{%22issue_id%22:419531,%22page%22:0}

International Maritime Organisation (IMO) (1973). *International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution from Ships (MARPOL)*. London: IMO. [http://www.imo.org/en/about/conventions/listofconventions/pages/international-convention-for-the-prevention-of-pollution-from-ships-\(marpol\).aspx](http://www.imo.org/en/about/conventions/listofconventions/pages/international-convention-for-the-prevention-of-pollution-from-ships-(marpol).aspx)

International Maritime Organization (IMO) (1974). *International Convention for the Safety of Life at Sea (SOLAS)*. London: IMO. [http://www.imo.org/en/About/Conventions/ListOfConventions/Pages/International-Convention-for-the-Safety-of-Life-at-Sea-\(SOLAS\),-1974.aspx](http://www.imo.org/en/About/Conventions/ListOfConventions/Pages/International-Convention-for-the-Safety-of-Life-at-Sea-(SOLAS),-1974.aspx)

International Maritime Organization (IMO) (1978, 1995). *International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification, and Watchkeeping for Seafarers (STCW)*. London : IMO. [http://www.imo.org/en/About/conventions/listofconventions/pages/international-convention-on-standards-of-training,-certification-and-watchkeeping-for-seafarers-\(stcw\).aspx](http://www.imo.org/en/About/conventions/listofconventions/pages/international-convention-on-standards-of-training,-certification-and-watchkeeping-for-seafarers-(stcw).aspx)

Karuk, M. & Chala, K. (2015). *History of cruise tourism*. Kiev: National University of Food Technologies.

Kester, J.G. (2003). Cruise tourism. *Tourism Economics*, 9(3), 337-350.

Kim, S. (2017). Cruise ship of the future: facial recognition, fake views and virtual excursions. *Traveller*, 15 November, <http://www.traveller.com.au/cruise-ship-of-the-future-facial-recognition-fake-views-and-virtual-excursions-gzktxr>

Koetse, M.J. & Rietveld, P. (2009). The impact of climate change and weather on transport: an overview of empirical findings. *Transportation Research Part D: Transport and Environment*, 14(3), 205-221.

Koteski, C., Dimitrov, N., Jakovlev, Z. & Petrov, N. (2016). Cruise as part of water transport-development and challenges. In *Proceeding Papers: Fifth International Scientific Conference "Geographical Sciences and Education,"* Shumen.

Kwortnik, R.J. (2008). Shipscape influence on the leisure cruise experience. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 2(4), 289-311.

Lane, F.C. (2001). *Ships for victory: a history of shipbuilding under the US Maritime Commission in World War II*. Baltimore: JHU Press.

London, W.R. (2012). Economic risk in the cruise sector. *Études caribéennes*, 18.

MacNeill, T. & Wozniak, D. (2018). The economic, social, and environmental impacts of cruise tourism. *Tourism Management*, 66, 387-404.

McCutcheon, C. (2009). *Port of Southampton*. Stroud: Amberley Publishing Limited.

Princess Cruise Lines (2017). *Cruise atlas: 2017-2018*. Sta Clarita: Princess Cruise Lines.
https://www.princess.com/downloads/pdf/hk_brochures/2017/2017-2018_EN_Cruise-Atlas.pdf

Mason, D. (2017) *Introduction to cruise ships*.
www.san-shin.org/files/Introduction_to_Cruise_Ships.docx.

Maxtone-Graham, J. (1972). *The only way to cross*. New York: Barnes & Noble.

Miller, L. (1995). Five years in the rise of the modern cruise industry. *Hospitality Review*, 13(1), 33-40.

Miller, W.H. (2011). *The Last Atlantic Liners: Getting there is Half the Fun*. Stroud: Amberley Publishing Limited.

Napier, C.J. (1990). Fixed asset accounting in the shipping industry: P&O 1840–1914. *Accounting, Business & Financial History*, 1(1), 23-50.

Paris, C.M. & Teye, V. (2011). Segmenting the cruise market: an application of multiple correspondence analysis. *Tourism Analysis*, 16(5), 617-621.

Polat, N., (2015). Technical innovations in cruise tourism and results of sustainability. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 195, 438-445.

Sloan, E.W. (1992). Collins versus Cunard: The realities of a North Atlantic steamship rivalry, 1850–1858. *International Journal of Maritime History*, 4(1), 83-100.

Souza, B. (2016). Cruise ships of the future? *Cruise fever*, 27 December, <https://cruisefever.net/0120-cruise-ships-of-the-future/>

Stansfield Jr, C.A. (1977). Changes in the geography of passenger liner ports: the rise of the Southeastern Florida ports. *Southeastern Geographer*, 17, 25-32.

Sulligoi, G., Bosich, D., Pelaschiar, R., Lipardi, G. & Tosato, F. (2015). Shore-to-ship power. *Proceedings of the IEEE*, 103(12), 2381-2400.

The Guardian (2018), *Evolution of the cruise ship*, 18 January,
<https://www.theguardian.com/royal-caribbean-live-life-big/2016/jan/18/evolution-of-the-cruise-ship>

Twain, M. (1869). *The Innocents Abroad*. Hartford: American Publishing Company.

Valenti, M. (1998). Luxury liners go green. *Mechanical Engineering*, 120(7), 72.

Weaver, A. (2011). Tourism and the military: pleasure and the war economy. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 38(2), 672-689.

Wilkinson, P.F. (2006). The Changing Geography of Cruise Tourism in the Caribbean. In R. Dowling (ed) *Cruise Ship Tourism*, 170-183. Wallingford: CABI.

Witthaus, M.(2018). Introducing the first Cruise & Ferry green list. *Cruise&Ferry.net*, 2 April, <http://www.cruiseandferry.net/articles/introducing-the-first-cruise-ferry-green-list>