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**Airport Management: a perspective article**

**Graham, A.**

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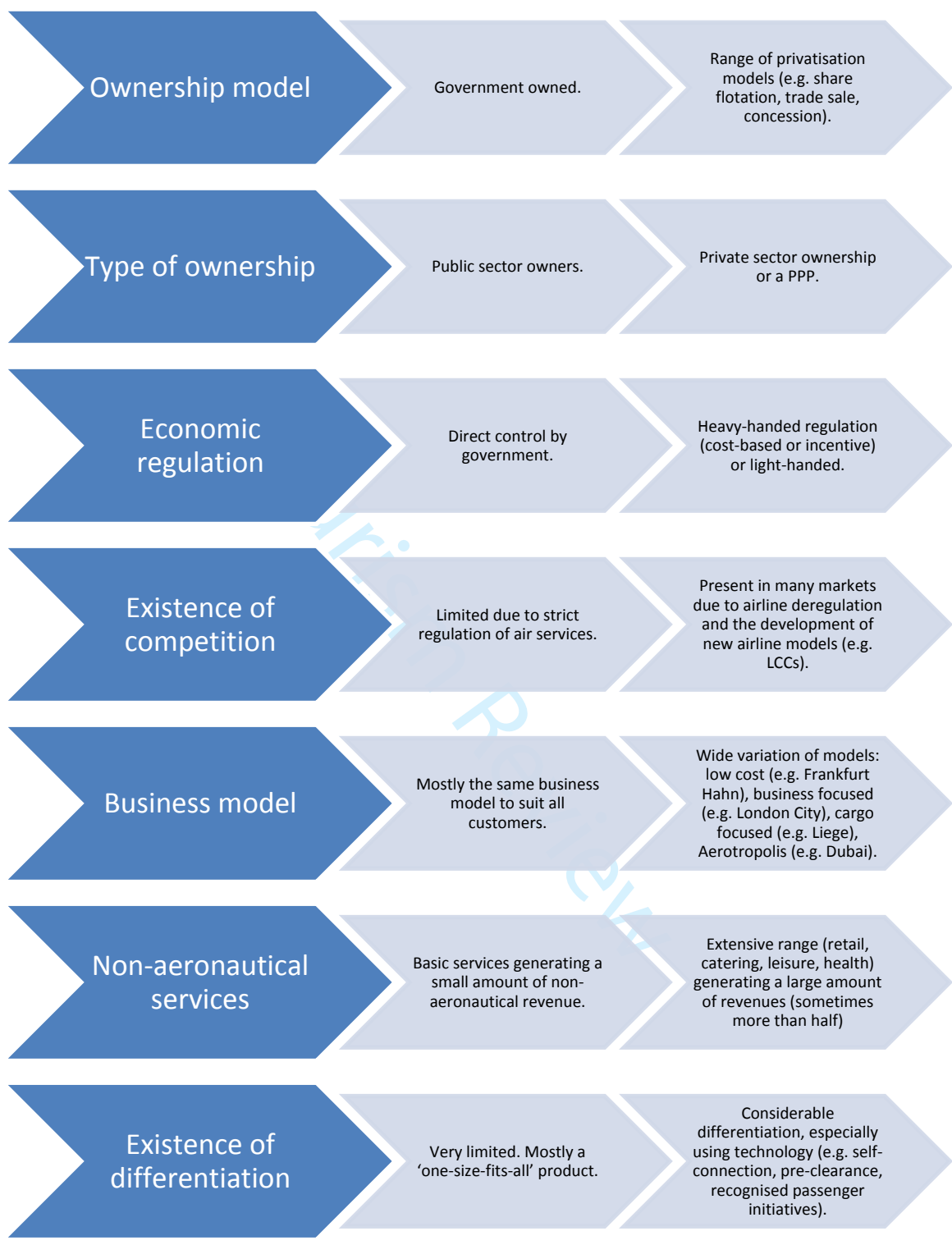
**Airport Management: A perspective article**

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**Figure 1: The evolution of airport management**



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Tourism Review

## AIRPORT MANAGEMENT

### INTRODUCTION

The airport sector has changed dramatically since 1946, with the public service paradigm, that views an airport as a public utility, being replaced with a commercial paradigm, that considers it a business enterprise. This transformation has been partly driven by airline markets becoming increasingly deregulated, carriers being privatised, and the presence of a greater diversity of airline business models, such as low cost carriers (LCCs) and global alliances. At the same time, governments have questioned their need to financially support, or directly manage, airport operations. Therefore the aim here is to evaluate these past changes and provide some perspective on the future directions of airport management.

### PAST PERSPECTIVE 75 YEARS OF DEVELOPMENTS 1946-2020

Arguably the most controversial development that demonstrates the shift in attitudes in airport management has been airport privatisation and the emergence of public private partnerships (PPPs). The first major privatisation occurred in the UK in 1987 (Doganis, 1991) and since then has become a popular trend. By 2016, 38% of the 500 busiest global airports had some sort of private sector participation, with 41% of total traffic being handled by airports with some private stakeholders (Airports Council International (ACI), 2017).

The stated objectives of these privatisations have generally focused on improvements in efficiency and performance, coupled with a need for greater investment (Graham, 2011). Yet the evidence as to whether privatised airports have achieved these objectives and been successful is far from clear - with the airport industry being far more convinced of the merits of privatisation than the airline industry (ACI, 2018a; International Air Transport Association (IATA), 2017; 2018). The academic research literature is just as inconclusive. Some studies have found no statistical link between privatisation and economic performance (e.g. Parker, 1999; Holvad and Graham, 2004; Domney *et al.*, 2005; Vasing and Gorjidooz, 2006; Oum *et al.*, 2003; Lin and Hong, 2006; Barros, 2009) whereas others (e.g. Marques *et al.*, 2015; Vogel, 2006; Bottasso and Conti, 2012; Barros and Dieke, 2007) have observed a positive relationship.

In reality, the situation is much more complex than much of the research indicates. It may well be that in certain circumstances the underlying trend towards airport 'commercialisation' has had a positive impact, irrespective of whether privatisation has occurred. Moreover there are many different privatisation and PPP models and the exact amount of private sector involvement will certainly have an impact (Oum *et al.*, 2006; Oum *et al.*, 2008). Inevitably the objectives are likely to have been defined within the context of specific privatisation model, and so it is hardly surprising that not all the outcomes follow the same pattern. However it is more certain that airport privatisation has led, as Forsyth *et al.* (2011) argued, to the sector shifting from a national to a global industry with international investors and expertise. In the early stages of privatisation investors were typically established airport operators or international infrastructure companies, whereas the fastest growing segment is now financial investors (Condie, 2015).

A growing concern, often but not exclusively associated with airports that have been privatised, is their possible abuse of market power, which could lead to a hike in aeronautical

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3 charges, reductions in service quality or under-investment. This has led many to debate  
4 whether there is a need for economic regulation and, if so, what is the most appropriate type  
5 (Reinhold *et al.*, 2010; Neimeier, 2002; Gerber, 2002; Forsyth, 2002; 2003; Littlechild,  
6 2018a). In the early days of privatisation traditional heavy-handed regulation (associated with  
7 the control of profits or prices) was typically viewed as the way forward, but increasingly this  
8 has been questioned. Within the more commercial airport environment, it makes more sense,  
9 as argued by Niemeier (2009), Littlechild (2012a, 2012b), Arblaster (2014) and Bush and  
10 Starkie (2014), to adopt a more light-handed approach.

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13 This relates to the whole argument concerning the extent to which airport markets are truly  
14 competitive (Barrett, 2000; Forsyth *et al.*, 2010; Graham, 2006; Socorro *et al.*, 2018, Lieshout  
15 *et al.*, 2016; Littlechild, 2018b). Without doubt, the increasingly more liberal airline  
16 environment has proved challenging for airports to attract and maintain air services (e.g. Bush  
17 and Starkie; 2014; Gillen and Lall, 2004; Graham, 2013). Indeed compelling evidence  
18 produced by the European airport industry and others supports the notion of a relatively high  
19 level of airport competition (ACI-Europe, 2014; ACI-Europe, 2017; Oxera, 2017; Thelle and  
20 la Cour, 2018) even though the airline industry remains less convinced (IATA, 2013;  
21 Wiltshire, 2018).

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24 The most widely acknowledged outcome of the early shifts in management attitudes was  
25 greater reliance on so-called non-aeronautical revenues from shops, catering and other  
26 commercial facilities. Globally the share of such revenues grew from just 30% in 1970 to  
27 50% in 2000, but has now dropped back to around 40-45% (Graham, 2018). Whilst not  
28 experienced everywhere, this decline - recognised by a few (e.g. Beltran, 2018) but not  
29 commonly not acknowledged in the research literature – is a major concern, given the  
30 pressures on aeronautical revenues from cost-cutting airlines.

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33 Another noticeable development, linked to greater airport competition, has been the existence  
34 more personalised services, such as targeted pricing incentives to maximise traffic  
35 development, and shifts from a ‘one-size-fits-all’ product offering to a more diversified  
36 approach. This reflects the desire of different airlines or airline groupings to have more  
37 differentiated facilities to suit their specific operating model. This may involve airports  
38 focusing on the needs of certain types of traffic, or offering something novel or unusual. Some  
39 airports have even gone further by becoming international airport companies (Koch and  
40 Budde, 2005; Bringmann *et al.*, 2018), or by expanding their scope of operations by  
41 developing into a so-called airport city/aerotropolis (Goetz, 2019) – even though the latter is  
42 rather an overused and vague concept, with too little assessment of actual impacts.

## 43 44 45 46 **FUTURE PERSPECTIVE 75 YEARS 2020-2095**

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49 Turning now to the long-term future up until 2095, it is very difficult to predict the role of  
50 airports without consideration of much broader issues such as future demand; the structure of  
51 the airline industry; and the development of drones/autonomous aircraft, space travel and  
52 other technological innovations - many of which have yet to be envisaged. Moreover without  
53 any doubt growing environmental pressures will not only make it increasingly difficult to  
54 expand airport capacity but also make it much more socially unacceptable to fly. Very large  
55 new airports, such as those in Istanbul and Dubai, may cease to be the ideal solution,  
56 particularly with future manufacturers focusing on smaller aircraft that can bypass hubs rather  
57 than larger mega-hub aircraft such as the A380 which will no longer be built.

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3 However, focusing on the overarching airport management themes that have been identified,  
4 some predictions at least for the nearer future can be made. Whilst remaining controversial,  
5 airport privatisation will continue, especially as traffic is predicted to expand (4.1% per year  
6 on average to 2040 – ACI, 2018b) and there will be continuing pressure on public sector  
7 spending. Ideological drivers, such as reducing state control and inducing greater efficiency,  
8 will increasingly play second fiddle to practical considerations such as the need for  
9 investment or reduction of public sector debt. As experience grows more informed decisions  
10 should be made, recognising, as argued by Assaf and Gillen, 2012; Adler and Liebert 2014,  
11 Yang and Fu, 2015 and Vasigh *et al.*, 2014, that the impacts of privatisation cannot be  
12 separated from the type of regulation and extent of competition. Financial investors seem set  
13 to remain the dominant players, in spite of concern that this encourages too much focus on  
14 short term financial gains that may not be compatible with long-term airport development  
15 objectives. Inevitably secondary sales of privatised airports which are already occurring in  
16 Europe will become much more the norm.  
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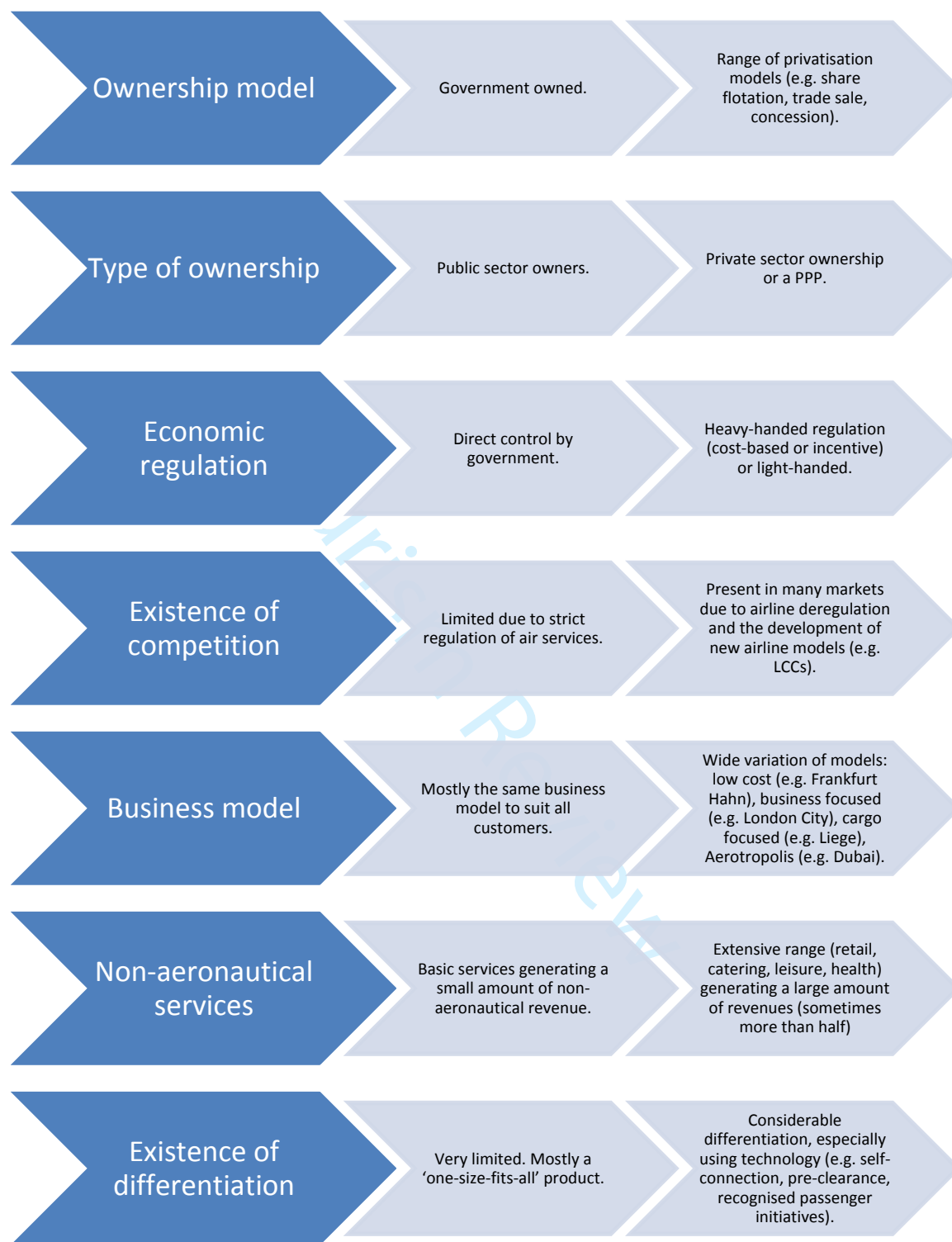
20 The traditional airline–airport relationship has irreversibly changed and will continue to  
21 evolve. Light-handed regulation has already resulted in commercial agreements between  
22 airport and airlines, while LCCs have agreed tailor-made airport contracts. This is the sensible  
23 way forward in the more competitive and commercially driven environment, but there is still a  
24 long way to go to achieve widespread acceptance of this approach, particularly with fierce  
25 opposition from some airlines. There is likely to be the continual abandonment of the ‘one-  
26 size-fits-all’ airport model, with the challenge to balance this with the flexibility and financial  
27 benefits that more standardised operations bring, i.e. pure versus hybrid competitive  
28 strategies (Tavalaei and Santalo, 2019). A difficulty is that the airline industry never stands  
29 still - with the recent development of some LCCs moving from secondary into primary  
30 airports and offering connections being a case in point (Dobruskes *et al.*, 2017). Moreover the  
31 future success of the airline-airport relationship will more than ever before be very much  
32 dependent on crucial additional involvement of destination management organisations to  
33 ensure that the optimum benefits from the management of airports and tourism destinations  
34 can be achieved (Halpern, 2019; World Travel and Tourism Council, 2018).  
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38 Non-aeronautical revenue development will remain the aim of many airport operators but will  
39 be more challenging as the airport retail industry matures, passengers seek more from their  
40 airport experience, and competition from online sales and airline ancillary revenue intensifies  
41 (Moulds and Lohmann, 2016). To remain successful in this area more and more airports are  
42 likely embrace omni-channel shopping opportunities, streamline essential processes to  
43 enhance the passenger experience, and adopt other technological innovations (SITA, 2018).  
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## 46 CONCLUSION

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48 In conclusion, Figure 1 summarises these developments associated with the transformation of  
49 the airport industry from a public utility to a modern enterprise. However it is misleading to  
50 suggest that this has fully occurred everywhere. Admittedly for many airports, particularly in  
51 Europe, this process is complete and it is largely business considerations that will dictate  
52 future directions in airport management. However elsewhere, especially within more  
53 developing economies, this evolution may only be just beginning.  
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**Figure 1: The evolution of airport management**





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