https://www.sworldjournal.com/index.php/swj/article/view/swj37-04-085
DOI: 10.30888/2663-5712.2026-37-04-085

UDC 338.48:330.34

THE IMPACT OF TRANSFORMATIONAL CHANGES IN THE NATIONAL ECONOMY ON THE TOURISM INDUSTRY DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract. *The article explores the impact of global trends and factors of national economic transformation on tourism development; examines the relationship between macroeconomic indicators and shifts in the tourism market, highlighting that industry growth often diverges from general economic crises; and emphasises the use of GDP and GNI – nominal, real, and at PPP – to evaluate investment dependencies and regional recreational potential. A key finding concerns the structural gap between global GDP and GNI, driven by profit repatriation via multinational corporations and digital booking platforms. Historical analysis of data from 1960 to 2024 reveals significant shifts in global financial flows, specifically detailing Ukraine's transition. The study proposes that future tourism forecasting must integrate socio-demographic indicators and perceptions of personal safety, moving towards 'balanced socio-eco-demographic spaces' as new centres of attraction. This approach moves beyond traditional 'tourist magnets' to a more holistic understanding of evolving traveller behaviour in a transforming global economy.*

Key words: *transformation of the tourism industry; GDP; GNI; digital tourism platforms; profit repatriation; national economy of Ukraine; balanced socio-eco-demographic space; tourism forecasting; global crises*

Introduction.

In the context of the consumption of tourism services, the tourism sector serves as an indicator of the national economic system's stability and citizens' confidence in future prosperity – for spending money on leisure and entertainment is, first and foremost, is impossible in the absence of a 'surplus' portion of income remaining after paying for essential goods, food and meeting basic living needs – housing, medical services, care for incapacitated family members, as well as maintaining the working capacity and professional skills of the person who, in fact, earns these funds. An increase in travel expenditure is a positive signal to the government that the population trusts current economic policy and is not afraid of losing their savings in the coming years. International tourist flows contribute to the development of countries at lower levels of prosperity through the reallocation of labour and resources needed to build the necessary infrastructure to accommodate tourists from wealthier countries.

Despite the logical nature of these conclusions, there is no clear direct link between a country's level of development and the level of consumption of tourism services. It is particularly interesting to track global trends in the tourism market in comparison with macroeconomic indicators that are not directly related. A recent UN Tourism publication [1] attempted to correlate fluctuations in the global tourism market with periods of global crisis, but, with the exception of the pandemic, when the populations of most countries were physically restricted from travelling, there were no significant dips in the tourism consumption curve. The growth rate of the number of travellers worldwide may have stalled, but only briefly and almost imperceptibly on a long-term scale. On the contrary, growth was sometimes observed following a negative event with global consequences, or a slowdown followed immediately after the introduction of innovations theoretically conducive to the development of tourism. It is therefore important to identify global transformational factors that will enable the forecasting of the overall dynamics of tourism development both globally and in individual countries.

Main text.

To forecast future tourist flows based on an analysis of a country's economic condition and the global market, it is necessary to identify the cause-and-effect relationships between the growth or decline of individual sectors, clusters or areas of production. Even during periods of global crisis, there were countries that profited whilst others suffered losses. Therefore, it is first necessary to determine the scale and timing of significant shifts in the system of international economic relations – which is fairly straightforward to do by analysing aggregate GDP in real terms – and to compare countries' performance during these periods using national GDP growth rates. Countries that have suffered most from global crises will see a deterioration in most macroeconomic indicators on a scale more significant than the global average, and similarly, countries that have managed to capitalise on global transformations to their advantage will stand out. (It should be noted that the negative consequences of the crisis for the countries in the latter group will also be mitigated to some extent, as global GDP is the arithmetic sum of GDP across countries). Next, it is necessary to compare

tourism performance indicators for these groups of countries during periods of economic stability and upheaval. The assessment of the purchasing power of potential consumers of tourism services is carried out indirectly through welfare indicators, primarily per capita income in various forms. However, given the pronounced class inequality, average figures tend to smooth out the true picture of income and expenditure distribution; it is therefore more appropriate to include the Gini coefficient and data on population changes – due to internal factors and migration – in the analysis. Fluctuations in the resident population can reveal even more about the stability of a country's economy than purchasing power indicators.

For a generalised assessment of a country's economic strength, GDP (gross domestic product) or GNI (gross national income) is used. The fundamental difference between them lies in the use of the country's physical or so-called economic territory; that is, a state that hosts foreign production facilities (or registers them, in the case of digital services) provided that national enterprises are scarcely represented abroad, will have higher GDP figures – in effect, the volume of all manufactured output within its borders will be calculated, whereas countries that have relocated their enterprises abroad will have a higher GNI. In addition to the international investment position, a comparison of GDP and GNI will reveal the degree of economic openness and the likely interdependence of countries. The appropriateness of using one indicator or another depends on which aspect of tourism activity is being analysed. For countries with a network of their own representative offices (meet-companies, travel operator branches, hotel chains, etc.) abroad, it is better to choose GNI, otherwise part of the turnover of national enterprises will not be counted. When assessing the recreational potential of regions, GDP is more useful, as it shows the total volume of income and profit generated collectively by all companies authorised to operate there. Furthermore, the tourism sector is extremely sensitive to fluctuations in prices, exchange rates and purchasing power.

There are several types of GDP/GNI that are most commonly used in international comparisons – nominal (the actual volume of money in circulation), real (adjusted for inflation) and purchasing power parity (adjusted for both the impact of inflation and

the price level within the country). Depending on the purpose of the assessment, one may limit oneself to one of these or need to use all of them (Table 1).

Table 1 – Differences in the most common GDP/GNI calculations

Type	What it measures	Recommendations	Efficiency (E) and risks (R)
Nominal	Current market prices ("view through the till"), total turnover	To assess the actual circulation of money, budget revenue and the cost of services "here and now"	E: reflects the total financial value of all transactions in the economy, captures the market value of output at prices that consumers actually paid today (and also the limit on price increases for tourist services for foreigners, even if it is too high for locals). R: creates the illusion of growth through inflation or currency devaluation, even if the number of tourists served or services provided has not changed
Real	Physical volume of production at constant prices ("shop-floor view")	For analysing the sector's real growth (number of bed-places, excursions, tours) and long-term planning	E: adjusts data for the impact of inflation, showing the sector's real performance; measures the actual quantity of goods, services and societal productivity; allows for the observation of net volume growth without the influence of price changes. R: published with a delay, requiring complex mathematical adjustments (deflation) for accurate calculation
According to PPP (purchasing power parity)	Purchasing power (the World Bank uses the "international dollar")	For international comparison of tourism markets in countries with different price levels (e.g., Thailand and Norway)	E: takes into account that a single unit of currency can buy different volumes of services in different countries; allows for the comparison of real growth rates across countries using a fixed exchange rate from the base year. R: one can fall into a 'currency trap' when making international comparisons, as inflation indices are generally calculated in local currencies, whilst nominal values are in global currencies; without additional adjustments, the results will be distorted by exchange rate fluctuations
Real in ' constant' currency	The size of the economy in the base year's single currency	For comparing the growth rates of several countries simultaneously without the influence of exchange rate fluctuations	E: avoids the "currency trap" by using a fixed exchange rate to convert deflated figures. The best tool for comparing the relative sizes of economies internationally. It accounts for price differences between countries (for example, in India, one dollar buys more services than in the US). R: is based on complex calculations of the "international dollar", which requires the use of specific conversion factors

Compiled by the author based on the World Bank methodology [2]

Macroeconomic data has been published regularly since 1960, providing a sufficient time span for analysis. The first half of the 20th century was marked by two world wars, which, of course, had extremely negative consequences for all the

countries involved and those states that depended on trade with them. Disasters on such a scale have not yet been repeated, although modern local and regional conflicts result in significantly higher per-unit (per military operation or area of territory) human casualties and damage to infrastructure due to the increasing destructive power of weaponry. The post-war years were characterised by a complex period of recovery and the reshaping of the world's political landscape – the emergence of a large number of independent states. Economic crises and military conflicts after 1960 did not simultaneously affect so many countries – with the exception of the pandemic. For the purposes of this study, it will be more interesting to analyse crises of moderate impact, where travel remains possible and the population's purchasing power does not fall to such an extent that people stop travelling en masse.

Calculating GNI becomes necessary when studying economies characterised by deep structural integration with global flows of capital or labour, where GDP and GNI diverge significantly. For example, developing countries with substantial foreign direct investment or significant extraction of natural resources managed by transnational corporations often show a GDP that significantly exceeds their GNI, as a significant portion of the value of production is repatriated as foreign profits rather than remaining within the country. Conversely, in economies that are heavily dependent on remittances from migrants or foreign aid, a temporal or spatial analysis based on GNI provides a far more accurate reflection of national purchasing power and economic well-being than GDP, as these external inflows directly increase household purchasing power without altering domestic production statistics. Furthermore, for countries burdened by heavy external debt servicing obligations, an analysis of constant or current GNI is of crucial importance, as interest payments to foreign creditors deplete domestic resources, leaving less income available for local consumption and investment than might be assumed based solely on the country's GDP.

Nominal global GDP and GNI are always equal to one another, as the sum of income received in different countries, whether by territorial or national criteria, is a constant (within a specific period). The differences between the adjusted values, however, confirm the uneven development of countries (Figure 1).

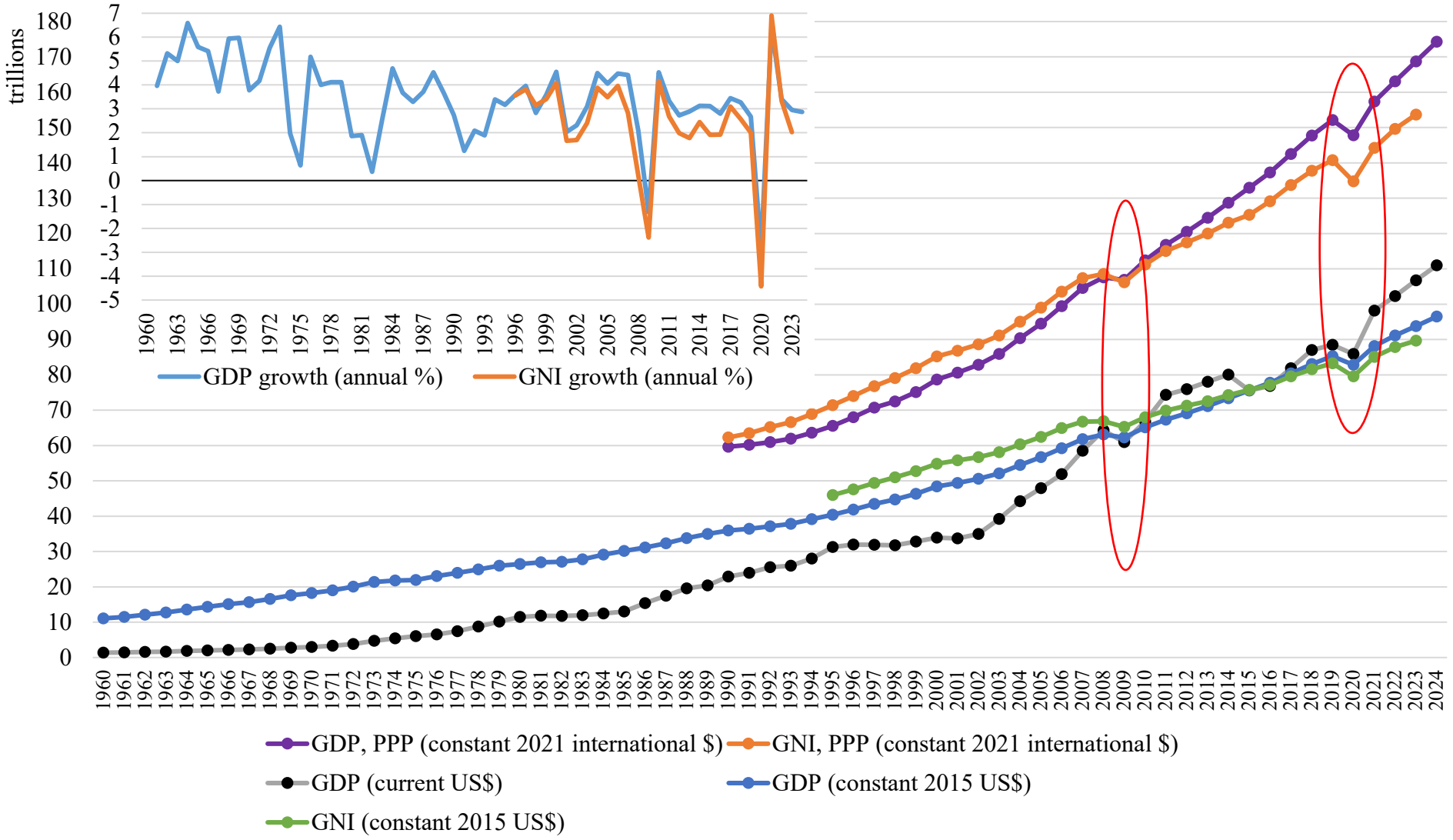

Figure 1 – Trends in global GDP and GNI figures, 1960–2024, and annual changes in adjusted GDP/GNI

(compiled by the author based on World Bank data [3])

If we were to attempt to identify periods of crisis over the last 65 years (between 1960 and 2024; data for 2025 had not yet been published as of April 2026) based solely on global GDP figures, we would be extremely surprised. A decline in global absolute figures was observed only twice – in 2009 (2008 still had a 'safety margin') and 2020. Even whilst the pandemic was still ongoing (in 2021), the global economy needed just one year to reorient itself to the new conditions. In other words, aggregate output was not affected. Since 2021, there has even been a steady increase in absolute values at a faster rate, even when adjusted for individual deflators for inflation and purchasing power. The only turning point can be considered to be 2009, when GDP at PPP began to exceed the corresponding GNI figure.

At the global level, the nature of national accounts dictates that gross domestic product must equal gross national income when measured in nominal terms, as the global market (planet Earth) functions as a closed economy. Every unit of primary income – corporate profits and workers' wages abroad, dividends from foreign investments – paid abroad by one country constitutes income received from abroad by another. Consequently, the global balance of net primary income is theoretically equal to zero. However, when these figures are adjusted for purchasing power parity at constant prices using the World Bank methodology, this identity is violated.

The modern global tourism sector, encompassing both the traditional hotel industry and modern digital platforms, contributes to the discrepancies between global GDP and GNI figures due to price deflators in different countries. Tourism on a global scale primarily involves consumers travelling from high-income, high-price countries to lower-income, lower-price regions to consume local services (digital tourism services are also often developed in poorer countries on a freelance basis to meet demand from wealthy markets, and even without consumers physically crossing borders, the direction of the export-import flow remains unchanged). As a result, the tourism sector acts as a powerful channel for cross-border financial flows. Although the immediate transaction – booking a hotel or purchasing an 'all-inclusive' tour – is recorded as an export of services that directly contributes to the GDP of the host country, subsequent primary income flows are determined by ownership of the capital

and intellectual property underpinning these services. It is precisely the return of these investment income and corporate profits, due to asymmetric domestic price levels, that distorts the nominal global structure of financial flows and creates a structural imbalance when aggregated at constant prices. Indeed, the phenomenon of island economies is well known: for many years they welcomed tourists, yet their trade deficit grew in proportion to the number of foreign tourists. Ultimately, it turned out that the entire tourism infrastructure belonged to foreign companies, and during the development of tourism services (the intermediate consumption stage), they purchased almost no products from local producers.

In traditional tourism models, this phenomenon manifests itself in FDI (foreign direct investments) in physical infrastructure, such as resort chains, airlines and even turnkey local airports with a majority or 100% foreign capital on the balance sheet, as well as cruise lines operating in developing countries (it may be advantageous to have a port of registry in a poor country, but in fact the vessels belong to a foreign owner). For example, an MNE based in a high-price economy in a developed country manages a resort complex in a developing country with low domestic market prices. Physical services such as accommodation, catering and leisure are provided locally, which increases the developing country's real GDP. However, a significant portion of the net operating surplus generated by the resort does not remain as local factors of production; instead, it is transferred to the parent company as primary income in the form of direct investment income and dividends.

When the World Bank applies national deflators to this transaction, a mathematical asymmetry arises. In the national accounts of the poorer country, the withdrawal of nominal profits constitutes an outflow of primary income. As the country has a low domestic price level, its PPP conversion factor is small, which mathematically increases the real purchasing power of this outflow when converted into international dollars. Conversely, when the same nominal amount flows into the home country of the MNE, it is deflated using its own PPP conversion factor, which approaches unity (and if the cost of the international consumer basket in that country exceeds the corresponding cost in the US, it becomes greater than unity). The increased

negative purchasing power recorded in the GNI of the host country significantly outweighs the unchanged positive purchasing power recorded in the GNI of the country of origin. When viewed globally, such traditional tourism activity leads to a reduction in global aggregate GNIppp compared to global GDPppp [2].

The emergence of digital tourism services has significantly accelerated and distorted this effect, shifting the mechanism for generating primary income from physical real estate to digital capital with minimal assets, such as online travel agencies (OTAs) and global accommodation booking platforms, particularly C2C. A tourist can book accommodation at a local hotel in a developing country using a digital intermediary, whose head s are located in a high-value technology hub – in a developed country or offshore. Although the local hotelier retains a portion of the revenue – thereby contributing to domestic production and their own country's GDP – the digital platform charges a substantial commission, often amounting to 15-25%, for creating an account, a dedicated page, search optimisation and payment processing.

When these transnational digital platforms operate through localised corporate subsidiaries, the accumulated net profits from these commissions are periodically transferred to the global headquarters or specialised intellectual property holding centres as primary income. Such withdrawal of funds by digital platforms exacerbates the asymmetry of the terms of trade on a global scale. A single digital intermediary in the tourism sector can simultaneously generate nominal profits from thousands of low-cost destinations. In dozens of developing countries, these capital outflows are significantly amplified by favourable domestic TPS factors, leading to a real reduction in the aggregate GNI of developing countries by billions of dollars. When these profits are finally accumulated in the parent company in a high-price economy, their value is significantly reduced due to the high domestic price level. Furthermore, if digital platforms channel their main revenue inflows through offshore jurisdictions with distorted or unmeasured price indices, the positive side of the balance often disappears into statistical discrepancies, further widening the gap between global GDPppp and GNIppp.

Although the corporate structure of both traditional and digital tourism contributes

significantly to the global deficit – where global GDP exceeds global GNI – the reverse effect – where GNIppp exceeds GDPppp – may manifest through cross-border labour channels in the tourism sector. This occurs in countries that predominantly export labour in the hospitality sector rather than importing capital. For example, citizens of developing countries with lower wages, who work as seasonal staff in the hospitality sector at expensive European ski resorts or as crew members on board international cruise ships, receive wages directly from foreign businesses. In the balance of payments, this is classified as a primary income inflow for their countries of origin. When these workers transfer their wages to accounts in their low-price home countries, these nominal funds are processed through a very favourable domestic PPP multiplier. The reduction in the GNI of the high-price country is minimised by its high PPP coefficient, whilst the increase in the GNI of the developing country is significantly overstated by its low PPP coefficient, contributing to the growth of global GNI by PPP. However, overall, the excessive volume of profit extraction by MNEs outweighs the positive inflows of funds from foreign workers, and global production consistently outpaces aggregate national purchasing power within the international dollar system.

Such discrepancies, as long as they do not reduce countries' real incomes, are interesting theoretical models and are not applied in practice. However, they allow us to track global trends and spot in good time the moment when the gaps between partner states become too wide.

Returning to the upper part of Figure 1, we note the opposite nature of the dynamics, namely the constant fluctuations in the annual growth rates of GDP and GNI, adjusted by two deflators at once. This picture creates the impression of the permanence of global crises, and therefore it is worth paying attention only to the years of excessively sharp declines in growth rates. Thus, for both indicators, the following stand out: 1975 (the oil crisis), 1980–1982 (the start of the war in Afghanistan), 1991 (the collapse of the USSR and the entire Soviet bloc), partly 2001–2002 (the 9/11 attacks, the dot-com bubble burst and geopolitical shifts linked to China's accession to the WTO and the introduction of the euro on 1 January 2002), 2009 (the global financial crisis of 2008) and 2020 (the largest decline over the entire period studied, by

6 points), followed by a sharp rise in 2022 and a decline of 2.5–3 points in 2023–2024. Interestingly, in 1998 (1997 – the Asian, or Hong Kong, financial crisis) the well-being of the 'global population' deteriorated, but not very significantly. In 2012–2013, there was also a decline in GNI growth rates (GDP followed suit, though on a smaller scale), which can be explained in part by mass migration to European countries following the Arab Spring (December 2010–December 2012), characterised by widespread civil unrest in North Africa and the Middle East, and the outbreak of war in Syria in March 2011. The situation improved somewhat in 2014 and 2017, but overall, the period from 2011 to 2019 was not particularly favourable for the 'average global consumer'. Following the post-pandemic recovery of 2021, GDP/GNI growth rates fell again; it was not until 2024 that GDP began to recover gradually (GNI data has not yet been published).

If global aggregate GDP and GNI continue to grow (both in nominal and inflation-adjusted terms) whilst indicators of population well-being (GDP/GNI adjusted for two deflators) decline, this should theoretically mean that a section of the population will either stop using tourism services that have become too expensive or cut back on spending. However, data on global tourist flows contradict this. Such rapid annual growth in the number of people travelling abroad, as observed in 2022–2024 (the growth rate slowed in 2025), has not been seen in any period since 1960. The figures may be slightly inflated due to the way forced migrants from Ukraine are counted, as they may have been classified as ordinary foreign visitors, but a few million will not significantly affect a figure measured in hundreds of millions. This suggests that the desire to travel at present may even outweigh the understanding of the need to save during difficult times, as long as people are not facing truly significant losses of their own income. Accordingly, fluctuations in purchasing power in relation to the tourism sector will be evident in individual countries that have been hardest hit by the economic downturn, but will not be reflected in global trends.

The dynamics of the change in the difference between nominal aggregate GDP and GNI are shown in Figure 2.

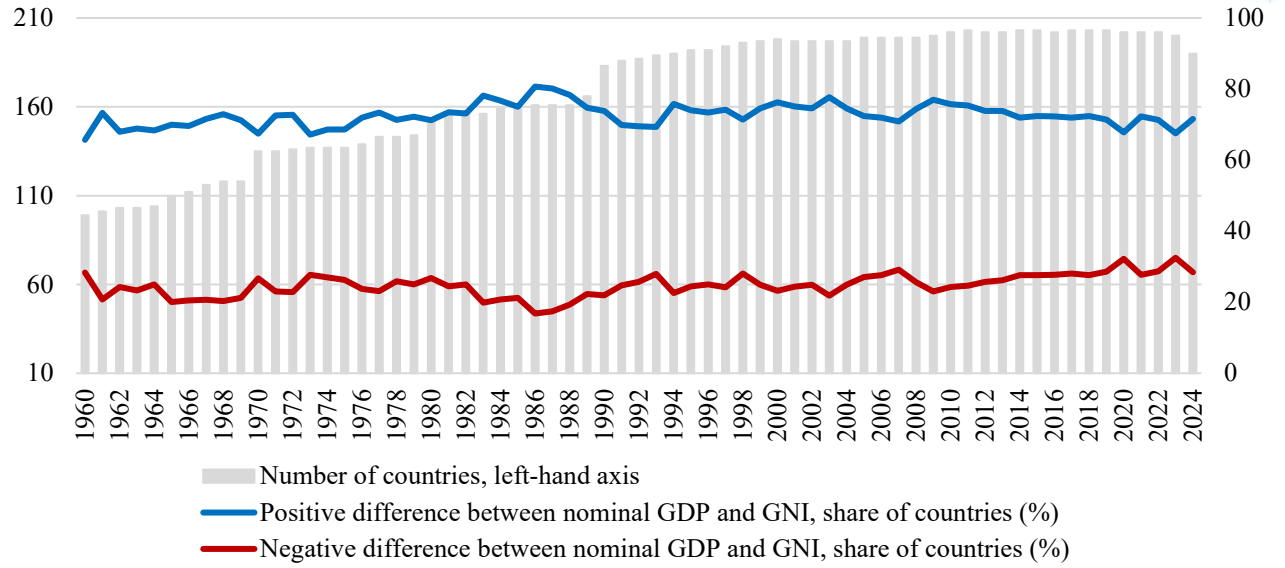

Figure 2 – Distribution of countries by the difference between nominal GDP and GNI

(compiled by the author based on World Bank data [3])

As can be seen from the figure, even with the increase in the number of countries providing macroeconomic data to the World Bank, this trend emerged between 1960 and 2024. In approximately 15–35% of countries, nominal GNI exceeds GDP, whilst GDP is greater than GNI in 65–80% of the countries included in the sample. Throughout the entire period, the dynamics of the shares changed annually, so that no long-term trend could be identified, with the exception of two periods: 1986–1993 and, with lower peak values, 2009–2020, when the absolute global average GNI was rising, while GDP, accordingly, fell. The period 1986–1993 was extremely volatile, as were the early 2010s. Since a higher nominal GNI implies higher income levels due to inflows from abroad, we may assume that during the crisis years, multinational enterprises – or, as they were previously known, transnational corporations – stepped up their activities. In conditions of instability, it is likely that only they had sufficient resources to withstand the challenges of the global economic system, whilst states were forced to cut back on production and the volume of foreign trade operations. The countries with the largest absolute differences are presented in Table 2. All years have been divided into two periods, as 1990–1991 were a turning point for the global economy, permanently altering the world's geographical map. It is therefore

appropriate to compare production in the countries of the former socialist bloc separately for the period after they gained independence and for the preceding period.

Table 2 – Top-20 countries with the largest differences between nominal GDP and GNI

Period	GDP > GNI, positive difference, US$	GDP < GNI, negative difference, US$
1960–1990	Vietnam (13.02 billion), USA (6.62 billion), Canada (5.78 billion), Mexico (3.81 billion), Poland (3.39 billion), Puerto Rico (USA) (2.46 billion), Indonesia (2.19 billion), Spain (1.83 billion), Slovenia (1.78 billion), South Africa (1.72 billion), the Netherlands (1.68 billion), Argentina (1.62 billion), Australia (1.55 billion), Sweden (1.49 billion), Bosnia and Herzegovina (1.34 billion), Japan (1.19 billion), Denmark (1.01 billion), Brazil (939.77 million), Norway (907.50 million), Algeria (815.75 million)	United Kingdom (–22.38 billion), Turkiye (–9.75 billion), Ukraine (–7.93 billion), Bangladesh (–5.41 billion), Germany (–3.03 billion), Saudi Arabia (–2.71 billion), Kuwait (–2.48 billion), Switzerland (–2.27 billion), Uzbekistan (–2.22 billion), France (–1.77 billion), Egypt (–1.70 billion), Brunei Darussalam (–1.67 billion), Bolivia (–1.64 billion), Haiti (–985.96 million), Iraq (–944.09 million), Cameroon (–771.05 million), UAE (–709.81 million), Bahrain (–661.38 million), Senegal (–533.45 million), Greece (–518.69 million)
1991–2024	Ireland (48.93 billion), China (34.97 billion), Brazil (33.61 billion), Australia (29.64 billion), Russia (28.46 billion), Puerto Rico (USA) (27.22 billion), Canada (23.73 billion), Mexico (21.36 billion), Singapore (19.00 billion), Indonesia (18.77 billion), India (16.31 billion), Poland (12.66 billion), Luxembourg (11.97 billion), the United Kingdom (10.87 billion), Thailand (10.80 billion), Argentina (10.26 billion), the Netherlands (9.58 billion), Spain (9.20 billion), Chile (9.07 billion), the Czech Republic (8.31 billion)	USA (–183.52 billion), Nigeria (–154.28 billion), Japan (–130.05 billion), Germany (–53.82 billion), France (–44.52 billion), the Philippines (–19.09 billion), Kuwait (–11.65 billion), Hong Kong (SAR, China) (–8.17 billion), Saudi Arabia (–7.76 billion), Bangladesh (–7.58 billion), Croatia (–7.48 billion), Sweden (–6.65 billion), Belgium (–6.48 billion), Norway (–4.38 billion), South Korea (–4.09 bn), Denmark (–3.70bn), UAE (–2.59bn), Bermuda (–2.12bn), Switzerland (–1.59bn), West Bank and Gaza (–1.24bn)

(compiled by the author based on World Bank data [3])

A comparison of the two periods reveals striking changes in the scale and direction of global financial flows, as evidenced by examples from certain countries. Whilst in the first period (1960–1990) US GDP exceeded GNI by $6.62 billion, in the second period (1991–2024) the situation changed radically, and the country saw a colossal surplus of national income over domestic production amounting to $183.52 billion. The United Kingdom showed the opposite trend – whilst until 1991 the average

annual GNI exceeded GDP by $22.38 billion, in the second period, conversely, GDP was $11.97 billion higher than GNI. For the UK, this is explained by the growing independence of the former colonies, and for the US – by massive investment abroad.

Ukraine's position among the world leaders in the group of countries with a negative difference between GDP and GNI during the period 1960–1990 is due to the specific nature of the Soviet economic model and the peculiarities of the retrospective calculation of macroeconomic indicators by international financial organisations. The ratio, under which GNI significantly exceeded GDP during the period when the national economy was largely confined within the USSR, meant that the republic's inhabitants received significantly more primary income from other republics than was generated directly within its geographical borders [4].

The operation of the health resort complex and sports tourism infrastructure in the Ukrainian SSR during the period 1960–1990 was a significant institutional factor that determined the specific nature of inter-republic financial flows and was reflected in retrospective macroeconomic calculations. The recorded excess of gross national income over the republic's gross domestic product was largely ensured through mechanisms of vertical redistribution of social consumption funds within the Soviet command-administrative system [5].

The health resort sector of Ukraine, which encompassed the strategic recreational areas of Crimea, the Azov region, Truskavets, Morshyn and the Carpathians, had the official status of a health resort of all-Union significance, which determined the specific nature of its funding. Capital construction, ongoing infrastructure modernisation and staff wage funds for medical and preventive care institutions were provided predominantly directly from the Union budget via the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions and closed sectoral ministries. Since a significant proportion of services was provided to Soviet citizens through a system of subsidised trade union vouchers, the costs of which were covered by centralised funds, there was a de facto inflow of primary income from external sources [6-7].

Similar mechanisms of financial support were also observed in the sports tourism sector, which possessed significant material and technical potential and enjoyed state

support. Thanks to the diversity of its landscape and climatic conditions, the Ukrainian SSR was chosen as a strategic base for training the USSR national teams and for the development of mountaineering, rock climbing and winter sports. Thus, the institutional model of the Soviet tourism and recreation sector served as an effective instrument for the inter-republican redistribution of national income, which directly led to specific macroeconomic imbalances in Ukraine during the historical period under study [6, 8].

However, the ratio of GDP to GNI changed dramatically from –9.95% in the first period to +1.31% in the second. The deep negative value during the Soviet era was due to the model of centralised redistribution of resources within the USSR, under which Ukraine received significant subsidies – as mentioned above. The tourism, recreation, and health resort complexes of the Ukrainian SSR attracted Soviet capital, artificially raising national income above production levels. With the transition to a market model and the attainment of independence, these mechanisms ceased to operate, and the country moved to a structure where domestic production now slightly exceeds the income that actually remains at the disposal of its citizens.

The way in which countries reacted to existing global fluctuations in aggregate output, and whether there was any asynchrony, demonstrates the overall dependence of the national economy on global processes.

For aggregate global nominal GDP over the period 1960–2024, 17 main periods have been identified, serving as a benchmark for comparing national economies. Similarly, for individual countries, the number of periods identified directly reflects the degree of economic volatility or stability: the more periods, the more frequently the country faced structural breaks. The highest number of average periods in terms of nominal GDP (high fragmentation) was observed in countries such as Ireland and Togo, where 24 periods were recorded, as well as Egypt, Israel and Madagascar with 23 periods. Such frequent phase changes indicate these countries' high sensitivity to internal and external shocks, forcing domestic producers to constantly adapt to changing market conditions.

The minimum number of periods is characteristic of countries with exceptionally

long phases of development, indicating their high economic stability. The fewest periods were recorded in the UAE and Brunei Darussalam – just 4 periods each over more than 60 years of observation. Large economies also demonstrate low fragmentation: the US has only 7 periods (including a 26-year stability phase), Saudi Arabia has 8 periods, and Oman has 10. The small number of phases in these countries is often explained by the ability of their systems to absorb shocks without exceeding the threshold of acceptable volatility.

Within the USSR (1960–1990), Ukraine ranked among the top three countries globally in terms of the negative gap between GDP and GNI (–$7.93 billion). This situation was artificial and disappeared with the transition to a market economy, which finally desynchronised Ukraine's post-Soviet trajectory from its previous historical phase.

Between 1988 and 2024, 10 main periods of development were identified in Ukraine, whilst the global economy followed a more fragmented path during the same period, with more frequent but less profound changes. The final years of the Ukrainian SSR and the early period of independence (1988-1996) were characterised by a prolonged transformational downturn with an average GDP growth rate of –7.11%, which stood in stark contrast to the moderate global growth of the time. This period ended with a brief recovery in 1996-1997 (+12.55%), after which the country plunged back into recession in 1997-2000 against the backdrop of regional financial crises. The most intense phase of growth in Ukraine occurred between 2000 and 2008, when average annual GDP growth rates reached +24.79%, more than double the global figure (+10.69%) for the corresponding period of 2002-2008. However, this extraordinary growth made the domestic economy vulnerable to external shocks, leading to a catastrophic decline during the global financial crisis: in 2008-2009, Ukraine's GDP contracted by –35.38%, whilst the global figure fell by only –5.18%. Unlike the rest of the world, which after 2009 entered prolonged phases of moderate growth or stagnation, Ukraine experienced two further severe internal shocks directly linked to military aggression: in 2013–2015 (a decline of –30.87%) and in 2021-2022 (–18.91%) (Figure 3).

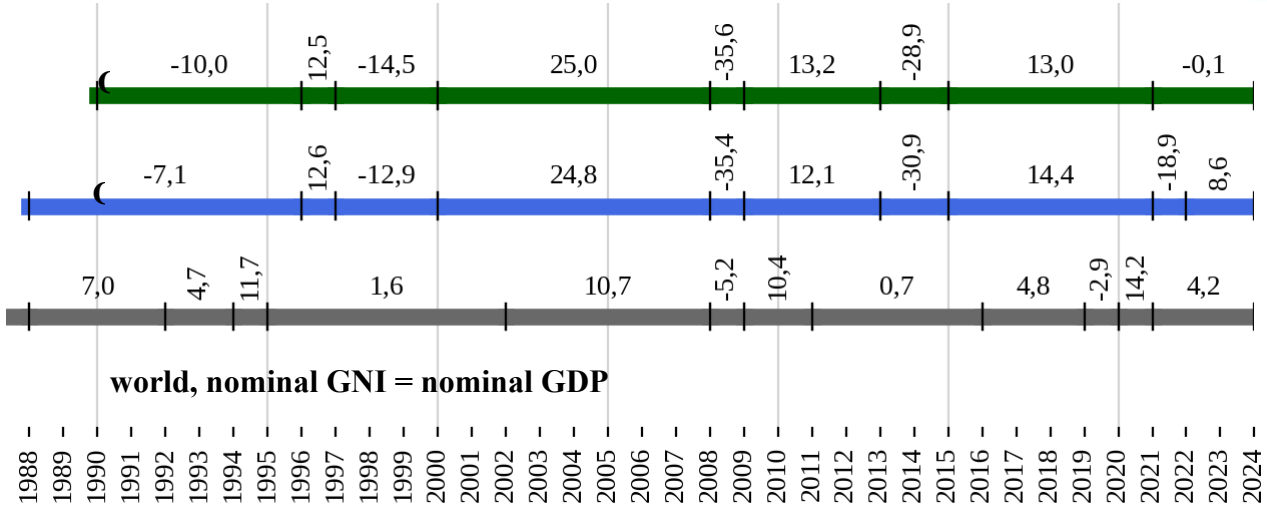

Figure 3 – Periods of change in short economic cycles, annual growth rates, % (period averages, nominal GDP and GNI)

(compiled by the author based on World Bank data [3])

An analysis of synchronisation shows that Ukraine moved in the same direction as the rest of the world only during periods of major global upheavals, such as the 2008 crisis; however, the scale of the Ukrainian system's reaction was always significantly greater. Interestingly, the pandemic-induced downturn of 2020, which was decisive for the world, did not stand out as a separate phase in the Ukrainian periodisation, as it was absorbed by the general recovery trend of 2015-2021 (+14.38%). This indicates that domestic factors and the consequences of the war had a much stronger impact on the homogeneity of periods for the country than global economic cycles.

In Ukraine, for the period from 1990 to 2024, nine main phases were identified based on GNI (compared to ten based on GDP), demonstrating a sharp shift in the trajectory of prosperity. The initial phase (1990-1996) was characterised by a prolonged decline at an average rate of –9.96%, followed by a brief recovery in 1996-1997 (+12.55%) and a renewed recession in 1997-2000. The most successful period was 2000-2008, with an average GNI growth rate of +24.99%, but the global financial crisis caused a collapse in 2008-2009 to –35.64%. The Russian Federation's military aggression also led to severe slumps in 2013-2015 (–28.92%), after which the sustained recovery phase up to 2021 gave way to stagnation at –0.13% during the period 2021-2024.

Thus, the global economic system is characterised by the sporadic emergence of factors driving transformational change. These are primarily geopolitical factors, such as shifts in global centres of influence, which are particularly evident when comparing macroeconomic indicators for the periods 1960-1990 and 1991-2024, but individual sectors that begin to significantly outpace others in terms of resources mobilised and income redistribution can also act as drivers of transformation. Interestingly, the global market, as a single aggregate of production, is highly resilient to crises, the effects of which are usually 'absorbed' through the flow of capital from one national economy to another; whilst individual countries may suffer negative impacts, aggregate global income may even increase. This behaviour is characteristic of both nominal and real gross income indicators, which suggests that inflation is an insignificant factor for global earnings. On the contrary, rising prices for goods and services in demand increase total income, although individual countries may lose out as a result – if one takes into account the fall in real demand from local consumers.

Income indicators adjusted for two deflators at once – the consumer basket and inflation – provide a more objective assessment of income. As they incorporate a social component, they are prone to frequent significant fluctuations and more clearly indicate periods of crisis, even if the crisis is regional rather than a comprehensive global one.

The current state of global tourism is characterised by a definitive transition from the post-pandemic recovery phase to a stage of sustained and record growth, as evidenced by the projected figure of 1.52 billion international arrivals in 2025. This 4% growth compared to the previous year indicates a return to long-term pre-crisis trends, when the average annual growth rate of tourist flows was around 5% [9]. It is important to note that the sector is demonstrating significantly higher growth dynamics compared to global economic growth rates: the tourism sector is expected to grow by 3.2% in 2026, whilst global GDP will increase by only 2.4% [10]. In the long term, the tourism industry is expected to grow 1.5 times faster than the global economy over the next decade, creating around a third of all new jobs worldwide [9].

The matrix in Figure 4 shows various scenarios of how other sectors influence the overall state of the national economy and the tourism sector (when considering their

'harmfulness' or 'benefit' separately for the development of the sector or the country).

Impact on tourism				
	positive impact	inverse correlation	disproportionate dependence	direct correlation
	neutral impact	disproportionate dependence	no relationship	disproportionate dependence
	negative influence	direct correlation	non-linear relationship	inverse correlation
		negative influence	*neutral effect*	*positive impact*

Impact on the state of the national economy (GDP)

Figure 4 – Matrix of the tourism sector's status depending on the development other sectors of the national economy

(compiled by the author)

Thus, processes in a particular sector may have a negative impact on the national economy, but a positive one on tourism (as in the example of industrial sites, where unprofitable production facilities become centres of scientific and historical tourism), and the indicators of this impact will exhibit an inverse correlation to a greater or lesser extent. In total, there are 9 possible scenarios (based on the number of cells in the matrix) and 4 types of dependencies. In each country, the set of indicators will vary, given the specific features of the local economic structure and resource potential. A direct correlation here will not always correspond to the parameters of linear regression; rather, it is necessary to verify the existence of consistent cause-and-effect relationships and understand when the true state of affairs is reflected by a satellite sector rather than a traditional one. It is also worth adopting a process-based approach, where the mutual influence of processes that ultimately lead to final states is examined.

The tourism sector is in itself a comprehensive concept, as different types of tourism services require different resources – hence the constant problems in classifying them. The very same business environment factors will have opposite effects on types of tourism that are polar opposites in nature. On the one hand, there is a group of 'territorially dependent' types of tourism (which cannot exist without a minimum quality of natural or man-made environments – ecological, rural, green, historical and cultural, health-based on natural therapeutic components, ski, beach and similar), on the other – a group of 'infrastructure-based' types, where a recreational

space for visitors can be created practically from scratch in any environment (medical, scientific, entertainment tourism, MICE).

In the traditional approach to tourism planning, this was the main attraction, the focal point around which all other elements were organised. For this very reason, the UNESCO World Heritage List [11] was popular and widely promoted, and leading tour operators sought to include a visit to at least one site from this list in their own offerings. Some countries have managed to build entire recreational ecosystems around such tourist magnets. Countries that lack such attractive sites on their territory, or have too few of them, find themselves at a disadvantage. Yet it is precisely the scarcity of the best resources that has spurred the tourism authorities of these countries to devise new ways of spending leisure time and to create unique attractions (or to market mediocre ones very persuasively).

With the transformations in the socio-cultural landscape in recent years, the general approach to leisure has also changed. Tourism is increasingly ceasing to be an exclusive, festive occasion requiring careful planning a year or six months in advance, gradually shifting into the category of ordinary everyday activities, particularly among the self-employed and "digital nomads", who can afford to travel at any time of year, or among employees who travel extensively as part of their main job. Despite the openness and safety of a still quite substantial part of the globe, there is growing interest in peaceful, "thoughtful" tourism and the exploration of local history and culture. Many are beginning to view travel within their own country as a much safer alternative to trips abroad, where disruptive or anxiety-inducing factors can suddenly arise anywhere. Under such conditions, the centres of attraction will be the hubs of what is known as a balanced socio-eco-demographic space, where there are no clearly defined mandatory routes, and the list of interesting sites and ‘experiences’ is virtually endless – although none of them may even fall into the category of medium significance. Thus, the "input" indicators incorporated into forecasting models will, in most cases, include additional components, with a shift towards socio-demographic trends and personal assessments of personal safety, which must be taken into account now when modelling global tourist flows.

Conclusion.

Thus, forecasting future centres of tourist attraction will be based on identifying complex cause-and-effect relationships between the development of individual sectors and overall economic stability. International comparisons to identify promising markets should be conducted on the basis of GDP at purchasing power parity, which allows for an objective comparison of countries with different price levels. Future models will also have to take into account personal assessments of personal safety and the growing demand for "thoughtful" tourism within balanced socio-eco-demographic spaces. Consequently, the most effective approaches will be comprehensive methodologies that combine traditional macroeconomic indicators with an in-depth analysis of socio-cultural transformations and consumers' personal preferences.

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(ICV: 73)
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SWorld Journal

Issue №37
Part 4
May 2026

Published by:
SWorld & D.A. Tsenov Academy of Economics, Svishtov,Bulgaria

ISSN 2663-5712
DOI: 10.30888/2663-5712

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DOI: 10.30888/2663-5712.2026-37-04

Published by:
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Issue №37
Part 4
May 2026

Indexed in
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Articles published in the author's edition

Academy of Economics named after D.A. Tsenov
Bulgaria jointly with SWorld

Signed: May 30, 2026

e-mail: editor@sworldjournal.com
site: www.sworldjournal.com

www.sworldjournal.com

ISSN 2663-5712