TOURISM THEORY

CONCEPTS, MODELS AND SYSTEMS

Gui Lohmann and Alexandre Panosso Netto

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Grant 2013/06143-8, São Paulo Research Foundation (FAPESP)

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Originally published in Portuguese under the title *Teoria do Turismo* by Guilherme Lohmann and Alexandre Panosso Netto.

A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library, London, UK.

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Names: Lohmann, Gui, author. | Panosso Netto, Alexandre, 1973- author.
Title: Tourism theory : concepts, models and systems / Gui Lohmann, Griffith University, Australia, Alexandre Panosso Netto, University of São Paulo, Brazil.
Other titles: Teoria do turismo. English
Description: Wallingford, Oxfordshire, UK : CAB International, [2016] | Translation of: Teoria do turismo. | Includes bibliographical references and index.
Identifiers: LCCN 2016029183 (print) | LCCN 2016045155 (ebook) | ISBN 9781780647159 (hardback : alk. paper) | ISBN 9781780647166 (pdf) | ISBN 9781780647173 (ePub)
Subjects: LCSH: Tourism.
Classification: LCC G155.A1 L58313 2016 (print) | LCC G155.A1 (ebook) | DDC 910/.01--dc23
LC record available at https://lccn.loc.gov/2016029183

ISBN-13: 978 1 78064 715 9

Commissioning editor: Claire Parfitt
Associate editor: Alexandra Lainsbury
Production editor: Shankari Wilford

Typeset by SPi, Pondicherry, India
Printed and bound in the UK by CPI Group (UK) Ltd, Croydon, CR0 4YY, UK

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Introduction

Research on the tourism phenomenon, particularly in comparison with other areas of knowledge such as sociology, economics and history, is relatively recent. The first studies on tourism date from the turn of the 19th century; they were developed primarily in Europe and were published largely in German (see Chapter 1.6, Tourism and Travel). In the first half of the 20th century, this knowledge began to take shape gradually until its growth was interrupted by the outbreak of World War II. As the areas devastated by the war began to rebuild in the 1950s, tourism studies re-emerged, albeit timidly, this time with greater force in the English-speaking scientific community. Various authors have already written on the subject, including Dann and Parrinello (2009), Spode (2009), Tribe (2010), Dann (2011) and Nash *et al.* (2012). Since that time, research in the field of tourism has strengthened with the use of methodologies from other fields and sciences, and has gained importance because tourism practices are also experiencing both diversification and a significant increase.

The impression that scientific studies in tourism are recent is one of the reasons that many scholars and researchers from other areas argue that the studies produced in this field are superficial, unscientific and expendable. These critics are partly right: again and again, we have come across tourism books, theses and articles that are merely descriptive, adding little to the scientific field. Many tourism scholars are carried away by these criticisms, believing that there is no sufficient theoretical basis to underpin the study of this area. That is not true, as can be seen in numerous, excellent theoretical works, despite the fact that these works are often scattered and fragmented and are infrequently consulted and/or referenced.

It is in this academic–theoretical–scientific context that we justify creating a work that brings together some of the main concepts, models and systems of tourism, seeking to present them in a didactic manner. The objective was to retrieve, explain and illustrate some essential aspects of theoretical approaches to tourism. This work intends to provide an intermediate structure between that of an encyclopaedia (with hundreds of entries) and that of a traditional book (with one or two dozen chapters). We thus hope to address a large number of theoretical systems and models of tourism while treating them in a more detailed manner than an encyclopaedic entry. The present edition is organized into 59 entries, which are divided into the following five sections:

1. *Fundamental Concepts*: This section presents concepts that are directly related to tourism, including hospitality, leisure, events and entertainment.
2. *Disciplines and Areas of Study*: This section discusses the relationship between tourism and some of the disciplines that provide the most knowledge to the field, such as philosophy and ethics, anthropology, sociology and culture. Furthermore, it presents fundamental areas of study, including marketing, sustainability, the tourism cluster and the tourism satellite account.
3. *The Tourist*: This section addresses aspects of tourists themselves, such as tourism experience, demand and various approaches that classify types of tourists and their behaviours, such as those proposed by John Urry and Stanley Plog.
4. *Intermediation, Distribution and Travel*: This section involves the elements that connect the origin to the tourism destination, including the distribution channels of tourism products, tourist travel and the travel patterns adopted.
5. *The Tourism Destination*: This final section presents the tourism destination, focusing on aspects of tourism development, supply and infrastructure, along with other phenomena such as image, tourism bodies and seasonality.

In each section, the entries are ordered either from general to specific or according to their chronological evolution. The book can be read in any order because each entry was constructed to be an individual reading unit. However, there are many references and links between entries within a single section. It is thus hoped that many readers will take the opportunity to broaden and deepen their knowledge of a particular topic by reading the pages preceding or following the entry consulted.

The structure of each entry includes a theoretical and practical presentation of the subject matter, along with some additional sections at the end such as ‘Operationalizing’, ‘Exercises’, ‘References’ and ‘Further Reading’. To facilitate consultation, there are indices of authors, places and subjects.

We know that other entries could have been included, but we believe that if we had continued to write, we would never have stopped, because we would always have found one more term, one more book, one more author to explain and present. To that end, we used three selection criteria to rank the fundamental terms: (i) our teaching and research experience; (ii) conversations with numerous fellow professors; and (iii) analysis of the international literature on tourism, primarily in English, Spanish and Portuguese.

We are sorry not to have used more authors: we know of other extremely important works, both in the languages consulted and, for example, in German, French, Hungarian, Italian and Polish, that were not used because of linguistic, financial, logistical and time limitations.

The first edition of this book was published in Brazil in March 2008 by Editora Aleph. Its positive reception led to the first reprint in March 2010. In 2012, the second edition was published in Portuguese. That year, the Spanish version of this edition was published in Mexico by Editora Trillas. This updated edition is now being published in English; the Portuguese version is being prepared.

To deepen the content of the work, we decided to invite some of our fellow tourism scholars to write entries with us for this edition. These colleagues, all of whom are Brazilian, are experts on the topics that they co-wrote. We are grateful to all of them: Ana Paula Garcia Spolon, Bianca Freire-Medeiros, Cristina Bittar Rodrigues, Cynthia Menezes Mello, Edmur Antonio Stoppa, Glauber Eduardo de Oliveira Santos, Luiz Gonzaga Godoi Trigo, Maria Henriqueta Sperandio Garcia Gimenes-Minasse, Rafael Chequer Bauer, Sandro Campos Neves, Sérgio Rodrigues Leal, Sidnei Raimundo, Thiago Allis, Tiago Savi Mondo and Yoná da Silva Dalonso.

Numerous readers who have used the Portuguese and Spanish editions also sent suggestions and comments. We would like to express our gratitude to these colleagues. We would also like to thank Claire Parfitt and her collaborators at CAB International for their interest in the translation of this work and their patience during the two years that this edition was being updated.

Some other colleagues and friends were particularly important for inspiring and supporting our careers and, indirectly, this publication, even though they did not contribute directly to it. Gui Lohmann would like to mention Brent D. Moyle, David T. Duval, Dianne Dredge, Doug Pearce, Jakob Trischler, Larry Dwyer, Matt Burke, Noel Scott, Pauline Sheldon, Pierre Benckendorff, Rob Sang and Susanne Becken. Alexandre Panosso Netto thanks Betty Fromer Piazzi, Félix Tomillo Noguero (in memoriam), Jafar Jafari, Juan Carlos Picón Cruz, Manuel Figuerola Palomo, Marcelino Castillo Nechar, Mario Carlos Beni, Sérgio Molina and Ricardo Ricci Uvinha.

We would like to note that the English translation of the Portuguese original received financial support from the São Paulo Research Foundation (Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de São Paulo (FAPESP)) in Brazil (grant 2013/06143-8 – Research Support – Book Publication Abroad). The opinions, assumptions and conclusions or recommendations expressed in this material are the responsibility of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of FAPESP.

Happy studying and reading!

Gui Lohmann and Alexandre Panosso Netto
Brisbane, Australia, and São Paulo, Brazil, September 2016

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Section 1: Fundamental Concepts

1.1 General Systems Theory and Tourism

It would be impossible to identify a single author as the creator of general systems theory, but there is consensus in academic circles that one of the leaders in this theoretical field was the biologist Ludwig von Bertalanffy (1901–1972). The authors who developed and spread general systems theory, each in their own specific area, include the following: Norbert Wiener, Gregory Bateson, Heinz von Foerster, Niklas Luhmann, Humberto Maturana, Francisco Varela, Talcott Parsons, Béla H. Bánáthy, Howard T. Odum, Eugene Odum, Edgar Morin and Fritjof Capra.

For Bertalanffy (1967, p. 69), 'a "system" can be defined as a complex of elements standing in interaction. There are general principles holding for systems, irrespective of the nature of the component elements and of the relations or forces between them'. Beni (2001, p. 23) defined a system 'as a collection of parts that interact to achieve a given end, according to a plan or principle or a set of procedures, doctrines, ideas or principles, logically ordered and sufficiently coherent to describe, explain or direct the functioning of a whole'.

This theory's key word is 'system', which can be considered as 'any organised totality or whole' (Abbagnano, 1999, p. 909). Many authors have noted that, although systems theory is holistic, holism and systemism are different topics. Holism was created as a philosophical idea by Jan Christiaan Smuts in his 1926 book *Holism and Evolution*. According to Leslie (2000), the holistic view is also important in tourism because the holistic approach includes all of tourism's key characteristics, such as the movement of people, **transport**, accommodation and activities at the destination; the holistic approach involves all of the elements of tourism, regardless of whether tourism is considered a business sector or an academic field of research.

According to Leiper (1995, p. 22), Bertalanffy realized that he had to go beyond biology and integrate knowledge from other sciences to understand more about living things. Understanding that physics had different laws from those applied in biology and society, Bertalanffy postulated a theory with categories of thought that could be applied in different sciences. Based on classical thermodynamics, which works with systems in equilibrium, he postulated the creation of a thermodynamics approach that would address open systems, which are not in equilibrium.

Leiper (2000) distinguished between systems thinking and systems theory. The former is a way of seeing things (the concrete system) or ideas (the abstract system) and had already been used by Aristotle, Ptolemy, Copernicus, Galileo, Ibn Khaldun and Vico. In contrast, systems theory is much younger; it was created in the 1930s and continues to develop.

Bertalanffy's ideas have been published in various articles and books. One that has circulated in the USA is *General System Theory as Integrating Factor in Contemporary Science and in Philosophy* (Bertalanffy, 1968b); however, his most famous book is *General System Theory*, which was published in the USA in 1968. This book presents a theory for open systems of any nature; his general systems theory is intended to be interdisciplinary. Bertanlanffy asserts that every living organism is essentially an open system because it maintains a continuous inflow and outflow (Bertalanffy, 1968a).

Bertalanffy's basic ideas can be used for different types of systems, such as the human body, a country's economy, a municipality's political organization and tourism in any region. General systems theory allows each of these systems either to be analysed as a whole – the united system – or to be divided into parts to facilitate their understanding and study.

To be complete, a system should have an environment (the system's location), units (the system's parts), relationships (the relationships among the system's units), attributes (the quality of the units and the system itself), input (what enters the system), output (what leaves the system), feedback (control of the system to keep it working properly) and a model (a system design to facilitate its understanding).

For Leiper (1995), the primary benefit of general systems theory is that it clarifies something that would otherwise be complex. There are advantages and disadvantages to studying tourism according to this theory, as shown in Table 1.

Phillips (1969), a harsh critic of systems theory, argued that systems theory has been discredited, and he noted five of its main flaws:

1. The failure of systems theorists to appreciate the history of their theory.
2. The failure to specify precisely what is meant by a 'system'.
3. The vagueness about what it means to be included in systems theory.
4. The weakness of the charges brought against the analytic or mechanistic method.
5. The failure of general systems theory as a scientific theory.

According to the literature, one of the first analyses of tourism using Bertalanffy's general systems theory was made by Raymundo Cuervo (1967). In the book *El Turismo como Medio de Comunicación Humana*, edited by the Mexican government's Department of Tourism to commemorate the International Year of Tourism (1967), Cuervo published the chapter 'El turismo como medio de comunicación', in which he describes tourism as a 'well-defined set of relationships, services and facilities that are generated due to certain human movements' (Cuervo, 1967, p. 29).

Table 1. Advantages and disadvantages of a general systems theory.

Advantages	Disadvantages
By creating a model (conceptual design), one has an overview of tourism's 'whole'	Although separating the tourist system from other systems facilitates study, it also leads to a fragmented view of the study object
It is possible to segment the system into parts and study them separately	When separating tourism into a system, it is important to remember that tourism is part of a larger system, such as the social system
It is possible to separate the tourist system from other systems, thus facilitating its study	
It enables an interdisciplinary study of tourism	

For Cuervo (1967), tourism is a large set composed of the following subsets:

C1. Transport by air, car, rail, sea, river, etc.
C2. **Lodging establishments**, hotels, inns and hostels.
C3. **Travel agencies**.
C4. Tour guides.
C5. Restaurants, cafes and other establishments from which a fluctuating population obtains **food and beverage** services.
C6. Commercial establishments dedicated to selling souvenirs, travel items and other goods usually consumed by travellers.
C7. Manufacturers of souvenirs and other goods usually consumed by travellers.
C8. Artisans dedicated to producing typical handicraft objects.
C9. **Entertainment** centres whose clientele is largely part of the fluctuating population.

Each of these subsets can be divided into other subsets, as in the example below (Cuervo, 1967):

C1 = (A1, A2, A3, … An)

where:
C1 = transport
A1 = domestic air transport
A2 = international air transport
A3 = domestic bus transport
An = other types of transport

Cuervo's analysis (1967) is also based on the assumption that tourism is a set whose function is communication. To reaffirm his position, he argues that, although tourism is a communication system capable of transmitting positive and useful information to promote world peace, it can also be negative and can affect the harmony of human relationships. Seen from this perspective, the tourism system should always either function or remain as an operator of positive communication (Cuervo, 1967).

Neil Leiper, author of the most well-known tourism system on an international level, proposed a model composed of five elements, including three geographical elements: (i) the traveller-generating region (the origin or environment where the travellers usually live); (ii) a transit region that connects the origin to the destinations; and (iii) the **tourism destination** region. The other two elements are:

(iv) the tourist; and (v) the **tourism and travel** industry (tourist information centres, lodging establishments, etc.). According to Leiper (1990), the interaction of these five elements is influenced by external environmental factors and, in turn, the system impacts various environments (e.g. the human, socio-cultural, economic, technological, physical, political and legal environments), influencing how travellers pass through the transit region (see Fig. 1).

The schema provided in Fig. 1 also shows where the various suppliers that comprise the tourism system are located. The tourism-generating region, for example, contains the travel agencies that send the tourists, along with the marketing and promotion companies that want to influence touristic **demand**. The transport and distribution and communication channels operate between the generating regions and the destination regions. Finally, the destination region contains the lodging sector and tourist attractions. Through the schema, it is clear that the **tourist experience** begins in the generating region, passes through the transit region and arrives at the destination region.

In Leiper's system, each element both interacts with and is impacted by the system that contributes to the existence of the touristic product (Fig. 1). According to Lohmann (2004, p. 12), 'the main advantages presented by Leiper's model are its simplicity and general applicability, providing a useful way to "visualise"' the tourist system. Its benefits also include the following (Cooper, 1998):

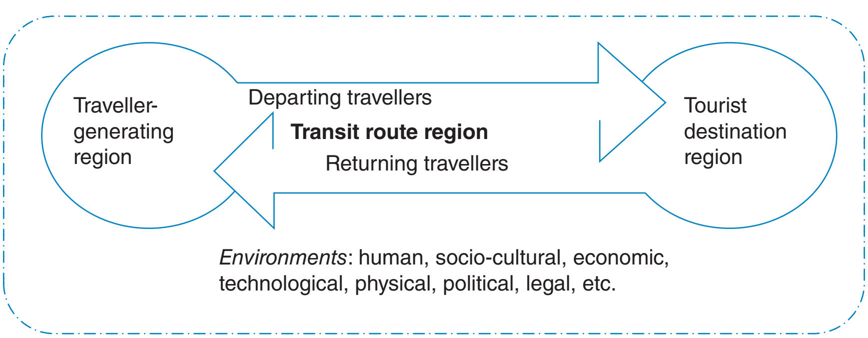
- The ability to incorporate an interdisciplinary perspective because it is not based exclusively on a particular discipline (or environment), while simultaneously providing a structure that identifies the individual participation of each environment.
- The possibility of using the model at any scale or level of generalization, from a local analysis to the sector as a whole in the global sphere.
- The model's flexibility, which enables not only the incorporation of different forms of tourism but also the consideration of tourism's five basic elements, which are described above.

This model also demonstrates an important principle of the study of tourism: the inter-relationship among its different elements.

Sérgio Molina (1997) also proposed a systemic approach to tourism and has become well known in Latin America for his model. For Molina (1997), tourism, seen as a system, is composed of a set of parts or subsystems that interact to achieve a common goal. The parts or subsystems that comprise the tourist system are, in Molina's view (1997, p. 13), the following:

- *Superstructure*: public and private sector organizations; laws, regulations, plans, and programmes.
- *Demand*: tourists living in the country and abroad.
- *Infrastructure*: airports, roads, water supply networks, sewage, telephones, etc.
- *Attractions*: natural and cultural.
- *Equipment and facilities*: hotels, motels, campgrounds, trailer parks, restaurants, cafes, travel agencies, pools and tennis courts, among others.
- *The hosting community*: local residents directly and indirectly linked to tourism.

Molina's tourist system is represented in Fig. 2.



Location of travellers/tourists and the travel and tourism industry

Fig. 1. Leiper's tourism system model. (From Leiper, 1990.)

Although it became widely known throughout Latin America in the 1990s, Molina's system (1991) has been shown to be too simple because it does not explain either the foundations of systems theory or its negative aspects. Moreover, the system's internal organization and the relationships among its elements are unclear.

The Brazilian professor Mario Carlos Beni (2001) presented his tourism system as an open system (Fig. 3) that can influence and be influenced by the other systems with which it interacts. This system is composed of three sets:

1. Environmental relationships, which are composed of cultural, social, ecological and economic subsystems.
2. The structural organization, which consists of the superstructure and infrastructure subsystems.
3. Operational actions, which contain the dynamics of the tourism system. They include supply, market,

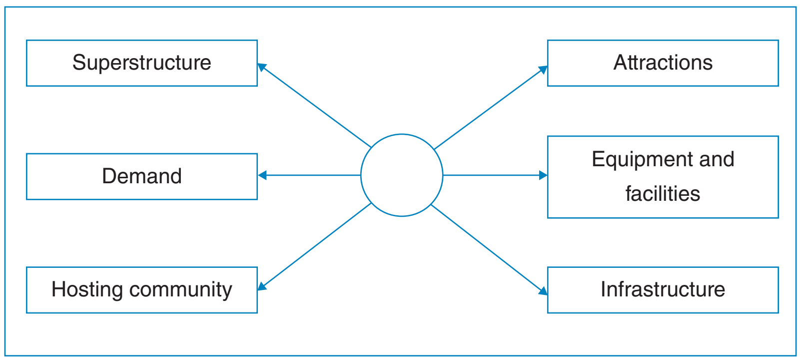


Fig. 2. Molina's tourist system. (From Molina, 1991, p. 40.)

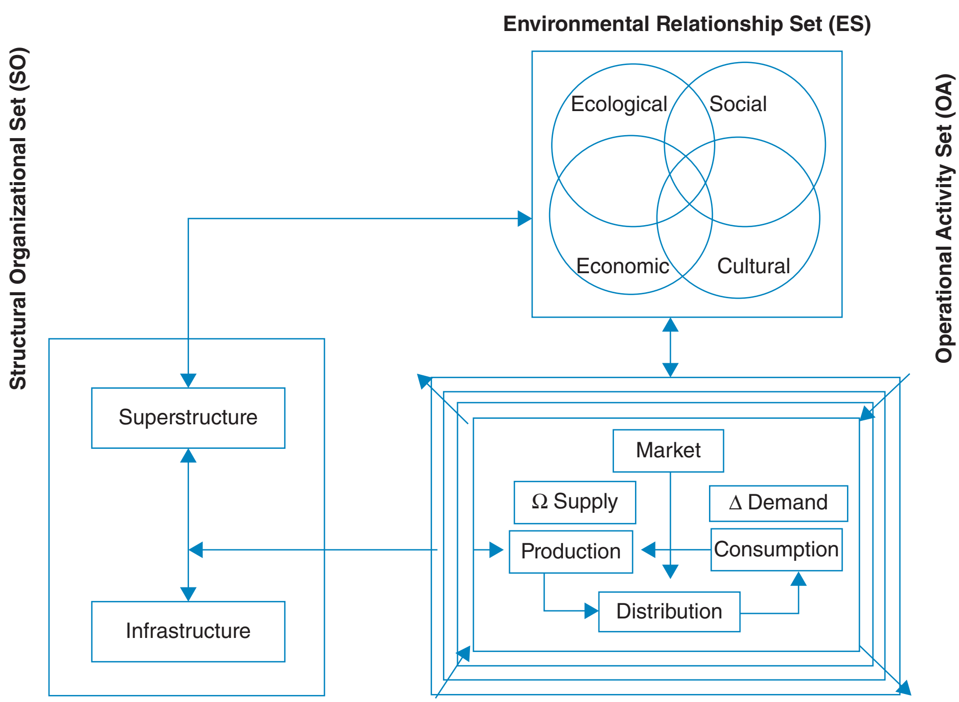


Fig. 3. Beni's tourism system (SISTUR). (From Beni, 2001, p. 48.)

demand, production, distribution and consumption subsystems.

In addition to these academics, many others have applied general systems theory in their tourism studies, including Roberto C. **Boullón** (1985), Donald Getz (1986), Alberto Sessa (1983, 1985) and Jost Krippendorf (1985). One pioneering but little-known approach was presented by Hunziker (1943): analysing tourism as part of a system.

The systemic view applied to tourism is not free from criticism, which most often is directed at systems theory in a general way. For example, systemic models offer some explanations for how tourism works but cannot deepen knowledge of important facts for comprehensive understanding.

Some questions about the tourism system remain open. For example, what logic exists among the system's components? How do the system's attributes influence its operation? How is it a functional social system? How can the inputs and outputs of the system's energy be quantified? If they cannot be quantified, can they be quantitatively analysed? How can the tourist system be delimited from its surroundings?

Exercises

1. Establish the strengths and weaknesses of analysing tourism as a system, based on general systems theory.
2. What other theory might explain tourism? Do you know of another one? What advantages does this theory have over systemism? Look for more information and study other non-systemic analyses and approaches to tourism.
3. Create an original tourism system. If you encounter difficulty, consult a teacher or converse with your classmates. Do not be afraid to take a chance: let your imagination run wild. However, your tourism system must be both logical and minimally functional.

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1.2 Hospitality

WITH ANA PAULA GARCIA SPOLON

Due to the breadth of this topic, hospitality here is essentially associated with **culture**. In this sense, it has been studied in an interdisciplinary manner by authors in areas that are not always directly linked to tourism, such as **psychology**, law, diplomacy, politics, cultural studies, urban planning and sociology (Tomillo Noguero, 2013). Scientific studies in these areas have begun to be incorporated into contemporary studies on hospitality developed by researchers linked to tourism. Both movements reflect the importance of the topic, which is both transversal and interdisciplinary (Jones, 2004; Morrison and O'Gorman, 2008; Bell, 2011).

Lashley *et al*. (2007) recorded a wide diversity of approaches to the topic in recent decades, showing that this field is gaining momentum, depth, critical mass and maturity, and indicating its position as a substantial research domain at an international level. According to Tomillo Noguero (2013), this diversity of approaches indicates that there is no single concept of hospitality. However, Camargo (2015, p. 20) offered a basic definition of hospitality, describing it as: 'a human relationship, in which an exchange takes place between someone who receives (host) and someone who is received (guest), the development of which may result in a pacifying effect, sentiments that range from friendship, love and human warmth (an expression of virtue) to some level of conflict, aggressiveness and hostility'.

In the universe of tourism studies, the topic of hospitality has been addressed primarily from the management perspective, with a simplistic view of the triad of food, beverage and **lodging** services (Brotherton, 1999; Lashley, 2000; Bell, 2011). Certainly, the provision of services is important, but when this provision is understood as only one part of the broader relationship between guests and hosts, hospitality becomes a much larger phenomenon, one connected not only to its historical origins but also to 'the fundamentals of sociology and anthropology' (Bell, 2011, p. 21).

In addition to becoming more widely addressed, the topic has gained additional relevance and another dimension in a world that is no longer viewed as very hospitable and in which conflicts are increasingly common (Gibson, 2006; Tomillo Noguero, 2013).

Bauman (2008) commented on this 'rediscovery' of hospitality, recalling that in the 18th century, in the booklet *Perpetual Peace*, Immanuel Kant presented his ideas on universal hospitality, a concept associated with cosmopolitan law and based on the inevitability of life in the community and in each other's company. In this long-neglected text, Kant showed that nature itself 'commands us to see hospitality as the supreme precept, which we all in equal measure will have to embrace sooner or later' (Bauman, 2008, p. 226).

The Kantian proposal for hospitality is based on the principle of an equal ownership of the Earth's surface. According to Kant, to live in communion in a space with limited dimensions, it is necessary to exercise mutual tolerance and recognize the right of hospitality, i.e. the right of each individual to be received anywhere without hostility. For Kant (1795, p. 13), 'it is not a question of philanthropy, but right. "Hospitality" refers to the foreigner's right to not be treated as an enemy upon their arrival in another country.'

In a world with such great challenges, in which diversity and multiculturalism are so present, hospitality emerges as a fundamental topic. There has been a true academic revolution related to incorporating the subject into teaching and research agendas. For Bauman (2008, p. 227), 'hospitality has been noted as a universal commandment since the moment it stopped going unnoticed because it was "always there" and became instead conspicuous through its sudden (discomforting and painful) absence'.

Due to the (re)valorization of this topic, studies on hospitality have changed their configurations (Bell, 2011), and different academic communities – including those of France, the UK and Brazil – have become closely involved with the subject.

The French academic community takes the work of Marcel Mauss (1872–1950) as its conceptual framework. Mauss was a French sociologist and anthropologist who wrote *Essai sur le Don: Forme et Raison de l'Échange dans les Sociétés Archaïques* (first published in the French magazine *Année Sociologique* in 1924). In this essay, Mauss presents the theory of the gift, establishing the elements fundamental to the process of constructing and maintaining social relationships: the acts of giving, receiving and returning.

The Maussian framework inspired French theorists such as the philosophers Emmanuel Lévinas (1906–1995) and Jacques Derrida (1930–2004). Numerous works by both authors are important references for the study of hospitality, in particular, Lévinas's *Totalité et Infini: Essai sur l'Extériorité* (1961), *Autrement qu'être ou au-delà de l'Essence* (1990) and *Altérité et Transcendance* (1995), along with Derrida's *Adieu à Emmanuel Lévinas* (1997), *Cosmopolites de Tous les Pays*, *Encore un Effort* (1997), and *De l'Hospitalité* (co-authored with Dufourmantelle, 1997). Mauss, Lévinas and Derrida influenced the work of new generations of French authors, including Alain Caillé, René Schérer, Hervé Le Bras, Michelle Perrot, Anne Gotman, Jacques T. Godbout, Claude Raffestin, Benjamin Boudou and Danielle Perrot, among many others. The most prominent of these authors is Alain Montandon, whose work is exceptional. One of his most important contributions is the collection *Le Livre de l'Hospitalité: Accueil de l'Etranger dans l'Histoire et les Cultures* (2004), which collects contemporary French scholarship on the topic.

For Camargo (2005), the French academic community is interested in the topic from the perspective of the humanities and social sciences, especially philosophy, **anthropology** and **sociology**, examining the interfaces of the relationships between guests and hosts. In this sense, Camargo (2011, p. 28) stated that Montandon is 'justifiably,...the founder of hospitality studies in the humanities' and has discovered that 'although hostility has more visibility, hospitality remains a set of values…that serve as a reference for social life'. In the French academic community, there have been studies on migration, cosmopolitanism, gender, religion, culture, institutional care, ethnography, the history of civilizations, symbolic spaces, mysticism, culture and representation, arts, politics and society, all through the lens of hospitality.

To some extent, the British academic community uses French classical studies. However, it more broadly incorporates the set of contemporary studies on hospitality that focus on business management (Kye-Sung (Kaye) Chon and Raymond T. Sparrowe, Yvonne Guerrier, Theodore Levitt, Roy C. Wood and Ewout Cassee), mixing them with the work of theologians (Christine D. Pohl and John Koenig), sociologists (Erving Goffman, Pierre Bourdieu, Mike Featherstone and George Ritzer), historians (Felicity Heal) and philosophers (Elizabeth Telfer). Moreover, English-speaking authors have sought the historical origins of hospitality in religion and customs, to interpret their influence on contemporary society (O'Connor, 2005; O'Gorman, 2010).

English-speaking authors on hospitality include Paul Lynch, Tom Baum, Alison Morrison, Peter Lugosi, Kevin O'Gorman, Barry O'Mahony, David Bell, David Botterill, Tom Selwyn, Bob Brotherton, Daniel O'Connor, Donald McNeill, Jennie Germann Molz and Alison McIntosh, among others.

The work of Conrad Lashley (Lashley, 2000; Lashley *et al.*, 2007) is noteworthy, not only in its articulation of authors on the topic but also (and in particular) with regard to the model of the 'three domains of hospitality'. From Lashley's perspective (2000), when arranged in a Venn diagram, the three domains in which hospitality is exercised – the public/social, the domestic/private and the commercial/professional – give rise to hospitality experiences (Fig. 4).

In Brazil, researcher Luiz Octávio de Lima Camargo has made the greatest contribution to the topic, including the development of a 'matrix of domains of hospitality' (Camargo, 2003), a model that led to the systematization of studies in Brazil (Table 2).

The current context of hospitality studies at the global level has two characteristics. The first involves a theoretical evaluation process, with a

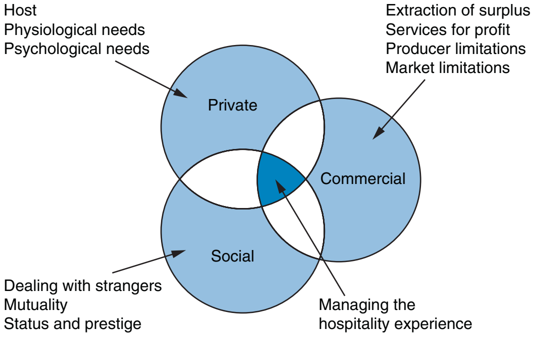

Fig. 4. Hospitality activities. (Adapted from Lashley, 2000, p. 4.)

Table 2. Matrix of the domains of hospitality. (Adapted from Camargo, 2003, p. 19.)

	Receive	Host	Feed	Entertain
Domestic	Receive people at home, either intentionally or casually	Providing welcome and shelter for people at home	Hosting meals and banquets at home	Hosting receptions and parties
Public	Reception in both freely accessed spaces and public agencies	Accommodation provided by the city and country, including hospitals, nursing homes and prisons	Local cuisine	Public spaces for leisure and events
Commercial	Professional reception services	Hotels	Restoration	Events and shows; private leisure spaces
Virtual	Brochures, posters, folders, the Internet, telephone, e-mail	Sites and site hosts	Media programmes and gastronomy sites	Games and entertainment in the media

review of the fundamentals that support it (Baum, 2011); the second concerns the topic's application in contemporary contexts.

The theory of the gift (give–receive–return) proposed by Mauss (1968) is essential to understanding the concept of hospitality because it establishes the principle that governs human action. The gift of hospitality triggers a cyclical, ongoing relationship established on either gratuitous or commercial terms.

It is also important to recognize the social practice of hospitality as an act that runs through centuries of history and is rooted in the very challenge of humanity's survival. Hospitality, as a gift, is therefore an element necessary for promoting humanity's social cohesion and well-being, anywhere and in any context, including tourism.

In this sense, the construction of a universal concept of hospitality is a process: with each new social interaction, there will be other relationship nuances to consider, defining the meaning of the hospitality experience. An understanding of the real relevance of the idea of hospitality, its association with contemporary topics and the maturation of research at the international level are therefore indispensable.

Exercises

When Mauss (1968) proposed the concept of 'universal hospitality', he defended the right of every person to be welcomed anywhere, at any time. Derrida and Dufourmantelle (1997) introduced the concept of unconditional hospitality: hospitality without questions, judgements or limits. According to the logic of hospitality, immigration is a natural movement resulting from the human need to migrate for various reasons. This is a contemporary topic that is both controversial and relevant. What is your opinion on the subject? Think about it, considering the following situations:

1. Countries that either need specialized manual labour or have recorded a decrease in their younger population and therefore see migration as a positive phenomenon; examples include Canada and Australia, which have official programmes calling for immigrants.

2. Countries that receive large numbers of immigrants but that claim not to be in a position to welcome them, seeing the migratory flow in a negative way; examples include Italy and France, which are destinations for illegal immigrants from Africa.

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1.3 Leisure

WITH EDMUR ANTONIO STOPPA

The word leisure comes from the Latin *licere*, which means to be allowed, to be lawful and to have value (*loisir*, in French; *tiempo libre* or *ócio*, in Spanish). Between the late 19th and early 20th centuries, numerous thinkers became important for their innovative approaches to leisure. We discuss some of these below.

Paul Lafargue, who was married to Karl Marx's youngest daughter, developed one of the most famous critiques of capitalism in *Le Droit à la Paresse* (1880). At that time, French workers had to labour for more than 12 hours a day. Lafargue revolted against this situation, using his manifesto to attack the 'idolatry' of work that contributed to perpetuating this system of exploitation. Two of his proposals were to reduce the number of hours in the workday and to advance technology in factories.

Thorstein Veblen then published his economic study entitled *The Theory of the Leisure Class* (1899), which focused primarily on the upper class and social institutions in the USA. His book became popular among leisure scholars because one of his critiques related to the unproductive consumption of time. For Veblen, if an individual does not have a job that is intended to produce something, then that individual's wealth and leisure is aimed only at ostentation. For Veblen, leisure was an unproductive activity because the social class enjoying leisure (the leisure class) was not the class of workers. This author did not value leisure because society only progresses and develops through work.

Karl Marx and Antonio Gramsci focused their studies and texts on understanding work during the post-industrial revolution period and were critical of the existing capitalist system. In the Gramscian conception (Gramsci, 1979; Gramsci, 1981), with historical and dialectical materialism, particularly in the concepts of hegemony and counter-hegemony and intellectuals, leisure as culture could be understood as a space of resistance, of the possibility of forming new values, questioning society. Thus, the importance and practice of leisure, in the present day, could be emphasized as an instrument of social and cultural change.

Bertrand Russell, in *In Praise of Idleness* (1935), showed his displeasure with work. According to Russell, many modern ills are caused by simply believing in the virtue of work without questioning its form. However, Russell also criticized forms of non-virtuous leisure, such as that achieved by exploiting another individual. Russell argued that everyone should have access to leisure and was bothered by the fact that the poorest do not have time for leisure because they must work hard for their survival. In his view, the intelligent use of leisure is a result of civilization and education. A man who spends much of his life working hard only to suddenly become idle will also be bored. However, without the possibility of practising leisure, people are deprived of the finer things in life (Russell, 1935).

Johan Huizinga, with *Homo Ludens – vom Unprung der Kultur im Spiel* (1938), advocated that the ludic, or play, is a free, not necessarily serious activity. Adults, unlike children, find the ludic primarily in leisure, and leisure, at that time, was seen as 'not serious'. In many societies, play is practised after the required activities have been carried out; the same applies to leisure; thus, the relationship between play and leisure. To this day, the ideas Huizinga expressed in *Homo Ludens* continue to be important in understanding the ludic.

Based on the studies from the Frankfurt School, Habermas (2003), when discussing the relationship between the public and private spheres and economic activity, noted that leisure behaviour can be seen as key to manifestation of the intimate sphere. This behaviour occurs under the influence of semi-public or pseudo-private agencies that – unlike the critical formation originating in the intimate sphere of the bourgeois family – leads to the emergence of cultural consumerism linked to social reproduction.

Under the influence of the figure of 'cultural industry', life outside of work is apolitical and non-emancipated and leisure time is lived in a functionalist manner, based on relationships of dependency. According to Habermas (2003), this effect leads to the increasing commodification of **culture**, with the market defining the creation of cultural goods according to mass culture, which receives its name 'precisely because it conforms to the needs for distraction and amusement of consumer groups with a relatively low education level, rather than, conversely, forming the wider audience in a culture whose substance is intact' (Habermas, 2003, p. 195). According to Habermas, we must critically distinguish the functions of the market that: (i) economically facilitate access to cultural goods to an increasingly larger audience; and (ii) psychologically facilitate access to broader strata. These situations do not contribute to critical formation but only adapt these needs to the needs of the cultural industry.

Sebastian de Grazia, in *Of Time*, *Work and Leisure* (1962), proposed a distinction between free time and leisure. To him, free time can be a condition of all human beings; however, leisure is not. Leisure is more a 'state of mind', as opposed to 'free time'. For de Grazia, 'leisure is an ideal, a state of being, a condition of man' (de Grazia, 1962, p. 5).

According to Andrade *et al.* (2010), de Grazia (1962) conceived leisure differently from those who understand it as an achievement of the working class after the Industrial Revolution. de Grazia understood leisure as the Greek-created ideal of life. In this sense, leisure is a human condition unlikely to be observed in the society in which we live. According to him, machines dominate the way individuals occupy time in their lives. For leisure to once again occupy a privileged place in society, it is necessary to break this dominance of machines (de Grazia, 1962).

Other notable authors from the period during which leisure studies were established, in the middle of the 20th century, include Georges Hourdin (*Une Civilisation des Loisirs*, 1961), Stanley Parker (*The Sociology of Leisure*, 1967) and Marie-Françoise Lanfant (*Les Théories du Loisir: Sociologie du Loisir et Idéologies*, 1972).

Despite the different views that exist on this topic, the concept offered by the Frenchman Joffre Dumazedier (1960, p. 527) has become a common starting point: 'Leisure consists of a number of occupations in which the individual may indulge of his own free will – either to rest, to amuse himself, to add to his knowledge or improve his skills disinterestedly or to increase his voluntary participation in the life of the community after discharging his professional, family and social duties.'

This concept implies the need for free time, as opposed to working time, which leads to important reflections: why define leisure according to obligatory activities and not the other way around? Why not define obligatory activities (work, study, housework) according to leisure? People practise leisure to be able to return to work – why not return to work because one is tired of leisure?

Rojek (1985) criticized this perspective on leisure because it is sometimes seen as functionalist. Rojek (1985) did not see leisure as free time. According to him, although Dumazedier (1960) (and also Aron, 1962; Brightbill, 1963) considered leisure a subject of scientific interest, their definition allowed for subjectivism, leading to free interpretations of the phenomenon and frustrating ambitions of making leisure an object and field of scientific study.

According to Rojek (1985, p. 3), the concept established by Dumazedier (1960) cannot be used as easily for scientific purposes due to two reasons: 'First, it treats leisure as a general property of the social system which can be studied without regard to its precise social context. Second, it refers to vexed concepts in the history of Western social thought, such as "free will", "disinterestedness" and "voluntary" action, as if they could be understood and applied in an unproblematic fashion.'

One response to these problems is that Western society is part of the capitalist system, which is based on work or the exploitation of others' work to accumulate material goods. Moreover, mankind has had to struggle to survive since the beginning of time, and work is a valued and necessary activity of human existence. It is also correct to say that with the reduction of the workday, free time for leisure has increased. Thus, Camargo (1986, p. 49) stated, 'This is why people say that leisure is a work product.' One thus enters into a theoretical circle with a new question: do people relax, amuse themselves and learn (the three functions of leisure, according to Dumazedier) to work or do they work to relax, amuse themselves and learn?

Leisure should not be a denial of work because work is necessary to the category of free time, which is when leisure is practised. Thus, the time of an unemployed person looking for work cannot be considered wholly leisure time because he is not freely ‘giving’ this time and enjoying it. Leisure is not the opposite of work but complements it; however, it is unlikely for the two to be found together.

Regarding this issue, Marcellino (2014) stated that the concept of leisure should be considered as being closely connected to the other fields of activity of human life. This statement can be verified by analysing the concept of leisure defended by the author when he discusses the aspect of ‘time’ that is characterized as ‘available time’ instead of ‘free time’ because, as he proposed that ‘any time can be considered free of the constraints or rules of social conduct’ (Marcellino, 2014, p. 29). For Marcellino, leisure is understood as culture lived in its broadest sense (practised or enjoyed) during ‘available time’. The ‘disinterested’ nature of experience is important as a defining trait because there is no reward other than the satisfaction caused by the situation.

Thus, from the perspective of connection to the other spheres of human activity, the importance of understanding leisure signifies being attentive to the possibilities for alienation in any of these areas of activity. According to Bosi (1978), if work and leisure are closely linked, the alienation of one is expected to generate evasion and compensatory processes in the other.

It is obvious that the overwhelming majority of the world works to be able to have leisure; however, there is a small group of society that can have leisure and work whenever it wants. This select group consists of very rich people, renowned artists, a small group of academics and people living on financial investments or annuities, among other resources. Leisure thus becomes a question of social class, which implies public policies that encourage the less economically favoured population.

There is no doubt that the concept of leisure is a characteristic of a post-Industrial Revolution society. No one is denying the existence of leisure before this historical period; however, leisure as it is seen, known and practised today originated at that time.

All human beings have the right to free time, and it is precisely during this time that leisure can be practised. However, in some less-developed countries, although the working class have won the right to free time, it does not mean that they have access to leisure, due to a lack of money or infrastructure, and the fact that this class has not been educated to enjoy free time. A lack of leisure-related public policies, especially for playing sports, is visible in many large cities, particularly in emerging and urbanized countries, where free time is spent, for example, going to shopping centres. Well-structured leisure policies have a preventative influence on various aspects of social and family welfare (Fullagar and Harrington, 2009), including, for example, a decrease in crime (Pendleton, 2000) and improvements in public health (Coleman, 1993).

It is also important to note that leisure is not synonymous with pleasure; all leisure practices seek pleasure, but pleasure is not always achieved. Leisure time should be seen as something precious because it includes various activities necessary to have a quality life, such as tourism, entertainment, **recreation**, family life and playing games without commitment.

Free time is not the same as leisure time, although leisure can only take place during free time. Moreover, human beings do not dedicate all of their free time to leisure; there is also dead time (staying at home watching the television because one does not have enough money to leave; allowing time to pass and becoming bored because of an inability to learn another activity; being stuck in the chaotic traffic of a large city) and committed time, which involves obligatory activities (e.g. family commitments and domestic activities).

According to Dumazedier (1973), leisure has three main functions: (i) rest; (ii) fun, recreation and **entertainment**; and (iii) learning. In this sense, leisure should not only contribute to the possibility of the workforce’s relaxation or replacement but also seek to enable greater participation in activities in a manner that is both critical and creative.

Furthermore, Dumazedier (1973) classified the activities carried out in leisure time as physical, manual, intellectual, artistic and social, based on the principle of cultural interest. Camargo (1986) stated that neither this classification nor others is perfect and therefore added another activity conducted during leisure time: tourism. Camargo (1992) explained that to be considered leisure, an activity must embody certain properties, including personal choice, gratuity, pleasure and liberation.

Although Camargo’s is not the only possible classification, and we believe that any classification will eventually have flaws, we understand that this is an interesting classification from the policy planning and research perspective because it includes various aspects of individuals during the formation process, which contributes to the idea that actions in the specific context of leisure seek to serve the human race as a whole. The distinction among the interests set forth in the above classification can only be established from what prevails in each of the interests, representing the subjective choices of individuals, thus reinforcing the question of choice in the concept of leisure within the totality of the human race.

de Masi (2000) is another prominent author who has studied the topic of work related to free time, idleness, leisure, tourism, entertainment, new forms of industrial production and the use of time in business. In his book *L'Ozio Creativo* (1995), he proposed that, in contemporary societies, the workday should be shortened. However, his most innovative proposal was that man should pursue what he calls creative idleness, i.e. combining work, learning and leisure simultaneously.

In addition to the classic discussion of the clash between leisure and work, international scientific research on leisure has progressed on different fronts, such as the following:

- *Gender*: for example, the participation of the father and the role of fatherhood in leisure studies (Kay, 2006) and a comparison between men's and women's participation in leisure activities (Kay, 2000).
- *Age*: leisure studies that include the experience of children (Dunst *et al.*, 2009), adolescents (Wegner and Flisher, 2009; Caldwell *et al.*, 2010), adults (Özer *et al.*, 2010) and the elderly (Heo *et al.*, 2010), and address, for example, the role of leisure activities in maintaining cognitive health during ageing (Ferreira *et al.*, 2015).
- *Health*: broader studies, for example, related to leisure activities for groups with certain types of diseases, e.g. Taiwanese diabetics (Chialin *et al.*, 2010), people with cystic fibrosis who engage in sporting activities (Fuchsa *et al.*, 2014) and human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) carriers (Fereza *et al.*, 2014).
- *Family*: involving leisure in diverse family situations, such as sedentary activities among intact families (Quarmby and Dagkas, 2010), specific analyses related to adoptive families (Freeman and Zabriskie, 2003) or separated parents (Jenkins, 2009), and even the perceptions and use of time by parents according to their social contexts and roles demanded both in the family and in society (Stalker, 2014).
- *Race*: factors distinguishing leisure activities among people of different races or minority groups, e.g. Latinos (black and non-black) and non-Latinos (Marquez *et al.*, 2010).
- *The Internet*: analyses of Internet dependency (Johnson, 2009), studies that address leisure practice and the use and abuse of the Internet (Mittal, 2015), and others that identify time using the Internet as a leisure activity by people with different educational levels and physical abilities (Deursen and Dijk, 2014).
- *Serious leisure*: studies on the practice of golf by elderly and ageing adults (Siegenthaler and O'Dell, 2003), studies on the role of serious leisure in education (Kleiber, 2012) and studies on serious leisure and individuality (Lobo, 2014).

It should be noted that, in addition to addressing different socio-economic aspects of leisure, publications on leisure are available not only in specific leisure journals but also in scientific journals related to the fields of health, physical education and tourism. Although detailing the results of these studies is beyond the scope of this entry, our objective is to open horizons so that scholars in the field of tourism and other areas can see leisure as an area with enormous possibilities to be explored, as evidenced by the examples highlighted here.

Exercise

Based on a reading of the **'Leisure'**, **'Entertainment'**, **'Recreation'** and **'Tourism and Travel'** entries in this book, establish your own definition for each term and seek to delimit, if possible, the border or dividing line between each of them. This exercise aims both to solidify this entry's general content and to encourage autonomy in creating your own definitions and interpretations.

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1.4 Entertainment

WITH LUIZ GONZAGA GODOI TRIGO

Entertainment (*entretenimiento*, in Spanish; *divertissement*, in French) is the act or effect of being entertained or distracted; it is often considered synonymous with fun and pastimes (Dyer, 1973; Trigo, 2003; Gray, 2012). Entertainment implies reasoning and mental occupation in an enjoyable way, free will and, generally, time free from the obligations of daily life, such as work, study, and social and family commitments. It is in this sense that Dyer (1973) stated that entertainment is also a part of **leisure**.

Recreation and entertainment have very similar meanings; recreation is also enjoyed pursuant to a person's free will and during free time, and brings with it the benefit of re-establishing and recovering everyday obligations. Authors have indicated that entertainment requires an audience, for example, at the theatre, cinema and football games (Dyer, 1973; Trigo, 2003; Moss, 2010; Gray, 2012). Furthermore, entertainment, in these conditions, implies financial investment and is more closely connected to the **culture** industry and mass communication than recreation.

There have always been fun and scheduled activities. The practice of entertainment has existed since the Roman Empire (Potter and Mattingly, 1999), but entertainment as an industry emerged only in the 19th century (Trigo, 2003) and has become more important since the times of Phineas Taylor Barnum, a 19th-century American who worked in the entertainment business (Lieberman and Esgate, 2002). It can be argued that the entertainment industry's emergence is a result of the structure of capitalism in its post-industrial phase. The first impulse towards its development arrived with the film industry at the beginning of the 1920s and the post-World War II boom, during which Hollywood productions and technology excelled (Lieberman and Esgate, 2002). Film, radio and television further strengthened leisure as an industry throughout the 20th century.

The entertainment industry is composed of companies that create, produce and distribute products and services that aim to entertain (Wolf, 1999; Moss, 2010; McKee *et al.*, 2012). Moss (2010, p. 5) states that the entertainment industry is global, offers both tangible and intangible products that aim to engage and captivate an audience, and is composed of 18 sectors: 'Staged story and variety; music; bars, pubs and clubs; cinema and film; broadcast media; audio-visual media; the Internet; gaming; printed media; commercial gambling; spectator sports; thrillertainment; edutainment; sellertainment; culturtainment; spiritual entertainment; health entertainment and adult entertainment.'

Worldwide, entertainment includes thematic amusement parks, ecological parks, cinemas, theatres, sporting **events**, cultural events (e.g. musical, literary, crafts), broadcast television and cable, videogames and computer games, DVDs, CDs, art exhibitions, casinos, museums, literature, the Internet, radio, folk and thematic festivals (e.g. tourism, arts, technology), opera, dance, trade in general and various hobbies, among others. Given the activity's importance, Gray (2012) advocated that entertainment be seen as a field of study, such as art, culture and the media.

Moss (2010) divided entertainment activities into two areas: cultural industries and creative industries (Fig. 5). Entertainment as a cultural industry transforms culture into commodities; it reaches a wide audience, shapes culture and modifies habits; and it transforms cultural manifestations into desirable goods (Gray, 2012; Vidales *et al.*, 2013; Ribke, 2015). The creative industry of entertainment is based on individual ability, creativity and talent. It is capable of producing products and services that aim to entertain in a creative and original way (Stein and Evans, 2009; Gray, 2012; Tully and Ekdale, 2014; Shapiro and Park, 2015).

The contemporary entertainment industry is marked, in the technological aspect, by the dominance

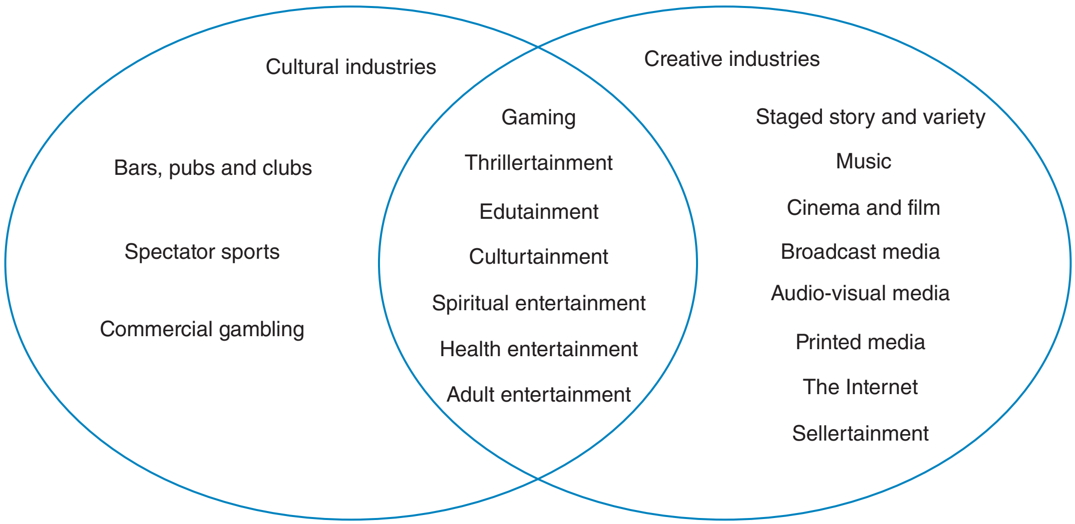

Fig. 5. Sectors of the entertainment industry in the context of the cultural and creative industries. (From Moss, 2010, p. 7.)

of virtual instances, computerized communication networks, sophisticated computer graphics programs and massive data analyses. There are constant and rapid changes to this entire technological system because of material, organizational and operational advances.

With respect to the cultural aspect, Fréderic Martel (2010) analysed the diversity and fragmentation of entertainment activities around the world. In the USA, large transnational companies continue to engage in approximately 50% of the global production of entertainment content and technologies. However, China, India, eastern Europe, the Arab world and Latin America have undergone major advances in this area and produce content linked to their own cultural, religious and aesthetic characteristics.

This complex mutable reality has been analysed by different entertainment research centres. One of the most in-depth reports has been produced by PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC), *Global Entertainment and Media Outlook 2014–2018*, which shows the extent, importance and nuances of the field. The information provided in the next paragraphs come from this report (PwC, 2015).

In 2013, the book market experienced an unprecedented increase after years of decline as the result of the increase in ebooks, which offset the decline of printed material. In 2018, the editorial market (printed and virtual) should reach US$64.9 billion. China surpassed Japan in 2014 and will surpass Germany in 2017 to become the second-largest editorial market in the world, with revenues of US$13.2 billion, behind only the USA, which has revenues of US$37 billion (PwC, 2015).

The business-to-business (B2B) sector had revenues of approximately US$200 billion in 2014, experiencing increases in education, distance learning, trade shows and professional books, along with new computerized, public, private or non-governmental organization-linked **distribution channels**. In addition, according to PwC (2015), in 2014 Internet access was the most responsible for entertainment spending – more than any other media product or service. This growth will take place in all markets, except for Japan, which will experience a decline. More than 300 billion application downloads will occur in 2018, a growth of 29.8% (from 82 billion in 2013 to 303 billion in 2018).

With so much variety being offered, entertainment has become an important motivator for tourist travel and very often defines the destination to be visited. Petrick *et al.* (2001) note that the number of entertainment destinations has grown in recent years and, because tourists are an unreliable market, it is crucial for those destinations both to identify factors that attract new visitors and to continue to attract previous visitors. One example of entertainment destinations is that of large cities (e.g. São Paulo, New York, London, Barcelona, Tokyo, Singapore, Orlando, Paris, Dubai, Las Vegas, Macau, Hong Kong), which receive millions of tourists every year, who attend a play, a concert by an international music group or a favourite sporting event. Seen from this angle, entertainment is a growing field, and it is an important area of activity for tourism and leisure professionals.

Studies on this topic involve geocultural, gender, cultural diversity and citizenship, ethnic minority, sexual, cultural and lifestyle issues. These changes represent the subniches of a world that, paradoxically, becomes more tribalized and fragmented as globalization increases. The local and the global coexist amidst negotiated and articulated conflicts.

The advertisement, education, business, sports and cultural sectors will be increasingly subjected to mass analyses, made possible by technologies that enable reservation centres and databases to cross-reference information about consultations, sales and general access. This information is big data, which allow trends, profiles and scenarios to be traced with much more scope and accuracy. Google and Facebook are not the only companies that do this. Operational centres for airline companies, hotels, cruise lines, credit card companies, financial institutions, research centres, telephone companies and Internet service providers can increasingly cross-reference both their internal data and that of other companies to discover what their clients desire or decline.

All of these examples of entertainment data are positive, but there is a type of entertainment that does not provide human and cultural enrichment or satisfaction to everybody involved. This is the case, for example, with the manufacture and distribution of pamphlets by radical, racist and homophobic organizations or extremist groups; gambling sites that operate in hidden places and exploit their regular clients; and bigoted and criminal Internet sites (normally on the deep web) that contain, for example, ideological content and intellectual garbage.

Entertainment practices should be analysed with caution because they are a mass phenomenon that can be interpreted from different angles. Trigo (2003) makes this observation, noting that, for the tourism sector, entertainment is something relatively new that reaches more markets every day; for more critical sociologists and philosophers, entertainment is alienating, whereas for the masses, it means new possibilities for prefabricated fun and emotions. Entertainment is a bit of all of this, and should be viewed with a critical eye to maximize the value of the best that it offers, without forgetting that even the fiercest critics need relief from their difficult daily activities.

Operationalizing

In recent years, new technologies have led to the emergence of new forms of entertainment. Various computer programs and social networks such as YouTube, Facebook, Twitter, Instagram and diverse applications for smartphones are part of a group of innovations that has significantly changed how we relate to and entertain ourselves. Learn more about these innovations and keep yourself up to date.

Exercise

Disney is the largest entertainment company in the world. Look on the Internet – specifically, at http://www.visitflorida.com, http://www.disneyinternational.com and http://www.youtube.com – for information, videos, data, photos and images that give you an idea about how Disney provides entertainment. Discuss the search results with your classmates. Also analyse the report on theme parks and museums worldwide that is published by Themed Entertainment Association, available at http://www.aecom.com/wp-content/uploads/sites/2/2015/10/Theme-Index_2014_v1_5.pdf.

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1.5 Recreation

WITH EDMUR ANTONIO STOPPA

It is common for the terms 'recreation' and '**leisure**' to be used without any further reflection on their meaning, a situation that has provoked not only diverse questions but also conceptual confusion. For Dumazedier (1975) and Silva *et al.* (2011), the term 'recreation' is American in origin. It is related to the establishment of national nature parks and the need to use these areas through recreational activities. The intention is for the population to appropriate the space while avoiding its environmental degradation. The term 'leisure', in turn, has been influenced by European studies, with a broader meaning than simply that of recreational activities. From this perspective, leisure is seen as a manifestation of a cultural phenomenon.

There are two interpretations of the origin of the word 'recreation'. The first is that the word comes from the Latin term *recreatio*, which means playtime or fun. The term comes from the word *recreare*, meaning to reproduce or recover. According to this approach, recreation is seen as recovery from work and has a strong functionalist perspective. The second interpretation is that 'recreation' comes from the Latin term *recreare*, but in this case, the term indicates 'recreate' or 'create new possibilities', which is more comprehensive.

In terms of the conception of recreation as playtime and fun, Goeldner *et al.* (2002) note that, in the USA, the national parks system is one of the biggest attractions for both domestic and international visitors. For these authors, a recreational visit involves entering land or waters administered by the parks system, at any time of day, for the purpose of leisure. From this situation, it is understood that, for Americans, recreation usually takes place outdoors and is characterized by playful activities and games, carried out unpretentiously, aimed only at pleasure and mental rest.

Another author discussing issues related to recreation is Warn (1999, p. 4), who proposes a self-explanatory figure to establish the relationships among leisure, recreation, tourism (which are broader concepts), local recreation, non-local recreation, recreational and business travel, and business and personal travel, as shown in Fig. 6.

Other possibilities for analysing recreation have been identified by McLean and Hurd (2015), who understand recreation and leisure as having multiple meanings based on individual perceptions, with recreation being defined from an individual perspective; and by Colton (1987), who notes that the fields of leisure, recreation and tourism involve a great deal of subjectivism and fit within the paradigm of symbolic interactionism.

In terms of recreation studies in the USA, Smith and Godbey (1991) state that recreation and leisure offer numerous intriguing parallels with tourism; these two terms have a different origin, are interdisciplinary and combine traditional, non-theoretical, descriptive and applied research with an innovative academic model that aims to develop and test concepts and theories.

For Smith and Godbey (1991), recreation is of utmost importance to society because it can be used to achieve greater social integration, to develop the group spirit of children and adults, to provide an outlet for everyday pressures and to improve people's emotional balance. In addition to recreation's relationship to physical activity, especially activity performed outdoors, it can also be a mental activity that brings pleasure to the individual.

Therefore, recreation, understood as creating and recreating, is intimately linked to human development and its relationships to social reality; it can be a time/space for constructing new knowledge in search of a new society. To this end, Marcellino (1987) points to the need to revive the meaning of recreation as 'recreare', meaning to create again, give new life, with new vigour, i.e. to recognize recreation as a possibility different from what has been constructed historically, understanding it as a

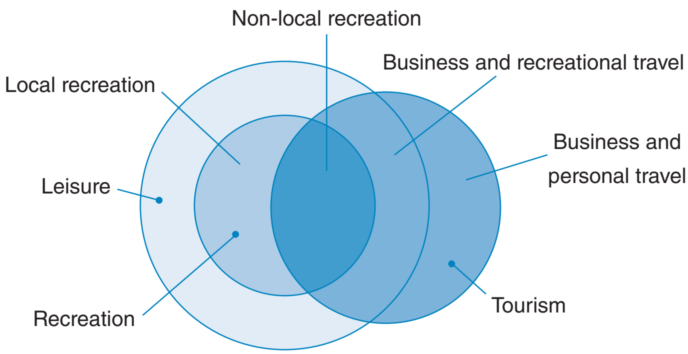

Fig. 6. Relationships among leisure, recreation and tourism. (From Warn 1999, p. 4.)

possibility for a reflection and conscious interaction with reality, to facilitate social changes.

In this sense, for Smith and Godbey (1991), the relationship between recreation and the sphere of work is of utmost importance. For them, recreation depends on work to have meaning and function. It is often seen as a catharsis, reviving and recreating the individual's ability to return to work. Analysing this close relationship between the two terms, Jansen-Verbeke and Dietvorst (1987) propose that a better understanding of recreation is possible through a comprehensive analysis of the social, political and geographical contexts in which the individual lives. Thus, it is not the type of recreational activity that defines its quality but instead the general context in which this activity is carried out. The characteristic of the activity will also depend on the degree of involvement, depth and whether it is performed individually or in a group. In this context, McLean and Hurd (2015) offer an explanation of the relationship between these three elements: the intensity of experiences, the diversity of experiences and the socio-psychological implications (Fig. 7).

Other studies involving the topic of contemporary recreation and that are focused on a few priority areas can be cited, including the following:

- *Recreation and health*: Liechty *et al.* (2014) explore partnerships between health agencies and parks and recreation agencies to increase efficiency in medical treatments through interdisciplinary partnerships, and Dorevitch *et al.* (2012) analyse the health risks of people who practised recreation in water environments.
- *Recreation in natural spaces*: Numerous articles have been published in the *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, among them Roemer and Vaske (2014), who analyse user satisfaction with national parks in the USA, and Ghimire *et al.* (2014), who compare the practice of recreation between minority and non-minority groups.
- *Recreation policies*: Kuhlberg *et al.* (2014) discuss the implementation of the open-streets initiative in the USA as an incentive for practising physical activity, Lovell (2011) emphasizes the importance of recreation as a priority **public policy**, and Hall *et al.* (2014) address regulations for the recreational use of lakes in Florida.
- *Recreation management in parks*: Pettengill (2013) develops a **transport** planning and management system in parks and outdoor recreation spaces, Sharp *et al.* (2014) analyse the environmental management of parks and protected areas, and von Ruschkowski *et al.* (2013) identify the practices and priorities of those responsible for park recreation plans in three countries.
- *New topics*: Gomez (2013) addresses the issue of dog parks in which the owners also have the option to amuse themselves by training their dogs, playing with their dogs and spending time with family. The article indicates that the social, psychological and physical benefits of dog parks are enjoyed by all users – dogs and humans alike – and that dog–dog, dog–human and human–human relationships are established. Wilson *et al.* (2012) analyses San Francisco's temporary parks and Sunday streets, the latter of which have been created due to the lack of public recreational spaces and the local population's need to use, recognize and take ownership of public areas. A special edition of the *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration* (Vol. 32, no. 1, 2014) enriches the discussion of new topics

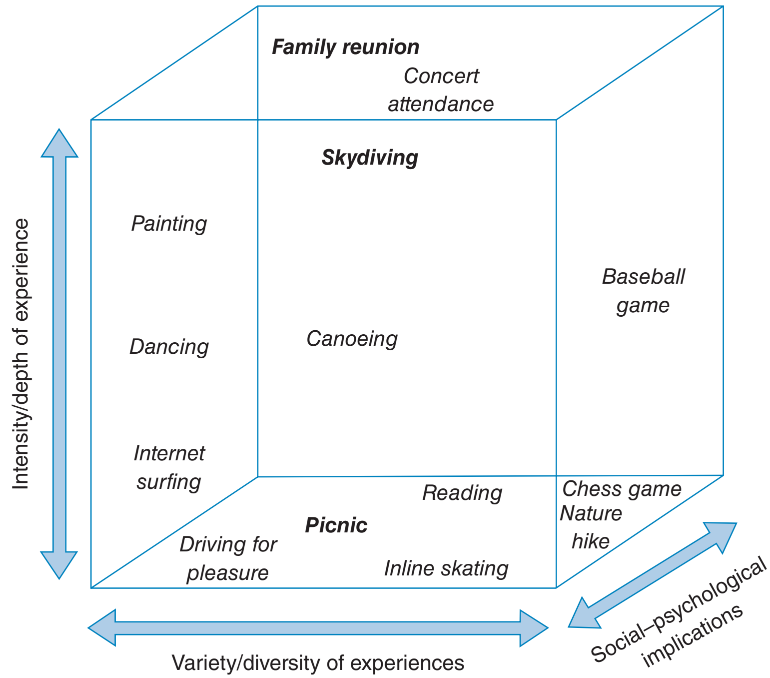

Fig. 7. A simple representation of the complexity of recreation and leisure experiences. (From McLean and Hurd, 2015.)

related to recreation by addressing leisure and the transitions and changes that occur in life, such as ageing, health, acculturation and retirement.

The empirical evidence shows that, in the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, much of Europe and other wealthy countries, there are public policies and incentives directed towards recreation (e.g. outdoor parks in the USA and Canada; incentives for recreation and tourism for the elderly in Spain; and the incentive for and responsibility of New Zealand's Department of Conservation to explore the country's natural and historical resources to promote recreation and tourism). In contrast, in the poorer countries of Latin America, Africa and Asia, there are few examples of government efforts along these lines. Some governments justify this situation by arguing that funding should be directed to the most urgent issues, such as health, security, transport, education, basic sanitation and employment.

Operationalizing

One good example of government incentives for the leisure and recreation of city residents is that of Sunday streets or open streets (Wilson *et al.*, 2012; Kuhlberg *et al.*, 2014). In this model, low-traffic streets chosen by neighbourhood residents are closed on Sundays and holidays for recreation and leisure activities, such as soccer games, volleyball, chatting with friends, cycling and concerts.

In various cities worldwide, including Mexico City, São Paulo, Bogota, New York and St Louis (see the example of Minneapolis at http://www.openstreetsmpls.org/os_about), open streets are a widely available resource frequently used by the population; in addition, they are encouraged by public agencies. In contrast, this action evidences a challenge confronted by metropolises in their marginal regions: the lack of appropriate spaces, such as squares, parks and sports centres, specifically designated for recreation and leisure.

Exercise

Identify whether your country or region has recreation as a public policy agenda. If recreation is not a public policy issue, identify and prepare a short presentation on the reasons that this has not occurred. If your country or region does have a public recreation policy, identify its main objectives and consider the results that have been achieved.

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1.6 Tourism and Travel

The term tourism has evolved throughout the 20th century and today inhabits the imaginary and everyday life of much of the world's population. The term tourism is used to characterize a sociocultural phenomenon that involves **transport**, motivations, accommodation, **hospitality**, **impacts** and the economic, cultural, social and environmental sectors affected and fuelled by the movement of people around the world. Tourism means much more than can be expressed by a simple word, and it may be seen as both reflecting social practices and involving social representations.

The most common views of tourism include holidays, travel, rest, **leisure** and pleasure, and an escape from reality; it also generates employment and income and spreads **culture**. Tourism is the sum of the phenomena resulting from travel or movement away from one's habitual place of residence and economic activity. However, in themselves, these views do not express the complexity of the phenomenon. Tourism permeates much of human actions and the world economy; we understand it as the 'phenomenon of human beings leaving and returning to their usual place of residence, for clear or hidden reasons, which implies hospitality, meeting and communication with other people and using technology, among numerous other conditions, which will generate varied experiences and different impacts' (Panosso Netto, 2010, p. 33).

According to studies by Panosso Netto and Tomillo Noguero (2011), the first scientific – or at least more theoretical – studies on tourism date back to the late 19th and early 20th centuries. These early works include those of Eduard Guyer-Freuler (1874, 1905), who was not only Zurich's tourism director in 1894 but also a hotel owner and writer. His most famous book is *Hotelwesen der Gegenwart* (1874), a work that addressed not only the importance of professionalism in the hotel industry but also technical questions, such as cleaning and hygiene, room size, the ideal lighting for each space and types of management. This work shows the historical moment of the hotel industry, its problems and its most important topics. In another study entitled *Fremdenverkehr und Hotelwesen*, Guyer-Freuler (1905) established the relationship between tourism and the hotel industry. This article contains one of the first definitions of tourism to include technical, social and economic elements: it states that tourism is, in a modern sense, a phenomenon of our time that can be explained by the increasing need for rest and a change of scenery, the appearance and development of a taste for the beauty of the **landscape**, and the satisfaction and well-being obtained from untouched nature, as well as, particularly, the growing relationships between different peoples, the increase in companies that has given rise to the development of trade, the industry and professions, and the improvement of different means of transport (Guyer-Freuler, 1905).

The Austrian economist Josef Stradner (1890) highlighted the economic power of tourism when he stated that the range of snow-covered mountains that were once a barrier to Austria's economic development had become part of the national wealth, and that 'its income is represented by the amount of money that tourism brings to the country each year' (Stradner, 1890, pp. 257–258). Furthermore, he identified foreigners (tourists) visiting Steiermark, whose capital is Graz (Austria), based on their travel motivations, characterizing those travelling for religious reasons, those travelling for business and rest, and those seeking fresh mountain air and therapeutic treatment in the region and in its thermal springs. In *Fremdenverkehr: Eine volkswirtschaftliche Studie*, from 1905, considered by Panosso Netto *et al.* (2011) to be Stradner's most important book, the author presents his definition of tourism as follows: 'The business of travel drives an on-going professional activity, which arises from the transport of luxury travellers; tourism in the strict sense drives the needs of culture, intellectual life, the spirit, health and celebration, which are related to the subjective preferences linked to the messages of ideal nature' (Stradner, 1905, p. 25). In other words, for Stradner, more than 100 years ago the touristic phenomenon had already expressed one of its current problems: only those with good financial conditions have access to tourism; it was already seen as a luxury good.

The German Paul Damm-Etienne published the book *Das Hotelwesen* in 1910, which was the result of his classes at the Higher School of Commerce in Cologne, Germany. In that text, he established the clear relationship between **lodging establishments** and tourism, and explained the different modes of operation for each type of hotel, such as the spa, the urban hotel and the rural hotel. The lodging's quality is of fundamental importance and can even be an attraction because the beauty of nature may not be enough to lure travellers.

Belotti (1919) was one of the first to establish legal guidelines for tourism. The work *Il Diritto Turistico Nella Legge, Nella Dottrina e Nella Giurisprudenza* discussed jurisprudence concerning foreigners, automobile circulation, aviation, lodging facilities, tour guides, sports and games, among others, all topics related to the movement of people. His work is a treatise that analyses court decisions on cases concerning tourism, particularly in Italy. Belotti (1919) advocated legal studies and practical applications for tourism but did not argue the need for a specific legal system.

Some of the first theoretical authors on tourism include the German duo Robert Glücksmann and Adolf Grünthal. Both worked at the Forschungsinstitut für den Fremdenverkehr (Research Institute for Tourism) in Berlin. Glücksmann (1935) analysed tourism as a scientific problem worthy of being studied at the university. This was the book's basic theme, an issue that even today generates many academic discussions (see Leiper, 1983; Dann *et al.*, 1988; Jafari, 1994; Tribe, 1997). To justify this choice, Glücksmann analysed tourism from the perspectives of statistics, **sociology**, culture, **economics** and transport, i.e. in an interdisciplinary way. To him, 'tourism always happens in a place we do not feel a part of and in an exchange of relationships between visitors and locals' (Glücksmann, 1935, p. 2). Grünthal (1934), in turn, developed a thesis on tourist sites, seeking its definition for the possible development of maps. His aim was to identify which products and services were unique to a place and which were typical of those visiting the place. He emphasized the importance of statistics in studying flows of people and was also concerned about visitors' characteristics, which can be used to improve a tourist site's image. Glücksmann and Grünthal are the two main figures that shaped the Berlin School of Tourism, as defined by Fuster (1981).

Many other theoretical studies on tourism were developed before World War II, showing that this phenomenon of human movement has long attracted scholarly attention. Some of the first 20th-century scholars with an interest in tourism studies include Angelo Mariotti, Michele Troisi, Arthur Joseph Norval, Hans Poser, José Herrero Anguita, Frederick Wolff Ogilvie, Artur Borman, Walter Hunziker and Kurt Krapf.

Today, the term 'tourism' is closely related to the terms 'hospitality', '**recreation**', '**entertainment**', 'leisure', 'mobility' and 'movement', but it is closest to the term 'travel'. Very often, the two are used without a clear definition; in different parts of the world, they may even have different connotations. One example of this phenomenon is the term 'travel', which is more broadly used, for example, in the USA, whereas the term 'tourism' is more widespread in other regions of the world, including official promotional organizations, such as ministries, departments and secretaries of tourism. Two important organizations based in the USA – the Office of Travel and Tourism Industries, and the World Travel and Tourism Council – use the word 'travel', denoting the need to provide a broader scope for their areas of operation. In other countries, the term 'tourism' is used by official organizations and the word 'travel' is used infrequently in organizational names.

There is also a difference between the use of the terms 'travel' and 'tourism' in academia. Whereas in many countries, such as Australia, New Zealand and the UK, higher education simply adopts the term 'tourism', which in many cases also incorporates areas of specialization in 'hospitality' and '**events**', in the USA, one of the foremost educational institutions in the field is called the School of Travel Industry Management at the University of Hawaii at Manoa, purposefully emphasizing the term 'travel' because the school offers specializations in tourism, hospitality and transport.

The World Tourism Organization and the United Nations Statistical Commission define tourism as 'the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for **leisure**, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited' (Statistics Canada, 2009, p. 11). Travel is thus a broader term than tourism because all forms of tourism are related to travel, but not all travel is for tourism. The movement of people on public transport within their usual living spaces (e.g. work, school, shopping) and study and work trips, even to unusual places – as is the case for immigrants, diplomats or members of the armed forces on missions – are not considered tourism. Movements between the home and a place of work or study are called commuting, not tourism. Commutes are measured in terms of time and space, and may vary from an hour, a day, a week, a month or even several months, in the case of seasonal migrations. In many cases, tourism is still wrongly mistaken as travel for leisure, ignoring other reasons for tourism, such as business and events.

To quantify touristic activities, some countries define minimum distances that must be travelled for a given movement to be considered touristic. In a study developed to measure the socio-economic importance of tourism between 1998 and 2000, the New Zealand Department of Statistics considered a minimum distance of 40 km from a traveller's residence, to distinguish it as touristic travel (Statistics New Zealand, 2001). In Canada, touristic travel is defined as a movement outside a radius of 80 km from a traveller's residence. Thus, tourism is often seen only in its technical, statistical and mechanical aspects, without taking into consideration the subjective factors of travellers or people that should be the key point of the phenomenon and a creator of new socio-cultural human expressions.

Here, it is important to define a traveller as anyone who moves from point A to point B, whether

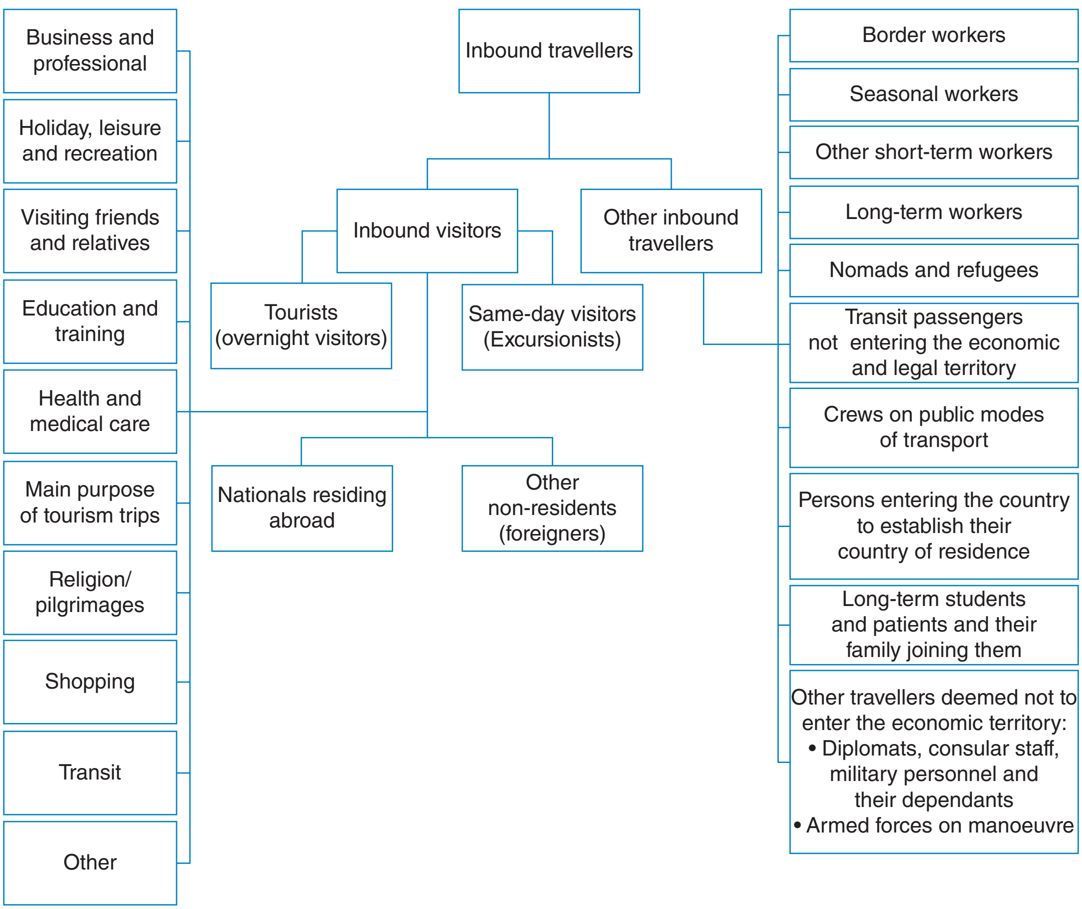

Fig. 8. Classification of inbound travellers. (From United Nations/OMT, 2010, p. 17.)

this movement is temporary or permanent (not considering those who travel within their home area, people who are changing residence, immigrants, refugees, etc.), regardless of the reason for the movement. Within the universe of travellers, there is a subgroup of visitors, included in tourism statistics, which is divided into two categories: tourists (visitors who stay overnight at the place visited) and day trippers (visitors who do not stay overnight at the place visited). Fig. 8 better situates these terms and provides some examples.

Operationalizing

Although travellers and tourists can be distinguished based simply on the reason for travel and whether there is an overnight stay, there are different levels of interactions with a particular locality, even among travellers who are classified as tourists. Lohmann and Pearce (2010) presented numerous possibilities for the functions that different places (**nodal functions**) have in a travel network, including origin, destination, hubs, ports of entry, stops and localities with multiple functions. In a study that sought to understand travellers' and tourists' interactions with different localities, Lohmann and Pearce (2010, 2012) studied the passenger ferries that crossed Cook Strait in New Zealand and presented the theoretical model shown in Fig. 26 (see '**Nodal functions**' entry). Analysing this figure, reflect on the four classifications of tourists proposed there.

Exercise

Considering the above section, what other forms of classification would you propose for travellers, visitors and tourists? What criteria would be fundamental to this classification, in addition to duration of stay, reason for travel and the travel index, as proposed by Lohmann and Pearce (2010)?

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1.7 Food and Beverage

WITH MARIA HENRIQUETA SPERANDIO GARCIA GIMENES-MINASSE

The term 'food and beverage' refers to the set of establishments – such as bars, cafés and restaurants, in their most varied configurations and specialties – dedicated to selling food that is ready to consume at a specific location (Payne-Palacio and Theis, 2015). Food and beverage is a dynamic segment of great importance to the economy of various cities; it has been driven by incorporation of the habit of eating out. It is directly linked to the idea of gastronomy, which is characterized by both 'the art of fine dining' (New Concise Larousse Gastronomy, 2007) and a knowledge area dedicated to the technical and cultural aspects of producing and consuming food.

The word gastronomy appeared in a poem by Archestratus entitled 'Hedypatheia' ('Luxury Life'), written in approximately 350 BC; it identified the best food and drink (especially fish and wine) in the Mediterranean region, associating them with their places of origin. Only 62 fragments of this poem survive, having been cited by Althenaeus in 'Deipnosophistae' ('Banquet of the Sophists'), a work from 228 AD. From a 1623 translation of that work into the French language, the term 'gastronomie' was coined (Pitte, 2002). Its popularization occurred years later, through a poem by Joseph Berchoux called 'La Gastronomie' or 'L'Homme des Champs à Table', published in 1801. In 1835, the word was recognized and included in the dictionary of the Académie Française (New Concise Larousse Gastronomy, 2007).

Gastronomy and its services have great importance in the context of tourism; they can act either as essential services and equipment or as attractions in their own right. Gastronomy also has a strong link to **hospitality**, which is a set of practices associated with welcoming, hosting, feeding and entertaining a visitor (Lashley and Morrison, 2001). Commensality – the act of sharing a food or meal – is one of the basic principles of the idea not only of welcoming but also of establishing and maintaining ties among individuals.

The preparation, service and consumption of food are more than just nutritional acts. As Alvarez (2002) observed, human nutrition is a social and cultural event in which the choice and consumption of food bring into play a whole set of ecological, historical, cultural, social and economic factors; it is connected to a network of representations, rituals and symbolism. For Barthes (1997), food is a form of communication: when an individual purchases, consumes or serves a meal, he is not simply manipulating an object. Instead, food conveys a situation, it has a meaning. Thus, individuals belonging to the same **culture** tend to share eating patterns, turning knowledge associated with food into important identity references, which has great value in the context of contemporary tourism (Richards, 2002). In an increasingly similar world, regional cuisines have revealed themselves to be points of resistance to advances in the food industry and the ongoing threat of standardization, taking the shape of a 'food refuge' (Poulain, 2002). Thus, gastronomy can be a mark of distinction and an element of competitiveness for tourism destinations.

Some countries have already developed the attraction potential of their respective food heritages. Countries such as Spain, France, Italy and Portugal have famous gastronomic regions, such as Andalusia, Burgundy, Tuscany and Porto, respectively. In the same way, other countries, such as Canada (with visits to maple syrup farms) and South Africa (a centre of emerging wine tourism), have developed gastronomic tourism products. However, what is gastronomic tourism? According to Hall and Sharples (2003, p. 10), gastronomic tourism can be understood as 'visitation to primary and secondary food producers, food festivals, restaurants and specific locations for which food tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of specialist food production region are the primary motivating factor for travel'. In English, the terms 'food tourism', 'culinary tourism' and 'cuisine tourism' are also used, often as synonyms, to characterize this touristic segment.

In terms of tourists' gastronomic interests, Mitchell and Hall (2003) proposed four categories. In the first category, the primary motivation is gastronomic attractions and activities at the destination that are largely related to food. In the second category, gastronomic attractions play some role in the choice of destination. In the third category, visitors have little interest in gastronomy and seek out gastronomic attractions because they are considered different. The fourth and last category includes visitors who have little to no interest in gastronomy and who frequent bars, restaurants and the like because they need to eat.

It is also important to mention that gastronomy and its services can add value to other tourist services and equipment. On ocean cruises, for example, the food and beverage area is a star attraction, guaranteeing limitless meals (such as breakfast, brunch, lunch, afternoon tea, dinner and supper, as well as other options 24 hours a day) that meet an international standard of quality. In the hotel industry, renowned restaurants also become important differentials, such as the legendary restaurant of Alain Ducasse at the Plaza Athénée hotel in Paris (Alain Ducasse au Plaza Athénée). In the same way, good coffee break, lunch, dinner or cocktail services are critical to the success of technical/scientific **events**, whether offered at hotels or convention centres.

Concepts related to food and beverage

The following are definitions of some of the concepts related to food and beverage:

- *Bar*: a business establishment whose focus is on offering drinks, accompanied by snacks or less complex meals. In different cultures, bars are a place for people to meet and socialize. A bar can become a **tourist attraction** based on different characteristics such as history, location and menu, among others.
- *Catering*: providing meals (with different levels of complexity) that are ready for consumption in places that are not food and beverage establishments, such as meals on different types of **transport** and at event venues.
- *Kitchen*: designates a place for preparing food.
- *Cuisine*: characterizes the cooking style of a locality (e.g. French cuisine) or gastronomic school (e.g. molecular cuisine).
- *Culinary*: characterizes both a locality's set of recipes (similar in meaning to the word cuisine) or the techniques used in the different processes of transforming ingredients.
- *Foodie*: an individual with an active interest in gastronomy, who eats, drinks and learns about food and beverages as a form of **entertainment**.
- *Nutrition*: a biological process by which the body is able to ingest and absorb nutrients and/or the knowledge area dedicated to studying this process.
- *Restaurant*: a commercial establishment dedicated to supplying meals that are ready to eat *in loco*. It can be developed in different ways, for any number of **demands**. Restaurants can become tourist attractions based on numerous characteristics, such as history, location, chef and menu, among others.
- *Gastronomic tourism*: in short, tourism motivated by the gastronomic experience.

Operationalizing

Spain has consistently released information on its gastronomic heritage. The country's official website has an area dedicated to gastronomy (http://www.spain.info/en/que-quieres/gastronomia) from a cultural perspective. It includes an interactive map of regional cuisines, information about Spanish wines (indicating wine routes and advice for activities associated with the wine universe), traditional recipes and gastronomic products, gastronomic markets and frequently asked questions, along with events and gastronomic routes around the country. There are two other websites that deserve mention: one is from the brand Saborea España, which promotes destinations and dining experiences in Spain (http://www.tastingspain.com), and the other is from Rutas del Vino de España (http://www.wineroutesofspain.com) and is dedicated to wine tourism.

Exercises

1. Look at your city or region and list the most traditional foods and beverages. Reflect on the potential of these elements and indicate the actions necessary to make your region a gastronomic tourism destination.

2. Search for websites promoting gastronomic tourism destinations and try to understand how each destination's gastronomy is promoted, especially with respect to typical food and drink. Can some of these strategies be adapted to your region?

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1.8 Events

Planned events are of particular interest in the area of tourism (Marris, 1987; Faulkner *et al.*, 2000; Getz, 2000; Gursoy and Kendall, 2006; Getz, 2008; Nelson, 2013). They can either occur once or repeat with a certain frequency, either at the same location or at different locations. According to Getz (2008, p. 403), one of the most prominent researchers on the topic, 'events are an important motivator of tourism and figure prominently in the development and marketing plans of most destinations'. Obviously, not all events are oriented to the tourism sector: many have local motivations or scopes and are focused on residents.

According to Getz (2000), the primary event categories include cultural celebrations (festivals, carnivals, celebrations and religious parades), arts and **entertainment** (concerts and other performances, exhibitions and award ceremonies), business and trade (fairs, exhibitions, conventions, meetings and conferences), sports competitions (professional and amateur, either as a spectator or a participant), educational and scientific (seminars and workshops, congresses and conferences), politics and governmental commemorations (inaugurations, visits of personalities and political events), recreational (sports or games for fun) and private events (weddings and social parties).

Getz (2008) addressed tourist events according to their definitions, evolution and study. He developed a portfolio of events to evaluate such events, classifying them according to their added value, here defined in terms of quality, **sustainability**, community support, image projection and economic benefits, among others:

- *Occasional mega-events*: generating high tourist **demand** with high added value (e.g. the Summer Olympics, the Winter Olympics and the FIFA World Cup).
- *Hallmark events*: may or may not be held regularly and may have great significance in terms of tradition, attractiveness, quality or advertising. In some cases, these events can become intrinsically related to a **tourism destination**, as is the case of the Rio Carnival (Rio de Janeiro), the Salzburg Music Festival and Munich's Oktoberfest.
- *Regional events*: these events may attract an average number of visitors, including tourists living in the same region who spend the night because of the event. As with local events, many regional events can lead to conflict insofar as their communitarian and cultural appeals may be affected by tourist development and the high number of visitors.
- *Local events*: as with the two previous types of events, these events can be held regularly or only once. They attract a small number of local residents and many have few positive socio-economic impacts.

Tourism professionals are usually involved with four types of business and commercial events, which are known as MICE: Meetings, Incentive Travel, Conventions and Exhibitions. These events are closely associated with the business tourism segment and can be distinguished as follows (Lawson, 2000):

- *Meetings*: the primary reason for this type of event is the need for people to communicate in a personalized way, particularly to solve problems and seek innovations, and to exchange ideas and points of view. Companies usually hold meetings away from their premises to discuss sales strategies, promote sales, conduct training seminars or have shareholder meetings. Similarly, institutions and associations hold meetings or technical seminars. The atmosphere of the meeting rooms located in hotels or even convention centres is suitable for this type of meeting, offering a level of comfort and services generally not found on the premises of the entities that organized the meeting.
- *Incentive travel*: methods of motivating and/or rewarding employees in a company or organization

with trips for which all expenses are employer-paid. It is common to have a predefined social schedule, and in some cases there may be meetings with company directors and small conferences. Such trips can also be an opportunity to improve a team's working relationship because employees participate in experiences together in an environment outside of work. In many cases, the aim is also to increase the participants' loyalty to the company/organization for which they work.

- *Conventions*: this term refers broadly to meetings of associations or organizations (including political parties) whose members attend to discuss specific issues. They typically occur at least once per year and involve general sessions providing information on a particular theme or subject. Congresses are meetings that discuss specific issues of a professional, scientific or cultural nature, bringing together, for example, doctors, economists, engineers, academics and researchers.
- *Exhibitions*: the presentation or demonstration of products and services that are of particular interest to a certain audience (whether open to the general public or only to professionals). Exhibitions can be permanent or organized temporarily for a particular occasion. The main advantages of trade exhibitions – also known as fairs – include promoting opportunities to drive sales, establishing contacts with influential people (press, distributors and vendors) and constructing a product's image. They also provide an opportunity for vendors to explain and demonstrate their products and services directly to potential buyers in a single place, providing a better cost–benefit ratio for the launch of new products.

The different characteristics of these events imply a diversity of infrastructures to support them. They require meeting and presentation rooms of various sizes, a reception hall, a concert hall, a kitchen, medical facilities, security, ample bathrooms, an exhibition hall, large spaces to position exhibitors' stands, aisles for the circulation of people, parking, etc. There also must be areas to support the event, such as loading bays, offices, spaces to store materials and products to be marketed at the event, a media room and a computer centre. To be functional and maximize their uses, the spaces need to be adapted so that they can be configured in numerous ways, ranging from a configuration in which the spaces are all integrated to accommodate a large event to one in which the spaces are divided into smaller halls to accommodate smaller, simultaneous events.

From the standpoint of tourism destinations, hosting events is a great opportunity to generate visitors during the off-season and to promote a tourism destination through media exposure. Examples include the Olympic Games, the Super Bowl, the Rugby World Cup and the FIFA World Cup (Gursoy *et al.*, 2004; Gursoy and Kendall, 2006; Kim *et al.*, 2006). Events also provide entertainment and leisure opportunities for residents through community events.

The city of Barcelona, Spain, was a popular tourism destination in the 1980s, but it only emerged as a tourism destination on the world stage with the 1992 Olympics. The infrastructure built in the city, combined with its marketing campaign, is seen to this day as an example of how to develop a tourism destination (Abebe *et al.*, 2014). Obviously, critiques and impacts of this mass tourism exist, as described in the documentary film 'Bye Bye Barcelona' (http://www.byebyebarcelona.com).

Getz (1997) states that attracting events requires numerous resources not only for the destination to actually be chosen but also for the event itself, including financial resources, natural resources (to hold events or as attractions for visitors in their free time), cultural resources, human resources, infrastructure resources (not only convention centres but also hotels, **transport** hubs and tourist attractions) and technological and political resources (not only to support and cooperate with the main events but also to involve societal participation).

Events can be a pretext to induce the arrival of visitors, and many tourism organizations have done so intelligently. Worldwide, there are various organizations that specialize in attracting events to destinations, generally known as convention and visitors bureaus (CVBs). CVBs are non-governmental, non-profit, independent organizations that are not affiliated to any political party and that work to attract events to a particular city, state or region and to strengthen the destination's economy through tourism.

Events are increasingly specialized, and thus the area of event studies has also become specialized. Researchers focus on understanding mega-events and supporting the local community during such events (Gursoy *et al.*, 2004; Gursoy and Kendall, 2006; Kim *et al.*, 2006; Prayag *et al.*, 2013), the impact of events on destinations (Collins *et al.*, 2009; Andersson and Lundberg, 2013; Jönsson, 2014; Kim *et al.*, 2015) and volunteering at mega-events (Elstad, 1996; Cuskelly *et al.*, 2004; Gallarza *et al.*, 2013; Alexander *et al.*, 2015), among other topics. There is also a range of scientific journals focused on this topic, such as *Event Management* (Cognisant Communication), the *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events* (Taylor and Francis), the *International Journal of Event Management Research* (School of Tourism, Sport and Hotel Management, Griffith Business School, Griffith University, Australia) and the *International Journal of Event and Festival Management* (Emerald).

Exercises

1. Visit the site of the Suntec Singapore Convention and Exhibition Centre (http://www.suntecsingapore.com) and observe the different types of architectural environments for receiving and accommodating a wide range of events.

2. Identify major events in your city and region. Evaluate the structure to receive these events in terms of their suitability. Discuss the structure and suitability with your classmates and evaluate whether events held in these spaces in recent years have brought more positive or negative impacts for the community in the city and region.

3. Although widely coveted due to their global importance, sporting mega-events are often used as a form of corruption via the construction of pharaonic works, especially in countries with a historically poor use of public resources (e.g. Brazil). Discuss the possible disadvantages of events of this size either in class or in a discussion list.

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1.9 Landscape

Landscape is a concept and priority object of study in geography. For Tuan (1980), the Dutch term *landschap* is one of the origins of the term landscape; it designates common places. When the term began to be used in England in the late 16th century, it acquired a meaning related to art. 'Landscape came to mean a panorama observed from a given point. Then, the artistic representation of this panorama. Landscape was also the backdrop of official portraits; the "scenery" of a "pose"' (Tuan, 1980, p. 153).

For Georg Simmel (2009/1913), what the eye selected to compose a landscape was not landscape but instead the material that comprises it. Only when a unifying concept is applied to this material does landscape emerge. It was only possible to understand landscape when it came to be observed as something different from nature. Therefore, for this author, the understanding of landscape was something invented. This is why there was no 'sense of landscape' (Simmel, 2009/1913) in antiquity and the Middle Ages; it was something that was created only later.

According to its macrocharacteristics, landscape is commonly divided into natural landscape and landscape transformed by man. A natural landscape is one that has not been changed by man's actions, e.g. a virgin forest, a valley or an uninhabited desert. A landscape transformed by man has experienced human interference, such as cities, agricultural fields or a hydroelectric dam.

One should, however, consider that, at all times, the landscape is experiencing natural (and not necessarily human) changes, such as high tides, the effects of rain, snow, wind and sun, and the growth of vegetation, which will transform over time. Landscape is not static, but permanently changing. As Santos (2004, p. 54) argues, 'Landscape is the result of an accumulation of time.'

The term landscape is also applied to paintings, photos, documents and images that represent or seek to represent a view. Various intellectuals such as architects, painters, writers and sculptors have been concerned with landscape in their studies, and thus the reference to the 'world of make believe', emphasized by Tuan (1980), i.e. the artistic representation of landscape.

For Santos (2004, p. 103), 'landscape is the set of forms that, at a given moment, express the heritages that represent the successive localised relations between man and nature. Space is these forms and the life that animates them.'

There are many different ways to analyse and evaluate landscape. Geographers and scholars have used satellite images, aerial photographs taken at different altitudes, fractal models (from the light and heat reflection of digitized images) and numerous geotechnologies available on the market, such as geographic information systems (GIS), global positioning systems (GPS), digital mapping, aerial photography, satellite remote sensing and surveying. Landscape is also observed based on different approaches: for a physical geographer, landscape is the main element of soil surveys; for an urbanist, it is the possibility of transformation; for an advertiser, it is a digitally edited image that will illustrate an advertising piece; and for a tourism professional, it is a scene to be appreciated, consumed and enjoyed.

Different authors have been working to study the elements that comprise landscape, but they have not always reached a consensus. Escribano Bombí (1987) proposed the following elements as components of landscape:

- Land form.
- Water.
- Vegetation.
- Artificial structures and elements.

Boullón (2002), in turn, presented the following as the basic elements of landscape:

- *Topography*: relief and morphology of the terrain.
- *Vegetation*: original and planted.
- *Climate*: perceptible atmospheric situations.

- *Habitat*: the effects of man's action and living conditions of the biotic world.

Other authors have proposed studying landscape from its main components:

- *Physical*: mountains, rivers and topography.
- *Biological*: fauna and flora.
- *Anthropogenic*: ways to use the soil.

Landscape is known and understood by the human intellect through odour, temperature, sound and touch; undoubtedly, however, man has the most complete and real perception of landscape through vision. The visual properties of landscape (see Fig. 9), according to Escribano Bombín (1987), are outlined in the following items:

- *Shape*: the volume or surface of an object or objects that appear unified, by both the configuration they present on the ground's surface and their location on the landscape.
- *Colour*: defined by pigmentation (green, blue, yellow, etc.), through which they are divided into warm or cold colours in terms of their shades and brightness. Colour is the primary visual property of a surface.
- *Line*: the real or imaginary path perceived by the observer when there are abrupt differences among colour, shape and texture or when objects have a unidirectional sequence.
- *Texture*: the aggregation of shapes and colours perceived as variations or irregularities of a solid surface.
- *Scale*: the relationship between the size of the object and the surroundings in which it is situated.
- *Space*: determined by the three-dimensional organization of solids and voids or gaps in the scene.

The list above refers only to elements that can be observed by the human eye; however, landscape can be perceived in many other ways. In this sense,

Fig. 9. Partial view of the Papagayo Gulf, Costa Rica, 2013. (Photo courtesy of Alexandre Panosso Netto.)

Boullón (2002), examining the natural landscape (not considering landscape changed by man), established a framework for the sensory components of images of the natural landscape, which can also be applied to landscapes modified by man, as Table 3 shows.

Sensory components, such as shape (of forests, bays, clouds and plains), colour (of vegetation, clouds, earth), light (sun and shadows caused by clouds) and atmosphere (cloudy and overcast, clear with the midday sun), among others, are easily identified in the landscape captured in Fig. 9.

Landscape is largely responsible for the practice of tourism because man has always had the desire to visit new places, i.e. new landscapes. Gunn (1979) defined a tourism landscape as the physical and visual environment used in all touristic activities. This landscape includes the context and infrastructure of tourism development, such as **transport** and other services for tourists at destinations.

According to Terkenli (2004), based on its tangible and experiential character, landscape is the most significant geographical environment for analysing the relationships that develop between the tourist and the site visited. Tourism researchers have also begun to understand that the quality of recreational and touristic experiences depends not only on individual context and tourism infrastructure but also on the social and geographical environment (Ringer, 2011). In this sense, there is a complex relationship between tourism and landscape, between the tourist and the place visited. According to Terkenli (2004), this complexity of perceptions of time and space causes research on landscape in tourism to require an interpretation that considers the context in which it is placed; it cannot be separated from its historical and socio-cultural context or from its relationship with the observer.

Table 3. Sensorial components of natural landscape image. (From Boullón, 2002.)

Category	Examples
Form	Plants, lakes, rivers, bushes, animals, clouds
Smell	Flowers, trees, crops, sea, air
Colour	Sky, rocks, snow
Light	Shadows, brightness, reflections
Texture	Water, tree trunks, soil
Sound	Birds, insects, wind, ice
Temperature	Water, air, bushes, shade
Atmosphere	Sunset, sunrise, humidity

The study of landscape is of great importance for **tourism marketing** because landscape is defined by the observer. Thus, the definition of landscape is something that is perceived with the movement of an eye in space and time; it is full of historical and cultural components, and its meaning will depend on the observer in question.

Since before the beginning of modern and organized tourism, landscape has been one of the main attractions. **Urry** (2002) emphasized this aspect when recalling that the classical Grand Tour, based on a more neutral observer perspective, gave rise to what he called the 'Romantic Grand Tour', which was focused on landscape and the search for a particular and impassioned experience of the beauty of nature.

Krippendorf (1977) was one of the first authors to make a scathing critique of the paradox inherent to tourists being attracted by landscapes while simultaneously destroying them. His analysis is described in *Les Devoreurs de Paysages* in which he criticizes tourists' attitudes, the impact they have on natural destinations, and tourism advertising campaigns that promise what they cannot deliver and offer idealized tourism destinations that do not exist.

Aoun (2001) studied images of tourism destinations in three tourism publications, and in most of these images, the selling point ('the most beautiful', 'paradise on earth', 'the best place in the world') was related to a photo of a beautiful place, at its best angle, with its best morning light and observed from above. In other words, the landscape (in this case, a photographic image that has been digitally edited) was being used as a **tourist attraction**.

The perception of a landscape will always depend on its observer. A rural landscape, with fruit and grain crops, and bulls and cows, can be delightful for someone who spends their holidays away from the city in which they live. However, this same landscape may be common, monotonous and even oppressive for the rural worker, who has to wake up every morning before sunrise to milk cows, feed the animals and take care of the crops. This simple example shows why tourism advertising must understand its target audience.

Tour guides and printed guidebooks generally pre-read the landscape for tourists, a factor that limits and conditions the perception and possibility of new and original sensory and mental experiences, as the tourist's vision will be preconditioned and preconceived. Furthermore, guidebooks have already defined the places that will be visited, further limiting the possibilities of new tourist experiences and the knowledge of landscapes outside of the predefined circuit. In this sense, the tourist's perception of a destination's **hospitality** will also be affected; it will not be a fully 'authentic' perception because the tourist does not know the place as a whole, only the sites that are selected and prepared for his visit.

Exercise

In groups, choose a photo of a natural or artificial landscape. Individually, without allowing your groupmates to read your answer, list all of the elements that you can see in the picture. Next, compare your responses with those of your groupmates. After this exercise, discuss with the group why tourists perceive landscapes and tourism destinations so differently.

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1.10 Authenticity in Tourism

WITH YONÁ DA SILVA DALONSO

Authenticity is a modern concept that has been widely debated by tourism scholars, generating numerous and diverse discussions over the past four decades, as evidenced by the enormous amount of literature available on the subject (MacCannell, 1973, 1976, 1989; Cohen, 1988, 2012; Urry, 1990; Boorstin, 1992; Hughes, 1995; Pretes, 1995; Wang, 1999). The original use of the concept of authenticity in tourism arose from museums and was later extended to other cultural products such as arts, rituals, festivals, food and clothing (Trilling, 1972).

In a study developed by Sharpley (1994), authenticity in tourism refers to traditional **culture** and its origin, in the sense of being true, real and unique. Sharpley believed that this search for authenticity is directly related to nostalgia, in which longing for the past is fuelled by dissatisfaction with the present or fear for the future. Thus, he considered the search for authenticity in tourism as based around the myth and fantasy of a cultural ideal (Sharpley, 1994).

Wang (1999) distinguished authenticity in tourism in two respects: one related to the tourist experience (or authentic/existential experiences) and the other referring to the toured objects, also called objective and constructive (or symbolic) authenticity. Despite the proposed decoupling of the tourist experience and the toured objects, Wang suggested that the terms can co-exist. In this sense, the **tourist experience** is not necessarily concerned with the authenticity of the toured objects.

As an example, Wang (1999) proposed an analysis of tourists who go on walks in the desert or who do so alone. In this type of tourism, tourists are not concerned with finding the authentic toured object but with the authenticity of the lived experience on the journey. For them, involvement in unusual activities, free from the restrictions of daily life, becomes much more relevant. In this case, the existential experience involves personal feelings that are characterized as more authentic for the tourist than visiting toured objects.

Postmodern approaches to tourism's authenticity are characterized by their own deconstruction, albeit postmodern researchers do not consider a lack of authenticity to be problematic (Urry, 1990; Wang, 1999; Hall, 2007; Heitmann, 2011; Cohen, 2012; Brown, 2013; Shim, 2013).

In the semiotic view of Eco (1986), which is based on the concept of hyperreality, touristic authenticity is visual: if something seems real, then it is real. It is irrelevant whether this 'something' has a history that confirms its authenticity. Hyperreality proposes that life is made of signs, representations or simulations of an event or an idea. Therefore, the representation of a touristic event, for example, even if it is untrue, will be seen by the tourist observer as authentic or real, as Pretes (1995) confirms. From this postmodern perspective, tourism becomes goods to be consumed, where the tourist consumes images or representations of a certain society (Pretes, 1995). However, tourism is not only goods. The proposal of **postmodernity** is now added to the concept of hypermodernity. The latter emphasizes the values of postmodernity even more strongly, supporting technological advances, and the overvaluation of individualism, rationality and indifference (Lipovetsky and Charles, 2004).

Therefore, fantasy and the possibility of experimentation are basic components of tourism's successful positioning in the minds of tourists. Discussion regarding the experience economy represents a fundamental revolution, a break with traditional forms of tourism.

The tourism sector is not isolated from this discussion, not only because its survival depends on understanding the changes experienced by society but also because 'the consumer of tourism and the context in which it is integrated currently have characteristics that favour experience and lead us to think about the authenticity of products and services' (Panosso Netto and Gaeta, 2010, p. 14).

According to the relationship between authenticity in tourism and the tourism of experience established by Wang (1999), it is clear that any touristic activity will generate an experience, either positive or negative. Therefore, tourism planners strive to make the experience positive or, instead, both unexpected and unforgettable.

For the postmodernists Reisinger and Steiner (2006), authenticity is irrelevant to tourists, who neither value nor suspect it, instead considering it as a mere marketing strategy. The tourist is not concerned with the barriers between real and fake, original and copy, or reality and symbol. Thus, authenticity is a projection made by the tourists themselves according to their beliefs, expectations, preferences, stereotypical images and awareness gained from their experiences during the trip (objects and places visited). In this sense, authenticity is not based on a true evaluation of the native people; instead, it is constructed from the tourist's awareness. Thus, authenticity is always relative and depends on context (Reisinger and Steiner, 2006).

Wang (1999) proposed a rethink of the authenticity of tourist experiences according to a discussion based on three approaches: objectivism, constructivism and postmodernism. Although the concept of authenticity is widely used, its ambiguities and limitations have been frequently demonstrated insofar as they expand studies on the theme. For Schudson (1979), Stephen (1990) and **Urry** (1990), the usefulness of tourists' experiences or motivations cannot be explained from the conventional concept of authenticity.

Thus, tourist practices such as visiting friends and relatives, nature tourism and activities such as shopping or playing sports are not related to the concept of authenticity proposed by MacCannell (1973). For other types of tourism, such as cultural tourism and ethnic tourism, authenticity is an important factor insofar as those types of tourism involve the representation of the other or the past. For Wang (1999), postmodernism is not a single, unanimous approach. On the contrary, there is a diversity of approaches related to the postmodern paradigm (Hollinshead, 2002).

For Hall (2007), the lack of authenticity or falsity is, therefore, essentially an attempt to replicate meanings. In this context, the role of experience is particularly important because of its ability to provide shared meanings through shared experiences. Thus, the notion of authenticity should not be used for things or places but instead derived from the individual's connection with the perception of the everyday world, the environment and the processes generating consequences from these interrelationships (Dovey, 1985).

It is important to consider that authenticity in tourism is, for the most part, evaluated according to the tourist's perception, based on a comparison between spaces and elements that are part of tourist attractions, whether original or traditional. In this sense, the concept of authenticity is much more strongly associated with the search for touristic experiences, characterized as an important marketing element for promoting the touristic consumption of destinations. However, analysing the authenticity of tourism from a broader perspective that considers the different actors (tourists, the government and residents) can be characterized as making an important contribution to evaluating the primary impacts of tourism on the **tourism destination** (Getz, 1998; Cole, 2007; Hall, 2007).

Finally, authenticity in tourism is far from a consensual topic. Because authenticity is a complex concept open to differing interpretations, it is addressed from different perspectives in the literature, given its importance in the context of touristic activity (Hughes, 1995; Getz, 1998; Wang, 1999; Reisinger and Steiner, 2006; Cole, 2007; Hall, 2007; Lau, 2010; Shepherd, 2015). In this sense, the development of new studies and the application of these theories appear to be strategic tools for a greater understanding of the touristic phenomenon at destinations.

Operationalizing

Sincerity and Authenticity is a book by Lionel Trilling based on a series of lectures that he delivered in 1970 at Harvard University, which were published in 1972 by Harvard University Press. In this work, Trilling sought to explain the terms 'sincerity' and 'authenticity', although with no clear and concise definition. However, the author used the formula 'remain true to oneself' to characterize the modern ideal of authenticity, and differentiated it from the old ideal that one had to be a morally sincere person. To construct the work, Trilling drew on a wide range of literature to defend his thesis, citing a number of Western writers and thinkers from the past 500 years.

Exercise

In groups of two or three, select a case study that discusses authenticity in tourism with respect to a particular destination. Then, determine whether there has been an evolution in the analysis of tourism's authenticity for the locality analysed. Use the references listed below as a foundation for your research.

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Section 2: Disciplines and Areas of Study

2.1 Jafari's Interdisciplinary Model

Jafar Jafari[1] is the founder of the scientific journal *Annals of Tourism Research*, which has been published in English since 1973 and in Spanish since 1999. He also edited two editions of the *Encyclopaedia of Tourism* (published by Routledge in 2000 and Springer in 2016) and is a co-founder of the International Academy for the Study of Tourism (http://www.tourismscholars.org) and the Tourism Research Information Network (TRINET, founded in 1988), an international online list for discussing tourism. He is probably one of the best-known tourism scholars in the world.

Jafari's article 'Toward a framework for tourism education – problems and prospects', published with Brent Ritchie in 1981, contains a chart that attempts to explain how tourism knowledge is produced at the university through interdisciplinarity. Although the article was written by both authors, the model was conceived by Jafari in 1981.

According to the model, 'tourism studies' is the centre of discussion at a university tourism department (Fig. 10). The disciplines (sciences) that study tourism are located around that circle and originate in other departments, which contribute their analyses to the interpretation of the touristic phenomenon. Thus, for example, the **economics** of tourism discipline would be located in the economics department, which would provide the theoretical foundation for studying the economic aspects of tourism.

Originally, in 1981, this chart presented 16 disciplines. In a later study, however, Jafari (2005) added the departments of religion and history, bringing the number of disciplines studying tourism to 18 (Fig. 10).

Jafari and Ritchie (1981) considered it best to study tourism using a transdisciplinary approach. However, given the many limitations implied by this approach (university costs, greater integration among professors, greater dedication from scholars), these authors suggested that it would be best to accept the multidisciplinary or interdisciplinary model in tourism studies. According to education theorists, the forms of knowledge production, or rather, how an object can be scientifically studied (within the parameters of the discipline or disciplines that are used to study this object), can be classified as follows:

- *Disciplinary*: only one discipline studies the problem or object, using its own foundations, and there is no interaction with other disciplines or sciences.
- *Multidisciplinary*: various disciplines study the problem with little or no integration.
- *Interdisciplinary*: various integrated disciplines study the problem and reach only one conclusion. They share and divide knowledge, and the work is done together.
- *Transdisciplinary*: beyond disciplines. Teaching begins with the problem, and disciplines are invited to answer questions. This is the deepest integration that can exist among disciplines.
- *Extradisciplinary*: this occurs when knowledge is produced in practice, in daily working life and outside academic circles, such as universities. For example, consider the knowledge produced in relationships between customers and travel agents within an agency, as noted by Tribe (1997).

Jafari (1990) is also known for a study on trends in tourism knowledge, which was updated in more recent publications (1994 and 2005). According to Jafari, since the 1950s, tourism has passed through five stages of study, which he termed platforms of tourism thought.

The first stage was the advocacy platform, which stated that tourism development brings foreign currency, creates jobs and is good for the economy. This platform addressed an initial period, when only the positive impacts of tourism were being emphasized. It spread through articles, books and documents from the World Tourism Organization (WTO), among other associations.

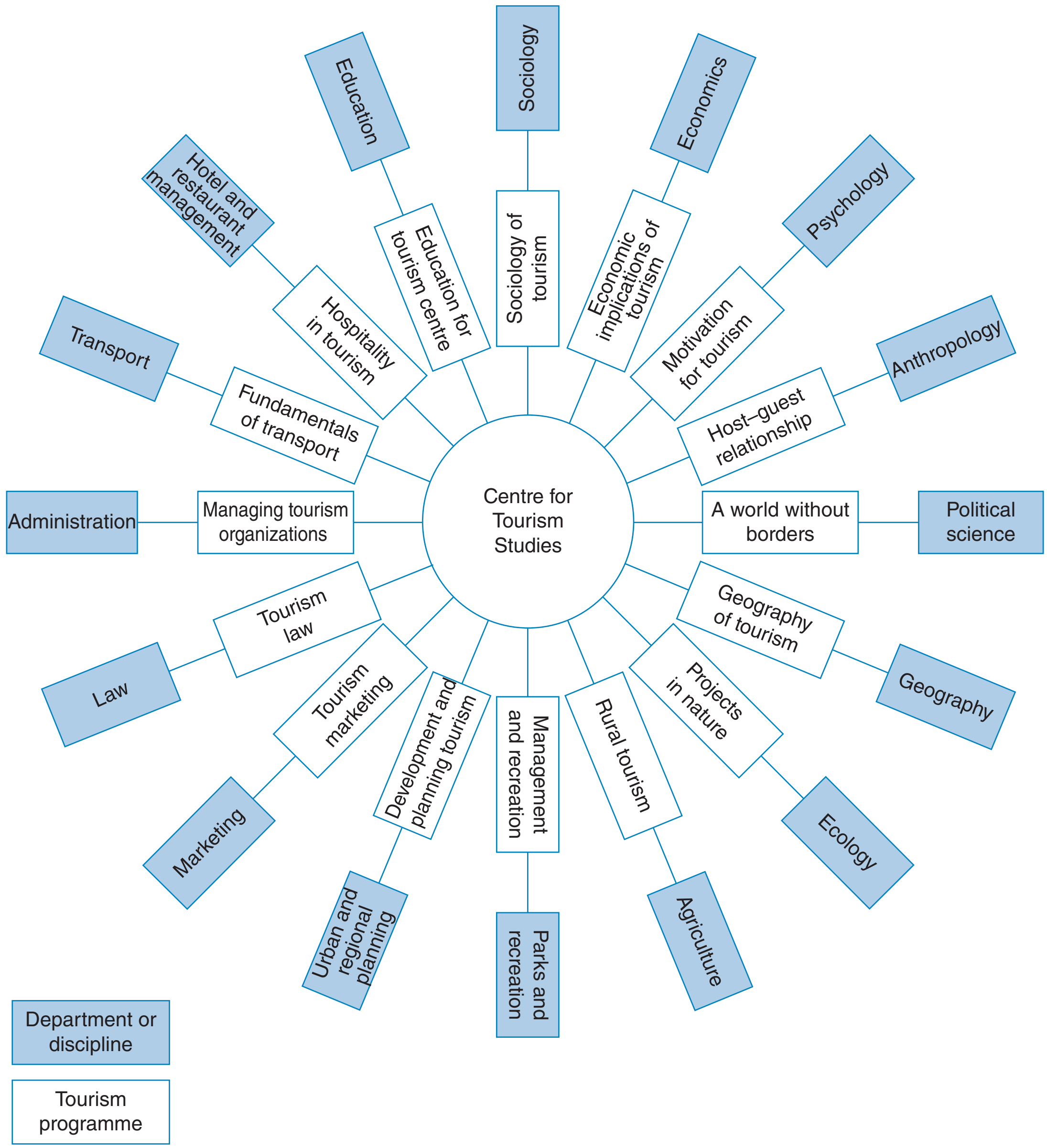

Fig. 10. Jafari's interdisciplinary model of knowledge production in tourism. (From Jafari, 2005.)

The second stage was the cautionary platform, which highlighted the negative and harmful sides of tourism, viewing it as a destroyer of local culture and natural resources, caring only about tourists, overlooking the local community's needs and causing conflicts. This platform spread primarily through publications that were not linked to tourism. This was the period when tourism's negative impacts were highlighted. A comparison between these first two platforms is shown in Table 4.

The third stage was the adaptancy platform. This was the period when good and bad stories about tourism had already been told; it was therefore a time when different forms of tourism could be chosen. Options such as adventure tourism, agritourism,

Table 4. Positions of advocacy and cautionary platforms on tourism's impacts. (From Jafari, 2003, p. 8.)

Advocacy platform		Cautionary platform	
Economic examples	Socio-cultural examples	Economic examples	Socio-cultural examples
Tourism is labour intensive:	Tourism broadens education	Tourism causes inflation	Tourism contributes to misunderstanding
Full-time	Promotes international peace and understanding	Results in high leakage	Generate stereotypes of the host and guest
Seasonal	Breaks down:	Has seasonality and contributes to unemployment	Leads to xenophobia
Unskilled	Language barriers	Is susceptible to change, rumour, spread of diseases, economic fluctuation	Results in social pollution
Generates foreign exchange	Socio-cultural barriers	Results in unbalanced economic development	Commercializes culture, religion and the arts
Can be built on existing infrastructure	Class barriers	Leads to extraneous dependency	Threatens family structure
Can be developed with local products and services	Racial barriers	Increases demonstration effects	Contributes to prostitution
Spreads development	Political barriers	Destroys resources and creates visual pollution	Increases instances of crime
Complements production of other economic activities	Religious barriers		Conduces conflicts in the host society
Has high multiplier affect	Gender barriers		
	Reinforces preservation of heritage and tradition		
	Promotes worldview/membership in the global community		
	Enhances appreciation of one's culture		

cultural tourism, ecotourism and nature tourism, among others, gained prominence.

The fourth stage was the knowledge-based platform. Jafari identified this stage as the one in which a body of knowledge about tourism studies had been created, and thus many universities had opened their doors to the topic. Numerous academic meetings took place, new tourism journals and books emerged, and the multidisciplinary approach began to be used in tourism studies.

The fifth and most recent stage was the public platform. In Jafari's (2005) opinion, during this period of history, tourism gained visibility and occupied a place on the agenda of the non-specialized public because of the outbreak of severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) and the terrorist attacks of 11 September, 2001 (New York and Washington, DC, USA) and 11 March, 2003 (Madrid, Spain). Furthermore, the WTO had been transformed into a United Nations agency, further highlighting the importance of tourism in today's society.

According to Macbeth (2005), an alternative fifth platform is emerging, although it is still in the early stages: sustainable development. Macbeth also considered the existence and reinforcement of a sixth platform: **ethics**. The current number of platforms and the number of platforms that will be created or identified in the future remain a subject of debate among experts in the field.

Operationalizing

John **Urry** (2002, p. 1–2) analysed how the tourist gaze is formed and how it has changed over time. His book is an excellent study that helps us understand what these changes were and how they occurred. The passage below illustrates this topic:

> There is no single tourist gaze as such. It varies by society, by social group and by historical period. Such gazes are constructed through difference. By this we mean not merely that there is no universal experience that is true for all tourists at all times. There are many ways of gazing within tourism, and tourists look at 'difference' differently. This is in part because tourist gazes are structured according to class, gender, ethnicity and age. Moreover, the gaze in any historical period is constructed in relationship to its opposite, to non-tourist forms of social experience and consciousness. What makes a particular tourist gaze depends upon what it is contrasted with; what the forms of non-tourist experience happen to be. The gaze therefore presupposes a system of social activities and signs which locate the particular tourist practices, not in terms of some intrinsic characteristics, but through the contrasts implied with non-tourist social practices, particularly those based within home and paid work.

Exercise

The population's perception of the touristic phenomenon has changed over time. What factors have caused these changes? Has your opinion of the touristic phenomenon changed since you became interested in and began to study tourism? Try to explain how and why these changes have occurred.

Note

[1] To learn more about Jafar Jafari's contribution to tourism studies, see Xiao, H. (2013).

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2.2 Ethics in Tourism

WITH CYNTHIA MENEZES MELLO

The common-sense use of the term 'ethics' is linked to the distinction between what is right and wrong. Because of the complexity of human relationships, individuals often use the word ethics to justify their choices and attitudes. The fact is, 'ethics' is a broad term. A more direct definition provides that 'ethics is the theory or science of man's moral behaviour in society. In other words, it is the science of a specific form of human behaviour' (Vázquez, 2012, p. 23). For Lalande (1999, p. 348), it is the 'science that engages in the judgement of appraisal, as it applies to the distinction between good and evil', while for Abbagnano (1999, p. 380), it is the 'science of conduct'. Although it is common in society at large for ethics to be confused with morals (behaviour), there is a consensus that ethics is the subject that studies such behaviours, along with value judgements about those behaviours, in a particular society and historical time.

Ethics is a discipline, a part of philosophy 'that is dedicated to thinking about human actions and their foundations', taking as a central axis for its considerations the recognition of the existence of an 'other' (Gallo, 2003 p. 54). Although the terms 'morals' and 'ethics' are often used interchangeably, they are distinct terms with different meanings (see Table 5). Ethics is the part of philosophy that analyses the conceptions, principles and values that guide human interactions in societies. Morals is the 'set of norms or rules acquired through habits' and refers 'to the behaviour acquired or way of being achieved by man' (Vázquez, 2012, p. 24). Morals is human behaviour, its norms and rules in a given society; ethics is the science that studies these elements. From this perspective, 'ethics is the science of morals' (Vázquez, 2012, p. 23). A person is said to be moral if he or she acts in accordance with the customs, norms and rules of his or her social and cultural group. For Rios (2002), what is considered good or bad for a particular society is problematised within the domain of ethics. Values accepted by this society are also questioned, and therefore, ethics is also exercised through critique.

Any and all practical ethical constructions are based on the assumption that they only emerge when the 'other' appears before us. This other can be the person themselves who looks within and analyses their conscience, capturing the appeals that manifest in themselves as hate, love, compassion, solidarity, and willingness to cooperate or to dominate, along with senses of responsibilities. This other can be a person who is in front of us at the moment: a family member, a friend, a co-worker or a tourism professional. The other can likewise be 'others', such as a social class, a community, society itself or, adopting a more comprehensive view, nature and the planet.

From this perspective, it must be acknowledged that all of our actions and their consequences affect not only us but also the other. Consequently, nobody escapes by remaining indifferent to the other. In other words, a person must take a position, and even if they do not position themselves, silencing or showing themselves to be indifferent, they are already standing in front of that other. Ethics thus emerges from the manner in which a relationship is established with these different others; according to Boff (2003a, p. 1), they represent 'a proposal that demands a response,' and it is from this 'confrontation between proposal and response that responsibility emerges'. When we either assume or absolve ourselves from our responsibilities, we 'become an ethical being'.

Boff (2003a, p. 1) adds that the 'other is determinant. Without passing through the other (which can be oneself), all ethics is unethical'. It is therefore not without reason that all religions and ethical traditions, regardless of their **culture**, have established as a founding rule the ethical phrase 'Do not do unto others what you would not have them do unto you.' Stated more positively, 'Do unto others as you would have them do unto you.'

As a global social practice, tourism extends its consequences to social, environmental, cultural and economic settings. In this sense, both the producer and consumer of tourism need to be guided by moral values and behaviours. Ethics in tourism becomes a fundamental issue because it is linked to the behaviour of humans as they assume their roles in the tourist system. According to Lea (1993), scant attention was paid to the subject of tourism-related ethics until the early 1990s; Fennell (1999) suggested that previously there was little scientific research in the field. In subsequent years, Fennell produced important studies on the topic (Fennell, 2006; Fennell and Malloy, 2007). Smith and Duffy (2003) developed extensive work on ethics in tourism, becoming a reference for the area, and Lovelock and Lovelock (2013) broadened the discussion from the critical proposal, analysing the primary ethical issues involving tourism, such as mobility, human rights, sex tourism, tourism in indigenous areas, tourism and the physically disabled, nature tourism, tourism and animals, and tourism and climate change, among others.

Table 5. Distinction between ethics and morals. (Adapted from Rios, 2002; Boff, 2003a,b,c; Srourh, 2003; Vázquez, 2012.)

Ethics	Morals
Principles	Specific aspects of conduct
Permanent	Temporary
Universal	Cultural
Rule	Behaviour of the rule
Theory	Practice

According to Lovelock and Lovelock (2013, p. 6), ethical tourism is the 'tourism in which all stakeholders involved apply principles of good behaviour (justice, fairness, and equality) to their interactions with one another, with society, with the environment, and other life forms.' According to these authors, tourism researchers have only recently become interested in ethics and are motivated by three factors: (i) the 1992 AIEST conference in Paris, at which a committee was created to work on ethical issues in tourism; (ii) the 1992 Rio summit, at which an effort was made to adopt sustainable behaviours and practices relating to the environment; and (iii) the 1998[2] online conference on tourism, which identified priority ethical issues challenging the sector. In general, the issues discussed included both the negative impacts of tourism and how those impacts could be minimized by everyone involved in the field of travel and tourism.

According to Speed (2008), ethical tourism is not a type of tourism in and of itself; instead, it is a concept that is present in various other tourism forms and segments, and should involve stakeholders, the environment, and economic and social issues. Only then can tourism be called ethical tourism (Fig. 11). According to these guidelines, 'ethical tourists respect their hosts: by treading softly on the environment; by being educated about the culture; by ensuring their stay returns fair, economic benefits, and by ensuring

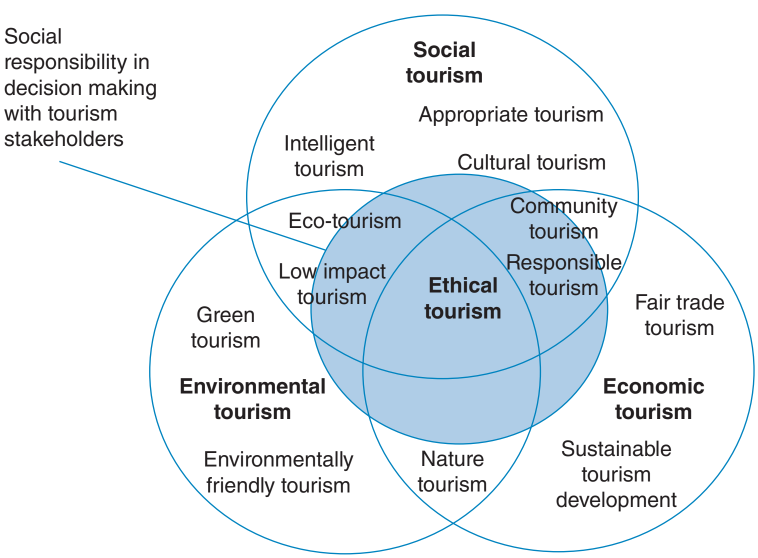

Fig. 11. The ethical tourism model. (From Speed, 2008, p. 60.)

all decision-making with all tourism's stakeholders is socially responsible' (Speed, 2008, p. 61).

Ledesma (2009) observed that, in the field of tourism, both companies and governments have initiated strategic actions aimed at promoting ethics in their activities. It is worth remembering that interest in alternative tourism and sustainable tourism emerged in the late 1970s and early 1980s. Krippendorf (1984) was among the first authors to propose **leisure** and tourism behaviours based on ethics. He proposed 23 theses for humanizing travel; virtually all of them call for tourism that is more ethical, humane, sustainable, morally acceptable, gentle, enriching and beneficial to all involved. According to Fennell (2006), at the time of Krippendorf's work, his concerns revealed a troubling scenario and led to heated debates on the topic. Moreover, we can consider additional ethical and moral questions related to prostitution, which has led to sex tourism, which in turn takes place against a backdrop of drugs and urban violence, among other aspects involved in this problem (Gomes *et al.*, 2006).

Ethical questions in/about tourism should not be guided only by an agenda focused on improvement or increasing the actions of market agents, the media and government. They should also be directed towards tourist consumers who are seeking to develop and establish intelligent educational strategies (with no promotional obligations) to foster a *touristic ethical and moral conscience* that makes them aware of their responsibilities as tourists enjoying others, thus closing the complex ethical circuit in tourism.

In these reflections, each society and social group has its own codes of ethical conduct. For one country, for example, encouraging sex tourism may involve an ethical procedure. In another country, this attitude may breach the society's ethical principles. Thus, beyond the general principles that guide good societal functioning, it is important to consider the ethics of particular groups or specific locations. Thus, we might consider, among other aspects, medical ethics, work ethics, business ethics, ethics in sports, ethics in politics and ethics in journalism.

In 1999, the World Tourism Organization established the *Global Code of Ethics for Tourism*, which is composed of ten articles that underpin some ethical principles for tourism. The code includes nine articles that establish ground rules for governments, destinations, tourism companies, professionals and tourists. The tenth article addresses litigation issues, which will be examined by a World Committee on Tourism Ethics (WTO, 1999).

It should be remembered that the use of ethical reflection induces rational action, utilising criteria, concepts and arguments that lead to more prudent decisions and more appropriate choices. Above all,

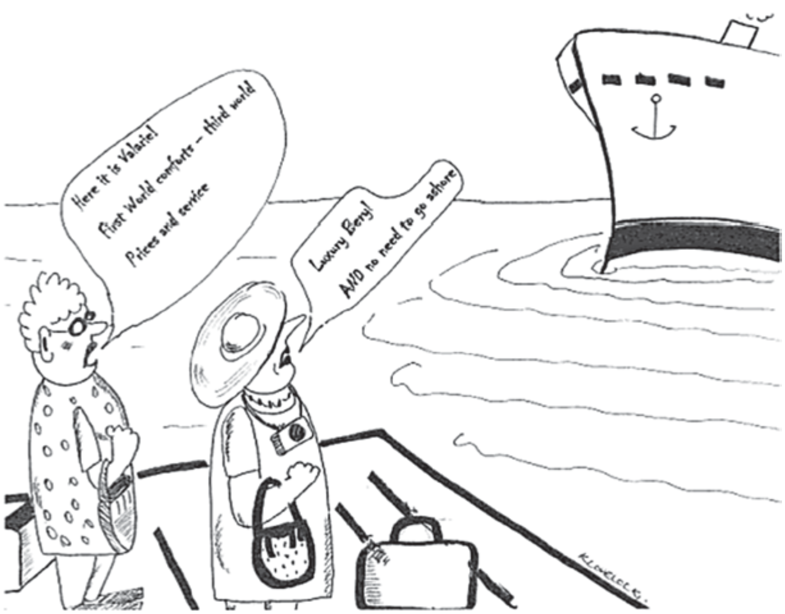

Fig. E1. 'Ethics within reason.' (From Lovelock and Lovelock, 2013.)

ethics helps build character (way of being), seeking purposes and goals for a life in harmony with one's society.

Exercises

Look at Figures E1 and E2 and discuss the following questions:

1. In your country, region or company, is there concern about including minority groups in the tourism consumer market? Is this concern reflected in practical actions?

2. For many authors, tourism is a form of imperialism by richer nations over poorer nations. Does this imperialism actually exist? Do you know of any concrete examples?

Fig. E2. From The Other Coast by Adrian Raeside. (Available at: http://www.hungarianbirdwatching.com/02_Ethics/ecotourism-450x544.gif.)

Note

[2] Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 1998, held in Istanbul, Turkey. See Buhalis *et al*. (1998).

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2.3 The Anthropology of Tourism

WITH SANDRO CAMPOS NEVES

The field of the anthropology of tourism is a complex intertwining of research agendas and interests. Different dimensions of touristic activity and the socio-cultural experience in which it is embedded have been discussed and dissected by the diverse group of researchers who compose this field. We should begin this approach by mentioning that both social anthropology and cultural anthropology, which are related to the field of anthropology of tourism, are interested in understanding human interactions and their process of signification. This type of anthropology addresses the meanings attributed to the world by man and, consequently, how we justify our actions and relationships. It is also important to note that when we refer to the anthropology of tourism, we address a field that is largely dominated by the use of ethnographic research methods, in contrast to the sociological and other approaches used in the field of social sciences.

Addressing the anthropology of tourism requires engagement with the various traditions and paradigms relevant to the anthropological field and the ability to situate it within the field of touristic knowledge. Paradoxically, it seems impossible to fully capture the anthropology of tourism by the traditions or schools of either of the two disciplines; it has developed what may be classified as its own tradition, which does not coincide with the times and nexuses of the disciplinary traditions to which they are related. Throughout this description, we will seek to describe this tradition, eventually reclaiming its relationship with anthropological schools and tourism theory.

We begin this description with two views of the process of cultural modification that have developed within the anthropology of tourism field. This is a crucial issue that demands not only anthropologists' attention but also their opinions. In this field, at least two extremely critical approaches have emerged: one based on the theory of acculturation and the other based on the assumption of cultural commodification.

For anglophone anthropology, there seems to be a consensus that the first study in the anthropology of tourism field was written by Nuñez (1963). In this work, the relationship between tourists and hosts was approached from the perspective of acculturation. From this point of view, changes in culture are a result of the local culture's capacity for resilience on the one hand, and the intense pressure caused by tourism on the other. Nuñez's work can be related to the tradition of the anthropology of acculturation, which has its origins in Herskovits (1938) and Bastide (1960). Without delving too deeply into this tradition, its forward and backward movements and above all its popularization, Herkovits and Bastide affirmed that a process of one **culture** dominating another exists; although this process may be gradual, it is almost always univocal and teleological. In line with this work, throughout the development of the anthropology of tourism field, there are different ramifications of this theory, which maximizes the pressure of tourism as a factor that modifies local culture (MacCannell, 1976; Nash, 1977; Graburn, 1980; Boorstin, 1992).

Erik Cohen (1974), based on an approach that one might call sociological, emphasized tourism's importance as a research object. Cohen's work is marked by an approach that views tourism as promoting the commodification of certain relationships, such as those of **hospitality**, in the context of the locations in which it occurs. It is particularly in this regard that Cohen inaugurated a debate that will develop at length in the anthropology of tourism regarding hospitality relationships and questions about their **authenticity** and spontaneity and the cultural consequences of their commodification (Cohen, 1988). In this case, Cohen articulated concepts established since Mauss (1974/1923–1924) regarding hospitality and appropriating the ramifications described by Arnold van Gennep (2011/1909) and Victor Turner (1974/1969). In advocating the commodification of these ties, however, Cohen (1988) addressed contexts unexplored by his predecessors and engaged in all of the risks associated with such an endeavour. Along these lines, authors such as Graburn (1977) and Nash (1977) discussed the sacred/traditional and profane/modern relationships in their approaches. According to this view, while tourism searches for culture and the subjective experience of exchange, it simultaneously offers elements of sacredness that, because of their extreme commodification, are profane.

Generally, with respect to the issue of cultural change, anthropologists remain critical of tourism's influence. The framework of this vision can also include the classic collection organized by Valene Smith (1977), *Hosts and Guests: the Anthropology of Tourism*. Throughout the diverse works that comprise this collection, there is a clear critical bias towards tourism as hegemonic. In some works, researchers relativize the view of tourism as a major influence on cultural change, in light of contributions by authors such as Sahlins (1972). For Sahlins (1993), the possibility of one culture being modified by another is always a two-way street: influences and modifications can occur on both sides. Moreover, the author sees change as a complex process subject to resistance that is extremely creative and articulated by local cultures. From this perspective, authors such as Steiner and Reisinger (2006) and Cole (2007) develop approaches that seek to overcome both the perspective of one culture's total colonization/domination over another and the perspective according to which commercial interests always act to the detriment of – and without a reaction from – local cultures.

Beyond cultural change and the identitarian dynamics related to the heritage they carry, another central point of the theory that involves the anthropology of tourism refers to the question of power. This discussion is concerned with tourism's ability to generate development in terms of a destination's local cultures, progressing decisively through the manner in which touristic activity is understood by authors in the anthropology of tourism field. According to this formula, depending on how the nature of the touristic activity is conceived, power will be distributed and disputed in a certain way; the possibility of generating development depends on this balance.

On one side of this debate are the authors who view tourism as a new era of colonization (Crick, 1988; Bruner, 1989; Nash, 1989), continuing and accelerating the production of inter- and intraregional inequality; on the other side are authors who advocate tourism's positive role in developing destinations, enabling reduced inequality and effective development through proper planning (Turner and Ash, 1975; Turner, 1976).

As previously stated, at stake are conceptions of tourism and the academic traditions of anthropology. With respect to anthropological traditions, the group that defines tourism as neo-colonialism is obviously anchored in the Marxist political anthropology of Eric Wolf (1982). Conversely, the group that advocates for tourism's rewards is anchored in a number of economic theories that emphasize the potential of globalization (Turner, 1976; Hannerz, 1996). With respect to conceptions of tourism, one of the most significant approaches was supplied by Peter Burns, who stated that tourism can be seen as 'part of a broad social process in a complex, interconnected world, illustrating the nature of the value systems underpinning the modern world' (1999, p. 81). According to this perspective, tourism is presented as the epitome of its time and therefore a privileged field for understanding the contemporary world. This is the fundamental reason that Burns (1999), among others, considers the analysis of tourism to be essential.

In addition to these key issues, there is a myriad of other discussions from which the anthropology of tourism develops and articulates concepts within tourism theory. Several of these fields have already consolidated production and made important contributions, whereas others remain relatively unexplored.

Numerous scholars in the field have dedicated themselves to analysing the production of images about tourism destinations and their consequences for local cultures and identities (MacCannell, 1984; Boorstin, 1992; Buzinde *et al.*, 2006; Pereiro, 2015). Although these studies have a certain eclecticism, they emphasize that, to attract tourists, there is a need to construct images that are positive, descriptive and stereotypical of destinations. The various authors have addressed the consequences of this process for local cultures and identities using concepts such as authenticity and tradition. They demonstrated that on the one hand, there is a tendency towards the touristic homogenization of the local culture, while on the other hand, there are numerous possibilities for resistance and escape articulated by local communities.

Another group has devoted itself to analysing tourism in the context of ethnic relationships, whether they are considered a result of a permanent relationship among various cultural groups (MacCannell, 1984) or as a result of addressing only human groups defined as ethnic by social theory (van den Berghe, 1994). In both cases, the issue of cultural change is discussed against the backdrop of local identity (Li, 2000), tangible and intangible heritage and diverse manifestations (Knox, 2008). These approaches usually begin with Frederik Barth's (1998) theory on ethnic groups and their way of functioning, and address both indigenous communities and other groups. It should be noted that most works in the anthropology of tourism field have addressed groups regarded as ethnic, notably indigenous groups.

Despite this dense field of emerging issues, there are theoretical areas in the anthropology of tourism that remain largely unexplored. Perhaps the most central issue today – mobility in the current stage of globalization, which has received attention from the sociologist John **Urry** (2000) – serves to illustrate this aspect. In the anthropology of tourism, particular emphasis can be given to the contribution of Salazar (2010) and Salazar and Smart (2011). These authors refer to cultural and group mobility and their meaning for the construction of identities, subjectivities and interactions in tourism. However, there are diverse issues that still lack an important set of analyses in terms of mobility.

Other issues to which anthropology of tourism could greatly contribute, and which is ultimately unnoticed, are the processes of rearticulating and redefining heritage, artisanal, gastronomic and religious traditions, among others. Many of these discussions are condensed into sets of reflections on the nature of tourism and its relationship with local cultures in the contemporary world more generally; the many and complex nuances of these reflections remain undeveloped.

In the same way, although the question of power has been the focus of two sets of traditions in the anthropology of tourism, until now, its subjective implications have been underdeveloped. The ways in which power is exercised in relationships in the tourism field and how this power impacts the interactions seem to have been addressed only by Cheong and Miller (2000). The construction of ethnographic subjectivity in the minefield of relationships between tourists and residents also appears to be an issue that, although widely repeated in ethnographic monographs, has been unable to achieve the status of an epistemological discussion fundamental to the anthropology of tourism, with localized exceptions (Galani-Moutaffi, 2000).

Finally, there are other fields with little production that demand attention from anthropology of tourism, such as dark tourism, religious pilgrimage and sports. Even fields with broad production continue to be fertile because certain nuances have not been properly explored in light of an excessive centralization on a small number of issues. This list includes sex tourism, rural tourism, health tourism, and the issue of minorities and ethnic groups, among others. In many of these fields, the contribution of the anthropology of tourism, given the nature of the questions it proposes to investigate, could be of central value to the discussions that appear and to the understanding of tourism itself. It is hoped that in the future, these fields will merit developments and attention from researchers in the field of the anthropology of tourism.

Exercise

Select a case study published in a scientific journal that addresses a particular **tourism destination**. Try to observe which contributions, other than those highlighted by the author, could be provided by the anthropology of tourism after having identified that field's fundamental interests. Make a note of the questions raised and verify whether they apply to other empirical cases you know or have already read about.

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2.4 Culture and Tourism

WITH THIAGO ALLIS

For Eagleton (2005, pp. 54–55), culture is the 'complex of values, customs, beliefs and practices which constitute the way of life of a specific group', which brings the ideas of 'cultural' and 'social' closer together and makes culture 'everything that is not genetically transmissible'. Culture can thus be characterized as 'more know-how than know-why, a set of tacit understandings or practical guidelines as opposed to a theoretical mapping of reality'.

The 'classic conception' of culture has two fundamental characteristics, according to Donaire (2012):

1. Culture is structure, in which the different elements of culture are interrelated in a complex network of ties and relations, a type of fabric that can be understood as a whole.
2. Culture defines communities, characterizing and differentiating them from others, which leads to a sense of boundaries between cultures.

That said, the successive conceptual debates on the idea of culture over the course of the 20th century have led to a paradox: 'If culture was once too rarefied a notion, it now has the flabbiness of a term which leaves out too little' (Eagleton, 2005, p. 59). Thus, at the same time that culture takes on these broader meanings, 'a local and very limited notion of culture began to proliferate universally'; for example, using the term 'café culture' to denominate habits related to a way of life instead of the simple act of going to cafés or even coffee culture itself (e.g. planting, harvesting, processing). This particular approach seems to be present even in tourism studies, when the idea of a 'culture of tourism' (Richards and Wilson, 2006, p. 1209) spread through research in the field, particularly after World War II, when a set of habits and practices more or less recognizable to certain social groups emerged as part of a routine of both travellers and certain economic sectors, public-sector entities, and schools that teach and research the diverse facets of tourism.

In effect, cultural studies may be an important entry point for understanding the relationships between tourism and culture because they allow us to 'abstract, describe and reconstitute in concrete studies the social forms through which human beings "live", become conscious, sustain themselves subjectively' (Johnson, 1999, p. 29). In this view, tourism is positioned as a social fact to be understood 'concretely', considering that 'all social practices can be looked at from a cultural point of view, for the work they do, subjectively' (Johnson, 1999, p. 30).

More recently, a 'postmodern reading of culture' has eroded basic concepts, allowing the idea of the 'other' to appear. This other is not an element of observation – a study object – but instead an active subject, composing the game of voices and demands that come together to construct social relationships (Donaire, 2012). In effect, these ruptures represent important aspects of tourism practices and research because they open up space for otherness to be experienced not only as a fetish but also as a defining and almost contradictory (and often disruptive) force of the encounters that lie at the heart of touristic activity.

Furham (1984) noted that, even though tourism is one of the oldest human endeavours, attempts to understand it from a social–psychological perspective are very recent. To use the concept of culture shock, Furham retrieved Oberg's (1960) U-curve model (Fig. 12), which describes five stages that refer to how visitors feel when they come into contact with a particular culture: euphoria (from the new and different perspective), disillusionment (when confronted by ordinary and frustrating elements), hostility (an exacerbation of their frustration), adaptation (when adjustment mechanisms are developed and activated) and assimilation (this final stage refers to the foreign subject's complete insertion into that culture).

In this sense, there have been efforts to identify and characterize the results of (not always harmonious) encounters between different cultures, as represented by the differences between visitors and hosts. Difficulties in communication (which do not

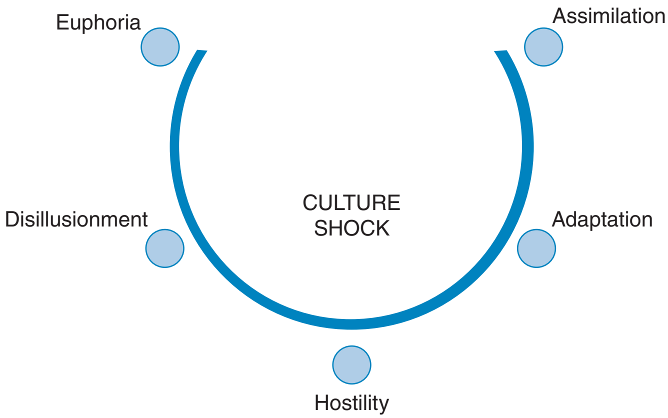

Fig. 12. The U-Curve of Culture Shock. (From Furham, 1984.)

necessarily imply only language issues), individual differences and demographic variables are important aspects to accommodate the anxiety that characterizes this culture shock (Furham, 1984).

Still taking the visitor as his reference but questioning Oberg's model, Hottola (2004) proposed a dynamic model of cultural confusion to identify and analyse the contrasts experienced by tourists. Thus, by observing the intercultural adaptation process, it is possible to conduct a 'psychological and behavioural analysis of the tourists' learning process in a new environment' (Hottola, 2004, pp. 447–448). Unlike the conceptual simplicity of the culture shock theory, the author noted that 'people become confused, tired, and disoriented while abroad, but in most cases not depressed'. Thus, the very idea of 'shock' does not seem appropriate for studying and observing 'intercultural situations' because, as a result of tourists' ability to adjust to a wide variety of environments, it would be difficult for them to experience a shock, especially in the context of inhabited environments that are suitable for human beings (Hottola, 2004, p. 453).

There is another aspect of the discussion on cultural exchanges that deserves attention in the literature on culture and tourism: the activity's impacts on the host communities. Assuming that 'social disruption theory is closely related to place change' (McKercher *et al.*, 2015), destinations can be three types of place that are defined according to the volume of tourists, the configuration of the destination and the stage of the touristic activity's development:

- *Tourism place*: something constructed or meant for tourism, within which the touristic experience is negotiated. In general, visible markings and signs (such as tourist signs, food services, accommodation; see Fig. 13) announce the presence of other tourists, thus indicating that tourists are welcome. These places include both spaces constructed with specific touristic purposes (as in the example of coastal **resorts**) and those that have incorporated touristic activity (such as historic city centres).
- *Non-tourism place*: spaces in which residents carry out their daily routines and activities, featuring markings on the **landscape** (direct or subtle) indicating that tourists are not welcome. Although these signs are sometimes subtle (for example, when places treat unsuspecting visitors with some impatience or hostility), they can be more explicit, generally because of a history of clashes with groups of visitors who insist on demanding certain areas of the cities even when they are not welcome (see Figs 14 and 15).
- *Shared places*: hybrid places suitable for both tourists and locals, represented by **transport** terminals and commercial and service areas, where tourists and residents share space in their activities.

From these approaches that focus on analysing context, it can be assumed that all touristic activity is cultural because cross-cultural encounters create opportunities for experiences based on otherness, whose complexity will depend on the degree of the tourism's connection to the life of the communities visited. None the less, in marketing terms, tourism and the tourist are qualified as 'cultural' based on a commercial reading referenced in niche markets in which consumers (tourists) have specific interests, practices and impacts.

Fig. 13. Tourist signs for pedestrians in the area of Khao San Road, Bangkok, Thailand. (Photo courtesy of Thiago Allis.)

Fig. 14. Sign at the Saint Francis Church in Kalaupapa, Hawaii. (Photo courtesy of Gui Lohmann.)

Considering the ongoing discussions of culture, heritage and tourism, the cultural tourism segment represents a set of touristic motivations and practices that are linked directly to a destination's cultural assets. Cultural heritage acquires value for tourism because, when tourist attractions have been created, tourists are motivated to leave their homes and travel to see them, whether they are monuments, festivals, cultures, archaeological sites, ruins or architectural complexes. Thus, the concept and representations of cultural heritage encompass a set of questions and possibilities that usually compose much of what is offered to tourists at a **tourism destination.**

Choay (2001, p. 11) explains that the original notion of heritage is 'tied to the familial, economic, and juridical structures of a stable society, rooted in space and time'. Nearly all definitions of heritage are based on definition of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), which states that 'heritage is our legacy from the past, what we live with today, and what we pass on to future generations'; it has a unique character and is a point of reference and identity.

Fig. 15. Sign showing that tourists are not always welcome at St Peter's Basilica, Vatican City, Rome, September 2014. (Photo courtesy of Thiago Allis.)

The World Heritage title confers prestige and distinction on destinations, considering that this designation, which is conferred by UNESCO based on the 1972 Convention for the Protection of the World's Cultural and Natural Heritage, implies an outstanding universal value for certain expressions of cultural (monuments, complexes and places of interest) and natural heritage.

In 2015, there were 1007 items on the World Heritage list, most of which (779) were in the cultural category (UNESCO, 2015, http://www.unesco.org). Despite this visibility, it is important to note that different studies have begun to discuss how the World Heritage title contributes to tourism, which presents a dilemma: on the one hand, there is a great expectation that a such sites may 'induce prosperous tourism that create jobs and earn foreign exchange, thus serving as a major driving force for further growth in many countries'; on the other hand, there is a risk that 'visitation increases the threat of damage or destruction of the environmental and cultural integrity of the [World Heritage sites] due to excess number of tourists' (Huang *et al.*, 2012, p. 1451). In addition, the monumental character valorized by UNESCO can also signify that it is a project of international domination or a Western colonial project with a Eurocentric bias (Tucker and Carnegie, 2014).

In addition to the 1972 Convention, there is a large set of Heritage Charters that (either directly or indirectly) credit some functions of the heritage protection, conservation and valorization process to tourism, including two documents drafted by the Organization of American States (OAS): (i) the Norms of Quito (1967), giving special attention to monuments because of tourism; and (ii) the Santo Domingo Resolution (1974), which considers tourism as a means of preserving monuments and protecting and preserving American cultural heritage (OAS, 2015, http://www.oas.org).

In the context of UNESCO, the Recommendation on the Safeguarding of Traditional Culture and Folklore (1989) proposes actions recognizing and valorizing manifestations such as 'language, literature, music, dance, games, mythology, rituals, customs, handicrafts, architecture and other arts', which are typically representative of vulnerable or minority cultural groups. More recently, the Convention for the Safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage (2003), also ratified by UNESCO (2015), warns about the care and protection of 'oral traditions and expressions, performing arts, celebrations, social practices, rituals and festive **events**, knowledge and practices concerning nature and the universe and traditional craftsmanship'.

In effect, in addition to being an object of concern by UNESCO and other multilateral organizations, cultural expressions increasingly fuel local tourist-development processes, which themselves bring both socio-economic development perspectives and some risks, such as acculturation caused by the imposition of foreign cultures.

Interface with tourism

Definitions of cultural tourism as a market segment consider the qualifications of its subjects, i.e. the cultural tourist, understood as 'any individual who visits cultural institutions or places such as museums, archeological and heritage sites, operas, theatres, festivals or architecture while away from home' (Stylianou-Lambert, 2011, p. 405).

However, assuming there is no singular cultural tourist, researchers have sought to categorize cultural tourists according to some emphases, considering their motivations (Silberberg, 1995), their interests (Hughes, 2002) and the depth and quality of their experiences (McKercher, 2002) (Table 6). Stylianou-Lambert (2011) emphasizes the fact that, although these typologies describe how cultural tourists behave, they fail in that they do not discuss why these tourists seek certain experiences or want to have particular experiences.

In effect, from a market perspective, there are many opportunities to link cultural aspects with tourism. Examples include, but are not limited to, gastronomy and other issues related to food as a cultural factor, such as coffee production and consumption (Jolliffe, 2010) and the global wine-production chain (Gross and Brown, 2006; Yuan *et al.*, 2008; Famularo *et al.*, 2010; Marzo-Navarro and Pedraja-Iglesias, 2010; Hojman and Hunter-Jones, 2012; Mitchell, 2012; Quadri-Felitti and Fiore, 2012; Sohn and Yuan, 2013), visits to museums (Capstick 1985; Harrison, 1997; Falk *et al.*, 1998; Herreman, 1998; Prentice, 2001; Stylianou-Lambert, 2011), pilgrimages and other religious expressions (Timothy and Olsen, 2006; Agrawal *et al.*, 2010; Haq and Wong, 2010; Henderson, 2011; Pourtaheri *et al.*, 2012; Grimshaw, 2013; Levi and Kocher, 2013; Melotti, 2014; Fourie *et al.*, 2015; Nyaupane *et al.*, 2015), and festivals and cultural events (Gotham, 2002) such as the European Capitals of Culture programme (Alexa and Lache, 2011; Bıçakçı, 2012; Liu, 2014; Šebová *et al.*, 2014; Lasse *et al.*, 2015).

In this sense, when it is necessary to understand the appropriation of culture for tourism, a paradoxical logic emerges. On the one hand, tourism can valorize the cultural manifestations of a particular community. On the other hand, when culture becomes a commodity, it exerts pressure on spontaneous and authentic expressions (Regueira, 2002). Festivals and other popular expressions illustrate this situation well: if, when visiting communities, tourists appreciate and contribute to the valorization of these manifestations, the exacerbation of this process can generate such intense transformations that they lose all of their spontaneity and informality. Communities living on the floating islands in Lake Titicaca called the Uros islands, which are located on the border between Bolivia and Peru, stage performances for tourists wishing to experience a traditional way of life, notwithstanding the fact that the colourful clothing and other habits presented as original have already been abandoned in their everyday lives as a way to assimilate the lifestyles generally spread by the expansion of tourism in the region (see '**Authenticity in tourism**' entry).

With its enthusiastic and optimistic emphasis, in the wake of the recent transformations in global production processes – particularly after the 1970s in the central economies (Europe, USA and Japan) – the growth of cultural consumption (of art, gastronomy, fashion, music and tourism) and the industries giving rise to its existence are fuelling the construction and growth of a symbolic economy of cities (Zukin, 1995). In this sense, in the tourism context, the aestheticized consumption of the quotidian (Featherstone, 2007) has become the centre of

Table 6. Cultural tourist typologies. (From Styllianou-Lambert, 2011.)

Reference	Emphasis	Typology
Foo and Rossetto (1998)	Desires	Specific General
Silberberg (1995)	Motivation	Greatly motivated Partially motivated Adjunct Accidental
Hughes (2002)	Interests	Core primary Core multi-primary Peripheral incidental Peripheral accidental
McKercher (2002)	Depth and quality of experiences sought	Purposeful cultural tourist Sightseeing cultural tourist Casual cultural tourist Incidental cultural tourist Serendipitous cultural tourist

urban life, defining contemporary tourist behaviour and confirming tourism destinations as spaces of consumption, not production. Thus, cities that were generally spaces for spreading industry now – as they experience de-industrialization – assume the role of spaces for consumption. Important examples are major European (London, Paris, Berlin) and North American (New York and Chicago, among others) cities, where various structures and locations in the city are known for their cultural activities and **entertainment** (e.g. museums, cultural centres, gastronomy, night life).

Thus, as an alternative to the serial reproduction of culture, practices that favour creativity as part of the **tourist experience** have begun to emerge. Unlike cultural pessimists, some cities began to look for alternative models; the most fashionable are based on the concept of creative industries, including tourism and related activities (Richards and Wilson, 2006; Richards, 2011). This moves from a logic of cultural tourism, which focuses on the consumption of products and passive learning that are usually associated with high culture, to a logic of creative tourism, which entails more dynamic activities in a co-creation process and the active development of abilities, thus enabling creative consumption and creative production by tourists (Richards and Wilson, 2006). Some examples include Catalan cooking workshops in Barcelona, Spain; porcelain painting experiences in Limoges, France; and traditional dance classes in many countries such as Brazil, Argentina, Cuba, Turkey and Egypt.

Operationalizing

Freeman Tilden (1957) proposed a set of principles for interpreting heritage, taking the activity of visiting as one of the great tools for its knowledge and valorization. Thus, a total of six 'Tilden's principles' were designed experimentally, based on the author's experience in the US National Park Service. Put very simply, the principles generally suggested the idea that a process of interpreting heritage focused on the visitor's experience should reveal meanings through provocations and significant lessons, rather than showing or teaching, as shown below:

1. Any interpretation that does not somehow relate what is being displayed or described to something within the personality or experience of the visitor will be sterile.

2. Information, as such, is not interpretation. Interpretation is revelation based upon information. But they are entirely different things. However, all interpretation includes information.

3. Interpretation is an art, which combines many arts, whether the materials presented are scientific, historical, or architectural. Any art is to some degree teachable.

4. The chief aim of interpretation is not instruction but provocation.

5. Interpretation should aim to present a whole rather than a part and must address itself to the whole rather than any phase.

6. Interpretation addressed to children (say, up to the age of 12 years) should not be a dilution of the presentations to adults but should follow a fundamentally different approach. To be at its best, it will require a separate programme.

Although the original focus of Tilden's principles was natural heritage (something that evolved into what is now known as environmental education), with the development of techniques and conceptual discussions, cultural heritage has gained prominence. More than 60 years after the publication of *Interpreting our Heritage*, other authors have addressed the subject, searching for additions and updates to Tilden's principles. Examples include Goodey (2006) and works by organizations dedicated to this subject, including the Association for Heritage Interpretation (http://www.ahi.org.uk) and the Asociación para la Interpretación del Patrimonio (http://www.interpretaciodelpatrimonio.com/). This may represent a productive strategy for integrating the visiting public with the cultural expressions of particular communities using specialized techniques and professionals trained in their presentation and signification.

This discussion makes even more sense in light of the fact that the paradigm of tourist development increasingly incorporates local communities as active subjects in the process, rather than as spectators or actors performing for hordes of visitors. Discussions and practices of so-called creative tourism, as presented by McKercher *et al.* (2015), suggest that the visitor's experience will be optimized when there is a more effective articulation with the cultural elements that compose the environment visited. This notion obviously includes adequate interpretations of destinations' cultural meanings, which could be better communicated with appropriate community involvement.

Exercise

Based on the categories proposed by McKercher *et al.* (2015) (tourism places, non-tourism places and shared places), identify how tourism has been established in your community, based on a diagnosis of touristic elements in different neighbourhoods in your city. Take trips to the areas that you feel may be representative of these spatial categories and list and describe the activities present there, making sure to observe and record manifestations of tourism. In addition, try to diagnose elements of the local culture that can be considered raw materials for creative tourism, based on the discussions proposed by Richards and Wilson (2006). This exercise aims to identify and study the cultural aspects of tourism to understand both an activity's touristic potential and its potential impacts on the social sphere.

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2.5 Postmodernity and Tourism

One way to understand postmodernity is through the definition of modernity (Harvey, 1989; Pretes, 1995; Nuryanti, 1996). According to Taylor (2002), modernity is the historically unprecedented amalgam of new practices and institutional forms (science, technology, industrial production, urbanization), new forms of living (individualism, secularization, instrumental rationality) and new forms of malaise (alienation, meaninglessness, a sense of impending social dissolution).

For Pretes (1995), in postmodern societies objects become representations and are transformed into commodities to be packaged and consumed. Instead of production, consumption becomes dominant and the commodity attracts the attention of social life. This is what Debord (1967) calls the 'society of the spectacle'.

Postmodernity is the cultural facet of the post-industrial society, characterized by the growth of the service sector, the emergence of information technology, and the valorization of knowledge and creative ideas; it is directly linked to new ways of seeing the world in the late 20th century. Man's way of life has been radically transformed, driven by globalization, a revolution in the arts, technological development, the emergence of non-governmental organizations and networks (social, technological and economic), a growing number of communication vehicles, concentration of attention on service delivery, and the ability to process and store a large amount of information, including with the creation of computers and the Internet.

Tourism has also suffered the consequences, either being promoted or refused by postmodernity. Uriely (1997) proposed that postmodernity in tourism created a new sociological form to analyse this phenomenon. Until the 1970s, there were two trends in analysing the nature and meaning of modern experiences in tourism. On one side was social criticism, which saw tourism as a social decadence; on the other side was a group that saw touristic experience as a modern ritual involving the question of authenticity (see '**Authenticity in tourism**' entry).

Postmodern society has facilitated the rise of alternative and non-institutionalized travel trends that are opposed to traditional tourism, providing consumers with a wider range of opportunities for self-realization (Jelinĉić, 2009).

Postmodern tourism is part of a sociological theory based on the idea that, in industrially developed nations, the foundation on which people act as consumers has transformed in recent years. The theory suggests that the traditional boundaries between formal and informal culture, between elite and popular **leisure** activities, are being eliminated (Munt, 1994). New ways of reproducing the past that are associated with new models of consumption are thus reflected in how people choose to travel; there is a valorization of the traditional and a return to every individual's roots. These trends can be seen as manifestations of the postmodern phenomenon in tourism (Nuryanti, 1996).

Postmodernity's influence on tourism can be seen in the existence of trips that offer memorable experiences, such as adventure tourism, experiential tourism, authentic tourism and virtual tourism. According to Uriely (1997), the postmodern conceptualization of tourism is distanced from the tendency to homogenize the touristic experience. Instead, postmodern tourism is characterized by the multiplicity of touristic motivations, experiences and environments. For Uriely (1997), the postmodern sociological discourse of tourism is divided into two analyses. The first is focused on the hyper-real, i.e. experiences focused on simulated realities, such as those provided by theme parks and other invented attractions. The second analysis is targeted towards the pursuit of the 'real', i.e. natural and rural **landscapes**, as postmodern expressions.

With all of these changes, humans began to seek more sensory experiences, valorizing leisure, entertainment and tourism. In this sense, postmodernity forced a restructuring of cities and tourism destinations, leading them to adapt to new trends among consumer groups. Molina (2003) agreed with this view and stated that fantasy cities (which he termed '*ludópolis*' in Spanish) exist; these are the large amusement centres found not only in parks but also in major cities that are developing recreational areas so that they will be considered world cities and thus become part of the profitable travel circuit. Examples of such recreational areas in major cities include the Jumeirah Beach area and Burj Al Arab Jumeirah in Dubai; the Promenade Plantée, an elevated linear park, in Paris; and the World Expo '98 site, built in Lisbon, Portugal.

Postmodernity poses a problem for tourism, namely, respect for the identity of both the tourist and the communities living in touristic locations. With the large number of technological and financial facilities, there is a risk that **cultures** will fragment once tourists are seen only as consumers by tourism companies and local residents are seen as mere service providers or, worse, as tourist attractions, in the case of minority cultures (American Indians and Eskimos, for example). **Urry** (1990) has already described this issue: tourism is concerned with the visual and spectacle; its object is the object of the tourist gaze. However, postmodernity can reduce and even prevent these problems using technological means and stored information to educate both communities and tourists.

Postmodernity is also related to tourism through the experiences that are sought by tourists. In Brazil's Pantanal, in the state of Mato Grosso du Sul, Fazenda San Francisco (http://www.fazendasanfrancisco.tur.br/) is one example of this phenomenon. Young Europeans visit to see alligators, deer and – if they are lucky – jaguars, all in a flooded and preserved area. After the local guide teaches tourists how to fish for piranhas – the terrible and mythical predator fish – they are taken to see the alligators. When they arrive, there are no alligators, but they are not disappointed. Shouting, whistling and beating sticks on the pond water, the guide calls the alligators, who run to meet him to receive their daily allowance of food – the piranhas that were caught by the tourists. What does this experience mean for the French youth who visit? Who can say? In this concrete example, the ancient and postmodern worlds meet. This encounter is only possible because of tourism and technology. Although the tourists are in the jungle and close to wild animals, they are also in a comfortable modern vessel, armed with digital video and photographic cameras, and completely secure, using their smartphones to communicate with their friends back in Europe. This new form of tourism expands every tourist's experience and identity.

Postmodernity creates new opportunities and challenges for tourism. Although it enables a safe journey, it also causes a loss of identity for tourists, who are taken as a herd ('the barbarians of our Age of Leisure'; Turner and Ash, 1975) along predefined routes. Nevertheless, tourists may think they are exercising their right to choose what to do. Sometimes tourists do not realize that there was no choice; their options had already been selected by their trip organizers. This is an example of tourism business owners' attempts to predict tourist behaviour because tourists have an increasingly fragmented identity and their behaviour has become increasingly unpredictable. This phenomenon was driven largely by postmodernity.

Operationalizing

To illustrate the transformations caused by postmodernity, we will take the Ski Dubai Snowpark as an example: a theme park with snow, in Dubai, in the middle of the desert. The snowpark is an iconic example of a postmodern non-place (Augé, 1992) motivated by the economic benefits and indoor entertainment associated with tourism. The official site (http://www.theplaymania.com/skidubai) states as follows:

- 22,500 m^2 covered with real snow all year round (equivalent to three football fields).
- Temperature maintained at a comfortable –1°C to –2°C.
- 85 m high (approximately 25 stories) and 80 m wide.
- Five different runs of varying difficulty and length, longest run of 400 m.
- Full capacity of 1500 guests.
- Freestyle zone.
- Corporate and group bookings.
- 3000 m^2 snow park with a snow cavern.

Another example of a postmodern tourist experience, which can lead to questions about its non-traditional form, is that of tourist stays in shantytowns or favelas. Companies all over the world offer this experience. For example, in South Africa, the

Emoya Luxury Hotel and Spa offers this type of service, as described on its website:

> Millions of people are living in informal settlements across South Africa. These settlements consist of thousands of houses also referred to as Shacks, Shanties or Makhukhus. A shanty usually consists of old corrugated iron sheets or any other waterproof material constructed to form a small "house" or shelter for everyday life. A paraffin lamp, candles, a battery operated radio, an outside toilet (also referred to as a long drop) and a drum where people make cooking fires is normally part of this lifestyle.
>
> Now you can experience staying in a shanty within the safe environment of a private game reserve. This is the only shantytown in the world equipped with under-floor heating and wireless Internet access!
>
> The shantytown is ideal for team building, braais, fancy theme parties and an experience of a lifetime. Accommodates up to 52 guests. Our shanties are completely safe and child-friendly.
>
> This is an experience you will never forget!
>
> http://www.emoya.co.za/p23/accommodation/shanty-town-for-a-unique-accommodation-experience-in-bloemfontein.html.

Exercise

Make a list of leisure and tourism activities that are eminently postmodern. Discuss them in groups and write an essay on what it means to be a postmodern tourist.

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2.6 Psychology and Tourism

Psychology studies seek to explain how the human being sees itself, positions itself and understands the world in which it operates. In this sense, psychology studies human beings who are engaged in a constant exchange of experiences and interactions with the environment in which they live. This science is therefore interested in individuals' behaviour and experiences, either in groups or alone. Psychology is interdisciplinary and is related to many areas of thought; it has numerous fields, such as humanistic, behavioural, analytical, cognitive, evolutionary and socio-cultural psychology. According to Pearce and Packer (2013), psychology as an area of study is a vast gathering of ideas, theories and methods that systematically analyse human experience and behaviour. Although it focuses primarily on the individual, it also analyses social interaction processes because these processes are strongly influenced by individual decisions.

It is important to understand that there are numerous dimensions and approaches in psychology. For example, cognitive psychology studies reasoning, creativity, the learning process, knowledge, etc.; social psychology addresses an individual influenced by a group of people; environmental psychology considers the physical environment's influence on human behaviour; and economic psychology studies the behaviour of the human as a consumer. Figure 16 illustrates how the various dimensions of psychology can be classified.

Socio-cultural and behavioural psychology are the fields that are the most closely related to tourism. Socio-cultural psychology studies the behaviour of individuals and how they are influenced by the groups in which they live. Behavioural psychology seeks an explanation for human behaviours in the relationships between **events** in the environment that surrounds the person, which create stimuli, and the physiological events that are responses to those stimuli.

From a socio-psychological perspective, the tourist can be interpreted according to the social role that they play and the motivations that lead them to be a tourist at a given moment. Socio-psychology can also analyse the relationships established with the receiving community, other tourists and professionals in the sector. From this perspective, tourism can be understood as a collective behaviour. It can happen in a group, which will have the same perspective on what to see, what to eat and the best place for a particular photo, even if group members do not know each other. In other words, the group will have a very similar dynamic, making it possible to say that tourist behaviour exists. Rituals are established, such as visiting museums during the day and going out to dinner to a good restaurant at night, or shopping during the day and going to the theatre at night. Social psychology thus presents an area – consumer psychology – that uses constructs from social and cognitive psychology and analyses consumer attitudes and thus its direct relationship with tourism as a consumption practice.

Pearce (1982) has become a reference for the topic of psychology in tourism studies. For Pearce, social psychology studies on tourist behaviour should emphasize empirical data. These studies might use, among others, interview techniques and field and laboratory research, and should be processed statistically. Pearce (1982) stated that, in general, the creation of scales to classify tourist attitudes and the application of questionnaires and statistical treatments were contributions from psychology. In another study, Pearce (1991) states that many tourism approaches and studies use psychology, for example, to analyse tourist markets, tourist satisfaction and tourist needs.

According to Pearce (1991), some of the first psychology studies to focus on visitors and their behaviours were those conducted by Francis Galton (1822–1911), who studied visitors to London museums, and those conducted by Wilhelm Wundt (1832–1920), who studied interactions between **cultures** in the 19th century. In the USA after World

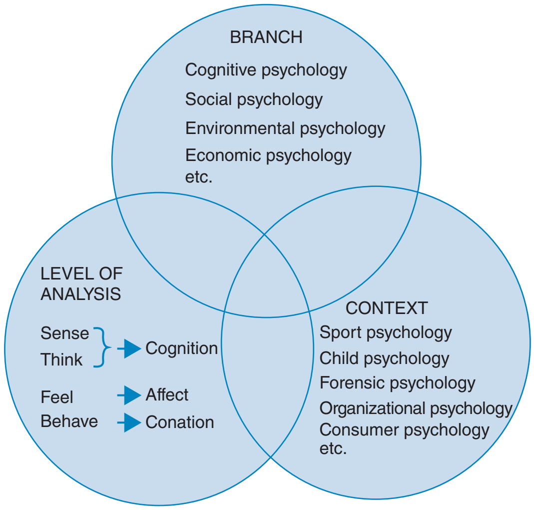

Fig. 16. Dimensions of psychology. (From Crouch *et al.*, 2004, p. 2.)

War II, studies focused on the shock generated by the encounter between nationalities and cultures, leading to the study of academic exchanges, migration and tourism (Pearce, 1991).

Crotts and van Raaij (1994) stated that psychology is fundamental to studies of travel and tourism because people react to economic conditions and do not always make perfect decisions such as maximizing benefits and minimizing costs; this behaviour should be studied. They focused on economic psychology, which provides evidence of consumer behaviour. This behaviour is a tool for developing economic theory and marketing, for the adoption of a consumption policy, and for research in the field of travel and tourism. More generally, 'economic psychology offers an interdisciplinary framework in which the methods and theories form the disciplines of **economics** and psychology can be used to explain the economic behaviour of individuals and groups' (Crotts and van Raaij, 1994, p. 1).

There are many possibilities for applying psychology to studies on tourism. Crouch *et al.* (2004) edited several chapters on emotion and learning in tourism, market segmentation in tourism, experience and satisfaction, and image and interpretation. They considered psychological studies on consumers in tourism, **hospitality** and **leisure** as embryonic and dispersed throughout different fields of study and scientific journals. However, according to Pearce and Packer (2013), there is now a rich body of theory that relates psychology and tourism, although 'contemporary tourism courses in business schools in particular tend to give only marginal attention to serious subject options in psychology' (Pearce and Packer, 2013, p. 388). Pabel and Pearce (2015) explored the benefits of humour for tourists and the businesses that they visited. Through empirical data collection in five places in Australia, the study identified the reasons that humour should be encouraged during touristic practices, including making the touristic experience more positive and encouraging the tourist to return to the location. Kirillova and Lehto (2015) used notions of existential authenticity and normal anxiety, and proposed a model for a vacation cycle with five phases (pre-vacation, ascent, peak, descent, post-vacation) to elucidate the mechanisms behind vacations and the resulting disappearance of their effects. The authors used the lenses of existential psychology in their analysis and argued that 'existential authenticity is a relative, dynamic, and four-dimensional concept' (Kirillova and Lehto, 2015, p. 110). They also stated that, accompanied by fluctuations in anxiety, authenticity varies during vacations through four dimensions of human existence: *Umwelt* (physical), *Mitwelt* (social or public), *Eigenwelt* (psychological or private) and *Uberwelt* (spiritual). Another example is that of Breitsohl and Garrod (2016), who studied how tourists react to unethical incidents. These authors worked with a hypothetical case of an incident and, using a structural equation model, found that the larger the incident and the greater the responsibility of local agencies, the more likely the tourist was to develop hostile feelings towards the destination. The study found that the tourist might emotionally avoid the incident, not speak about it, or pass along a negative image of the destination through word of mouth. This study also showed that the psychological elements of tourists, their feelings and their perceptions should be considered when developing destinations.

According to a set of **motivational** theories, the movement of tourists is a product of a combination of factors – pull–push factors – that not only cause the participant to leave their usual living environment but also attract them to one or more tourism destinations (Williams, 2002). The pull factor refers to elements that attract the tourist to a destination or attraction, whereas the push factor is associated with a desire to leave the usual living environment, seeking a 'change of air'. Although pull–push factors are implicit in many motivational theories, the most explicit reference may perhaps be found in the social psychology of tourism model by Iso-Ahola (1982). We have therefore chosen to analyse and describe this model as a more detailed example of psychology studies applied to tourism.

At first, Iso-Ahola (1982) proposed a leisure motivation theory composed of both seeking (intrinsic rewards in the environments to be visited) and escape ('escape from routine') elements. According to Iso-Ahola (1982), this dichotomy of motives is not mutually exclusive, and it is possible for someone to be involved with both motivations simultaneously. Moreover, both motivations have personal (psychological) and interpersonal (social) elements (see Fig. 17). In the model proposed by Iso-Ahola (1982), these key elements are located on the axis of a matrix, rendering it possible to construct a set of four theoretical 'cells'. There are escape and reward elements in each cell that are combined in different ways and within which the tourist motivations can be placed, depending on their particular circumstances and the objectives at each moment (Fig. 17).

In the case of cell 1, the traveller is escaping from their personal environment (e.g. stress and pollution in a large city) while seeking personal rewards (unwinding or learning about new cultures). In cell 2, the escape from the personal environment is contrasted with the search for new relationships, such as friendships, visiting relatives or looking for a romantic partner. In the case of cell 3, the tourist is escaping the interpersonal environment (affective family or friend relationships) and seeking personal rewards. Finally, cell 4 represents an escape from the interpersonal environment, seeking new types of relationships (e.g. the desire to forget an ex-boyfriend by looking for a new relationship on a singles cruise).

Generally, travellers will fit into a different cell on each new trip; this cell is influenced by the momentary circumstances experienced by the traveller. However, there might be a group of tourists who move through one or more cells over the course of a trip; they can begin the trip with the motivational push described in one cell and end it with that of another cell (Iso-Ahola, 1982). Iso-Ahola's model thus emphasizes the dialectic character of motivation for tourism and demonstrates that it is futile to attempt to categorize reasons separately from benefits. This is because reasons (e.g. discovering new places) can be a benefit, and benefits (e.g. escape from routine) can be reasons for tourist behaviour. Therefore, Iso-Ahola's model is a proposal with psychological foundations in the understanding of tourism.

Because it is a fertile field, new topics of studies involving psychology and tourism have emerged recently, including the following:

- *Tourism's relationship to humour*: Elspeth Frew (2006) conceptualized formal and informal humour in tourism and reflected on the importance of considering humour's importance to touristic experiences, particularly those related to managing humour experiences, such as comedy festivals. Pearce (2009) found that there are multiple uses of humour in tourism and that humour has three clear functions: (i) to establish comfort levels (e.g. in unknown or new situations); (ii) to increase the tourist's concentration (e.g. in some explanation of an attraction); and (iii) to connect tourists and their guides (e.g. travel guides). Pearce and Pabel (2015)

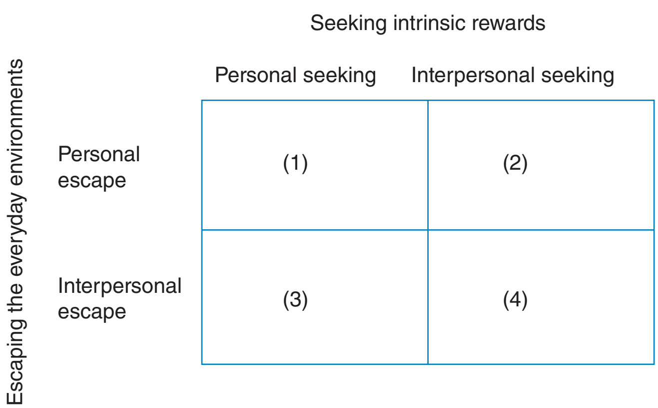

Fig. 17. A social-psychological model of tourism motivation. (From Iso-Ahola, 1982, p. 259.)

expanded this topic and discussed the various ways in which humour occurs during touristic experiences, e.g. with the tour guide, or with the marketing and promotion of travel narratives.

- *Travel narratives and touristic experience*: Bosangit *et al.* (2015) analysed travel narratives published by 19 British bloggers and showed the importance of the elements of travel narratives in the process of transforming travel experiences into individually significant experiences. The bloggers expressed how their trips contributed to self-identity, leading to self-development.
- *Quality of life and well-being in tourism*: Uysal *et al.* (2016), identifying an increase in studies on quality of life and well-being in tourism, conducted a literature review and offer guidelines to encourage future research. They focused their study on both resident communities and tourists, finding that touristic experiences and activities have an important effect on tourists and on the satisfaction and well-being of residents. This means that touristic experiences and activities tend to make a positive contribution to the familial, social, recreational and cultural domains of life.

Operationalizing

Although the model proposed by Iso-Ahola (1982) has existed since the late 1970s, there have been few attempts to test it. Snepenger *et al.* (2006) were among the first authors to explicitly construct and test a psychometric scale for the four dimensions of Iso-Ahola's motivational theory. They proposed accomplishing this goal by performing three investigations. The first developed and empirically tested the structure of Iso-Ahola's motivational theory, the second measured the similarities and differences in the increased motivation for identical and hypothetical experiences in tourism and **recreation**, and the third studied the statistical link between numerous recent tourism experiences and motivation. Each of the three investigations used the same data set but with different combinations of variables.

Based on a pilot test, 12 items that potentially characterized the four motivational dimensions were proposed, as shown in Table 7. The authors then proposed that undergraduate students (n = 353) considered four types of activities to test the four motivational dimensions: sporting events, the beach, an amusement park and nature parks.

Table 7. Twelve items that potentially characterize the four motivational dimensions. (From Snepenger *et al.*, 2006.)

PE – Personal Escape	PS – Personal Seeking
Escape from the day-to-day	Tell other people about my personal experience
Change of routine	Feel better
Improve a bad mood	Try new things
IE – Interpersonal Escape	**IS – Interpersonal Seeking**
Avoid unpleasant people	Be around people with similar interests
Take a break from a stressful social environment	Be closer to friends and family
Avoid interaction with other people	Meet new people

Starting from the assumption that Iso-Ahola's theory suggests a correlation between the different dimensions of motivation for a given activity, the indices for each place (sporting events, the beach, an amusement park and nature parks) were correlated for different proposed models. Thus, for example, the indices for interpersonal escape at parks, personal escape at parks, interpersonal seeking at parks and personal seeking at parks were all correlated. Investigation 1, proposed by the authors (Snepenger *et al.*, 2006), confirmed that the four dimensions (interpersonal escape, personal escape, interpersonal seeking and personal seeking) proposed by Iso-Ahola stood out as intrinsic motivations for tourism.

Investigation 2 explored the motivational items among similar recreation and tourism experiences. For each of the four activities (motivational items for interpersonal escape, personal escape, interpersonal seeking and personal seeking), motivation was greater for touristic experiences than for similar recreation experiences. Furthermore, personal escape and personal seeking were found at higher rates than interpersonal escape and interpersonal seeking for similar recreation and tourism experiences. These results suggest that motivation can serve as a useful tool for segmenting tourists and positioning touristic and recreational experiences.

Finally, investigation 3 considered the relationship between motives and experience. The analysis revealed that motive can be an attribute regardless of the number of domestic and international vacations taken by a respondent in the 12 months prior to the study.

Exercise

Look at the article entitled 'Has Barcelona been spoilt by tourism?', published by *The Telegraph* (2014). As a local documentary claims that Barcelona is overrun with tourists, their expert reveals where to escape the crowds:

> A film, entitled *Bye Bye Barcelona*, is causing a stir on YouTube as it features residents who complain about the negative impact of tourism on the city.
>
> The documentary, shot by Barcelona artist Eduardo Chibas (byebyebarcelona.com), shows locals being interviewed who, for example, claim that there are now more tourists than residents and that the city is becoming a "theme park".
>
> One resident laments the city's "loss of enchantment", while another suggests tourists should pay more taxes. Footage shows shops selling gaudy ceramic lizards and residents marching with placards protesting about the privatisation of Parc Guell, the once public park that now requires a €7 (£5.77) fee to enter.
>
> "It is true that there are parts of Barcelona that get incredibly touristy and are best avoided – La Rambla during peak times, the Port Olímpic at any time," said Sally Davies, the author of the Telegraph's travel app and guide to Barcelona.

Based on the above passage, discuss how the overcrowding of a city by tourists has a psychological effect on the city's traditional inhabitants. Imagine crowded stores, changes in the city's architecture to adapt it to tourism, queues in supermarkets, a lack of basic products and the clash of cultures. Have you ever experienced this situation in the place where you live? Discuss this issue.

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2.7 The Sociology of Tourism

WITH BIANCA FREIRE-MEDEIROS

The systemic, multidimensional and globalized character of the touristic phenomenon requires the mobilization of theoretical and methodological contributions from diverse disciplinary fields. When the aim is to specifically understand the social and cultural diversity of the touristic subject – from the roles and functions performed by the actors that compose the production chain to the power relationships and hierarchies that mark the interactions between the visitors and the visited – the conceptual apparatus and methodological protocols developed in the field of sociology gain importance (Cohen, 1984; Jafari, 1987; Urry, 1990; Apostolopoulos, 1993; Freire-Medeiros, 2000).

In the late 19th century, as sociology emerged and was consolidated as a field of knowledge, travel lost its aristocratic character to define itself as an essentially bourgeois experience. Advances in **transport** and communication technologies, along with the popularization of **leisure** guaranteed by the West's new labour laws, led to proliferation in the number of trips and a diversification of destinations. In a relatively short period of time, travel became synonymous with acquiescence to mass patterns of location consumption; the traveller was transmuted into a tourist. Sociologists were not oblivious to either these changes or their social consequences. Georg Simmel's reflections on the 'blasé subject' (an individual unable to react to new stimuli with adequate energy) that were forged in the early decades of the 20th century to account for the intensification of spatial displacements that, for the author, defined modernity itself, even today inspire us to think about various dimensions of contemporary travel.

This does not mean, however, that the touristic phenomenon itself has gained centrality in the agenda of topics addressed by those called the founding fathers of sociology. Its status as a 'sui generis social fact', to use Émile Durkheim's expression, deserving of the same reflective attention devoted to already consecrated topics (such as those related to the world of production), did not take place immediately. For a considerable period of time, there was a gap between tourism's importance as a social phenomenon and its importance as an object of sociological reflection; moreover, there was a prevalent ideological myopia that prevented sociologists from addressing the topic of tourism in its positivity. In other words, sociologists were slow to direct the focus of their attention to the touristic phenomenon; moreover, when they did so, they tended to define tourism in a normative manner, as a corrupted – and corrupting – version of the practice of pre-capitalist travel.

In this sense, it is unsurprising that, in the beginning, the prevailing approaches were constructed around the opposition between what was a supposedly genuine search for the unknown (travel) and what would circumscribe pre-programmed vacations (tourism). This was the case for two seminal authors: H.M. Enzensberger and Daniel J. Boorstin. For Enzensberger (1958), a student of Theodor Adorno (1903–1969) and Max Horkheimer (1895–1973), tourism – alongside cinema, radio, television, fashion and religion – should be understood as one of the primary products of a consciousness industry intended to encourage escapism and nostalgia. Following this theoretical lead, Boorstin (1962) described the supposedly perverse processes that led to the replacement of the real by its simulacrum in the USA, a nation of entertainment capitalism par excellence. Full of nostalgia, Boorstin argued that individual travellers, explorers and romantics were replaced by the mass tourist, eager to enjoy pre-fabricated **events** without leaving the 'bubble of protection' provided by the hotel and the organized tour, which isolate the tourist from the strangeness of the environment that surrounds them.

In the 1970s, while international development agencies were betting on tourism as a solution to the economic problems of peripheral nations, sociologists (and especially anthropologists) critically examined tourism's impact on receiving communities, noting its adverse effects: economic dependence, corroded values, modified cultural practices and environmental degradation (see Turner and Ash, 1975; Smith, 1989). Tourism was therefore taken as a synonym for exploitation, an epitome of the devastating power of consumer society and a threat to the balance of host communities.

Since then, an understanding of tourists as more than a garbled, mediocre and reactionary version of the 19th-century traveller has emerged and become consolidated based on a dialogue among various authors with extensive knowledge of sociological propositions and who are not necessarily based in *sensu stricto* sociology departments (see, among others, Graburn, 1983; Krippendorf, 1987; Lea, 1988; Crick, 1989; Chambers, 1997; Clifford, 1997; Rojek and Urry, 1997; Steil, 2002). This is not the place to revive the argument mobilized by each of these authors, but it is important to highlight the contribution of two whose works had a global impact: Dean MacCannell and John **Urry**.

In *The Tourist: A New Theory of the Leisure Class*, MacCannell (1989) argued that, more than simple **entertainment** and superficial contacts, tourists are seeking authentic experiences, even though their search is doomed to frustration. MacCannell proposed the tourist as an interpretative key to the contemporary world because travel represents a collective effort to unify and make sense of an increasingly contradictory and fragmented world. Modern society is experiencing a process of structural differentiation in which the categories that once provided order – social class, profession and ethnicity – have become increasingly complex and volatile. MacCannell argued that we can no longer recognize ourselves in simple dualities such as workers and employers, nor can we consider sexual identities in binary biological terms. This explosion of differences, inherent to the contemporary world, leads us to travel to visit certain idealized places as a locus of authentic elements belonging to other **cultures** or a mythologized past, 'enactments' of which include the participation of the natives themselves, who benefit from the job opportunities and income generated by tourism. Beyond the playful sense that most often animates tourism, the act of travelling helps the contemporary subject construct totalities based on disparate experiences because, as a tourist, they are given the opportunity to formulate both their own trajectory and that of their society as 'an orderly series of formal representations, like snapshots in a family album' (see p. 15).

John Urry echoed MacCannell's arguments with respect to the deconstruction of the 'native' as a victim and the centrality of tourism to the understanding of contemporary society. However, he did not agree that the tourist's primary motivation is the search for the authentic. In *The Tourist Gaze*, Urry (1990) defended the idea that what interests the tourist is the exotic, defined *ad hoc* and reinterpreted in accordance with the requirements of a consumer society whose primary characteristic is the valorization of amusement, pleasure and imitation. Using the concept of reflexivity from the sociologist Anthony Giddens, Urry argued that places and **landscapes** are transformed into objects of reflexive consumption by the actual tourist, who has a new gaze. The 'tourist gaze', once shrouded in a certain romanticized and individual air, has become sober and collective, always depending on the presence of other tourists and media representations to construct it as such. Although Urry's empirical reference was Great Britain, his argument was intended to be generalized: in the Western world, the search for historical places transformed into museological spaces is based on a 'postmodern museum culture' in which almost everything is transmuted into an 'object of curiosity' for tourists.

As Dann and Cohen (1991) noted, given the inherently multifaceted nature of tourism, there will never be a single sociological perspective that has a monopoly on explaining the touristic phenomenon or that can impose definitive methodological protocols on researchers. The menu of topics and timelines does not lend itself to syntheses either, because the large 'sociology of tourism' umbrella shelters those interested in understanding it as a form of commodified **hospitality** or a genuine encounter between alterities, as a form of neo-colonialism or a democratizing experience, or as a process of acculturation or an exercise necessary to the development of a welcome cosmopolitan stance.

In the 21st century, although the importance and legitimacy of tourism as a sociological research object is no longer in dispute, it cannot be said that tourism enjoys academic prestige or has won the same recognition – whether symbolic or material – attributed to other objects (Barretto, 2000; Apostolopoulos *et al.*, 2013). Moreover, the quality of tourism research is quite uneven in terms of both theoretical density and methodological sophistication compared with the production of various sociology departments around the world. If we take Brazil as an example, we can see that, given tourism's importance to Brazil in economic, social and environmental terms, it is surprising that there is so little reflection accumulated on the topic in the field of social sciences in general and sociology in particular. Only recently have Brazilian sociologists turned to the issue to account for the various modalities of tourism, tourists and touristic experiences, understanding tourism as capable of generating specific social relationships that have as-yet-unknown consequences for both individuals and their cultures.

In general terms and with rare exceptions, what Dennison Nash's (1996) interesting genealogy of the field identified two decades ago as the effects of a theoretical and methodological immaturity continues to prevail. In Nash's understanding, this lack of maturity was caused largely by the fact that social scientists, obviously including sociologists, have insisted on addressing tourism from three reductionist perspectives: (i) as a form of acculturation or development; (ii) as a personal transition of the travelling individual; or (iii) as a type of superstructure. This is not to say, however, that the sociology of tourism has not advanced significantly or that it can be considered as knowledge irrelevant to the understanding of tourism in all its complexity. In contrast, as a science that aims to understand the social structures that enable the existence of tourism flows, along with their socio-economic and cultural impacts, sociology is more necessary than ever in a world in which 'being a tourist' is experienced by a growing number of people.

Operationalizing

By the beginning of the 1980s, Jost Krippendorf had already indicated the need to critically examine the relationship between tourism and **sustainability**. Since then, sociologists have turned their focus to touristic forms that present themselves as alternatives to mass tourism. Despite the normative and conceptual differences separating their empirical variations, so-called alternative tourism is generally intended to be 'socially responsible', 'ecologically correct' and 'economically sustainable'. Given this situation, sociologists such as John Urry have noted the inevitable tension between the expectations of 'alternative tourists' and the frameworks of the tourism sector, based not only on highly polluting forms of transport but also on socially unequal arrangements between visitors and the visited. Moreover, Urry (2001, p. 2) analysed the transformation of places – not without social tensions – whose primary activity was not tourism, but which have undergone adaptations and are now tourism destinations, as follows:

> …significantly for the 'tourist gaze' an array of developments are taking 'tourism' from the margins of the global order, and indeed of the academy, to almost the centre of this emergent world of 'liquid modernity'. First, tourism infrastructures have been constructed in what would have been thought of as the unlikeliest of places. While clearly most people across the world are not global tourists *qua* visitors, this does not mean that the places that they live in and the associated images of nature, nation, colonialism, sacrifice, community, heritage and so on, are not powerful constituents of a rapacious global tourism. Some unexpected destinations that are now significantly implicated in the patterns of global tourism, include Alaska, Auschwitz-Birkenau, Antarctica especially in Millennium year, Changi Jail in Singapore, Nazi cccupation sites in the Channel Islands, Dachau, extinct coal mines, Cuba and especially its 'colonial' and 'American' heritages, Iceland, Mongolia, Mount Everest, Northern Ireland, Northern Cyprus under Turkish 'occupation', Pearl Harbour, post-communist Russia, Robben Island in South Africa, Sarajevo's 'massacre trail', outer space, Titanic, Vietnam and so on (see Lennon and Foley, 2000, on 'dark tourism'; O'Rourke, 1988, on 'holidays in hell'). In certain cases becoming a tourist destination is part of a reflexive process by which societies and places come to 'enter' the global order (or 're-enter' as in the case of Cuba during the 1990s)…

Exercise

Choose a touristic initiative (a type of **lodging**, a tour, a destination, a park, an attraction, etc.) that classifies itself as 'alternative' in your country. From the standpoint of the social, economic and environmental relationships that it engenders, evaluate whether the initiative has positive effects on tourists, residents and industry professionals.

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2.8 Boullón's Theory of Touristic Space

Roberto C. Boullón presents his theory of touristic space in the book *Planificación del espacio turístico*, released by the Mexican publisher Trillas in 1985. His work is primarily influential in Latin America; it has never become well known outside this region because it was never published in English, only in Spanish (1985 and 1989 in different editions) and Portuguese (2002). For Boullón (2001, p. 65), '...the touristic space is a consequence of the presence and territorial distribution of tourist attractions, which, we must not forget, are the raw material of tourism. This element of touristic heritage, in addition to business ventures and tourist infrastructure, are sufficient to define the touristic space of any country'.

According to Boullón (2001), because tourist attractions rarely touch each other, there are no touristic regions. Even in a country with a high density of tourist attractions, there are large areas devoid of such attractions; thus, regionalization techniques should not be used in tourist planning or else large areas without tourist attractions would be classified as touristic, which would be erroneous. Seeking to replace the idea of a touristic region, Boullón proposed the theory of touristic space.

Touristic space is determined by observing the territorial distribution of tourist attractions and infrastructure. By doing so, it becomes possible to identify various components, which are classified according to their size. These components can thus be distinguished as a zone, area, complex, centre, unit, nucleus, **cluster**, corridor, transit corridor or, finally, visiting corridor.

A *tourist zone* 'is the largest unit for analysing and structuring a country's touristic spatial universe' (Boullón, 2001, p. 66). Its size is variable because it depends on the area of the country in which it is located. Each zone should have at least ten relatively close tourist attractions. Figure 18 shows two types of tourist zones: the first in a small country and the second in a country with a larger land area.

Tourist areas 'are the parts a zone can be divided into, and their surface is therefore smaller than that of the whole which contains them' (Boullón, 2001, p. 69). They function as a subsystem of a larger system and should have a good transport and communication infrastructure, along with a tourist centre and a minimum of ten tourist attractions. Figure 19 shows tourist zone 5 (Z.5) of Fig. 18 divided into two tourist areas (A.5.1 and A.5.2).

The *tourist centre* 'is the entire urban conglomeration that has tourist attractions in its own territory or within its radius of influence of a type and rank sufficient to motivate a tourist trip' (Boullón, 2001, pp. 69–70). They can be divided into the following categories:

- *Distribution tourist centres*: the tourist stays there for 1–3 days and visits all of the tourist attractions that are close by.
- *Visiting tourist centres*: the tourist stays there and visits the same attraction every day, e.g. a beach.
- *Scale tourist centres*: the connections of transport networks and intermediate points on long trips, i.e. intermediary stages between the outbound and inbound markets.
- *Excursion tourist centres*: receive tourists for at least 24 hours; these tourists arrive from other tourist centres.

A tourist centre's influence radius is estimated as 2 hours of distance-time, depending on the vehicle and path used, which can range from a dirt road to a motorway. Figure 20 shows the radius of influence of a tourist centre.

The term *tourist complex* is not used often. It consists of a grouping that is larger than a centre but smaller than a zone. It has one or more 'attractions of the highest rank, whose visitation, associated with others that complement it, assumes a stay of three or more days' (Boullón, 2001, pp. 76–77). Although the existence of a tourist complex depends

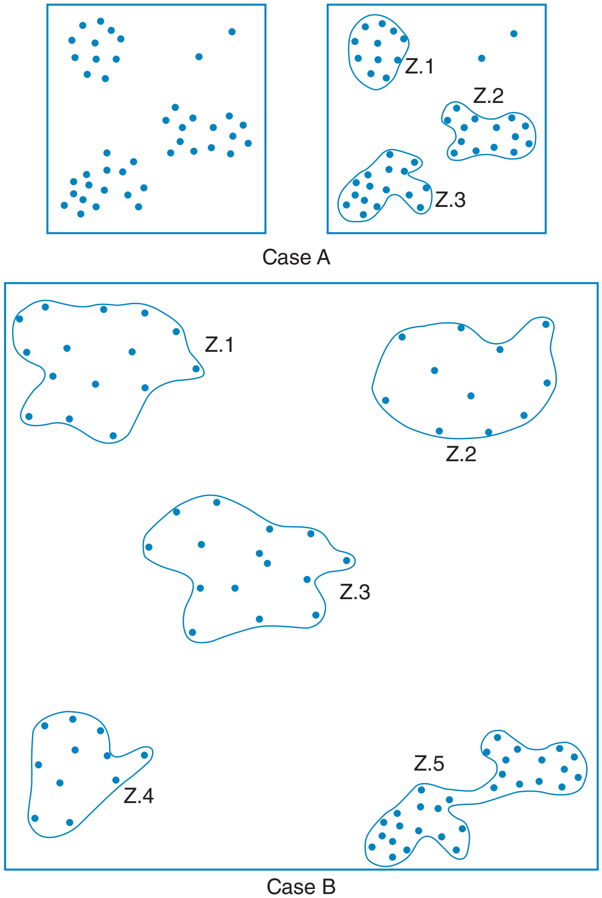

Fig. 18. Delimitation of tourist zones (Z). (From Boullón, 2001, p. 67.)

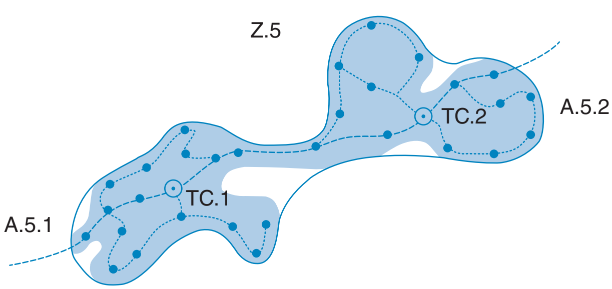

Fig. 19. A tourist zone divided into areas. TC, tourist centre. (From Boullón, 2001, p. 70.)

on the presence of at least one distribution tourist centre, it can also be structured based on two or more centres (Fig. 21). The classic example of a tourist complex is Iguaçu National Park, where two tourist centres seek to work in a coordinated manner: the Argentine (http://www.iguazuargentina.com) and Brazilian sides (http://www.cataratasdoiguacu.com.br).

Tourist units are 'smaller concentrations of facilities that are produced to intensively explore one or more attractions located next to each other' (Boullón, 2001, p. 79). Thus, a tourist unit can be a water park or a forested garden with a gazebo and walking trails in the woods.

A *tourist nucleus* is a touristic grouping that has between two and nine tourist attractions

Fig. 20. Radius of influence of tourist centres. (From Boullón, 2001, p. 72.)

and that is isolated in the territory, hindering its operation.

A *tourist cluster* is a tourist nucleus that has been connected to a network of roads, a factor that changes its spatial situation. This is the phase during which the nuclei consolidate their operations by constructing a tourism business. A tourist cluster evolves into tourist units or centres.

Tourism corridors are the routes connecting the components of the touristic space; they can be for either transit or visiting.

Transit tourism corridors are a country's road networks, along which tourists flow to complete their journey. Corridors with a better **landscape** should be prioritized, even when they are longer. There should be various tourist facilities along the corridor to ensure the safety of all tourists passing through; these

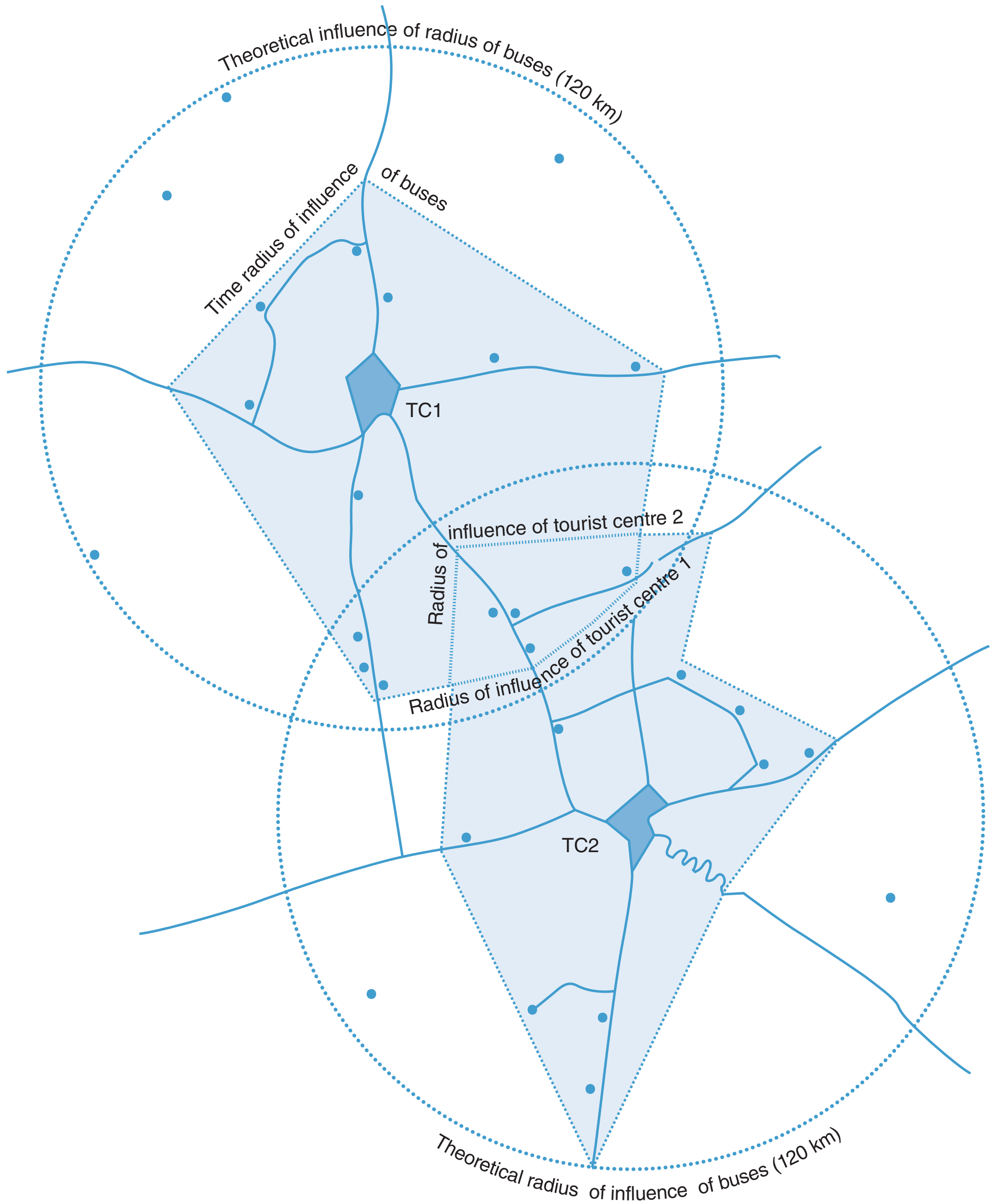

Fig. 21. Physical structure of tourist complexes. (From Boullón, 2001, p. 78.)

facilities should include petrol stations, restaurants, shops, tyre stores and hotels for overnight stays.

The *visiting tourism corridor* 'plays the combined role of a tourist centre and a corridor' (Boullón, 2001, pp. 84–85). It is an elongated area usually located along rivers, lakes and seas. Some examples might include scenic highways in coastal regions or even tourist routes, usually off the highway, passing through smaller places.

Boullón (2001) thus presented three categories of touristic elements, indicated below:

1. Elements covering relatively large surface areas:
   - zones;
   - areas;
   - complexes;
   - nuclei;
   - clusters; and
   - distribution centres.
2. Elements that are localized, covering relatively small areas:
   - scale centres;
   - visiting centres; and
   - units.
3. Longitudinal elements:
   - transit corridors; and
   - visiting corridors.

Boullón's theory is important as it is one of the foundations for developing tourism flows and establishing the sector's other activities, because **tourism planning** should begin by identifying the physical and geographical aspects of the destination being developed. Obviously, this is a proposal for geographical spacing that cannot always be applied to all destinations. One criticism of this approach concerns the fact that the theory proposes clear limits between touristic spaces, which does not always occur in practice.

Operationalizing

Boullón's theory of touristic space is a typical example of a theoretical contribution to tourism that has had a significant impact on a particular group of researchers – in this case, primarily Latin American researchers who speak Spanish or Portuguese – but that is almost unknown by English-speaking researchers. Google Scholar indicates more than 800 citations in Spanish (in December 2015) of Boullón's original book published in 1985; the Portuguese translation of the book published in 2002 has 400 citations (in December 2015).

One work that applies Boullón's theory of touristic space has been developed by Ramos and Lopes (2012). They analyse the tourism regionalization programme (*Programa de Regionalização do Turismo*) implemented at the national level by Brazil's Ministry of Tourism in 2004, which focused on the BR 343 highway, a tourist route in the state of Piauí in north-eastern Brazil. In this study, the authors adopted the longitudinal category (transit corridor or visiting corridor) proposed by Boullón to analyse touristic movements along this corridor. Examining the various tourism destinations, the authors analysed the characteristics of this route according to Boullón's theory, presenting justifications for their choices. In this particular case, Boullón's theory facilitated an understanding of the hierarchy among the different tourist zones, with their respective tourist areas and centres, and the functions of the transit and visiting corridors, in the latter case indicating the number of potential nights that tourists can stay to interact with the touristic potential offered.

Exercise

For a particular region that you have visited or are familiar with, by using a map try to identify the various elements of the touristic space proposed by Boullón. In particular, focus your attention on identifying the tourist zone, the tourist areas and the existing infrastructure of **transport** to distribute the tourists.

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2.9 Nodal Functions

As demonstrated by the structural models that are described in this book (e.g. Leiper in '**General systems theory and tourism**' entry and Mariot in '**Mariot's model of tourist flows**' entry), any tourist's travel plan contains at least two geographical regions: the place of origin and the tourism destination. The origin, also known as the 'permanent place of residence' in Mariot's model, is the usual living environment of the tourist, which the tourist must transpose in order for the travel to be characterized as touristic (see '**Tourism and travel**' entry). In addition to the number of people living in a certain area, other factors can influence a region's status as a supplier of tourists, including the population's income, the local cost of living (a high cost in the place of origin can encourage travel to places with lower costs of living), political factors (e.g. bans on leaving the country, as was the case in many communist countries) and environmental considerations (i.e. climate and pollution) (Pearce, 2001b). Tourism destinations constitute the regions of touristic interest; this term is also presented in this book.

A plethora of **transport** networks combine various modes of transport of different geographical scales to interconnect the various destinations and origins. These networks are interconnected by terminals or nodes that, in many cases, may fulfil special functions within the network. Among these functions, two are characterized in a special manner: hubs and gateways. To illustrate this, Fig. 22 displays a theoretical example of the four types of nodal functions that are considered here: origins, destinations, hubs and gateways. Initially, all nine dots shown in each scheme of this figure (A–I) can be considered potential origins and tourism destinations. However, point F has a privileged location in the transport network because most of the traffic that connects the various parts of the system pass through it, thus characterizing a hub. More theoretically, hubs have been defined as exhibiting 'centrality and intermediation spatial qualities [which] increase the importance and levels of traffic hubs strategically located within the transport system' (Hoyle and Knowles, 1998, p. 2).

Most transport hubs are associated with air travel. Compared with road and rail networks, the implementation or displacement of the air hub from the node of one network to another is much easier, given that air transport uses airways, which do not require construction. Examples of rail hubs include those in the cities of Paris (France) and Chicago, Illinois (USA). Among the advantages of hubs is the possibility of interconnecting multiple points in a network with few connecting pairs (compare the number of connecting pairs that are required to travel from point A to point D in the diagrams of Fig. 22). The major disadvantage of the hub is that the travel time increases considerably because not only can the distance travelled increase (compare the increase in the distance travelled when connecting points B and C in both diagrams of Fig. 22), but a layover time may accrue at the hub between two travel segments.

Figure 23 displays the domestic routes of the TAM airline at the end of 2006. This map shows the existence of at least two hubs: one in Brasília and one in São Paulo. Part of the aviation crisis in Brazil at the end of 2006 and throughout 2007 was associated with these two hubs. In the case of Brasília, according to the standard operations adopted by the CINDACTA air traffic controllers of Brasília and also due to the number of travellers (18% of passenger traffic in the country passed through this airport in 2006), there was a documented overutilization of the Congonhas airport as it transported 18 million passengers in 2006, although it only had the capacity for 12 million passengers per year. Due to the characteristics of the runway and its location in central São Paulo, the delays were

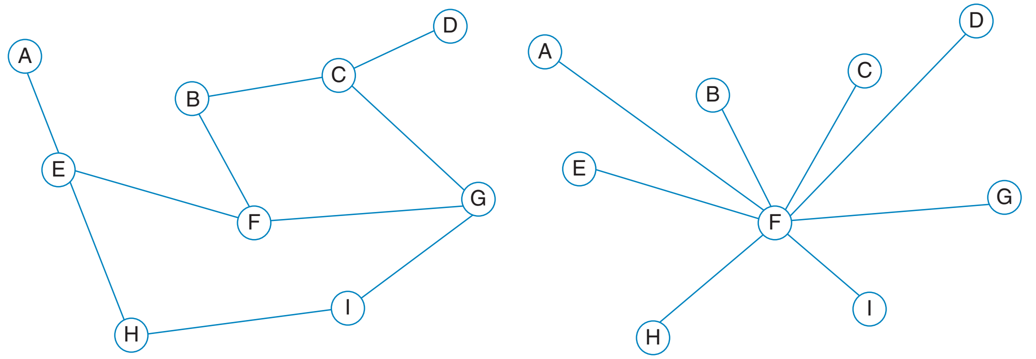

Fig. 22. Theoretical example of a grid network (left), converted to a hub spoke (right).

constant in Congonhas, which affected the entire aviation system in the country.

Another special feature illustrated in Fig. 22 (left diagram) is nodes C and E because the entire connection to or from node A occurs through E, and all connections to or from node D occur through C. This makes node E the gateway to node A and, consequently, the exit from A to the rest of the network (the same is true for the node C/D relationship). According to Burghardt (in Pearce, 2001a, p. 937), there are four attributes of gateway cities: (i) these cities are 'in charge of the connections between the tributary area and the rest of the world' and they develop 'in positions that have the potential to control the flow of goods and people'; (ii) they usually develop, in the contact zones, differences in the intensities and types of production; (iii) although the local ties are important, the gateways are best characterized by long-distance commerce connections; and (iv) they are strongly committed to transport and trade.

One aspect of a gateway is the notion of intermediateness, which can be 'expanded by an association with a function of stopover, from where visitors are sent to other centres or resorts' (Pearce, 2001b, p. 31). Gateways can generally be compared with a funnel through which travellers converge from different routes to gain access through a certain point and from where they can either disperse or converge, depending on the function of the other node. Another method of illustrating the concept of the gateway is presented in the diagram proposed by Burghardt (1971) (Fig. 23), in which this nodal function is classified as a node in a traffic flow system (panel I) or as an interconnection link between two matrices (panel II). Due to the locations of the hubs and the gateways in the transport network, these two nodal functions are privileged to obtain an intense flow of travellers who pass through them to reach other nodes. This function lends the gateways the added advantage of capturing the passing traffic, with some travellers stopping and becoming tourists. Two examples of hubs that have taken advantage of the flow of passengers to expand their tourism destinations are Singapore (Asia) and the United Arab Emirates (UAE). In both cases, the national airlines (Singapore Airlines and Emirates, respectively) created in-flight services with excellent international recognition that increasingly captivated new and old passengers (Lohmann *et al.*, 2009). With the significant flow of passengers who currently use both the Changi and Dubai airports as hubs, numerous incentives have been created to encourage these passengers to take advantage of passing through the hub to become acquainted with the hubs as tourism destinations. Among these promotions are incentives for shopping tourism, including the purchase of airfares combined with hotel stays at significantly reduced rates, in addition to a range of services provided by the existing infrastructure of the airports (Lohmann *et al.*, 2009). For example, at Changi Airport in Singapore, passengers waiting for more than 5 hours between flights can take a free bus from the terminal to tour the city and can even choose between two different itineraries. Regarding the gateways, Mistilis and Dwyer (1999) demonstrated that these nodal functions are in a privileged position to host exhibitions, conventions, meetings and incentive **events** compared with tourism destinations that are not gateways.

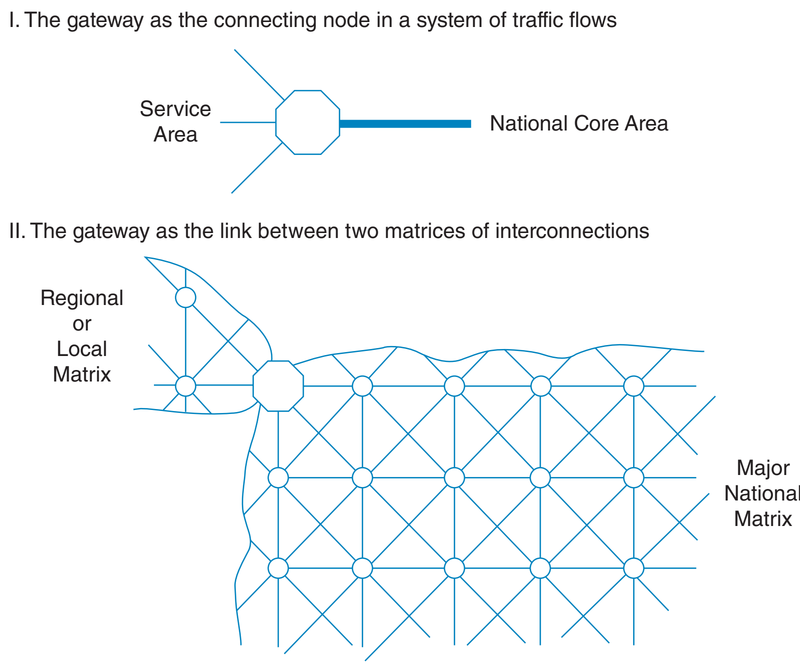

Fig. 23. Diagram of the gateway as a node and as a link. (From Burghardt, 1971.)

Operationalizing

In his doctoral thesis on the conversion of passengers on ferries that connect the North and South Islands of New Zealand to tourists, Lohmann (2006) operationalized the concepts of gateway and tourism destinations using three variables: (i) the reason for travel to the gateway; (ii) the number of nights spent at the gateway; and (iii) the **trip index** (TI) to the gateway (see Chapter 4.8, this volume). To analyse the propensity of passengers who make the connection between the islands to become tourists at the gateways (in this case, Wellington in the North Island, and Picton in the South Island), the author proposed the categorization of the ferry users under four different types, as displayed in Fig. 24:

- Gateway travellers (GTs) are defined as passengers who do not stay at the node and whose main reason to go there is the connection between the islands. In this case, it becomes clear that the reason for travel to the node is its function as a gateway, with no further involvement with the tourism sector.
- Stopover visitors (SVs) are classified by two situations. In the first situation, the traveller is not staying overnight at the node but has another major reason to go there besides the connection between the islands (SV1). The second situation occurs when the traveller is staying overnight at the node, as long as they are spending more than one night away from home on this trip (TI = 100) and has another primary reason to travel to the node in addition to taking the ferry to travel to another island (SV2). SVs can be characterized by their interaction with the node beyond its role as a gateway. Although a greater engagement with the tourism sector is not established, particularly among those travellers who are not staying overnight at the node, at least the existing interaction is stronger than in the case of gateway travellers, who are simply passing through the node.
- Overnight gateway visitors (OGVs) are those who remain for a single night at the node, as long as they are spending more than one night away from home during the trip (TI ≠ 100) and the travel between the islands is the main reason for travelling to the node. The only difference between the gateway traveller and the overnight gateway visitor is that the latter remains for one night at the node.

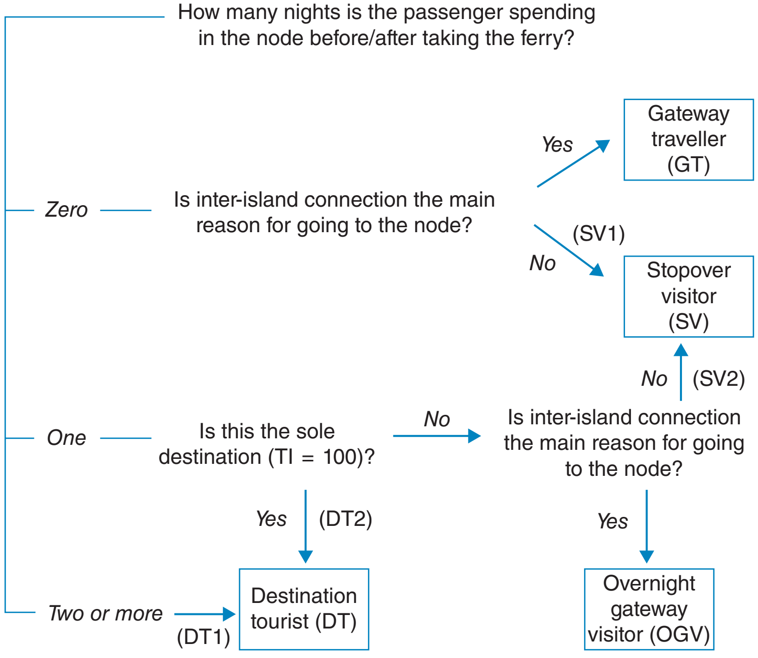

Fig. 24. Operationalizing the concepts of travellers through the gateway: gateway travellers, stopover visitors, overnight gateway visitors and destination tourists. (From Lohmann, 2006.)

- Passengers staying two or more nights are classified as destination tourists (DTs), regardless of the main reason for travelling to the node. While some travellers in this category assert that their main reason to go to Wellington or Picton is the connection between the islands, the fact that they are staying two or more nights indicates that there are other important reasons for going there (DT1). DTs also include those travellers who are staying only one night at the node, provided that this is their only destination (TI = 100; DT2). This type of traveller is classified, based on the Oppermann model, as having a single destination pattern.

Exercise

To further explore this issue, visit the websites of Changi Airport in Singapore and Emirates Airlines and observe their latest marketing strategies for encouraging air travellers to visit Singapore and the UAE.

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2.10 Tourism Public Policy

The term 'tourism public policy' refers to the guidance given by various levels of government for the development of touristic activity in a particular location. This guidance should be expressed both in an official document and in other government documents related to the topic. It is advisable to consult representatives from the tourism sector and society when preparing this type of document. According to Edgell and Swanson (2013), a tourism policy should aim to improve the quality of life of local citizens at a particular destination. According to Krippendorf (1982), four primary factors – social, cultural, economic and environmental – should be considered when establishing a tourism policy. It is also important to seek to develop the sector holistically, analysing and valorizing each component of the tourist system to which the policy will be applied.

There are a large number of studies in tourism public policy. These studies include but are not limited to the following: Elliot (1983, 1997), Richter (1983), Hall (1994), Dredge (1999), Dredge (2006), Stevenson *et al.* (2008), Farsari *et al.* (2011) and Wang and Ap (2013). According to Henriksen and Halkier (2012), the various studies show that tourism public policy is particularly focused on the inherent difficulty of orchestrating changes that involve a combination of different services, such as **transport**, accommodation, attractions and a range of other activities, which are typically offered by small local companies.

According to Dredge and Jenkins (2011), research on planning and policy in the field of tourism is relatively new, beginning at the turn of the century. The field has developed under the influence of three factors: first, the growing influence of criticism, which is supported by social constructionism; secondly, an increase in the post-disciplinary research perspective, which opened new investigative frontiers with elements outside the field of tourism; and thirdly, the knowledge gained from reflective practice with attention to ethical values, which has critically stimulated interpretive theoretical development.

Tourism public policy should be used to foster tourist development based on actions planned by the sector. According to Fayos-Solá (1996), various changes in the tourism sector, such as the growth of market segmentation, new technologies, new products and new forms of management, require governments to significantly update tourism public policies. He added that tourism public policy has shifted from the pure promotion of destinations to the development of products intended to maintain competitiveness. According to the World Tourism Organization (WTO, 2011), this perspective indicates that countries and regions that want to increase and develop domestic tourism and to succeed in the competitive international market should have a clear public policy that establishes guidelines, strategies, objectives and key actions for the sector.

Edgell and Swanson (2013) stated that the role of tourism policy and strategic planning is crucial to economic prosperity, sustainable management and the quality of life of most communities, destinations and countries. The key to tourism's growth will thus be to ensure careful and effective planning at destinations. Wang and Ap (2013), in a study focused on China, identified four factors that influence the implementation of a tourism public policy (i) economic and social macro-environment; (ii) institutional arrangements; (iii) inter-organizational relationships and coordination structures; and (iv) interest groups.

Government tourism policy often reflects the political landscape. Usually, there is strong internal debate about the impact of tourism, the amount of financial resources to be invested in developing a tourism policy, and the desired relationship with other governments and states (independent or not), among other factors. Indeed, government policies and government actions can either stimulate or slow the development of tourism, both nationally and internationally.

A political system can be liberal, democratic or totalitarian, and it can be politically right or left wing. In practice, however, every type of regime should be responsible for tourism. The political system's dominant ideological and philosophical beliefs and values will determine the extent to which governments will intervene in the economic system, the private sector's role, and the amount of support and funding that will be given to the development of tourism.

According to Mattheus (2000), the government's interaction with tourism depends primarily on the nature of the political system in question, how powers are distributed among the various agencies and how power is derived, whether through popular elections or a less democratic process. In a federal system, for example, governmental functions are distributed among various levels of authorities, such as provinces, states, counties, cities and municipalities, in addition to the national level. In a capitalist economy, there is more emphasis on interaction with the private sector to promote and regulate tourism, whereas in a socialist system, the government assumes a more regulatory role, directing and providing tourism businesses. Valente *et al.* (2014, 2015) discussed the various forms of leadership exercised by regional tourism organizations, analysing a touristic region of Brazil's Estrada Real (Royal Road). In their studies, these authors identified the governance characteristics of both a market- and a government-focused organization.

Brown (2000) stated that the lack of a clear and defined tourism policy for a particular region that wishes to develop tourism can cause many problems for the tourism sector, including the following: the destruction of cultural and natural heritage; mistakes in decisions about applying tourism investments; and the creation of a stereotypical image of the destination due to misguided marketing strategies.

Mattheus (2000) also discussed how the government functions affecting tourism are distributed by organization type and level; there are various levels of government authority for various tourism issues. Three examples of this phenomenon include the following. First, the visa requirement for foreign tourists entering the country is a decision made by the national government that it is applied throughout the country's territory. Secondly, the requirement to be vaccinated against a particular type of disease may exist for visitors to one state and not another, even though they are neighbours within a single nation. This is a state decision and does not interfere in the national territory. Thirdly, a license to build a hotel by the ocean will first be considered by the local authority (i.e. the municipality), making the decision one that primarily influences the region of the hotel's direct geographical reach.

Elliot (1997) constructed a diagram (Fig. 25) to illustrate the complexity of public-sector tourism management. According to Elliot, managers must act in accordance with the political and industrial environments, using their power in connection with formal and informal factors.

For Elliot (1997), public-sector management has five basic principles: public interest, public service, effectiveness, efficiency and accountability. The management of the public machine should follow the principles established by Max Weber, who argued that privilege administration is focused on the system of legal authority legitimized by society and is based on the rational form of **administration**. However, in the context of matters of public interest, there is always the possibility of an irrational administration in which private interests override collective interests. Elliot (1997) listed the ideal characteristics and principles of public administration proposed by Weber, as shown in Box 1.

The ministries and departments (and/or secretariats) are the bodies that bring together staff working to establish and provide more detail to tourism public policy. The need for an independent ministry of tourism has been a problem for governments: because tourism is associated with a large number of sectors, it becomes impossible for a single ministry to coordinate the entire process. Furthermore, an independent ministry of tourism, depending on the stance of the country in which it is located, may have little political power to request government funds. Taking these factors into account, some countries have chosen to combine tourism with another ministry, such as sports, technology, science, **culture**, environment, **economics** or **leisure**, among others.

The government's relationship with tourism is so complex that academic studies have discussed how and in what way the government's actions and the government itself influence and impact touristic activity. For example, Dregde (2006), whose study focused on the relationship between the local government and the tourism sector, critically discussed the role of local tourism networks in promoting or inhibiting the formation of public–private partnerships. Dredge's case study was developed in Lake Macquarie, New South Wales, Australia, with results suggesting that careful management between the state and society is necessary to promote an environment that is hospitable to innovative public–private partnerships. Other examples of studies related to this field have been conducted by Bramweel and Sharman (1999), who analysed collaboration among stake-

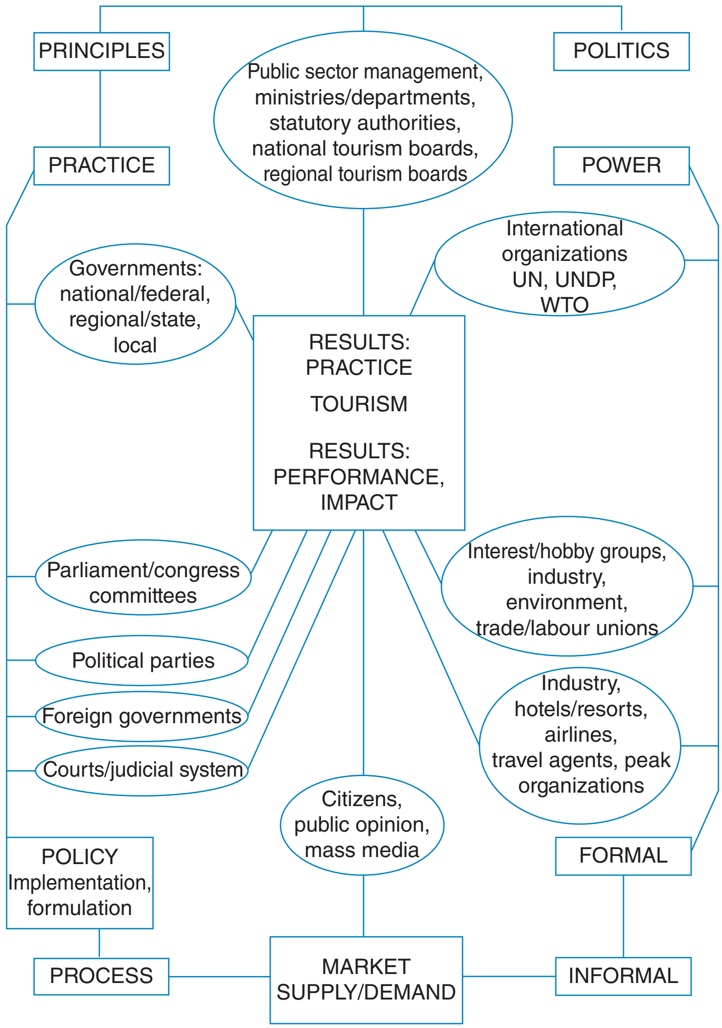

Fig. 25. Tourism: the political, administrative and industrial environments. (From Elliot, 1997.)

holders to develop policies at destinations; Wang and Ap (2013), who developed a conceptual framework describing the factors that affect the implementation of tourism policy and applied the model in China; Ruhanen and Reid (2014), who analysed the legal aspects of **tourism planning** and policy in Australia; and Panyik (2015), who focused on the topic of tourism policies in rural areas in Hungary and analysed how governance factors influence the support given by local administrators to tourism.

The actions of governments and ministries, secretariats and departments of tourism should lead to tourism planning. For example, New Zealand has had a national structure for tourism since 1901, Spain since 1911, Italy since 1919 and Mexico since 1928. National governments' interest can also be measured (to an extent) by the results obtained by tourism public policies – or the lack thereof.

It is not always possible to know a government's interest in tourism and the guidelines for the private sector, a fact that can cause an imbalance in public–private relations and lead to either an imbalance or poor guidance of the activity. The ideal is when there is a public–private partnership to develop this activity because everyone is able to profit from appropriate tourist development.

Box 1. **Weber's principles and characteristics of public administration. (From Elliot, 1997.)**

1. The staff members are personally free, observing only the impersonal duties of their offices.
2. There is a clear hierarchy of offices.
3. The functions of the offices are clearly specified.
4. Officials are appointed on the basis of a contract.
5. Officials are selected on the basis of professional qualification, ideally substantiated by a diploma gained through examination.
6. Officials have a monetary salary, and usually pension rights. The salary is graded according to position in the hierarchy. The official can always leave the post, and under certain circumstances pension rights may also be terminated.
7. The official's post is his or her sole or main occupation.
8. There is a career structure, and promotion is possible either by seniority or merit.
9. Promotion is made according to the judgment of superiors.
10. The official may appropriate neither the post nor the resources, which go with it.
11. The official is subject to unified control and a disciplinary system.

Operationalizing

In 2012, the Malaysian Ministry of Tourism received the World Tourism Organization's Ulysses Award in the Innovation in Public Policy and Governance category for the Malaysia Homestay Experience Programme. The programme was launched in 1995 and since then, hundreds of thousands of domestic and international tourists have stayed in the homes of Malaysian families. This programme represents an original proposal for understanding and experiencing local life and culture. In addition to providing the best touristic experience, the initiative has become a source of income for local communities, especially in rural areas (UNWTO, 2012).

Exercise

After consulting the website of the highest government agency for tourism in your country, define the tourism policy that your country has adopted. Check if there is a tourism plan based on that policy.

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2.11 Tourism Planning

Tourism planning is a process that aims to guide the touristic development of a business, location, region, municipality, state or country, based on a given situation, to achieve objectives that have either already been proposed or are proposed during the planning itself. Dredge and Jenkins (2007) identified numerous common themes related to planning, including the following: concern about the future, acquiring knowledge and identifying the best approaches for intervention, anticipating or forecasting change, and developing a strategic vision.

Tourism planning can have a range of focuses and directions. It may adopt an economic, social or environmental view; however, it is ideal to consider all of these aspects (Padin, 2012). It can be directed at amusement parks (Clavé, 2007), protected areas (Eagles and McCool, 2002), **events** (Getz, 1991), the **transport** sector or particular market segments (Lozano-Oyola *et al.*, 2012); alternatively, it can be directed at touristic activities that are interdependent with other human activities.

Getz (1991) identified five primary traditions in tourism planning. The first, boosterism, promotes development and is therefore not actually a form of planning. The second sees tourism as an economic sector with a focus on its development and **marketing**. The third focuses on tourism's spatial aspects and the planning of physical resources, emphasizing a careful analysis of resources and accessibility. The fourth tradition is community planning, which requires each location to control its planning processes and objectives, using concepts such as social and community planning and **carrying capacity**. The fifth tradition, an integrated and systematic approach, proposes that objectives, policies and strategies should be based on a full understanding of how the tourist system functions.

Bissoli (2000, pp. 26–27) stated that planning should be considered in terms of time, space and scope of interest:

- *Time*: cyclical (less than 1 year), short-term (1–3 years), medium-term (3–6 years) and long-term (more than 10 years).
- *Space*: international, national, state, regional, local/municipal, sectoral and metropolitan regions.
- *Scope of interest*: global/macroeconomic (involves all sectors of the economy) and sectoral/microeconomic (involves a specific subsector).

Various models representing the tourism-planning process have been presented by scholars. Dredge and Jenkins (2007) summarized this process in the model shown in Fig. 26. Their model is based on the continuous cycle of the **public policy** process proposed by Gary Brewer in the 1970s.

Cooper *et al.* (2005) presented a basic linear structure for the steps of tourism planning, as shown in Fig. 27.

Whatever the planning process, it will usually contain some basic steps and essential items, including the following:

1. *Environmental analysis (external and internal)*: this step involves creating a general overview of the area in which the planning will be developed, including an understanding of the destination's history. This includes both internal analysis (of the location being planned) and external analysis (the influence and repercussions of planning on the external environment, including an analysis of the potential **demand** that will visit the destination).
2. *Diagnosis*: in this step, the planner should collect as much data as possible about the location being planned. They should be clear about the planning's objective, find the problem to be solved, and understand the relationship between the social actors and tourism in an integrated manner. Jamal and Getz (1995) established the foundation for the need for collaboration in tourism planning. This step is critical in establishing the next steps.
3. *Prognosis*: this is a prediction about the development possibilities of tourism based on past statistical

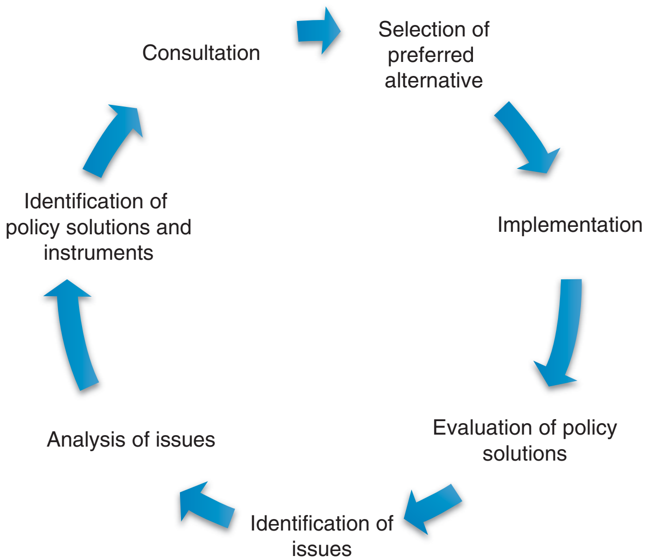

Fig. 26. The policy cycle. (From Dredge and Jenkins, 2007.)

data, government policy for the planned region and tourism development trends for the destination in question.

4. *Strategy*: this is the defined manner in which the implementation of touristic activity will be conducted to achieve the established objectives. It should consider various alternative actions and the amount of financial resources allocated for planning.

5. *Implementation*: this is the moment at which the planning (the document) will begin to be developed in practice. This step involves fundraising, workshops to raise awareness among the destination's residents and the development of marketing programmes, among other tasks.

6. *Evaluation*: planning does not end with implementation. It is necessary to continually evaluate the results and correct possible errors and deviations from the objectives, to reformulate strategies and to keep those involved in the planning-implementation process updated at all times.

Goeldner and Ritchie (2009) cited other planning steps that ultimately return the same results and can be mapped to the steps presented above. They include the following: defining the tourist system, collecting data, analysing and interpreting the collected data, drafting the preliminary plan, approving the plan, drafting the final plan and implementing the plan.

Planning should be seen as a dynamic process that must constantly be reviewed to correct possible flaws; therefore, it is not a static instrument. However, one of the greatest difficulties in tourism planning is its execution, because execution occurs at the same time as the administration of human and financial resources, and practice does not always follow theory. Therefore, there is a constant need to evaluate the process. Despite the clear advantage presented by the public policy cycle (Fig. 27), including the possibility of simplifying a complex process into a normative and directed process in a sequence of events, Dredge and Jenkins (2007) noted some disadvantages, including the following: (i) the diagram generally presents a very simplistic view; (ii) the process is not always linear or systematic because in some cases, certain steps may not be performed; (iii) the diagram may give the impression that policy formulation occurs in a cyclical manner, in which the planning agenda is established at the beginning of the process, with implementation and evaluation at the end – in reality, it is not uncommon for agendas to change constantly; and (iv) the model also does not explain how public policy changes from one step to the next.

Today, regardless of the type of tourism planning that is selected, certain factors must always be taken into consideration, including the following, which are based on Cooper *et al.* (2005), Goeldner and Ritchie (2009) and Mason (2003):

- Strategic planning in the sustainable development of tourism.
- The perception that tourism is important as a productive sector that provides many jobs.

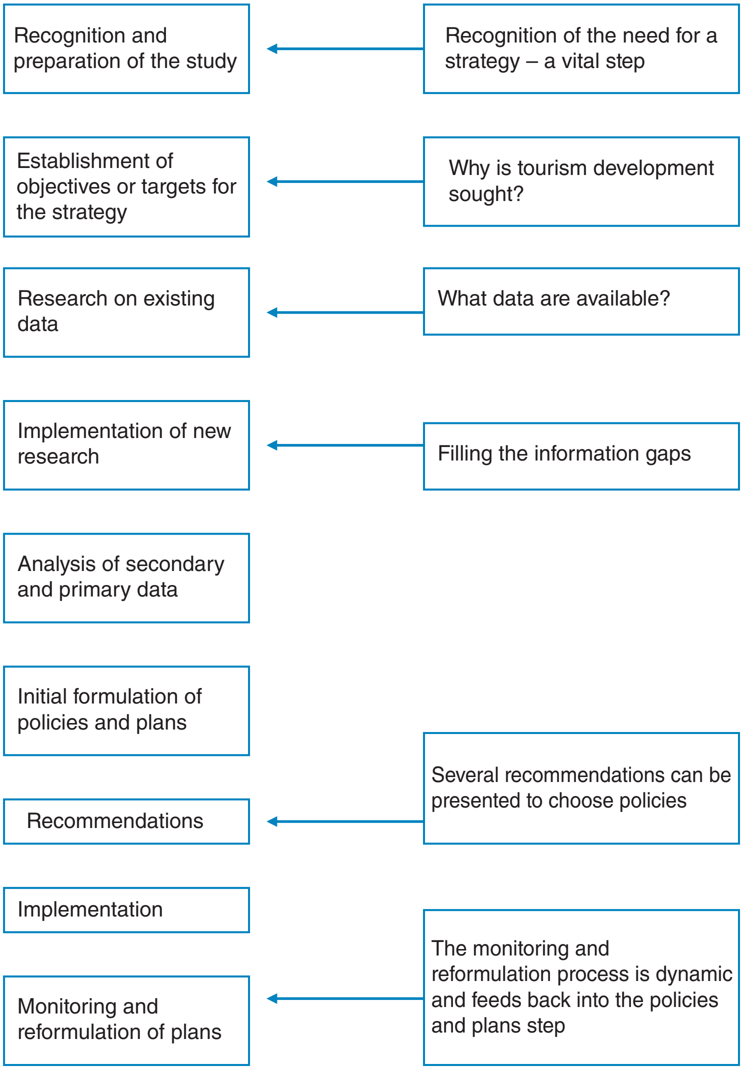

Fig. 27. Steps of the tourism planning process. (From Cooper *et al*., 2005.)

- Valorization of the touristic product as one of the sector's differentials.
- The education and training of skilled labour.
- **Seasonality**, which is one of the most difficult problems to solve in tourism (Connell *et al.*, 2015).
- Concern for environmental and socio-cultural preservation.
- Valorization of historic, artistic and cultural heritage (Du Cros, 2001).
- Planning developed in a participatory manner with, at the very least, consultations with representatives from the social sectors that will be affected by the touristic activity to be developed (Shani and Pizam, 2012).
- The need to include local communities in tourism development: many tourism studies condemn top-down planning, citing the benefits of bottom-up community collaboration (see Vernon *et al.*, 2005).
- The constant search to maximize tourism's positive **impacts** (social, cultural, environmental and economic) and minimize its negative impacts.
- Concern for architectural quality, landscaping and avoiding the distortion of **tourism destinations**.
- Integrated development, i.e. considering all elements according to a systemic view in which one of the parts can affect the whole and vice versa.

Although there is a close relationship between tourism policy and tourism planning, they are two different concepts. For Goeldner and Ritchie (2009), although there are similarities between the terms that both address the future development of a **tourism destination** or region and emphasize the strategic dimensions of managerial action, they must also manage numerous tactical concerns. Table 8 presents the differences between tourism policy and planning.

One of the most substantial differences between the terms is that **tourism public policy** establishes the general guidelines for a country, state or municipality's tourist development, as expressed in a tourism plan. Planning, in turn, should consult and be based on the tourism policy, thus being transformed into a more practical instrument enabling actions, unlike tourism policy, which is a more theoretical instrument.

Planning is of the utmost importance because it leads to tourist development of the location at which it is applied. Without this instrument, the development objectives and guidelines are unclear, which can lead to the unfeasibility of a sustainable tourism practice.

Operationalizing

Various studies on tourism planning use the case-study method to analyse or propose tourism development at a specific tourism destination. These publications usually focus on only one case, reinforcing its morphological characteristics (e.g. coastal or mountain destinations, national parks, rural or urban destinations). The book *Stories of Practice: Tourism Policy and Planning*, edited by Dredge and Jenkins (2011), brings together numerous cases in which tourism planning and policy researchers describe the stories involved in the complex task of tourism planning. With the participation of international researchers, they present a different view of tourism planning and policy, focusing on tourism destinations, administrative arrangements and diverse ideologies to discern the emergence of new types of touristic places.

Table 8. Differences between tourism policy and planning. (Based on Goeldner and Ritchie, 2009.)

Policy	Planning
Occurs in terms of a general framework	Is characterized by attention to detail
Is a creative and intellectual process	Is a more contained exercise
Has a long-term strategic emphasis	Tends to be more restrictive in its time horizon: 1-year planning cycles are common, although it is possible to have 3–5-year plans
Should allow for consideration of unknown circumstances and technologies	Assumes current conditions and technologies, with some room for predictable changes
Emphasizes a systematic determination of *what* should be done in tourism development	Emphasizes *how* to achieve specific goals at the destination

Exercise

Have you ever wondered about the tourism plan of your municipality, region, state or country? If possible, find a recent policy document about tourism and identify the planning that has been established. Identify the purpose of the document and what type of tourism is planned for the destination in question. Finally, map the steps targeted by the document for planning tourism development.

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2.12 Tourism Balance of Payments

WITH GLAUBER EDUARDO DE OLIVEIRA SANTOS

The balance of payments is an instrument for recording a country's trade and financial transactions with the rest of the world; it is part of the System of National Accounts (United Nations System of National Accounts, 2009). On one side of the balance of payments, the current account records the imports and exports of goods and services, divided into a balance of trade and balance of services, respectively. The current account also records international remittances of net income, such as profit remittances made by companies operating outside of their country of origin. The other side of the balance of payments is net foreign investment, including international acquisitions and sales of physical and financial assets, such as real estate, currency and debt securities. Following the double-entry accounting method, the amounts on both sides of the balance of payments should be equal.

The balance of services contains activities such as **transport**, insurance, financial services, communication, rentals and others, along with international travel. In particular, the record of international transactions related to tourism flow is called the balance of tourism. Unlike what occurs in the international trade of physical products, in tourism, it is the consumer who travels. Thus, revenue from international inbound tourism is counted as exports, whereas the costs of a county's international outbound tourism are recorded as imports. The movements of products, people and financial resources in both the traditional and the touristic context are shown in Fig. 28.

Tourism revenue is an injection of resources into a country's economic system, causing direct economic impacts that are multiplied by subsequent rounds of indirect and induced impacts (see '**The tourism multiplier effect**' entry). In contrast, the costs of a country's international outbound tourism are resource leakages from the national economy, which therefore reduce the income multiplier effect. When there is a positive balance of tourism, i.e. when exports are greater than imports, the balance is said to have run a surplus. Otherwise, when imports exceed exports, there is a deficit.

Tourism's share of the balance of payments is significant. According to data from the World Bank (2014), international tourism accounts for 4.9% of total exports of goods and services. In some cases, tourism is the primary export activity. In the Maldives, for example, tourism represents 80% of total exports. Tourism generally has a large share of small countries' balance of payments. In these cases, because the economy overall has reduced dimensions, it is easy for an activity such as tourism to achieve large relative importance. In absolute terms, the countries with the highest international tourism revenues are among those receiving the highest numbers of tourists, including the USA, Spain and France. Table 9 presents, for the major countries, the size of tourism exports in absolute terms and relative to total exports of goods and services.

Tourism's contribution to a country's imports of goods and services is usually lower, not reaching 25% in any country. For example, according to data from the World Bank (2014), in 2013, international inbound tourism generated approximately US$34.1 billion in revenue for Australia, which represents approximately 11.0% of total exports. That same year, outbound tourism generated an international expenditure of US$34.7 billion, representing 10.3% of imports. Therefore, Australia's balance of tourism had a deficit that year.

A country's international tourism revenues and expenditures are closely related to the exchange rate. When the national currency is devalued, travel to the country becomes cheaper to foreigners, which encourages increased international inbound tourism flow. In addition, the devaluation of a national currency raises prices for and hinders the consumption of foreign travel by the country's residents. In turn, reduced **demand** for international outbound tourism causes an increase in domestic

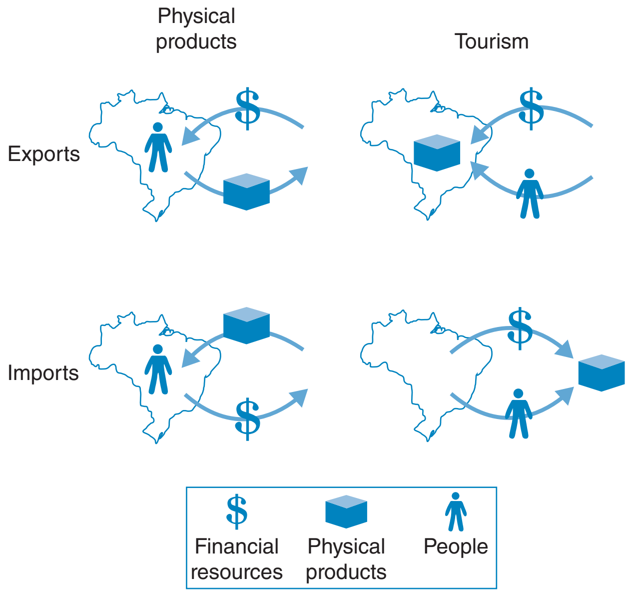

Fig. 28. Imports and exports of tourism and physical products. (From Santos and Kadota, 2012.)

Table 9. Relative and absolute exports of tourism. From World Bank (2014).

International tourism revenue		Share of tourism in total exports	
Country	Billions US$	Country	Percentage
USA	160,732	Maldives	80
Spain	55,641	Vanuatu	69
France	53,251	Bahamas	65
China	50,028	Samoa	61
Italy	40,960	Dominica	57
Germany	38,047	Saint Lucia	57
UK	36,388	Granada	57
Thailand	33,827	Cape Verde	53
Australia	31,546	Barbados	52
Turkey	25,653	São Tomé and Príncipe	50

tourism. The appreciation of a national currency has the opposite effect, encouraging international outbound tourism and damaging international inbound tourism and domestic tourism.

Exports and imports of touristic services are not only an effect but also a cause of the exchange rate. International inbound tourism increases both the supply of foreign currency and the demand for domestic currency. Consequently, international tourism revenue creates pressure for the appreciation of the domestic currency while creating pressure for the depreciation of the foreign currency. This effect can be especially positive when it facilitates the import of capital goods in countries that are economically closed to the outside world (Nowak *et al.*, 2007). Naturally, international outbound tourism has the opposite effect.

Operationalizing

In Brazil, tourism imports have almost always exceeded exports. From 1995 to 2013, the balance of tourism had a surplus during only 2 years. The deficit reached more than US$18 billion in 2013 because of expenditures of US$25 billion, compared with only US$7 billion in international tourism revenue. These data are presented in Fig. 29. This graph also shows some relationships between the exchange rate and international transactions based on tourism. International tourism revenue does not seem to have been strongly influenced by variations in the exchange rate, presenting an almost constant rate of growth. In contrast, international tourism expenditures have a strong relationship with the exchange rate. From 1995 to 2003, while the dollar appreciated against the real, the total spending of Brazilian tourists abroad fell unevenly and slowly. After 2004, the appreciation of the real

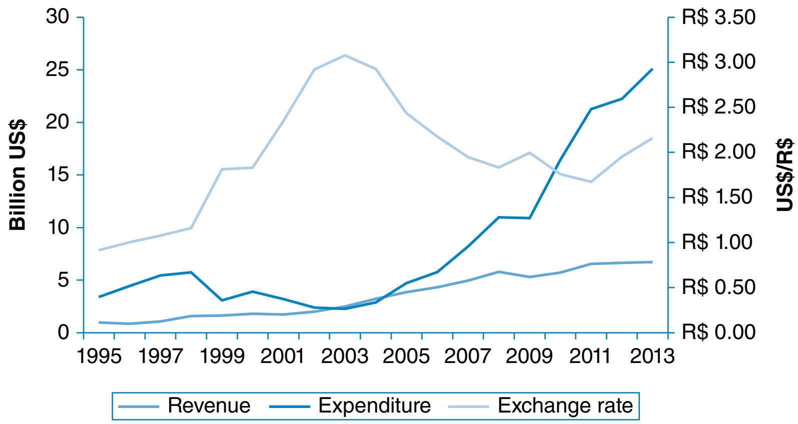

Fig. 29. International tourism revenues and expenditures and exchange rate in Brazil. R$, Brazilian real. (From Banco Central do Brasil, 2014.)

contributed to the substantial increase in tourist expenditures in Brazil. Naturally, other variables should also be considered in this analysis, but the negative correlation between the exchange rate and international tourism expenditures is obvious from the graph.

Exercise

Compile information on the international tourism revenues and expenditures of a country of your choice. Additionally, obtain data on the exchange rate of that country's national currency against the dollar or a group of relevant currencies (e.g. euro, pound, yen). These data can be found on the World Bank's website (http://data.worldbank.org/). Construct a graph showing the evolution of these three variables over the years. Analyse the balance of tourism and its relationship with the exchange rate.

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2.13 Tourism Satellite Account

WITH GLAUBER EDUARDO DE OLIVEIRA SANTOS

Gross domestic product (GDP) is the primary measurement of an economy, reflecting the total wealth generated by a country, region or location over a given period. For analytical purposes, GDP is usually broken down into sectors and activities. Activities are identified by the nature of the good or service offered, whereas sectors are larger sets that encompass diverse activities. The economy as a whole is categorized into three sectors: agriculture, industry and services.

The internationally adopted System of National Accounts (SNA) suggests that GDP should be measured in accordance with this classification criterion and structured according to the nature of the product (United Nations System of National Accounts, 2009). However, this logic cannot measure tourism's economic dimension, which involves numerous goods and services of different types. What defines the touristic product is not the characteristics of the element produced but, instead, the condition of the person who consumes it. In fact, almost any good or service can be touristic, provided that it is consumed by a tourist. A bottle of wine, for example, is usually categorized as an (agro)industrial product. However, that same bottle can also be a touristic product if it is consumed by a tourist at a restaurant or sold to a tourist visiting a winery. Because tourism is an activity defined by the tourist, the definition of a touristic product and touristic production should also be based on consumption, not production.

Thus, the SNA does not provide an economic measurement of tourism because it is structured by product type, instead of focusing on whether the consumer is a tourist. As an alternative, in the 1980s, the World Tourism Organization (WTO) developed the concept of a Tourism Satellite Account (TSA), a set of social accounting standards focused on measuring tourism's economic production. Numerous other international organizations have contributed to the theoretical development of the TSA, including the United Nations. This process led to the publication of the TSA conceptual framework (Department of Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations, 2010), a compilation of definitions that allows delineation of the social accounting in a manner consistent with the SNA. The name 'satellite' comes from this account's different perspective on the primary SNA. It should be noted that other segments of the economy that have characteristics incompatible with the SNA have also developed their own satellite accounts, including the health, environment and domestic-economy segments.

The TSA conceptual framework sets out precise and detailed definitions of the variables related to touristic **demand** and **supply**. This framework thus discriminates which economic factors should be included as part of touristic production. For example, the definitions presented by this document exhaustively detail the concept of tourism as a basis for differentiating between touristic and non-touristic consumption. This breakdown seeks to elucidate complex, sometimes ambiguous, aspects of touristic activities, such as the consumption of tourism by companies, purchases of durable goods made during tourist travel, and spending on second homes and timeshares. The TSA conceptual framework also provides criteria for classifying the various factors and agents related to tourism. Some of the primary classification criteria described by the document are as follows:

- *Geographic scope of travel*: domestic tourism, outbound tourism, inbound tourism, national tourism and internal tourism.
- *Duration of travel*: tourists and excursionists.
- *Motive for travel*: **leisure**, visiting friends or relatives, study, medical treatment, religion, shopping, transit and others.
- *Touristic nature of products*: tourism characteristic products, tourism-related products and non-tourism-related products.

With respect to the geographical scope of travel, national tourism is the sum of domestic tourism and outbound tourism, whereas internal tourism is the combination of domestic tourism and inbound tourism. The touristic nature of products criterion considers the relevance of touristic demand for each activity predicted by the SNA. Therefore, instead of focusing on production and supply, the TSA prioritizes demand and consumption. Products typically consumed by tourists are called tourism characteristic products. Following the international system of activity classification (United Nations, 2008), the TSA conceptual framework identified 12 tourism characteristic products:

1. Accommodation for visitors.
2. Food services.
3. Railway passenger transport.
4. Road passenger transport.
5. Water passenger transport.
6. Air passenger transport.
7. Transport equipment rental.
8. **Travel agencies** and other reservation services.
9. Cultural services.
10. Sports and recreational services.
11. Country-specific tourism characteristic goods.
12. Other country-specific tourism characteristic products.

Non-tourism characteristic activities are classified into two groups: tourism-related and non-tourism-related activities. Related products are those that only occasionally meet touristic demand. It should be noted that, for both characteristic products and related products, tourism represents only a portion of demand. For some particular sectors tourists can represent almost the entire demand, as in the case of air passenger **transport**. For other sectors, however, tourists can account for a smaller portion of demand. This may be the case for food services in cities with few tourists, because in these cities, food services are targeted to the local population, and tourists represent little or almost nothing in the consumption of these services. Thus, only the portion of production consumed by tourists should be included in the TSA.

One particularly complex aspect of the demand caused by tourism is gross capital formation, i.e. investment in buildings, vehicles, equipment and other fixed assets. Whereas some of these investments are clearly made for the purposes of touristic production, in other cases, the motivation is more diffuse. The construction of a highway, for example, benefits both tourists and residents. It thus becomes difficult to define which portion of the investment is attributable to tourism. For this reason, the TSA conceptual framework recommends that only specific tourism investments be counted.

The TSA provides an economic measurement of tourism, detailed in different categories and presented in the following ten items:

1. Inbound tourism consumption, per product and type of visitor.
2. Domestic tourism consumption, per product and type of visitor.
3. Outbound tourism consumption, per product and type of visitor.
4. Internal tourism consumption, per product.
5. Production accounts of tourism characteristic activities and other activities (at basic prices).
6. Domestic supply and internal tourism consumption, per product (at purchasers' prices).
7. Employment in tourism characteristic activities.
8. Gross capital formation of tourism characteristic activities and other activities.
9. Tourism collective consumption, per product and level of government.
10. Non-monetary indicators.

The development of a country's TSA is a fairly complex and costly process. To record the various economic aggregates, it is necessary to have detailed information about the behaviour of tourists, businesses and the government. These data are generally obtained from different sources, including official records, sample surveys and estimates. A TSA usually relies on numerous earlier statistical surveys. Nevertheless, the importance of the information compiled by the TSA causes many countries to try to create such an account. According to the WTO, 60 countries had developed TSAs by 2010 (WTO, 2010).

Operationalizing

Australia has developed the most detailed and accurate TSA. Results for the fiscal year ending in June 2013 indicated that, based on a total tourism consumption of A$109,993 billion, this activity annually generates wealth worth A$42,225 billion, an amount representing 2.8% of GDP. The detailed results of this research are presented in Fig. 30.

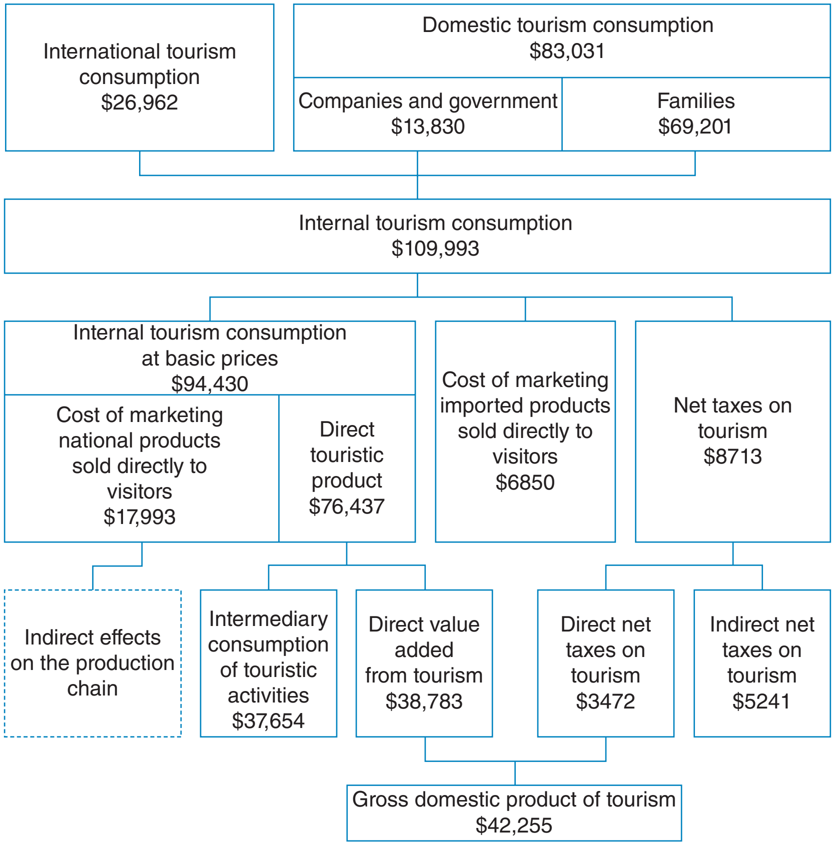

Fig. 30. Summary of Australia's TSA for the years 2012–2013. Values are given in AUS$. (Adapted from the Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2013.)

Exercise

Search the Internet for TSA data from two different countries and compare the share of tourism in each economy. Also compare the methodology used by each study, paying attention to differences in information sources and how the results are aggregated. Examples of websites that provide a TSA are Statistics New Zealand (New Zealand): http://www.stats.govt.nz/browse_for_stats/industry_sectors/Tourism/tourism-satellite-account-2014.aspx#; the Office for National Statistics (UK): http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/dcp171776_386386.pdf; and the Census and Statistics Department (Hong Kong): http://www.censtatd.gov.hk/hkstat/un/curinterest/tourism_satellite_account/index.jsp.

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2.14 The Tourism Multiplier Effect

Glauber Eduardo de Oliveira Santos

The revenue generated by inbound tourism flowing into a country, region or location is an injection of new resources into the economy. The direct effects of this revenue are experienced by the providers of tourist goods and services, generating income for various economic agents and directly increasing the gross domestic product (GDP) (see '**Tourism satellite account**'). Business owners receive profits, workers receive wages and the government receives indirect taxes levied on the goods and services sold. However, the economic effects do not stop there. Because the economy is a dynamic system, new rounds of transactions are performed with the resources that were initially collected. Two primary types of effects can be identified: indirect and induced.

Indirect effects derive from intermediate consumption by suppliers of tourism goods and services. To market a pizza, for example, the restaurant must first acquire flour, tomatoes, toppings and wood for the oven. In the same way, an airline company needs aircraft and fuel. The sale of these intermediate consumption goods and services, in turn, provides revenue for suppliers, resulting in income for the economic agents involved. These suppliers also consume their own inputs, leading to new rounds of indirect impacts along the production chain.

In contrast, the income of workers and business owners provided by tourism revenue is spent acquiring different goods and services, leading to what are called induced effects. For example, a hotel employee who spends part of their salary paying for their children's school generates income for the economic agents involved in educational activity. The same may occur with the workers or owners of companies that do not sell anything directly to tourists but that have been indirectly impacted by tourism revenue.

The indirect and induced impacts of the first round of transactions lead to second-round effects, and so on. Thus, round after round, the impacts reach further and further. However, in each new round, the impacts tend to become weaker because of leakages. Three types of leakage have been identified:

- *Taxes*: the resources collected by the government through direct (paid by individuals) and indirect taxes leave circulation, reducing the purchasing power of individuals and businesses. Consequently, taxes reduce indirect and induced impacts from one round to the next.
- *Savings*: part of the income of workers and business owners is saved and is not used to consume goods and services. This money leaving circulation decreases the induced effects.
- *Imports*: a portion of companies' and individuals' expenditures is allocated for purchasing imported goods and services. The resources used to pay for these items leak from the economy towards other countries, failing to generate new rounds of national impacts.

The end result of the resource injection caused by tourism leads to an expansion of GDP through various rounds of transactions. The total income generated may be larger or smaller than the initial revenue based on the different leakages that are present. If the leakages are large, every dollar that enters the economy might result in a final income of less than US$1. If the leakages are small, the resulting income may be greater than the initial tourism revenue. Thus, tourism's economic impacts can be multiplied by its indirect and induced effects. In other words, the tourism multiplier effect is the multiplication of the economic impacts that occur because of the numerous rounds of transactions encouraged by the injection of tourism revenue into the economy. This concept is illustrated in Fig. 31.

Various policies can be adopted to increase the tourism multiplier effect. Generally, these policies consist of seeking to reduce leakages in the economy.

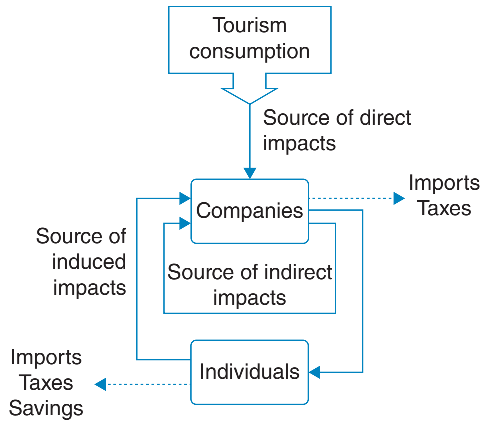

Fig. 31. Direct, indirect and induced impacts of tourism. (From Santos and Kadota, 2012.)

The primary strategy for achieving this goal is to encourage the development of the local production chain, thus avoiding the need for imports.

In numerical terms, the tourism multiplier effect is defined as the ratio of total economic impact to tourism revenue:

$$\text{Tourism multiplier effect} = \frac{\text{Total economic effect}}{\text{Tourism revenue}}$$

In practice, this value can be calculated using three principal methods. The first method refers to the original ideas of British economist John Maynard Keynes. According to this method, the multiplier effect can be calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{Tourism multiplier effect} = \frac{1}{1 + S + T + I}$$

where S is the portion of an individual's income intended for savings, T is the taxable portion and I is the portion spent on imports. The greater the value of each type of leakage, the smaller the equation's result. It should be noted that several variations of this formula have been developed to address various analytical objectives, with different sets of information available for calculation.

The Keynesian multiplier shows only a limited and simplified perspective on tourism's economic impacts. A more complex and informative way of calculating and presenting these impacts is through an input–output matrix. This matrix provides detailed information about the income and expenses of each economic activity and agent. For example, the matrix can indicate the expenditure structure of a hotel business, including the amounts allocated to intermediate consumption, profits, wages and indirect taxes. Similarly, the input–output matrix shows the structure of individual and government spending. Thus, based on these data, the tourism multiplier effect can be calculated in a much more precise manner than when using the Keynesian formula.

However, even the process of calculating the tourism multiplier effect through the input–output matrix has important restrictions (Dwyer *et al.*, 2004). First, this matrix considers the spending pattern of each activity and agent to be constant. Therefore, the impact of tourism revenue on prices is ignored. The input–output matrix assumes, for example, that the industry always spends a fixed portion of its revenue on fuel. However, because tourism is an activity that consumes proportionally more fuel, it is likely that tourism revenue will raise the relative price of that item. Consequently, it is likely that, over time, the industry will replace part of its fuel consumption with other energy sources, such as electricity.

Another restriction of the input–output matrix is that it does not consider the operation of all of the markets that make up the economy. The operation of the labour, capital, monetary and exchange markets is either wholly or partially ignored. This model also does not consider the balance of government finances, implicitly assuming that public collection and expenditures have no relationship to each other.

As a solution to the restrictions of the input–output model, a series of new economic analysis models were created, based on equations and parameters representing the operation of the economy overall. These instruments are called computable general equilibrium models and are widely used today. Estimation of the parameters that comprise the numerous equations of these models generally requires a large amount of statistical information and substantial computing power. As a result, computable general equilibrium models can provide very sophisticated estimates of the tourism multiplier effect.

Operationalizing

Operationalizing 1

Singh (2010) estimated the tourism multiplier effect for 17 countries in Latin America based on the Keynesian method. The study considered only the leakages represented by savings and imports, omitting leakages related to taxation. According to the estimates, Argentina had the highest tourism multiplier effect among the countries studied. In that country, each dollar of tourist revenue led to an increase of US$2.08 in GDP. At the other extreme, countries such as El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico and Venezuela had multiplier effects below 1, a result caused primarily by the high levels of imported goods and services in those countries. As an example Singh's calculation for Brazil appears below and Table 10 presents the estimates of the multiplier effect for each of the 17 countries studied.

Tourism multiplier effect in Brazil

$$= \frac{1}{1+S+I} = \frac{1}{1+0.264+0.265} = 1.89$$

Operationalizing 2

Dwyer *et al.* (2003) used a computable general equilibrium model to analyse the economic impacts of tourism in Australia. This study indicated that, in the short term, an increase in international tourism revenues of AUS$1 million would result in an increase of AUS$1.289 million in the country's GDP. Therefore, the estimated income multiplier is 1.289.

Table 10. Tourism multiplier effects in 17 Latin American countries. (From Singh, 2010.)

Country	Multiplier
Argentina	2.08
Brazil	1.89
Paraguay	1.68
Ecuador	1.67
Bolivia	1.52
Colombia	1.39
Peru	1.32
Chile	1.14
Costa Rica	1.12
Uruguay	1.12
Honduras	1.01
Nicaragua	1.01
Panama	1.01
El Salvador	0.99
Guatemala	0.96
Venezuela	0.96
Mexico	0.68

Exercises

1. Using data from the World Bank (http://data.worldbank.org/), calculate the ratio of each country's imports to its GDP. Identify which countries are the most dependent on imports and make inferences about where the tourism multiplier effect should be lower.
2. Search the Internet to find the input–output matrix of a country of your choice. Compare the composition of transport and **lodging establishments**' expenditures. Based on this comparison, identify which of these activities experience greater direct impacts from international tourism revenue.

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2.15 Tourism Administration

WITH TIAGO SAVI MONDO

Administrative Functions

Administration as a practice was established during the Industrial Revolution and now has a well-developed theoretical and empirical scope. Any book about the fundamentals of administration shows that there are four basic or essential administrative functions within any institution: planning, organization, direction and control.

The functions of tourism planning are already covered in this book under '**Tourism planning**'; the functions of organization and direction can be seen in the entry on '**Tourism public policy**' and, to a lesser degree, in various other entries.

The function that has not yet been presented in this book is control, which concerns the actions within organizations that seek to compare what was executed with what was planned, normally using control indicators.

Control can be defined as the function of comparing and historically analysing surveying indicators. The function is only effective if the other three functions have been performed, because administrative practice takes places in the interaction of the functions.

In tourism, the control function can be identified in two primary areas: impact/control indicators (sustainability) and competitiveness indicators (or actual situation of destinations' market/**economics**).

Sustainability indicators are widely studied in the area of tourism; moreover, the importance of controlling impacts is so great that a Global Sustainable Tourism Council has been created by the World Tourism Organization. The creation of seals and certificates is a good example of the control function.

Blancas *et al.* (2011) conducted a constructivist study with the objective of using sustainability indicators in tourism planning, focusing on Andalusia (Spain). Lozano-Oyola *et al.* (2012) focused on the use of sustainability indicators as planning tools at cultural tourism destinations. It is important to note that the four administrative functions should be used together. These two studies illustrate how the control function can aid the planning function. Administration is a cycle, and its functions are interconnected.

Since 2010, many studies have sought to construct or use protocols or models of sustainability indicators in tourism administration. One example is the study of Chávez-Cortés and Maya (2010), which identified and structured indicators and values for tourism development. Strickland-Munro *et al.* (2010) used resilience concepts to analyse the impacts of protected area tourism on local communities. In short, many studies have addressed the theme of sustainability indicators corresponding to questions related to an administration's control function.

Another section on control concerns the tourism sector's economic and competitiveness indicators. In this regard, each of the sector's economic activities has its own indicators, for example, revenue per available room and hotel occupancy rate, the number of departures and average ticket price of airline companies, the tourist volume and competitiveness indicators of destinations such as average travel time, average spending and tourist profile, and infrastructure, market and tax indicators. Beyond control indicators, there are other questions that involve issues of competitiveness, such as innovation, strategy, infrastructure, the dynamic capabilities of the destination and resources.

Research has been conducted on the topic of competitiveness indicators. Furthermore, organizations such as the World Tourism Organization and the World Travel and Tourism Council constantly publish reports on the sector using data for certain indicators. If these data are used to manage destinations, they are thus used by this fourth administrative function because empirical inferences are used to analyse whether what is occurring was planned, and if it is not in accordance with the plan, new actions are taken. This is the case of data related to the sector's earnings, for example. These data can be taken from tourism companies (either in isolation or as a group). By controlling these data, it is possible to identify whether growth, stagnation or a recession is occurring based on what was planned. This control allows a new decision to be made with a greater level of certainty.

As an example of the topic, Navickas and Malakauskaite (2015) studied the possibilities for identifying and evaluating competitive factors in the tourism sector; this study was similar to that of Dupeyras and MacCallum (2013), who also researched indicators to measure competitiveness in the industry. Other studies can be considered more specific, such as that of Yap and Allen (2011), who sought to identify which indicators influenced domestic **tourism demand** in Australia.

Obviously, many other forms of control are seen within the activities of managing destinations and tourism businesses. In general, competitiveness and sustainability were the two most frequently encountered topics.

Administrative Areas

Every organization, be it a hotel, an airline or a government tourism agency, has administrative areas to better perform its planning, organization, direction and control functions. An organization's primary administrative areas can be listed as follows: production, finances, materials and logistics, marketing, sales, personnel management and strategy. Other entries in this book present the issues of finances, marketing and materials in more detail. This administration section will thus address the areas of personnel management, quality management, innovation management and strategic management.

The first of these concerns tourism personnel: the employees of destinations and tourism businesses. Much of what is studied on the issue of personnel management in tourism concerns turnover in the sector, worker satisfaction and leadership. Turnover is very high in the tourism sector. Studies indicate that this occurs because of work hours, days and schedules, satisfaction issues, low wages, seasonality and the low need for training to serve in this sector, which thus attracts casual workers. In discussions on tourism personnel, these points emerge and enable numerous strands of thought and discussion. For administrators, they are problems that must be solved in a planned way so that they can understand personnel as an administrative resource, motivating them and encouraging them to work well.

These issues are also present in studies on job satisfaction; authors such as Chang *et al.* (2011) and Nadiri and Tanova (2010) have investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover. Ineson and Berechet (2011) studied the experience of Romanian employees in relation to turnover, and Panwar *et al.* (2012) studied the relationship between a long working day and low wages.

Leadership has also been a frequently discussed topic in the area of personnel management, precisely because it provides the hope of properly managing all tourism resources, especially human resources. Valente *et al.* (2014) investigated leadership skills in two Brazilian tourist regions, finding that four themes emerged: the ability to produce results, the ability to mobilize followers, the articulation and communication of goals and actions, and the articulation of roles and responsibilities. In another study, Valente *et al.* (2015) found that good governance aids leadership skills, although the two concepts are not synonymous.

Quality Management – Servqual

The Servqual (service quality) method developed by Parasuraman *et al.* (1985) is a technique that can be used to analyse the differences between the service quality provided by a company and the service quality expected by the customer. Although there are many models and techniques used by different service companies for quality and customer satisfaction in tourism, Servqual has frequently been employed.

Servqual is an empirical method that can be used to improve the quality of service provided. It involves developing an understanding of customers' needs for a particular service that is provided to them. These perceptions are compared with an organization that is considered 'excellent'. The difference between these two values results in the objectives that the organization must achieve to improve the quality of its services (Fig. 32). Because Servqual considers customer perceptions for the relative importance of various service attributes, it is thus possible for organizations to prioritize those that need more attention. This information is collected through surveys with a sample of customers.

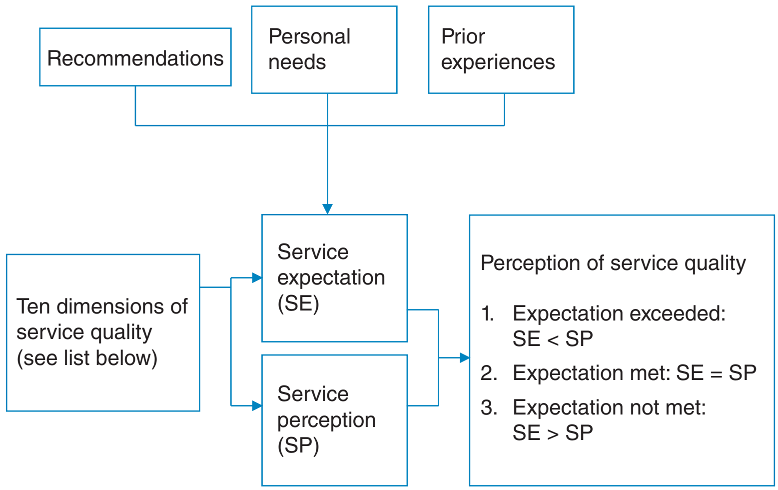

Fig. 32. Determinants of perceived service quality. (Adapted from Parasuraman *et al*., 1985.)

The original methodology proposed ten dimensions for service quality:

1. *Access*: ease of contact.
2. *Competence*: having the skills and knowledge necessary to provide the service.
3. *Communication*: listening to customers and acknowledging their comments, keeping the customer informed in a language they can understand.
4. *Knowing the customer:* making an effort to understand customers and their needs.
5. *Reliability*: having the ability to perform the promised service accurately.
6. *Courtesy*: manifested as the staff's politeness, respect, consideration and friendliness.
7. *Credibility*: inspiring honesty and reliability in the service provider.
8. *Responsiveness*: expressing the willingness to help customers and providing prompt service.
9. *Security*: free of dangers, risks or concerns.
10. *Tangibles*: caring for the appearance of physical facilities, equipment, personnel and communication materials.

In 1988, the authors refined the model to include only five dimensions: reliability, responsiveness, assurance, empathy and tangibles (Parasuraman *et al*., 1988).

Dissatisfaction with service is caused by a gap between customer expectations and perceived service quality. Five types of gap can be identified in service delivery:

1. *Between customer expectations and management perception*: here there may be gaps between what the customer expects the service quality to be and what the provider thinks the service quality should be.
2. *Between management perception of customer expectations and the service quality specification presented by the company*: the gap that may exist here involves setting parameters for service quality to exceed customer expectations and comport with management perceptions.
3. *Between service quality specification and service delivery*: even if the company develops a manual so that services are provided in accordance with certain criteria, the delivery of high-quality service is not always a certainty. Employees have a high degree of participation in service delivery and their performance often cannot be measured. For example, how can you measure a hotel employee's good mood?
4. *Between service delivery and external communication*: this is usually one of the largest problems encountered because companies often have such a great desire to attract a customer that they exaggerate the quality of their products in their external communications, which creates customer frustration when they realize that the service is not exactly what was advertised. A typical case is that of airline companies, whose advertisements invariably show situations in which flights are not crowded and flight attendants are always friendly, which does not necessarily occur on a day-to-day basis.

5. *Between expected service and experienced service*: companies must ensure that the service provided will at least meet – if not exceed – customer expectations.

Mondo's (2014) study included a table of the primary quality models used; he found that the Servqual (Parasuraman *et al.* 1988), Servperf (service performance; Cronin and Taylor, 1992), Grönroos (1984) and Brady and Cronin (2001) models are the most used, in that order. Mondo (2014) also developed a specific model to evaluate the quality of tourism destinations, attractions and **events**, validating his protocol in Brazil and allowing tourism managers to use it to improve their services. The TOURQUAL protocol (Mondo, 2014) comprises a theoretical diagram with six categories of analysis (Fig. 33) and a list of quality indicators (Table 11).

The access category is the first set of indicators related to the tourist's contact with the attraction or service provider. It is composed of the following indicators: accessibility/location, accessibility for people with disabilities, access to restrooms, wait for the service, ease of purchase and business hours. This category refers to the indicators that allow the tourist to arrive at the attraction and enjoy it satisfactorily.

The environment category considers the atmosphere of the service that the tourist finds at the attraction. According to Bitner (1992), the effect of the environment or the physical design and decorative elements are recognized by customers and employees, marketing, retail and service managers. However, particularly in marketing, there is a surprising lack of empirical research or theoretically based structures that address the physical environment's role in consumer environments. Environmental management is also important for quality. A well-arranged theatre with sound and temperature equipment and other environmental indicators makes the tourist feel comfortable. This indicator thus refers to a more subjective question of the location's comfort and enjoyment in being at the location.

The human element category considers indicators regarding the relationship between the tourist and service provider. When Parasuraman *et al.* (1988) developed Servqual, they focused primarily on the human aspects of service delivery because confidence, responsiveness and empathy are primarily human dimensions. Bitner (1990) observed that in service encounters, employee behaviour will impact customer service quality perceptions. Companies thus must train their employees in interpersonal skills to present a true focus on the customer. Mills and Morris (1986), Schneider and Bowen (1992) and Stebbing (1993) emphasized the role of human aspects in service delivery.

Some empirical research shows that a human dimension is necessary to measure service quality. Donavan and Hocutt (2001) studied 219 restaurant customers, finding that the perception of behaviours aimed at the customer by the employee was positively related to two results: (i) customer satisfaction with the service encounter; and (ii) customer commitment to the company. Banwani

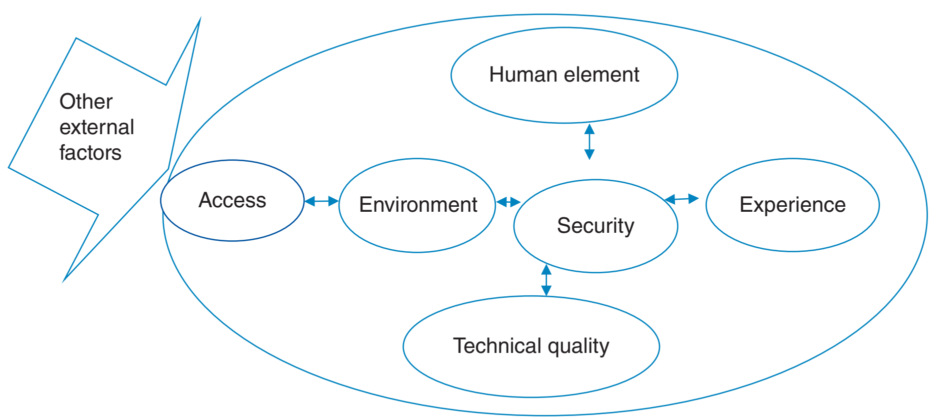

Fig. 33. The TOURQUAL theoretical model of categories. (From Mondo, 2014.)

Table 11. Quality indicators used in the TOURQUAL model. (From Mondo, 2014.)

Dimension	Indicator
Access	Accessibility/location
	Accessibility for people with disabilities
	Accessible restrooms
	Wait for service
	Ease of purchase
	Business hours
Environment	Temperature/acoustics
	Comfortable and inviting space
Human element	Customer service presentation
	Attention
	Service
	Confidence
	Knowledge
Experience	Learning
	Entertainment
	Aesthetics
	Evasion
Security	Security
Technical quality	Price
	Climate conditions
	Maintenance (equipment and facilities)
	Signs
	Technology
	Cleanliness
	Carrying capacity
	Variety of activities

and Lassan (1996) studied data from 233 adult customers to analyse personalization and the social content of interactions between service or retail employees and their customers. They found that personalization emerged as the most important determinant of service quality and customer satisfaction. In this TOURQUAL category (Mondo, 2014), the following indicators are present: service presentation, attention, service, confidence and employee expertise.

The experience category takes into account experiences at the **tourism destination** and should be considered when measuring the service quality of attractions at that destination. When Pine and Gilmore (1999) defined the experience economy, they produced four dimensions that can be experienced by the customer/tourist, which have become indicators in the TOURQUAL model: entertainment, escapism or escaping from routine, aesthetics and learning.

The security category, which is a single indicator, refers to the security issues perceived by the customer during consumption of the **tourist attraction**. This category includes both physical and psychological security.

Finally, the technical quality category, as described by Grönroos (1984), is the quality of what the customer actually receives as a result of their interaction with the service company; it is important for the customer and their evaluation. In this model, the technical quality category represents all of the indicators of the service delivery itself, excluding those involving the human element, which already have their own category. Good service, reasonable cost with no effect on quality (price), climate conditions, infrastructure, internal signs, technology at the attraction, cleanliness, the variety of activities and carrying capacity are the indicators of this category.

The third construct of the TOURQUAL model is the evaluation questionnaire. It has some introductory questions to establish filters (city visited, if there was contact with guides or attendants when visiting), and an identification of the actual quality of the service indicators at the attraction, all using a five-point Likert scale (bad, poor, fair, good or excellent) and ending with the respondent's demographic profile.

Innovation Management in Tourism

A theme that has been gaining ground in tourism research and within the administration of destinations and enterprises is innovation and technology. With globalization, the Internet, mobile devices and the power given to the user/tourist, configurations for managing tourism destinations, attractions and businesses have been changing continuously. Research in tourism has considered the creation of technology clusters or local systems of innovation in tourism, such as those studied by Weidenfeld and Hall (2014), who discussed regional and sectoral concepts of innovation for tourism and tourism's contribution to understanding them. They questioned the extent to which tourism can be considered an integral part of territorial innovation systems and suggested some political implications and key issues for future studies. Furthermore, much has been studied on innovative tourism destinations, bringing the area of tourism closer to computer engineering, information systems, knowledge management and even engineering (mechanical, electronic and electrical).

In practice, the use of free Internet at destinations, the implementation of mobile tourist guide applications, the use of informational placards, the use of online maps and the management of user-generated data are some of the potential uses of technology and innovation in tourism today.

For example, using a city guide mobile app, the tourist can now be asked to share their location. Using these data, the destination's management can identify the path taken by tourists in the city, verifying the primary routes of mobility, primary attractions visited and even, at the regional level, the restaurants or accommodations visited. For the destination's management, there are more data available for planning and managing activity.

Thus, the topic of technology and innovation is no longer considered a trend in the study or practice of managing tourism destinations: it has become a permanent fixture of these discussions.

Strategic Management in Tourism

Strategic management in tourism considers the general strategic management models used in organizations, as adapted to tourist businesses and destinations. One of the most widely used models in the business world is that of Porter (2008), called Porter's competitive advantage model or five forces model. Porter argued that, for an organization to have a competitive advantage in the market, it must consider five forces: suppliers' bargaining power, the threat of new entrants, the threat of substitute products, customers' bargaining power and rivalry among competitors. These forces must be constantly studied, and any change should be an input for the beginning of a new strategic analysis.

Crouch and Ritchie (1999) created a specific model of competitiveness in tourism, relating social prosperity to a framework of competitiveness in tourism. Another model commonly used in studies on strategic management is the resource-based view model (Barney, 1991), which treats the organization as a set of resources (e.g. financial, human, material); the strategy lies in how best to use available resources to achieve greater competitiveness.

Other authors have developed research and produced publications in the area of strategic management, such as Evans *et al.* (2012), in the book *Strategic Management for Travel and Tourism*; Tribe (2010), in the book *Strategy for Tourism*; and Harrington and Ottenbacher (2011), who conducted a study analysing the representation and study focus of publications on the topic of strategic management.

When referring to strategic management, it is necessary to understand that this area of administration exists to trace avenues that organizations can use to reach their objectives. Thus, tourism destinations and businesses can use these or other strategic tools to develop projects and actions encompassing the entire administrative area.

Tourism administration is considered both multifaceted and broad. Tourism researchers and managers can choose diverse areas for working on their projects, starting from administrative functions such as tourism planning or control of sustainability indicators; passing through administrative areas such as **tourism marketing**, destination marketing, materials management in tourism, quality management at the destination or business, or personnel management in tourism or finances; and ending with more current topics such as strategic management and destination competitiveness or technology management or innovation in tourism.

Operationalizing

Karassawa (2003) applied the Servqual methodology to evaluate the quality of tourist services provided by one of the leading tour operators in Brazil. Instead of using the ten dimensions for service quality originally proposed by Parasuraman *et al.* (1985), he reduced them to five dimensions, as previously proposed by the same authors. The five new dimensions were: tangibles, reliability, responsiveness (these three are identical to the original model), suitability (encompassing the dimensions of competence, courtesy, credibility and security) and empathy (which brought together accessibility, communication and customer knowledge).

The author then developed three questionnaires to be answered by tourists who were using a tour package from the operator being studied. The first, with only five statements, asked the tourist to evaluate the importance of the five dimensions considered: tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, suitability and empathy. The second and third questionnaires were very similar and contained 22 service items that were related to the five dimensions. Whereas the second questionnaire abstractly measured service expectation (SE) in terms of the importance of a particular service item (e.g. 'excellent tour operators should communicate to customers exactly when the services can be delivered'), the third questionnaire evaluated service perception (SP), e.g. 'tour operator X communicates to customers exactly when the services can be delivered'. The three questionnaires used the Likert scale, wherein the respondent chooses a score from 1 to 5 to evaluate the statement made.

Exercise

Imagine that you are the manager of a tourist attraction or destination. To diagnose the current situation, based on planning and control, you must list the strengths and weaknesses of your business. Quality can be based on both management and the tourist's perception. Choose a tourist attraction and carry out this analysis.

1. How can access to the attraction be evaluated (streets, pathways, parking, business hours, ticket sales channels, accessible restrooms, queues for entry/consumption)?
2. What do you consider the environment of this attraction to be like (questions of tourist comfort, temperature, sound and acoustics)?
3. How would you evaluate service delivery in terms of the human element (service, confidence, attention, expertise and delivery of information about the attraction)?
4. How do you evaluate the overall security at the attraction?
5. How does the attraction affect the tourist's experience in terms of learning, aesthetic contemplation, escape from routine and entertainment?
6. How do you evaluate the issue of prices, management of climate conditions, variety of activities offered, cleanliness, carrying capacity, technology and infrastructure at the attraction?
7. Finally, list the attraction's strengths and weaknesses and describe possibilities for innovative actions to overcome the weaknesses.

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2.16 Tourism Clusters

In English, 'cluster' means connection, union, agglomeration, assembly, congregation or cooperation; in the context of management, the word means, in short, the organization of a local productive arrangement. This definition originates from the field of **administration**, which is known worldwide because of the writings of Michael Porter. The study of clusters became widespread in the 1990s because entrepreneurs and scholars were interested in understanding the relationships established among companies.

In the face of new technologies, global consumer trends, consumer expectations and the need to cut costs and maximize profits, new management methods have emerged for organizations that produce goods or services, regardless of their nature. One of the conditions for creating a cluster is the geographical proximity of the organizations and the attractions that should be cooperating with each other, distributing information from the group to all the members, and working for the development of the cluster as a whole for the benefit of all. However, geographical proximity alone does not guarantee success in cluster formation. Below are the three basic characteristics for a local productive arrangement, which is a basic element for the formation of a cluster:

1. *Agglomeration*: it is important for a group of companies, members or associates to be geographically close and willing to cooperate to support tourism, forming strategic alliances that allow product exchange, technology transfer, expert assistance and any other factors required to develop tourism competitively.
2. *Affinity:* to develop tourism, the companies must be in the tourism business. Thus, entrepreneurs, associations, politicians, and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) that are involved in this enterprise should be invited.
3. *Articulation*: agglomeration and affinity will be of little value if the cluster members are not inter-articulated, collaborating with each other and exchanging experiences while simultaneously competing in their market. Regarding the stages of implementation, the clusters are classified as embryonic, consolidated or mature. Embryonic clusters are under implementation and are limited to the local market, often working only for other, larger companies. The consolidated clusters cover a larger market and have developed their cluster configuration. The mature clusters already have an established market, possess the ability to adapt to sudden changes in the market, seek to expand their borders by internationalization, and produce products with a higher added value.

A much-publicized inaccuracy about cluster theory is that the 'clustering' can be developed only in large areas, that is, from a macro-configuration. Most cluster studies cover large areas, giving rise to this misperception about the theory. In practice, 'clustering' can be developed in micro-regions, such as the geographical area surrounding an inn or a traditional food restaurant. Table 12, adapted from Jappur (2004, p. 31), lists some cluster definitions.

The development of clusters and local production arrangements is crucial for tourism destinations and poses many advantages, based on many publications and according to Table 13, which was constructed by Costa and Souto-Maior (2006) and is reproduced here in full.

With cluster configuration, destinations become more competitive in the local, regional, national and international markets because, in this model, the production chains of several companies become closely linked. This event does not mean the end of competition among the organizations; on the contrary, the competition remains, but within the cluster, there is recognition of the need for unity and cooperation among the members of the network.

One of the main objectives of Silva (2004) was to analyse the consistency and validity of the concepts of clustering and the productive chain of Porter

Table 12. Definitions and concepts of a cluster.

Author	Definition of cluster
Nadvi (1994)	An agglomeration of small and medium-sized businesses of a specific industry, usually specializing in one phase of the production process. Interrelated by a subcontractual production agreement and located close to each other in a well-defined geographical space, such companies remain linked due to the existence of social categories and common values.
Michael Porter (1996)	A geographic concentration of integrated companies and institutions in a particular field of activity that jointly increase their competitiveness as their integration increases.
Rosenfeld (1997)	A geographic concentration of similar businesses that are related and complementary (with active channels for transactions, communications, and dialogue); that share specialized infrastructure, labour, and services; and that face common threats and opportunities.
CNI (1998)	A grouping (cluster), in a geographic reference, the agglomeration of companies within the same location, which carry out their activities in a coordinated manner and with a common economic logic, based on, for example, a given allocation of natural resources; the existence of labour, technological, or local business capacity; and the sectorial affinity of their products. The interaction and synergy that result from the articulated activity provide competitive advantages to the group of companies, which are reflected in a superior differentiated performance compared with the isolated activity of each company.
Michael Porter (1998)	A geographically concentrated grouping of interrelated companies and correlated institutions in a particular field, linked by common and complementary elements. The geographic scope varies from a single city or state to the country as a whole or even a network of neighbouring countries. A cluster can also be defined as a system of interrelated businesses and institutions whose value as a whole is greater than the sum of the parts.
Galvão and Vasconcelos (1999)	The local industrial systems comprise groups of companies that are geographically concentrated around one or more industrial sectors. In such systems, there are strong interactions among the companies within the local socio-cultural environment and through market and informal relationships that generate positive externalities for the group of companies.
Orssatto (2002)	The concept of industrial clusters refers to the emergence of a geographic and sectorial concentration of companies from which productive and technological externalities are generated.

Table 13. Potential benefits of the local production systems in the tourism industry. (From Costa and Souto-Maior, 2006.)

Benefits	Potential applications to local tourism systems
Risk reduction and dealing with uncertainties	The tourism market is seasonal and subject to changes in the external environment, such as economic crises, terrorism and epidemics. However, local production systems in tourism can be structured to provide greater security to the partners, protection against the market, and risk distribution, benefits that would be too costly for a small or medium-sized business to face alone.
Deal with external competition	Dealing with foreign competition is becoming increasingly associated with destinations and agglomeration than individual companies. Local production systems in tourism may result in barriers to the entry of new competitors, in addition to generating competitive advantages (due to cooperation among its components) for small and medium-sized companies to compete in foreign markets.
Increased participation	Typically, small and medium-sized companies do not have large market shares, and the tourism industry is predominantly composed of small and medium-sized businesses. If the local production systems in the tourism industry improve their destinations and their attractiveness and competitiveness increase, creating an opportunity for tourism companies to expand their market participation.

Continued

Table 13. Continued

Benefits	Potential applications to local tourism systems
Potential applications to the local tourism systems	In knowledge-based societies, information has become valuable for guiding the strategic decisions of organizations. However, access to quality information can be unaffordable for small and medium-sized companies acting alone. Local tourism production systems can establish links to research and scientific development institutions to facilitate studies that expand knowledge about their offers and demands and would divide the costs among the participating organizations. Knowledge about tourists, markets, environments and processes (developed jointly) can lead to innovations, both in tourism management and in the products that are offered by the small and medium-sized companies.
Improve knowledge and generate innovations	Enhancing the reputation of the destination is a crucial marketing component of the local image of the tourism destination. By relying on the various social actors that comprise the tourism destination, local tourism production systems can create a consolidated image if the marketing efforts are commonly oriented and the tourism products that are offered truly match the promoted image. This strategy can potentially ensure a more consistent position within the market.
Reducing transaction costs	Analyses of the transaction costs incurred by small and medium-sized tourism companies in the local production systems of traditional sectors have revealed that these expenses can be reduced by reduced opportunistic behaviour, reputation enhancement and, consequently, lower formalization of actions.
Creating more value for the customer	Innovations in products and services offered, the customization of these products and services, the cohesion of the information provided, the greater quality and efficiency, and the reduction of costs (leading to lower prices) may create value for the tourist if these methods are adopted by the tourism organizations in local production systems.
Producing positive effects on the local economy	Tourism is an activity that potentially has multiple economic and social impacts, both positive and negative. The local economy, in terms of income and employment, may be benefited by the local tourism production systems if the cooperation between the social actors concerned with sustainability has a positive impact by improving employment rates and levels of workforce training and education, raising tax revenues, promoting environmental conservation and encouraging entrepreneurship, among other benefits.

when applied to tourism. Silva's most significant and surprising conclusion is that

> ...the cluster model, in the conception of Michael Porter, of a markedly entrepreneurial and micro-economic approach, characterized by the presence of large industries, of national magnitude and with high spatial scale and a high level of aggregation, does not apply appropriately to tourism and cannot be regarded as a regional development strategy. The grouping, which has tourism as a core activity, focused on the tourism destination perceived as a microcluster and that exhibits the characteristics of delimitation of the geographical scale of its surroundings, delimitation of the territorial coverage of the group itself, delimitation of the main tourist segment and its subsegments, as well as the target market, can be described as a tourism cluster that meets the conditions of modelling strategies and promoting growth and development of micro-regions or tourist areas. Thus, the micro-cluster constitutes the model that facilitates the scope and the support of regional development, as a result of the interaction between the role of specialization – tourism and territory – the tourism destination and its immediate surroundings.
>
> (Silva, 2004).

Thus, according to this author, the cluster concept should be redefined with respect to its application to tourism because a cluster will yield good performance only if it is viable as a micro-cluster due to the inherent features of the tourism industry. Moreover, Silva criticizes the simple transposition of exogenous practical theories and models that do not account for the multiple factors that are characteristic of each global region, particularly in Brazil.

Operationalizing

For a better understanding of this topic, one might consider the example of the tourism cluster of Bonito, in the Mato Grosso do Sul state (MS) in Brazil, which is a nature-**tourism destination** that is recognized in Brazil and abroad. The following data were obtained from Portal Bonito (http://www.portalbonito.com.br) and a study by Barbosa and Zamboni (2000):

- Emancipation date: 2 October 1948.
- Area: 4934 km².
- Altitude: 315 m.
- Population: 16,956 (IBGE Census, 2000).
- Distance from the state capital city: 330 km.
- Climate: tropical.
- Temperature: 22°C (average).
- Vegetation: cerrado.
- Economic activities: livestock production, tourism, agriculture and mining.
- Paraguay River basin; subbasins: Miranda River and Aquidauana River.
- Rivers: do Peixe, Formoso, Formosinho, Perdido and Sucuri.
- Minerals: sand, limestone, uranium, copper, lead and dolomite.
- Average number of annual tourists: 100,000 people.

Barbosa and Zamboni (2000) provided the following description of the Bonito tourism cluster. The cluster, with the position occupied by each of the actors and the correlations established among them, is composed of a graphical representation comprising five rings. The epicentre is formed by the attractions, of which the ecotourism mode constitutes the most important vector. The second ring, which corresponds to trade, covers the basic **tourism infrastructure** – hotels, **travel agencies**, guides, bars and restaurants, as

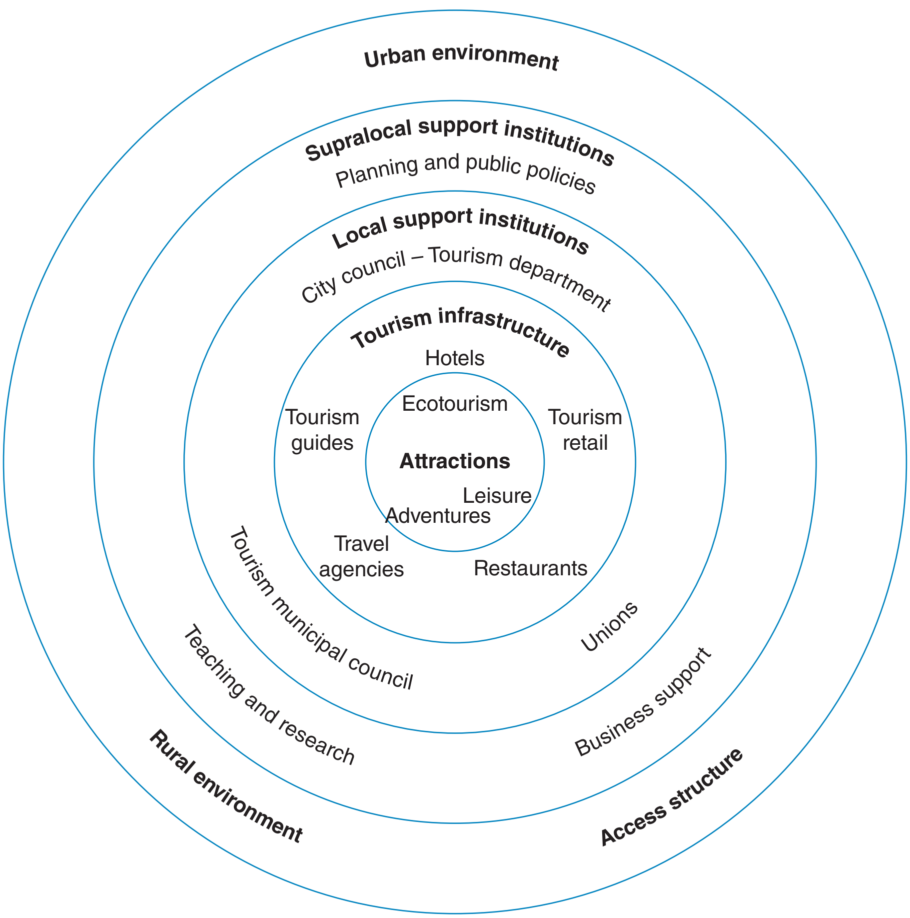

Fig. 34. Graphical representation of the Bonito-MS tourism cluster. (From Barbosa & Zamboni, 2000.)

well as **transport** and tourism-related commerce. The third ring combines the social actors that are directly and permanently connected to tourism activities, including local government agencies, collegiate bodies and professional associations. The fourth ring comprises the support agencies with supralocal activities. At this level are the federal and state government agencies that oversee tourism and the environment, the parastatal organizations that focus on business training and worker qualification, teaching and research institutions, and NGOs that focus on ecotourism and the environment. The fifth and final ring provides the backdrop upon which tourism is developed, encompassing all of the urban and rural areas and the supralocal competence structure (Fig. 34).

Exercise

According to Silva (2004), before building a tourism cluster, certain essential questions must be answered, including the following:

- What is the sectorial specialization activity?
- What is the similarity between the specialization activity and the other economic activities in the region?
- What is the geographical/territorial size?
- What is the scope of the geographical/territorial proximity?
- What is the degree of homogeneity and compatibility among the function, the specialization activity and the territory?
- How is the core activity directly linked to the final product?
- What are the complementary, support and related activities?
- How should one envisage and reach the end market?
- What is the degree of nationalization and internationalization of the structure?
- What is the origin and magnitude of the economic leaks caused by the degree of exogeny derived from the previous question?
- Finally, following up on the previous question, what is the degree of endogeny of the tourism development – current, possible and desired?

For the tourism clusters in Brazil, which include the Serras Gaúchas (the highlands in the state of Rio Grande do Sul), the state of Bahia and Bonito-MS, access the websites of these destinations and attempt to answer the above questions. In addition, try to identify the theoretical and operational relationships among the proposals.

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2.17 Tourism Marketing

WITH SÉRGIO RODRIGUES LEAL

According to the American Marketing Association (http://ama.org), marketing can be defined as an organizational function and a set of processes involving the creation, communication and delivery of value to customers, and managing the relationship with them, in ways that benefit the organization and its interested public. For Kotler (2003), marketing is not just a short-term sales activity, it is a long-term effort that requires investment. It is a process that should begin even before the company or product enters the market and should extend until long after the sale. Peter Drucker (1973), known as the father of modern management, stated that marketing should make the act of selling superfluous.

To facilitate understanding, McCarthy (1960) created the '4Ps' approach to marketing, which act as its foundations:

- *Product*: the object in question that will be subject to the marketing activities; it will be placed and promoted in a particular market at a particular price.
- *Place*: defines the location at which the marketing activities are developed and the **distribution channels** through which the products will reach customers. There may be a primary location and secondary locations.
- *Price*: the application of a monetary value to something that will be put on sale in the market.
- *Promotion*: the actions that are designed to encourage the spread and commercialization of the product that is now being made available on the market.

Lovelock and Wirtz (2006) found that the 4Ps of marketing were inadequate for the service sector in which tourism and **leisure** are located. This is because the products that are most commonly marketed in tourism and leisure are services (e.g. an airline ticket, a night at a hotel, an artistic show), not necessarily goods. They thus suggested expanding the list to the 8Ps of service management:

- *Product/service*: physical characteristics, packaging and labels of products supporting or complementing services. This does not only refer to goods; service is part of this item because it becomes the product when it is consumed.
- *Place and time (moment)*: location of service delivery and when it will be performed, including business hours.
- *Process*: organization of the sequence of activities necessary for service delivery.
- *Productivity and quality*: the establishment of adequate levels to offer in service delivery.
- *People*: the management of relationships between everyone involved in service delivery: customers, employees, etc.
- *Promotion and education*: although more difficult to understand, the service must be promoted and the customer taught the best way to use what they are receiving, etc.
- *Physical environment*: all physical evidence related to the service delivery and perceived by the customer, from the visual aspects of the façade, window and uniforms, to the decoration, fleet, and spaces for moving, circulating, waiting and so on, which become more important because of the intangibility of the service itself.
- *Price and other service costs*: the amount to be received depending on the type of service delivery, credit and financing conditions, and the value perceived by the customer.

Other authors no longer accept the idea of the 4Ps (Wymer *et al*., 2006; Morrison, 2013) and have proposed expanding this number to up to 20Ps (Pearson, 2014).

In tourism, the topic has gained such importance that 30% of the articles published between 2008 and 2012 in three of the area's most important English-language journals (*Journal of Travel Research*, *Annals of Tourism Research* and *Tourism Management*) are about tourism marketing (Dolnicar and Ring, 2014).

One subtopic that has been attracting greater interest from researchers and business owners in the tourism sector is the use of information technology by consumers of touristic products (Filieri and Mcleay, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2014).

Tourism marketing opens up an important channel of communication between companies and those interested in them, whether they are part of the internal or external audience. Thus, starting with the philosophy of marketing and the marketing decisions adopted, tourism companies can define their product, the location where they will operate, their specific audience and the price of their products, among other aspects. Buhalis (2000) stated that the marketing of destinations favours the implementation of a tourism policy that should be co-coordinated with the regional plan for strategic development. For Buhalis, **tourism destinations** are an amalgam of tourist services and experiences and thus should be managed through a marketing strategy.

The concepts of marketing and market are inextricably linked because the exchanges that characterize marketing take place in the market: this is where **supply** and **demand** meet. Although the concept of market refers to a geographical location at which vendors display their products and consumers analyse, bargain and decide whether to purchase, a more complex and detailed analysis based on economic concepts leads to the understanding that the tourist market does not exist in a particular location. It can be defined as the relationship between **tourism demand** and supply, i.e. between the customers (tourists) and tourist goods and services.

Because it is impossible to reach the entire audience that would be willing to consume a touristic product, tourism companies use market segmentation to reach potential consumers in a more reliable and effective way. Segmentation is a marketing strategy that divides consumers into segments and subsegments, according to pre-established criteria, to optimize the resources available between demand and supply.

According to the bases for segmentation offered by Seaton and Bennett (1996), Hudson (2000), Wedel and Kamakura (2000), Chen (2003), the World Tourism Organization and the European Travel Commission (WTO and ETC, 2007) and Panosso Netto and Ansarah (2015), it is possible to establish numerous segments of the tourist market, as shown in Table 14. A brief explanation of the meaning of some segments is provided. Note that this relationship is open to criticism because a single segment may have two or more bases for segmentation, as in the case of roots tourism (in which the tourist visits places where their ancestors lived), which is classified as cultural tourism but can also be classified as the motivation for travel.

Table 14. Segments of the tourist market and bases for segmentation. (Compiled from websites, the authors' own experience and numerous sources, including Seaton and Bennett, 1996; Hudson, 2000; Wedel and Kamakura, 2000; Chen, 2003; WTO and ETC, 2007; Panosso Netto and Ansarah, 2015.)

Segments	Bases for segmentation
Children; youths; middle-aged; elderly; the oldest old (older than 80 years)	Age
Social; popular; middle class; luxury	Economics
Walking; cycling; air; road; rail; ocean; river/lake	Means of transport
Short term or itinerant (the tourist stays at the location visited for a short amount of time); medium term; long term (slow travel)	Length of stay
Local; regional; national; continental; intercontinental	Distance from the consumer market
Singles; couples; families; groups	Type of group
Outbound; inbound	Direction of tourism flow
Agritourism (the attraction is new planting and harvesting technologies and new ways of working on farms; the property's primary income is not from tourism, which is supplemental income or used as a marketing strategy for large agricultural producers); ecotourism; beach; mountain; countryside; snow; ecological; climate/hydrothermal; landscape or scenic (by those who want to observe a natural or artificial landscape); second home (at a location where the tourist has a second home or a timeshare); heritage (where the tourist chooses to stay in historic residences, palaces or buildings that have become famous for a special event); rural (spending time in the countryside or in nature on ranches and farms whose primary income is from tourism); urban (in the city by people from other cities)	Geographic condition of the tourism destination

Continued

Table 14. Continued

Segments	Bases for segmentation
Scientific; congressional; cultural; student (by students seeking places to participate in different courses); exchange; mega-events; ornithological (by bird-watchers, i.e. people who want to study the birds at the destination); roots or genealogical (visiting the places where people's ancestors come from or seeking to understand the origin of their surnames); educational (seeking to learn about a particular topic); esoteric; mystical (desire to visit places connected with the occult, the supernatural, the unknown or ghostly); ethnic; folkloric and artisanal; historic; linguistic (travelling abroad to learn a language); literary (seeking places that have become famous because they are described in world-famous literary works or places where works of a recognized literary value were created); pedagogical (study tour organized by a school); religious	Cultural aspect
Community (small communities); large cities; small cities; in natural areas	Degree of urbanization of the tourism destination
Backpacker; wine tourism (visiting vineyards and wineries); alternative (as opposed to traditional sun-and-sand tourism); active (an alternative to traditional tourism, whose primary motivation lies in having some sort of interaction with the environment, whether physical or recreational); bariatric (done for plastic surgery purposes (body aesthetics), when the person visits attractions at the surgery destination); biblical (visiting religious sites); brewery (more widespread in Eastern Europe; people travel to sample many different types of beers and understand the production process); cynegetic (for people who like to hunt); institutional civic (done at civic locations to see monuments and buildings related to the history of a region, country, state, municipality or nation); commercial (by businessmen and dealers who travel from their residence to buy and sell products in other places in a manner that resembles business tourism); creative (by people who want to learn specialized activities during their trip, such as painting, music and theatre); adventure; social contact (to meet friends or family or to make new friends and meet new people); winter sports; events; eccentricities; experience; golf; incentives; special interest (in protected areas, such as parks and nature reserves); games or casinos; leisure; necrophiliac (visiting places related to death or disasters); business; heritage (in places with an important historical heritage); fishing; recreation and entertainment; rest (by people who want to relax and rest); ruins or war (in areas that were the scene of past wars); health; ecological; space; sports; ethno-historical and family; philanthropic (by those who wish to help people in need, either because of natural disasters such as earthquakes, tidal waves and tsunamis, or because of social issues, such as refugee camps, wars or political problems); gastronomic; hedonistic; industrial (in industrial areas to learn about the production process of a particular product and the technology used to produce it); insular (on islands); people with special needs; residential (by families or groups staying in a rented house, not to be confused with second homes); romantic; socio-familial; surprise; thematic; urban; virtual (travel without any geographical displacement that can be done at home, if there is a computer connected to the Internet); corporate travel (by business owners and employees for professional reasons, whose expenses are paid by the company of which the employee is part)	Motivation for travel

By delimiting various groups, segmentation can be used to better meet demand. Therefore, by identifying each type of tourist's specific characteristics, interests and needs, organizations can tailor their offering to their target audience.

As seen, the marketing of destinations and tourism companies is extremely important not only for attracting new visitors and selling services but also for building a relationship between clients and managers of destinations and service providers. It is thus possible to create loyal customers and stimulate the spread by word of mouth.

Operationalizing

In 2009, the official tourism agency of the Australian state of Queensland ran one of the most successful tourism marketing campaigns in history.

Entitled 'Best Job in the World', the campaign drew the world media's attention to the natural beauty of the state of Queensland. It offered a job as the caretaker of an island for a period of 6 months, with a salary of AUS$150,000 and accommodation in a luxury home overlooking the Great Barrier Reef. The candidate was required to explore the island and report their experiences on a blog, care for the pool and feed the fish. The campaign's real objective was to publicize Queensland as a destination through user-generated content. Nearly 35,000 people entered a 1-minute video as part of the job application process. It is estimated that exposure in the international media was equivalent to more than AUS$350 million.

Exercise

Find out whether your city has a tourism marketing plan. If it does, evaluate the results that have been achieved. If not, suggest actions that could be developed.

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2.18 The Economics of Tourism Companies

WITH GLAUBER EDUARDO DE OLIVEIRA SANTOS

The economics of tourism companies seeks to explain the behaviour of these market agents. The primary questions of interest are related to production size and price. How do tourist companies decide how much of each service should be offered and at what price? This explanation usually assumes that companies aim to maximize their profits. The profit maximization principle has long been used to explain companies' decisions, and it is currently the most widespread pivotal and introductory assumption of the theory of the firm (Beattie *et al.*, 2009; Varian, 2010; Mankiw, 2015). Although other reasons may exist for the companies' decisions, the principle of seeking maximum profit explains a vast part of the problem. It should be considered from this perspective that profit not only refers to the company's present income but also to the company's future income. As with any financial asset, the evaluation of future profit should discount the time and uncertainty involved in the operation. In short, every decision to provide a service is made based on an evaluation of its contribution to the company's profit, discounting time and risk. If the profit is expected to increase, the decision is made. Otherwise, the idea is rejected. Because a company's profit is the difference between all income and all costs, each side of the balance will be examined in detail below.

Costs

A tourism company's costs can be divided into fixed costs (FC) and variable costs (VC). Thus, a company's total costs (TC) equals the sum of the fixed and variable costs (TC = FC + VC). Fixed costs are those that are independent of the quantity of services provided by the company during the period. Some examples of fixed costs include expenditures on rental properties, salaries of permanent staff, cable TV subscriptions, the company's website hosting and insurance. Variable costs are those that vary depending on the quantity produced, such as fuel consumed in the delivery of **transport** services, ingredients for preparing meals and amenities offered by hotels to guests. Some tourism company costs have both fixed and variable portions. A good example is the case of hotel water bills. Guests' water consumption is a variable cost. In contrast, the water used in cleaning the hotel's common areas is a fixed cost because cleaning is done regardless of the occupancy rate.

An important measurement for cost analysis is the average variable cost (AVC), which is the result of dividing variable costs by the quantity (Q) of services produced (AVC = VC/Q). This value is often assumed to be constant, such that a company's total costs are taken as a linear function of the quantity produced, as illustrated in the left graph of Fig. 35. If this were true, each unit of service would generate the same quantity of costs for the company, regardless of how many units had been produced before. For example, if the cost of a pizza was $25, it is assumed that this is the cost of both the first and the 100th pizzas produced. The hypothesis of constant average variable cost is reasonable for representing the costs of many businesses but not all of them. In many cases, the cost of the first units is much higher than the cost of the subsequent units. To produce a single pizza in a wood-burning oven, a certain quantity of firewood must be burned. To cook the second pizza, only a bit more firewood needs to be added because the oven is already hot. The additional quantity of wood necessary to cook the second pizza is smaller than the quantity required to prepare the first pizza. Therefore, in this case, the greater the quantity produced, the less the average variable cost. In other words, instead of growing in a linear fashion as a function of the quantity produced, the total cost grows increasingly more slowly, as illustrated in the right graph of Fig. 35. This phenomenon, known as economy of scale, is one of the primary explanations for the success of large companies. Because anyone who produces more has lower average costs, larger companies tend to have lower prices and therefore, greater market success.

Many tourism companies have high fixed costs compared with variable costs. In a travel agency, except for the commission paid to the salespeople, almost all of the costs are fixed and independent of sales. This is because **tourism services** are only brokered by the agencies; they are not purchased and then sold to customers. Most hotel costs are also incurred regardless of the number of guests. Even if a hotel does not receive any guests in any given month, the larger amounts of the hotel's total costs, such as salaries and interest on the initial investment, normally must be paid. A similar situation occurs with airline companies, which usually have most of their costs linked to investment in aircraft, rentals and salaries. Fixed costs also represent the majority of costs for managing transport infrastructure, such as ports, airports and highways. In these cases, a huge portion of the total cost is associated with the initial investment made to build these structures.

Revenue

Company revenue is given by the quantity of sales and the prices charged. If the price of the tourist service is the same for all customers, then the company's revenue (R) is the result of multiplying the price (P) by the quantity of sales made (R = P × Q). However, in most markets, the price charged influences both **demand** and the quantity of sales. If the price is very high, demand will be low. In contrast, if the company charges a low price, demand will be high. Therefore, quantity is an inverse function of price, as illustrated in the top graph of Fig. 36.

If the price is low and there are many sales, a small increase should not turn away many customers. In this case, if the drop in demand is proportionately less than the increase in prices, the result will be an increase in revenue. As an example, if the price of an airline ticket rises 10%, from $100 to $110, and demand falls by less than 10%, from 1000 to 990 tickets, the revenue that was initially $100 × 1000 = $100,000 would rise to $110 × 990 = $108,900. Therefore, the price increase would result in revenue growth.

However, at a certain price, demand becomes more sensitive to new increases. In this situation, as the price rises, sales fall so much that the company's revenue decreases. If the ticket price rises 10% from $5000 to $5500, demand might fall more than 10%, perhaps from 400 to 300. As a result, the initial revenue of $5000 × 400 = $2,000,000 would fall to $5500 × 300 = $1,650,000.

In short, as the price rises, the company's revenue increases if the price is low and decreases if the price is high. If analysed as a function of the quantity of

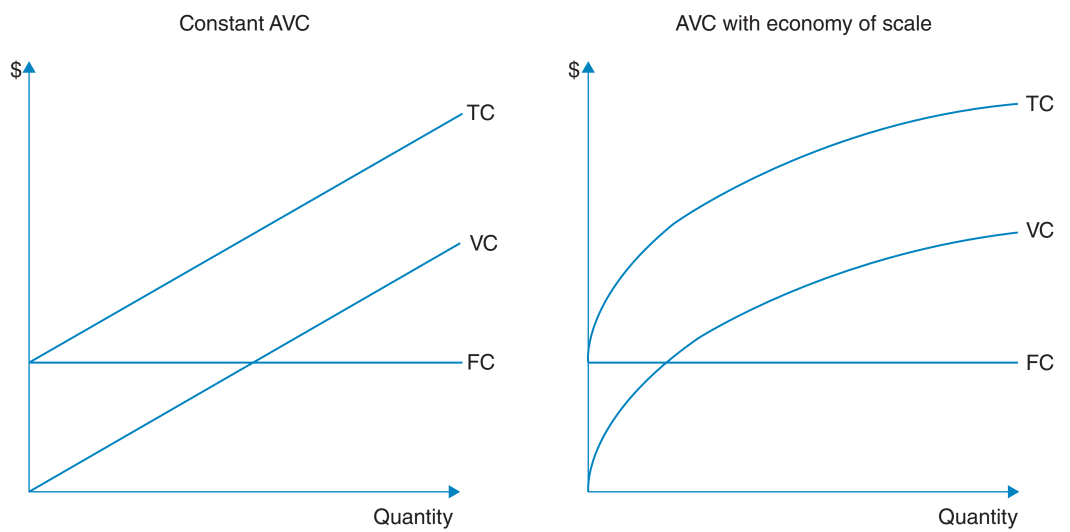

Fig. 35. Costs with and without economy of scale.

sales, revenue also grows until a certain point and then decreases after that point. In other words, revenue follows a function with an inverted U-shape in relation to the quantity of sales.

Figure 37 presents the relationship between price, quantity of sales and revenue. For any price p, the company's demand curve indicates that the quantity of sales would be equal to q. The higher p is, the lower q is. Area r, which is highlighted in the left graph, indicates the revenue corresponding to the sale of q units at price p. Revenue r is also represented on the *y*-axis of the second graph, which shows revenue as a function of price. Note that this function has the inverted U-shape suggested earlier.

Profit Maximization

Profit (S) is defined as the difference between revenue and total costs (S = R – TC). If the company's objective is to achieve the highest possible profit, then its decision to provide a service will

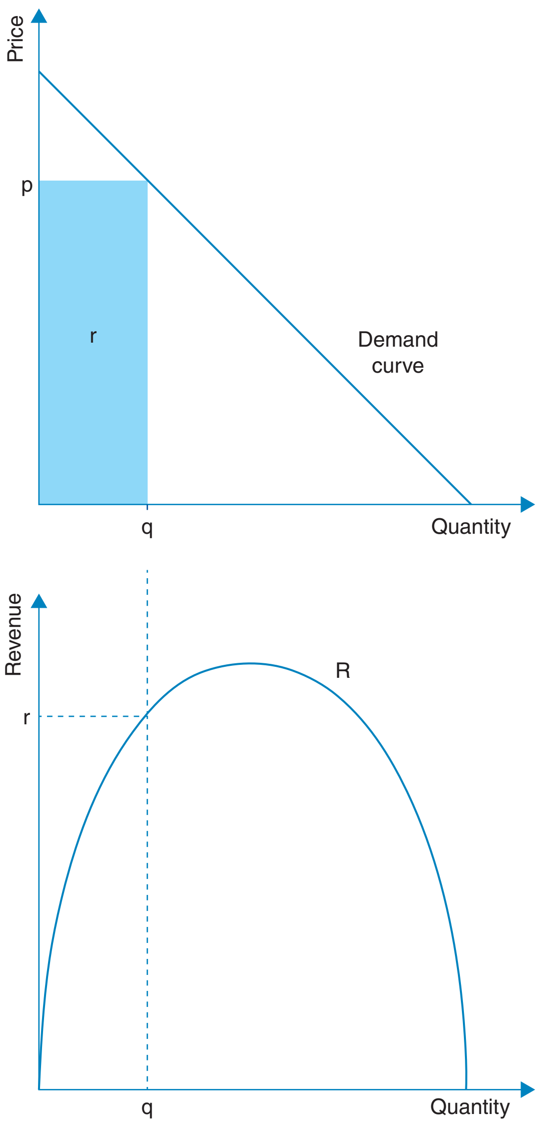

Fig. 36. Demand and revenue.

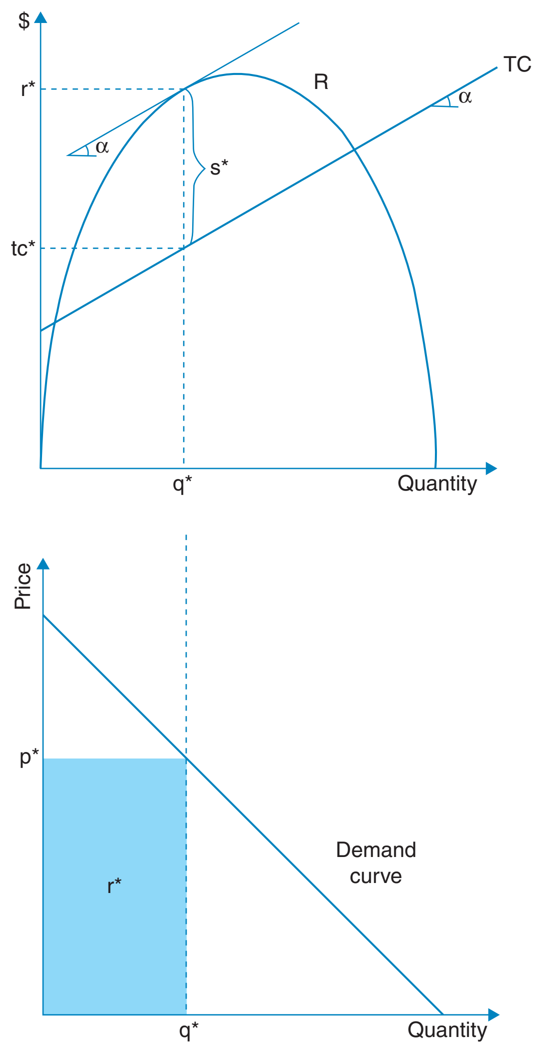

Fig. 37. Profit maximization.

be made based on the comparison between revenue and total costs. Management should choose to increase production and sales whenever it increases the company's profit. If the increase in revenue resulting from increased sales is insufficient to pay for the increase in total costs, the best decision would be not to increase production.

This analysis can be illustrated by combining elements from the graphs presented above, as shown in Fig. 37. For reasons of simplicity, the case of companies with no economies of scale is adopted. In the left graph of Fig. 37, the quantity of production and sales that maximizes the company's profit (q*) is represented by the point of greatest distance between curves R and TC. This point occurs precisely where the slope of curve R equals the slope of curve TC, which is represented by angle α. The slope of R represents the change in revenue from a small increase in the quantity of sales. This value is known as marginal revenue (MR). Similarly, the slope of TC indicates the variation in the company's total costs that result from a small increase in the quantity produced, known as marginal cost (MC). Therefore, profit maximization occurs when marginal revenue is equal to marginal cost.

Quantity q* is sold at price p*, resulting in revenue r*. Subtracting total costs (tc*) from this, we get the profit achieved by the company (s*). The key issue of this analysis is that s* is the highest profit the company can obtain, given production costs and the company's demand in the market. For any point before q*, an increase in the quantity of services would result in an increase in revenue that is higher than the increased costs. Therefore, increasing production would expand the company's profit, even when expansion is necessary to reduce the sales price. After q*, the situation is reversed. To increase sales, it would be necessary to reduce the price so much that the variation in income would be insufficient to cover the increase in costs. Therefore, an increase in production and sales would result in a lower profit.

Naturally, reducing costs without decreasing the quantity produced would also increase a company's profit. Similarly, increasing sales without reducing the price would also increase profit. However, alternatives for achieving this goal are outside the analytical scope of business economics; they are associated with other areas of study. Business economics studies issues such as price, production quantity and optimal sales. An unconditional reduction in costs is the subject of operational studies, whereas increasing sales without reducing prices is an issue generally studied by the field of marketing.

Pricing and Revenue Management

Although defining price according to the analysis presented in the previous section is appropriate, it may not be feasible or efficient in some cases. When information is scarce, expensive or difficult to analyse, business owners tend to use simplified pricing rules. Although such rules may not necessarily result in maximum profit, they can be advantageous for their speed and convenience.

A logic widely used to price goods and services involves defining a markup (M). In this perspective, the sales price is equal to the average cost plus a certain percentage. The markup can be calculated based on the average variable cost, P = AVC × (1+M), or the average total cost, P = ATC × (1+M). For example, if AVC = \$80 and the markup = 25%, then P = 80 × (1+0.25) = \$100. An alternative way to adopt this type of logic is to calculate the profit margin. In this perspective, the percentage value refers to the sale price, not the cost. If the price is calculated based on the average variable cost, it has a net margin, P=AVC/(1 – net margin), whereas if it is calculated based on the average total cost, it has a gross margin, P=ATC/(1 – gross margin). For example, if AVC = \$80 and the net margin is 20%, then P = 80/(1 – 0.2) = \$100.

Calculating the markup or profit margin based on the average variable cost is usually closer to the analysis of profit maximization, and thus is more appropriate. However, in cases in which the variable cost is a small fraction of the total cost, pricing has better results if it is calculated based on the total cost. The markup or margin percentage should be established by the company based primarily on analyses of competition and demand. The less competition and less sensitive to price the demand is, the greater the percentage should be.

Another simple pricing rule occurs in very competitive markets. In these cases, the price of the service can be established by analysing the prices charged by the competition. Simultaneously, the differences between the services should be taken into account. Services that are better than those of competitors can be sold for higher prices, but worse services need to be cheaper if they want to find some demand in the market. An alternative to performing this quality analysis is to consider the costs of each service. Because better services tend to have higher production costs, instead of seeking to imitate the competitors' final price, managers can use their adopted markup. Thus, by adopting similar profit margin percentages for the costs, the prices of higher-quality services are automatically set at higher levels.

The sales price is not always the same for all customers because some companies have the ability to differentiate among sales prices. Revenue management is the practice of differentiating prices according to the customer's characteristics or the sales conditions. One example of differentiation according to the customer's characteristics is the practice of charging half-price for students and seniors at cinemas and theatres. Other examples of differential pricing is the practice of charging promotional prices for women at nightclubs, residents living near parks and museums, regular customers at hotels or large groups at **travel agencies**.

Differentiating according to purchase conditions is also frequent. One important example is differentiating airfare prices according to how far in advance the ticket is purchased. Airline companies know that the distribution of demand over time tends to be strongly associated with the distribution of the passengers' willingness to pay. Those who purchase much earlier tend to be more price sensitive, substituting one ticket for another (or something else) if the value is too high. Customers who tend to buy their tickets on short notice usually have lower price sensitivity because they have more specific transport needs (e.g. dates, times, airports). Knowing this, airline companies divide the seats of their aircraft into different price categories. Customers who buy further in advance find all of the categories available and obviously choose to buy the cheaper seats. Those buying later find some categories of seats sold out and are forced to pay more if they really want to fly. By using this practice, the airline company is able to increase its revenue without having to bear the expense of higher costs. It should be noted that the higher price is not associated with any difference in service; the seats are located within the same service class (e.g. economy, business).

Price discrimination for large concerts and shows follows a pattern similar to that adopted by airlines. Prices are also differentiated according to purchase date. Tickets are sold in lots, and the first lot is generally cheaper. Those who buy in the first lot thus tend to pay less than those who buy in later lots. However, during the sale of a lot, customers have no information about what the price of tickets in the next lot will be. Indeed, these prices are not established in advance; their values are defined based on an analysis of the sales in each previous lot. In some cases, when demand is shown to be small, tickets from later lots can have prices equal to or even lower than those in previous lots.

Differential pricing according to sales conditions may also be based on issues other than time of purchase. Discounts on tourist services in the off-season are an important example. Discounts are also usually applied to bulk purchases, cash payment, and transactions using the Internet or other computerized systems, among others.

Operationalizing

Consider the case of an airline company that flies a specific route with a fixed monthly cost of $1.5 million and a variable cost per passenger of $800. Because the variable cost per passenger is constant, the marginal cost (MC) is also equal to $800. The company's total cost function in terms of the number of passengers transported is:

$$\mathrm{TC} = 1{,}500{,}000 + 800\mathrm{Q}$$

The passenger demand for this route can be estimated from the company's sales history. Assuming a linear demand function, it follows that:

$$\mathrm{P} = a + (b \times \mathrm{Q})$$

When the company charged $2500, 1250 tickets were sold. When the price was $3500, sales fell to 750 tickets. Using these two known points of the demand function, it becomes possible to mount a system of equations, as shown below:

$$2500 = a + 1250b$$

$$3500 = a + 750b$$

Calculating the values of parameters a and b, we reach the demand function:

$$\mathrm{P} = 5000 - 2\mathrm{Q}$$

The company's revenue is therefore given by:

$$\mathrm{R} = \mathrm{Q}(5000 - 2\mathrm{Q}) = 5000\mathrm{Q} - 2\mathrm{Q}^2$$

The slope of the revenue curve, also known as marginal revenue (MR), is:

$$MR = 5000 - 4Q$$

The quantity of passengers that maximizes the carrier's profit is given by the point at which marginal cost equals marginal revenue, i.e.:

$$MC = MR \rightarrow 800 = 5000 - 4Q \rightarrow Q = 1050$$

These 1050 airline tickets result in a total cost of:

$$TC = 1,500,000 + (800 \times 1050) = 2,340,000$$

Because the company wants to sell 1050 airline tickets, the price to be charged is given by the demand function, i.e.:

$$P = 5000 - (2 \times 1050) = 2900$$

Given the quantity of tickets sold and the price charged, the company's revenue is:

$$R = P \times Q = 2900 \times 1050 = 3,045,000$$

The company's profit is

$$S = 3,045,000 - 2,340,000 = 705,000$$

With these costs and this demand, no other combination of price and sales would result in a higher profit for the company, that is, of course, considering that the airline charges a single price for all passengers.

In contrast, if the company can distinguish customers by the value they are willing to pay for the ticket, the result would be different. If the customers who are less willing to pay purchase their tickets before the others, the company could differentiate the price over time, charging less for the first seats sold and more for later seats. Assuming two different prices are adopted, without changing the information about costs and demand presented above, the ideal situation would be to put 700 seats on sale for \$2200 and another 700 on sale for \$3600. Thus, the first 700 customers would find seats for sale at the two prices and naturally choose to buy the cheaper ones. Once all of the \$2200 seats are gone, only the \$3600 seats would be left for the customers who make their purchases later. The 1400 total tickets sold at the two prices would lead to revenue of:

$$R = (2200 \times 700) + (3600 \times 700) = 4,060,000$$

The company's total cost for these trips would be

$$TC = 1,500,000 + (800 \times 1400) = 2,620,000$$

The company's profit would thus be

$$S = 4,060,000 - 2,620,000 = 1,440,000$$

Note that the company's profit in this practice scenario with two different prices is higher than the profit when a single price is charged for all buyers. In the example given, the profit with revenue management is more than double the profit with a single price. Although hypothetical, this case serves to illustrate this pricing technique's contribution to maximizing company profits.

Exercise

Consider the case of a tour operator that has a fixed yearly cost of \$30,000 and trades a single tour package that costs \$450 per tourist. The company used to charge \$700 for the tour package and 200 units were sold every year. Last year, the company offered a \$100 discount for all customers and sales went up to 400 units. Assuming that the tour operator's demand follows a linear function of the price, determine the optimal price to be charged in order to maximize the company's profit. How many tour packages would the tour operator sell at this price? Calculate the company's revenue and profit at this optimal situation. Compare the profit attained with each of the three prices considered.

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2.19 Sustainability in Tourism

WITH SIDNEI RAIMUNDO

Mass tourism became consolidated as an activity following World War II, causing enormous changes to the environment. This form of tourism is primarily governed by the logic of user (tourist) satisfaction and maximum profitability for business investors. This model is criticized in the book *Tourism: Economic, Physical and Social Impacts* by Mathieson and Wall (1982), which addressed the global impacts of tourism at the time in great detail, considering both its negative and positive aspects. Krippendorf (1984) later presented his scathing critique of the 'vacation machinery', proposing 23 theses for humanizing travel in the book *Die Ferienmenschen* (*The Holiday Makers*). Murphy (1985) discussed the relationship between tourism and the local community in his book *Tourism: A Community Approach*.

In studies of Spain, Bernáldez (1991, 1992) noted a number of critical problems, including the following: soil consumption and the negative transformation of the **landscape** caused by the construction of buildings and infrastructure; the increased production of garbage, solid waste and wastewater; the loss of traditional values as a result of the homogenization of **cultures**; the overvaluation of real estate with consequent loss of land ownership, housing and means of production by a portion of the local population; and the creation of migratory flows to areas of tourist concentration.

The natural and cultural transformations were so severe in the host communities, saturated from tourism interference, that they caused tourism professionals to rethink this model. Pires (2002) provided a list of the various initiatives that emerged: in 1976, there was a seminar on tourism's social and cultural impacts that was promoted by the World Bank and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO); in 1980, a conference was convened by the World Tourism Organization (WTO) that is considered a milestone in tourism's change in direction; in 1981, the Ecumenical Coalition on Third World Tourism (ECTWT) was established in Bangkok, Thailand, proposing support for the alternative tourism models in these countries; in 1986, an international event was held in Bad Boll, Germany, which sought to build a new order of tourism; and in 1989, there was a conference in Poland about theoretical perspectives on alternative forms of tourism. Also in 1989, a WTO seminar on alternative tourism was held in Algeria at which the proposal of 'sustainable tourism' emerged for the first time. The advances discussed at these meetings provided ideas and proposals related to a new order, a new model for planning and managing tourism destinations: sustainable tourism.

Sustainable tourism should not be considered a market segment but rather a new way of thinking and practising tourism. Swarbrooke (1999) attempted to define and operationalize sustainable tourism by bringing together definitions of sustainability in tourism, among them the noteworthy idea that sustainable tourism 'is economically viable but does not destroy the resources on which the future of tourism will depend, notably the physical environment and social fabric of the host community' (Swarbrooke, 1999, p. 13).

Sachs (2004) proposed guiding sustainable development by eight dimensions or principles: ecological, natural, social, cultural, territorial, economic, national politics and international politics. Murphy and Price (2005) explained how these sustainability principles should underpin tourism actions and stressed that both touristic activities and facilities should have the following dimensions:

1. Resource management complying with the fairest rules, allowing profits for investors and the local communities.
2. Intergenerational equality and respect for ways of life and customs.

3. Aesthetic appeal, highlighting the importance of natural, urban and rural landscape diversity.
4. Minimal intrusion, especially in sensitive environments.
5. Evaluating the limits of nature in terms of supporting human interference and preserving places with basic life support systems[3], based on the environmental services that these places provide to society.

Although these principles are important, they are generic. Additional techniques and strategies are needed to guide the pursuit of sustainability in tourism, as shown in Fig. 38.

With regard to the ecological and environmental dimension, there is a need for facilities with a low level of interference in the environment. The limits of nature (or the environment) in terms of supporting the proposed interferences should be evaluated. This is a challenge for tourism professionals, who must create a multidisciplinary team to identify the limits of nature. Tourism businesses should be shaped to reflect the natural limits of the environment, not the reverse.

Currently, the primary techniques for evaluating the limits of nature in terms of visitors, which have primarily been developed by experts working in protected areas, are the following: carrying capacity; VIM (visitor impact management); LAC (the limits of acceptable change); VERP (visitor experience and resources protection); TOMM (tourism optimization management models); ROS (the recreational opportunity spectrum); and VAMP (the visitor activity management process). Although these techniques were developed in parks services in the USA, Canada and Australia, they can also be considered for other tourism segments and destinations.

VIM is the most frequently used technique in environmental studies applied to tourism. Proposed by Graefe *et al.* (1990), VIM works to establish the use of indicators (which indicate whether changes are occurring in the environment) and their constant monitoring. Graefe *et al.* (1990) noted that the stage for establishing indicators is the most important and requires the support of experts in the field. These authors suggested some possible indicators that can guide studies, as shown in Table 15.

After establishing the most appropriate indicators, the next phase is to train people involved in touristic activities, both those in the tourist trade and other actors. This training must be implemented for those involved to have a broad understanding of

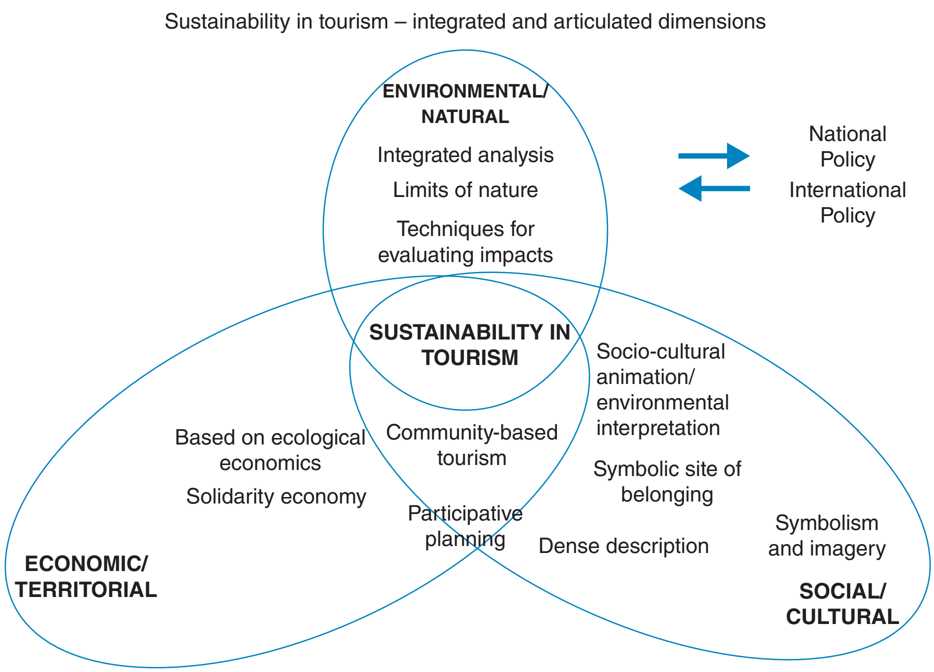

Fig. 38. Strategies and techniques to achieve sustainability in tourism.

Table 15. List of indicators for evaluating negative impacts on the environment. (Adapted from Graefe *et al*., 1990, p. 4.)

Physical impacts	Biological impacts	Social impacts
Soil density	Soil fauna and microfauna	Number of encounters with other individuals per day
Soil drainage	Ground-cover density	Number of encounters by activity type
Soil compaction	% loss of ground cover	Number of encounters by mode of transport
Soil chemistry	Composition of plant species	Number of encounters by group size
Soil pH	Diversity of plant species	Number of encounters with other groups per day
Soil productivity	Proportion of exotic plant species	Visitor perception of crowding
Amount of leaf litter and surface organic layer	Height of plants	Number of encounters by location of encounter
Depth of leaf litter and organic layer	Vigour of plant species	Number of visitor complaints
Area without vegetation	Extent of diseased vegetation	Visitor perception of impact on the environment
Area of barren soil	Extent of damage to trees	Amount of trash in the area
Total camping area	Number of seedlings	Visitor satisfaction
Number of fire rings	Exposed tree roots	Visitor reports of undesirable behaviours from other visitors
Size of fire rings	Abundance of selected wildlife species	
Number of 'social' trails	Presence/absence of selected wildlife	
Visible erosion	Frequency of wildlife sightings	
	Diversity of wildlife	
	Wildlife reproduction success	

the technique, the indicators that are established and, most importantly, how these indicators should be monitored. It is thus hoped that any changes in the landscape where tourism activities are being developed will be quickly identified and actions for managing them will be rapidly proposed.

With regard to the social, cultural and territorial dimensions, there is a need to reduce the conflicts between visitors and receiving communities in terms of social spaces and to invest in actions for more 'responsible' tourism.

The primary strategies/tools for pursuing sustainable tourism in these dimensions include the following: participatory planning and management, with the local community involved in decision-making processes and considering the aspirations and needs of these communities; community-based tourism; and environmental interpretation.

Arnstein (1969) and Connor (1988) believed there was a 'ladder' to be climbed when building citizen participation, which is understood as the involvement of the local community and other stakeholders in decision-making processes related to the planning and management of touristic activities and facilities. This involvement can be expressed in a process that ranges from total dependence and subordination relative to other agents, such as external investors and the government, to citizen control, i.e. the situation in which the community itself controls touristic activities and facilities. This process is thus represented by an eight-rung ladder (Arnstein, 1969) (Fig. 39) showing the phases of the communities' involvement and participation in decision-making processes.

According to Arnstein (1969), (1) *manipulation* and (2) *therapy* are 'rungs' of 'non-participation'; their objective is not to allow the population to participate in the processes of planning or conducting programmes but instead to allow decision makers to 'educate' or 'cure' the participants. The (3) *informing* and (4) *consultation* rungs represent progress, but with some limitations; they allow the local community to be heard, but this does not ensure that their opinions will be accepted by those in power. The (5) *placation* rung is simply a higher level of this limited empowerment; it allows the local community to advise those who are external, but the external actors retain the right to make the final decision.

8	Citizen control	Levels of citizen power
7	Delegated power	
6	Partnership	
5	Placation	Levels of minimum concession of power
4	Consultation	
3	Informing	
2	Therapy	Non-participation
1	Manipulation	

Fig. 39. Eight rungs on the ladder of community participation. (Adapted from Arnstein, 1969, and Connor, 1988.)

The higher rungs of this ladder indicate that citizens can participate in (6) a *partnership*, which allows them to negotiate as equals with those who traditionally hold power. On the highest rungs, (7) *delegated power* and (8) *citizen control*, the citizen holds either the majority in the decision-making forums or even full managerial power (Arnstein, 1969, p. 3).

Although this figure is a simplification, it helps illustrate a point that has been overlooked: there are different degrees of citizen participation. Understanding this gradation allows us to cut through the rhetorical exaggerations and understand both the growing **demand** for participation by receiving communities and the confused responses from business owners and external investors.

Participation is crucial to another strategy for sustainability in tourism: a political and social movement that has consolidated itself as community-based tourism. This form of tourism implies that the community is organized in local production arrangements and has possession and ownership of its lands, exploiting the tourism associated with other socio-economic practices (Goodwin and Santilli, 2009). This implies the creation of employment and income in the community; the strengthening of local governance; the reduction of capital; the diversification of local socio-productive activities; and the promotion of quality and safety standards for the **tourist experience**, both for the community and for visitors.

Another important aspect of sustainability that focuses on transforming the tourist into a more responsible citizen is associated with the experience of visiting. Some techniques have been consecrated to optimize these activities, including 'environmental interpretation'. Environmental interpretation seeks direct contact with an environment[4], giving the individual an opportunity to develop environmental awareness and assimilate knowledge. This activity, which is focused on the visitor's experience, seeks to reveal the sensation and perception of some phenomenon and its value, not the observation of a scene or object (Wearing and Neil, 2009).

Experience-based interpretation provides the individual with the experience of the visited environment and includes a group of elements that span the interpreted and represented experience of a particular individual or group, expressed by a range of sensations, thoughts and feelings.

The principles of environmental interpretation grew from the work of Tilden (2007), for whom environmental interpretation is 'an educational activity which aims to reveal meanings and relationships through the use of original objects, by first-hand experience, and by illustrative media, rather than simply to communicate factual information' (Tilden, 2007, p. 33).

Tilden (2007) identified five basic principles as fundamental for developing any environmental interpretation programme:

1. The relationship between what is being shown or described and something from the visitor's personality or experience.

2. Information, as such, is not interpretation – instead, although interpretation is revelation based on the use of information, the two are totally different concepts (that notwithstanding, all interpretation includes information).
3. Interpretation is an art that combines many arts, regardless of whether the material presented is scientific, historical or architectural.
4. The fundamental goal of interpretation is not instruction but provocation, which awakens curiosity, giving more emphasis to what seems insignificant.
5. Interpretation should aim to present information as a whole instead of as an isolated part, and should be presented to the person as a whole, rather than as two facets.

Returning to the dimensions of sustainability expressed by Sachs (2004) above, it is necessary to address one of the most controversial dimensions: **economics**. The focal point of this dimension concerns an equitable distribution between external business owners and host communities. This is a challenge because in the 'non-sustainable' model, the external business owner wants the return on their investment to be as high as possible in the shortest amount of time. As indicated, the costs of nature and of local society are not incorporated into this model. To eliminate, or at least minimize, these distortions, the primary strategies and tools of the sustainability of tourism's economic dimension are the following: businesses designed with, and investors and communities made aware of, the principles of ecological economics or solidarity economics; community-based tourism; and participatory planning and management, the latter of which has already been discussed.

Ecological economics, according to Costanza (1989) and Proops and Safonov (2004), understands the economic system as a subsystem of a larger whole: the environment. In addition to the impacts on nature, the impacts on the local culture should be considered. Thus, capital (the external investor), natural resources and the local community's interests and aspirations must be understood as essentially complementary. The risk of irreversible losses is considered relevant (and can be catastrophic). In the long term, it is impossible for the economic system to be sustainable without stabilizing the levels of per capita consumption based on the planet's carrying capacity.

It is important to emphasize that tourism can never be understood as an isolated activity centred in the community itself. There will always be some degree of dependence on or relationship with external actors. Tourists are external elements, and agencies, which form groups in the tourists' places of origin, are also obviously external. Other investors linked to the hotel or **food and beverage** sectors can also be (and frequently are) external. Thus, the challenge lies in finding a more equitable relationship between the external actors and the local community. In this sense, locally based tourism actions represent one approach to the sustainability of tourism because they seek to reduce the discrepancies between external and internal interests.

The economic dimension of sustainability focuses on the relationship between local communities and external investors, based on solidarity economics. This is one of the hallmarks of community-based tourism (Mielke, 2012; Pookaiyaudom, 2013). According to Silva *et al.* (2009, pp. 363–364), community-based tourism should consider the following actions:

- Contributing to creating local jobs and income.
- Strengthening local governance in conjunction with the other actors involved in tourism.
- Decreasing income leakages and promoting the densification of the local market.
- Structuring the touristic segment in light of the increasing touristic demand at national and international levels.
- Adding value to tourism destinations by diversifying the segments to be offered.
- Promoting quality and safety standards for the tourist experience both for the host community and for visitors.

According to this logic, solidarity economics, an important element of community-based tourism, is a form of production based on associations and cooperatives, with the production, consumption and trade of goods and services carried out in a self-managed mode that is not exclusive to the community but, instead, is under its control. Solidarity economics focuses on those excluded from capital and develops solidarity in them instead of in competition. Therefore, its base is in associations or cooperatives, because this form of organization replaces the lack of capital with solidarity.

Operationalizing

Sustainability in tourism is composed of various dimensions and thus presents great complexity. A multidisciplinary team is critical, with the tourism professional working together with others from the natural, social and economic sciences. The objective of these teams should consider the techniques and strategies described here. The external business owner must consider the limits of nature in terms of supporting interferences. Experts from the natural sciences can make substantial contributions to the establishment of these limits and the use of indicators. The local community's desires, needs and cultural values should also be considered. To this end, considering community-based tourism and the principles of solidarity economics, involvement with the techniques of participatory planning and strengthening the local production arrangements is of paramount importance for guiding the actions of either local or external investors in terms of touristic activities and facilities.

With respect to practical and early actions, it is important to note that it is very difficult to work with all eight of the dimensions proposed by Sachs (2004) simultaneously: environmental, natural, social, cultural, territorial, economic, and national and international politics. It is most important to choose one of these dimensions to begin the work, without losing sight of the fact that, in the future, with the project's maturity, the chosen dimension must relate to the other dimensions that have not yet been considered.

Exercise

Read the passage from the book by Florian Steinberg (2008, p. 1) below and prepare a commentary on the possibilities and limitations of implementing similar projects in your city. In your text, discuss some of the dimensions, such as economic, social, environmental, cultural and political sustainability, involved in projects of this nature.

> Many of Asia's large cities served as centers of trade for centuries. As a result, they possess historic urban cores that initially functioned as these cities' centers of commerce. While most of these cores still stand replete with buildings, artifacts, and other features of historical and cultural value, these living museums fell into neglect during the 20th century, often as an unintended by-product of rapid urbanization. Rapid urban growth often leads to the collapse of large cities' historic urban cores, since urbanization generally occurs at a more rapid pace at cities' peripheries than centers. Examples of this phenomenon abound in Southeast Asia, such as in Jakarta, Malacca, Manila, Penang, Saigon, Semarang, and the historic centers of cities of similar size in the People's Republic of China (PRC), India, Nepal, and Pakistan. From the point of view of economic efficiency, neglect of these historic urban centers represents a foregone opportunity for growth in national income. Their revitalization, which without exception includes upgrading of their infrastructure, increases not only the value of the real estate on which they stand, but likewise their attractiveness to commerce, tourism, and trade. Further, these historic urban centers represent compelling opportunities for public–private partnership investment projects that often multiply many times over the development impact of each unit of government expenditure. Revitalizing Asia's historic urban centers thus makes sense from numerous perspectives, including economic efficiency; promotion of commerce, trade, and tourism; employment creation; poverty reduction; and the strengthening of civic and national pride.
>
> Steinberg (2008, p. 1.)

Note

[3] The limits of nature refer here to the concept of 'basic life support systems' or the 'carrying capacity of an ecosystem'. Carrying capacity is defined, according to Daily and Ehrlich (1992), as the maximum population size of a species that a given area can support without reducing its ability to maintain that species for an indefinite period of time.

[4] The term 'environmental' applies not only to natural areas but also to rural and urban ones. Environmental interpretation can thus be used to make visitors aware of the natural, social and cultural characteristics, for example, of the location visited, whether that area is urban, rural or natural.

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Section 3: The Tourist

3.1 Tourism Demand

In tourism, the concept of demand involves individuals whose needs include the 'consumption' and experience of places. Tourists purchase souvenirs and clothing and use services, such as **accommodation** and amusement parks. However, their primary motivations are generally related to the actual **tourism destination**; a tourist visiting Paris or Rome may wish to experience the 'atmosphere' and become part of the local community.

Therefore, tourism demand is the total number of people participating in tourism activities, quantified as the number of tourist arrivals and departures, the amount of money spent or other statistical data. The factors that influence tourism demand include tourists' economic power, vacation availability and personal desires, among other **motivational factors**. Changes in the place of origin, such as economic or political crises, may also affect the likelihood of tourist travel. On the **supply** side, variations in **price** compared with similar destinations and services, a lack of **transport** options, a diversity of **tourism products**, and the destination's image (Stepchenkova and Eales, 2011) and safety and climate (Goh, 2012), among other things, may affect tourism demand for a particular destination.

It is important to note that, in the case of tourism demand, the consumer and the client are often different entities. Two examples illustrating this reality are as follows: (i) an employee travelling for business is the consumer, but the company (client) is paying the bill; and (ii) children or young adults travelling alone (consumers), whose parents or guardians (clients) are paying for the trip. In many of these situations, the client influences the consumer's choices because the former is actually responsible for the financial cost of the trip.

Tourism demand can be characterized according to the tourist's desire and availability to participate in tourism activities, which are classified as follows:

- *Effective demand*: those who are actually travelling. This can easily be measured and includes tourism statistics.
- *Suppressed demand*: those who want to travel but are prevented from doing so for some reason. This classification can be subdivided into:
  - *Potential demand*: those who will travel at some point but who cannot do so immediately or when they would like to for personal reasons, such as not having enough vacation time or money; and
  - *Deferred demand*: those who, because of supplier problems (e.g. no accommodation or inadequate transport) or weather conditions (e.g. a blizzard), among others, have to postpone their trip to another date. Kotler and Armstrong (2013) also called this excessive demand, i.e. cases in which the demand exceeds the supply of a product or service.
- *No demand*: i.e. those who would like to be able to travel but will never be able to do so (because of money, health, time, etc.).

Some of the factors that influence tourism demand are listed below (Uysal and Crompton, 1984; Crouch, 1995; Lim, 1997):

- *Product price*: demand variation is inversely proportional to price variation.
- *Prices of competing products*: an increase in the price of a competing product represents an increased demand for the other product.
- *Price of complementary products*: an increase in prices for complementary products (e.g. transport to a particular tourism destination) leads to a reduced demand for attractions and accommodation at the destination.
- *Income*: an increase in income is directly related to an increase in tourism demand, particularly in that portion of the population that has already met its most basic consumption needs. On a related note, the foreign exchange rate may or may not favour international travel.
- *Availability of free time*: an increase in free time is favourable for an increase in travel. Thus,

labour laws that either increase or decrease the number of worker vacation days will positively or negatively influence the propensity to travel.

- *Investment in advertising*: the level of investment in publicity has a direct effect on tourism demand, although word of mouth is also a powerful way to advertise a product or tourism destination.
- *Trends*: some tourism destinations become popular through word of mouth, media influence or any other factor that can confer status on the tourists who visit them.
- *Weather variations*: unexpected changes in a particular destination's weather (e.g. rain at beach locations and a lack of snow at ski resorts) are likely to cause a decrease in tourism demand (Ridderstaat *et al.*, 2014). It is thus important to diversify a destination's activities and attractions to decrease their vulnerability. One example is to build places to entertain tourists on rainy days at a tourist **resort.**
- *Natural disasters*: the presence of natural disasters, such as hurricanes (Woosnam and Kim, 2014), volcanoes, typhoons, windstorms, earthquakes, tsunamis and floods, drastically affects tourism demand, as seen in the case of the Indian Ocean tsunami in December 2004 and Hurricane Katrina in New Orleans, USA, in August 2005.
- *Artificial disasters*: civil and international wars, terrorist attacks, oil spills contaminating a tourist resort (Crotts and Mazanec, 2013) and epidemics (e.g. outbreak of severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) in 2003).
- *Crises*: many other factors that are internal and external to the tourism environment can cause a variation in demand, such as the air-traffic controller strike in Brazil during the last quarter of 2006 (Costa *et al.* 2010), which delayed flights and caused many tourists to choose destinations and packages that were accessible by road.

Exercise

To explore the subject further, use secondary sources such as magazines, newspapers and personal statements, and analyse examples that illustrate real cases in which different factors have influenced tourism demand.

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3.2 Tourist Experience

with Rafael Chequer Bauer

Immanuel Kant was a philosopher who studied the topic of experience in great depth. For him, there was no doubt that all human knowledge begins with experience; none the less, he stated that not all knowledge comes from experience. Kant (1856) explained that experience is immediate and contrasts with knowledge; it has the same meaning as 'empirical knowledge', i.e. the knowledge gained through living, the knowledge that comes from living life. Thus, there would be knowledge prior to experience, prior to living, such as a sense of morals, virtue and beauty (aesthetics). The act of experiencing relates to the experiences accumulated over the lifetime of each human being, which contribute in a fundamental way to their biographies and in a complementary way to others' individual and social realities.

There is an evaluative connotation linked to experience; simultaneously, it is an individual and collective construction. This means that knowledge is also cumulative, based on the experiences of mankind throughout history. Therefore, the simplest version of experience is the knowledge that we have from our senses.

The concept of experience in tourism studies has attracted attention from a number of researchers in the field, as indicated by Otto and Ritchie (1996), Aho (2001), McCabe (2002), Uriely (2005), O'Dell and Billing (2005), Andersson (2007), Ryan (2010) and Kim (2012), among others. For Otto and Ritchie (1996), for example, the travel experience is associated with the visitor's subjective mental state during the tourist experience. This means that travellers' needs (what is needed), desires (what is wanted) and expectations (what is expected), in addition to being diverse, complex and often conflicting, are very susceptible to positive and negative rational and emotional oscillations arising from multiple interactions with the place's resources.

In addition to the discussion about the influence of emotions on experiential memory, it is also worth noting the perception of Wearing (2001), who has identified that some scholars of the tourist experience analyse two main topics that address traveller subjectivity (and experience). On the one hand, tourism is an escape from the daily routine, as **Urry** (1990), De Masi (2000) and O'Dell (2005) argue; on the other hand, travel functions as a construction of the self, a valuable experience, internal development and personal enrichment, as argued by Cohen (1979), Krippendorf (2009) and Ryan (2010).

Regardless of the epistemological approach/author selected, the fact is that the tourist experience has changed in accordance with the new dynamics of rapid and profound technological advances, overvaluation of capital, greater sociocultural interaction, the feeling of existential emptiness and exacerbated narcissism, among others (Lipovetsky, 1993). These points are closely related. People talk about the need to practise a more sustainable, mild tourism through specific segments, such as voluntourism and slow travel, but without detaching themselves from the capitalist logic. This leads to an experience based on the marketing premise of production, distribution and consumption, which turns the exchange relationship among different social groups into a question primarily of travel **supply** and demand. In this sense, tourist practices that seek to be authentic would essentially continue to be identical to those of mass tourism; only their names would change.

Analysis of the phenomenon of seeking experiences in tourism tends to be based on the 'experience economy' or 'experience marketing'. In 1999, the works of Jensen (*The Dream Society*) and Pine and Gilmore (*The Experience Economy*) were published. Both of these works were structured around the same central idea: in terms of the market, we are leaving the era of services to gradually reach a new level of supply and demand relationships, which are increasingly based on emotional and sensorial aspects.

The behavioural changes noted in contemporary society, with invariably market-related reflections, establish a new scenario: time free of obligations has become increasingly valued. It represents the possibility of escape from daily life and simultaneously is the maximum representation of repressed dreams, feelings and sensations. In this aspect, tourism has emerged as providing the maximum possibility for experiential transformation because, to varying degrees, it provides a change of scenery, pace and lifestyle, altering spatial, temporal and behavioural perspectives, as indicated by Krippendorf (2009).

In this context, the tourist experience becomes more relevant, complex and difficult to measure precisely because the metrics of the Industrial Age have increasingly given way to more flexible, diffuse and intuitive analytical processes and models. In an attempt to empirically understand experiential tourism, Kim *et al.* (2010), based on a literature review and empirical data collection with students from the USA, proposed a scale with seven domains to measure, clarify and validate the meaning of the memorable tourist experience. These domains are hedonism, refreshment, local **culture**, meaningfulness, knowledge, involvement and novelty. In a later study, Kim and Ritchie (2014) validated this scale, applying their research to people in Taiwan.

Trigo (2010) stated that it is no longer enough to sell services; instead, it is necessary to offer an experience, something extraordinary, which creates emotion, affect and sensations. It is the search for the 'happiness of small, previously-stipulated adventures, without risk or inconvenience' (Trigo, 2010, p. 34). Understanding that there is tourism demand for experiences, tourism-marketing professionals have begun to offer products and services that offer some type of experience. One example is called experiential tourism, which has emerged in recent years as a process and product adapted to contemporary travel, acquiring a simultaneously philosophical and commercial character (Uriely, 2005; Hosany and Gilbert, 2010; Sharpley and Jepson, 2011; Kim, 2012; Dalonso *et al.*, 2014).

Philosophically – and in the Kantian sense of experience – experiential tourism represents man's continual search for something capable of representing the discovery, assimilation and dissemination of something truly relevant to his existence and the social context to which he belongs (Panosso Netto and Gaeta, 2010). In this sense, experiential tourism can become confused with the tourist experience; experience is symbolically important and acquired over time, whereas tourism expresses the real possibility of change and thus discovery (foundation for new experiences). Therefore, experiential tourism and the tourist experience are different concepts.

In experiential tourism, the sensorial/emotional enjoyment of travel is particularly important. In contrast, the tourist experience does not necessarily evoke these conditions because it often takes place in an ordinary, superficial and alienating way (e.g. spending a month sunbathing and doing the same daily activities, such as reading the same newspaper, eating the same breakfast and going to bed at the same time).

From a marketing perspective, experiential tourism can be seen as a marketing segment or strategy. In other words, it is a specialized version of the supply–demand relationship that is able to serve more specific and elaborate commercial interests. Therefore, it does not represent the concept of the tourist experience, which, in the market, only refers to something that the consumer-tourist seeks and often obtains during a certain time interval, for a certain price, under certain conditions.

For much of the tourist trade, the traveller's motivation and the sensorial/emotional essence of their travel experience is less important. People in the trade are more concerned about being pragmatic towards the viability of the business and its economic **sustainability**, even if it has a short shelf life and only involves a sterile, existential transformation of the person enjoying it. The same utilitarian logic of the industrial capitalist mentality predominant in the West over the last two centuries thus continues. The most obvious consequence is the pasteurization of the concept of experiential tourism in moulds similar to those applied by the tourism market to experiences and activities said to be sustainable and ecological. Seen this way, experiential tourism runs a serious risk of becoming an act of pseudo-realization and transforming into a sterile and innocuous product, thus greatly affecting the possibilities of creating a memorable tourist experience and subjugating the transformative power that can be produced by the experience of tourism.

Operationalizing

At the Annual Meeting of Innovative Thinkers promoted by the Technology, Entertainment and Design (TED) Foundation, Daniel Kahneman

(2010) discussed the enigmatic relationship between memory and experience. Aziz Abu Sarah (2014) explained how tourism can overcome cultural barriers and prejudices between different cultures. He did not talk about experiential tourism, but his presentation showed the positive and transformative power of the authentic tourist experience.

Exercise

Based on your personal tourist experiences, try to differentiate between an experimental trip, during which you made only superficial discoveries, and an experiential trip, during which you assimilated something that was useful for your own evolution in some aspect of your existence. Next, try to distinguish between a travel modality that closely corresponds to the concept of experiential tourism (based on an amalgamation of awakened and utilized sensations and feelings) and another type of travel, which can be linked to the ordinary tourist experience. Justify these choices.

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3.3 Determinant and Motivational Factors

The decision process that influences the **tourism demand** relative to whether to purchase a particular tourism product can be explained by two types of factors: determinant and motivational.

Determinant factors refer to an individual's facilitators or constraints, either for travelling in general or for a particular trip. In the case of a specific trip, various determinant factors generally influence the choice of the **tourism destination**, the date of the trip and its length, any companions and travel-related expenses (Swarbrooke and Horner, 2007).

The determinant factors can essentially be divided between those that are external to the tourist (e.g. friends' opinions, **tourism marketing**, the media, political and economic factors related to the origin and destination) and those of a personal nature, such as their circumstances (income, health, family and professional commitments), knowledge (of tourism destinations), attitudes and perceptions (preferences for certain countries and **cultures**, fear of certain modes of **transport**, political opinions) and past tourist experiences.

Suppliers use price as a way to influence determinant factors. Masiero and Nicolau (2012) argued against the idea that there is a homogeneous response to price in the context of tourism. The demand for tourism has a broad sensitivity with regard to price due to its complexity, and price effects belie the idea that the demand for tourism products and activities will always involve obtaining the cheapest ones, i.e. that a price increase will necessarily reduce consumption. In their study, these authors considered the effect of some variables in relation to their influence on price, including motivation, age, number of overnight stays and activities.

In some cases, the tourist does not always have a **motivational factor** for travel and instead purchases a trip impulsively, prompted by promotional offers. A typical case is that of low-cost airlines, which offer lightning deals for certain tourism destinations. In these situations, many buyers are more interested in taking advantage of a deal than in actually meeting a specific travel need.

Motivational factors determine the reasons that an individual travels. They can have either a more generic character when they refer to the reason that people take vacations in general or a more specific aspect when they explain why a person is taking a vacation to a given tourism destination at a particular time.

Cuervo (1967) summarized four motivational factors for **leisure** travel based on the following items:

- *Physical*: related to rest, health, sports and everything that can help reduce the stress of daily life. In this aspect, tourism is no longer superficial but becomes a basic need.
- *Cultural*: the desire to learn something new, including new cultures and languages. The education market has been a strong driver for the cultural tourism segment.
- *Interpersonal*: the desire to meet new people (e.g. make friends, meet a romantic partner, visit parents and friends).
- *Status/prestige*: for personal development or self-esteem, primarily related to the individual's desire to show that they are different because they have visited exotic places or places that have not yet been visited by people they know.

In addition to the above, Swarbrooke and Horner (2007) suggested two other types of motivational factors: emotional (adventure, romance and religion) and personal development (learning something new or gaining knowledge). However, these two factors can also fit into the categories suggested by Cuervo (1967).

The main factors that influence an individual's motivations are personality, lifestyle, prior experience as a tourist, personal history (e.g. nostalgia) and image (how they want to be seen by other people), among others. Furthermore, it is important to emphasize that, even when these factors remain the same, it is possible for an individual's motivations to change over time, primarily because of changes in their personal circumstances such as a marriage, the birth of a child, their state of health or a variation in income (see 'Tourism demand').

On a specific trip, it is unusual for a tourist to be influenced by only one motivation. Instead, different reasons can generally be identified, as in the case of a family that goes on vacation to visit friends at their summer house. In addition to wanting to rest and spend more time as a family, they also want to visit their friends, whom they have not seen in a long time. Moreover, because these friends have a house on the beach, it is an opportunity for the father to practise one of his favourite sports: windsurfing. In addition to having **multiple motivations**, in cases in which tourists travel as a group (e.g. family, friends or tour package), the motivation of a dominant group member often ends up influencing the other individuals. Thus, in many cases, there may be **shared motivations** among different tourists. For trips that are part of group tour packages, the schedule often includes free time so each tourist can explore the aspects of the **destination** that best match their personal motivations in a non-structured way. Incidentally, stressful travel situations often result from difficulties in attempting to reconcile the motivations of different group members (e.g. parents want to do one type of activity, whereas the children are interested in another).

Operationalizing

Examining the specific case of Spanish senior tourists (older than 55 years of age), Alén *et al.* (2014) obtained the following determinant and motivational factors that influenced the length of stay in a tourism destination:

- The older the person, the longer the stay, which was attributed to a lack of commitments, such as work, influencing trip length.
- No correlation was found between gender and trip length, and the same was valid for income and number of children.
- Alternatively, two motivational dimensions were very influential. Visiting friends and relatives had a significant effect on the length of stay when compared with other reasons for travel (e.g. vacation, health and work). This is usually because these tourists stay with friends and family, thus increasing the length of their stay on the same travel budget. Furthermore, trips influenced by weather factors tended to be longer.
- Numerous other factors characteristic of the tourism destination did not affect the tourist's length of stay, namely: 'hygiene and cleanliness of the place, its security, ease of transport, medical coverage or the availability of shopping centres; resources related to nature and leisure **events** and attractions, places of historical/artistic interest, and natural **landscapes**; the distance from the individual's place of origin; and even the total cost of the trip' (Alén *et al.*, 2014, p. 28).

Exercise

1. Considering the results obtained by Alén *et al.* (2014) with senior travellers, estimate what type of results you might obtain if your focus was on the motivational and determinant factors of travellers in the following age groups: young adults aged 18–23 years and young adults aged 24–30 years. Now, reconsider your analysis comparing European and Asian young adults from these two age groups. The following references may be helpful: Huang (2008), Chen, *et al.* (2014) and Zhang and Peng (2014).

2. Considering the trip of your dreams, discuss your choice of tourism destination and activities, taking into account the following motivational factors: physical, cultural, interpersonal, status/prestige, emotional and personal development.

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3.4 Crompton's Destination-choice Model

Numerous models for consumer choices and perceptions of products and services have been created to illustrate the mental process of making a purchase decision and categorizing available products and services. In many cases, this mental categorization process establishes a compartmentalization of these products and services based on consumer experience, advertising and comments from other consumers or complete ignorance of existing brands. For example, Woodside and Lysonski (1989) presented an empirical model for choosing **tourism destinations** in which they described how factors such as knowledge, preferences and choices are considered by consumers of **leisure** tourism destinations. Other models have also been proposed, including one by Goodrich (1978), on the relationships between preferences and perceptions. Um and Crompton (1990) examined the contribution of inhibiting and facilitating factors; Eymann and Ronning (1997) analysed the microeconometrics of spatial choice; and Seddighi and Theocharous (2002) adapted Koppelman's model of the transport-system consumer to measure the perception and feeling of tourists visiting the island of Cyprus. Subsequently, Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) conducted a comprehensive analysis of different traveller decision-making models.

Crompton (1992) proposed a model that reflected rational decision-making in which tourists had a high degree of involvement in choosing the tourism destinations to be visited. This model includes a process of narrowing down the sets of tourism destinations; it begins with all of the potential destinations for a trip and continues until the destinations are finally selected (see Fig. 40). In this model, internal (prior knowledge of destinations or previous experiences) and external forces (information from friends, advertising, cultural programmes) influence the decision-making process.

The principle of Crompton's (1992) model is based on different theoretical considerations. The first is that there are two types of tourism destinations: those of which the tourist is aware and those of which the tourist is unaware. Because no one can choose an unknown destination, this second group of destinations is automatically excluded. Therefore, it is important to promote tourism destinations through marketing campaigns or excellent tourist experiences that will lead to word-of-mouth publicity (Jalilvand and Samiei, 2012). Within the tourism destinations of which the tourist is aware, the model indicated two large groups: those that the tourist thinks they might want to visit (initial consideration set) and those that will be discarded for different reasons (excluded set). The set of known tourism destinations that are not considered for a particular trip includes the following subgroups (Fig. 40): 'foggy' (destinations that potential consumers do not have enough information about to have a positive or negative opinion), 'hold' (destinations the individual is considering, but not at this time), 'unpleasant personal experience' and 'negative external feedback'. In the first two cases, the tourist either is uncertain or does not have enough information about the **destinations**, causing them to be excluded from the decision process. Both can be collectively classified as a set of 'inert' destinations. The other two subgroups include destinations about which there is a negative impression, either from their own experience, from other people or from the media. Collectively, these destinations are called the 'inept' or 'reject' set.

Returning to the set of destinations about which the tourist will make initial considerations (Fig. 40, Stage 1), the model proposes a second set of destinations (Stage 2), called the 'late consideration' set, from which some of the initial destinations are excluded for reasons described in the 'inert' and 'inept/reject' sets. The primary difference between the initial and late consideration sets is that there is a period of time between them whereby individuals can evaluate and reduce the list of destinations from a large, vast group to a smaller, reduced number.

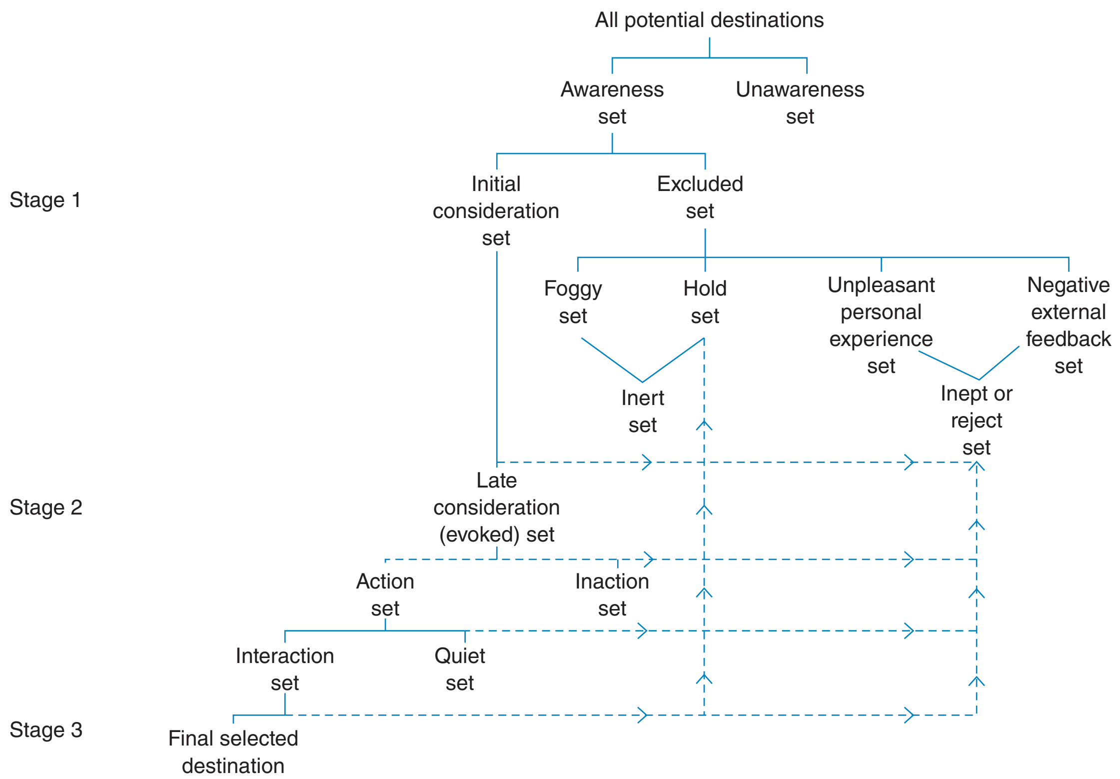

Fig. 40. Structure of choice sets for tourism destinations. (From Crompton, 1992, p. 421.)

Stage 3 is achieved when the objective of the decision-making process is to select the final destination based on the options in the late consideration set. The 'inaction set' comprises all the destinations for which no information has been obtained. The 'action set' includes all of the tourism destinations whose promoters or representatives (e.g. **travel agencies**) may be contacted by the tourist. These actions require an investment of effort and resources. The greater this effort, the more likely the individual is to commit to a destination. The interaction set is a subset of the action set. It includes all of the destinations whose representatives the potential tourists communicate with so that those representatives can personally persuade them to visit a particular destination. Destinations about which additional information is sought without any personal interaction with a representative of the destination are in the 'quiet' set.

The dashed lines in Fig. 40 indicate that individuals reduce the number of alternatives and move from one choice set to the next, with many destinations being rejected. When they move from the initial consideration set to the late consideration set, the discarded destinations can become part of the rejected destinations set, if comments were negative, or the hold set, if comments led to ambivalent feelings. In the more advanced search and decision-making process that characterizes the transition from late consideration to final consideration, the destinations can be sent to the hold or rejected sets at the three transition points. This may occur when the tourist's evaluation of destinations in the late consideration, action or interaction sets changes from a positive opinion to a negative or ambivalent one.

Operationalizing

Decrop (2010), based on a study with 25 Belgian travellers in which data were collected over the course of the 3 months prior to a summer vacation trip, obtained a typology of seven destination choice sets. These seven sets were identified as follows:

1. *Awareness set*: destinations of which the traveller is aware but in which they show no interest.
2. *Evoked set*: destinations that the traveller spontaneously mentions as a possibility for vacations in the future but not for the upcoming trip.
3. *Surrogate set*: destinations that are not prioritized by the traveller but are kept for a possible trip ('Maybe one day…').
4. *Exclusion set*: destinations definitively excluded by the traveller ('I'll never go there').
5. *Dream set*: destinations that are considered ideal places to travel or visit but that are permanently unavailable because of inhibiting factors.
6. *Unavailable set*: destinations that are temporarily unavailable because of a particular restrictive factor.
7. *Available set*: destinations that are evoked and viable for visiting after considering the restrictive factors.

Decrop (2010) demonstrated that the number of destinations in the evoked set was quite stable over time, ranging from none to four, with an average of 1.5 destinations per trip. This result is similar to other studies that have identified the number of evoked destinations as small, ranging from three to six, depending on the type of product considered. The travellers' final decision, according to Decrop (2010), takes place in three stages. Once the destinations have been considered and evaluated, situational and restrictive factors are taken into consideration, reducing the number of evoked destinations to the set of available destinations, which includes only the viable alternatives.

Exercise

Ask someone you know to imagine that they have won a 2-week trip to any destination in the world. Propose ten possible international destinations to that person and ask them to evaluate their decision-making process for each destination based on the structure proposed by Crompton (1992).

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3.5 Schmöll's Tourism Consumer Choice Model

Many studies have been conducted on tourism consumer choice, particularly for recreational travel. Mayo and Jarvis (1981) argued that the decision to travel takes social and psychological factors into account, emphasizing the role of family, groups of friends and travellers in the decision-making process. Mathieson and Wall (1982) reinforced the role of psychological factors and added economic and sociological factors, recognizing the importance of the destination's characteristics not only in forming the image of the **tourism destination** but also in the subsequent decision-making process. These two studies have developed general theories of consumption associated with the tourism context. McIntosh *et al.* (1995) proposed four **motivational factors**, including interpersonal factors, that would significantly contribute to understanding tourism consumers and their motivations. Mazursky (1989) noted the importance of the tourist's past experience. For a more detailed analysis of the main consumer choice models in tourism, the work of Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) is particularly relevant.

One of the first models to consider this topic was proposed by Schmöll (1977). It presented four aspects that explain the motivations, desires, needs and expectations of the social and personal determinants of travel choice behaviour, including the **destination** visited and the type of accommodation chosen. These aspects include the following: stimulus to travel (promotional communication and personal and trade recommendations), personal and social **determinants** (consumer's reasons for travel, including their desires, needs and expectations), external variables (confidence in the service provided, **image** of the destination, learned experiences, time and money restrictions) and the destinations' characteristics, as shown in Fig. 41.

Operationalizing

Hudson (1999) critiqued the difficulty of operationalizing Schmöll's model because it is merely descriptive; it emphasizes the relevant variables in tourism consumer choice and the interrelationships of these variables but does not provide a way to quantify them. The model is also criticized because it does not offer a way to predict tourism consumer behaviour for a particular destination or a specific type of tourism service or product. The model's benefits, as noted by Schmöll himself, include the following:

1. It is useful in research planning.
2. It shows which factors influence the decision to travel.
3. It can be used as an indicator for marketing activities to influence the tourism decision-making process.
4. It can be used to determine criteria to attract specific tourism segments.

Moreover, Schmöll's model is the only one that identifies barriers to be overcome and their impact on the decision-making process.

Exercise

Consider a trip that you are interested in taking. Try to identify which of the aspects proposed by Schmöll (1977) are valid for this trip. Are there any others that could be included?

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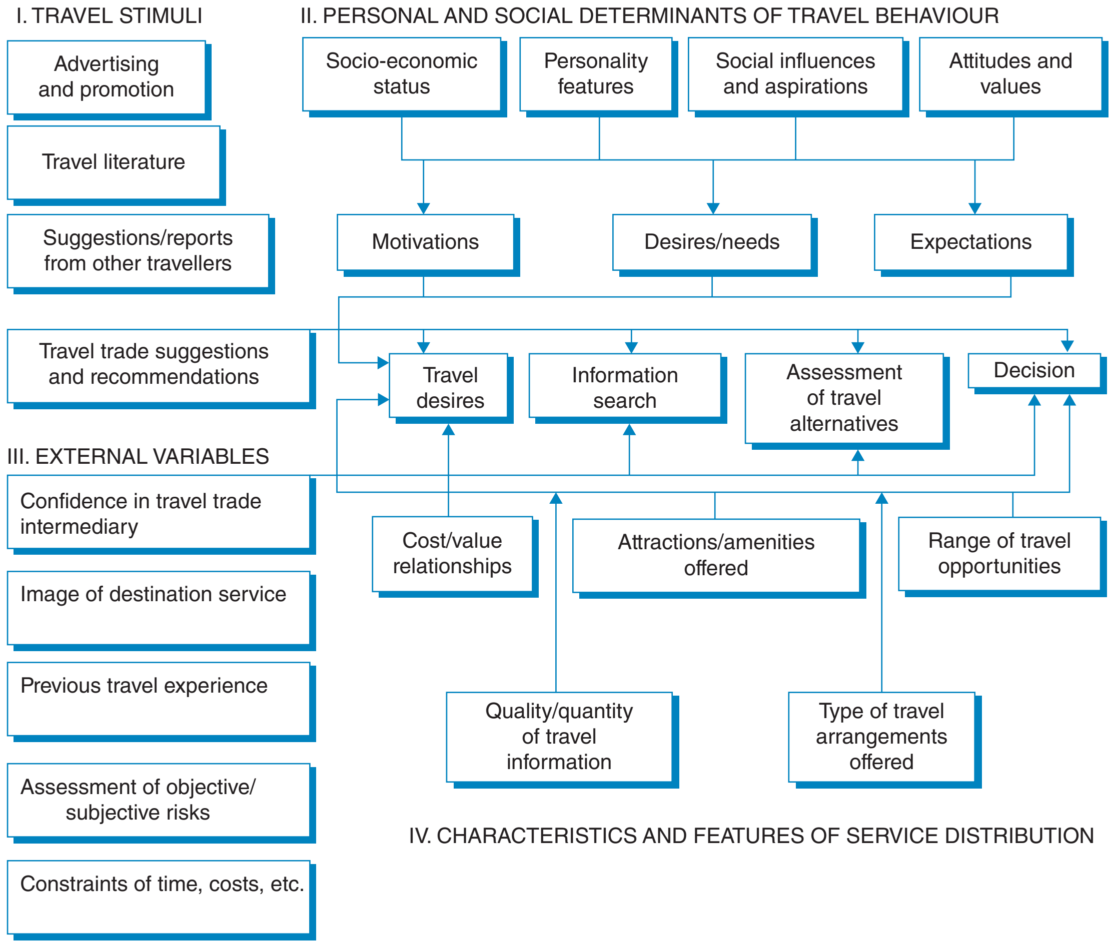

Fig. 41. The travel decision process: Schmöll's tourism consumer choice model. (Based on Schmöll, 1977, and Pizam and Mansfield, 1999, p. 20.)

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3.6 Urry's Theory of the 'Tourist Gaze'

John Urry's (1990) now-classic book *The Tourist Gaze: Leisure and Travel in Contemporary Societies* takes a sociological and historical approach. It assumes that it is possible to understand what is happening in 'normal society' by studying how social groups construct their tourist gaze. From this perspective, instead of being a trivial topic, the study of tourism can help reveal normal practices that may be hidden in society. In brief, for Urry (1990), the tourist gaze comprises a subjectivity in the relationship between tourists and the places that are visited.

Urry's analytical foundation of the tourist gaze is based on nine points, which are presented below (Urry, 1990):

1. Tourism is a **leisure** activity that presupposes its opposite, i.e. work.
2. Tourism suggests movement in space and time.
3. The tourist's stay outside of their place of origin is not indefinite; instead, there is an intention to return.
4. The objects of the tourist gaze contrast with work.
5. A considerable portion of the world population travels, a factor that creates new forms of social relationships.
6. The places visited are chosen based on subjective factors, which create a specific expectation for each place.
7. The gaze is directed towards **landscapes** and townscapes that are not common in the tourist's everyday life.
8. The tourist gaze is constructed through signs.
9. A variety of tourist professionals have been created and attempt to make new discoveries of the tourist gaze.

The study's proposal focused on the period after 1840, which the author considered fundamentally important because of the historical changes experienced by the tourist gaze. According to Urry (1990), the tourist gaze is not unique. It exists and is comprised of difference. Moreover, it will vary among individuals and across social groups and historical periods. Its approach is thus synchronous, because it proposes that there is no one true **tourist experience** for all tourists at all times.

Urry agreed with Boorstin (1964) and Baudrillard (1988) when he considered that tourism is an example of pseudo-events, as illustrated in the following passage: 'Isolated from the host environment and the local people, the mass tourist travels in guided groups and finds pleasure in inauthentic contrived attractions, gullibly enjoying "pseudo-events" and disregarding the "real" world outside' (Urry, 2002, p. 7).

Urry notes that there are two types of tourist gaze: one is 'romantic' and the other is 'collective'. The 'romantic' gaze emphasizes nature, landscape, countryside, the pastoral, privacy, the untouched and introspection: it is markedly individual. In this gaze, the focus is on solitude and privacy, in an individual and semi-spiritual experience with the object of the gaze (Urry, 2002).

The 'collective' gaze, in turn, requires a large number of people for its development because it is the people who are seeing and being seen that give meaning to this type of gaze. The presence of many people in one place seems to say, 'This is where I should stay; this is cool.' For Urry (1990), the presence of other people, tourists like us, is necessary for these places to be successful. These places depend on the collective gaze. The presence of people from different parts of the world gives the great cosmopolitan capitals their charm and excitement.

Unlike the 'romantic' gaze of the tourist, the 'collective' gaze calls for places with a flow of people because it is necessary to see and be seen. Much of the book addresses the relationship between post-modern manifestations of society and tourism practices. For Urry, tourism has always been related to spectacle, based on sound and light shows, or shows with laser beams, on 'popular pleasures', on the spectator's participation without contemplation, with an emphasis on 'pastiche'; all of these manifestations are related to the tourist's 'collective' gaze (Urry, 1996).

In 2002, the second edition of *The Tourist Gaze* was published; the third edition, *The Tourist Gaze 3.0*, updated and expanded in collaboration with Jonas Larsen, came out in 2011. In this new book, the paradigm of mobilities is more evident, and it is possible to see how different movements are becoming central to social and professional life. Moreover, the Internet, virtual social networks and travel are addressed as different aspects of the same process. When travelling, it is important to post photos because doing so elevates the status and importance of the tourist traveller; however, the actual physical trip still cannot be surpassed by the simple virtual trip.

In an interview with John Urry in 2011, he explained that there were many challenges to writing the third book. He needed to better clarify the relationship between vision and the other senses and make his main thesis more clear; to pay attention to how tourists' practices and actions of tourists in different types of travel; and to take into account the impact and travel costs incurred by tourists and the communities and physical environment where they travel. His thesis on this last point is that, at some point, the expansion of travel will peak and have a physical limit. A perpetual increase in travel seems impossible.

The greatest criticism and guiding line of *The Tourist Gaze* may be the study of the transformation of places that are motivated by the tourist gaze. In other words, the tourist's desires and gaze condition the 'sterilization' and standardization of destinations, all in the name of receiving more tourists, thus generating more income and profit for the destinations. In other words, Urry shares the view of many scholars who believe that tourism has become a commodity that now responds only to market forces.

Exercise

In *Globalising the Tourist Gaze*, Urry (2001) states the following:

> Some unexpected destinations that are now significantly implicated in the patterns of global tourism, include Alaska, Auschwitz-Birkenau, Antarctica especially in Millennium year, Changi Jail in Singapore, Nazi occupation sites in the Channel Islands, Dachau, extinct coal mines, Cuba and especially its 'colonial' and 'American' heritages, Iceland, Mongolia, Mount Everest, Northern Ireland, Northern Cyprus under Turkish 'occupation', Pearl Harbour, post-communist Russia, Robben Island in South Africa, Sarajevo's 'massacre trail', outer space, Titanic, Vietnam and so on (see Lennon and Foley, 2000, on 'dark tourism'; O'Rourke, 1988, on 'holidays in hell'). In certain cases becoming a tourist destination is part of a reflexive process by which societies and places come to 'enter' the global order (or 're-enter' as in the case of Cuba during the 1990s)…

Based on the text above, discuss the following statement: Do you know about or have you read or heard about other places and destinations that originally had non-tourist activity and were transformed or adapted for mass tourism? How did this adaptation take place? Discuss this experience.

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3.7 Plog's Psychographic Model

In 1974, Stanley Plog published a study conducted for 16 airlines and travel companies in the USA. The main objective of this work was to increase the travel market, in particular trying to get more people to travel by plane. From this study, Plog identified five types of tourist (Williams, 2002; Litvin, 2006; Swarbrooke and Horner, 2007):

- *Allocentric*: those who want to discover new destinations and explore foreign **cultures** with a spirit of adventure. Ruschmann (1997) commented that the word 'allocentric' derives from *allo*, meaning 'in different ways', explaining that they are tourists whose interests are centred on various activities. The allocentric visitors have an outgoing personality and are confident. Many do not like to be called tourists, because, in a way, they are seeking to integrate with the local culture and people.
- *Nearly allocentric*: seeking challenges; many opt for ecotourism.
- *Mid-centric*: looking to unwind and relax when travelling, especially through **entertainment**.
- *Nearly psychocentric*: those tourists who experience a new destination only after it has become popular.
- *Psychocentric*: mass tourists seeking safety, travelling accompanied by tour guides. The name derives from *psyche* or self, and this type of tourist is characterized by a personality that is more inhibited and opposed to adventures (Ruschmann, 1997). Psychocentrics prefer a familiar environment ('westernized'), in which they can maintain their lifestyle even when travelling. They are tourists seeking popular **resorts**.

According to Finotti (2004), psychographic analysis is a technique or tool that allows quantitative measurement of lifestyles, encompassing personalities, values, activities, interests and demographics. Table 16 presents the main characteristics of the two types of tourists at the extremes of Plog's model: psychocentric and allocentric visitors.

In order to distribute the various **traveller typologies** in terms of market analysis (American), Plog developed a normal distribution (bell-shaped) with the majority of tourists being classified as mid-centrics (about 60% of the total), followed by nearly allocentrics and nearly psychocentrics (both with about 17% of the total), while allocentrics (4%) and psychocentrics (2.5%) comprised a small minority (Plog, 1998). Another proposition made by Plog was to correlate the types of tourists with the destinations they visited. At the time this study was developed (1972), he identified Africa and the South Pacific islands as destinations sought by American allocentric visitors, while the East, especially Japan, would be visited by nearly allocentric visitors. However, destinations like Coney Island (peninsula south of Brooklyn, New York) were sought by psychocentrics and Miami Beach by nearly psychocentrics. However, when updating his model in 1991, Plog not only included a list of other destinations but also realized that the type of tourist who visits a particular destination had changed. For example, almost two decades after his first study, Africa was no longer a destination visited by allocentrics but rather by nearly allocentrics. Likewise, Miami Beach, once a destination for nearly psychocentrics, had become a destination for psychocentrics. Figure 42 shows this comparison. According to Plog, there is a tendency for most destinations to lead towards psychocentric characteristics and the public they attract. This process does not necessarily need to happen, but without a coordinated effort to execute a preconceived plan, it is most likely to happen. Considering the proposed tourism area life cycle model by Butler (see '**Butler's model (tourism destination life cycle)**'), it is easy to understand that **tourism destinations** evolve, increasing in popularity and attracting more visitors, which results in a change in the profile of the tourists. Thus, while trying to identify the type of psychographic tourists with a given destination, the model presents a limitation, as it has to be

Table 16. Psychographic characteristics of travellers. (From Plog, 1974.)

Psychocentric	Allocentric
While at destinations, prefer what is familiar	Prefer non-touristic areas
Enjoy commonplace activities in cities	Appreciate the sense of discovery and delight in new experiences, before others have visited the area
Prefer places with sun and fun, including a good level of relaxation	Prefer new and different destinations
Low level of activity	High level of activity
Preference for road trips	Prefer to fly
Prefer formal tourist accommodation as a hotel with well-developed restaurants and tourist shops for families	The accommodation must include adequate hotels and meals at good but not necessarily modern hotels or a chain, with few attractions aimed at 'tourists'
Prefer a familiar environment (burger stalls, family entertainment, absence of local atmosphere)	Like to meet people from different cultures
Complete travel package provided with plenty of scheduled activities	Travel should include pre-booked transport and accommodation, while at the same time allowing considerable freedom and flexibility

constantly updated in light of developments that can occur to tourism destinations. A detail to be noted in the 1991 update proposed by Plog was the fact that some destinations had been discovered by allocentrics, as was the case for Nepal and Antarctica. Is space tourism the new frontier for tourists and millionaires as allocentric visitors?

Plog's model has been widely criticized for oversimplifying a complex process to seek an explanation based on only one element (personality), lacking dynamic elements essential to explain how the same individuals can change their behaviour patterns between several trips (Williams, 2002). As an example, let us take the case of a young man who, when travelling with his parents, has a psychocentric behaviour, but when travelling with college friends, has an allocentric characteristic. Other criticisms include a contest promoted between Smith (1990a,b) and Plog (1990, 1991a) about his model. In the quote below, Pearce (1995, p. 12) summarized the criticisms made by Smith and Plog's response:

> Smith argued that his findings from an analysis of destination preferences for a sample of long-haul travellers from seven nations failed to confirm an association between personality types and destination preferences. Plog rejected Smith's criticism on the grounds that he had failed to replicate adequately the original study, using the wrong variables, classification system and sample.

Some authors also mention the fact it is not possible to link a type of tourist to a given destination, with Plog (2001) stating that only the predominant type of tourist was stated. Another criticism made by other researchers is that Plog's model presents difficulties in measuring the profile of each proposed type of tourist, and does not consider what the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of tourists are to visit each destination in particular. As well as these criticisms, Litvin (2006) mentioned others, including the following:

- The concept proposed by Plog has received little independent empirical verification.
- While travellers may be allocentric visitors by nature, financial factors, among others, may cause them to demonstrate mid-centric or near-psychocentric travel patterns.
- The theory was developed for American tourists and may not work as well for other nationalities.
- Although Plog has mentioned that, with more travel experiences, people tend to become allocentrics, what actually happens is that, when visiting places that are less familiar, these people end up becoming more reclusive in these destinations.
- Finally, although the model presents an interesting concept, it does not predict or explain a large percentage of all behaviours of tourists and is therefore impractical for use in tourism marketing strategies.

The research carried out by Litvin (2006) on the travel history of university students from Singapore was also commented on by Plog (2006), who explained the context and the method employed in his psychographic model. His biggest criticism was how other researchers attempted to evaluate his model without using the same research instruments. Readers interested in delving further into this concept will find the reading of these two references very interesting.

Operationalizing

The following excerpt, taken from Brasil (2006), shows the change in profile of some Brazilian visitors to India.

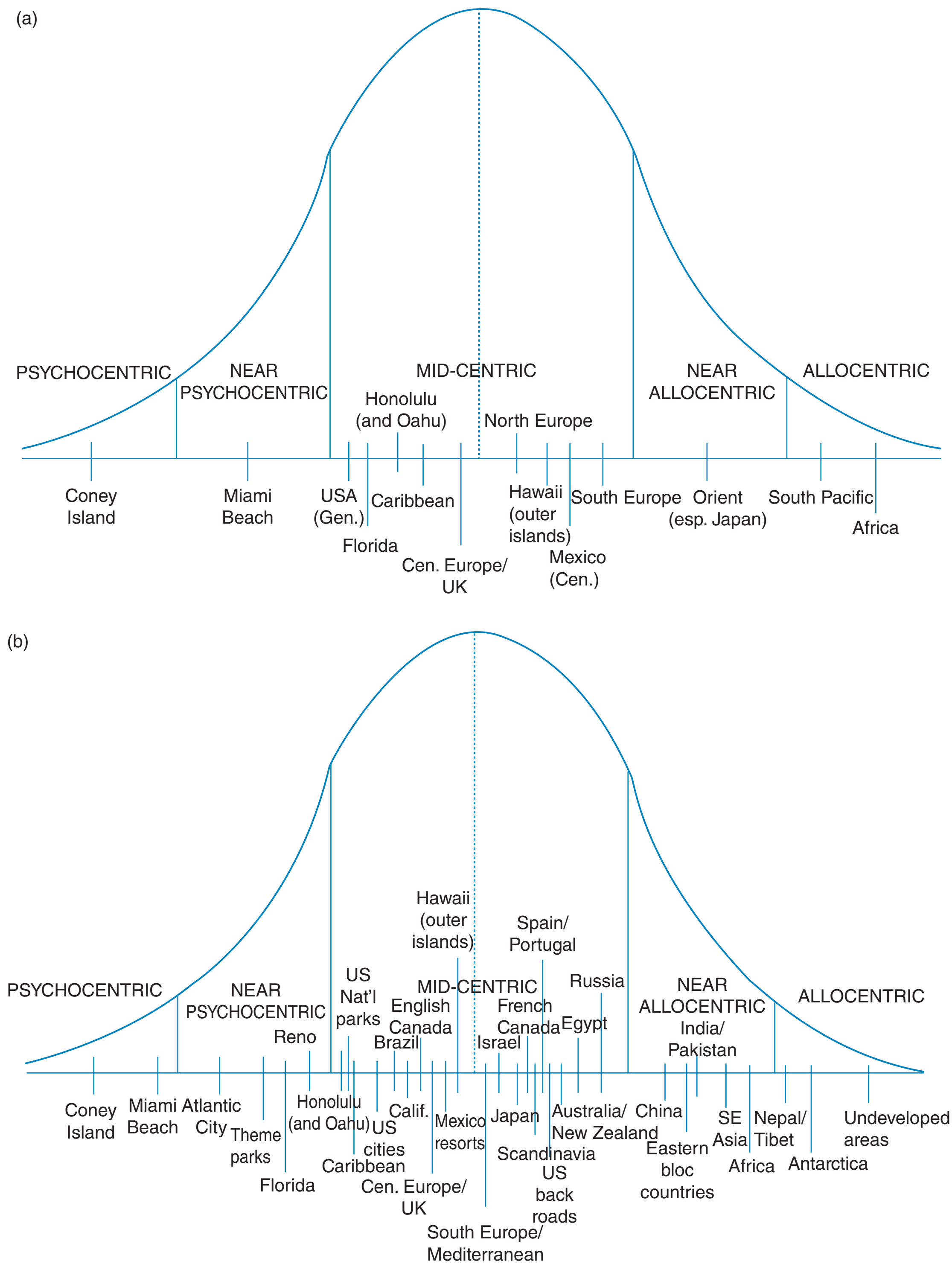

Fig. 42. Positions of selected psychographic targets in 1972 (a) and 1991 (b). (From Plog, 1991b.)

India was, long ago, on the roadmap of Brazilian tourists. What has changed is the profile: backpackers and adventurers in general, attracted by the 5000 years of history of the country and its very rich expressions of spirituality, gave rise to groups of Brazilians who wanted a package filled with comfort, security and some touches of mysticism. The Indian reality, of course, is beyond the imagination of most wealthy Brazilians. The couple Sylvia and Roberto Daccache, from São Paulo, visited 13 cities in one month in 2005, a marathon planned in minute detail by an astrology consultant who accompanied the group. The trip cost about US$ 16,000 – a bargain compared to the current package, which costs almost the same and also includes 13 cities, but compresses the trip into 17 days. 'It was completely different from anything I've ever seen. We visited Buddhist monasteries, passed by leprosy patients and saw the sunrise in the Himalayas. On the banks of the Ganges, we witnessed a cremation ceremony. I came prepared to consume less,' stated Sylvia. The hardships of life vanished in the Indian state of Rajasthan, where the couple stayed in the hotel Taj Lake Palace, an old palace-fortress built in the middle of a lake. In Jaipur, the capital, also called 'Pink City', the climate of spirituality often lead to a relapse of the consumer before the local specialty, jewellery manufacture with an abundant supply of rubies, sapphires and diamonds. In Jodhpur, the 'Blue City', the attractions are the nearby desert and the most talked about hotel in India today, the Umaid Bhawan Palace, the palace of a maharajah whose family still lives there. Space is not lacking: the building, completed in 1943, has 347 rooms.

Brasil (2006, p. 78).

Exercise

Discuss the following sentence: Eventually all destinations will become psychocentric destinations.

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3.8 Traveller Typologies

Numerous traveller typologies have been developed; the most notable include those proposed by Gray (1970), Cohen (1972) and Smith (1977). This entry also describes the micro-typology proposed by Wickens (2002) for a sun and sea destination in Greece. Plog's (1990, 1991, 2006) typologies have been analysed in their own entry (see '**Plog's psychographic model**') because they also include a typology of **tourism destinations**.

H. Peter Gray

Gray (1970) developed one of the first and simplest attempts to distinguish different types of tourism, based on travel purpose. He used the terms 'sunlust' and 'wanderlust' to categorize two types of tourists. On the one hand, 'sunlust' tourists are motivated by the desire for rest and relaxation (associated with the three Ss – sun, sea and sand). This type of tourist travels to seaside **resorts** and stays there for most of the trip. Although 'sunlust' tourists are strongly associated with sand, sun and sea destinations, they are not restricted to these destinations; they may also be looking for a place with a certain standard of comfort, one that is particularly conducive to rest and relaxation. On the other hand, 'wanderlust' tourists are interested in travel that includes new experiences, new people, and new places and **cultures** (Yu and Littrell, 2003). The different attributes of these two types of tourists are shown in Table 17.

From a spatial perspective, one of the crucial differences between the two types of tourists is the possibility that 'wanderlust' tourists will generate more international travel than domestic travel. Although this difference is related to a country's breadth and diversity as a **tourism destination**, 'sunlust' tourists can more easily find a place for rest and relaxation, with no major cultural differences, in their own countries (Pearce, 1995). Another issue is that, as the name implies, 'wanderlust' tourists tend to visit several tourism destinations on a single trip (multidestination travel), whereas 'sunlust' tourists tend to remain at one location.

Valene L. Smith

The tourist typology developed by Smith (1977) identified seven types of tourists based on their ability to adapt to the local people's norms and lifestyles. Smith's (1977) categories for tourists range from charter tourists – who arrive en masse, wear nametags to identify themselves, travel in tour buses and are counted when they enter them – to explorers, who seek new discoveries and knowledge. Explorers look less like tourists and more like anthropologists living as participant observers, eating local foods and living a local lifestyle. Between these two extremes are mass tourists, incipient mass tourists, unusual tourists, offbeat tourists and elite tourists. These designations are fairly easy to understand (see Table 18) because they fit within the designations proposed by Cohen (1972) and Plog (1990, 1991, 2006) as part of a gradual spectrum of tourist types that achieve almost non-tourist characteristics; explorers in the case of Smith (1977) and Cohen (1972), and allocentrics in the case of Plog (1990, 1991, 2006). However, it is often difficult to perceive the real differences between some of the tourist types proposed by Smith (1977), such as the first three shown in Table 18.

The problem with all of these typologies is that they are primarily related to the **leisure** traveller and perhaps to a conventional type of business traveller. There are many other types of travellers, all of which can be highly significant with regard to obtaining a better understanding of the world, its inhabitants and its places. Increasing attention has been given to business travellers, particularly because of their economic importance, at least in urban tourism. Business travellers include individuals working in both the private business sector and

Table 17. Attributes of sunlust and wanderlust travel. (From Gray, 1970, cited in Pearce, 1995.)

Sunlust	Wanderlust
Business involves resort vacations	Business involves the tourist
Only one country visited	Several countries are likely to be visited
Travellers seek domestic amenities and accommodations	Travellers seek different cultures, customs and cuisines
Special natural attributes are a necessity (especially climate)	Special attributes are likely to be manmade (climate less important)
Travel is a minor consideration after arrival at destination	Travel is an important ingredient throughout the visit
Either relaxing and restful or very active	Neither restful nor sportive; ostensibly educational
Relatively more domestic travel	Relatively more international travel

Table 18. Tourist typologies according to Smith (1977).

Smith's typologies	Characteristics
Charter tourists	Groups of tourists who arrive en masse, have a very low degree of involvement with the local people and require the same type of treatment (including food) that they have in their place of origin (usually Western).
Mass tourists	A continual flow of middle-class visitors, who expect to find staff fluent in several languages to meet their needs. They also expect a Westernized environment, as if there was a 'tourist bubble' around the destination visited.
Incipient mass tourists	A guaranteed flow of people who demand Western comfort and amenities, seeking authenticity alongside recreational equipment.
Unusual tourists	Although this is not a large tourist segment, unusual tourists travel in organized groups. Despite travelling this way, they 'venture' to purchase a 1-day tour to visit, for example, indigenous tribes. They are particularly interested in primitive cultures but always bring their own lunch boxes, although they adapt somewhat to local customs. This category can also include tourists engaged in risky and unusual activities in remote areas.
Offbeat tourists	Uncommon, although they seek to avoid crowds of tourists or want to increase the pleasure of their travel by pursuing activities outside the box. In general, they adapt well.
Elite tourists	This is a rarer tourist type that is difficult to find and is comprised of individuals who have been almost 'everywhere'. Elite tourists seek pre-arranged services and adapt fully, although temporarily, to local norms. The elite tourist seeks little-known places that have already been discovered, where some type of infrastructure exists.
Explorer tourists	A very limited number of travellers compose this typology. Explorers are not considered tourists but, instead, live as active participants and observers among the local community, easily accommodating and accepting the lifestyle and norms of the original inhabitants.

public sector, and those from non-governmental organizations and community-interest organizations.

Erik Cohen

Cohen (1972, 1979) classified tourists into four categories based on a particular combination of preference, novelty/excitement and familiarity/security. The four categories are as follows:

1. *Organized mass tourists*: travel in a group with other tourists, who do not necessarily know each other, following a predetermined and inflexible route. These are travellers who purchase packages for popular destinations from **tour operators** that generally include **transport**, accommodation and possibly meals, tickets for **tourist attractions** and shows, airport transfers at the tourism destination, etc. These tourists spend much of their time in environments segregated from the local population and authentic culture. A classic example of this type of tourist is presented in the 1969 film *If It's Tuesday, This Must Be Belgium* (Wolper Pictures, USA; Director: Mel Stuart).

2. *Individual mass tourists*: travel on their own or with a group of tourists who already know each other, with a tour package that has some preselected products. These packages may be organized by tour operators or **travel agencies**, and usually include transport to the tourism destination, accommodation and possibly other activities, such as tickets for tourist attractions, shows, parks (e.g. theme, skiing) and airport transfers at the tourism destination, among other things. Although Cohen considered both this and the previous type of tourist to be institutionalized, individual mass tourists differ from organized mass tourists because they are able to change their itineraries or even the length of stay in one of their destinations.

3. *Explorer tourists*: travel on their own, seeking to explore new tourism destinations, thus avoiding the most touristically developed places. In general, explorer tourists prefer contact with the local population instead of engagement with other tourists during their travel, although they do use some type of **tourist infrastructure**.

4. Drifter tourists: want to feel as if they belong to the local community, even if only temporarily. They tend to spend their days with the local inhabitants, becoming completely immersed in their culture and habits.

As shown in Table 19, Cohen's typology can be compared with those of Smith and Plog on a continuum of travel style, based on the level of familiarity or novelty desired when travelling (Basala and Klenosky, 2001). At one extreme are those who prefer to maintain a high degree of familiarity when travelling – organized mass tourists, charter tourists or psychocentrics, depending on the classification used – and who, for example, would prefer to stay in hotels that are part of an international chain; those at the other extreme – drifters, explorers and allocentrics – seek new experiences and would most likely choose to stay at a bed and breakfast.

These and other tourist typologies show great potential for developing a **tourism marketing** plan for a tourism destination and may contribute to product development, pricing, the choice of **distribution channels** and the creation of promotional strategies. Nevertheless, these classifications have considerable limitations, including the following:

- Many typologies are extremely broad and are too simplistic and stereotypical, failing to encompass the complex behaviour patterns found in the real world.
- The typologies do not leave much room for a single tourist to be classified in different categories because tourists are influenced by new **determinant and motivational factors** over time, such as changes in income, health, leisure time, family structure and work commitments.
- The typologies assume that a tourist's personality will be reflected in their vacation behaviour. In many cases, repressed or impulsive behaviour may be associated with the presence of other travellers in the tourist group, such as family and friends.
- The main typologies were developed more than a decade ago and may not represent the changes that have taken place during this period.
- The vast majority of these typologies were developed based on the European and American markets, and do not consider the characteristics of tourists from other regions, such as Latin America, Africa, Asia and the Middle East. Moreover, there are enormous cultural variations among different countries, which weakens their application more generally.
- Researchers sometimes develop typologies from studies with small samples, which may be questionable. This is one possible criticism of the tourist typology proposed by Wickens (2002; see below).
- Typologies ignore the fact that tourists can mature as they become more experienced travellers.

Eugenia Wickens

Many tourist typologies presented in the literature, including those of Cohen (1972), Plog (1990, 1991,

Table 19. Comparison between Cohen, Smith and Plog's tourist typologies. (From Basala and Klenosky, 2001.)

Researcher	Seeking the familiar	←				→	Seeking novelty
Cohen	Organized mass tourists		Individual mass tourists		Explorers		Drifters
Smith	Charter tourists	Mass tourists	Incipient mass tourists	Unusual tourists	Offbeat tourists	Elite tourists	Explorer tourists
Plog	Psychocentrics			Mid-centrics			Allocentrics

2006) and Smith (1977), consider that the classifications proposed will function for all types of tourism destinations. Wickens (2002) proposed a different typology, in which tourists are catalogued according to a particular tourism destination: in this case, Kalimeria, a resort situated on the Greek peninsula of Chalkidiki. Based on the classification proposed by Cohen, the author sought to classify 86 British tourists who visited this **destination** according to their tourist experiences. All of these tourists belonged to the category defined by Cohen (1972) as individual mass tourists. Based on interviews with this sample, Wickens (2002) identified five tourist micro-types, namely:

- *Cultural heritage*: this group consisted of 18 tourists who showed a strong interest in the destination's cultural aspects. They had visited Greece before and identified the country's natural beauty, culture and history as the main reasons for their travel. This tourist type consisted primarily of families and seniors.
- *Ravers*: this was a group of 18 tourists who identified an interest in the hedonistic and sensual activities offered by Chalkidiki. In Kalimeria, these opportunities took place on the beach during the day and at the city's nightclubs at night. This destination was particular attractive for this type of tourist because it is a cheap place to have fun. As in the case of the cultural heritage tourists, the ravers were also seeking a familiar environment of comfort, something similar to the psychocentric tourists in Plog's (1990, 1991, 2006) typology.
- *'Shirley Valentines'*: this was a group of 14 women, travelling alone or with friends, all with previous tourist experiences in Greece. They were characterized by their desire to have a romantic experience with a 'Greek god'. This group had a very high expectation for hedonistic activities during their stay in Kalimeria, namely to find a 'true friend' or a 'charming Greek man'. This expectation was based on the stereotypical image of a Greek man created by the film 'Shirley Valentine', which tells the story of a frustrated English housewife. In addition to spending a lot of time swimming and sunbathing at the beach, these tourists also enjoyed flirting with waiters and bartenders. Their travel was also considered an opportunity to escape the day-to-day routine of their domestic lives.
- *Sun worshippers*: this group included 25 tourists who sought a relaxing holiday under the sun. Many members of this group spent more than 7 hours a day at the beach, trying to get a tan in any way possible, only moving to 'eat, drink or swim in the sea'. This group was entirely consistent with the promotion for the tourism destination, which was sold as a place where 'the sun is guaranteed'. Unlike the tourists interested in cultural heritage, the sun worshippers did not make any cultural visits in Chalkidiki.
- *'Lord Byrons'*: the main characteristic of this tourist type is their habit of returning every year to the same destination and, in some cases, the same accommodation. This was the smallest group, composed of 11 tourists. Generally, these tourists spoke of Kalimeria as if they were already part of that place. The 'Lord Byrons', named after the English poet who lived an extravagant life and fought in the Greek War of Independence, said they were passionate about Greece and its **hospitality** and spoke about the place with intimacy and nostalgia, lamenting the growing mass tourism in Kalimeria and its negative **impact** on this tourism destination.

The five tourist typologies proposed by Wickens (2002) for a coastal resort indicate that, except for tourists interested in cultural heritage, which is possible thanks to the area's rich Hellenic history and culture, the other tourist types embody combinations of interests related to the three main appeals of these destination types: sex, sun and sea. In any case, Wickens's typology can serve as an inspiration for a less generalist classification of tourists, particularly one that attempts to identify unique classifications for specific tourism destinations.

Operationalizing

To make a pilgrimage on the Camino de Santiago de Compostela, the pilgrim has to prepare physically and spiritually. It takes an average of 32 days to complete, carrying only what is necessary for each day (Fig. 43). Your backpack cannot exceed 8 kg because it becomes heavier with each step. You walk approximately 25 km per day, and new experiences are revealed at every moment: a source of clean water to cool off on the side of a mountain; a new friend 'from the other side of the world' who does not speak your language but with whom it is possible to communicate; a 12th-century chapel where an elderly priest conducts Mass in a local

Fig. 43. Pilgrims on the Camino de Santiago close to Cebreiro, 152 km from the city of Santiago de Compostela. The Camino de Santiago de Compostela provides a unique example of the pleasure in pilgrimage. There are numerous alternative routes, but the most traditional path begins from Roncesvalles, in the south of France, and ends at the city of Santiago, in northern Spain, after 800 km of walking. (Photo courtesy of Tatiana Lima Sarmento Panosso.)

language; the free hospitality of those who live along the path; apple and plum trees that kindly offer their fruit but are miraculously still laden and untouched; the introspection provided by the moment that leads to knowledge of who you are; the astonishment and admiration of a **landscape** that exists and is not just an image on a postcard. These are examples of what the Camino de Santiago offers to those who walk it.

Letting go is a key concept for the pilgrim because the only accommodation along the route is hostels with large bedrooms that sleep six to 50 people. They are clean and safe, with hot water for bathing but without comfort, which encourages the pilgrim to let go of the material aspects and interact with other people. The cities are, for the most part, small, old, full of history and welcoming. All of the restaurants serve the pilgrim's menu, which includes an appetizer (soup or salad), entrée (chicken, beef, pork or fish) and dessert (different types), always accompanied by water, a bottle of Spanish wine and as much bread as you want.

The 'pilgrim's credential' is required for anyone who wants to make the pilgrimage. It is a booklet that can be stamped in establishments along the way; the stamps are used to prove that the pilgrim actually passed through these places (Fig. 44). Upon arrival in Santiago, tradition says that you should go to the diocese headquarters to receive the Compostela, a document given to those who completed the last 100 km on foot or the last 200 km by bicycle or on horseback (Fig. 45). The documents are the precursors to the modern passport and visa –thus another reason to value them.

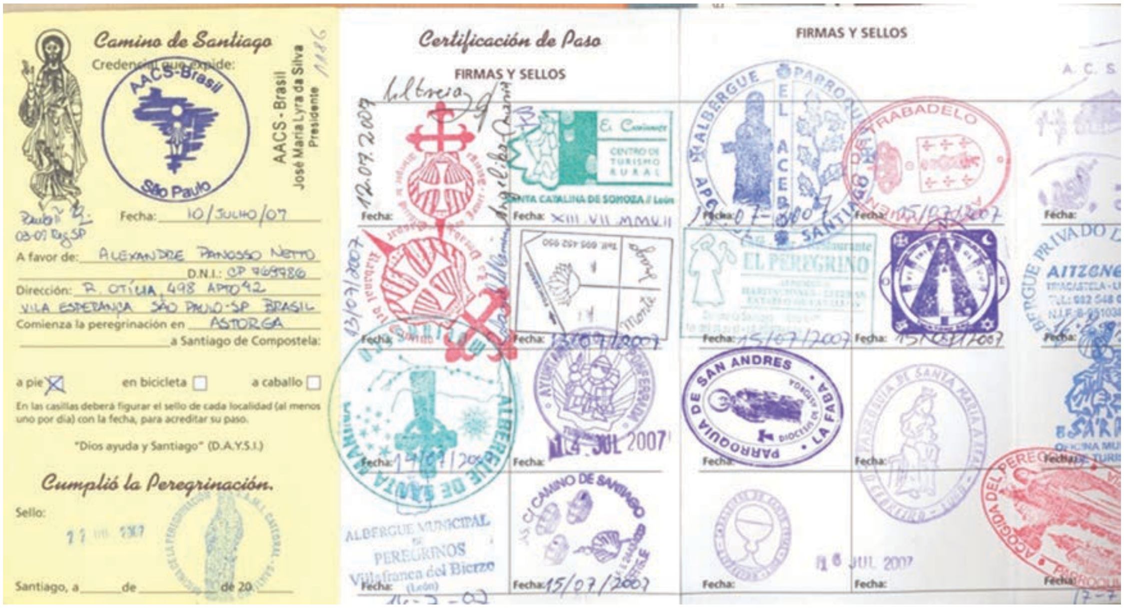

Fig. 44. Copy of the 'pilgrim's credential'. (Photo courtesy of Alexandre Panosso Netto.)

Exercise

1. Looking at the place where you live, which type of tourist is the most prominent? Explain why.
2. Discuss the following statement: 'The natural tendency of a tourism destination is to attract psychocentric tourists.'

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CAPITULUM hujus Almae Apostolicae et Metropolitanae Ecclesiae Compostellanae sigilli Altaris Beati Jacobi Apostoli custos, ut omnibus Fidelibus et Peregrinis ex toto terrarum Orbe, devotionis affectu vel voti causa, ad limina Apostoli Nostri Hispaniarum Patroni ac Tutelaris **SANCTI JACOBI** convenientibus, authenticas visitationis litteras expediat, omnibus et singulis praesentes inspecturis, notum facit: Dnum Alexandrum Panosso Netto hoc sacratissimum Templum pietatis causa devote visitasse. In quorum fidem praesentes litteras, sigillo ejusdem Sanctae Ecclesiae munitas, ei confero.

Datum Compostellae die 22 mensis Iulii anno Dni 2007.

SIGILLUM CAPITULI BEATI JACOBI COMPOSTELLAE

Canonicus Deputatus pro Peregrinis

Fig. 45. A received Compostela. (Photo courtesy of Alexandre Panosso Netto.)

3.9 Klenosky and Gitelson's Conceptual Model on the Travel Agent Recommendation Process

Travel agencies are an important element that provides travellers with information and recommendations about various tourism products and destinations. Recommendations about where to go, how to go, what to see and what to avoid are essential to the success of many tourist enterprises. For **marketing** professionals, it therefore becomes especially critical to better understand the factors that can influence travel agents' recommendations (see '**Crompton's destination-choice model**').

Klenosky and Gitelson (1998) proposed a model that analyses the travel agent recommendation process for tourism destinations, as shown in Fig. 46. The model presents a four-step process: knowledge, perception/evaluation, intention and recommendation. These steps are influenced by three main categories of factors: agent knowledge variables, destination variables and trip/traveller variables. The model assumes that, to recommend a destination, the agents must first be aware that it exists. In the model, the act of being aware that the destination exists is seen as a function of two agent knowledge variables: degree of exposure to information about the destination and direct **tourist experience**. Exposure to information can be provided by various sources, including marketer-controlled sources (e.g. print and broadcast advertising material), general media sources (e.g. newspaper and magazine articles) and informal sources (e.g. friends, relatives, customers and other agents). Similarly, direct experiences with particular destinations may include the agent's past experiences as a tourist or even trips sponsored by destinations or tourist enterprises, also known as 'FAM tours' (familiarization tours).

The second step in the process – perception and evaluation – refers to the agent's opinions and perceptions of a place and what it has to offer. These feelings can change for better or worse over time, according to what the agent learns from information obtained and their own experience of the destination's natural and artificial characteristics.

Destination recommendation intention refers to the probability of recommending a destination for a certain type of travel. The model shows these intentions as primarily influenced by destination perceptions and evaluations. There is a strong association between the intention to visit a place and the recommendation that will be made about it.

The model considers that the final choice of which destination to recommend is affected by the destination recommendation intentions that have been developed over time and according to the particular trip/traveller variables. These characteristics include the type of trip, the origin, the time of year when the trip will occur, the **transport** modes that are both suitable and available, and the budget and time available for the trip (Fig. 46). Tourist-specific characteristics can refer to a variety of factors, including demographics, stage of family life, and personal lifestyle and values.

With the increasing disintermediation of the tourism product purchase process and increased opportunities for online recommendations, either through specialized sites such as TripAdvisor or social media, the use of travel agents to purchase and receive recommendations for tourism products and services has declined. However, a large portion of the four-step model proposed by Klenosky and Gitelson (1998) can still be applied to the understanding of how knowledge, perception/evaluation, intention and recommendation work together to make a travel recommendation, particularly for **leisure** travel.

Operationalizing

Numerous studies have attempted to model the relationship between tourist satisfaction and the odds of tourists recommending destinations and products (Hui *et al.*, 2007; Lee *et al.*, 2007). Satisfaction with a tourism product is a fundamental prerequisite for recommending it. The process

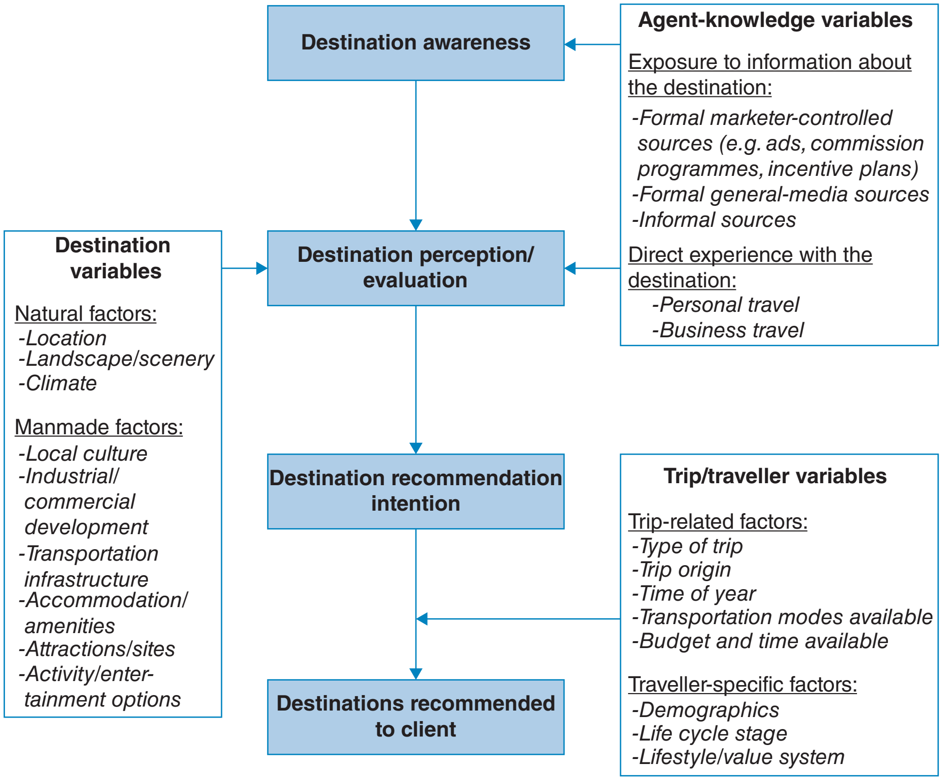

Fig. 46. Conceptual model of the process and factors influencing travel agents' destination recommendations. (From Klenosky and Gitelson, 1998, p. 664.)

of obtaining satisfaction involves the first three steps of Klenosky and Gitelson's (1998) model: knowledge, perception/evaluation and intention. Although their model assumes that knowledge can be gained from either information sources or direct experience with the **tourism destination** (or product), direct positive knowledge has the strongest influence on a recommendation. It is therefore very common to use FAM tours to allow travel agents to personally experience the services offered by hotels, tourist attractions, cruises, restaurants and other tourism products and destinations.

New Zealand is characterized by dispersed tourists moving around its two islands, often on road trips. It has a tourist information network that spreads across the country, allowing tourists to obtain information and make reservations not only for local destinations but also for other places around the country. Therefore, it is very common for employees of these tourist information centres to receive invitations to visit other destinations, hotels, restaurants and tourist attractions so that they can recommend them. The tour operators' investment in these FAM tours aims to increase the travel agents' level of knowledge, while giving them the opportunity to directly experience these tourism products and services.

Exercise

In a simplified manner, try to adapt Klenosky and Gitelson's (1998) model from the perspective of a travel agent to that of a friend recommending a particular tourism product (e.g. a favourite airline company) or a particular tourism destination. Considering the same four-step structure, which variables would eventually be added or removed for this particular situation? Next, analyse how these variables would change if we were to compare the influence of a friend who is 20–30 years old with that of a family member who is 60–70 years old.

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Section 4: Intermediation, Distribution and Travel

4.1 Tourism Distribution Channels

WITH CRISTINA BITTAR RODRIGUES

According to Cunha (2001, p. 290), a distribution channel 'is an operating structure, a system of relationships or different combinations of organizations, through which a producer of tourism goods and services sells or confirms the purchaser's travel'. The connections between the producer (**supply**) and the purchaser (**demand**) can be direct (e.g. call centre and company website) or indirect, and may occur through one or more intermediaries (e.g. **travel agencies**, **tour operators**, local and regional **organizations**). Choosing a direct or indirect sale and selecting the appropriate distribution channels essentially involve choosing between market coverage and associated costs. Establishing an effective distribution system is therefore critical for the development and **tourism marketing** of any successful **tourism destination** (Knowles and Grabowski, 1999).

Pearce and Tan (2004, p. 225) presented a somewhat broader view, arguing that tourism distribution channels link suppliers and consumers, providing them with information and allowing consumers to make and pay for reservations. Kotler *et al.* (2003) also included information distribution as one of the key roles played by tourism distribution channels, including the following:

- *Information*: collecting and distributing marketing research and information about the market environment.
- *Promotion*: developing and disseminating persuasive communication for a particular promotion or offer.
- *Contact*: finding and communicating with potential purchasers.
- *Negotiation*: agreeing on the price and other terms of the offer so that the purchase can be completed.

Tourism distribution channels have strategic importance and may potentially serve as an analytical and unifying conceptual framework, expanding markets and destinations while bringing consumers and all of the tourism sectors closer together.

Lohmann (2006) analysed 43 scientific articles on the subject to understand how distribution channels can help promote a tourism destination. He also found that only a small number of authors have an integrated view of the subject.

It is worth noting that tourism distribution channels respond quickly to market dynamics, adapting to the needs of both the sector and consumers. Before the development of the Internet, tourism suppliers had no choice but to use intermediaries, such as travel agencies and tour operators. However, information and communication technologies have changed this situation, making tourism products more competitive (Berne *et al.*, 2012; Standing *et al.*, 2014).

Figure 47 presents the mapping of an airline's distribution channels; it shows a mix of direct and indirect sales. In addition to the more traditional channels, such as tour operators and travel agencies, it also includes distribution channels that have emerged more recently, particularly technology-based channels such as virtual agencies. With the exception of travel agencies and tour operators, which are presented in more detail in this work, the other channels shown in Fig. 47 are described below.

Consolidator

From an airline's perspective, it is difficult to work with a large number of travel agencies. The 1990s thus saw the emergence of the consolidator, which, according to Santos and Kuazaqui (2004, p. 28), 'is placed in the condition of facilitating the sale of air **transport** and offering operational services to travel agencies' (authors' translation). For many years, for a travel agency to be able to establish direct business ties with airline companies, it had to meet a list of requirements imposed by the International Air Transport Association (IATA), including the following (Santos and Kuazaqui, 2004):

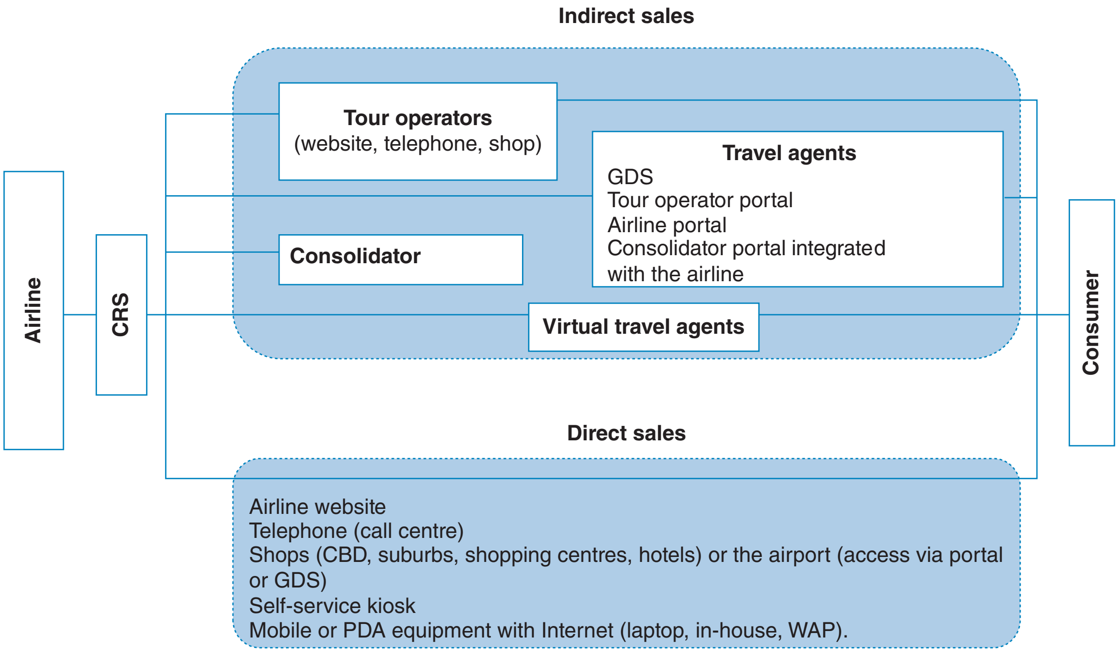

Fig. 47. Map of the distribution channels and technologies used in an airline company. GDS, global distribution system; CRS, computer reservations system; CBD, central business district; PDA, personal digital assistant; WAP, wireless application protocol. From Venturini and Lohmann (2006).

- Be affiliated with competent national authorities.
- Have been in operation for at least a year.
- Have facilities that meet IATA standards.
- Have the minimum capital stipulated, attested to by a notary.

After registering with the IATA, agencies that will be issuing international tickets must apply for credit from each of the airlines with which they want to conduct business directly. These credits establish a guarantee for bank credit. Thus, only the bigger agencies with a large amount of registered capital and a significant number of purchases conduct business directly with airlines. In many countries, including Brazil, most travel agencies do not have privileged access, and it is necessary for them to use a consolidator. It is important to note that consolidators do not function as a consortium or cooperative of companies that come together to leverage their bargaining and negotiation power with the airlines. They act as distributors, buying large quantities from airlines and then reselling them to smaller travel agencies, which can be served by more than one consolidator, regardless of where they are located.

Virtual Travel Agencies

New technologies have had an enormous impact on tourism distribution channels. Different opportunities have emerged with technological development, allowing other participants to have access to a market formed by an oligopoly of large distributors. Since their emergence in the 1980s, global distribution systems (GDSs) have dominated tourism distribution, establishing a technological supremacy (highly complex systems), whose dominance lasted until the mid-1990s (Buhalis, 2004). Since then, the Internet has become an important instrument in the tourist trade, and many websites for consulting and selling tickets have emerged. In addition to the airline's own sites, there is Microsoft Expedia (launched in 1996 by the leading company for PC software, Microsoft Corporation, with the goal of creating a comprehensive and convenient site for planning and purchasing) and Travelocity, which are the largest sites in the world; Wotif, which was created in 2000 in Australia, and already has bases in Canada, Malaysia, New Zealand, Singapore and the UK; Booking.com, which began in 1996 in Amsterdam (The Netherlands) and since

2005 has been owned and operated in the USA; and Webjet Ltd, founded in 2004 and operating in Australia, New Zealand, North America, Singapore, Hong Kong and South Africa.

These companies are surprisingly efficient; online agencies can compare prices for hotel stays, sightseeing tours and airline tickets to a particular destination on the same date, suggesting the airports available and any layovers or connecting flights (Bui *et al*., 2014). The emergence of virtual travel agencies has thus also allowed the re-intermediation of this market; on one hand, the Internet has enabled direct sales to the final consumer; on the other hand, new types of intermediaries have emerged (Prideaux, 2001). These new companies are more economical and have lower risk and maintenance costs; therefore, they pose an extremely dangerous threat to GDSs and traditional travel and tourism agents (see Fig. 47).

Airline Websites

Airlines can now sell tickets directly to passengers online, bridging all forms of intermediation. This ability also enables the creation of an effective communication channel with the client, promoting the company, strengthening the brand and creating a database that can be used for consumer relations through the CRM (customer relationship management) tool. On the airline's website, the customer can purchase tickets for domestic and international destinations operated by the airline and its codeshare partners (shared aircraft). In terms of selling costs, the airline's website can offer a ticket for up to four times less than a reservation via a GDS (Venturini and Lohmann, 2006). Some airlines also provide a web call centre, which is an exclusive online service that operates 24 hours a day and can be accessed from anywhere in the world, leading to savings on international calls. Customers can also enquire about schedules, points or miles, frequent flyer programmes and promotions; in addition, they can receive answers to any questions about their trip.

Sales Offices and Airport Counters

The sales office is the strongest link of the chain connecting the customer and the airline. Personal contact strengthens the bonds of trust and even loyalty; at these locations, the salesperson becomes a travel consultant, making suggestions for schedules, flights and layovers, taking care of less usual requests (e.g. for wheelchairs, transport for sick people, various food restrictions and the transport of domestic animals), demonstrating and explaining the services offered, overcoming objections, and solving or listening to complaints. Some airlines have already attempted to eliminate these offices as a way to reduce costs, but this decision has usually proved to be short-lived because passengers become disoriented when there are incidents, accidents, overbooking, cancelled flights and external situations such as bad weather. The sales office provides customers with all of the services offered by the airline, such as consulting and selling domestic and international tickets, issuing tickets, assisting with check-in, changing flights, mileage or point services, paying airport fees, refunding money and providing information about airport operating conditions.

The airport counter functions in the same way as the sales office, although it can usually offer additional facilities and services, such as expanded service hours, in addition to assisting the customer with issues related to their departure at the airport.

Self-service Kiosk

The self-service kiosk is a vertical unit that incorporates a computer, which is composed of a display and touch screen or keyboard. Using these resources (which are already employed by many airlines), the customer can both check in for flights and purchase tickets. One advantage of this device is its practicality when purchasing a ticket; the kiosk functions as a substitute for part of the sales office and can be installed in different locations, such as supermarkets, hotels, shopping centres, convention centres and airports. Another advantage, although not directly related to sales or distribution, is the increase of speed at boarding time; allowing passengers without luggage to check themselves in within a few seconds, confirming flight details, choosing a seat and receiving their boarding pass.

Internet-accessible Mobile Phones, Equipment and Locations

Technology now offers passengers the convenience of purchasing an air travel service simply and effectively. Airports, shopping centres, universities and public places use wireless technology to connect to the Internet. This technology allows a customer to have immediate paid or free access to the Internet. Wireless application protocol (WAP) technology was designed to give small portable equipment a way to connect to the Internet, recognizing the limitations of such devices (i.e. power supply and memory capacity). As a result, mobile phones and personal digital assistants (PDAs; e.g. iPads) can access the Internet with a good quality standard. New technologies offer travellers unprecedented mobility, enabling communication from anywhere. Furthermore, the services available on airline websites can be purchased and consulted from any Internet-accessible equipment or location (with appropriate hardware).

Booths

In the case of large **events**, such as fairs, exhibitions, conferences and conventions, airlines may provide a booth either to facilitate assisting customers with airport transfers or to streamline rescheduling and other services. The booth functions just like the sales office, although it is temporary. This distribution channel usually has minimal cost for the company; it is often provided in exchange for tickets, or the event organizer may offer the space at no cost because of its added value to event participants.

Operationalizing

Flashpackers (a subculture of backpackers) have been seen as a key component of contemporary society, emerging from the economic, demographic, technological and social changes in the world. They are generally older than traditional backpackers and have more disposable income but travel with a backpack by choice rather than budgetary necessity. Flashpackers are an example of tourists mediated by communication technology, often through mobile devices, and they use distribution channels such as the Internet and virtual agencies during their travels. Flashpackers and backpackers are called 'digital nomads': individuals who adopt mobile technologies, allowing them to live an independent lifestyle from anywhere they have an Internet connection (Paris, 2012). Therefore, traditional communication channels must increasingly use technology to meet the needs of both the consumer and the tourism market.

Exercises

1. What are the main functions of an airline's computer reservation system (CRS)?
2. What is the difference between a CRS and a GDS?
3. Identify the channels that are used most frequently by an airline with a strong international presence and by a low-cost domestic airline. Compare them.
4. Choose an airline and try to map its distribution channels as presented in Fig. 47.

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4.2 Travel Agencies

with Cristina Bittar Rodrigues

Although travel-brokering initiatives have existed since the beginning of the 19th century, this activity only acquired a professional character in 1841, with a domestic rail trip organized in England by the typographer and editor Thomas Cook (Conlin and Bird, 2014). Since that time, travel agencies have gained increasing importance as tourism distribution elements to the point where, for many decades, they have been the main element responsible for selling various touristic products. Among other duties, travel agencies now sell travel packages, tickets for **transport** and **tourist attractions**, accommodation, rental cars and travel insurance. They also provide information related to these products and the tourism destinations to be visited. Some of the possible functions of travel agents include the following:

- *Information*: to give advice to travellers, provide information and help choose tourism destinations, itineraries and products to be reserved/purchased.
- *Intermediation*: to maintain contact with suppliers (e.g. **transport** and **accommodation**) individually or jointly, as in the case of tour packages prepared by **tour operators**.
- Personalized trip planning (also known as *forfaits*) for an individual or small groups (e.g. family or friends), in which various **tourism services** are reserved and sold jointly, according to client needs.
- Sale of travel insurance and exchange of foreign currency.

The travel agency is an indirect **distribution channel**, because it functions as an intermediary between the potential tourist and suppliers. Agencies act as resellers in the place of their customers, making choices with the suppliers. Legally, however, they operate as an agent of the supplier and receive a sales commission. For tourists, agencies provide information and tips, recommending the best product that will satisfy their needs. For suppliers, they represent a good cost-benefit value in distributing their product because the suppliers need not maintain sales offices in all markets (Evans, 2000).

Travel agencies can be classified as *emissive* (when they send tourists to other tourism destinations), *receptive* (when they receive tourists in their tourism destinations) or *mixed* (those that do both). Tomelin (2001), based on a study by Acerenza (1992), presented a classification of travel agencies, dividing them into different types. It is important to note that many agencies present several of the typologies below concurrently:

- *Detail-oriented*: they do not produce their 'own' products, but instead only resell packages or sell individual products (e.g. airline tickets and hotels). Some agencies specialize in serving a particular tourist segment, such as corporate agencies, exchange agencies, ecotourism agencies or incentive trip agencies. Detail-oriented agencies exclusively distribute touristic products.
- *Wholesale or tour operators*: the wholesale agency operates travel programmes, selling packages that have been developed with a combination of different touristic products (e.g. hotels, airline and bus tickets, airport transfers) to both detail-oriented agencies and the general public. They are also called 'operators'.
- *Receptive*: they provide inbound services for other travel agencies, event organizers and hotels, among others, through a wide range of services, including airport transfers, city tours and monitoring the tourists while they are at the destination. They can also put together itineraries for visits and excursions, which are offered and sold separately from the tour package.
- *Consolidators*: they work with airline companies to resell tickets to travel agencies that are not authorized to buy directly from airlines (see 'Tourism distribution channels').

Douglas *et al.* (2015) noted that the main responsibilities of corporate travel agents include maintaining relationships with suppliers, negotiating and maintaining contracts, developing corporate travel policies, taking care of traveller safety, and responding to questions and complaints. More and more corporate **travel agents** are being impacted by technology, with the booking process primarily ensuring that reservations are made in line with established corporate policies. In the case of domestic travel, technology is expected to completely eliminate any administrative interference from the agents. In this sense, the travel agent's role is becoming one of a consultant.

The introduction of new technologies has changed the role of travel agencies because many potential tourists can purchase their own airline tickets or make reservations directly with suppliers, dispensing with the services of travel agencies altogether (Palmer and McCole, 1999; Tse, 2003). The Internet provides customers with much information about services, increased product customization, and time and cost savings, in addition to reducing the need for human interaction. Travel agents now understand that their roles are threatened by online sales through both tourism suppliers (e.g. airlines, hotels) and online travel agencies, which now compete with traditional travel agencies. This question is particularly relevant given that the Internet affects the security of some traditional jobs, such as those of travel agents (Díaz *et al.*, 2015).

Traditionally, a travel agency is organized into two areas: the front office, which has a direct relationship with the client, and the back office, which aggregates the agency's internal activities, ranging from operating packages, issuing tickets and sending documentation to the agency's more general **administration** (human resources, finance and accounting). Marín (2004) analysed seven travel agency departments and their respective roles, as presented below:

- *Administrative department*: handles an agency's internal processes, managing information, resources and relationships with non-commercial organizations.
- *Commercial department*: responsible for acquiring and maintaining customers' portfolios, negotiating commercial conditions and participating in tenders and bids, especially with regard to large companies and corporations.
- *Control department*: although it is not usually part of an agency's organizational structure, this department seeks to ensure that the production system adapts to management's strategic objectives.
- *Financial department*: makes payments and charges customers.
- *Management department*: makes decisions and implements the agency's business strategy.
- *Product department*: develops the products to be offered by the agency, selecting the most appropriate suppliers.
- *Sales department*: makes reservations, selects the best conditions for each sale and, more generally, issues travel documents.

Many managers of tourism destinations and products forget that travel agents have enormous power to influence and persuade the consumer to choose a particular destination or product. An agent's role as a consultant – or even an opinion former – is so important that many destinations and tourist enterprises invite travel agents to go on familiarization (FAM) tours. If a FAM tour is successful, it is expected that agents will begin to make more sales and recommend the products and destinations visited.

Hudson *et al.* (2001) identified four possible scenarios in which consumers may or may not be influenced by travel agents in their purchasing decisions. In the first three scenarios, the consumer has access to tourism information through promotional material, but this is not true in the fourth scenario (see Fig. 48). In Scenario 1, the consumer has already chosen the vacation or product that they want to purchase. In this case, the agent can either make the reservation as requested or attempt to direct the consumer to purchase another destination or product. In Scenario 2, the consumer seeks out the travel agency with a few alternatives in mind; in this case, the travel agent has some influence on directing the consumer to purchase a particular destination or product. In Scenario 3 (the consumer knows the destination and how much they want to spend) and Scenario 4 (the consumer seeks out the agent for advice on the availability and price of a last-minute vacation), the travel agent has a great influence and will employ sales-targeting techniques for preferred products and destinations.

Hudson *et al.* (2001) showed that, in the case of the UK, where the main tour operators had travel agencies in their business groups, consumers entering an agency that was owned by Airtours or

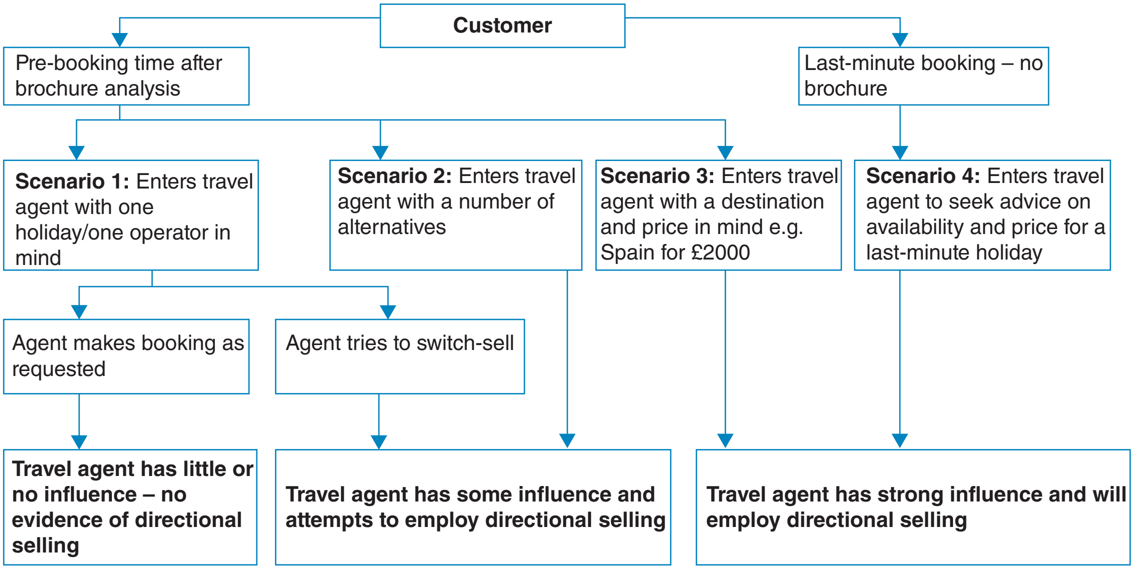

Fig. 48. Conceptual model of the process and factors influencing travel agents' destination recommendations. (From Hudson *et al.*, 2001, p. 151.)

Thomas Cook had a high chance of being directed to buy products from these operators. In many cases, the travel agents did not consider the customer's real needs, preferring to sell packages from their own tour operators. Moreover, these consumers generally truly believed that they were receiving the best, most impartial recommendations and were unaware that the agency they were using had a business connection to the tour package they were purchasing.

Operationalizing

Flight Centre Travel Group is an Australian international travel company that was founded by Graham Turner and Geoff Harris in 1981. Its operations have reached a global scale, including sales offices in New Zealand, the USA, the UK and Canada, and points of sale in India, China, Hong Kong, Singapore and South Africa. Flight Centre is a success story because it has quickly reached performance levels that exceed its competitors. It is a highly competitive travel agency and its success is attributable to its competitive and collaborative operations. Both the organization and the individuals within Flight Centre have a spirit of competition and collaboration with each other. At Flight Centre, travel agents have relative autonomy to demonstrate excellence and personal performance, which makes it one of the most famous and competent agencies in the tourism market (Palmer and Dunford, 2002).

Exercise

Write about a travel agency in your city, describing both its type and all of its departments. What major tourism products are offered at this agency? Which tourism destinations are offered for sale?

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4.3 Computer Reservation System

WITH CRISTINA BITTAR RODRIGUES

The first attempts to create computerized (or central) reservation systems (CRSs) took place in the 1950s, in a partnership between American Airlines and IBM. However, because of the technological limitations of the time, the system could not meet the huge **demand** for the service. Thus, the first CRS, from Eastern Airlines, only came into full operation in 1968 (Deng and Ryan, 1992). Until all of the airlines and **travel agents** adopted a CRS, tickets were purchased over the telephone; if there was a seat available on the desired flight, both the travel agent and the airline representative manually wrote down the ticket number, payment information, itinerary and passenger information. Because of the vast amount of information generated, lack of any standardization and enormous communication difficulties of the time, many errors were made with this method. The basic function of a CRS is thus to allow intermediaries, primarily travel agents, to obtain information for their customers and make reservations directly from their terminals without having to call airline reservation offices.

In 1971, Apollo was launched by United Airlines, followed by Eastern Airlines. Subsequently, the system was incorporated into Continental Airlines with System One (in 1982) (see Fig. 49). Other CRSs also emerged: PARS (TWA), Datas II (Delta Airlines), Reservec (Air Canada, in 1978) and Pegasus (Canadian Pacific, in 1979, which later changed the system's name to Gemini). During the late 1970s and early 1980s, the use of CRSs grew rapidly in the USA, primarily because computers eliminated many of the earlier problems; in addition, CRSs kept the information constantly updated, making the data very reliable. By 1988, 96% of North American agencies had CRS terminals installed in their offices (Poon, 1994).

In the 1980s, airline and CRS executives realized that air **transport** was only a small part of the complex experience of tourist travel. When travel agents began to ask if they could make ticket reservations for different airlines on a single reservations terminal and obtain information about more than just airline tickets, some CRSs became global distribution systems (GDSs), offering a wide range of touristic services such as hotel reservations and rental cars. Sabre, from American Airlines, thus incorporated databases from other airlines, whereas two groups in Europe created new GDSs: Galileo and Amadeus (Buhalis, 2004). Galileo was developed in 1980 by British Airways, KLM and Swissair in partnership with United Airlines (Deng and Ryan, 1992), incorporating the latter company's Apollo system. Amadeus emerged through a partnership between Lufthansa, Air France, Iberia and SAS, although the latter sold its stake before the business began to operate, in January 1992. Page (2005) succinctly defined GDSs as CRSs that are affiliated with other airlines.

According to Pemberton *et al.* (2001), CRSs offer many competitive advantages, primarily for large airlines, including the following:

1. Operational efficiency, leading to time and money savings, a reduced number of duplicate reservations and the use of efficient yield management policies.[5]
2. Access to information from competitors that use CRSs from other companies because they do not have their own.
3. Information about customers (passengers) from reservations made on the system: companies that own CRSs (parent carriers) can obtain information about not only their passengers but also the passengers of competitors using their CRSs.
4. An increase in the number of reservations made on flights of CRSs' parent carriers, primarily because travel agents prefer making reservations with the companies that own the CRS that they use, a factor known as the 'halo effect'.[6]
5. Display bias: CRS parent carriers show their own flights first on the computer display (GAO, 1992). According to Shaw (1993), in the 1980s, 80% of flight bookings made by travel agents appeared on the first page of results. Furthermore, travel agents

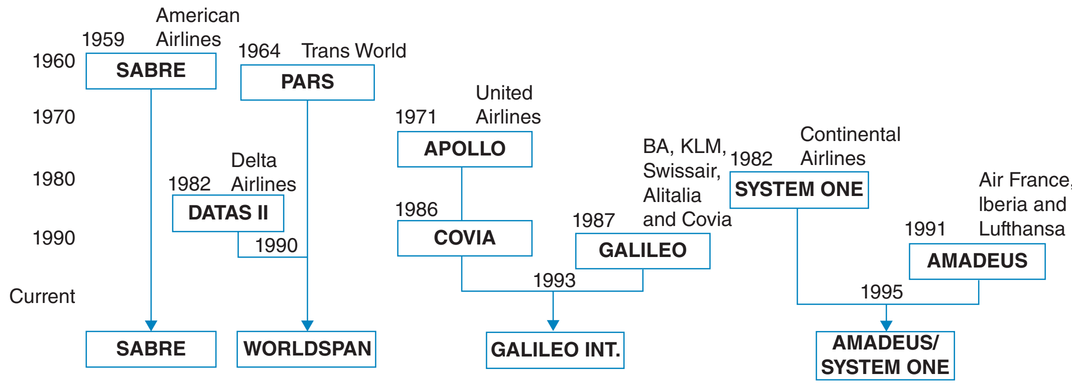

Fig. 49. Emergence of the main CRSs and their transformation into GDSs between 1960 and 2000. (From O'Connor, 2001.)

always gave preference to flights on the top half of the screen. This saved them the time of looking for other flights on the list, contributing to more flights being reserved with CRS parent carriers.

6. Extra source of revenue, as other airlines must pay to have their flights available on CRSs, thus not only generating an extra source of revenue for CRS parent carriers but also creating an additional cost for competitors. It is very expensive to develop these reservation systems. Sabre, for example, cost more than half a billion US dollars, and these investments must be repaid.

Because of these competitive advantages, the regulatory authorities in both the USA and Europe began to demand equal conditions for all airlines, along with greater transparency in the cost breakdown of CRS/GDS companies. In terms of using CRSs as a source of revenue, according to Shaw (1993), every reservation made on this system in 1985 cost between US$1.75 and US$1.85, to the point that the then-president of American Airlines, Robert Crandall, uttered the now famous phrase 'If you told me I had to sell either the airline or the system, I'd probably sell the airline.'

With respect to the advantage of having parent carrier flights appear first on display screens, in 1984, the Civil Aeronautics Board (CAB), which at the time was the US government's regulatory agency for air transport, determined that the same conditions of use should be applied to all airlines (CRS parent carriers or not). According to French (1998), codes of conduct began to be followed by CRS companies in the 1990s; they were imposed by regulatory authorities in European countries, the USA, Australia and Canada and by the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO). Europe has been much more demanding in this field than the US authorities, who to a certain extent believe that these companies should be able to freely exploit the benefits of their multi-billion dollar investments in the sector.

According to Shaw (1993), however, CRS parent carriers used different tricks to circumvent the regulations, such as the following:

- *Fictitious direct flights*: different CRS parent carriers began to make the system show that their flights with connections were direct flights, causing the user to see them as more interesting and convenient, when this was not actually true.
- *Preference for connections with the same airline*: for non-direct flights, CRSs began to list flights with connections in order of layover time between connections. However, CRSs penalized connections to an airline different from the one used on the first leg with a 'delay' of 2 hours. In a way, this action matched the user preference because users wanted to have their flight procedures (e.g. a single check-in) and their luggage under the responsibility of the same airline. However, these measures favoured large companies, mostly CRS parent carriers, because they had a large number of flights in the hub-spoke system (see '**Nodal functions**').
- *Code-sharing*: because code-sharing means airlines can use their own flight codes even when the flight is being offered by another airline, and

because CRSs gave preference to flights within the same company, this practice ended up encouraging travel agents to offer connections on large airlines, even though a smaller airline was actually operating the route in question.

To compensate for the massive investment in creating and implementing CRSs, airlines later began to distribute complementary touristic products. When a number of airlines and their CRSs merged, they fulfilled the vision of creating true 'supermarkets' offering a wide range of touristic products and information, leading to the emergence of GDSs, as shown in Fig. 49. GDSs provide information and allow airline tickets, hotels, trains, rental cars, cruises, and theatre and sporting event tickets to be reserved and purchased. They also provide information, such as visa requirements, for a particular destination, conversion of foreign currency, weather announcements, etc. In other words, they are an important distribution channel for information about touristic services.

Despite all the controversy surrounding the competitive advantage enjoyed by some airlines when using CRSs/GDSs, along with government attempts to minimize these effects, inequalities persisted at the end of the 1990s, although in a more discreet way. However, some airlines, such as Southwest (founded in 1973), have been able to operate without needing to have their reservation systems connected to GDSs; in Brazil, Gol Linhas Aéreas also has an independent reservation system. Both airlines are considered low cost, and this independence represents a large reduction in distribution costs. According to Freiberg and Freiberg (1998), this strategy enables Southwest to save US$2 for every flight segment booked. Although the unit price saved is not very much on its own, at the end of the year, it represents millions of dollars in savings.

Technological advances have now created new challenges for CRSs/GDSs, such as, for example, big data, which is the confluence of three trends: transaction data, interaction data and processing data. Big data is an opportunity for travel companies to embrace the change in data structure and maximize the use of data, improving tourists' travel experiences and leading to competitive challenges for the company. The first organizations to use big data were Google, LinkedIn, Facebook and Ebay. Currently, the travel and tourism sector increasingly uses big data to convert unstructured data into a form that can be analysed on a continuous basis or, instead, to store and structure a large volume of data and information generated internally (Davenport, 2013).

Operationalizing

A major focus of the Amadeus programme's efforts to deliver value to **travel agencies** was to facilitate the search process through big data to provide their clients with solutions that would allow them to offer innovation and various product and service options to consumers. Amadeus has also recently developed another service for its clients: Featured Results. This service helps travel agents offer desirable deals to their customers; it was developed in response to an increasingly important business challenge called 'looking to book', which refers to the number of online ticket booking queries by airline. The company behind Amadeus has been implementing internal database technologies, data-management tools and commodity servers to reduce cost and response time for their clients. Finally, Amadeus is working with its travel provider clients to deliver better decision-making results. For example, it works with airlines, optimizing their websites through various test versions; in addition, it examines client preferences for booking channels, kiosks versus human agents at the airport, baggage check-in and many other issues (Davenport, 2013).

Exercises

1. What are the main functions of an airline's CRS?
2. What is the difference between a CRS and a GDS?

Notes

[5] This technique consists of 'selling the right product, at the right time, for the right price, to the right customer'. In some cases, as in air transport, the product may be the same, but different prices can include some benefits (e.g. points in the company's mileage programme) or fee exemptions, such as not charging fees or fines if the ticket is changed or rescheduled.

[6] According to Strickland (2001), the halo effect is a phenomenon that occurs when someone is influenced by the superiority, weakness, physical appearance, behaviour or any other determinant factor of a person. The halo effect commonly occurs when someone is responsible for evaluating a person and lets themselves be guided by a particular characteristic that ends up dominating all the others.

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4.4 Mariot's Model of Tourist Flows

Peter Mariot's (1983) model for tourist flows between two locations, much like Campbell's model (see '**Campbell's model of recreational and vacational travel**'), is part of a group of tourist-travel models that focus on the 'connection' or 'travel' component of the tourism system. Mariot (1983) considered that tourists can use three paths to travel from their residence to a tourist centre: an access route, a return route (which may or may not be the same as the access route) and a recreational route (see Fig. 50). The first two routes provide a direct connection between the two locations, whereas tourists can use the third for only part of the trip, taking it or leaving it at a point between the origin and the destination (Pearce, 1995). The recreational route offers a few attractions to the traveller to capture their attention, which (in various ways) either competes with or complements the **tourism destination**. In this case, the concept of doing a tour is based on the tourist's desire to visit **multiple destinations** to fulfil multiple **motivations** (Dredge, 1999).

Operationalizing

Navrátil *et al.* (2013) developed a study analysing the attractiveness of a territory, identifying elements of physiognomy (e.g. land use, terrain type, natural and artificial attractions), **culture** and history (e.g. architecture, memorials and monuments, mines, fortifications and agricultural facilities) and recreational attractions (e.g. areas for **leisure** and sports activities, botanical gardens, observatories). Based on questionnaires given to visitors in the mountains of Sumava and the southern part of Bohemia (Czech Republic), the visitors' spatial distribution was obtained based on territorial attractiveness. The study showed that the attractiveness of a territory also depends on visitor type, and it includes proposals to stimulate areas with little tourism while trying to relieve highly visited areas.

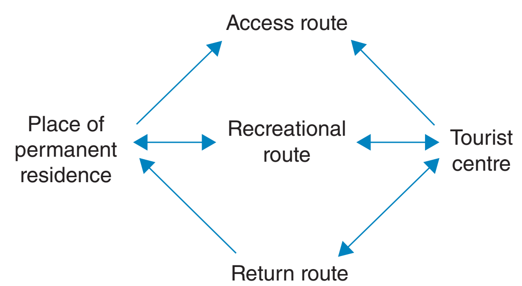

Fig. 50. Mariot's model of tourist flows between two locations. From Pearce (1995), based on Mariot (1983).

Exercise

Consider a tourism destination you have visited that is accessible via road and analyse the possible access and recreational routes. In your analysis, consider the main attractions of the recreational route and the time and distance advantages of the access routes.

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4.5 Campbell's Model of Recreational and Vacational Travel

As with Mariot's (1983) model (see **Mariot's model of tourist flows**'), Campbell's (1967) model specifically addresses tourist **leisure** travel. Campbell described three different groups of travellers leaving an urban centre, classifying them according to their travel motivation. The first is the recreationist, who travels radially from the city; that traveller's primary motivation is the desire to participate in recreational activities. One example of this traveller is a city resident that travels to nearby destinations at the weekend to find recreational areas, such as a lake for a boat ride or a picnic to a national park. The second is an intermediary group, called a recreational vacationist. This type of traveller goes to a **recreation** centre (vacationist travel), from which they take various recreational trips in the surrounding area. Vacationism, in this sense, does not refer to the traveller who does not spend the night at the place visited but instead the traveller who visits several places along the way, instead of being limited to a single destination. The third is the vacationist whose travel patterns have a linear or highway orientation. The travel or tour is the primary activity and involves numerous stops on a circular journey.

Operationalizing

Flognfeldt (1999), using Campbell's (1967) model, analysed data from visitors to the mountains of Jotunheimen, Norway, studying a sample of 2378 respondents. The study compared the travellers' nationality and mode of travel, i.e. day trips, base holiday trips, **resort** trips and round trips (see Fig. 51).

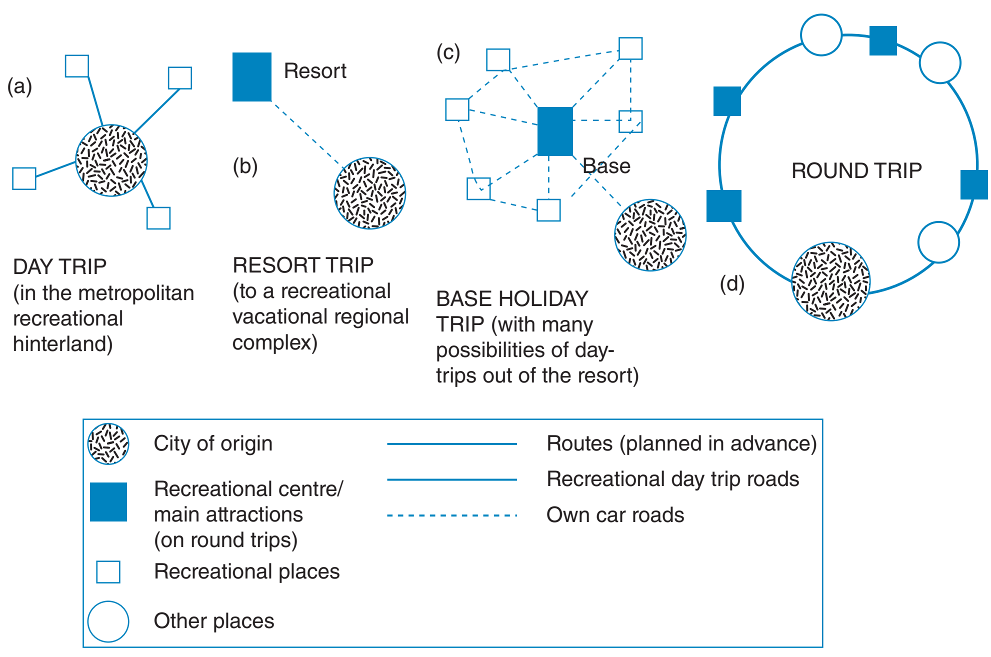

Fig. 51. Campbell's models of recreational and vacational travel. (From Flogenfeldt, 1999, based on Campbell, 1967.)

Exercise

The film *Cars* (2006, Pixar Animation Studios) allows the viewer to reflect on the impact of a highway being built next to the small town of 'Radiator Springs', which was fictionally located on America's famous Route 66. Considering the movie's approach, reflect on a recreational route for road trips and analyse the difficulties of attracting travellers' attention and persuading them to stop and explore the tourist region. Which marketing proposals, for example, could be used for this purpose?

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4.6 Multi-destination Travel Pattern Models

Tourists use a combination of routes to reach one or more destinations they plan to visit on a tourist trip. This entry will address two multi-destination travel models: one proposed by Lue *et al.* (1993) and a second refined by Oppermann (1995).

Lue *et al.* (1993) propose a model consisting of five spatial patterns of tourist movements (see Fig. 52): single **destination**, 'en route', 'base camp', regional tour and trip chaining. The authors considered that with five similar destinations (A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4 and A_5) equidistant from the place of origin, the last four would be preferred because they offer additional tourism destinations (B, C, D, E and F) at a relatively small cost increment (Fig. 52).

The simplest spatial pattern reflects the single destination trip. However, as Lue *et al.* (1993) argued, this rarely happens because one important destination will be related to other destinations. They presented the case of the Grand Canyon in the USA, where nearby indigenous communities receive visitors who come to see this attraction carved out by the Colorado River.

In the case of the 'en route' pattern, additional destinations (B_2, C_2, D_2, E_2 and F_2) are lined up along the travel route to primary destination A_2. In this trip pattern, the traveller can take advantage of secondary destinations on both the outward and return journeys because the attractions are located between the traveller's place of origin and their primary destination. In some cases, these 'interceptor' attractions can be created as part of a **tourism-planning** policy, much like that of the UK in the 1970s, where parks were created between the main population centres. This reduced the number of visitors to destinations, relieving overcrowding. The authors also noted that it is easier for small **tourist attractions** to attract visitors in an 'en route' pattern than when it is necessary to change the route or extend the trip. Lue *et al.* (1993) also suggested, based on a study conducted in Canada, that a primary destination's appeal can be reduced if these intervening opportunities are not available on its route. In this case, Canadian parks with more 'en route' destinations from large cities were more likely to be visited, suggesting that these attractions collaborate, instead of competing with the primary destination.

With regard to the third type of trip pattern, known as a 'base camp' or radial pattern, the tourist stays at the primary destination (A_3), using it as a 'base camp' to visit destinations in the region. In many cases, these trips to 'satellite' destinations take place during the day because these peripheral destinations are unlikely to offer **tourist infrastructure** (primarily **accommodation**, food and **entertainment**) at the same level as the primary destination. The authors cited the example of Orlando, Florida, where most people consider the main tourist attraction to be Disney World but where there is also a range of lesser attractions in its surrounding area. From Disney's perspective, these attractions can be considered 'parasitic' because they do not generate theme-park business but instead depend on the main attraction to attract visitors. However, from the City of Orlando's perspective, these peripheral attractions can increase tourists' length of stay in the city and, consequently, their economic **impact**. To minimize the impact of these secondary attractions, Disney World decided to expand its offering of attractions and accommodations so that their hotels could serve as a 'base camp', offering more opportunities for trips within Disney itself.

In the fourth pattern, the 'regional tour' is developed from A_4, with the secondary destinations possibly attracting some of the overnight stays. These destinations can work with each other to increase the number of destinations, which are usually centred on a particular topic. Experience shows that when different attractions are located within a reasonable geographical proximity, which is a characteristic of the 'base camp' and regional tour patterns, they can be conceptualized as an 'organic'

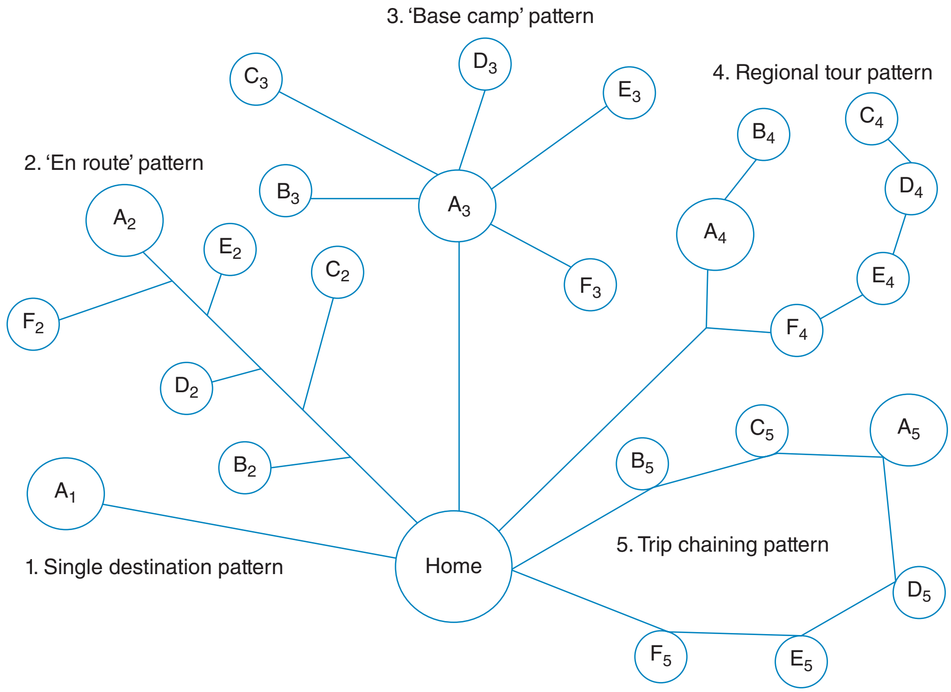

Fig. 52. Lue *et al.*'s alternative model for the spatial patterns of pleasure trips. (From Lue *et al.*, 1993, p. 294.)

area of tourist appeal. Within this area, individual destinations have their own power of attraction, but their differences allow a variety of visitor needs to be met in the same geographical area. In these structures, the marketing challenge for each individual destination is to address the complementarity of the other destinations in the region and cooperate with those destinations to create value to the overall trip. At minimum, this will result in joint promotional efforts that communicate all of the benefits that travellers can receive when they visit the region.

Finally, trip chaining involves a large tour in which the traveller moves from one destination to another, with these destinations possibly competing for visitors' attention and overnight stays. This pattern is typical of some tourist travel packages, such as those in which several European countries are visited in a short amount of time.

Oppermann (1995) developed a model of travel itineraries by refining prior models (Fig. 53), particularly those of Lue *et al.* (1993) and Mings and McHugh (1992). Oppermann's model is divided into two types of travel patterns: single destination and multiple destinations. The first pattern includes the single destination (S1) and the 'base camp' (S2). The author also proposes five types of multiple destinations: stopover pattern (M1), full loop (M2), destination area loop (M3), 'open jaw' loop (M4) and multiple destination areas loop (M5). The single destination patterns (S1 and S2) and the first three types of multiple destination patterns (M1, M2 and M3) correspond to patterns identified by Mings and McHugh (1992) and Lue *et al.* (1993). The 'open jaw' loop (M4) is a type of long-haul trip very common in countries such as New Zealand, where international travellers use different arrival and departure points (it is common to enter through Auckland and depart through Christchurch; see Lohmann and Zahra, 2010). The multiple destination areas loop (M5) is a combination of the destination area loop (M3) and the 'open jaw' loop (M4). According to Oppermann (1995, p. 58), in the multiple destination areas loop, 'the tourist visits completely different regions and travels to a number of places within each region'. The most typical example of this pattern is the around-the-world trip. Once again, New Zealand is a type of destination that receives many tourists with this characteristic. It is common to find young European students

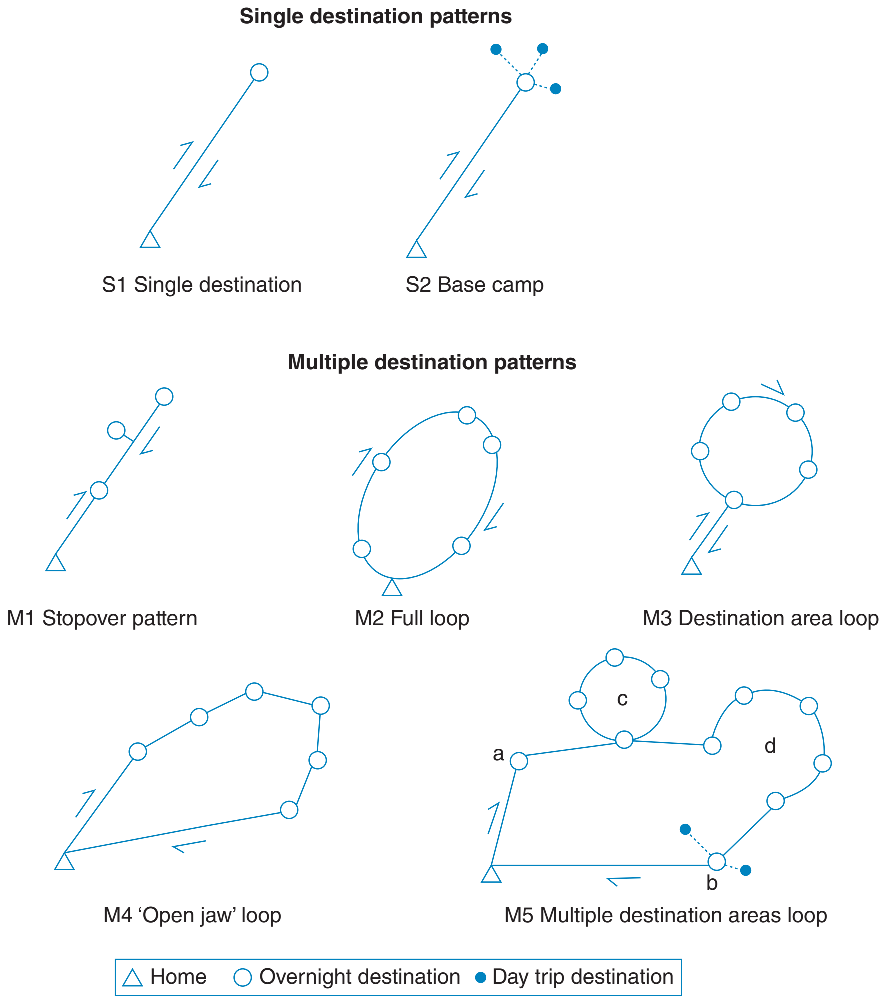

Fig. 53. Oppermann's tourist flow patterns. (From Oppermann, 1995.)

or professionals, particularly German and English people, who take several months of vacation to travel the world. They thus have time to visit various countries, spending weeks or even months at their destinations.

Operationalizing

One of the biggest challenges for tourism destinations characterized by multiple destination trips is to manage tourist travel patterns that go in a single direction. New Zealand is an example of this problem: many international tourists enter the country through Auckland, the main international port of entry to the North Island, and then travel south by car, often leaving the South Island by plane and either returning home via Auckland or departing for another destination abroad. Lohmann and Zahra (2010) analysed the difficulties faced by rental car companies attempting to reposition their fleet in northern distribution points, particularly those in Auckland and Picton, presenting the different logistics strategies and incentives offered.

Exercise

Discuss the following statement: 'European tourists visiting the USA tend to visit fewer tourism destinations in a single trip than do American tourists visiting Europe.' How do airlines and railways, respectively, contribute to facilitating the internal movements of international tourists in the USA and Europe?

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4.7 Defert's Tourist Function Index

Pierre Defert's (1966) tourist function (TF) index measures tourist 'intensity' or 'activity' by comparing a destination's population (p) with the number of tourists (n). Because of the difficulty in his time of obtaining accurate statistical data on the number of tourists, Defert (1966) replaced the number of tourists with the total number of beds at the destination (n) using the following formula:

$$TF = \frac{n \times 100}{p}$$

When there is no tourist accommodation ($n = 0$), Defert's index is also equal to zero (TF = 0). In contrast, in cases in which there is no resident population ($p = 0$), as in the example of a national park, Defert's index has a value equal to infinity (TF = ∞).

According to Defert (1966), choosing the number of beds to measure tourist activity may result in inconsistencies. For example, whereas large cities can have a considerable number of beds that will receive tourists throughout the year, destinations with an extremely seasonal market (e.g. ski and beach **resorts**) may have the same accommodation capacity even though they receive far fewer tourists. The other issue is that different types of **accommodation** may have different types of **demand** (e.g. campgrounds versus hotels). Finally, it is important to consider that using Defert's index to analyse the supply of commercial accommodation in a **tourism destination** may cause distortions because tourists can choose to spend the night with friends or relatives or even in secondary residences, which would not be considered in an analysis that only addresses commercial accommodations.

In any case, Defert's index can be structured to provide some evidence of the importance of tourist activity within the context of tourism destinations. Boyer (1972; cited by Pearce, 1995) proposed a classification divided into six ranges for Defert's index, specified below:

- TF > 500: 'hyper-tourist' resorts.
- 100 < TF ≤ 500: large tourist resorts.
- 40 < TF ≤ 100: predominantly tourism destination.
- 10 < TF ≤ 40: destinations with important but not predominant tourist activity.
- 4 < TF ≤ 10: little tourist activity, or the tourist function is 'submerged' into other urban activities.
- TF ≤ 4: practically no tourist activity.

Defert's index was one of the first to be implemented in tourism, and it can be used as a variable in different studies. According to Smith (2010, p. 132), 'it can also be tracked over time or across space to examine how the index varies in different situations'.

Operationalizing

Considering that the emergence of the collaborative economy has provided tourists with access to other types of accommodations, such as Airbnb (Zervas *et al.*, 2014), Defert's model will eventually need to be updated. For example, it could be redefined to (i) include other accommodation supply indicators, such as the number of beds offered by Airbnb, while maintaining its simplicity; or (ii) possibly include other tourist **supply** factors (e.g. air **transport**, cruises, number of rental cars) because considering only the number of beds is not always appropriate.

Exercises

1. Obtaining data for population and number of beds in tourism destinations that you have visited, calculate and compare their TF indexes.
2. Discuss the following phrase: 'Cruise ships can be considered hyper-tourism destinations because they have no local population.'

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4.8 Pearce and Elliott's Trip Index

Pearce and Elliott (1983) proposed a trip index (TI) that compares the amount of time spent at a destination with the total time of the tourist's trip. Although knowing the number of nights that tourists will stay at a **tourism destination** is a measure that can evaluate how they use the tourism destination, this absolute measure (e.g. one night) alone does not indicate the destination's importance to the tourist. For example, if a tourist is only spending one night at a destination but is on a 10-day trip to two other destinations, this shows that the first destination is not as important and that it may only be a stopping point in the middle of the trip. If, in contrast, this night is the only night the tourist is spending away from home, it has much greater importance because it is the most important destination of the trip. The formula below shows how the TI is calculated:

$$TI = (dn/tn) \times 100$$

where *dn* is the number of nights at a particular tourism destination and *tn* is the total number of nights spent on the trip.

Thus, when the TI is equal to 100, the entire number of nights away from home is spent at a single tourism destination. In contrast, when the TI is 10, this destination represents 10% of the total trip. A TI equal to zero means that the tourist did not spend a single night at the destination, indicating that it is merely a stopping place or that only vacationist travel occurred there. Below is a classification of the TI intervals:

- In transit or vacationist travel: TI = 0.
- Short stop: $0 < TI \leq 10$.
- Intermediate stop: $10 < TI \leq 20$.
- Long stop: $20 < TI \leq 50$.
- Primary destination: $50 < TI < 100$.
- Only destination: TI = 100.

Operationalizing

In the same study in which Pearce and Elliott (1983) proposed the TI, they also applied the concept to two destinations on New Zealand's South Island: Westland National Park and Christchurch; the latter is the most important city on the South Island. In both cases, travellers were asked about the length of their stay in these places, along with the total length of their trip. In the case of international tourists, only their time of stay in New Zealand was of interest. The TI was calculated for each questionnaire applied, and they were all grouped as shown in Table 20.

When the data shown in Table 20 are compared for both destinations, the following characteristics are noted:

1. Westland National Park is typically a short-stop destination because more than half of respondents had a TI between 1 and 10. Furthermore, one-fifth of the sample had a TI equal to zero, which shows the proportion of visitors that did not stay overnight at the park. Only a small percentage of tourists (2.2%) spent their entire trip at this destination (TI = 100).
2. Christchurch is also an important stopping destination, but intermediate (TI = 11–20) and long (TI = 21–50) stops are just as important as short stops (TI = 1–10). In other words, Christchurch is visited by many tourists as part of a tour – which, incidentally, is a characteristic of New Zealand tourism, particularly among foreigners – although these visitors do spend proportionately more time in the city than at the National Park. It is also clear that a higher percentage of tourists have Christchurch as either their primary destination (TI = 51–99) or their only destination (TI = 100).

In addition to providing a comparative overview of both destinations (Table 20), the authors also calculated the TI after dividing the sample according to (i) total trip time (1–7 days, 8–14 days, 15–21 days, 22–28 days or more than 28 days); (ii) primary reason for the trip (**leisure**, **events**, business, or visiting friends and relatives); and (iii) the visitor's place of origin: domestic (South Island or North Island) or international.

Table 20. The trip index for Christchurch and Westland National Park. (From Pearce and Elliott, 1983.)

Trip index	Westland National Park (n = 1028)	Christchurch (n = 756)
0	20.8%	2%
1–10	55.5%	23%
11–20	16.3%	25%
21–50	4.5%	21%
51–99	0.7%	9%
100	2.2%	17%
Undeclared	–	3%

Exercise

Consider two different tourist segments: tourist resorts and backpackers. Which of the two would you expect to have the higher TI? Now think about tourists of different nationalities who visit your country. Can you identify different types of travel patterns among these tourists to the point that you can estimate which ones should have a higher TI?

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4.9 Transport and Tourism Mobility

WITH THIAGO ALLIS

The emergence of a new paradigm of mobility has shed light on the multiple forms of movement in contemporary times, including those motivated by **leisure** and tourism. This entry considers both the 'soft' (feelings of the travellers, their fears and expectations, gender relations and all types of experiences) and the 'hard' (e.g. technology, infrastructure, transport) aspects of movement. Mobilities theory thus 'builds on a range of philosophical perspectives to more radically rethink the relation between bodies, movement, and space' (Sheller, 2014, p. 792) and recognizes different social spaces, which orchestrate sociabilities around points connecting broad networks of movements across the whole world (Sheller and Urry, 2006).

The spaces of airports – essential elements for understanding modern tourism – represent nodes of mobilities (Lohmann *et al.*, 2009) and illustrate a socio-technical system, which articulates masses of people and objects within global relationships, relativizing time and space (Sheller and Urry, 2006). Aeroplanes, air routes and the airport itself all form **landscapes** of contemporary aeromobility (Adey *et al.*, 2007), which, in addition to the movement of contingents of passengers, give rise to relationships, feelings and experiences. In this approach, an airport is not a sterile space or a 'non-place', as proposed by Augé (1992). Instead, it is filled with affective expressions of hope, fear, enjoyment, sadness and many other emotions inherent to contemporary mobilities (Adey, 2008a,b).

At the operational level, a transport system can be defined as a set of components associated with one or more transport modes that not only connect a tourist trip's place of origin to a particular tourism destination (and vice versa) but also connect different **tourism destinations** with each other or help visitors move within a tourism destination. A transport system is basically comprised of four physical elements (also known as components or essentials) that structure spaces and moments of mobility in different ways, as indicated below (Faulks, 1965; Boniface and Cooper, 2001):

- *Way*: the means used by the transport. There can be three types: natural, artificially enhanced natural and artificial. Natural ways, such as air or sea, can generally be used at no cost. One example of an artificially enhanced natural way is rivers that have been dredged or have had their banks enlarged for navigation (Prideaux and Lohmann, 2009). Finally, purely artificial ways, such as railways and roads, are completely manmade and impose costs for both their construction and maintenance. The type of way chosen for a particular transport system will characterize both the vehicle used on it and the terminal.
- *Vehicle*: various transport vehicles are constructed to operate on a particular way and will greatly influence the transport mode chosen by the traveller. Their technology can provide greater flexibility and privacy, as in the case of the car, or higher speed and greater range, as in the case of the aeroplane. Some vehicles, such as trains, are confined to one-way travel.
- *Power*: the development of power is strongly related to the technology of vehicles and ways. Furthermore, the expansion of transport and, consequently, of tourism, occurred because of the development of power. It is also important to note that the power of a particular transport mode is intimately related to that mode's range, speed and passenger/cargo capacity.
- *Terminal*: the place that provides access to a means of transport. It can function as a means to transfer either from one transport mode to another or between vehicles in the same mode (passengers in transit). The more interconnected a given terminal, the more choices its users will have for arriving from or departing on their travels (e.g. airports and highways connected to subways, railway stations with bus access). Currently, many transport

terminals are expanding their activities to include businesses and other services, such as hotels, convention and exhibition centres, restaurants and cinemas for passengers and other potential customers (Lohmann *et al.*, 2009).

Table 21 presents the main characteristics of different transport modes for the way, vehicle and power elements.

Transport can also be classified according to the following criteria:

- *Public or private*: public transport can be accessed by anyone, provided they acquire the rights and privileges to use it (by purchasing passes or tickets, e.g. interstate buses, taxis, ferries and commercial aircraft). Private transport is restricted to a specific person or organization (e.g. private car and chartered bus; see Lohmann *et al.*, 2010).
- *Mode*: transport mode is associated with the technology of the transport vehicle and the type of way on which it operates, which can be air, rail, road or water (Table 21 presents the main characteristics of various transport modes).
- *Regular or irregular*: regular transport follows a schedule that has been announced previously; its departure is mandatory, regardless of the number of passengers ready to travel. Irregular transport, which includes charters, exists for a specific purpose and has no need to follow schedules and departures. The term irregular transport does not refer to smuggling, i.e. an activity not authorized by the transport authority.
- *Domestic or international*: transport within a country and transport between countries, respectively.

Motorization – particularly 'automobilization' (Divall and Revill, 2005) – was inextricably linked to an increase in tourism during the 20th century. Thus, before and even after the jet era (beginning in the 1950s), 'drive tourism' (especially in industrialized countries) contributed greatly to the consolidation of modern tourism (Prideaux and Carson, 2010).

The growth of tourist mobility raises concerns from an environmental perspective; although tourism's share of CO_2 emissions is only 5% of total emissions, three-quarters of those emissions come from passenger transport, primarily air transport (Dubois *et al.*, 2011).

Therefore, the growth in the **demand** and increased supply of different transport modes that are highly dependent on fossil fuels (aeroplanes, cars, buses, cruise ships) now requires measures to mitigate their environmental (high greenhouse gases, global warming, noise, visual intrusion), economic (congestion costs, loss of urban land for pavement, public health costs) and social (loss of street life and public safety, antisocial behaviour, road rage) impacts (Schiller *et al.*, 2010).

In this context, transport planning guided by 'business as usual' standards – as both a cause and a result of hypermobility – has been gradually replaced by models that prioritize **sustainability** issues (Table 22), which also obviously concern tourist transport.

Previously, the dominant transport paradigm concealed many aspects of both cost and environmental impact in passenger and cargo mobility solutions (Schiller *et al.*, 2010, p. 2). Therefore, following the strong expansion in motorization over the second half of the 20th century, the need to build more road infrastructure was seen in most countries as unquestionable. This is 'business as usual' planning, i.e. to continue planning and implementing policies, systems and infrastructure to meet the current demand of the transport matrix, with little criticism of its constitution.

On the other hand, since the 1980s, when reflections on the limits of natural resources gained international audiences, sustainability has also been considered a necessity for transport, even though measures and attitudes vary greatly from country to country. In a scenario of 'business as usual' growth, greenhouse gas emissions and the energy consumption of urban transport are expected to increase by 50% before 2030 and by more than 80% by 2050, compared with 2009 data (UITP, 2015a). In turn, the trend for urban mobility in developing countries involves an increase in motorization rates (an average annual growth of 4.3% per year between 1995 and 2012) and a gradual reduction in the use of public transport (from 35.5 to 23.7% in the same period), which is the opposite of that observed in developed countries (UITP, 2015b). Thus, 'the appeal of car ownership for new middle classes [in developing countries] is likely to offset these efforts and drive these countries into the same vicious circle that affected developed economies in the second part of the 20th century' (UITP, 2015a, p. 11).

In countries with a clear trend toward greater motorization, it will be difficult to use measures to control or contain road demand – even for touristic movements – which will make it difficult to reverse

Table 21. The main characteristics of transport modes. (Adapted from Boniface and Cooper, 2001.)

Mode	Way	Vehicle	Power	Advantages	Disadvantages	Further details
Road	Usually on roads, but off-road recreational vehicles also exist.	Cars and buses. Low capacity in terms of passengers transported.	Petrol, diesel, gas, ethanol and even electric engines.	Door-to-door flexibility. Best suited for short and medium-length trips.	Because the way is shared by other vehicles, traffic jams may occur.	Door-to-door flexibility allows tourists to choose their preferred route. It enables them to bring their own tourism equipment. It also acts as a link between transport terminals and the final destinations. It functions as mass transport for tours in tourist areas.
Rail	Permanent way with tracks.	Locomotives, cars and wagons. High capacity in terms of passengers transported.	Diesel engines (diesel/electric or diesel/hydraulic). They can also be purely electric or steam powered.	Because the way is not shared by other vehicles (trains), it offers flexibility in terms of increasing the number of wagons transported (ideal for locations with a large seasonal tourist flow). Suitable for medium- and long-distance travel or densely populated urban areas.	High fixed costs. Need for integration because it is not door-to-door.	In the mid-19th century, rail opened a path to areas that had not previously been accessible for tourism. Special cars can be added (e.g. sleeping, scenic). Transcontinental and scenic routes transport a significant volume of tourists.
Air	Natural: air.	Aeroplanes. High capacity in terms of passengers.	Turboprop or turbojet engines.	Speed and worldwide coverage (every place in the world can be accessed within 24 hours of flight). Suitable for medium-length and long trips.	High fuel consumption. Because of safety regulations, it is expensive.	Because of its speed and worldwide coverage, global mass tourism has become possible.
Water	Natural: sea, rivers and lakes.	Ships, boats and ferries. May have a high degree of comfort. High capacity in terms of passengers (generally, it has the highest passenger and cargo capacity).	Diesel engine or steam turbine.	Lower initial investment (there is no need for ways). Suitable for both long and short trips. Because of its size, it can offer great comfort for passengers (cruises). Furthermore, it offers convenience in terms of transporting people and vehicles (roll-on, roll-off) through ferries.	Low speed (an aeroplane can cross the Atlantic more than 20 times, whereas a ship makes a single trip in the same time). High labour costs.	Currently confined to maritime and river cruises (where luxury and comfort can be offered) and ferries.

Table 22. Comparison of business as usual and sustainable transport. (From Schiller *et al*., 2010, p. 3.)

Business as usual	Sustainable transport
Emphasizes mobility and quantity (more, faster)	Emphasizes accessibility and quality (closer, better)
Emphasizes one mode (unimodality, automobility)	Emphasizes plurity (multimodality)
Often lacks good connections between modes	Emphasizes interconnections (intermodality)
Plans and builds based on forecasts of likely demand (predict and provide)	Seeks to interrupt and reverse harmful trends
Expands roads to respond to travel demand	Works backwards from a preferred vision to planning and provision (deliberate and decide)
Ignores many social and environmental costs	Manages transport or mobility demand
Transport planning often in 'silos' disconnected from environmental, social and other planning issues	Incorporates full costs within planning and provision
	Emphasizes integrated planning combining transport with other relevant areas

or reduce 'harmful trends'. In developed economies, however, 'public authorities are well aware of the consequences of car dependency and are often willing to give priority to the development of public transport (notably through better organisation and procurement)' (UITP, 2015a, p. 11).

This trend can feed sustainable planning measures for tourist transport, such as encouraging the use of bikes for tourism. Examples include Canada's Bike Train, which is used to access the tourist areas around Niagara Falls during the summer (http://www.biketrain.ca/) and EuroVelo, a network of 14 cycling routes with more than 45,000 kilometres throughout Europe (http://www.eurovelo.org). The use of bicycles – on an urban or a regional scale – creates opportunities for a different contact with landscapes and is also a way to connect tourist attractions and destinations with a very low environmental impact.

Overall, 1.3 billion international tourists have been forecast for 2020, and 378 million of those tourists should be long-distance travellers, representing an average annual growth of 5.4% per year for 1995–2020, against 3.8% for intraregional markets in the same period (WTO, 2015). Of that total, the South-east Asian and Pacific markets should grow from 14.4% in 1995 to 25% in 2020. These figures do not consider domestic flows in large, populous countries such as China, Indonesia, Brazil, India, Mexico and the USA. In 2014, ten of the 20 busiest airports in the world were located in Asia or the Middle East (ACI, 2015).

It can thus be difficult to apply transport sustainability parameters to the many aspects of tourist travel; in the logic of global tourism, greater flows (and associated with this, greater distances travelled) are generally understood as indicators of success.

In this sense, the 'closer, better' principle cannot always be sustained in tourism. Although the location of activities (residence, work, **leisure**) in urban planning can be stimulated or defined by public policies (thus reducing travel needs), tourist attractions are unique and fixed, and contingents of travellers are mobile and come from all corners of the world. Thus, the more people – from the most varied and distant places – who want to see the Eiffel Tower (France) or the Great Wall of China, the more transport structures and services will be activated, with a strong emphasis on long-distance air transport.

Intermodality and multimodality – another aspect to be developed within the framework of transport sustainability – are characteristics of tourist movements, although more by necessity than by an actual decision for sustainability. However, an integrated vision that is articulated with other areas – as opposed to transport planning in 'silos' – may represent a stimulus for structuring more sustainable measures for tourist movements and their impacts on different scales. Although the construction of major highways generates more connectivity and accessibility, it can also lead to uncontrolled occupation of areas with tourist potential. The impact of a highway thus goes far beyond localized interferences caused by its construction; it also creates environmental and social damage, which can decrease the touristic competitiveness of certain regions or even impair tourist activity.

Ultimately, discussions about the 'decarbonization' of tourism will lead societies to 'reflect on which forms of tourism and transport can still be supported', and it is necessary to seek answers to questions such as 'who can travel, for how long, using which transport mode, why, and how comfortably' (Dubois *et al.*, 2011, p. 1041).

Thus, in a certain sense, any discussion about slow travel also allows an analysis of expressions of differentiated mobilities, in which the main concern may not be faster access at a lower cost with more comfort, as is common in transport-planning methodologies. Thus, in the case of tourism, moving more slowly on an individual level may be a form of relativizing the weight of transport efficiency according to conventional parameters (price, speed, comfort). For example, on tourist trains or railways – of which there are approximately 140 in the UK (Hall, 2008) and almost 50 in South America (Allis *et al.*, 2015) – the idea of 'utility' is clearly less relevant than its 'intrinsic experiential value' (Hall, 2008) (Fig. 54).

The utility of various transport modes is expressed in the fulfilment of their basic function, i.e. a set of services that move people between different points, with certain costs, travel times and comfort levels – as elements of the transport systems presented earlier. However, 'transport can [also] provide a tourism end in itself', which can 'be a focus of interest both because of its functions and also because of its intrinsic attributes'. In this sense, 'the transport experience can be the primary, if not the exclusive tourism experience, embracing qualities of heritage, nostalgia, education, uniqueness, added-value and entertainment' (Hall, 2008, p. 207).

This raises other elements in the study of slow movement practices, which is filled with opportunities for tourist learning and experiences. Even parts of the transport system can create opportunities for tourist experiences that rely on subtle elements – for example, railway stations converted into railway museums or rail lines converted into bicycle routes, which, in addition to their touristic uses, stimulate the recycling of structures and spaces.

Exercise

Choose two points in your city or region that you judge to be touristic. Take a trip between them, using as many different transport modes as you can along the way. In this activity, try to observe how these structures and spaces are occupied by tourists, paying attention to their behaviour.

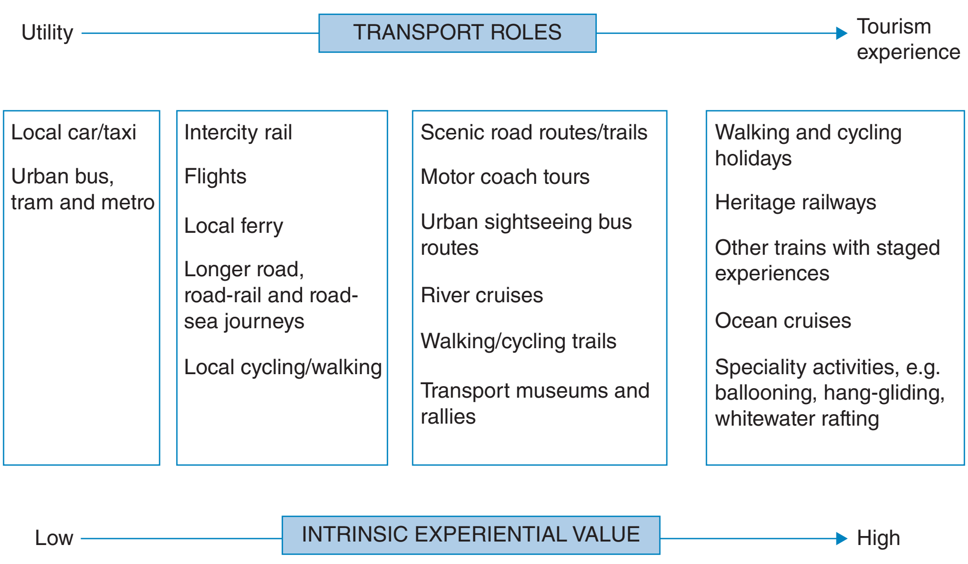

Fig. 54. Tourism-related experiential continuum for selected transport modes. (From Hall, 2008, p. 207.)

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Section 5: The Tourism Destination

(WITH PARTICIPATION FROM CRISTINA BITTAR RODRIGUES)

5.1 Tourism Destinations

WITH CRISTINA BITTAR RODRIGUES

The tourism destination, as opposed to the origin (see '**Nodal functions**'), refers to the place where tourists intend to spend their time when they are far from home. The geographical unit visited by tourists can vary in scale (a town or village, a city, a region or an island, or even an entire country) and in morphology (coastal, mountainous, island, urban or rural destinations) (Lohmann and Duval, 2014). A destination can also be a single location, a set of multiple destinations that form a tour or even a mobile destination, as in the case of ocean cruises. Tourism destinations have received increasing attention from governments and scholars. In the first case, there are a growing number of agencies promoting and coordinating tourism destinations, sizeable budgets to finance the promotion and development of tourism destinations, and a complex and divergent form of engaging with touristic activity, depending on whether these agencies have a public- or private-sector focus (Valente *et al.*, 2014). In the academic field, this development is evidenced by recently released books focusing particularly on analysing tourism destinations (Wang and Pizam, 2011; Morrison, 2013), along with the establishment of the *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management* in late 2012.

Cho (2000) found that the following five elements influence the attractiveness of a tourism destination:

- *Tourist attractions*: natural (scenery, climate, beaches), built (historical sites, amusement parks), cultural (museums, art galleries) and social (encounters with local inhabitants) (Timothy, 1995; Shoval and Raveh, 2004).
- *Amenities*: **lodging**, **transport**, food and beverage services, **entertainment**, shops and tourist information centres. The capacity and quality of the accommodations offered are particularly important to the success and development of a tourism destination (Sharpley, 2000). Visits to stores and shopping centres are also increasingly becoming a touristic activity and, in the case of many destinations (e.g. United Arab Emirates and Singapore), are an essential aspect of choosing a trip (Heung and Qu, 1998; Yuksel, 2004; Henderson *et al.*, 2011).
- *Accessibility*: how easily the tourist can reach destinations and move around within them (see '**Transport and tourism mobility**' for more details).
- *Image*: tourists' ideas and the impressions they have of a tourism destination, which are an important aspect of **tourism marketing**. Image has become a key factor for the traveller's decision in the destination-choice process. Ever-increasing competition among different destinations demonstrates the need for an effective plan and marketing strategies (Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001). Various distribution channels contribute to promoting a tourism destination's information and marketing campaigns, including tour operators and travel agents (Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001), recommendations from friends and relatives or 'word of mouth' (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999), media, movies, television shows, literature and previous experiences.
- *Price*: varies depending on the type and class of service (lodging, transport, activities), seasonality (particularly in coastal **resorts** and recreational areas) and distance from the destination. Price can also characterize the type of tourism destination and attract various tourist profiles, such as luxury or budget, popular or differentiated. As in the case of image, price is an important aspect in the competition among tourism destinations.

Several models have been proposed for the process of choosing a tourism destination (e.g. see '**Crompton's destination-choice model**'). These models usually incorporate aspects related to the travellers, including their **motivational factors**, the external stimuli that they receive (e.g. tourism marketing), and the structure of the decision-making process itself. According to Rodrigues (2014), the push–pull destination choice model is important because once public and private tourism managers understand a tourism destination's attributes and tourists' motivations, they can prioritize investments in both the destination and promotional activities. However, push–pull models fail because they do not consider how tourists prioritize their decisions, regardless of whether they are based on push reasons or pull reasons for choosing one destination out of many.

Instead of maintaining or reproducing the popular push–pull model, Saraniemi and Kylanen (2011) applied a cultural approach. This approach defines the tourism destination as a set of institutions and actors located in a physical or virtual space in which sales-related operations and activities defy the traditional production–consumption dichotomy. The cultural approach shows that a tourism destination should be analysed not only from administrative and marketing perspectives but also by considering both multicultural and globalized markets.

Some models attempt to explain the development of tourism destinations from various perspectives, including a modification of spatial relationships, changes in visitors' psychological needs and evolutionary cycles (Prideaux, 2000). These perspectives include both Butler's model (see '**Butler's model (tourism destination life cycle)**' and Prideaux's model (see '**Prideaux's resort-development spectrum**').

Competition among tourism destinations is an important issue in the tourism market. Competitiveness is associated with the maintenance of cultural wealth and historical heritage, the preservation of environmental attractions, and an increasing number of operators with the ability to sell value-added tourism products, improving customer satisfaction through satisfying experiences at the destination (Dwyer *et al.*, 2014). For a tourism destination to compete in the tourism market, it should have comparative advantages, a term that refers to the existence of natural and/or artificial resources at the destination, and competitive advantages, a term that refers to the destination's ability to use these resources effectively (Ritchie and Crouch, 2000; Dwyer and Kim, 2003). Competitiveness should be evaluated from a long-term perspective (Dwyer *et al.*, 2014) because sustainable management is a crucial aspect for the destination to compete in the domestic and international markets. The main problem with most studies on the competitiveness of tourism destinations is that they focus on which tourism products are offered and the added value that they produce. Studies that analyse competitiveness from the tourist's perspective are still nascent (Andrades-Caldito *et al.*, 2014), although it would be good for this to change.

Every tourism destination is exposed to political, economic, natural, social or technological changes. Currently, the travel and tourism sector has been experiencing crises and disasters involving terrorism, economic instability, epidemics and natural disasters (Calgaroa *et al.*, 2014). According to Ghaderi and Henderson (2013), tourism destinations should be prepared for disasters and crises: such incidents usually reduce people's propensity to travel to the destination because of a lack of personal safety. An absence of crisis and disaster management can lead to unfavourable opinions and a negative image of the tourism destination.

Operationalizing

The Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA) recommended that the Bali authorities create a manual for recovering from crises and natural disasters (PATA, 2003; Pike, 2008). The manual provides a list of critical tasks to be carried out if there is a crisis or disaster at the destination. This example shows how important it is for a tourism destination to prepare for situations that can influence the destination's image and decrease the flow of tourists.

Exercise

Choose one country with high levels of wealth and quality of life and one country with low levels of wealth and quality of life. List the three main tourist attractions at each of these destinations. Compare the three attractions in terms of the number of visitors received, their origin, the diversity of tourist attractions, amenities, accessibility, image and price.

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5.2 Tourism Organizations

WITH CRISTINA BITTAR RODRIGUES

Tourism is an activity that involves a large number of agents, and it requires complex integration among those responsible for its development. In this sense, it is crucial to have bodies that bring together representatives from different sectors and establish guidelines for developing tourism in their fields. Thus, for example, a municipal department of tourism will pursue tourism development within the municipality, always relying on state guidelines, which in turn are based on the national tourism plan. That plan is created by considering the country's cultural, environmental, social and economic characteristics, following the basic guidelines of the World Tourism Organization (WTO), along with prior studies that have been recognized as valuable in the academic and professional community.

Tourism bodies can be divided into public, mixed and private, as explained by Acerenza (2000):

- *Public body*: created by the government within its own administration structure. Its decisions have the most impact because they have the force of law, although the natural bureaucracy of public agencies can obstruct the implementation of their actions. Some examples of this type of body are tourism ministries, and state and municipal tourism departments.
- *Mixed body*: has official (public) and private participation in its capital. Its link to public entities is small, and it is headed by a director, who is supported by a board. In some cases, the government has veto power over the implementation of its actions. Its function is operative because only the government has supervisory power. Some examples of this type of body include Tourism Tropical North Queensland (TTNQ) and the Regional Tourism Organization for North Queensland, and Cairns and Great Barrier Reefs, Australia.
- *Private body*: recognized by the government and has an operative character. There are various types of private bodies, including professional associations, private institutions and non-governmental organizations (NGOs). One example is the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF).

According to Acerenza (2000, p. 253), in addition to the functions of promoting tourism,

> ...the activities of national tourism bodies are characterized by an intense coordination, both at an inter-ministerial level with other government ministries and departments, and an inter-governmental level with state or provincial governments, depending on the situation, and municipalities, in order to implement policies and measures to encourage the development of touristic activity throughout the national territory.

Furthermore, tourism bodies can be characterized according to their area of scope, such as international, national, state (or regional) and municipal. These bodies' objectives will depend on that scope. A tourism ministry has a national scope and is critical to the development of a **tourism public policy**, whereas a municipal tourism department can take local action that has little or no influence on the establishment of a national policy but is very important for tourism in the municipality. In the USA, for example, Morrison (2000, p. 361) noted that the smallest local organization representing a town or community was the Convention and Visitors Bureau. In Australia, the smallest official local organization that represents tourism is the Local Tourism Association (LTA), which strengthens local tourism businesses through interaction with regional tourism authorities and state bodies. Tourism business owners are encouraged to participate in LTAs because such associations can provide numerous resources and opportunities to help operators in the travel and tourism sector carry out their day-to-day activities.

Depending on their configuration, tourism bodies can also be divided as follows:

- *Supranational agencies*: agencies maintained by different countries that support the development of the activity among their members. Examples include the WTO and the Caribbean Tourism Organization.

- *Professional associations*: formed by independent or non-independent professionals operating in tourism. One example of this type of association is the Rio de Janeiro State Union of Tourist Guides (Sindicado Estadual dos Guias de Turismo do Rio de Janeiro – SINDEGTUR).
- *Business associations*: formed by tourism or tourism-related companies. One example of a business association is the Australian Federation of Travel Agents and the International Youth Hostel Federation.
- *State bodies*: created by governments and committed to encouraging tourism development and marketing within their area of scope. Examples of state bodies include Tourism Australia, Visit Britain, Tourism New Zealand and state, regional and municipal departments of tourism.
- *Non-governmental organizations*: NGOs with touristic motivations, such as Turismo de Paz (Peace Tourism) and Turismo Justo (Fair Tourism; http://www.turismojusto.org), both Spanish organization, and the Brazilian Férias Vivas (Alive Holidays; http://www.feriasvivas.org.br).

Although tourism organizations usually seek to develop the sector, according to Pearce (2000, p. 587), such organizations have 'little control over the type and quality of products and services that are offered at the destination, and, to be effective, rely heavily on their ability to coordinate and have a leadership role'. Pearce also notes that the functions of tourism bodies include 'marketing, visitor services, development, planning, research, policy-making, regulation, human resource development and lobbying'.

Tourism bodies in various spheres are now called destination management organizations (DMOs), or in some cases, destination marketing organizations, because although marketing is one of the key functions of a DMO, it is not the only function. According to Morrison (2013), a DMO coordinates and integrates the management of attractions and **events**, tourist facilities, **transport**, infrastructure and **hospitality** resources. The role of a DMO includes leadership and coordination, planning and research, tourism product development, marketing and promotion, partnership and team building, and relationships with the local community (Morrison, 2013). Currently, a DMO not only directs a **tourism destination's** marketing but also leads the destination's tourism development.

One of the main problems experienced by tourism bodies is a lack of coordination and communication with each other in terms of developing projects and actions. According to Volgger and Pechlaner (2014), it is extremely important for tourism bodies to improve their ability to coordinate and communicate because doing so increases acceptance and trust in the tourism body on the part of both the tourism business and the community. Another problem is the clash between the interests of public administration and private bodies; although in most cases they are focused on the same object and purpose, they cannot reach an agreement about how to cooperate with each other.

In public bodies, particularly in countries with lower levels of economic and human development, one crucial problem is the lack of continuity in tourism projects that are begun and then terminated without achieving their objectives because of a change in the municipal, state or federal government. This problem arises from a culture that may be characterized, at minimum, as petty and short-sighted because the public-sector administrators who rise to power each term terminate the projects of the previous administrators, to avoid giving any credit for their success to a potential political opponent. This is why local tourist associations and boards are crucial for the continuity of projects; they are not tied to a political mandate and can survive without relying on government funding, despite being incentivized by it.

The decisions, intentions and objectives of tourism organizations may vary based on the pressure of public opinion, market laws, trade unions, the press, government agencies and other organizations. Public organizations, which in most cases have a greater responsibility for tourism and are supported by taxes, experience the greatest pressure. Therefore, politicians should use tax money to increase investments in tourist attractions. Tourism bodies are important because they can enhance the uniqueness of the tourism destination and its ability to attract tourists, thus strengthening the destination's competitiveness (Pike and Page, 2014).

Operationalizing

Regardless of whether you are a tourism student or a professional, be sure to read and analyse the WTO's *A Practical Guide to Tourism Destination*

Management 2007 (WTO, 2007). In addition, visit the UNWTO website at http://www2.unwto.org, which is the primary international tourism organization providing leadership and support to tourism worldwide.

Exercise

Create an organizational chart of the tourism bodies in your municipality, state and country. Explain how tourism administration works at each of these three administrative levels.

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5.3 Tourism Destination Image

WITH CRISTINA BITTAR RODRIGUES

Egypt: the pyramids and the Nile River; France: the Eiffel Tower and the Louvre Museum; Italy: the Vatican and the Coliseum; Peru: Machu Picchu and Inca **culture**; Rio de Janeiro: Copacabana and Christ the Redeemer. When speaking about a place, what causes someone to immediately think of an image? What meaning and importance does image have for tourism? Are there ways to use a **destination's** image as a type of **tourist attraction**? What does image represent for tourism?

According to the American Marketing Association (http://www.ama.org), image is 'the consumer perception of a product, institution, brand, business or person that may or may not correspond with "reality" or "actuality"'. Image is linked to the perception, understanding and idea that consumers, or people in general, have of the destination. It can be either positive or negative. For example, Hawaii brings to mind the beach, waves and surfing, whereas Paris evokes culture, the arts and fine dining.

Image is not the same as brand. A brand is related to the symbol, name or logo of a company that provides services and supplies products; it serves as a marketing strategy to position the company in the market. Figure 55 shows the logo of an advertising campaign that has been used since 1977 to promote tourism in New York City and, subsequently, to promote New York State. The trademarked logo is owned by New York State's Empire State Development and appears on both souvenirs and official brochures.

The AMA defines a brand as a name, term, sign, symbol or design, or any combination thereof, that intends to identify the products or services of one seller or group of sellers and distinguish them from the products or services of the competition. For Pike (2008), **a tourism destination's** image is a repertoire of brand associations that remain in the consumer's mind. It is generally interpreted as a compilation of beliefs and impressions based on processing information from many sources over time, resulting in a mental representation of a tourism destination's attributes (Zhang *et al.*, 2014).

It is important to note that a tourism destination's image is composed of cognitive, affective or conative components – or a combination thereof. The cognitive component refers to the tourist's beliefs and knowledge of the tourism destination. The affective component is represented by the feelings or emotional responses to the place's characteristics. The conative component is the tourists' behavioural manifestation and can be understood as consumption analogous to behaviour because the intention or action can be considered as the probability of visiting a destination (Zhang *et al.*, 2014). These components can be developed through either advertisements or previous visits to a tourism destination.

The study of image has become important in tourism because it decisively influences the choice of the destination to be visited by the tourist. Furthermore, because tourism is composed of goods and services, the consumer experience often occurs at the same time that the product or service is being produced, as in the case of a night at a hotel or a meal in a restaurant.

Individuals always have an image of a destination in mind, whether this image is positive or negative. If a tourist has a negative image of a destination, they are unlikely to visit it. For example, in the eyes of the foreigner, Cancun, Mexico, is identified as a place for nightclubs, partying and young people; a European family with small children, looking for a place to relax, will rarely visit.

Many images ultimately become stereotypes, i.e. characteristics that are emphasized in people's 'eyes'. Although these characteristics are present at the destination, the destination is not limited to them. Thus, a destination's image may be either real or not, and there are various elements that help form this image in the human intellect. These elements might include what friends said about the

Fig. 55. New York City's brand.

destination, what was read in a magazine, newspaper or website, what was seen on television, at the cinema or theatre, or what was heard or read about at church. The image formed from this information and created of the place can be either positive or negative; it can both reinforce stereotypes and radically change them.

For Llodra-Riera *et al.* (2015), in regard to forming a tourism destination's image, the Internet is a vastly important source, complementing information from traditional sources such as friends and acquaintances, travel agents, advertising, popular media and travel guides or documentaries. The Internet can influence the perception of a destination's image, and it is generally assumed that the Internet is an induced source.

Image is constructed over time, and the same destination may represent different images for different people. For example, Costa Rica represents one type of image for a person who has never been there and another type of image for someone who has already visited. These images will be different not only from each other but also from the image that a Costa Rican has of their own country.

Nevertheless, image is not stagnant; it can be changed by changing the destination's marketing strategy. Indeed, a marketing strategy to change a destination's image is insufficient to attract more tourists. The destination must also have adequate infrastructure, attractions and quality services and must be consistent with the image shown in the marketing campaign. It is better for a destination to have a poor image than to attempt to sell a false image to potential visitors.

Operationalizing

Danny Boyle's film 'The Beach', starring Leonardo DiCaprio, was released in 2000 and placed the Koh Phi Phi islands (Thailand) on the global backpacker route. However, less than 10 years after the film's release, the islands have lost their charm because of the large number of tourists who visit. Thus, the destination's image, which was that of a restricted, preserved, natural and almost secret place, began to be seen as a backpacker destination with environmental and social problems, considered almost a mass destination (see *Thailand: The Beach revisited*, at http://www.telegraph.co.uk/travel/bestbeaches/7270079/Thailand-The-Beach-revisited.html).

Exercise

Based on a sales promotion or advertising for a tourism destination, discuss the following questions:

1. Where is the tourism destination?
2. What image is a person likely to have of this tourism destination?
3. What image do you have of this tourism destination?
4. To what extent is the tourist's stereotype of the destination confused with the real tourist image of this tourism destination?
5. Does the advertising provide enough information for the consumer to form a correct (real) image of the destination being promoted?
6. Try to read and learn more about what the tourism destination is like, primarily using the Internet. Then determine whether your image of this destination has changed.

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5.4 Resorts

WITH CRISTINA BITTAR RODRIGUES

The term 'resort' is constantly used in the literature on tourism and is associated with diverse contexts and geographical scales, although rarely defined or clearly explained. In general, a resort is a place used for **recreation** and relaxation that primarily attracts holidaymakers. The first resorts were spa resorts, which appeared in Europe during the 17th century primarily because of the discovery of the medicinal properties of mineral waters (Lehn, 2004). Later, in the late 18th and early 19th centuries, seaside resorts emerged and became the focus of visits from many British and European tourists to cities such as Bournemouth, in southern England, and Nice, France, both of which soon became important tourism destinations. With the emergence of other tourism niches, new resorts have emerged, such as those dedicated to winter tourism (e.g. Aspen, Colorado) or thermal resorts such as Rotorua, New Zealand, and Caldas Novas, Brazil (see Fig. 56).

Pearce (2003) discussed the development and structure of coastal resorts. The author mentioned both the traditional European resorts and the new tourist resorts that have emerged in recent years, such as Cancun, Mexico. He also found that, whereas many resorts have been designed specifically to be resorts, others have emerged in an unplanned way. With regard to the morphological aspects of these resorts, three important factors must be taken into consideration: the local characteristics, the existing touristic elements and other urban functions. Physical context and cultural aspects play a key role in resorts' spatial structure. It is also important to note that **Butler's** (1980) model specifically refers to the stages of development of tourist resorts.

Papatheodorou (2004) examined the evolutionary patterns of resorts from an economic and geographical perspective. The model proposed by Papatheodorou discusses the dualism between market and spatial structures, in which powerful conglomerates (airlines, hotel chains, tour operators) commercialize territory in resorts that are located in peripheral destinations. As an example of the interaction between market forces and territory, Papatheodorou illustrated the concentration and power exercised by German tour operators at Mediterranean destinations, which are dominated by the English and German tourism markets. Given this situation, the author proposed adapting Butler's (1980) traditional model of the evolution of tourist resorts to consider various scenarios. These scenarios were summarized into two types of evolutionary patterns. In the first, the tourism flow either increases or decreases gently, accompanied by the resort's economic and territorial development. As an example of these resorts, Papatheodorou (2004) considered the various resorts of the Mediterranean. In the second, there is an abrupt change in the tourism flow, whether because of policy changes (e.g. the political opening of countries in the former Soviet Union), natural disasters or bankruptcy of the investors who drove the rapid growth of a particular location.

Resorts are generally places that can provide for all of the tourists' needs while they are on holiday; accordingly, they can range from very small towns to a large region. For this reason, many hotels have begun to be called resorts because they offer food and drinks, **lodging**, sports, **entertainment** and shopping opportunities on their own property. Disney World is a pre-eminent example of a modern resort. Private resorts exist around the world, particularly in Central America and the Caribbean, attracting visitors from the most varied regions of the globe. Examples include the Atlantis in the Bahamas; the Costa do Sauipe in Bahia, Brazil; Laguna Fuce in Thailand; Sun City, near Johannesburg, South Africa, and the Venetian in Macau. One type of commercial resort that has become popular in recent years is the all-inclusive resort, which charges a fixed amount that includes all activities, **entertainment** and food, including

Fig. 56. Thermal pool at Palace Hotel, Poços de Caldas, Brazil (photograph from Gui Lohmann).

alcoholic beverages. According to Ozdemir *et al.* (2012), all-inclusive resorts are often criticized because they discourage tourists from leaving the resort to interact with the local population. All-inclusive resorts cannot ignore the tourism destinations in which they are located because the destination has a strong effect on guest satisfaction levels (Ozdemir *et al.*, 2012).

The classic perception of a tourist resort is associated with coastal locations, and the academic literature on tourism contains many works illustrating the transformation of these mass-tourism coastal resorts (Chapman and Speake, 2011; Baidal *et al.*, 2013). However, an increasing number of studies are investigating other tourist resort morphologies, especially those located in rural, mountainous, urban and island areas (Prideaux, 2009; Lohmann and Duval, 2014). In addition to evaluating the tourism products offered and taking a simple measurement of the evolution in the number of tourists at a resort, a growing number of recent studies have focused on understanding the **demand** for tourists in resorts with various morphological characteristics, along with the local communities' reaction to the development of resort tourism (Látková and Vogt, 2012) and the evolution of governance structures to promote sustainable development (Gill and Williams, 2011).

Andriotis (2011) analysed three resorts on the Greek island of Crete, each with a different focus: coastal (Amoudara), urban (Heraklion) and rural (Archanes). Motivational and preferential differences for each type of resort were attributed to the socio-economic profile, motivation and preferences of the tourists who are attracted to each type of resort. For example, whereas cultural aspects were the primary factor for choosing the urban destination by three-quarters of the tourists visiting Heraklion, climate factors were the most important **motivational factor** for seven out of ten tourists visiting Amoudara. At the rural destination, there was a balance between the motivational factors of 'experiencing nature', 'experiencing the Greek lifestyle', climate factors and cultural factors. Furthermore, visitors to Heraklion were generally older and retired, mostly from the USA. The rural destination attracted younger travellers, mostly from the Netherlands. Finally, the seaside resort of Amoudara attracted lower income travellers, mostly families with children.

One aspect of resorts that is particularly sensitive is environmental and socio-cultural **sustainability**, which occurs primarily in mountain resorts, primarily because of the isolation of their communities and because they are deeply affected by **seasonality** (Pegg *et al.*, 2012). Social exclusion, decreased community cooperation and decreased quality of life are just some of the aspects that were identified by Ooi *et al.* (2015) in the community of Steamboat Springs, Colorado. Ski resorts are also susceptible to economic fluctuations, not only because of the seasonality of winter sports but also because of climate change (Gilaberte-Búrdalo *et al.*, 2014).

Operationalizing

The city of Gold Coast, Australia, is an example of a resort in which the tourism industry has always been responsible for the location's socio-economic development. Before being officially named Gold Coast in 1959, the region was known as South Coast, a reference to its role as a holiday resort for the people of Brisbane, the capital of Queensland, located 70 km north of Gold Coast (Prideaux, 2009). Therefore, the city of Gold Coast is a coastal recreation resort that attracts millions of tourists because of approximately 42 km of beaches that contain a continuous urban strip with lodging, shops and other entertainment and recreation infrastructure.

Exercise

Choose an all-inclusive resort in your country and discuss the positive and negative aspects of the resort in terms of the resident population and the resort's location.

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5.5 Butler's Model (Tourism Destination Life Cycle)

WITH CRISTINA BITTAR RODRIGUES

Butler[7] proposed a model that, despite the criticism of recent decades, best reflects the stages in the life cycle of a **tourism destination**, particularly that of a tourist **resort**. Using a concept from outside the area of tourism, Butler adapted the sales curve and the product life cycle to tourism. According to this model (Fig. 57), tourism destinations, and particularly tourist resorts, have at least five stages of development. Simply put, a destination moves from the initial stage of discovery (exploration) to a period of great tourist interest (stagnation), with an attendant growth in tourist infrastructure to receive mass tourism, with all of the social implications that this may have (Douglas, 1997).

The model traces changes in visitor rates and the development of infrastructure geared towards tourism (e.g. accommodation and tourist attractions). Theoretically, these stages of development are identified based on the number of tourists visiting the tourism destination, the typology of these tourists (cf. Cohen and Plog's typologies; see '**Traveller typologies**' and '**Plog's psychographic model**') and the growth rate of **tourism demand**. The stages of Butler's model are as follows:

- *Exploration*: the stage at which the first tourists arrive at a particular tourism destination; these are generally the type of tourists who Cohen classifies as 'explorers' and Plog classifies as 'allocentrics'. What most attracts tourists in this stage are exotic elements, the unknown and the unlikelihood of encountering other visitors. There is practically no accommodation infrastructure.
- *Involvement*: the second stage is marked by the presence of some tourist services provided by local inhabitants. Incidentally, the tourists' contact with the local inhabitants is quite intense in this stage of the destination's development.
- *Development*: in this stage, organizations outside the tourism destination start to invest in **tourism infrastructure** and the provision of **tourism services**, further stimulating growth in visitor numbers. Relationships with tourists become more formal because contact takes place through a more commercial structure.
- *Consolidation*: characterized by the dominance of companies that maintain the location's competitiveness with other tourism destinations.
- *Stagnation*: in the struggle for survival, because of the number of tourists who need to occupy the facilities to make them economically viable, prices fall and begin to attract demand from those with lower incomes. The location experiences economic, social and environmental deterioration. The physical facilities begin to deteriorate, and the attractions created for tourists in the development and consolidation phases age, go out of fashion and lose their attractiveness. The natural environment, which was once the greatest attraction, deteriorates because of misuse of the **landscape** related to the construction of hotels and other facilities, and the number of visitors exceeds the limits of the **carrying capacity**.

After these five stages, the destination may pass through other stages that will vary according to the response of the tourism destination's planners and administrators. Various scenarios are possible, including continuing stagnation, decline or rejuvenation. In this last situation, a restructuring process takes place at the **destination**; whereas some of the most competitive places can attract new investment to continue their development (e.g. shopping centres, **leisure** centres, convention centres and marinas), other destinations must significantly change their infrastructure (Williams, 2002). According to Butler (2009), the model can be useful for explaining the spatial distribution of tourist development on the grounds that when a tourism destination is reaching its development limit, factors such as lack of space, high land costs and the need for new developments can be solved by encouraging the

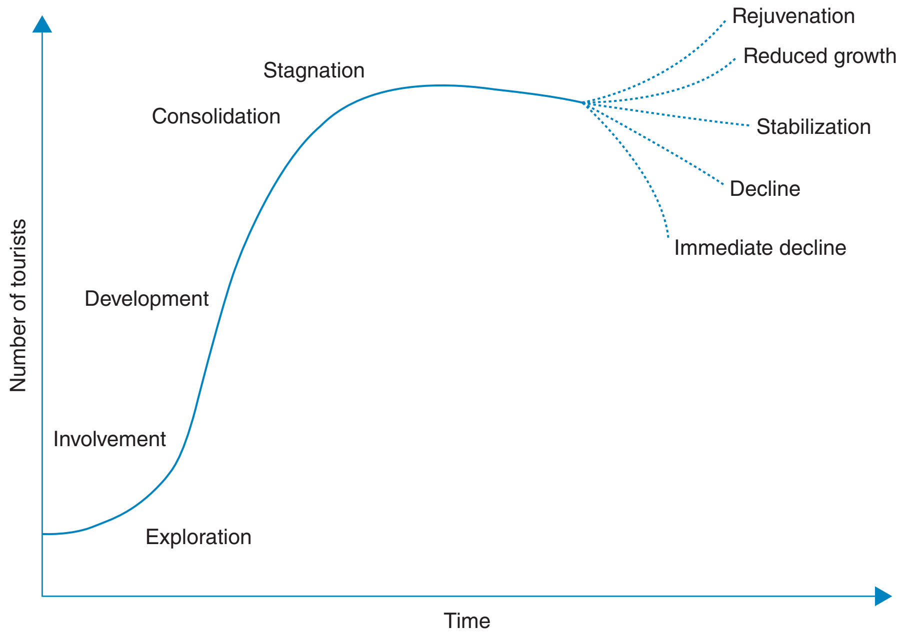

Fig. 57. The life cycle of a tourism destination. (From Butler, 1980.)

development of new attractions that have similar characteristics to the original attractions.

Fuster (1971), in a study published a few years before Butler's (1980) concept of the tourism destination life cycle, identified some aspects similar to the concept described here. Fuster argued that tourist centres can pass through two phases: (i) without tourism, and (ii) the birth, growth, saturation and 'dissolution' of touristic activity. The difference between two phases is that the second assumes a minimum level of touristic activities; this difference, according to Fuster, is difficult to estimate and in many cases is purely theoretical. It is impressive to observe the many parallels between Fuster and Butler's proposals. For example, Fuster suggests that a tourist centre can experience a decline after the saturation phase because it no longer knows how to adapt to changes in tourists' preferences. Another aspect proposed by Fuster is the possibility of rejuvenating tourist centres, which depends on many factors and will always be very particular to each destination analysed. As one example of revitalization, Fuster described the interesting case of Leysin, a village in the Swiss Alps with excellent climate and landscape conditions. In 1890, the Grand Hotel was built in Leysin; the hotel had 150 beds for treating tuberculosis, leading to the development of health tourism. Ten years later, a railway connection was installed, and just before World War II, there were approximately 3000 beds in Leysin's hospitals. The discovery of new antibiotic therapies in 1952 dramatically changed the village's life: the hospitals closed, and there was an exodus of much of the local population. This destination was rehabilitated because of the large availability of accommodation, in addition to the fact that it is privileged in terms of its climate and landscape. Thus, the decision was made to invest in social tourism, focusing primarily on families. The Grand Hotel was remodelled in 1956 and a travel agency was responsible for selling overnight stays. The next year, a ski lift was installed and skiing soon began. Because of these initiatives, other hospitals were converted into hotels and the location's economy rose again, with Leysin considered a model holiday destination.

According to Butler (2009), a tourism destination's future cannot be predicted in any detail because of the rapid changes and fierce competitiveness of the global market for tourism destinations. The tourism destination life cycle model works well with destinations that were consolidated in earlier times, when a destination's life cycle could be a century or more. Today, tourism destinations are reaching a period of decline within two decades of their establishment because of the increasing number of opportunities and options available to tourists.

Some studies have attempted to improve Butler's model. For example, Papatheodorou (2004) presented a new theoretical model that, unlike Butler's model, emphasizes that exogenous and endogenous changes in **supply** and demand in the spatial and temporal context influence a tourism destination's evolution and development. The model also focuses on the market's current dualism, in which consolidated tourism destinations can compete and divide a market with peripheral (less consolidated) tourism destinations.

Other studies criticize Butler's model. Hovinen (2002), for example, noted that Butler's model cannot predict the inevitability or extent of a drop in demand because it does not include the internal and external factors that influence the demand to visit a tourism destination. For Hovinen (2002), the model should emphasize the need for strategic planning and should not analyse the tourism destination based only on a life cycle. According to Haywood (1986), Butler's model provides insufficient insight into the development of **tourism public policy** and planning. Furthermore, the model does not consider that competitiveness among tourism destinations can affect the curve's shape. For Lundtorp and Wanhill (2001), Butler's model is more descriptive than normative, because it is merely a statistical approach; these researchers included a case study that includes the stages of the life cycle.

Finally, we recommend reading the entry on Plog's tourist typology presented in this book (see **'Plog's psychographic model'**), which mentions Butler's model to show how evolution through the different phases of a tourism destination can influence the type of tourist who will visit it.

Operationalizing

1. Two articles published by Johnston (2001a,b) in the journal *Tourism Geographies* address the theoretical and practical aspects of Butler's model in some depth, using a case study of the district of Kona on the island of Hawaii.
2. Ruschmann (1997, pp. 104–108) presented six key aspects to evaluate each phase of the model, illustrating it with an example from the island of Mallorca.
3. An article published in the *Annals of Tourism Research* by Garay and Canoves (2011) shows the value of the life cycle model for Catalonia, Spain. Using Butler's model, the article showed that a tourism destination can be sustainable and profitable through decisions made in the short term.

Exercise

Think of the tourism destinations that you know and try to identify at least one that exemplifies each of the five stages of the tourism product life cycle.

Note

[7] To learn more about the legacy of Professor Richard Butler, we suggest reading the article by Suntikul, W. (2014).

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5.6 Prideaux's Resort-development Spectrum

WITH CRISTINA BITTAR RODRIGUES

Based on studies developed for coastal **resorts** in the state of Queensland, Australia, Prideaux (2000) proposed a resort-development model called the resort-development spectrum. Although Prideaux's model has similarities to **Butler's** (1980) model, Prideaux's model considers the issue of development from an economic perspective. The proposed model is based on four stages of growth, with a possible fifth stage in which decline, stagnation or rejuvenation would occur. Each of the four stages of growth has numerous characteristics on both the **demand** and **supply** sides that determine the composition of the tourist resort market at a given time (Table 23). In the author's words (Prideaux, 2000, p. 233):

> The model postulates that growth occurs as a result of expansion of the resort's infrastructure and parallel development of new market sectors. The key components determining the shape of the growth curve are the willingness of suppliers to invest in new tourist facilities, the rate of construction of new or expanded transport infrastructure designed to transport additional tourists from new markets, capacity of the resort with respect to physical and ecological constraints and success in attracting new market sectors. The role of external political and economic forces will also become evident as the resort moves into the international market place.

Indeed, some of the factors presented by Prideaux can also be applied to Butler's (1980) model to explain what determines the progression from one stage to the next. The characteristics of each phase in the resort-development spectrum are presented in Table 23.

According to Prideaux (2009), the model recognizes that demand is a reflection of the destination's perceived uniqueness and depends on three factors:

1. The uniqueness of the **tourism destination's** natural, cultural and built attractions for local, national and international markets.
2. The level of interest that can be aroused in individual tourists by natural, cultural and built attractions and how they are marketed.
3. The destination's reputation in local, national and international markets in terms of price, quality and accessibility.

For Pritchard and Lee (2011), the resort-development spectrum depends on the success of attracting new market segments but is limited to discussing the tourist attractions available at the tourism destination. Therefore, there is a need to more deeply investigate how the attractions fit and how they would be impacted in the future during the transition between the spectrum's phases.

Although Prideaux's model may contribute to the analysis of resort destination development, particularly offering a detailed list of aspects that can be identified for the major characteristics in the four different phases, when analysing a destination with specific **nodal functions**, such as a gateway or hub, the model has limitations, especially in relation to **transport** characteristics. The reason is that, in the case of gateway destinations, the transport component may be at an advanced stage compared with the other major characteristics. Numerous destinations can be placed in this situation, with Lohmann and Pearce (2010) discussing the case of Wellington and Picton, the ferry gateways of the North and South Islands of New Zealand, respectively. Particularly in the case of Picton, a small town with a population of approximately 5000 inhabitants, transport facilities and services are disproportional to the scale and stage of the town's development as a tourism destination. Indeed, one of the key limitations of the tourism area life cycle (TALC) model of Butler (1980) is that it does not take into account external connections and their impact on the destination development.

Operationalizing

Port Douglas, a city in Northern Queensland, Australia, is an example of how some phases of the resort-development spectrum were skipped during a short period of time. Port Douglas was a fishing

Table 23. The resort development spectrum framework. (From Prideaux, 2000, p. 234.)

Major characteristics	Phase 1: Local tourism	Phase 2: Regional tourism	Phase 3: National tourism	Phase 4: International tourism
Principal markets	Locals	Similar to Phase 1, plus:	Similar to Phase 2, plus:	Similar to Phase 3, plus:
	People from nearby towns	Tourists travelling from areas within the state or region	Tourists who travel long distances from all parts of the nation	Emphasis on international tourism
		Possibly limited interstate tourist traffic passing through the area on route to a larger resort	State capital cities become primary markets	
Accommodation	Beach houses	Unit and apartment development occurs	3–4-Star hotels	International hotel chains establish resort hotels
	Caravan parks	2–3-Star resort motels appear	Integrated resorts	
	Licensed hotels (not resorts)	Caravan parks remain important	Internationally known hotel chains commence hotel development, e.g. Hilton, Ramada	Numerous 5-star hotels, which may incorporate golf courses, casinos and stage shows
	Inexpensive motels	Outside investment commences in hotels		
	Backpacker hostels			
Promotion	Local area and surrounding towns	Statewide	Establish professionally staffed promotion body	Very professional approach
	Undertaken by local progress and/or tourist associations	May attract government funds	Joint campaigns with state and local government and local businesses	May attract significant government funds
	Limited funds	Businesses operating in the resort advertise on an individual basis	Hotels and major attractions fund significant campaigns in national media	Corporate advertising very significant
	Limited professionalism	Increasing professionalism of advertising campaigns		
Tourism infrastructure	Limited to beach and nearby scenic areas such as parks	Commencement of a commercial sector based on tourism	Establishment of first theme park	Focus of tourist interest shifts from the beach to non-beach activities
	Limited shops catering to tourists and restaurants	Additional specialist shops	Expansion of shopping and dining opportunities specializing in tourism	Development of specialist shopping precincts
		Tour coach operators commence	Construction of a range of sporting facilities such as golf courses	Establishment of duty-free shopping

Continued

Table 23. Continued

Major characteristics	Phase 1: Local tourism	Phase 2: Regional tourism	Phase 3: National tourism	Phase 4: International tourism
		First manmade attractions built, generally on a small scale		Construction of convention centre and possibly a casino
Transport	Very limited in scope	Road access is significantly enhanced	Scheduled interstate air services commenced by national operators or affiliates	International air services commence
	Main mode is road	Other modes may be assisted by infrastructure development	Road access continues to be improved, e.g. freeways	Other modes continue to be developed
	Possibly some traffic from rail if the resort is located close to rail services No scheduled air services	Limited (if any) scheduled air services operated by local airlines	Other modes may be significantly redeveloped, e.g. sea terminals and rail services	Depending on distance to source markets, air may become the dominant mode

village that tolerated a small flow of second-home and caravan park tourists. Because of the development of the Sheridan Resort Hotel, the city began to attract international tourists and investors. The changes were rapid, and the city passed from Phases 1 and 2 directly to Phase 4; Phase 3 occurred much later, when accommodation was developed to attract national tourism (Prideaux, 2009).

Exercise

Give an example of one tourism destination in your own country that has passed through the four phases of the resort-development spectrum.

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5.7 Tourism Supply

WITH CRISTINA BITTAR RODRIGUES

If a restaurant owner in a tourist city were asked what they think tourism supply is, they would most likely say it is the food offered to tourists. Similarly, if a hotel owner were asked, they might say that tourism supply is **lodging** and accommodation. Both will say that their products are tourism supply, and they will be right.

All of the goods and services that are available to tourist consumers at a given price in a certain period of time can be characterized as tourism supply. These goods and services include airline tickets, rental vehicles, handicrafts, lunch at a restaurant, a concert, a play and a visit to a museum or amusement park, among others.

According to Embratur (1984), there are three categories of tourism supply:

- *Tourist attractions*: 'every place, object or event of interest to tourists, which motivates them to travel to see it'. These attractions can be 'natural [or] historio-cultural [attractions]; traditional and popular manifestations and uses; contemporary technical and scientific achievements; and scheduled events' (Embratur, 1984, p. 127).
- *Tourist facilities and services*: 'the set of buildings, facilities and services necessary to the development of touristic activity. Includes lodging; food, entertainment, booking and information services, and other tourism services' (Embratur, 1984, p. 139).
- *Tourism-supporting infrastructure*: 'the set of physical infrastructure projects and installations that create the conditions for developing a tourist unit: **transport** system, electricity, sewage system, water supply services, communication system, etc.' (Embratur, 1984, p. 147).

According to Cárdenas Tabares (1998, p. 15), the tourism product is the 'set of goods and services that are offered to the market – for material or spiritual comfort – individually or in a very wide range of combinations resulting from the needs, requirements or desires of a consumer who we call a tourist.' Its composition is the sum of the attractions (natural, artificial and human), facilities (e.g. lodging, food and beverages, **entertainment** and fun, travel agencies, car rental agencies, training) and accessibility (sea, land and air), as shown in Fig. 58.

To increase the competitiveness of the tourism product, the tourism supply chain strategy is adopted, which is defined as a network of tourism organizations involved in different activities ranging from supplying different components of a product/service to distributing and marketing the final tourism product at a **tourism destination**, involving an array of participants from the public and private sectors (Zhang *et al.*, 2009; Huang *et al.*, 2012). The tourism supply chain is important because it can increase the competitiveness of the tourism product, benefiting all of the tourism actors involved.

Tourists travel to fulfil their desires and have pleasant experiences. In this sense, most products in the tourism supply leave only a memory, a reminder. This is what happens with an aeroplane ride, a drink at a bar or a music concert. None of these can be taken home; only the experience – the intangible – remains. This is one of the characteristics of the tourism products that comprise tourism supply.

Today, the concept of the tourism product's intangibility has become part of the discourse on the experience economy (Pine and Gilmore, 1999; Ritchie and Hudson, 2009; Sidali *et al.*, 2013), which portrays experience as the most important factor to deliver to the consumer. In addition to its intangibility, tourism supply can have other characteristics (Cárdenas Tabares, 1998; WTO, 2001; Vanhove, 2011), as described below:

- *Perishability*: the service cannot be stored. This has considerable repercussions for tourism because there are high fixed costs, and therefore, **yield management** techniques become necessary to ensure that a night is not lost with an empty hotel room or that an aeroplane does not take off

Tourism product = Attractions + Facilities + Accessibility

Fig. 58. Composition of the tourism product. (From Cárdenas Tabares, 1998, p. 13.)

with empty seats. In both cases, the opportunity to sell that room or seat will be lost forever on that particular date.

- *Composition of territorial products*: the tourism product does not travel to the consumer. The consumer must go to the location of the attraction, e.g. the Chapada dos Veadeiros National Park in the state of Goiás or the Pantanal in the state of Mato Grosso.
- *Intangibility*: the product cannot be seen, smelled or tasted before it is used. Although tourism companies use videos, virtual online tours and promotional television programmes to enable a potential tourist to view images of the places they are planning to visit, tourists cannot experience the **destination** they will visit and the products they will enjoy in advance.
- *Rigidity*: it is nearly impossible for the product to change. A hotel is not likely to have any purpose other than hosting guests, a waterfall cannot be transformed into something other than a waterfall, and an aeroplane will always be used to transport passengers or goods.
- *Heterogeneity*: it is extremely difficult for a provider to deliver exactly the same level of service each time the product is consumed.
- *Inseparability*: a service is a product only at the time that it is being consumed; before it is consumed, there is no product, only supply. This is the case with a restaurant meal. The production and consumption of the tourism product occur concurrently, with the supplier and the consumer influencing both each other and the quality of the **tourist experience**.
- *Freedom in the product's composition*: the tourist can choose which beach to visit, which hotel to stay at and which menu to try.
- *Advance payment*: most tourism products must be paid for before consumption. This is the case with bus and aeroplane tickets, concert tickets and tour packages. This factor depends on the tourist's confidence in the company that is selling the product or service.
- *Different professionals are involved in product creation and supply*: this factor can cause problems for the consumer because a tour package involves a **travel agent**, an aeroplane crew, hotel and restaurant staff, a taxi driver and a tour guide, all of whom are responsible for the success of the tourist's journey. The more people are involved, the more likely it is that something will go wrong.
- *Stimulated consumption*: the more the tourists consume, the more they want to consume: tourism is stimulated and encouraged by tourism itself. Thus, the fact that a tourist has already travelled in a given year does not mean that they will not travel again that year. Individuals always seek new experiences at different destinations or at destinations they have already visited; the range of possibilities for travel is endless, which creates a need for new trips.
- *Non-ownership*: consumers have access to tourism infrastructure only when they purchase the service, which means that they do not become owners of the tourist experience. They can, for example, purchase souvenirs or take photos and film their travels, even though these resources do not compose the essence of the experience itself.

For **Boullón** (2002), strictly touristic goods do not exist; in reality, these goods and services are rented to the tourist, who, at the end of the stipulated time, has promised to return the good to its owner and pay the rental fee (as occurs after the use of a hotel room or an aeroplane seat). In the case of the market for buying and selling non-tourism goods, at the end of the buying and selling transaction, the right to own and use the goods is transferred to the buyer, in agreement with the seller. Note that it is important to use common sense in this analysis because all rules have some exceptions.

There is an infinite number of tourism products that can be made available to consumers; however, this supply is influenced by several factors, including the following: the **price** of the tourism product, the prices of other goods and services, the price of the production factors, the level of technological advancement, tourist preferences, the skilled labour force, the existence of capital to make investments and even climate effects.

Exercise

Discuss the possibility of tourism development in your region, city or country. Try to observe what can be improved, if there are too many or too few tourism products, if new businesses are predicted, etc.

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5.8 Tourism Services and Facilities

WITH CRISTINA BITTAR RODRIGUES

Tourism services and facilities cannot be mistaken for **tourism supply**, although in many cases the terms have the same meaning. Tourism supply is composed of all of the goods or services that are available to tourist consumers for a given price at a particular time. According to Embratur (1984, p. 7), tourism supply 'is represented by the range of tourist attractions, as well as goods and services that will likely induce individuals to specifically visit a country, region or city'. Tourism services and facilities perform specific tasks necessary to meet tourists' needs, such as **lodging**, provision of food and beverages, **transport**, **travel agencies**, tourist information services, shops and theme parks (Smith, 1994).

Generally, a tourism facility is required to operate a tourism service. Thus, a travel agency is a tourism facility that offers the service of selling fares, reserving tickets for concerts, tour packages or even serving as a consultant for a particular trip.

The main tourism facilities and services are listed below.

- Transport:
  - Facilities: aircraft, buses, cruise ships, boats, car rental agencies, airports, bus stations, ports and cable cars and gondolas.
  - Services: transport to the destination and within the tourist region; vehicle rental; stay on a cruise liner; ride on a cable car or gondola.
- *Lodging*:
  - Facilities: hotels, hostels, guesthouses, bed and breakfasts, camping areas, **resorts**, motels, domestic accommodation (e.g. Airbnb).
  - Services: lodging in all of the facilities mentioned above. Depending on the facility's characteristics, there may be other services, such as meals, **recreation**, **leisure** areas, saunas, pools, exercise rooms and other amenities.
- *Food and beverages*:
  - Facilities: bars, cafeterias, snack bars, restaurants, pizzerias, bakeries, cafés, tea houses, ice cream parlours, juice bars and street food stands.
  - Services: offering food and beverages, not only to satisfy hunger and thirst but also to bring people together by offering a warm and pleasant place, with or without live music. In a historico-cultural restaurant, for example, individuals will seek not only food and drinks but also the place's history and **culture**.
- *Recreation and entertainment*:
  - Facilities: sports stadiums, amusement parks, plazas, concert halls, theatres, cinemas, circuses and nightclubs.
  - Services: meeting the tourists' specific and momentary needs, such as riding a roller coaster (facility) at an amusement park (another facility) or going to a circus show.
- *Other facilities and services*:
  - Facilities: travel agencies and tour operators, sites for information about tourism destinations and facilities, currency exchange bureaus, tourist information points, lookouts and places that sell tourism products, such as art galleries and handicraft and souvenir shops.
  - Services: selling tickets or tour packages, providing information to answer tourists' questions, exchanging national currency for foreign currency or vice versa, and selling souvenirs and handicrafts.

Tourism destinations with more developed tourism services and facilities have a comparative and competitive advantage in the tourism sector (Jensen and Zhang, 2013). It is important to note that tourism services are both intangible and complementary. This means that it is impossible to 'store or take home' the tourist service provided at a hotel or restaurant. Furthermore, hotel and restaurant services are part of a larger product: the trip and the tourist's experiences, which are composed of a complex ordering of products and services that complement each other. In tourism, it is not products that are sold but services and experiences, which are designated the 'experience economy'. The tourist consumer wants to buy a unique experience. Tourism services and facilities should respond to these desires, offering the best possible experience to the consumer (Song *et al*., 2014).

Today, with the popularization of the Internet, the websites of tourism services and facilities have been growing and allow quick, responsive navigation. A good website for tourism services and facilities has a large amount of information and offers personalization, which can increase the ability to attract tourists (Ku and Chen, 2015).

Operationalizing

The cities of Las Vegas in the USA and Gold Coast in Australia are examples of mass tourism destinations with a large inventory of tourism services and facilities, such as hotels, convention centres, casinos, bars and restaurants, and theme parks. Both cities have services and facilities that have unique characteristics and are even considered tourist heritage sites. For example, Las Vegas has the Mirage Casino, the Liberace Museum and the Golden Gate Casino, among others, whereas Gold Coast is home to the Q1 tower, the Southport Surf Life-Saving Club and the Currumbin Wildlife Sanctuary. In addition to having tourism services and facilities, the two cities are also considered tourism products, as in the example of the Mirage Casino in Las Vegas (Weaver, 2011). Therefore, it is important to understand that some tourism services and facilities not only serve as a support to meet tourists' needs but may also have the ability to attract tourists to a destination.

Exercise

Establish the differences and similarities between the following terms: tourism product, tourism supply, **tourism infrastructure**, tourism services and facilities, **tourism demand**, tourism market and tourism inventory.

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5.9 Tourism Infrastructure

WITH CRISTINA BITTAR RODRIGUES

In the early 20th century, the term infrastructure was essentially military and was used to denote the permanence and installation of military facilities such as base camps and ports, which together formed a complex war system (Perry, 2003). Today, the concept of infrastructure refers to the support systems (whether public or private) that enable and make life easier in society. According to Perry (2003), this does not just mean roads but includes **transport** systems, communications systems, media systems, educational, health and sanitation systems (water, sewage, electricity) and even fibre-optic systems that enable information superhighways.

Tourism infrastructure consists of the facilities that tourists use when they leave their homes, reach their destinations and return. Therefore, it is obvious that there are facilities that serve both tourists and residents. In reality, facilities are used by residents most of the time, with some exceptions, of course, in primarily touristic regions, such as Disney World in Florida, La Rambla and Güell Park in Barcelona, and the holy and historic city of the Incas, Machu Picchu, in Peru.

To facilitate analysis and study, infrastructure has been divided into basic infrastructure and tourism-specific infrastructure.

Basic infrastructure

Basic infrastructure encompasses all of the facilities that serve the needs of both residents and tourists, regardless of whether their construction was the responsibility of the government or the private sector, or both. Examples of basic infrastructure include roads, bridges, viaducts, overpasses, road signs, railways, bus stations, airports, ports, fixed and mobile telephones, cable TV and Internet, collection and treatment of sewage, treated and running water, electricity and lighting in public places, the cleaning of public spaces and urban transport, among others. Basic infrastructure is considered economic and social capital, and is one of the factors or mechanisms that influence a country's social and economic level (Abdullah *et al*., 2014).

Although such infrastructures are classified as basic, tourism is unlikely to develop without them. Their absence may not only fail to attract tourists but may also drive them away and cause immense problems for the resident or seasonal population. The maxim 'a city is only good for the tourist when it is good for those who live there' applies in this case.

Basic infrastructure plays an important role in the tourism sector because it can affect tourists' satisfaction level and is an essential factor for development and investment in a destination's tourism businesses. Therefore, basic infrastructure maintenance is vital for the functionality of a **tourism destination**, and maintenance programmes should be emphasized in tourism public policies and plans.

Tourism-specific infrastructure

This infrastructure is composed of facilities whose construction was motivated by tourist interest or that primarily support tourist users. According to Embratur (1984, p. 8), tourist support infrastructure can also be defined as 'the set of infrastructure projects and installations that create the conditions for developing a tourist unit: transport systems, communications system, urban services (water, electricity, sewage, street cleaning), etc.'

The fact that some infrastructure is tourism specific does not mean that residents do not use it. Some examples of tourism infrastructure include the Japan Railways Group (JR Group), a railway that is used by both residents and tourists; the Gondola in the city of Santiago, Chile; and tourist signs in cities. In addition to these examples, this category also includes hotels, parks and public plazas, museums, roads that lead to tourist attractions, and ports in places with a large tourism flow.

Infrastructure is generally an investment by and the responsibility of governments, which thus have great influence on tourism development (Gartner, 2000). On the one hand, the public sector invests in infrastructure with the aim of recovering the investment in the long term; on the other hand, the environmental impacts caused by new facilities may not compensate for the investments made. Therefore, whatever the investment in infrastructure, it must first be discussed and thoroughly analysed by those responsible for a destination's tourism development. The city of Orlando, Florida, is an interesting example of investment in infrastructure. The city's tourism agency (VisitOrlando) developed a tourism development tax (also known as the bed tax), which is used to build tourism infrastructure and pay for **tourism marketing**. In Orlando, a portion of visitors' expenditures is captured by the local government in the form of a tourism development tax, generating revenue destined for infrastructure and the promotion of tourism (Hara, 2013).

Operationalizing

Let us look at what the website Sustainable Tourism Online (http://www.sustainabletourismonline.com) presents on the subject of public tourism infrastructure:

Public Infrastructure

> Tourist visitation generates additional use of public facilities such as parks, gardens, pools, stadia and museums. It also generates demand for physical infrastructure such as roads, water supply and waste water systems, public toilets, signage, car parks and other public utilities such as broadband. More broadly, tourist visitation can increase demand for public services such as health facilities.
>
> Adequate infrastructure is therefore critical to delivering world-class visitor experiences and a platform for private-sector investment. Although governments at all levels have long-term roles to play in supporting infrastructure development for tourism, it is at the local level where the management of tourists' physical presence is the most acute.

Meeting Visitor Needs

> The development of appropriate public infrastructure is central to meeting visitor needs. Visitors use a wide range of public infrastructure during a trip, including the following:
>
> - Transport;
> - Health facilities;
> - Water, waste and energy;
> - Recreational sites; and
> - Public amenities and services.
>
> The ease of access and use of these facilities can have a significant impact on a visitor's perceptions of a destination, the length of stay, overall trip satisfaction and ultimately the likelihood of repeat visits or word-of-mouth referral.

http://www.sustainabletourismonline.com/destinations-and-communities/implementation/destination-development/public-infrastructure (accessed 18 August, 2015).

Exercise

Select a city, district or region and make an inventory of both the basic infrastructure and the tourism-specific infrastructure. Discuss and analyse the data in a group and list the items that are either outdated or cannot meet both local and tourist **demand**. If you want to explore this issue more deeply, do a project that highlights the shortcomings of the general infrastructure and present it to those responsible (e.g. planning department, tourism department, city hall, local council, local government).

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5.10 Tourist Attraction

WITH CRISTINA BITTAR RODRIGUES

Scholarly interest in tourist attractions is fundamental to the understanding of tourism itself because tourist attractions form an important part of the tourism system and phenomenon. Gunn (1972, 1988) and Leiper (1990), for example, attempted to organize and conceptualize tourist attractions as systems. Gunn (1988) conceptualized a tourist attraction, considering it a product. She identified three zones in the spatial structure (Fig. 59): the nucleus, which contains the core of the attraction; the zone of closure, which contains complementary services associated with the attraction, such as stores, parking and a cafeteria; and the inviolate belt, which is an area that protects the attraction's main product, the nucleus, from the commercial area in the zone of closure.

Leiper (1990) proposed an empirical system in which tourist attractions are represented by: (i) tourists (especially those travelling for **leisure**); (ii) a hierarchical nucleus that proposes a spatial dimension for tourist attractions, identifying the hierarchical importance of the elements present at a tourist attraction, its **clusters** and inviolate zones (like Gunn's system); and (iii) information and representations (Leiper called them 'markers') both outside and inside the tourist attraction.

Pearce (1991) presented an operational definition of a tourist attraction that covers a broad spectrum, as 'a given location with a specific natural or man-made feature, which is the focus of tourist attention'. Another less specific definition was given by Boniface and Cooper (2001, p. 30), in which 'attractions are the raison d'être of tourism, generating visits, increasing excursions, and creating an industry of its own'.

However, due to the diverse types of tourist attractions that are available, providing a definition that expresses the entire spectrum of possibilities is not always possible. Thus, the lack of a conceptualization of what is considered a tourist attraction has caused great debate about its definition. This discussion has led to the identification of some major categories of tourist attractions, as explained below (Lew, 2000; Page, 2003; Leask, 2005):

- *Natural or built*: natural attractions, such as beaches and national, state and municipal parks, may be subdivided into sites that are actively managed and those that are left in their natural state. Built attractions are fabricated structures, such as the Christ the Redeemer statue in Rio de Janeiro or the Eiffel Tower in Paris.
- *Nodal or linear*: a nodal attraction is located at a specific point, which is often the main subject of marketing to attract tourists to a destination and can also be used as an icon for this destination. Examples include the previously mentioned Christ the Redeemer statue and the Eiffel Tower. However, linear resources, such as a coastal region, can also be characterized as tourist attractions. The differences in the spatial patterns of a tourist attraction (nodal or linear) are important for its planning and **administration**. Linear dispersions require a high degree of accessibility to ensure that visitors can travel along the route where the attractions are located. Destinations at which attractions are located in clusters require plans regarding the number and diversity of their attractions to capture the interest of various types of tourists during a minimal stay, not only to increase the attractiveness of these destinations for an initial trip but also to encourage a future return.
- *Permanent or temporary attractions*: the examples given above relate to permanent attractions, i.e. those structures that remain in the same place. However, there are also attractions that occur for only a fixed period of time and that are either natural or built in character. The first case includes climatic events, such as those that occur during the winter season, when numerous visitors go skiing. Circuses and sporting **events** (e.g. the Olympic Games and the football World Cups) are examples of temporary attractions.

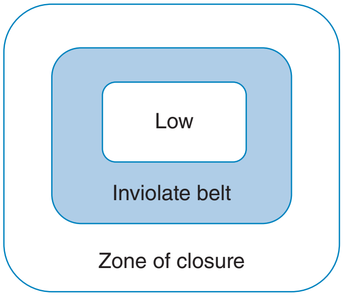

Fig. 59. Gunn's model of a tourist attraction. (Adapted by the authors from Page, 2003.)

- *Cognitive categories*: this classification is also defined as a perceptual category and involves certain issues, such as **authenticity**, educational aspects, adventure and **recreation**. Its organizational or structural characteristics include isolated or cluster attractions, which are urban or rural, of low or high capacity, and seasonal or perennial.
- *Public, private, or voluntary*: this classification depends on the type of organization that manages the tourist attraction: a government agency, a private company or an outsourced organization.
- *Free or paid*: includes attractions that either charge or do not charge an admission fee from their visitors. Some tourist attractions, particularly museums administered by government organizations, are free, although they may suggest an amount to be donated by visitors.

Depending on the importance of a tourist attraction, it can become the icon of a tourism destination, such as the Opera House in Sydney, the Statue of Liberty in New York, and the Coliseum in Rome. Worldwide, these attractions are recognized and, in many cases, when one thinks about the destination, these icons come to mind, and vice versa. With the globalization of cities and the homogenization of airport design, these attractions offer tourists the feeling of being in a unique location. To measure the importance of a tourist attraction, Ruschmann (1997) presented the four hierarchies that had been proposed by a Centro Interamericano de Capacitação Turística da OEA (CICATUR) study in 1977, as explained below:

- *Hierarchy 3*: an exceptional attraction, highly significant to the international tourism market and capable, by itself, of motivating a large number of tourists (e.g. the Taj Mahal in India, the Pyramids of Giza in Egypt and Disney World in the USA).
- *Hierarchy 2*: an attraction with exceptional features in a country that is capable of motivating a flow of domestic and foreign tourists, either alone or in conjunction with other attractions (e.g. the Louvre Museum in Paris and the Iguaçu Falls National Park in South America).
- *Hierarchy 1*: an attraction with certain striking features that is able to trigger the interest of tourists who have travelled to the region from afar because of other tourist motivations or that is able to motivate local tourist currents (e.g. the Chapada dos Guimarães in Mato Grosso, the Ipiranga Museum in São Paulo, and the National Library in Rio de Janeiro).
- *Hierarchy 0*: an attraction without sufficient merit to be included in the previous hierarchies but which belongs to the tourism heritage as an element that can complement others of greater interest in the development of tourism complexes (e.g. Ibirapuera Park in São Paulo and Poderes Park in Campo Grande, Brazil).

Regarding the development of a tourist attraction, Wanhill (2005) described three characteristics that are related to **demand**: the market, the location and 'imaginary' features. From an ideal standpoint, this system occurs sequentially, although the order of the aspects mentioned can differentially influence the planning and development of a tourist attraction, as described below:

- The business logic suggests the following sequence: market → imaginary features → location. Amusement parks can be cited, for example. In many cases (such as Disneyland), the market already exists because it comprises members of the general public who know and watch Disney cartoons and movies. The developed imaginary feature is the possibility of visiting the land of Mickey Mouse and other characters. Once the market and the imaginary features have been outlined, the park can be located virtually anywhere. In the USA, these parks are found in southern regions (Florida and California), which not only have a more pleasant year-round climate but are also wealthy regions.
- Regeneration typically follows the opposite path, i.e. the sequence adopted is location →

imaginary features → market. In these situations, the location is fixed and predetermined, as in cases where there is a desire to recover and attract visitors to degraded regions and areas or to old buildings (e.g. historic buildings, train stations) in a city. From a certain location, one can create an appealing factor (imaginary feature) that will attract certain tourist segments. Many examples of regeneration have been used worldwide, particularly utilizing tourism as a unifying element for urban and harbour regeneration policies. Some examples are: Darling Harbour, in Sydney (Australia); the revitalization process in Wellington, New Zealand's capital; the city of Bilbao, in Spain, with the presence of the Guggenheim Museum; and the attempt by the City of São Paulo to restore the Old City Centre. The process of regeneration often occurs through a partnership between public and private entities.

- Finally, industrial developments can also be mentioned; these tend to follow the logic of location → marketplace → imaginary features. Examples of this process include the conversion of certain companies/industries to serve as tourist attractions, such as the headquarters of Coca-Cola and CNN (Cable News Network) in Atlanta, Georgia. As in the previous case, the location is predetermined. Because these companies already have a certain market (e.g. Coca-Cola consumers or CNN viewers), it creates an appeal or imaginary feature such that people become interested in learning more about these companies and their products while visiting the headquarters.

Tourist attractions, particularly small-scale attractions, can be highly influenced by **seasonality** regarding visitors as well as labour. Many attractions, such as historic sites, require highly trained personnel or interpreters to assist tourists during their visits. However, maintaining this staff throughout the year may not be feasible if the tourist demand is seasonal. Some tourist attractions try to diversify their activities to survive the period of low demand. For example, a destination might have a small museum, which, during the low season, attempts to promote the coffee shop that exists on its premises, attracting the local public. Another important issue, which is related to labour, regards authenticity. Often, providing tourists with an attraction that is an authentic, non-commercial representation of the day-to-day life of a **culture** is not an easy task. In many instances, the local culture has become a commodity; therefore, tourists experience, even via a commercial product, the cultural expressions of the region that is visited.

A tourist attraction's main challenge is to balance visitor access with the conservation of the natural or cultural resource. In the future, tourist attractions should be managed effectively, which does not necessarily imply a large number of visitors but instead a management that employs specific aspects appropriate to the place, the resource and its visitors (Leask, 2010). Likewise, managers of tourist attractions should consider the residents' opinions in their decision-making (Garrod *et al.*, 2012).

Gunn's (1988) model of a tourist attraction presents the spatial structuring of tourist attractions, as shown in the 'Operationalizing' section below.

Operationalizing

The châteaux of the Loire Valley in France are excellent examples to illustrate Gunn's (1988) model of a tourist attraction. Despite the need to create **tourism infrastructure** – parking, a ticket office, a cafeteria, a souvenir shop and toilets – to receive visitors, it is important that this infrastructure does not 'interfere' with the environment and **landscape** of the châteaux. Thus, these facilities, which are part of the zone of closure, are usually separated from the main attraction (nucleus) and protected by the forests that surround these attractions and serve as an inviolate belt.

Figure 60 shows an aerial photo of the Château de Chenonceau including the surrounding forest. The photo does not show the facilities that compose the zone of closure (visible in Fig. 61), but it is possible to see how the forest surrounding the castle protects the main attraction, i.e. the building and its gardens.

Exercise

Identify three tourist attractions, classifying them according to the models and systems presented here, particularly Gunn's (1988) model. If possible, try to align each of these attractions with the three types of development proposed by Wanhill (2005) according to the logic of business, regeneration or industrial development.

Fig. 60. Château de Chenonceau, Loire Valley, France. (From Spsergio, via Wikimedia Commons. Photo courtesy of Benoit Marembert.)

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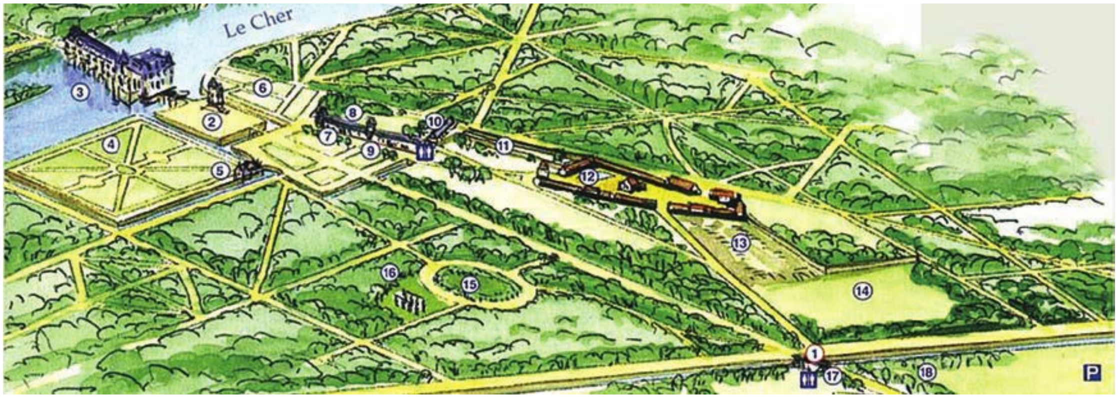

1 Ticket office
2 *Tour des Marques* (souvenir shop)
3 Château
4 Diane de Poitiers Garden
6 Catherine de Médici Garden
7 Self-service restaurant
10 Restaurant/*l'Orangerie*
11 Playground
13 Flower Garden–*Potager*
17 Crêpe shop
18 Picnic area
Toilets
Parking

Fig. 61. Diagram of the Château de Chenonceau, Loire Valley, France, with the facilities that compose the zone of closure. (From http://www.chenonceau.com.)

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5.11 Lodging Establishments

WITH ANA PAULA GARCIA SPOLON AND CRISTINA BITTAR RODRIGUES

Lodging establishments, also known as tourist accommodation, are used by tourists to stay overnight away from their usual living environment; these establishments can be divided into two types: commercial and non-commercial. The former are establishments that charge for guests to enjoy the accommodation. In the latter, tourists stay for free at the homes of friends and relatives or in residences they own at other destinations, such as second homes. Some monasteries, hostels, retirement homes and other organizations may offer free accommodation or accept payment in the form of donations from those using the service. New opportunities involving the sharing economy offer a mix of these two types of lodging; one notorious example is Airbnb, a system in which hosts offer part or all of their homes for temporary accommodation, receiving compensation in return (Guttentag, 2015). Another way of using non-commercial accommodations is a home swap, in which travellers stay in each other's residences; this requires trust among those involved, who hand over their own homes with the expectation that they will stay in similar quality accommodation during their travels (Andriotis and Agiomirgianakis, 2014).

In the context of tourism, accommodation provides support so that the touristic experience can take place. In some cases, lodging can also be transformed into tourist attractions *per se* because of the historical, cultural or architectural importance of the building. Examples of this phenomenon include hotel establishments such as the Belmond Copacabana Palace in Rio de Janeiro (Brazil), the Ritz Hotel in Paris (France) and the Waldorf Astoria in New York (USA).

The diversity of commercial accommodation caters to the most varied socio-economic and cultural traveller profiles, ranging from simple campgrounds to incredibly luxurious **resorts**.

From a structural perspective, accommodation can be divided into collective and private. In collective accommodation, various individuals who do not necessarily already know each other share the same environment, such as in youth hostels. In private accommodation, each guest or group of guests is entitled to private accommodation, usually with a bathroom included (Gee, 1994).

With regard to business format, commercial accommodation can be divided into regular hotels (made feasible as commercial establishments) and residential establishments that are allocated to serve the hotel industry (called flats or condo hotels). In terms of the service they provide, they are considered either hotels (establishments that offer a wide range of services, with operational and management routines based on systematic and guided professionalism) or para-hotels (or even non-hotels). This latter category includes the simplest establishments, which may be much more informal. They are called guesthouses, bed and breakfasts (also known as B&Bs), hostels, rooms in private homes, and inns, among other names, and offer basic services, which are generally restricted to making beds, cleaning rooms and possibly serving breakfast.

Lodging facilities are typically classified into categories. Many hotel classification systems have been developed around the world both by the government and by the private sector. Although many of these classification systems lack recognition and their criteria and nomenclature have not been internationally standardized, they have proven useful for guiding the selection of lodging. The criterion that is most widely used internationally is the star rating, a system used to evaluate the facilities, installations and equipment and service quality provided according to pre-defined parameters. Traditionally, this classification ranges from one to five stars, although some classifications have adopted six or seven stars for the most luxurious establishments, for example, Dubai's Burj Al Arab hotel (http://www.jumeirah.com/en/hotels-resorts/

dubai/burj-al-arab/). In addition to governmental, association or independent classification systems, there are also referral systems in which a lodging facility is associated with a rating that serves as a quality assurance scheme. The referral associations Leading Hotels of the World, Design Hotels and Glamping.com are some examples of this type of system.

Regardless of the establishment's size or category, its operations are managed using a system of departmentalization. In a lodging establishment, there are various departments: lodging (which is divided into reception/concierge, housekeeping and customer service sectors), food and beverages (operating the restaurant, kitchen, bars and food support services, such as preparing special requests, food service for events and room service), **events** and **recreation**. There are also general operational sectors, such as engineering and maintenance, administration, which includes, for example, accounting and finance, human resources, marketing and sales (Walker, 2014).

The process of staying as a guest at a lodging establishment begins with check-in at reception, an event that determines the success of the guest's hotel experience. This success is mediated by the nature of the service – more or less friendly, more or less efficient – delivered by employees.

During the guest's stay, three sectors are exceptionally important: (i) reception, which includes both the customer service areas (the reception desk and concierge) and the support areas (porters, messengers, valets, telephone operators and general support staff), is extremely important for responding to customer requests and providing information and services to guests; (ii) the housekeeping department, which is responsible for ensuring that the cleanliness and presentation standards of the rooms, bathrooms and corridors are maintained, for presenting satisfactory results in the clothing- and garment-processing systems (laundry and linen closet) and for ensuring the overall quality of the establishment's physical space (order, cleanliness, decor and ambience); and (iii) the food and beverage department, which should ensure guest satisfaction with regard to the food's nutritional aspects and presentation at a fair price.

At check-out, which closes the guest's cycle at the hotel, the bill must be presented accurately, in a professional manner, with payment accepted using instruments that meet the guest's needs and are appropriate for the hotel's accounting and financial management resources. It is critical that the bill is in order, with all services charged according to what has been previously agreed upon (Goss-Turner, 2000).

With regard to market segmentation, there are many types of hotel and non-hotel establishments (Walker, 2014), including the following:

- *Business*: geared towards the user on a business trip. These hotels are usually located in central or easily accessible areas or close to important business centres or airports. They are equipped with business support infrastructure such as business centres (with photocopy machines, desks, computers and other technological equipment) and have both ample Internet access and multiple phone lines in the rooms. They generally also have meeting rooms and auditoriums so that business meetings and events can be organized at the hotel itself.
- *Farm*: these establishments are usually in an old farmhouse or, in the case of working farms, have been built on the farm's property. In the latter situation, the lodging complements traditional income from agricultural activities. According to Martineli (2001, p. 153), farm stays are usually managed by owners and their families. The practices developed at these locations are geared towards the countryside and nature, such as bathing in the river, horseback riding, eating typical local food, participating in some type of harvest and other activities that are difficult to do in urban areas. These activities often take place on the farm's property, and meals are usually included in the price.
- *Budget*: budget hotels are characterized by a streamlined structure, which eliminates superfluous spaces, facilities and services, allowing them to offer cheaper daily rates. As a result, they have fewer employees, which often makes the service more impersonal. The rooms are small, with enough space for the bed and a bathroom, in addition to facilities considered essential. These hotels are usually located near shopping centres and **transport** terminals, among other things. Formule 1 hotels, owned by the French network Accor, are a typical example of this category.
- *Spa*: spas were particularly fashionable in the 1990s and focus on guests' physical and mental reinvigoration through physical activities, relaxation and a balanced diet based on nutritional food. They are located outside of major centres,

providing more contact with nature, although in recent years, urban spas have emerged. For the programmes offered by the spa staff to have the expected effect, guests often stay for an average of 1 week. The hotel has numerous health professionals on the staff, including nutritionists, doctors, physical therapists and beauticians.

- *Resort*: a large complex usually located close to the sea or green spaces, with a strong emphasis on **leisure**, recreation and sports. The logic of resorts is that guests do not need to leave their physical boundaries because everything they require is at their disposal. As in the case of spas, the guests' length of stay tends to be longer (4–5 days on average). Sports and cultural activities are generally organized by members of the recreation staff. To maintain a relaxed atmosphere, the architecture and decoration of these hotels are cheerful and uncluttered, making guests feel at home. Establishments linked to the Club Med flag, spread across all continents, represent a good example of this type of hotel.
- *Health hotel or resort*: this type of hotel first appeared in towns with favourable climate or hydro-mineral resources with the aim of providing extensive, continuous medical treatment (see the example given in '**Butler's model (tourism destination life cycle)**'). They emerged in the 19th century in the Swiss and Austrian Alps and in the Carpathian Mountains in Poland and Slovakia. Outsiders visited the mountains to undergo treatment for various health problems, particularly those related to the respiratory system. To ensure that the entire family could stay, because a spouse often needed to accompany the guest who visited for the place's curative properties (e.g. mineral and thermal springs, climate), health hotels had large recreational areas, and often had casinos or areas dedicated to gambling. All around the world, the years between 1940 and 1960 had a profoundly negative impact on these establishments, not only because of the prohibitions on gambling in many countries but also because of the development of the pharmaceuticals and cosmetics industry and of medicine itself, which enabled diseases to be treated with medications, surgery and medical procedures. Although this hotel model now attracts a diverse audience, it focuses more on the elderly. To be considered a health hotel or resort, the establishment must have a specialized medical team, mineral and/or medicinal waters with healing properties, and the infrastructure and resources to meet the needs imposed by the guests' treatments.
- *Boutique hotel*: a nomenclature used to refer to hotel establishments that have a high standard of decor and personalized service, with great sophistication and good taste but a relaxed atmosphere. In theory, a boutique hotel has items for sale; thus, the origin of the term. However, because there is no consensus about the concept, the term has become just one of many used to describe well-maintained and refined establishments, where architecture, ambience, technology and luxury are very often present. Other names for this typology include 'design hotel', 'luxury hotel', 'lifestyle hotel' or 'exclusive hotel'. Typically, a prominent name in architecture or design plans and executes the construction or renovation of these hotels. Artists are also invited to give their personal touch to the environment, transforming the space into something unique and different.
- *Cantonment*: often incorrectly referred to as summer camps, cantonments primarily attract children and young people, frequently travelling with classmates and unaccompanied by parents, for recreational, sporting and cultural activities, which can sometimes also include school related activities (e.g. in environmental studies). They offer shared accommodation and bathrooms (and therefore are not 'campgrounds'). In addition to their use during the school term, they may also be rented out during school holidays for business, association or religious meetings.
- *Hostel*: provides low-cost collective or private accommodations in buildings with various common areas, such as bathrooms, a kitchen and a living room. Although geared towards the backpacker segment and young people, hostels have increasingly expanded their target audience. The primary advantage of a hostel is that it provides more integration between guests, which can be an interesting way to make travelling less lonely. Despite the low cost associated with hostels, many offer sophisticated services, such as bars and restaurants with a varied menu. Some also offer exclusive areas, as in the case of Base, a hostel created by the Accor network, which includes a floor reserved for women, offering beauty products in the bathrooms and a hair dryer, among other facilities. In 2015, Base could only be found in Australia and New Zealand (http://www.stayatbase.com).

- *Residence hotel* (apartment hotel, flat, condo hotel, residential condominium with hotel services): a hotel unit with at least one bedroom, a living room, a kitchen and a bathroom (such as a one-bedroom residential apartment). Developed as residential units, residence hotels are managed by a hotel administrator and thus are served by the hotel's regular operational facilities. In many cases, they serve as long-term housing, primarily for executives who work for weeks or months in other places. Their legal status, along with marketing issues, give them specific nomenclatures depending on the geographical location.
- *Bed and breakfast*: an establishment that is a business but which reproduces the domestic lodging structure based on the social practice of hosting people in the homes of friends and relatives. In this type of accommodation, the host offers breakfast in addition to a room. The guests integrate into the families who receive them, which can be a good option for those who want to know more people at the destinations they are visiting; guests also become integrated into their hosts' habits and **cultures**. Another advantage of a bed and breakfast is that the hosts act as informal guides at the destination, providing guidance on tourist attractions, modes of transport and local habits.
- *Campground*: offers the opportunity to stay in contact with nature in tents or recreational vehicles (trailers, which do not have their own engine and need to be pulled by a car; or motorhomes, which are self-propelled). Some campgrounds also have cabins for tourists. In addition to the area reserved for lodging, campgrounds have many other facilities, such as bathrooms, kitchens, recreational areas and laundry rooms, among others. A new type of camping dedicated to the luxury market has emerged in recent years, giving rise to what is called glamping (from the expression glamorous camping; see http://www.glamping.com).
- *Holiday village*: usually belonging to trade unions and professional associations, holiday villages have an average or simple standard of living and aim to provide services and leisure activities for a family audience, which generally stays for numerous days or weeks.
- *Guesthouse*: this term is used in various contexts but generally refers to small hotel establishments or those owned by families, dedicated to leisure and occupying old buildings with historical or cultural value, at beach or mountain destinations.

The forms of ownership of lodging establishments can vary widely. The most common are identified below (Rushmore, 1992):

- *Independent or absolute ownership*: establishments are designed, built and operated by companies, individuals or families.
- *Multi-ownership, co-ownership or non-absolute ownership*: this term refers to the shared ownership of a hotel in the form of either real-estate assets (in hotel condominiums, second-home condominiums and units in residential condominiums, clubs or associations, as long as they are part of the hotel sector) or financial assets (real-estate investment trusts (REITs) in the hotel sector). Some types of co-ownership are:
  - Hotel condominiums: hotel units sold one at a time, to the same or different owners, with an allocation of proportional shares of common areas and occasionally garage spaces to each owner. If the owner uses their apartment, they are entitled to the services provided by the condominium's administration, which usually include room cleaning, laundry services and other services that are available for guests. If the owner chooses to cede the unit to the hotel management, they then collect a share of the profits at the end of the accounting period. Investments and losses are discussed and/or reported at the general meeting of unit owners, with accounting compulsorily performed by the administrator, represented by the trustee.
  - Second-home condominiums: these are in buildings whose units are sold in co-ownership and that have collective services. The owners can use the property themselves all year long or cede it temporarily or permanently (in periods established in a contract) for hotel operations by the company in charge of the condominium's administration.
  - Time-sharing or space-time ownership: this is a form of multi-ownership different from condominiums because the owner acquires the right to use a property only for a specific period of time (usually a week) every year. Assuming that a housing unit is sold to 52 buyers (each entitled to 1 week of use per year), these buyers will pay an amount equivalent to 1.92% of

the property value and are later required to pay the same percentage for each housing unit related to the business's maintenance costs. These contracts obviously have variations in terms of the amount to be paid at various times of the year, with price increases in the high season. According to Liu *et al.* (2001), in 2001 there were approximately 4 million owners in this segment, with more than 4500 properties distributed across 81 countries.

With regard to its **administration**, a lodging establishment can be: (i) independent (private); or (ii) linked to a hotel chain (outsourced management). Independent hotels are run by individuals, families or companies, and have no association with a brand owned by a hotel chain. Hotel chains aim to create chains of hotels and to use common administrative systems, such as reservation, marketing and purchase systems, accounting management systems and personnel management systems, among others. Furthermore, the creation of chains allows the emergence of branding, which facilitates the promotion and creation of an identity and a homogeneous standard of service. Hotels can become part of a chain through leasing, administration or franchising contracts, or even consortiums:

- *Leasing contracts*: in leasing contracts, a private hotel is temporarily handed over to a professional (chain) hotel manager for a certain period of time, during which the owner will receive revenue in the form of rent. The contractor rents the property and all that it contains (equipment, furniture and fixtures); it is also responsible for managing the people, property and systems, assuming the risks and receiving the financial rewards derived from the property's operation and management. The owner is only entitled to receive the agreed-upon value of the rent on a monthly basis.
- *Administration contracts*: in hotel administration contracts, the owner retains all rights to the property and everything it contains but shares responsibility for the business's operation and management with the hotel management, paying it for expertise related to administration, the use of management systems, training and consulting services and the use of the brand. The risks and rewards are shared by linking the administrator's payment to the general revenue earned monthly by the establishment, along with the profits from its operation, in a percentage that has been agreed upon in a contract.
- *Franchising contracts*: franchising involves transferring a brand from a hotel company or hotel chain (the franchisor), which generally has a successful business system, to an investor (franchisee), who wants to reap the benefits of the franchisor's recognized brand. In this system, the franchisor does not interfere directly in the business's management; instead, it only transfers to the franchisee the rights and requirements for using the brand, and possibly the equipment, furniture, facilities and systems that determine the business's operating standard. The franchisee must follow the brand's operational standards and pay previously stipulated fees, called franchise fees. In this contract, the franchisee continues to hold the property and manage the business, whereas the franchisor is responsible for the brand requirements and for procedures and facilities that are directly related to the standard operation. Although franchising has similarities with administration contracts and even consortiums, there are important differences between them. Some examples of hotels that are part of this system include Blue Tree and Accor.
- *Consortiums*: these are associations of independent hotels, managed autonomously, but which share a common brand that aims to build customer loyalty. Although the consortium favours **reservation systems**, it promotes the hotels through the common brand and stipulates the level of service offered by the hotels participating in the consortium. It is also possible to set a margin for prices to be charged and to share a common marketing and reservation system, to be guided by joint purchasing systems and to adopt shared technological systems and management. One example of a hotel consortium is Best Western, which is now present in dozens of countries.

Productivity in the hotel sector

Productivity in the hotel sector, regardless of the establishment's size, location, category or typology, is measured by standard indicators, internationally disseminated and used.

The Hotel Association of New York City was responsible for creating the Uniform System of Accounts for the Lodging Industry (USALI) in 1926.

The system arose from the need, noted by local hoteliers and much discussed, for a results-management model that would allow not only a comparison of different hotel operations but also the construction of a common language and standardized criteria in accounting and financial management.

The USALI surveys many of the hotel management indicators used internationally and establishes the main measurements of the sector's productivity. The basic indicators of hotel performance are the occupancy rate, or the ratio of accommodation units sold to accommodation units available in a given period, and the average daily rate, a value calculated by dividing the establishment's accommodation revenue (without including values assigned to other departments, such as breakfast, which should be transferred from the lodging department to the **food and beverage** department) by the total number of accommodation units sold.

Another important measure of productivity in the hotel sector is revenue per available room (RevPAR). RevPAR is a measurement of the balance between the **supply** of hotel units and the **demand** (guests), and can be calculated in two ways: (i) by multiplying a hotel's average price by its occupancy rate (Equation 1); or (ii) by dividing a hotel's total revenue by the number of available rooms in the period studied (Equation 2) (Slattery, 2002). An example of calculating RevPAR is presented below, using the hypothetical data presented in Table 24.

Different accommodation segments will have variations in their productivity indices, depending on the occupancy and daily rates. Variations that depend on location, management type, market segment, time of year, and many other variables internal and external to the business are also identified.

Operationalizing

One of the most innovative systems today is Airbnb. The company was established in 2008 by three young entrepreneurs in San Francisco, California. According to the company's website, it is a 'trusted community marketplace for people to list, discover and book unique accommodations around the world – online or from a mobile phone or tablet'. Airbnb is present in 34,000 cities in 190 countries. It provides an opportunity for people who own their homes or other properties to make money by offering accommodation to travellers. The system mediates between the owners and the potential guests and has no responsibility for the services provided. It is the world's largest lodging company, without owning a single room. There are many criticisms of this model, among them non-payment of the taxes commonly paid by traditional hotels, violations of local lodging codes, and the fact that the relationship between property owner and guest is based on mutual trust (or a lack thereof).

Visit the websites of the aforementioned services, especially Airbnb (http://www.airbnb.com), and give your opinion. Do shared-lodging systems subvert the order of traditional hotels? In an era where technology is present in many aspects our lives (e.g. free Wi-Fi; free online communication systems such as WhatsApp; ride-sharing applications, such as Uber, Ride, SideCar), how might traditional hotels react to the proposals of shared-lodging websites?

Table 24. Calculating annual RevPAR.

Average daily rate (US$)	55.00
Hotel occupancy rate	65%
Revenue of the rooms (millions of US$)	199.65
Availability of rooms per night (in millions)	5.58
RevPAR = US$ 55 × 0.65 = US$35.70	Equation 1
RevPAR = US$199,650,000/ 5,580,000 = US$35.70	Equation 2
RevPAR (US$)	35.70

Exercises

1. Visit the website of the Accor group (http://www.accorhotels-group.com) and identify and evaluate the system of distributing establishments by category. Can the company's system be understood by the average consumer? Is it possible to understand what type of product is most appropriate to the profile and conditions of consumption? Are all market segments, in terms of consumption power, served by Accor?

2. The website Hotel.com, one of the largest in the world for finding and reserving lodgings, has published a study on hotel prices worldwide since 2004 based on reservations made through its website. The study, entitled the *Hotel Price Index*, is one of the main references on consumer behaviour and hotel pricing trends. Access the site at http://hpi.hotels.com/, read the reports available (for different countries and in different languages) and become familiar with the concepts related to hotel performance indicators. Finally, record your impressions of the data presented by Hotels.com and reflect on the perspectives presented for your country, making observations that you deem relevant and interesting.

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5.12 Seasonality

WITH CRISTINA BITTAR RODRIGUES

Seasonality has been a striking facet of tourism in different parts of the world, and it is generally seen as one of the main problems experienced by this sector. Butler (1994, p. 332) defined it as 'a temporal imbalance in the phenomenon of tourism, which may be expressed in terms of dimensions of such elements as numbers of visitors, expenditure of visitors, traffic on highways and other forms of **transport**, employment and admission to **attractions**'. There have been many efforts to reduce seasonal changes in tourism; these changes have long been identified as a major cause of low returns on investments, problems with employee retention and the over- or under-use of physical capacity.

This temporal variation in patterns of human movement can occur on different scales: hourly, daily, weekly and monthly. One example is passenger flow in a city's central airport, which often focuses on the traffic of domestic passengers travelling on business. In this case, peaks can be expected during weekdays, in the early morning (around 8 a.m.) and at the end of the day (between 5 and 7 p.m.). Variations among the days of the week can also be identified, with an increased flow at the beginning (Monday) and end (Friday) of the week, when many executives leave for work and then return to their cities. Weekly changes in passenger flow can also be identified from one week to another, for example, in weeks with holidays such as Christmas and New Year's Eve. Finally, passenger flow fluctuates from one month to another, for example, during holiday periods (summer or winter, school holidays) and the rest of the year.

The variation in **demand** impacts different aspects of behaviour on the **supply** side. In business terms, the financial aspect is particularly affected because there is variation in cash flow, prices and opportunities to attract investments. With regard to the labour market, temporary labour is often used in the high season, which means that the workers' quality and skills are not always adequate because they are not properly trained. Various marketing aspects are also affected, such as **distribution**, **prices** and the types of packages offered.

There are variables that explain the seasonality associated with tourism, some of which are highlighted below (Butler, 2000):

- *Weather*: climatic variations and seasonal changes, leading to a greater tendency for people to take holidays during the summer, although smaller peaks are also seen in winter (e.g. sport enthusiasts, such as skiers).
- *Human decision factors*: institutionalized holidays, such as for schools and salaried workers, which usually occur in the summer.
- *Social pressure and trends*: teenagers going to Disney during school holidays, students taking a gap year to backpack.
- *Sports seasons*: e.g. fishing competitions.
- *Inertia and tradition*: some individuals take holidays at specific times because that is when they have always taken their holidays.

Seasonality is strongly influenced by spatial components; it is more pronounced in rural and remote areas than in large urban centres. The latter have more non-seasonal attractions, in addition to more business travel, and in many cases are less vulnerable to environmental impacts, whereas fragile environments need the low season to recuperate from the impact of tourists.

Another interesting aspect that influences a tourism destination's seasonality is the use of the Internet for bookings. Boffa and Succurro (2012) showed that the use of the Internet has influenced seasonality because it encourages people to travel as a result of access to information on the **tourism destination**, increasing their chances of making the trip. The Internet also reduces the cost of travel through online booking of airline tickets, hotels and tours, increasing tourism flow at the destination. As a result of online booking, travel agencies have also changed their pricing strategy, lowering prices and creating increased demand at the tourism destination. Consequently, the Internet increases the elasticity of demand because of online booking and the reduced prices charged by travel agencies. This effect is stronger during the tourism destination's high season.

Seasonality can be considered beneficial in two respects. In the case of the environment, the 'non-tourist' season can allow flora and fauna to recover from the period of high **tourism demand**. For local residents, periods without tourists allow them to have a 'normal' life during part of the year. Under these circumstances, some services may be discontinued or reduced because of a lack of demand caused by the reduced number of tourists.

Efforts to reduce seasonality have been introduced at many tourism destinations, including lengthening the main tourist season or establishing other seasons based on various **tourist attractions**, diversifying and expanding the market, creating out-of-season tourist attractions, such as festivals and special **events**, and providing financial incentives such as differentiated taxes and prices. Events are a strategic tool to help combat seasonality; they can skew temporal imbalances and help tourism destinations cope with seasonality because they attract visitors, thus helping expand the economic impact of tourism (Connell *et al.*, 2015). Another way to reduce seasonality would be for the public sector to organize holidays in a more dispersed way throughout the year, which would give the tourism destination a higher year-round domestic tourism flow.

Operationalizing

Thredbo Village is a ski **resort** in the mountains of New South Wales, Australia, approximately 500 km south of Sydney. In the past, Thredbo was only a winter tourism destination, but it is attempting to become firmly established in the year-round market. Thredbo is a tourism destination that can serve a diverse range of visitors throughout the various seasons. This transformation was recognized by the authorities in New South Wales with the launch of strategies that promote the creation of companies that offer year-round activities, instead of the traditional focus on winter activities. In the summer, companies are developing festivals, sports, conferences and cultural events, with specific packages and deals that attract a heavy flow of visitors to the region (Pegg *et al.*, 2012).

Exercise

Choose a tourism destination in your country that has problems with seasonality and recommend actions that can help reduce this problem.

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Author Index

Page numbers in **bold** type refer to figures and tables.

Places Index

Page numbers in **bold** type refer to figures and tables.

Subject Index

Page numbers in **bold** type refer to figures and tables.

TOURISM THEORY

CONCEPTS, MODELS AND SYSTEMS

Gui Lohmann and Alexandre Panosso Netto

Theories within tourism can be difficult, even confusing areas to understand. Developed from the successful Portuguese textbook *Teoria do Turismo, Tourism Theory* provides clear and thorough coverage of all aspects of tourism theory for students and researchers of tourism.

Consisting of five sections and over fifty entries, this book covers nine of the most important models in tourism study. The first three sections examine general concepts in tourism; disciplines and topics; and the tourist, which includes areas such as demand, gaze, psychology and typologies. A fourth section covers intermediation, distribution and travel, reviewing aspects such as travel agencies, tourist flows and multi-destination travel patterns. The final section encapsulates the tourism destination itself, covering organizations, the destination image, supply, seasonality and more. Encyclopedic cross-referencing between entries makes navigation easy, while in-depth analysis, exercises and further reading suggestions for each of the selected areas provide the context and detail needed for understanding. Entries can be used individually as a reference, or as part of the whole for a complete introduction to tourism theory.

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