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Package tourism

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Package tourism is formed when several tourists ► travel in an organized way by using pre-arranged services. It is produced, marketed, and sold by commercial tourism companies (tour operators/wholesalers) at an inclusive price. Package tourism was initially based on the mass production of standardized inclusive tours offered to tourists searching for sun, sand, sea, and sex holidays at competitive prices. The related term "► mass tourism" sometimes carries negative connotations, even though it is based on the simple motivational premise that mass tourism's positive offerings are predicated on matching the touristic desire for safety with the comfort zone of familiarity.

Evolution of the concept and practice

Official data on the global economic scale of package tourism are incomplete. Often based on different forms of assessment, in many cases the statistics significantly understate reality. As a result, misconceptions occur when trying to understand mass and other forms of tourism. Research on the development of package tourism is usually conducted from the perspective of a single generating market (Holloway 1998; Mundt 1993; Sheldon 1986). Therefore, package tourism and tour operators have not received the attention they deserve, and there has arguably been insufficient evaluation of their impacts on ► international tourism. More studies have focused on the negative rather than the positive outcomes of package tourism as if to suggest that it is of little benefit to the development of global tourism (Aramberri 2010).

Package tourism owes its success to the appearance of tour operators and charter airlines on the European market in the 1950s. By persuading the working and middle classes through affordable prices to travel on package holidays abroad in large numbers, they significantly changed tourism patterns. In their search for economies of scale, tour operators developed it as a major and almost indispensable component of global tourism.

Growth in demand from generating markets resulted in the concentration of supply in destinations. The industrialized countries of northern ► Europe were able to generate masses of tourists, while the southern European countries had moderate capacity to attract them. The concept ensured quick profit for the entrepreneurs from generating markets and at the same time enabled economic growth in regions that accepted this new form of tourism. Consequently, tour operators became the desired partners of developing

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countries that sought to use tourism as a substitute for their poor economic output, primarily due to its foreign exchange generating potentials.

Motivated primarily by economic interests, destinations allowed the construction of accommodation and supporting facilities in an uncontrolled manner so that they could cater to droves of tourists. Since the quantum of clients determined the price, the strategy of offering a simple product ensured large numbers, and there was little room for product diversification. Given that the business interests of tour operators and their partners in destinations did not always coincide (Buhalis 2000), many destinations, by allowing foreign tour operators to dictate the rules, lost control of their own tourism development.

With the introduction of the jumbo jet and with ▶ airline liberalization, package tourism began to develop far beyond the ▶ Mediterranean destinations where it first started. New package destinations were introduced on a much wider international market. Today, a strong "package ▶ holiday belt" spreads from the Mediterranean to the ▶ Caribbean, ▶ Mexico, and many South American destinations, as well as to Southeast Asia. These destinations depend greatly on inclusive tours from the world's largest package holiday source markets: ▶ Germany, the ▶ United Kingdom, and ▶ Japan.

The development of package tourism has led to a better geographic dispersion of tourism flows compared to the period before the involvement of tour operators. But this trend has caused structural changes in international demand, directing it towards a lower economic stratum of consumers thereby rendering destinations less attractive for the higher economic strata.

Trends and future prospects

Despite some predictions that the transformation of consumer behavior through the individualization of the industry would lead to a decline in package tourism, this is not happening. Information technology has forced tour operators to shift away from their traditional role as wholesalers of a simple commodity to customized products with recognizable added value tailored to specific customer lifestyles. Moving from the price-driven mass market business towards a "modern mainstream" model with differentiated and exclusive products adjusted to the needs of experienced tourists, tour operators have upgraded their offer. New technology has also enabled them to "un-package" the components of a package holiday, allowing their customers the possibility to "self-package" it. This kind of "dynamic packaging" is not a new product, but it is certainly a new tool that gives customers more flexibility (Čavlek 2013). Besides all this, the emotional component of holiday packages should never be neglected and neither should their financial protection and assurances of safety given to consumers.

With the traditional generating market maturing, the world's leading tour operators are heading towards ▶ Brazil, ▶ Russia, ▶ India, and ▶ China where they will benefit from these emerging markets in terms of economies of scope and scale. Tour operators have the know-how to organize holidays and are able to adapt to new market trends while respecting the different tourism habits and traditions of these markets. Therefore, it seems to be more realistic not to expect fewer organized holidays but rather more innovative forms of package tourism. There is growing understanding of the need for ever closer cooperation among all the stakeholders in destinations and tour operators. Future research will need to address the unbiased cost-benefit approach to the development of this form of tourism. It should also focus on tour operators' economic, sociocultural, and environmental impacts on destinations and examine whether sustainable development is compatible with tour operating business philosophy and, if so, how.

See also ▶ Charter tourism, ▶ commercialization, ▶ mass tourism, ▶ sun, sand, sea and sex, ▶ travel agency and tour operation.

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Pakistan, Figure 1 Map of Pakistan

Pakistan

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The Islamic Republic of Pakistan, located in South Asia, is bordered by ► China, ► India, ► Iran, ► Afghanistan, and ► Tajikistan (Figure 1). It is the world's 36th largest country (796,096 km^2) with the 6th largest population of 182.5 million. The country has the 26th largest economy and is heavily dependent on textiles, which represents nearly 53 % of total exports in 2013 (Federal Board of Statistics 2014).

As a ► destination, Pakistan is attractive because of its diverse culture, scenic valleys, traditions, historical places, and natural areas. The scenic mountainous valleys include Kaghan, Naran, Swat, and Hunza; there are attractive hills like Nathia Gali, Muree, and Changla Gali. In addition, historical sites such as Mohenjo-Daro, Harappa, and Taxila have long allured tourists and archeologists alike from all over the world.

Pakistani culture and traditions in its major cities attract international tourists. Karachi is the largest city and the country's business center. Pakistan's founder Muhammad Ali Jinnah is from this city and today his mausoleum is a major attraction. Lahore, the country's second largest city, is the cultural heart, remembered by historians for being the place where Alexander battled on River Jhelum. It is also remembered for having monuments of various Mughal emperors and architecture, such as the Badshahi Mosque, the Tomb of Jahangir, Lahore Fort, and Shalimar Gardens.

Pakistan is ranked as the 103rd country in terms of a number of ► tourist arrivals (UNWTO 2013). The industry experienced an extraordinary boom in the early 2000s. Its ► inbound tourism increased by 108 % from 2000 to 2006, but from 2006 to 2010, it has remained stagnant, with a 1.02 % increase. In 2011, Pakistan earned US$358 million from ► international tourism receipts. In 2012, the ► industry directly supported 1,612,900 jobs; tourism businesses provided 3.853 million jobs, or 6.4 % of all jobs in the country. In 2013, the contribution of tourism was 7.3 % of the GDP (World Economic Forum 2013).

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In recent times, the country has been marred by terrorism and natural disasters. In 2005, Pakistan was devastated by an earthquake which affected many attractions. Terrorism has increased substantially after the September 11 accident, when Pakistan agreed to join the ► United States in the war against terrorism. There have been incidences when tourists were targeted by terrorists (Raza and Jawaid 2013). Once the country is able to put an end to ► terrorism, tourism can be expected to flourish again.

See also ► Historical tourism, ► mountain tourism, ► nature tourism, ► sustainable tourism, ► terrorism.

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Palau

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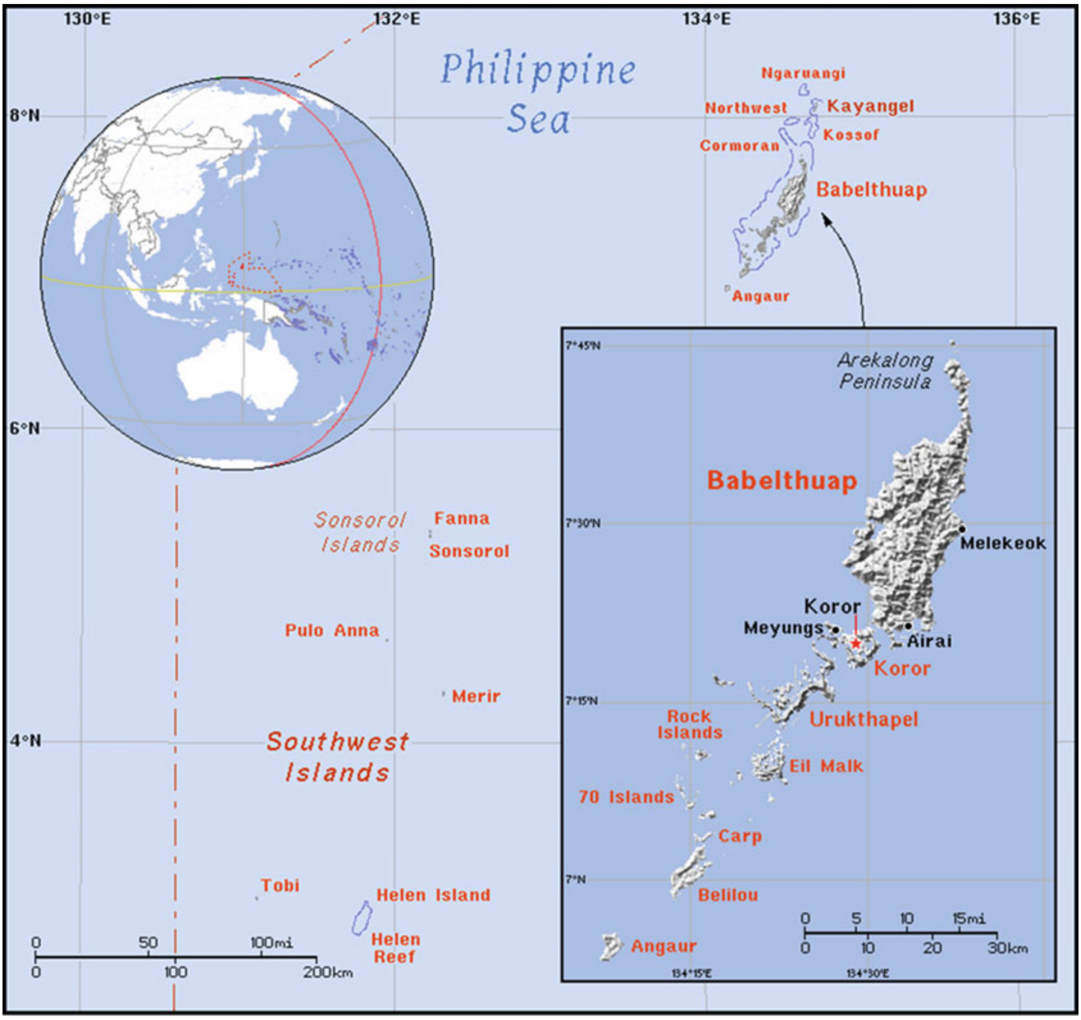
Palau is a Pacific island nation consisting of a large archipelago (258 islands) but a small land area (459 km^2). It is located between the Philippines and Papua New Guinea in the Pacific Ocean. To the northeast, its closest neighbors are Yap, in the Federated States of Micronesia, and Guam, a major air traffic hub (Figure 1). Palau's tourism is mostly concentrated on Koror, Babelthuap (international airport at Airai), and Peleliu (Belilou). Two thirds of the nation's population of about 21,000 live on Koror.

Palau has formerly been a colony or a protectorate of Spain, Germany, Japan, and the United States, most recently as a part of the US Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands. In 1994, the nation gained full sovereignty. The United States continues to provide defense, funding, and access to social services. Otherwise, the economy of Palau is predominantly based on tourism, in addition to subsistence agriculture and fishing. Tourism currently constitutes 56 % of the GDP (Vianna et al. 2012). In 2012, 119,000 arrivals were recorded (PVA 2013). The market segments constitute Japan (33 %), Taiwan (32 %), Korea (16 %), the United States (6 %), China (4 %), and European citizens (4 %).

The Palau Visitors Authority was established in 1982. This office is responsible for marketing Palau abroad, collecting data, developing guidelines for policies and legislation, acting as a liaison between the ► industry and local communities, and raising awareness of tourism among the public. Its main attractions are wildlife and World War II heritage. Among them, the protected Rock Islands, with their limestone islands, reefs, and marine lakes (the Jellyfish Lake), are most iconic. The management of natural assets is partly funded by a Green Fee (US$50 in 2012), collected from international tourists.

Diving is the main ► activity and involves the nation's unique marine environments (coral reefs, manta rays, and sharks). It is organized both as daily tours from Koror and Peleliu and on all-inclusive liveaboards. Popular activities include snorkeling, sea kayaking, dolphin encounters, fishing, birdwatching, and visiting the World War II sites, including the sites of the Battle of Peleliu (Murray 2006).

National policies have provided a sound basis for the ► future. Given Palau's isolation in the Pacific Ocean, its ► development is dependent on the ► sustainability of air travel in the ► region. At the moment, arrivals are on the rise, especially from East Asia (PVA 2013). Available data on tourism developments are insufficient and there is a need for research in the field.



Palau, Figure 1 Map of Palau

See also ▶ Island tourism, ▶ marine tourism, ▶ military tourism, ▶ nature tourism, ▶ special interest tourism.

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Panama

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Panama is the southernmost country of Central America (75,416 km^2 or 29,118 mi^2). It is divided into nine provinces and three *comarcas* (indigenous regions) and has a population of about 3.9 million. Its dollar-based economy is estimated to be 92nd in the world and third in Central America, with a GDP per capita of

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Panama, Figure 1 Map of Panama

US$15,900. Panama has a strategic geopolitical ► location on the isthmus connecting North and South America (Figure 1).

The National Commission of Tourism was formed in 1934; in 1960, it became the Panamanian Bureau of Tourism and in 2008 the Panamanian Tourism Authority, an entity with ministerial status. Prior to the 1989 US invasion that deposed de facto dictator General Manuel Noriega, only three places were promoted for tourism: the Panama Canal, the Duty Free Zone in the city of Colón, and Comarca Kuna-Yala in the San Blas Archipelago. After US troops departed in 1999, successive governments focused on tourism for economic development. A masterplan in 1994 divided the country into nine tourism zones (later revised to ten zones) with emphasis on ► ecotourism, ethnic, and ► heritage tourism (Guerrón Montero 2009).

Starting in the 2000s, the government made significant investments in tourism ► infrastructure and ► development to complement private investment (most centered in Panama City). The official institution charged with ► training tourism personnel is the Panamanian Tourism Authority, which conducts occasional training workshops throughout the country (IPAT 2005). Additionally, universities and institutes offer approximately 14 tourism-related programs.

National and local governments share tourism responsibilities, and both establish policy and legislative frameworks. Currently, residential tourism has been promoted significantly at the governmental level and aided through laws that provide special tax incentives and ownership rights to investors. International conventions and ► cruise tourism have also become government priorities (IPAT 2008). At the local level, the civil society has responded by demanding support to small- and medium-scale tourism businesses.

Today, tourism is the country's first source of income. Between 2001 and 2010, tourism represented 76 % of internal income, and ► tourist arrivals grew by 9.8 %. In 2012, the industry contributed $4.59 billion to Panama's economy, equivalent to 13.1 % of the national GDP.

There is potential to conserve natural resources and develop economic and cultural options for tourism appeal. The challenge is that so far the benefits resulting from tourism have not reached all social sectors. Tackling the potential, challenges, and new tourism trends in Panama will continue to interest researchers. Topics of concern include ecotourism, residential tourism, cultural heritage and ▶ ethnic tourism, and service professionalization and standardization.

See also ▶ Destination, ▶ ecotourism, ▶ ethnicity, ▶ multiculturalism, ▶ second home.

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Papua New Guinea

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Papua New Guinea is the largest of the Pacific Island countries (463,000 km^2; 178,765 mi^2), comprising the main and over 600 smaller islands (Figure 1). The country has a population of seven million, speaking 700 languages. About 85 % of the population live in rural villages and depend on subsistence and small crop farming. The largest city, and its capital, is Port Moresby. In 2013, the country had a GDP of US$16.1 billion, and its income per capita was $2,300 (Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade 2014). Although promoted as a key export industry, tourism contributes only 4.1 % of exports and 3.0 % of GDP. Access to the country is by daily flights from ▶ Australia, the ▶ Philippines, ▶ Singapore, and ▶ Japan. Australia is the largest source market, followed by the ▶ United States. Over the past decade, ▶ inbound tourism has slowly increased in numbers.

Papua New Guinea has a tropical climate and is very mountainous, a characteristic which makes land transport difficult and acts as an inhibitor to tourism ▶ development (Sakata and Prideaux 2013). As a consequence, air ▶ travel is important for locals and tourists for travel beyond Port Moresby, the country's main international gateway. Lack of government interest in tourism in the past has contributed to a lack of continuity in strategy and policy development and implementation. The current government appears to be committed to tourism. Guided by a 5-year plan in 2007, it is working with stakeholders to achieve its development goals (PNGTPA 2007). The government promotes small-scale ▶ special interest tourism, such as diving, trekking and climbing, surfing, birdwatching, World War II history, fishing, culture, and village-based tourism.

While possessing abundant resources (including tropical rain forests, coral reefs, unique fauna, and colorful local cultures), the country has not been able to capitalize on these to develop a significant tourism ▶ industry of the type found in other Pacific Islands, such as ▶ Fiji and ▶ Vanuatu. A part of this might be explained by the high cost of transport, but governance issues appear to lie at the heart of the problem. Basic services have deteriorated; there are serious law and order problems; and institutional weaknesses allow corruption to thrive (AusAid 2003), all of which inhibit large-scale tourism development. Results of the Tourism Promotion Authority's 2011 tourist survey indicated tourists dissatisfied with services, infrastructure, and high prices of goods and services. On a positive note, the survey found that respondents rated the country highly in terms of cultural diversity and friendliness

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Papua New Guinea, Figure 1 Map of Papua New Guinea

(PNGTPA 2007). Its tertiary institutes offer a range of related programs; however, the level of academic research on tourism remains low.

See also ► Asia and the Pacific, ► cultural tourism, ► flora and fauna, ► island tourism, ► special interest tourism.

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Paradigm

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The term "paradigm" was first brought to the ► attention of the scientific community by Kuhn (1962). Influenced mainly by the natural sciences, he was interested in their ► development and argued that they go through different stages, including a revolutionary phase – a scientific revolution – which leads to a significant change, radical advancements, and new directions. In this context, the concept of a paradigm denoted shared theoretical beliefs, values, instruments, and techniques http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/thomas-kuhn/#3.

The contemporary use of the term paradigm suggests that it plays a specific role in the research process. As a ► system of views and beliefs, it is interconnected with ontology, ► epistemology, and ► methodology. Taken together, these form the research design: setting the parameters for what it is possible to know, while acknowledging researchers' philosophical assumptions about reality, and their attitude towards the research problem. To determine under which paradigm they operate, it is thus necessary to immerse themselves in the underpinning ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions, which in turn guide the researchers' actions.

Under the premise of qualitative inquiry, the notion of "alternative paradigms" (Guba 1990) emerged as a response to positivist/post-positivist approaches to research and gave rise to new research paradigms, such as constructionism/constructivism, interpretivism, critical ► theory, and the transformative paradigm. Mainly inspired by scholars advancing qualitative research, efforts have been made to delineate the differences among various paradigms. However, the attempt to organize them into neat categories can be problematic, as has been shown in relation to tourism studies (Pernecky 2012). Present-day definitions continue to depict a paradigm as "a basic set of beliefs that guides action, whether of the everyday garden variety or action taken in connection with a disciplined inquiry" (Guba 1990:17).

Different disciplinary foci allow for new paradigms to emerge at a disciplinary level (e.g., symbolic interaction in sociology and biological determinism in psychology). Although most tourism research draws on paradigms grounded in ► qualitative research, it is showing signs of maturity by engaging in novel conceptualizations and understandings of what tourism is and does. There are two leaders in the field of tourism: "worldmaking" which speaks of the transformative power of tourism and its ability to remake and demake worlds (Hollinshead et al. 2009) and the "mobilities paradigm" that seeks to understand tourism in terms of the movements of objects and things but also relationships, meanings, and performances (Urry 2000). These theoretical perspectives are promising candidates for facilitating original thinking by creating room for considerations not necessarily explored under conventional approaches to the study of tourism.

See also ► Methodology, ► mobility, ► qualitative research, ► worldmaking.

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Paradise

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The concept of paradise may be defined as an "exemplary center" where needs and suffering are eliminated. The archetype of paradise has been employed by tourism to emulate a climate of relaxation, ► recreation, and abundance which contrasts with daily working life. In paradise, all desires are fulfilled, and people are in communion with the gods. In many cosmologies, the human fall brought about an epistemological rupture between the world of the gods and earth. As a punishment, the gods introduced suffering and work to humankind. The process of redemption is predicated on the acceptance of laws and work (Korstanje and Busby 2010).

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Joseph Campbell explains that the concept of Eden means a "space of pleasure," while paradise relates to the Persian words Pairi (outskirts) and Daeza (restricted space). When the founding parents are expelled from Eden, it becomes a paradise, a prohibited untouched space. At first, the quest for pleasure, the return to paradise, denotes its own restricted and temporal nature. Ancient myths form the basis for current social practices. To validate laws and legal authority, society needs a continual recycling through rites of passages, which validates in contemporary times the main cultural values of the "center-out-there" (Cohen 1982). MacCannell (1976) acknowledges that sacredness corresponds with an attempt to emulate an eternal pleasure. As a type of imagined community, the paradise is located beyond the boundaries of urban life. Urban-rural separateness is identified by Graburn (1989) as a criterion of attraction from the profane to sacred space. To delineate the social status of some groups over others, the ► power to be in voluntary isolation serves as a barrier which symbolically confers social status to elite (Salazar 2010).

Using the foregoing as a point of departure, Korstanje and Busby (2010) explain that paradise in tourism should be conceived as a rite of passage where the founding values of societies are cyclically recreated. Daily frustrations and privations are projected in the archetype of paradise. As imagined archetypes, the multifaceted figures of paradise represent fertile source of applied research to expand the current understanding of societies and their resulted economies and politics.

See also ► Pleasure tourism, ► play, ► pilgrimage tourism, ► leisure, ► rite of passage.

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Paraguay

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The Republic of Paraguay is a landlocked South American country (406,752 km^2, 157,047 mi^2), with a population of some seven million and a GDP of approximately US$34 billion. It is a member of *Mercado Común del Sur* (Mercosur) and borders ► Brazil, ► Argentina, and ► Bolivia (Figure 1). Paraguay's geographic position makes it strategically important for ► transportation of Asian goods to Mercosur.

Paraguay declared its independence from ► Spain in 1811. The combination of Spanish and indigenous cultures led to a distinctive national character, and today the country is bilingual, speaking both Guarani and Spanish. Paraguay became democratic in 1989, with a presidential governance system and a two-chamber parliament.

The country is divided into two main regions by the Paraguay River. The Western Chaco region is a distinctive ecosystem with small population and attractive natural scenery, ranging from wetlands to desert dunes. The east, where 95 % of the population resides, contains Jesuit Missions, the Itaipu Dam on the Parana River, and the remnants of the inner Atlantic Forest.

Some three million short-term visitors (staying only few hours) enter every year for shopping; most of them are from Brazil and Argentina.

Paraguay, Figure 1 Map of Paraguay

Long-stay tourism volume has grown consistently over the past 8 years, about 500,000 visitors per year (World Bank 2012). In 2013, \$350 million or about 1 % of the GDP was generated from tourism revenue. Hotel capacity has grown by almost 35 % in the past 5 years, and there are now over 500 establishments with approximately 15,000 rooms (SENATUR 2012a). Besides South America, tourists come mainly from the ► United States, ► Germany, and Spain. In 2013, ► travel and tourism directly generated 38,000 jobs, while indirectly 112,000 jobs were supported by the industry (WTTC 2014).

Tourism policy is not a high government priority, although for the last decade the Secretariat of Tourism has organized ► resources to promote tourism supported by non-governmental organizations. The national masterplan (SENATUR 2012b) outlines the proposals for sustained growth and improvement. The main challenge for tourism is the quality of services. Several ► universities offer degrees in tourism, including the National Universities of Asuncion, Villarrica, and Ciudad del Este, as well as a number of private universities. Nevertheless, given the relatively small size of the industry, not many students choose tourism careers. The government and private foundations also offer training for managers and owners of touristic sites and services.

See also ► Americas, ► policy and policymaking, ► SWOT analysis.

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Park tourism

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A park is an enclosed piece of ground, of considerable extent, usually within or adjoining a city or town, ornamentally laid out and devoted to public ► recreation. It can be a "public park," as the various ones in major cities. A park can also be an enclosed piece of ground, of considerable extent, where animals are exhibited to the public, either as the primary or a secondary function. The word park is from Middle English, in turn coming from Old French *parc*, which came from the Medieval Latin word *parricus*, which has Germanic origin in *parrukax*, in turn related to German *Pferch* meaning pen, fold, or paddock. In English, the word was originally a legal term designating land held by royal grant for the purpose of keeping game animals. According to Oxford English Dictionary, this area was enclosed with special laws and officers. Many European languages contain a word with similar etymology such as German, *park*; Spanish and Portuguese, *parquet*; French, *parc*; Italian, *parco*; and Dutch, *parkeren*.

Jones and Wills (2005) maintain that the struggle between conservation and use of special places has ancient roots, stretching back 4,000 years to the Sumerian civilization. A legendary tale is preserved in a tablet at the Assyrian King Ashurbanipal's place at Nineveh, whereby two friends go afield from an urban area looking for eternal life. They enter into a sacred cedar forest, whereupon they cut down the trees, provoking the wrath of the forest keeper. The friends kill the forest keeper and then fell the largest trees to make a gate for a local city. This tension between use and preservation continues from that tale to modern time. Sheail (2010) outlines in detail the worldwide history of the creation of the first parks.

The earliest parks in the Middle East and later in ► Europe were hunting reserves for the powerful elite, such as kings. Slowly, over centuries common people gained rights to access the reserves for various recreational activities. The change is often highlighted by the action of King Charles I of England, Scotland, and ► Ireland who opened Hyde Park in London to the public in 1637, a precedent-setting action of royal parks being opened for public recreation.

Values and meanings

Virtually every country has parks and protected areas, going by many names: park, wildlife refuge, conservation area, nature reserve, or marine reserve. For comparison, the International Union for the Conservation of Nature created a classification system (Dudley 2008), known as the "IUCN Category System for National Parks and Protected Areas." It ranges from Category 1, strict nature reserve, which has virtually no human interference in natural processes, to Category 6, protected area with sustainable use of natural resources, which is a highly modified human-dominated setting. Inherent in this system is an underlying assumption that human use is negative and tourism use is harmful. There is an abiding idea that park tourism is a problem, leading to negative environmental impacts. For example, moving from Category 1 through 6 is a continuum of heightened human use of the landscape. Assessment procedures use a baseline of no human activity, with each new activity being considered negatively. This approach sees all tourism as negative. The International Union for the Conservation of Nature category system does not recognize cultural and historic parks.

Conversely, parks and protected areas are created by governments due to public demand. This demand is stimulated by attitudes of value strengthened by satisfying tourism use of parks in the past. In this view, park tourism is essential if

Park tourism, Table 1 Meanings of parks

Meaning	Explanation
Wilderness	Areas virtually untouched by humans, used for personal reflection, challenge, and redemption
Community social function	Areas, typically urban, used for community events, social functions, and athletic events
Hunting reserve	Habitats for the growth and reproduction for the populations for animals and birds. Selected people may kill the creatures
Physical and emotional health	Landscapes for tourists to gain health through physical activity, relaxation, and removal of stress
Ecological preservation	Reserves for the long-term protection of ecosystems, including all the constituent plants and animals. Human use is allowed, if the ecosystem is not compromised
Recreation	Recreation is the act of creating over again, or renewing one's self, and of replenishing. The primary object of recreation parks is tourist use
Meaning of life	Wild nature reveals meaning to one's life. Natural area allows tourists to reflect on the values such as continuity, stability, adaptation, sustained productivity, diversity, and evolutionary forces
Protecting native peoples	The primary goal is to provide natural habitat that sustains populations of aboriginal people. Tourists gain access to better understanding of cultures and the supporting natural processes
Historic and cultural preservation	The primary meaning is the cultural and historic significance. Tourists gain understanding of past events and ideas, including influences

such establishments are to survive the competition from other human activities that are environmentally damaging, such as mining, agriculture, and urbanization. Some argue that national parks need tourists if they are to survive the political battles with competing demands. In this view, tourism is essential for their long-term survival. Tourism use leads to people with an enhanced sense of place for park environments, with strengthened motivation to be politically active in defending these interests, increased willingness to pay for supplied services, increased willingness to donate time and money for their use, and desires to encourage family members and friends to experience them. There is a virtuous circle of ▶ ecotourism, whereupon park visitation leads to ▶ tourist satisfaction leading to further visitation. Eagles and McCool (2002) outline nine discrete meanings attached to the creation and tourist use of parks (Table 1).

Each of these meanings of parks is expressed through ▶ travel: a person moves from home to an area of special significance in order to seek understanding, undertaking a journey of exploration and discovery. Major debates occur in park management around the relative importance of each of the nine meanings. The conflicts among underlying meanings are a major source of management actions in parks (Eagles and McCool 2002). The resolutions of the debates are expressed in concepts such as types of recreation allowed, carrying capacity, limits of acceptable use, volumes of activity, policing, and tourist ▶ management.

Management challenges

Eagles et al. (2002) summarize the state of the art of park tourism management and provide guidelines for managers. Newsome et al. (2013) review the ecology, impacts and management involved in natural area tourism. Hornback and Eagles (1999) provide guidelines for the definitions and methods for the measurement of park tourism volumes, recommending that the basic unit of use should be tourist day, which is one person, engaged in 1 day of recreational activity. No global inventory of park tourism has been compiled; however, in 1996 there were about 2.6 billion tourist days of recreation activity in the parks and protected areas at state/provincial and national levels in the ▶ United States and ▶ Canada. This level of use

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was an underestimate, due to monitoring limitations and the tourist use of tens of thousands of parks in cities and towns that was not included (Eagles et al. 2000). The associated economic ▶ impact was estimated to be between US$236 and $370 billion. Extrapolation of these numbers globally reveals a tourist use level of over ten billion tourist days and over a trillion dollars of expenditure through park tourism each year.

Pergams and Zaradic (2006) found a long-term decline in tourism use of national parks in the United States starting in 1988 and credited this decline to increase the use of electronic media, with less time spent in outdoor recreation. In response, Balmford et al. (2009) looked at temporal trends in tourist use for 280 parks in 20 countries and found that visitation was declining in the United States and ▶ Japan, but was increasing elsewhere. They concluded that nature-based tourism retains the potential to generate funds for conservation and to positively influence people's attitudes to the natural environment.

In 2010, the signatories to the Convention on Biological Diversity created targets for park creation, known as Aichi targets. Target 11 states that by 2020, at least 17 % of terrestrial and inland water and 10 % of coastal and marine areas, especially areas of particular importance for biodiversity and ecosystem services, are conserved through effectively and equitably managed, ecologically representative, and well-connected systems of protected areas and other effective area-based conservation measures and integrated into the wider landscapes and seascapes. This is the most important officially designated target for park creation extant.

Future research challenges

For the first time, international, compulsory targets have been set within a global convention for park creation on land and marine areas, with a defined time target of 2020. This will have major impacts on tourism. There will be more parks available for tourism use, possibly leading to declining use in existing parks. There are indications that governments are not forthcoming with additional money to manage these new parks, leading to stretched budgets of existing parks. This could lead to lower levels of management effectiveness in existing parks and decreased tourist satisfaction due to inadequate facilities and programs (Eagles et al. 2002; Newsome et al. 2013).

There is no doubt the park tourism will be expected to carry increased levels of management cost. This in turn will make park tourism much more important to managers, leading to heightened emphasis on its management. It will also lead to higher levels of fees charged to the tourists or visitors. In prospect, a major activity from 2014 to 2024 will be ▶ adaptation of park tourism management as the Aichi target 11 is addressed. Researchers should attempt to understand how the fulfillment of these biodiversity targets influences tourism distribution and its overall impacts on parks and protected areas.

See also ▶ Environment, ▶ forest tourism, ▶ nature tourism, ▶ protected area tourism, ▶ recreation.

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Partnership

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The ▶ development, ▶ marketing, and ▶ management of destinations have increasingly focused on ▶ collaboration and partnership approaches (Wang 2011). Wood and Gray (1991) define collaboration and partnership as an arrangement when a group of autonomous stakeholders of a domain engage in an interactive process, using shared rules, norms, and structures, to act or decide on issues related to the case.

Collaboration and partnership arrangements in the tourism ▶ industry, particularly at a ▶ destination level, involve a number of stakeholders (both public and private) working interactively on a common issue or problem through a process of exchange of ideas and expertise and pooling of financial and human resources (Jamal and Getz 1995). Such activities can be conducted by taking various forms and focusing on different areas. Examples at a destination level may include joint promotion campaigns, participating in co-op programs for trade shows and advertising, organizing familiarization tours for travel agents and tour operators, information and market intelligence sharing, and contribution to destination events. Bramwell and Lane (2000) argue that by combining ▶ knowledge, expertise, and capital resources, collaboration and partnership strategy can produce consensus and synergy, leading to new opportunities, innovative solutions, and a greater level of effectiveness that would not have been achieved by the partners acting independently.

Framework and foundation

The literature on interorganizational relationships and strategic alliances in general and co-marketing alliances and networks in particular has used different theoretical paradigms to approach the issue of collaboration and partnership, such as resource dependency theory (Pfeffer and Salancik 1978), transaction cost economics (Williamson 1975), strategic management theory (Prahalad and Hamel 1990), and networking theory (Granovetter 1985). However, due to the complex structure of the industry, an integrative approach should be used to explain tourism organizations' behavior in forming partnerships. Based on Wood and Gray (1991), Wang (2011) attempts to propose such an integrative conceptual framework defined by four major constructs, with the emphasis on the nature and dynamics of tourism collaboration and partnership. These comprise the precondition construct which delineates the economic, social, and environmental conditions; the motivation construct which explains why tourism organizations choose to come together to achieve their specific goals; the stage construct which captures the dynamics of the process; and the outcome construct which describes the consequences.

In strategic management, it is generally accepted that organizations must adapt to their environments in order to survive and prosper. As such, they do not form partnership in a vacuum, and their collaborative behaviors are influenced and shaped by environmental forces, which set the preconditions for them to enter into collaboration relationships. These preconditions include economic conditions; crises or major events; changing demands of tourists; intra- and inter-destination competitions; organizational support;

and technology support. Wang's (2011) study reveals that from an economic perspective, an adverse condition prompts tourism businesses to be more receptive to collaboration for the purposes of cost sharing in operation and advertising, generating new ideas of promoting the entire destination to boost visitation, and creating superior products to consumers. He also posits that crises or major events, human or nature induced, are some of the most important and typical preconditions for organizations to form collaborative relationships for solutions, especially when the crisis requires collective actions.

Furthermore, emerging trends and fluctuating demand patterns (e.g., ▶ seasonality) of ▶ host and guest populations seem to trigger tourism firms, particularly the small ones, to participate in activities with other businesses. The increasing competition in the marketplace and the pressure for better destination performance in order to attract business serve as important preconditions for collaboration. From a macroeconomic perspective, external competition from surrounding areas is an immediate concern for destinations. This environmental condition increases the likelihood of firms to work together to promote competitiveness of their destination. In a similar fashion, organizational support serves as a very important precondition for organizations to enter into partnership with others. ▶ Information technology also plays important roles either as a driving force or as a facilitating tool during the collaboration process.

As pointed out by Wang (2011), organizations and businesses enter into collaboration and partnership relationships with different motivations, ranging from social to economic to strategic considerations. These motivations can be classified into five broad categories: strategy oriented, transaction cost oriented, learning oriented, cluster competitiveness, and community responsibility. From a strategic point of view, the formation of interorganizational linkages can be explained as the strategic or resource needs of an organization, and collaborations and partnerships in tourism are set up to achieve goals which are best met by combined activities based on the participants working within a formal structure. From the transaction cost perspective, organizations entering into partnerships are driven by the need for efficiency with the emphasis on providing incentives for efficient transactions and economizing on their costs (Williamson 1975).

▶ Organizational learning perspective focuses on the ability of tourism organizations to extract new knowledge and skills or to protect core competences from competitors. Moreover, to explain certain economic development phenomenon, cluster competitiveness can trace its theoretical foundation from the cluster theory, which was articulated by Michael Porter in the seminal work titled *Competitive Advantage of Nations*. Clusters are viewed as encompassing an array of linked industries and other entities important for the competitiveness of a destination that provides complementary products and services and offers holistic experiences. Often, organizations enter collaborative relationships in order to address community issues or public concerns. Those motivated by this desire are responding from a perspective of social responsibility. By participating in partnership initiatives, stakeholders in the community demonstrate that they are concerned about and actively responding to the needs and expectations for the benefit of the community.

Collaboration and partnership can be regarded as a process of shared decisionmaking among key stakeholders of a domain about its ▶ future (Wood and Gray 1991). In tourism, this involves joint decisionmaking among all those parties having an interest or stake in marketing and/or management activities. It is understood that the process does not necessarily manifest a sequential order. Instead, they are embedded in a dynamic and cyclical process whereby cooperation, conflict, and compromise coexist and various ▶ governance structures are negotiated to ensure that the whole process is smooth and successful. As such, Wang (2011) proposes the following five stages in forming successful partnerships: assembling, ordering, implementing, evaluating, and transforming.

The first stage describes a process of issue identification and partner selection so that an understanding can be built around it (Bailey and Koney 2000). This gives way to the next stage where ideas identified in the previous phase are streamlined and sorted through and efforts are made to arrive at a shared vision among all the parties involved so that appropriate actions can be taken (Selin and Chavez 1995). The implementing stage is introduced after the ideas and thoughts generated in the first two phases are put into action and plans and strategies are operationalized. ▶ Evaluation is another important stage in the collaboration process for most of the tourism organizations involved. The evaluation stage takes a retrospective view and assesses whether the predefined goals and objectives have been achieved (Wood and Gray 1991). In the final stage, members in the partnership determine the future direction of their relationships at some point in the lifecycle of their collaborative relationship.

Collaboration inevitably leads to outcomes which are usually multifaceted and contingent upon the context in which it takes place. There are three broad categories of outcomes resulting from tourism partnership: strategy realization, organizational learning, and social capital building (Wang 2011). First, the realization of strategy is directly reflected in the organizations' enhanced ▶ competitive advantage through collaboration. Within the destination context, the enhanced competitive advantage may include sharing marketing cost, effective use of pooled resources, increased ▶ destination competitiveness, competitive branding and image building, and improved product portfolio (Selin and Chavez 1995). The second category of collaboration outcome is related to organization learning. Collaboration essentially can be characterized as a joint learning experience and a vehicle by which firms transfer knowledge. In other words, organizational learning outcomes for organizations are manifested in knowledge transfer, organization change and ▶ innovation, and improvement in various types of required competence such as people, communication, and problem solving skills. The third outcome is ▶ social capital building. This refers to the ▶ resources available in and through personal and business networks (Granovetter 1985). These resources include information, ideas, leads, business opportunities, ▶ power and influence, emotional support, and even good will, trust, and the spirit of cooperation.

Future directions

In tourism, collaboration and partnership through strategic alliance between/among agencies, organizations, and stakeholders involved in destination marketing and management constitute a complex subject of study and call for comprehensive, holistic, and systematic approaches to its scrutiny. Tourism collaboration and partnership are usually voluntary arrangements among organizations involved in product development, marketing, and management in a collective way, and can occur as a result of a wide range of motives and goals, take a variety of forms, and occur across vertical and horizontal boundaries. For tourism development, a collaborative approach appears to be particularly relevant at a time when public, private, and, to an extent, voluntary sectors are increasingly choosing collective efforts to address related issues.

However, conventional research in destination marketing usually focuses on developing tools and techniques to understand and approach consumer markets, which is reflected in a plethora of studies on market segmentation. From a marketing strategy point of view, such an approach places the emphasis on the external environments for destinations. While these studies have identified and developed useful means by which tourism organizations can utilize when marketing and promoting their destinations to potential tourists, how to improve the marketing efforts through enhancing tourism organizations' capacity and capability has rarely been fully examined. Essentially, destination marketing is a collective effort which requires various organizations and businesses to harmoniously work together in order to achieve a common goal. As such, successful destination marketing entails a profound understanding of the critical aspects in the collaboration process.

In supporting this goal, tourism as a social and economic system is ideally suited to the development of collaboration and partnership, given the range and diversity of organizational and community interests and involvement. New methodologies combining various research paradigms are expected to be adopted, to not only help in understanding the nature and process but also to enable researchers to understand relationships among key factors contributing to collaboration and partnership in a quantifiable and measurable way in the tourism context.

See also ▶ Destination, ▶ management, ▶ marketing, ▶ organization and association, ▶ strategy.

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Peace

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Tourism and peace focus on the extent to which tourism mitigates conflicts among countries (international peace), among and within communities (domestic peace), and within the individuals. The peace-through-tourism proposition was largely based on the contact hypothesis that intercultural interactions can reduce the likelihood of intergroup ▶ hostility (Allport 1954). However, this relationship is a challenging research theme, initially narrowly focused on but now seen as linked to a number of overlapping areas of tourism practice and scholarship (Wohlmuther and Wintersteiner 2014).

Questioning this proposition, Litvin (1998) notes tourism is primarily a beneficiary of peace rather than a contributor. Initial skepticism about tourism as an agent of peace also related to definitional problems. Responding to this, Haessly (2010) asserts that peace must be manifest as a harmonious presence in society and its opposite – conflict – as a condition of peacelessness.

The proposition has progressed from asking whether or not tourism contributes to peace to broad acceptance and examination of how it can be purposefully managed to mitigate conflicts and contribute to peaceful solutions and harmonious relations (Moufakkir and Kelly 2010). While tourism does not automatically contribute to peace, it has the potential to do so in many ways.

There is a distinction between what might be termed the "solid" and "liquid" elements of tourism-related issues. The former, the more visible issues, relate to the concepts associated with sustainable and ▶ responsible tourism: the social, cultural, economic, and environmental impacts of tourism ► planning, ► development, and practice. The latter, the less visible and perhaps more difficult issues, are those stemming from negative attitudinal dispositions, such as stereotyping, prejudice, stigma, hatred, xenophobia, racism, religious extremism, and bigotry. With respect to these, the nature and quality of tourism-initiated contacts is a major factor.

Tourism has the potential to contribute to world peace, but it may also be detrimental to peace if it is not conducted in appropriate ways. There are practices (commissions to guides, false advertising) and forms of ► tourist behavior (soccer hooliganism, child ► sex tourism) which bring tourism into disrepute. Questions also relate to the genuineness and effectiveness of organizations involved in the promotion of peace through tourism. As new forms of tourism emerge, practitioners and academics must be alert and may need to develop measures to counter additional harmful impacts.

► Future research can document and analyze case studies in which tourism is used as a political, social, cultural, ideological, and environmental tool for peacebuilding. In an increasingly globalized world, it becomes imperative to examine the effects of tourism on world citizenship and cross-cultural understanding.

See also ► Cultural conflict, ► hostility, ► political science, ► sustainable tourism.

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Perception, community

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Much interest has focused on how tourism is perceived in the community and, in particular, by host residents. Understanding such perceptions is important in determining whether tourism is regarded positively or negatively within the community, ► destination, or host country. When developing tourism, the ► industry and its advocates, governments, and communities seek to maximize or optimize its positive impacts. Typically, they focus on its economic benefits while neglecting other equally important benefits such as the sociocultural and environmental ones. Such neglect, particularly the sociocultural aspects, has often led to tensions within communities about the role and contribution of tourism. In an era where sustainable development and sustainability are becoming universally accepted values, it must be recognized that the impacts of tourism are unavoidable.

Numerous academic studies have examined perceptions of the host community on tourism and its impacts. According to Ap, "Perceptions and attitudes of residents toward the impacts of tourism are likely to be an important planning and policy consideration for the successful development, marketing, and operation of existing and future tourism programs and projects. For tourism in a destination area to thrive, its adverse impacts should be minimized and it must be viewed favorably by the host population" (1992:665). Sharpley argues that "...understanding resident perceptions and responses is fundamental to the successful and fundamental development of tourism" (2014:41–42). Thus, disregard for the impacts of tourism and negative perceptions of the community are likely to create problems and a loss of support for it.

The Webster dictionary defines perception as the way one "think(s) about or understand(s) someone or something." It also refers to one's awareness, insights, and the image of something. Perceptions and attitudes are often used interchangeably. However, a distinction can be made between the two. The former is a general term while the latter refers to firmly held or "enduring beliefs." Technically speaking, it is easier and more appropriate to measure perceptions rather than attitudes. For various reasons, many in the community may not have firmly held beliefs or dispositions about tourism, while it is easier for them to indicate how they perceive it. For some, "perception is reality," as this may be the only knowledge or experience they have with a particular phenomenon. According to Pearce et al. (1996), such understanding may be derived from direct experience, word of mouth, social interaction, and the media.

Research overview

Research on perceptions of tourism has traditionally focused on identifying and examining the various economic, sociocultural, and physical (or environmental) impacts. These impacts may be further categorized as positive or negative, depending upon the nature of tourism and context of the study. Research has also linked perceptions of tourism and its impacts to community support for it or its development, quality of life, community wellbeing, and host-tourist interactions.

Identifying impacts of tourism provides a baseline for research on perceptions. According to Deery, Jago, and Fredline, the listing of "... impacts does not provide insights as to why residents perceive them in a particular way" (2012:67). Hence, it is important to understand why, for example, residents develop positive or negative opinions toward tourism or view it the way they do. Sharply's (2014) review of the literature on host perceptions of tourism found that the majority of studies conducted were empirical, quantitative, and cross-sectional in nature.

In terms of theoretical development on how residents perceive tourism, there has been limited research. Ap (1992) proposed the application of social exchange theory to provide a basis to explain why residents develop positive or negative perceptions toward tourism. To date, social exchange has been the most commonly used theoretical framework. Others include social representations theory, dependency theory, attitude-behavior theory, and growth machine theory.

Structural equation modeling has also been used in an attempt to explain residents' perceptions toward tourism. In order to identify a "universal model," Vargas-Sánchez et al. (2011) examined 13 studies which had used structural equation modeling. While identifying a number of variables, they concluded that such a model cannot be formulated. While previous studies have identified some common variables, it is not clear how residents develop positive or negative perceptions about tourism and how the relationship can be explained.

The question is still asked – Why it is so elusive to study and understand host community perceptions of tourism? Possible explanations include: the nature and characteristics of perceptions do not lend themselves to accurate measurement; variations arise due to different contexts and settings; too much emphasis has been given to the use of quantitative approaches; and there has been a lack of development with current concepts and theories.

Future directions and challenges

In order to advance knowledge and understanding of residents' perceptions, there is a need to reflect upon the past and identify what directions should be pursued in the future. First, one must review all relevant theories and conceptual frameworks used so far and to build upon them, albeit incrementally. It is essential to go beyond reliance on theoretical concepts at a superficial and basic level. Second, researchers need to examine the topic more from a qualitative perspective. Third, future research should examine perceptions on and of tourism in a broader context such as from a development perspective and thinking outside the box by viewing it in a non-tourism centric manner. Finally, it is important to examine the extent to which study settings and contexts affect one's knowledge and understanding of residents' perceptions in order to identify universal features common across all study settings.

It is also time to go beyond cross-sectional studies and opt for longitudinal or panel studies. While numerous studies and some progress have been made over the past few decades on this subject, theoretical development is still lacking. This is the challenge for tourism researchers to address in the future.

See also ► Community-based tourism, ► community development, ► qualitative research, ► stakeholder, ► sustainable tourism.

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Performance

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The notion of "performance" is broad. It appears on different occasions and has many uses, including theatrical practices. As a way to understand social and cultural phenomena, it is an important dimension of tourism studies.

Identifying performance

Performance has been debated extensively in the humanities and social sciences, especially since the 1940s and 1950s when it was associated with the early use of the concept of "play" (Huizinga 1955). At that time, performance was defined as the entire set of activities "of a given participant on a given occasion which serves to influence in any way any of the other participants" (Goffman 1959: 15). In the following decades, performance has become an extremely popular term used to indicate a number of very different activities, including linguistic acts, rituals, and folklore.

Performance has been extended far beyond its initial association with theatricality, to be employed more widely to understand human behavior (Schechner 2006). Instead of focusing solely on given symbolic structures, this new approach assumes that all human practices are performed and all cultures are performances. This shift – from a metaphor for theatricality to the ► interpretation of human behavior – has influenced different disciplines including tourism studies.

Tourism studies

In tourism studies, performance has been used to interpret cultural presentations as attractions and also to understand practices as specific forms of human behavior. The tourism industry prompts people to seek pleasure and entertainment away from their home. Once local traditions become attractions and are increasingly oriented to an "external public," performances may be shortened and adapted to the tastes of tourists (Cohen 1988). In such circumstances, performance becomes a parody of the original meanings of traditional cultures, in which the performers sell their own bodies as part of an event (Tilley 1997). Other debates suggest that local performance is not necessarily undermined by globalized tourism; rather, it has become "a diacritical mark of ethnic or cultural identity, a vehicle of self-representation before an external public" (Cohen 1988: 383). Local organizations and people are capable of transforming and reconfiguring tourism and creating emergent meanings while accommodating or resisting trends of standardization and ▶ commercialization. Cultural performance as attraction sometimes can even actively enhance and enliven local communities. By extension, this argument relates to discussions on "authenticity."

Performance is also used as a metaphor and an analytical tool to understand tourists' practices. MacCannell (1973) further developed Goffman's (1959) work and divided tourism behavior into different stages. The front stage is the meeting place of hosts and guests, or service providers and customers, and the backstage is the place to relax and to prepare (MacCannell 1973). People attempt to convey meanings and values in social settings on the front stage, dropping their actors' masks when they return to the backstage. This front stage/backstage division helps explain why tourists are interested in what happens behind the scenes and, therefore, why tourism practitioners prefer to create a front stage that looks like the backstage.

The metaphor of performance contributes to understanding how "embodied performances" are enacted by tourists at different stages or settings. According to Edensor (2001), "performance" is an interactive and contingent process between actor and audience. Tourists often follow particular settings to ▶ travel based on their specific roles and enact a number of performances at distinct stages. These stages provide the establishment of meaningful settings that tourists consume (Edensor 2001). The performance metaphor also sheds light on the liminal nature of tourism. Tourists may tend to perform their self-identity, since they engage in non-ordinary activities, and feel free from the constraints of their daily life.

Now and the future

Closely related to the term of performance, the notion of "performativity" appears to be relatively new within the tourism domain. Originating from John L. Austin's "speech act," it was used to illustrate practices through the act of something being performed. In recent decades, the term has been reinterpreted and reconfigured to indicate different meanings in a variety of fields. For example, Stanley Tambiah regarded ritual as a performative act; Judith Butler linked this concept to a discourse on gender and identity politics; and Bruno Latour examined the social as practice. "Performativity" is not so much about the performance and plays as such; rather, it emphasizes transformation, enactment, embodiment, and negotiation among actors.

Since 2010, an increasing number of articles about "performativity" have been published in journals such as *Annals of Tourism Research*. The emergence of the notion reveals a paradigmatic shift in how agency is conceptualized and exemplified in tourism. Though further study is needed to clarify the complexity of the terms and their application in different contexts, performance and performativity will remain valuable concepts to both strengthen and convey the multifaceted meanings of tourism as a social ▶ phenomenon.

See also ▶ Authenticity, ▶ cultural tourism, ▶ play, ▶ ritual.

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Peru

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The Republic of Peru is one of the 15 most diverse countries in the world. It has 84 of 117 eco-zones of the planet. It is the third largest country in South America (1.285 million km^2 or 0.496 million mi^2), with a population of 29.41 million in 2010 (MINCUL 2011). It is bordered by ▶ Ecuador, ▶ Colombia, ▶ Brazil, ▶ Bolivia, ▶ Chile, and the Pacific Ocean (Figure 1). Its economy is heavily dependent on mining (56 % of total exports in 2009).

Machu Picchu is considered the main cultural attraction, while the national reserves of Paracas (Ica) and Titicaca (Puno) are the most significant natural attractions. The main touring loop is the southeast route to Arequipa, Puno, and Cuzco. The country has 11,714 pre-Hispanic archaeological monuments declared as cultural heritage sites.

The country's image has improved since it overcame ▶ terrorism and economic and social instability it experienced between the 1980s and 1990s. In 1993, there was an 11.87 % fall in the number of arrivals. In quantitative terms, the country received 272,000 tourists in 1993 and reached a record of 2.8 million in 2011 (UNWTO 2013). During 2003–2012, the average annual growth rate was 11 %, 13 % of which was attributed to ▶ foreign exchange earnings. ▶ Domestic tourism represents 15.6 times of the arrivals and 2.1 times of the income of ▶ inbound tourism (Comunidad Andina 2013).

The contribution of tourism to the GDP was 9.3 % in 2013 and is forecasted to rise by 4.9 % in 2014. The number of jobs in 2013 was 1,178,500 or 7.7 % of total employment. For the same period, tourism contribution accounted for 4.8 % of total investment and is expected to rise by 5 % in the following year (WTTC 2014). Tourism ▶ development is hampered by poor connectivity, and there is a need for quality ▶ infrastructure (roads, airports, telecommunications, and utilities).

The Ministry of External Trade and Tourism was created in 2002. Its strategic ▶ national tourism plan was first presented in 2004 and is updated periodically. The proposed 2012–2021 plan implements improved ▶ governance by facilitating coordination with the Ministries of Transport and Communications, ▶ Culture, ▶ Environment, Health, Internal Affairs, and Labor and with the subnational governments and the private sector. Multi-sectoral working groups are proposed, and tourism development is on the agenda. The Ministry of Foreign Trade and Tourism's national program for rural community was launched with success in 2007. Two educational institutions have ▶ UNWTO. TedQual accreditation offering master's, bachelor's, and technical degrees. ▶ Facilitation initiatives include the elimination of visa and passport requirements for entry of citizens of the Andean community among others. ▶ Future tourism research should focus on its source markets.

See also ▶ Community-based tourism, ▶ heritage, ▶ nature tourism, ▶ rural tourism, ▶ sustainable tourism.

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Peru, Figure 1 Map of Peru

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Phenomenology

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Broadly speaking, phenomenology is the study of lived experience. It has a rich ▶ tradition that evolved significantly with the works of German and French philosophers in the twentieth century. Edmund Husserl (1859–1938) is generally considered to be the founder of phenomenology. His teacher, Franz Brentano, critiqued British empiricism's tendency to present consciousness in terms of representations or ideas; rather, consciousness is consciousness *of* something, its intentional object. Influenced by Brentano, Husserl strove over the years to develop a scientific method to get at the "essence" of experience in the lived world. His first phenomenological work, *Logical Investigations* (1900/1901), led to a decade of ▶ work in what he called transcendental phenomenology. This involves "bracketing" or suspending judgment or prejudices (and a naive realism) about the external world in order to examine phenomena as they are given in consciousness (Husserl 1973). This epoché is followed by a further step of *eidetic reduction* to identify the essential structures (transcendental structures) of things as they are given in consciousness.

Historical traditions

Husserl's student, Martin Heidegger (1889–1976), published *Sein und Zeit* (*Being and Time*) in 1927 which became his *magnum opus*. This commenced his thinking on the question of the meaning of *Dasein* (Being) and remained a lifelong ontological concern about experience in the world. In this early work, Heidegger addressed issues related to existence and *Dasein*, as a "being-in-the-world" that is aware of itself and of dying someday. This fills it with *Angst* (dread) and issues of (in)authentic existence arise as *Dasein* tries to grapple with *Angst* (Heidegger 1996). ▶ Language plays a crucial role, and it is the house of Being, as Heidegger addresses with respect to historicity and the "hermeneutic circle" of ▶ interpretation and understanding. The world is always an interpretive task, shaped by dispositions, habits, cultural norms, past experiences, ▶ education, and the like, which Heidegger refers to as the "fore-structures" of understanding. His later works continued to grapple with issues related to experience and existence, including the notion of dwelling, and the influence of ▶ technology and the instrumental use of things (in the natural world included). Heidegger was also known as an existential philosopher.

Heidegger's student, Hans Georg Gadamer (1900–2002), built on his work on hermeneutic phenomenology and the "hermeneutic circle" of interpretation and understanding. Influenced by the earlier works of Schleiermacher (1768–1834) and William Dilthey (1833–1911), philosophical hermeneutics, as it is referred to, continued to evolve under Gadamer as he explored how people come to interpret and understand their world – not just written texts but also encounters with other things, people, traditions, art, places, environments (natural, social, and cultural), etc. His major work, *Wahrheit und Methode* (*Truth and Method*), was published in 1960. As Gadamer strove to demonstrate in this work, truth is interpreted from a hermeneutic perspective; this does not mean that anything suffices as truth – it is not relative in the sense of relativism (Gadamer 1989).

By contrast, the influential evolution of phenomenology in the French tradition, such as with Maurice Merleau-Ponty (1908–1961) and his treatise *Phenomenology of Perception* (1962, first published in 1945), focused on the active role of the body in human experience. He, too, was seeking to reinterpret the division between body and mind common to most conventional Western philosophy and psychology, and his critiques of Hussrelian intellectual consciousness worked toward the historical and embodied perspectives developed in his key works. "Being-in-the-world" means that "we are through and through compounded of relations with the world" (Merleau-Ponty 1962: xiii).

Contemporary views on phenomenology have taken the critical turn even further into the domain of linguistic phenomenology (such as the works of Paul Ricoeur and Jacques Derrida). In addition, it should be noted that the work of the German philosophers has had a strong influence on other disciplines which have consequently taken up the study and critique of phenomenology, such as in psychology and sociology. Phenomenological sociology evolved from Alfred Schutz (1967), who critiqued Husserl's approach to "intersubjectivity," and developed his own version of this concept and how it plays out in the *Lebenswelt* (*Lifeworld*). A detailed philosophical exposition of the phenomenological tradition appears in http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/phenomenology/.

Phenomenology studies in tourism

Phenomenology has made a slow but steady entrance into tourism studies and related areas of ▶ leisure and ▶ recreation research. MacCannell's *The Tourist* (1976) was an early sociological attempt to examine ▶ authenticity in relation to the objects and experience of tourism. This seminal work stimulated a long string of subsequent forays into various modes of authenticity in tourism. Cohen's (1979) typology was also influential in directing subsequent examinations of tourist experiences. Studies of consciousness and "lived experience" of woman tourists and backpackers, pilgrims, heritage tourists, and "dark" tourists, as well as serious leisure experience in touristic events and destinations, illustrate the range of topics being addressed through phenomenological inquiry in tourism and leisure. Drawing upon Gadamer, subsequent works also applied philosophical hermeneutics to explore a range of topics, such as respect to tour guides and interpretation. Tourism research in this area has also focused on issues related to Self-Other relationships and meanings of place, ▶ identity, and being (see Edelheim 2007; Pernecky and Jamal 2010, for some examples of the above).

However, theory building is slow to develop with respect to the phenomenology of tourism-related experiences. Despite post-Husserl phenomenology's rich theoretical evolutions and methodological insights, surprisingly few studies have drawn upon these to explore aspects such as tourist *Angst*, or how the past (historicity) informs the present and the ▶ future "being-in-the-world" of heritage tourists (through various interpretive acts). Even with the burgeoning literature on authenticity and experience that has emerged since MacCannell's (1976) early work, relatively little theoretical attention has been directed to the issue of "authentic" experience, by, for example, drawing on Heidegger in relation to "being-in-the world" (which is also a being-toward-death) or his later notions of dwelling. Hardly any studies use Merleau-Ponty's extensive work on phenomenology and the body. Cohen's influential (1979) study, for instance, has been criticized for not providing theoretical or philosophical justification for the typologies of phenomenological experiences forwarded (Edelheim 2007).

A close analysis of the literature in this area of tourism studies reveals a range of methodological issues and challenges in addition to the lack of theory building. Trenchant criticism of the lack of awareness of various research paradigms that situate phenomenology in terms of ontology, ▶ epistemology, and ▶ methodology has been launched by several authors. Lack of clear explication of the phenomenological tradition being explored, its key concepts, and methodological application are evident in many articles published in tourism studies (Szarycz 2009). A number of positivistic research approaches have drawn upon Husserl, but very few have explained the assumptions driving reductionist efforts to get at the "essence" of tourist experience through ▶ quantitative research approaches that appear to follow positivistic paradigms of tourism research

(Szarycz 2009). Phenomenology, unlike positivist studies, rejects the mind/body dualism, yet some researchers continue to identify "subjective" and "objective" positions.

Following the postmodern and interpretive turns in the twentieth century, a number of scholars have called for greater methodological attention to the study of lived experience in tourism, such as through phenomenology and ► qualitative research approaches. Pernecky and Jamal (2011) propose a framework to guide research applying hermeneutic phenomenology and note the relevance of Heidegger's embodied notion of "dwelling" to studies of lived experience in tourism destinations. Suvantola (2002) offers a methodologically well-described study which employs an existential phenomenological approach to uncover the ontology of tourist experiences. He uses firsthand investigations of his own experiences as a ► tourist and also through group observations and deep interviews of individual tourists in holiday destinations (Suvantola 2002). He explains that texts can be seen as "layers of meanings" in hermeneutics as well as in poststructuralism and as "expressions of lived experiences" phenomenologically (Suvantola 2002: 10; cited in Edelheim 2007: 89). It therefore enables critical ► exploration.

Yet, very few tourism studies appear to have tackled critical research or critiques related to Heideggerian perspectives on technology, for instance. A rare exception is Edelheim (2007) who uses both linguistic phenomenology and hermeneutic phenomenology in his thesis to engage in a cultural critique of tourism studies. In general, both theory building and methodological development in the phenomenology of tourist experiences continue to progress very slowly, despite the importance of understanding the tourist experience to both academic and marketing/business interests. Much remains to be done.

Future directions

New mobilities and new theoretical perspectives continue to contest and change earlier, positivistic views of tourism and the tourist experience. ► Postmodernism, poststructuralism, and influences from philosophical and feminist studies have enabled new theorizing on ► performance, performativity, and the situated body. Positivistic studies will henceforth be hard-pressed to justify the passive, disembodied perspective of the tourist and the tourist experience evident in earlier notions of tourism, and new theoretical and methodological approaches will be needed to enable and justify both positivistic and non-positivistic approaches to the study of lived experience in ► travel and tourism.

Anti-foundational ways of undertaking interpretive research on tourist perceptions and experience (such as through phenomenology) demand careful theoretical attention and methodological rigor. Especially important for tourism research in this area is providing methodologically detailed suggestions for how a phenomenologist goes about generating descriptions of lived experience and how to address issues such as "validity" of such interpretive research. As already illustrated, phenomenology is a rich tradition and offers fruitful avenues toward research study and critique of consciousness and lived experience in tourism studies.

See also ► Experience, ► interpretation, ► paradigm, ► qualitative research, ► sociology.

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Phenomenon

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To speak of tourism as a phenomenon involves a journey through several varieties of meanings. While the economic dimension dominated the conceptualization of this phenomenon during the 1930s, and its measurement in economic terms since the 1960s, the subsequent sociological awareness of tourism as a total social occurrence signified an influence on all society and its institutions, thereby involving changes in the macroeconomic, social, and political processes (Lanfant 1995).

The relative newness and development of the notion of "phenomenon" in tourism studies from the 1970s affected the systemic conceptualization of tourism and post-tourism, as well as the controversy of its disciplinarity and indiscipline (Panosso 2008). There were also the additional associated visions of the inter- and multidisciplinary studies and the critical turn in tourism studies (Ateljevic et al. 2007), all leading to the vital question: What exactly is the phenomenon of tourism?

Tourism is a multifaceted social phenomenon. Its analysis focuses on two essential aspects, each one identified by its own descriptions and manifestations. The first relies on an economic-marketing orientation and the second is characterized by a sociocultural framework (Osorio and Castillo 2006). Most tourism academics choose the former by examining the phenomenon from a quantitative position, leaving a theoretical and methodological research void, a gap that reflects a complex relationship between facts and their meanings (Castillo 2011). This binary distinction demonstrates the existence of a prevailing positivist approach toward the investigation of the phenomenon. At the same time, it implies a significant omission in the study of related sociocultural issues pertaining to tourism.

In a complex and multicultural society, tourism is a phenomenon coexisting between subjects and objects with different essences. Indeed, it is immersed in a multiplicity of worldviews that point to cultural, social, and economic globalization, thereby making tourism an intercultural phenomenon wrapped in a multiplicity of practices that embody a multiculturalism produced by globalization itself.

Future research on tourism as a phenomenon, through a reflexive critical methodology, aims to transform the reality of what is manifested. It also implies as its essence a freedom from conventional wisdom, marking it out as a mass demonstration of people disrupting a variety of social and cultural events and activities that interpret the different meanings of tourism as a total social entity.

See also ▶ Epistemology, ▶ interpretation, ▶ paradigm, ▶ phenomenology, ▶ sociology.

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Philippines

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The Republic of the Philippines is an archipelagic country located in Southeast Asia (Figure 1). It has a population of 92.34 million and land area of 300,000 km^2 (115,831 mi^2). Its primary exports include semiconductors and electronic products, transport equipment, garments, copper and petroleum products, coconut oil, and fruits. Its major trading partners include the ► United States, ► Japan, ► China, ► Singapore, South Korea, the ► Netherlands, Hong Kong, ► Germany, Taiwan, and ► Thailand (World Bank 2013).

For more than three decades, the country has utilized tourism as a tool for economic growth and development (DOT 2012a). Known for its rich biodiversity, scenic land and seascapes, and diverse cultural heritage, the Philippines offers a wide array of attractions, and its major markets are South Korea, the United States, and Japan (DOT 2012a). On the domestic front, the past decade has experienced low growth, but there has been steady increase of international arrivals for most of the 1990s. The annual average inbound growth rate from 1990 to 2010 was around 5 %. In 2012, 4.3 million arrivals and 40.7 million domestic tourists were recorded (DOT 2012b). In that year, the direct contribution of tourism to the country's GDP was US$4.9 billion (PHP215.5 billion or 2.0 %), and it directly supported 762,000 jobs or 2.0 % of total employment (WTTC 2013). ► Tourist exports generated $4.2 billion (PHP183.8 billion or 5.8 %), while tourism ► investment was $1.46 billion (PHP64.2 billion) or 3.1 % of the country's total investment (WTTC 2013).

The 2009 ► national tourism act legislated the Department of Tourism responsible for tourism policy and planning, international and domestic marketing, facilitating investment, the accreditation of tourism enterprises, maintaining data on tourism and its economic impacts, and supporting tourism activities of local government units through capacity building (DOT 2012a). The national tourism ► development plan for 2012-2017 was formulated to address the key issues that impede tourism competitiveness and to achieve inclusive economic growth, with the vision of becoming the "must experience ► destination in Asia."

Tourism and ► hospitality education began more than three decades ago and has grown in types, levels, and number of programs from mainly vocational and technical courses to undergraduate and graduate levels with a strong management orientation and general education base. However, major human resources concerns and constraints (readiness of graduates, scarcity of qualified and competent managers, etc.) still hamper tourism development in the country. The prospects for future research are in the areas of the country's tourism competitiveness, destination image, destination management focused on sustainability, and ► impact evaluation.

See also ► Coastal tourism, ► cultural tourism, ► developing country, ► ecotourism, ► sustainable tourism.

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Philippines, Figure 1 Map of the Philippines

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Photography

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Considering how ▶ destination experiences are almost always marketed through attractive pictures, photography then becomes a logical addition to the researcher's toolbox. In addition, contemporary tourism represents an amalgam of culturally, socially, and psychologically derived mental images portrayed by photographs, which further strengthens the rationale for the use of photography within its studies.

The reliability and validity of photography as a data collection method was recognized in a ▶ comparative study on photo elicitation interviews and nonphotographic interviews to explore the efficiencies of each method (Collier 1957). The earliest work on photography's role in tourism is discussed by Chalfen (1979). Many studies following these two lead publications have shown how photographs act as a springboard for less articulate respondents to begin their story and facilitate discussions. They also draw out a different kind of insight rather than more information. This is because photographs evoke certain intangible constructs that are otherwise difficult to articulate. This inability to express inner feelings is sometimes attributed to unawareness, since tourists themselves are not conscious of the choices they make. Rather than using text alone, the addition of photographs can evoke deeper elements of the human psyche and play a meaningful role in constructing tourism memories.

However, scholars who have used researcher-generated photos have admitted that they might have missed some important findings. Instead, they advocate that photos used in elicitation interviews should be taken or owned by the respondents themselves in order to give them control to talk about issues most relevant to their lives. One of the more contemporary research methods that have employed respondent-generated photographs is the metaphor elicitation technique (Zaltman and Higie 1993). This was first used in the rural areas of ▶ Nepal where participants were given cameras and asked to take photographs of their everyday lives. The most striking observation here was that most pictures did not show the feet of the subjects.

During the interviews, it was discovered that the subjects did not aim the cameras incorrectly; rather, being barefoot was a sign of poverty in their ▶ culture, and as a result people chose to hide their bare feet in the pictures. This discovery of a "hidden meaning" in photographs points to the potential ▶ power of integrating photography with psychological theories and calls for tourism scholars who are attempting to understand ▶ tourist behavior to avail themselves of the choices and ▶ travel patterns to do so (Khoo-Lattimore and Prideaux 2013). ▶ Future research could employ the metaphor elicitation technique with photographs to explore ▶ tourist decisionmaking and choice. The ▶ ethics behind using researcher-generated photographs versus respondents' own should also be debated.

See also ▶ Behavior, ▶ decision support system, ▶ qualitative research.

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Pilgrimage tourism

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Pilgrimage is an ancient form of mobility and a fundamental precursor to modern tourism. Traditionally, it applies to journeys with a religious purpose, but it can also refer to secular ► travel with particular importance for the pilgrim (Morinis 1992). Espousing a distinctive ritual structure, pilgrimage is often considered to be personally and collectively transformative. Though individually experienced, pilgrimage is a social process developed iteratively over time; pilgrims walk in the footsteps of Others. In this sense, pilgrimage implies a ritualized, hypermeaningful journey – both inward and outward – to a person's or group's sacred center, set apart from everyday life, and built on rich mythological representations and symbolic markers.

In tourism and religious studies, pilgrimage often serves as an oppositional category, defined against other practices of journeying or devotion through sets of binaries, such as sacred/profane, popular/normative religion, and *communitas*/contestation. Some have argued that the two forms are closely related, with tourism considered a "sacred journey." But many scholars and practitioners insist on these divisions, arguing that pilgrimage is more serious, meaningful, and transformative than the leisure-time pursuit of sun, surf, sex, and souvenirs that marks typical tourism imaginaries.

Construction of pilgrimage sites

Eliade (1959) considered pilgrimage sites to be axes mundi, irruptions of the sacred where humans recapture cosmological harmony amidst the chaos of profane existence. Often geographically out-of-the-way, sacred centers were seen as peripheral to the institutional ► power structures of quotidian life and separate from the social world. Pilgrimage shrines are built around tombs of holy people (Santiago de Compostela, Sufi tombs in ► Mali), historical sites associated with saints or prophets (Mecca and Medina, Bethlehem, and Jerusalem), places of apparition (Lourdes, Medjugorje), and environmental formations or built structures that suggest divine interaction on earth (Buddha's footprints in Southeast Asia, the Dome of the Rock, the Virgin's houses in Loreto and Walsingham) or to contain effigies of deities who manifest themselves to pilgrims. The last is especially important in animistic (Shinto) and polytheistic (Hindu, Taoist) societies, and the object of pilgrimage in these cultures is often to see and be seen by the deity (Sanskrit, *darshan*; ancient Greek, *derkomai*; Japanese, *kanko*).

Like tourism destinations, pilgrimage sites are created through a synergy of person-place marker, where "marker" constitutes a wide array of material culture that creates distinctive imaginaries about the site. Texts are especially important in Abrahamic traditions: The Koran enjoins the ► *hajj* (to Mecca) as obligatory for all able-bodied Muslims. The Bible and the circulation of pilgrim narratives provided the impetus for pilgrimage to the Holy Land in the Middle Ages, while hagiographies (saints' biographies) and relics promised access to God through saints' tombs in ► Europe (Coleman and Elsner 1997, 2003). The great texts of South Asia marked places associated with the lives of Rama, Krishna, Buddha, and others. As Hindu epics, like the Mahabharata and Ramayana, spread into Southeast and East Asia, new sites were associated with the landforms in these myths. For instance, Mount Meru, the axis mundi in one Hindu creation myth, was associated with the Himalayas and with Mt. Phousi in ► Laos, while the Khmers constructed Angkor Wat as a metonym of the mountain.

Many narratives (oral and written) focus on healing at shrines. Pilgrims often leave supplications to deities or saints for miraculous interventions, as well as scrolls, inscriptions, and other ex-votos listing their names, vows, or monetary donations to the god in the expectation or receipt of a miracle. Varieties of material culture, notably much impressive and creative religious art and architecture, lend depth to pilgrimage centers, constructing their value and meaning.

Pilgrims carry back souvenirs, relics, religious objects, holy water, pieces of sacred ground, and photographs, which circulate through social networks and embody their experiences with the sacred; devotees sometimes claim they help them "pray better." Many such objects are perceived to possess miraculous or sacred properties because of their sacred provenance. Pilgrims may touch sacred objects to souvenirs purchased at the site or to photographs of family members brought from home, to capture some of the "contagious magic" contained within. Mundane souvenirs, such as statuettes, plaques, and rosaries may undergo elaborate rites of *inventio*, whereby a priest blesses them, transforming them into sacred relics. These are gifted to family, friends, prayer groups, churches and temples, and those in need of miraculous intervention who were not able to make the journey (Di Giovine 2012).

Popular vs. normative religion

Pilgrimage is often considered an act of "popular religiosity" in opposition to the norms of "authorized" religion. Victor and Edith Turner (1978) argued that pilgrimage constitutes a form of "anti-structure" that temporarily creates *communitas* (a commonality among pilgrims), which exists beyond the social structures of daily life – including institutionalized religion. Largely circumventing institutions that otherwise mediate between devotees and the divine, pilgrimage promises direct and unmediated experience of the holy – often the medico-miraculous alleviation of bodily, spiritual, or psychological suffering. Elaborate practices of penance and sacrifice may help obtain merit with the deity (in this life or the next) or tie the deity into an obligation to assist the devotee.

Against the Turners, Eade and Sallnow (1991 [2000]) pointed out that shrines are constructed through explicit and often public contestation between pilgrims and authorities or between rival devotional groups. Thus, religious hierarchies tend either to deter the faithful from pilgrimage or to co-opt its charisma through ritualized authentication processes. Sometimes reactionary groups may seek to eradicate a site, as when the Sunni-led Islamic State destroyed Iraqi Shiite, Yazidi, and Christian shrines in 2014. To effectively manage and facilitate pilgrimage, therefore, tourism professionals must appreciate the multiplicity of heightened meanings, deep-yet-conflicting ideologies, and modes of interaction surrounding pilgrimage sites, which may conflict with the socioeconomic and political norms espoused by the tourism industry and other outside forces.

See also ► Hajj, ► religion, ► ritual, ► sacred journey.

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Place attachment

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Place attachment stands for all positive feelings developed by the ► tourist in connection to a specific location. Taking into account that this calls for a holistic concept, which practically includes the entire economic activity, and place-related experiences (► UNWTO and ETC 2009), place attachment could also be defined from the residents' point of view. Thus, it is a psychological and social construction that refers to a tight connection between resident and place, expressed through the behavior of the former. In this regard, there are other notions as well to conceptualize the resident-place connection such as sense of place, place ► identity, place dependence, and community attachment.

Research on place attachment has been conducted over the years in fields such as tourism, ► marketing and ► management, ► history, geography, and ► religion. For researchers in tourism, the concept is a variable that explains the reiteration of visits to a certain ► destination (George and George 2004). There are also connections among place attachment and ► recreation demand, ► landscape and urban ► planning, experience, satisfaction, and ► loyalty.

A tourist develops attachment to a place if the destination becomes a memorable experience, and his personality matches the identity of the place. One of the scales used to measure the level of place attachment takes into account destination attractiveness, past experiences, satisfaction with the destination, ► travel to related places as part of family ► tradition, familiarity with the place, and tourist's age upon his or her first visit to the destination (Lee 2001). Thus, the place becomes a stimulus for the tourist, and the experience represents the medium (Orth et al. 2012) where the tourist's attachment toward the place is being created.

Practically, place attachment represents quality of the location to stimulate the tourist's ► senses through certain characteristics that see it in a different position from other places (Lynch 1960), thus creating unique and powerful associations, emotions, and memories supported by the tourist's sensorial experiences on the spot (visual, auditory, olfactory, gustatory, and tactile).

► Future research should aim to design a measurement scale for levels of place attachment, which unifies both the resident's and the tourist's perspectives. It is also essential to study the influence of place attachment on tourists' perceptions of experience.

See also ► Behavior, ► destination branding, ► experience, ► loyalty, ► satisfaction.

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Planning

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Tourism as an activity in a ► destination is created through the existence of unique attractions and events. These may include beaches, natural scenery, parks, historical buildings and landmarks, unique cultural characteristics, one of a kind local events and festivals, and outdoor sports and ► recreation activities. If a destination area wants to maintain tourism as a long-term economic activity, it must have planning to preserve and enhance the special features that make it different from all other destinations.

Tourism planning is a "strategic activity comprising a number of stages that lead to the determination of a course of action to meet predetermined tourism goals. Tourism planning is concerned with the future; is devoted to acquiring knowledge and identifying appropriate courses of action; and is about anticipating change, developing a strategic vision and facilitating decisionmaking" (Dredge and Jenkins 2007: 467). Tourism planning has five basic purposes: identifying alternative approaches, adapting to the unexpected, maintaining uniqueness, creating the desirable, and avoiding the undesirable (Mill and Morrison 2012).

History of tourism planning

Tourism planning has existed as a professional field for approximately 50 years. It started in countries such as ► Ireland and ► France where there was a strong belief in community long-term planning and especially in a regional context and rural areas. These earliest plans were done by government agencies and prepared by professionals with a background in regional and urban planning rather than tourism. There was an emphasis on the physical planning of destinations in the earliest planning works and not on product development or marketing.

The next influence on tourism planning was from academics and professional experts. These were mainly geographers and economists who had developed a special interest in tourism. Gunn's (1979) *Tourism Planning* was a "watershed" text for the topic. Inskeep (1981, 1994) made a significant contribution with his books on national and regional planning. Another important contribution was Wu's (2001) *Regional Tourism Planning Principles* covering the planning experiences in ► China.

Subsequently, management and marketing professionals influenced tourism planning, drawing especially from corporate strategic management and planning. From the classic texts on strategic management came the concepts of SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats) analysis and terms such as mission, vision, core values, goals, strategies, and critical success factors. The focus was on defining a step-by-step process and in emphasizing that strategic planning was a cycle to be repeated many times. Here, there was a priority on researching, analyzing, and projecting external environments with the procedure of environmental scanning (Fahey and King 1977). More people with business management backgrounds began working for tourism organizations, as they gradually moved away from just public sector governance into public-private partnerships. Marketing, public relations, and sales professionals added their distinct imprints on planning, especially in putting more emphasis on market and competitive analysis, rather than simply analyzing the destination's physical resources.

The fourth influence on tourism planning was from community planners and nonprofit organizations. Here, the main focus was on the process of how to get all stakeholders involved in discussing and defining future directions. Inclusiveness and "getting buy-in" from all stakeholders were key features of these planning processes. The visioning process evolved as an interactive procedure allowing many to contribute to strategic planning. In developing countries, non-governmental organizations play a key role in tourism planning processes. This influence has brought a more active role of local residents as individuals or as groups. Since the early 1980s, the ▶ sustainable tourism "movement" has supported the critical need to have resident and community inputs.

Recently, consumers have had a significant influence on tourism planning. For example, their demands for greater transparency of the governments and other policy-/decision-makers have led to plans being publicly available, rather than being in the hands of the selected few. Consumer use of the internet and social media channels has meant there is more open discussion of tourism planning processes and resulting documents. Additionally, the need to incorporate tourists' opinions, perceptions, and expectations through primary research has become more recognized as another necessary input. Today, tourism planning is more comprehensive and integrated than when it was first introduced in the 1960s. It has become more inclusive, with potentially all stakeholders having the opportunity to influence the planning process and the type of tourism to be preferred in the future.

Stages of long-term tourism planning

Every destination needs to have long-term plans, but few do. Essential as they might be, there is often a need to justify spending time and money on a long-term planning process. A well-developed plan offers clear future directions (e.g., focus attention on tourism), has a clear vision and goals (e.g., set targets to be achieved within specific time frames), identifies opportunities (e.g., pinpoint specific strategies and development opportunities that enhance a destination), and is based on widespread participation and varied inputs (e.g., through the promotion of shared ownership of a plan).

Despite the many obvious benefits, there still remain many destinations that have not initiated long-term tourism planning. Probably the most important reason for this inaction is that the destination has not attached a high priority to tourism as an economic sector. Additionally, in some places there is a belief that the private sector can handle its own planning, and there is no need for others to get involved. A third argument against doing long-term planning is that it costs too much time and money. A fourth reason may simply be the perceived complexity of coordinating planning with so many government agencies, private sector and nonprofit organizations, and individuals involved.

There is a general agreement that long-term tourism planning should be conducted in several stages and that it should use a participatory process including community involvement (Dredge and Jenkins 2007; Hall 2008; Mason 2008; Mill and Morrison 2012; Morrison 2013). The definition states that it comprises of "a number of stages" but academic authors differ on the labeling and ordering of these stages.

Generally, however, there is a consensus on the following ten stages of tourism planning: one, planning process initiation to define and identify the need for a tourism plan and specific issues and problems to be addressed (Hall 2008; Mason 2008); two, articulation of planning purposes to state the specific outcomes desired from the tourism plan and the reasons for doing the planning (Hall 2008); three, background research and strategic analysis to gather secondary and primary research data to support the plan (Hall 2008; Mason 2008; Mill and Morrison 2012); four, defining tourism vision, goals, and objectives through synthesizing the research to produce a destination vision and tourism goals (long-term) and objectives (short-term) (Hall 2008; Mill and Morrison 2012); five, preparing the interim tourism plan through drafting an initial plan for consideration by all stakeholders (Hall 2008; Mason 2008; Mill and Morrison 2012); six, reviewing the draft plan and preparing the final plan through incorporating comments, suggestions, and other inputs from stakeholders (Mason 2008); seven, assembling and communicating tourism planning documents by designing online and offline publications and communications in several versions (e.g., executive summary, full plan report); eight, implementing the tourism plan by carrying out the major projects and initiatives recommended in the plan (Hall 2008; Mason 2008; Mill and Morrison 2012); nine, monitoring and evaluating the tourism plan through tracking progress in implementing the plan and measuring the level of success in achieving the destination vision and tourism goals and objectives (Hall 2008; Mason 2008; Mill and Morrison 2012), and through assessing the effectiveness of the plan (Morrison 2013); and, ten, initiating the next stage of tourism planning, which is to be based upon the results and success of the previous round, and to commence another round of tourism planning.

Types of tourism planning

There are different types of tourism plans according to geographic scopes and specific purposes. Dredge and Jenkins (2007), for example, define tourism plans by geographic levels: national, regional, and local (sometimes called destination plans). In addition, there are three other types of tourism plans that serve specific goals or purposes. For instance, sustainable or ► responsible tourism plans focus on sustainable development principles as applied to specific geographic areas. The emphasis is on the long-term sustainability of natural, social, heritage, and cultural resources (Morrison 2013). These types of plans are especially important in environmentally and culturally sensitive destinations such as protected lands, protected marine areas, and indigenous tourism areas (Dredge and Jenkins 2007).

Spatial masterplan for tourism development is another type. These physically oriented tourism plans are for destinations with a particular focus on the proposed functions of specific geographic areas within the destination. Broadly, this can be called "tourism zoning," and the work is done by landscape architects, architects, urban planners, geographers, and others with physical planning expertise and experience (Morrison 2013; Wu 2001). Spatial structure plans of tourism development are more popular in developing countries because these regions need more facility and infrastructure investment and construction for tourism. Tourism plans based on specific issues or sectors are the third type. Notably, these are plans for specific tourism issues such as workforce development or safety and security, and for specific sectors such as the cruise industry, or domestic and ► international tourism of a country or region.

The term tourism masterplan is used quite frequently but seldom defined. It is helpful to think of this as a comprehensive tourism plan, implying that all parts of tourism and all related issues are covered within the masterplan. Another usual characteristic of tourism masterplans is that they cover longer periods (usually up to 20 years) than other plans. Some countries such as China have more formal definitions of tourism masterplans as defined by *The Tourism Law of the People's Republic of China*, but generally it is the broad scope of tourism masterplans that separates them from other types of plans.

The coverage of tourism plans is usually extensive, so multidisciplinary teams of experts and scholars are required to conduct them. The planning team must refer to theories, concepts, principles, and approaches from many disciplines. Referring to regional tourism planning, Wu (2001) notes the need to draw from theories of geography, history, anthropology, regional science, economics, and landscape ecology. Many tourism plans also need environmental scientists, marketing researchers and practitioners, community development scholars, finance experts, and others with specific knowledge and skills as dictated by the specific planning requirements.

The future of tourism planning

With a growing demand for ► travel and tourism generated by urbanization and globalization in the next decades, especially from BRICS-IN countries (► Brazil, ► Russia, ► India, China, ► South Africa, and ► Indonesia), origin-destination models formed in the last 50 years will be transformed, and new patterns of long-haul travel will replace the conventional ones. Policies, regulations, products, marketing frameworks, and ► visitor management styles will, as a result, call for more investigations by tourism planners.

Developed countries are challenged by declining industrialized areas and now need to renovate and redevelop downtowns and traditional attractions. Tourism planners must devote greater attention to integrating creative industry development, gentrification, industrial heritage tourism projects, ▶ shopping tourism, and events and festivals that help rejuvenate these areas.

Planning for destination development and marketing faces many new challenges worldwide. The advances in information and communication technologies, especially with smartphones, social media, and location-based service innovation and commercialization, and the new tourist mobility paradigm, have led to major changes in destination choices and consumer behavior.

See also ▶ Community development, ▶ development, ▶ policy and policymaking, ▶ sustainability.

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Play

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Play is a ubiquitous human activity which encompasses a vast realm of behavioral forms. Despite this diversity, there is remarkable consistency in the elements that are shared by these behaviors. There is general agreement that play can be defined as behavior that is intrinsically motivated with the pleasure that accompanies it derived from engagement in the activity itself. Play is delineated from other human behaviors by the heightened perception of choice, ▶ attention to means rather than ends, and being self- rather than other-determined (Ryan and Deci 2000).

Thus, the relationship between play and tourism is an easy one to make because of their common characteristics (Cohen 1985). For example, ▶ *leisure tourism* generally relates to the type of journey in which the primary motivation of the traveler is to seek a stress-free experience, often referenced as an ▶ escape from the stressors embedded in the individual's daily life. ▶ *Family tourism*, where individuals seek to visit family members or friends, represents a major type of leisure travel, and the enjoyment experienced from these reconnections represents basic human desire for a sense of relatedness and belonging that can be explained through current theories of enjoyment and intrinsic motivation (Ryan and Deci 2000). Many individuals actively participate in *sport tourism*, in which the tourist's primary purpose is to visit venues in order to view or participate in a sporting event or competition for the enjoyment of sharing an athletic experience with other attendees and thereby becoming a "part" of the athletic competition. Adventure tourists are motivated by the ► quest for engaging in a high-risk and often physically and mentally exerting exploit. In ► *adventure tourism*, individuals are typically motivated by the need for ► novelty and/or stimulation – to experience a high level of arousal through participating in such precarious and unpredictable experiences. The notion of arousal seeking as both an antecedent and theoretical explanation of play is central in the theoretical literature about why individuals seek and derive enjoyment and exhilaration from participation in adventurous tourist activities (Apter 1987).

In summary, many ► tourist activities can be considered to be a subset of the vast arena of play behaviors, in which humans choose to engage predominantly for the inherent pleasure derived from their involvement in the ► activity. The range of pleasurable experiences – from cathartic displacement to replenishing relaxation to heightened exhilaration – readily exemplifies the motivations and outcomes for much of play and tourist behaviors. Significant advances could be gained by the cross-fertilization of theories and research in the play and tourism literatures. With this integration, it is likely that the natural synergies that exist between play and tourism could be energized and utilized to make significant contributions to the development of theory and implications that can be applied to practice.

See also ► Experience, ► motivation, ► multidisciplinarity, ► psychology, ► theory.

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Pleasure tourism

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Pleasure is defined as a feeling of happiness, satisfaction, or enjoyment. Therefore, the pursuit of such feelings through travel is referred to as pleasure tourism. According to Currie (1997), "tourism" means pleasure travel, and according to the UNWTO (2007), pleasure represents the main purpose of tourism.

In the research literature, pleasure tourism is normally defined in opposition to business tourism. The classification is partly driven by statistical measurement conventions that mainly focus on the purpose of a trip rather than on its motivations. The UNWTO (2007) classifies tourism into two broad categories: personal and business/professional purposes. The former can be broken down into subcategories such as holidays, leisure, and recreation; visiting friends and relatives; education and training; health and medical care; religion and pilgrimages; shopping; and other pursuits.

The previous classifications do not distinguish between pleasure and non-pleasure tourism. In the strictest sense, any typology of tourists implies some degree of pleasure seeking. Therefore, pleasure per se may not be the distinguishing factor. Whether or not it is pleasure tourism depends on the degree of freedom in which pleasure may be pursued.

Smith (1989) defines tourists as a temporarily leisured person who voluntarily visits a place away from home for the purposes of experiencing a change. Since this is felt as desirable, its experience or anticipation produces pleasure. For pleasure tourism to occur, some basic conditions are needed, including a personal need to experience a change by means of going on a trip, voluntariness

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of the choice, as well as leisure time and activities that are free from commitments. Nonetheless, this does not mean that other forms of tourism (business, study, health) are unpleasant; it only means that in a restricted environment, one tries to do the best under certain constraints and restrictions (constrained maximization). In the case of pleasure tourism, the organization of the visit is unconstrained. Therefore, with respect to the aforementioned conditions, one could expect higher reward from the tourism experience.

Whether, to what extent, and under which conditions this actually occurs will depend on many factors such as expectations, experience, and cognitive dissonance, which are not necessarily related to previous categorizations. Understanding these aspects and relationships, as well as the source of pleasure, is the aim of a recent line of investigation regarding tourism and life satisfaction (Bimonte and Faralla 2012, 2013). Furthermore, finding out whether tourism contributes to personal and societal wellbeing is the main challenge that its research has to take on in the near future.

See also ► Business tourism, ► health tourism, ► leisure, ► motivation, ► recreation.

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Poland

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Poland is located in Central Europe, bordering with ► Germany, ► Czech Republic, ► Slovakia, ► Ukraine, ► Belarus, Baltic Sea, Kaliningrad, and ► Lithuania (Figure 1). The country covers an area of 313,000 km^2 (120,726 mi^2) and has a population of over 38.5 million (Central Statistical Office 2013). It is a unitary state made up of 16 voivodeships, based on the country's historic regions.

The year 1873 is considered the starting date of contemporary Polish tourism. Poland as a ► destination has been frequented by tourists after its political transformation in 1989 and accession to the European Union in 2004. Kraków, Wrocław, and its capital Warsaw are regarded as the most attractive urban destinations. Gdańsk, Poznań, Lublin, and Toruń are also gaining in popularity. The Auschwitz German concentration camp, located near Oświęcim, is a historic site and place of Holocaust pilgrimage. Areas of natural beauty and ► recreation include Baltic Sea coast, Masurian Lake District, Białowieża Forest, and Karkonosze, Tatra, Pieniny and Bieszczady Mountains.

In 2010, tourism accounted for 5.3 % of GDP, corresponding to 58.3 million international arrivals. This is comparable with the recent peak of 66.2 million recorded in 2007. Germany is the largest source market, accounting for 36 % of arrivals. International receipts totaled US$9.5 billion in 2010 and contributed to 4.9 % of total Polish export earnings (UNWTO 2013). In the same year, the ► accommodation and catering sectors employed 241,000 people (OECD 2012).

Poland, Figure 1 Map of Poland

The European countries with the highest growth in the number of guests staying in the accommodation sector in 2012 included ► Ireland, ► Belarus, ► Russia, ► Ukraine, ► Norway, ► Greece, ► Latvia, ► Switzerland, ► Portugal, and ► Turkey. Among non-European countries the highest growth was from ► Brazil, ► India, the ► United States, and ► Australia (Institute of Tourism 2013).

Political transformation has brought significant changes in tourism. The Polish Tourism Organization, established in 1999 and with 17 international offices, has expanded its activities at regional and local levels. The first department of tourism and recreation was founded in 1974 at the E. Piasecki University School of Physical Education in Poznań. In 2012, 66 out of the 445 public and private universities were offering tourism ► education.

Main assumptions concerning the future ► development of tourism are presented in the "Marketing Strategy for Poland in Tourism Sector from 2012 to 2020" and "Directions for Tourism Development until 2015," which identify urban and ► cultural tourism as priority products for development. These strategy documents seek to foster and strengthen interest in Poland as an attractive destination for ► business tourism (Ministry of Sport and Tourism 2008). The objectives will be supported by research toward the development of infrastructure, integrated products, and human resources to strengthen the growth of different types of tourism.

See also ▶ Cultural tourism, ▶ heritage, ▶ inbound tourism, ▶ urban tourism.

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Polar tourism

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Polar tourism refers to visits, excluding those for scientific research or support, to the ▶ Arctic (typically comprised of the states, water bodies, and islands north of the tree-line) or the ▶ Antarctic (often described as the continent itself, ice shelves, water, and islands south of the Antarctic Convergence). The geographic remoteness associated with unique biota, landscapes, and climate forms the appeal of the polar regions. The majority of polar tourists fly to gateway ports and then board relatively small ice-strengthened expedition cruise vessels (Stewart et al. 2005). Recently, polar tourism has diversified to include larger vessels (not ice-strengthened) as well as yachts and a greater range of land-based adventure activities. Specifically in the Arctic, cultural and indigenous tourism activities have become more popular.

Polar tourism is seasonal, occurring mainly in the short summer seasons. Well-off and older people in search of adventure allied with education are generally regarded as the typical polar ▶ tourist, with the majority from North America, ▶ Europe, and Australasia. Tourist numbers are hard to determine in the Arctic (Johnston 2011), but figures for Antarctica estimated 34,000 tourists in the 2012–2013 season.

The ▶ governance of polar tourism is characterized by a multilayered and complex ▶ system, including formal and informal transregional and regional regulations by states in the Arctic for their sovereign territory and the various regulatory instruments associated with the Antarctic Treaty System (Haase et al. 2009). Of importance are also informal industry self-regulation bodies such as the Association of Arctic Expedition Cruise Operators and the International Association of Antarctica ▶ Tour Operators, indirect regulation of ship-based activities through the International Maritime Organization, as well as local jurisdictions at the regional and community level in the Arctic or at scientific stations in the Antarctic (Bastmeijer 2003).

Polar tourism has to date received significant scholarly ▶ attention through self-organized research groups such as the International Polar Tourism Research Network, and substantial progress has been made in understanding polar tourism. ▶ Future ▶ management and research challenges include how visitors value the polar regions; how market dynamics (the rise of the Asian market) and new destinations (in Arctic ▶ Russia) influence polar tourism; how regulation and management will adapt under rapidly changing global environmental, political, and economic conditions; and how polar tourism may be positioned as a result of peak oil and ▶ climate change (Müller et al. 2013).

See also ▶ Arctic tourism, ▶ antarctic tourism, ▶ climate change, ▶ sustainable tourism.

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Policy and policymaking

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Starting from the 1990s, policy has become an important item in the tool kit of tourism experts and professionals. Its concept is commonly used to refer to sets of actions addressing broad issues such as ► strategy, competitiveness, sustainability, and aggregate value added of tourism activities in a ► destination.

Policy was originally defined by Gee and Fayos-Solà as "a public policy designed to achieve specific objectives relevant to tourism. . ." (1997: 286). Others assert that "tourism policy assembles the ► planning function and political goals for tourism into a set of guidelines. . ." (Edgell et al. 2007: 5). A more complete contemporary view may frame it as a macro-governance function, dealing with both sectorial and transversal objectives of tourism. It is comprised of a set of programs, instruments, measures, and actions. Once the spatial and time frames of a policy have been established and analyzed, it is substantial to specify its goals and objectives, its means, and the governance actors involved.

The process of defining tourism policies in a destination must be based on both a formal methodology and a collaborative approach (Fayos-Solà and Alvarez 2014). The ► model developed by Fayos-Solà et al. (2003) has been used extensively by the World Tourism Organization, with policymaking usually comprising three successive stages, from an exhaustive analysis of the destination and its stakeholders (the tourism analysis phase) in a *Green Paper*, followed by the choice of a strategic positioning in a *White Paper*, to the determination of specific ways and means in the *Tourism Policy Plan*.

Green and white papers

A Green Paper is the first stage in tourism policymaking. It results from the preliminary efforts of a community of knowledge acting upon a specific destination. The focus of this community's intelligence endeavors is both the analysis of data and existing governance procedures and the comprehension of the (political) decisionmaking processes and stakeholders involved in determining new objectives and mobilizing the ► resources to achieve them. It implies consultation and debate among the tourism agents and experts leading to a new conceptual and institutional framework for action, while simultaneously identifying all stakeholders involved and their technical and political capabilities.

Preparing a White Paper is the next stage. It provides an envelope of feasibility and validity for the strategic positioning chosen, as well as the objectives and means of policy. It continues from the analysis phase initiated in the Green Paper, extending it to an ► exploration of the comparative advantages existing in the destination/cluster. An analysis of existing and potential competing destinations is also essential. Thus, a White Paper is the analysis of a community of knowledge and a policy exercise providing a complete diagnosis and a dynamic objective setting, relative to the external and internal factors making up the comparative and potential competitive advantages of a destination. It creates an indispensable theoretical and practical framework to set up the contents of an explicit plan.

Tourism policy plan

A Tourism Policy Plan is the definitive final stage in policymaking. Its recommendations, prescriptions, and voluntary and compulsory standards (including benchmarking exercises, best practices, norms, and laws) are formulated after careful consideration of the Green and White Paper conclusions. It can be discussed at parliamentary level. However, experience shows that best practical results are achieved when a participatory governance process for its discussion and implementation is initiated from the very first stage (Green Paper).

As already commented, a Tourism Policy Plan is thus a set of programs, subprograms, and actions that make use of monetary, fiscal, and knowledge management instruments to adopt measures applicable in specific actions. Its purpose is to achieve both sectorial (such as competitiveness and ▶ sustainability of tourism activities) and transversal objectives (▶ employment, incomes, growth, and ▶ development) in a destination – at local, regional, national, and supranational levels.

Tourism Policy Plans became the standard format for governmental action at the beginning of the 1990s, with pioneering plans in countries like ▶ Australia, ▶ Canada, and ▶ Spain (SGT 1992) and many other governments creating their own policy setups in the following two decades. A need for clarification of concepts and sound methodology has been apparent from the start, but it was only in the 2000s (Fayos-Solà and Pedro 2001) when the OCDE, the European Union, and the Word Tourism Organization (2001) began efforts in this respect and emphasis on ▶ governance became evident.

Programs

Based on the experience of existing Tourism Policy Plans and work at ▶ UNWTO, the following set of programs is usually considered when delineating a plan: data programs (systematizing data conceptualization and statistical information collection and applications, often in the framework of a Tourism Satellite Account exercise), sustainability programs (creating indicators, benchmarks, and norms relative to the long-term feasibility of tourism strategies and operations in a destination), knowledge management programs (referring to "bridging theory and practice" and thus including the creation of pure and applied research, and dissemination of ▶ knowledge relating to tourism), ▶ innovation programs (very often with a restricted reach of application of knowledge, the final result on ▶ product creation of bridging theory and practice exercises), excellence programs (establishing norms and stimulus to achieve *efficiency* in tourism products and processes and *quality*, understood as customer and stakeholder satisfaction), communication and promotion programs (including these aspects of tourism ▶ marketing and often involving all internal and external stakeholders, beyond direct customers), and cooperation programs (referring to specific governance setups for the implementation of the Tourism Policy Plan, beyond stakeholder participation in the Green and White Papers).

See also ▶ Europe, ▶ governance, ▶ international tourism, ▶ Tourism Satellite Account.

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Political science

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Political science deals with the theoretical and practical studies of politics. While the notable growth in tourism activities from the middle of the twentieth century sparked the interest of national governments and even international organizations, the field of political science began its academic analysis of tourism rather later (Matthews and Richter 1991; Velasco 2004; Scott 2011).

Political analysis

The first political science studies took a regulatory approach, focusing on the training, legitimization, and organization of power, while leaving aside the impact of the rules of power on societies. After World War II, in the context of the welfare state, the field began to concern itself with the observable facts of social realities and with applied policy. Theoretical and applied studies of tourism did not begin until almost the last quarter of the twentieth century and with much less intensity than in other social sciences (geography, anthropology, and sociology).

The first studies on the subject were developed in the 1970s when political scientists were more interested in applied than theoretical aspects. There has been notable growth in tourism research since then, especially with that related to the analysis of tourism as a factor influencing economic development (Jenkins 1980). The study of tourism in the discipline of political science has, nevertheless, remained minor. Matthews and Richter (1991) explain this lack of interest among political scientists as resulting from the prevalent understanding of tourism as a private individual activity.

Velasco (2004) points out that the limited analysis of tourism undertaken in the field of political science has focused on aspects related to ▶ power, the formulation of laws and regulations, and the economic impact of the industry. An economic perspective has regularly dominated the study of its policies. Thus, there has been an attempt to identify tourism as a consumer activity, offered and distributed by a productive industry and directed at tourists as consumers. In this manner, the tourist is positioned outside the public sphere and in the context of the private sector. It is likely that this has delayed the study of tourism within political science (Velasco 2004).

The predominance of the market economy perspective, within which tourism is conceived as governed by the law of supply and demand, has obscured the social aspects of tourism. Analysis of the phenomenon is thus located in the economic sphere to the detriment of consideration of its political and public dimensions and is dominated by the application of business management techniques with tourism policy reduced to simple marketing plans. The denial of the political and public nature of the industry impedes a genuine understanding of the phenomenon (Zhang and Yan 2009).

Tourism involves different public factors related directly and indirectly to theoretical and practical policy issues, such as the development of societies, the use of natural and cultural resources, health, transport, and telecommunications systems and their infrastructure, public safety, and border management. At the same time, tourism directly influences aspects of government management, contributing to the balance of payments, creating direct and indirect employment, bolstering local economies, creating national image, and preserving cultural and environmental heritage.

The significance of the tourism phenomenon as a public issue has increased in research and teaching for political science. A number of the key concepts of the discipline have contributed toward understanding of tourism from a complex and interdisciplinary perspective. Matthews and Richter (1991) highlight seven aspects in particular: political socialization, ideology, power, authority, legitimacy, sovereignty, and political development. The importance that the industry has acquired as an instrument of public action over the last few decades puts public policy concerning tourism at the forefront of government agenda. As Scott puts it, “studies of tourism public policies provide useful insights into who gets what, when, and why in the tourism policy process, and might also make a contribution to better informed government decisionmaking and policymaking” (2011: 6).

Tourism policy as a subject of study

With the profit generated by mass tourism in the 1950s and 1960s, Western nations no longer viewed the industry as a private, small-scale activity. Tourism became an engine of development for many developed and developing countries. Governments created departments to apply policies aimed at its planning and promotion abroad. While the intentions underpinning governmental activities in relation to the industry have varied substantially, state intervention has continued since the beginning of modern tourism. In the early decades of mass tourism, ideology determined whether its development received strong government support. From the 1980s, the considerable profits generated by tourism meant that political discussion no longer centered on the degree of state intervention, but rather focused on the question of management.

Tourism is a constructed phenomenon that emerges from the prevailing political-economic view. State intervention in items concerning a specific policy can only be analyzed in relation to the social, economic, and political context; tourism policies are bound up with the government’s ideas and values and its relationship to other political and economic stakeholders. Ideological and practical aspects converge in the government’s policy agenda. To gain a better understanding of tourism policy and its results, it is thus essential that empirical and theoretical analysis is not separated.

Within this context, the study of tourism policy has clearly been gaining importance and can be understood as a mixed, multidisciplinary field related to tourism (Almeida 2014). The definitions of its policy are diverse; Hall and Jenkins feel that “tourism policy is whatever governments choose to do or not to do with regard to tourism” (1995: 8), an interpretation that provides researchers with a wide investigative scope. Regardless of the definition employed, the main focus of policy research is public action in relation to tourism. Nor is there any clear agreement on the approach to be adopted in its policy studies or related fields of interest. An economic approach has been developed within which tourism policy is considered an economic sector policy with certain particularities (Sessa 1976). A noncritical vision predominates in these studies, highlighting achievements over the territorial and social imbalances caused by tourism. The difficulties in generating development contrast with government praise over the role it plays in regional and national economic development.

To a lesser extent, political science proposes a political approach to tourism policy. Initially, there was slight interest in tourism within this discipline, as it was considered a frivolous field of little substance. The experts in this subject themselves found it difficult to specify a definition of tourism policy. However, the role of its policy within the discipline has evolved to such a degree that some scholars consider it completely independent of the economy. For example, Velasco (2004) defends two approaches autonomous of the field of political studies: one strictly centered on the industry and the other a cross-sectoral approach that would cover all the other sectors directly related to tourism (security, environment, and the like).

Status and trends

Over recent decades, the link between political science and tourism has increased significantly. Nevertheless, from the distance covered, there is still a long way to go, and it is necessary to delve further into this field of study from a complex multidisciplinary perspective. Political science offers a number of theoretical and methodological tools that contribute to the understanding of tourism. As with all growing economic activities, it is bound up in conflicts and interests; these demand critical analysis that goes beyond mere studies of the promotion of tourism and acknowledges the complex interweaving of the interests and players involved. Political science occupies a central place in this challenge.

At present, three main approaches to analyzing public and tourism policy can be identified (Scott 2011). First, the scientific approach focuses on providing factual knowledge and analysis rather than a political view and introduces theories and concepts that connect with other approaches. This analysis aims to achieve a rational vision that goes beyond particular aspects of policy and emphasizes the need to achieve the rational choice of objectives. This approach uses methods and techniques drawn from economics, sociology, political science, inter alia, such as cost-benefit analysis, public choice analysis, the modeling of policy, the delineation of objectives and actions, satellite accounts of sustainable development for tourism policy, and so on.

Second, the institutional approach focuses on the government structure, rules, and investments that exert an influence on tourism policy development. This analysis argues that the industry is heavily influenced by the government and its institutions. Within this perspective, some interesting theories and practical applications have been developed, such as regime theory (the structure of property affecting the development of tourism) and regulation theory (analyzing the transformation of tourism from Fordism to post-Fordism). Other studies of interest are community-based tourism and the analysis of ethics in its policy.

Third, the social approach highlights the interactions between individuals and organizations and processes to reach agreements. This analysis is interested in collaborative policy (public-private relations), the relational approach (stakeholder participation in the institutions), tourism governance, social capital, and ▶ power and policy narratives.

The concept most studied in relation to tourism policy is ▶ development. For a long time, the actions framed in a country's or destination's tourism policy were directed toward competitiveness. In this traditional view, its policy was understood as a tool for growth. However, in recent decades, there has been a shift in focus and other important concepts, such as sustainability and governance. The sustainability of destinations is now one of the issues most frequently researched and analyzed, this being an aspect of considerable concern to host communities. Development models related to such policy usually present a choice between two opposing goals and routes: sustainable development or competitiveness, as asserted in Michael Hall's studies. In a slightly different stream, the study of tourism governance has focused on the role of stakeholders, participation processes, the development of competitiveness indicators, and the identification of best practices (Beaumont and Dredge 2010).

At present, research on tourism policy is concerned with analysis from a sociological perspective and local studies. Within this sphere, a number of emerging research issues can be detected: the role(s) of new local agents, the implementation processes of governance at the destinations, new forms of public-private partnerships, networking and clusters of destinations and tourism products, comparative studies of tourism policies, environmental practices and restrictions, technology and destinations, and globalization and tourism (Bianchi 2002).

See also ▶ Governance, ▶ policy and policymaking, ▶ power, ▶ public good.

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Pollution

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Pollution in tourism covers pollutants in solid waste (organic/inorganic), water (sea/river/sewage), and air (outdoor and indoor). Thus, multidisciplinary ► knowledge is often called for an in-depth understanding, particularly research from chemistry, physics, and biology. Usually, pollutions are associated with ► carrying capacity of a ► destination, ► tourist behavior, ► energy or ► water consumption, industry development, transport emissions, decoration, and smoking (Chan 2009, 2012; Chan and Lam 2002). Periodicals such as the *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, and *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* have been major sources of reference for its research.

Pollution mitigation devices have been demonstrated in a series of ► hospitality and tourism studies on the use of heat pumps, solar panels, thawing machines, solar control ► film, LED lighting, and HEPA filters (Chan 2009; Chan et al. 2013a, b). ► Future research on pollution alleviation may extend to the photovoltaic, environmental ► impact of design using large areas of glass, air purification and cleaning ► technology, and composter and chiller's working fluid. Environmental studies on ► green tourism include estimation of emissions attributable to ► energy consumption in hotels and ► corporate social responsibility reports of themeparks. Further, while airlines support the low-carbon campaign, studies on air ► travel find that their definitions of ► energy usage indicator in reports are not the same as in reality.

Various assessment methods have been introduced to evaluate and benchmark environmental ► performance of tourism enterprises, such as Hotel Building Environmental Assessment Scheme, LEED, Green Globe 21, ECOTEL, Green Leaf, and Green Care. Collectively these "environmental assessment methods" share the core notion of providing operational guidelines and assessment criteria for ► management. Nonetheless, the diversity of ► certification bodies and variety of assessment methods often result in confusions among hoteliers and tourists. Therefore, comparison and synergy of various schemes and their associated eco-labels could enhance community understanding of environmental assessments in tourism.

As a prospect, while going green is a ► trend, tourism practitioners need "scientific" advice on environmental issues. Notably, tourism research has been too management focused and social science oriented to meet the genuine need of the industry for science and engineering perspectives on environmental technologies. To facilitate sustainable development of the industry, "hard" environmental ► technology subjects should be incorporated into tourism ► education and research. Likewise, industry executives and operation managers should be equipped with environmental knowledge and experience so as to advance tourism ► sustainability.

See also ► Environment, ► green tourism, ► low-carbon tourism, ► sustainable tourism.

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Portugal

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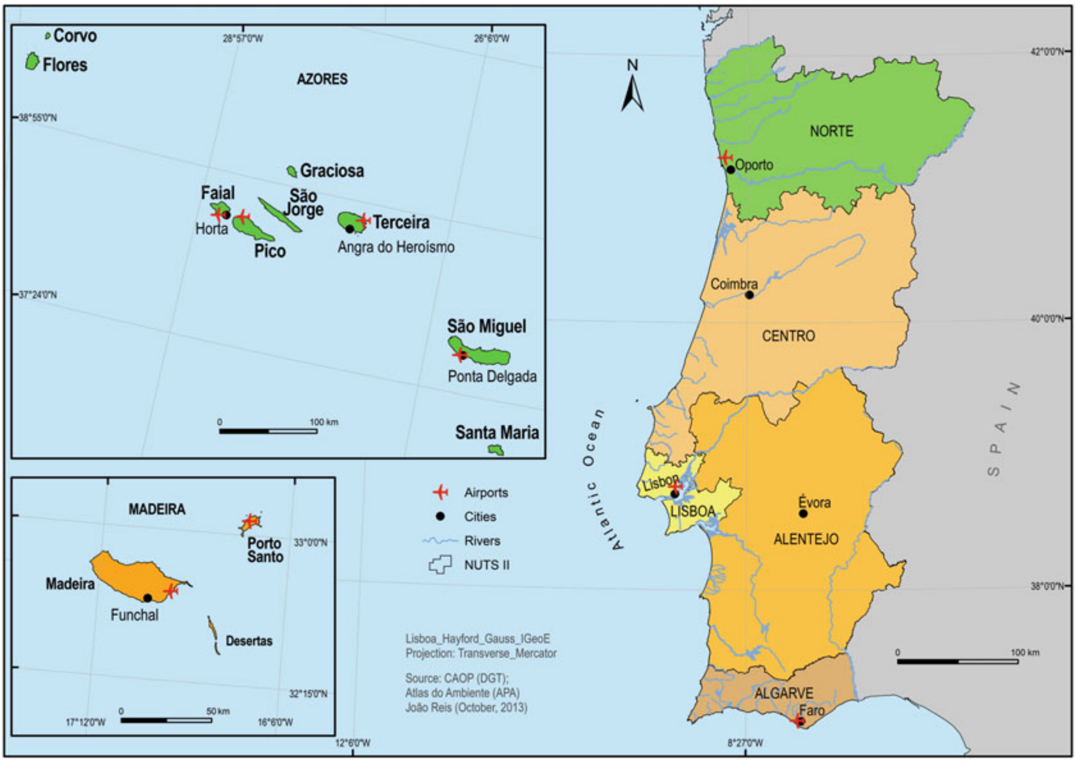
The Portuguese Republic is located in southwestern ► Europe bordered by the Atlantic Ocean and ► Spain (Figure 1). Portugal also holds sovereignty over the Atlantic archipelagos of Azores and Madeira, with a total land area of 92,000 km^2 (35,000 mi^2). With a population of 10.5 million in 2011, its GDP was US$220 billion (€171 billion Euros) in 2013 (INE 2014).

Tourism ► development began in the mid-nineteenth century, linked with thermal spas located in the countryside. In the 1970s, it became one of the most important European destinations for "sun and sea" holidays (Lewis and Williams 1988). In the 1980s, it attracted some 8 million international arrivals, and this number climbed to 12 million at the end of the century. In 2010 alone, more than $10 billion (€8 billion) in international ► tourist expenditure was recorded. Further, 27 million international bed-nights (mainly from Europe) and 13.5 million domestic bed-nights were registered. Tourism provides 7–8 % of the GDP and 13–14 % of exports of all goods and services (Cunha 2012).

The country's main attractions are its good weather, natural and diverse landscapes, and culture. Sun and sea, touring, meetings, incentives and events, golf, city and short breaks, pilgrimages, nature, sports, and cruises are activities and products that have gained popularity over the past few decades. Due to the uneven distribution of resources, tourism is highly concentrated in the regions of Algarve, Lisbon, and Madeira.

Turismo de Portugal acts as the only national authority on tourism and is responsible for strategic actions, statistics, reports, territorial planning and licensing, promotion, financial incentives, education and ► training for tourism, and regulation of gambling. The country has no official regional organizations, but five bottom-up volunteer organizations, including municipalities and business operators, are supported by law and receive financial support from the government. The tourism ► education and training system is supported by several institutions. Public and private universities and polytechnics offer a diverse and regionally dispersed range of undergraduate, postgraduate, and research programs.

Today, there is a modern network of highways, five main international airports, and several commercial ports receiving a growing number of



Portugal, Figure 1 Map of Portugal

cruiseships that guarantee good connections to other tourism regions and countries within Europe. The country has more than 2,000 hotels (or 250,000 beds) (INE 2014; Turismo de Portugal 2014). Tourism continues to play an important role in improving the country's international competitiveness while becoming a significant export earner.

See also ► Europe, ► golf tourism, ► Spain, ► sun, sand, sea and sex.

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Postmodernism

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The term postmodernism first emerged in the early twentieth century to refer to new forms of art and music. By the 1970s, however, it was used specifically to describe a new approach to ► architecture which, rejecting the perceived blandness and functionality of the modernist movement, reintroduced historical styles, often in combination or collage, to building design and ornament. Subsequently, the term was applied more generally to describe the alleged condition of contemporary culture: the condition of postmodernity. Though widely contested, it is broadly considered to signify the replacement of scientific rationality or certainty underpinning a universal belief in progress or the end of "meta-narratives" (Lyotard 1984) with a multiplicity of ideas and realities and an emphasis on ▶ image, choice, the ephemeral, and, most significantly, the borrowing and merging of previously distinctive cultural forms and practices. In other words, whereas modernity could be identified by the emergence of rational, organized, secular, political, and capitalist systems that brought about the structural differentiation of various aspects of society and culture, postmodernity refers to the breaking down of these distinctions, of cultural "dedifferentiation" (Lash 1990: 11).

Thus, postmodernity may be characterized by the dedifferentiation of distinct social and cultural structure and institutions, particularly the merging of popular/mass and "high" culture; a plurality of viewpoints and voices "accepted as authentic and legitimate" (Harvey 1990: 48); the merging of the past and present, or time-space compression, denying historical progression and encouraging nostalgia; lifestyles increasingly dominated by spectacle, image, and the visual, resulting in ephemerality, lack of cultural depth, and individual identity created through consumption; and the dedifferentiation of fact and fantasy, of original and fake, and of reality and "hyperreality" (Eco 1995).

Tourism and postmodernism

According to Urry, tourism is "prefiguratively postmodern" (1990: 87), where earlier forms of mass tourism, such as the seaside resorts of the nineteenth century, combined image, spectacle, art, and culture into the reality of the popular mass tourist experience. However, the development of contemporary tourism, though not necessarily responding to its influences, nevertheless displays more identifiable characteristics of postmodernity, not least in its dedifferentiation from other social and cultural activities. In other words, tourism has long been a distinct, or differentiated, social institution.

Predating its democratization during the twentieth century, tourism was socially differentiated; it remained the preserve of the wealthy leisured classes. Subsequently it became spatially and temporally differentiated, occurring in defined places (the seaside, the countryside, mountains) and times (the 2-week holiday) distinct from normal day-to-day life. Indeed, for many tourists, this remains the principal attraction of tourism. However, as a social activity, it has now become dedifferentiated in terms of both place and time while simultaneously also reflecting the postmodern characteristics of nostalgia, as well as a preference for spectacle and the hyperreal.

Tourism place has become dedifferentiated both geographically and culturally, some destinations typifying the collage, or the borrowing and combining of cultural forms and practices, fundamental to the concept of postmodernism. Geographically, tourism now occurs in places normally associated with non-tourism activities, such as (post)industrial cities, while places of production, both working and historic, have become attractions. Similarly, other urban-based places, such as modern shopping malls, have also become attractions, permitting people to merge non-touristic activities (shopping) in a traditionally non-tourism places (the shopping center) with leisure/tourism activities, such as eating at internationally themed restaurants or going to the cinema.

More specifically, new postmodern attractions/destinations have been created that blur the distinction between reality and image and between the real and hyperreal. The so-called inland resorts, for example, superimpose simulated environments, such as indoor water activity centers based on tropical forests, on reality to create postmodern tourist experiences. Similarly, Dubai's ski resort offers (hyperreal) year-round winter sports activities in a (real) desert environment. Other examples of postmodern tourism places include Tenerife's Penguinarium – an "authentic Arctic ecosystem" recreated on a holiday island – and the Blue Lagoon in Iceland, an artificially created spa developed from the output of a nearby geothermal power station.

Remaining issues and future research

The dedifferentiation of tourism place has permitted the dedifferentiation of its time, as both tourism and non-tourism activities merge in particular contexts. Moreover, advances in communication technology have heralded the advent of virtual travel; thus, it may be suggested that most people are tourists, through actual or virtual mobility, most of the time. Of greater significance, however, is postmodern time compression, where the past (and perhaps the future) is compressed into the present, satisfying both tourists' nostalgic yearnings and their fondness for image and spectacle. In particular, burgeoning heritage sites recreate the past as an attraction through representations that may bear little resemblance to historical reality: "The postmodern past is one where anything is possible, where fantasy is potentially as real as history as heritage dulls our ability to appreciate the development of people a place through time" (Walsh 1992: 113).

Yet it must be emphasized that, although contemporary tourism displays many of the characteristics of postmodernity, the concept itself remains highly contested. Moreover, though dedifferentiation is evident in various aspects of contemporary tourism, in some respects it arguably retains many of the characteristics of modernity. From a production perspective (and despite the growth in independent, self-booked travel), the package holiday as a manifestation of rational, modernist production methods remains popular. At the same time, the "post-tourist" (Feifer 1985) ironically challenges the notion of postmodernity; the post-tourist is cognizant of the frivolity and shallowness of contemporary tourism (and contemporary culture), understands that tourism is an "as if" game, and delights in making choices, rational or not, based on knowledge and understanding. Thus, tourism, as a particular social institution, provides a valuable context for critiquing postmodernism more generally. Indeed, future research can consider the extent to which tourism reflects an identifiable and continuing cultural transformation, perhaps toward the post-postmodern.

See also ► Authenticity, ► heritage, ► identity, ► nostalgia tourism, ► sociology.

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Power

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In social sciences and humanities, "power" refers to "all forms of successful control by A over B – that is, of A securing compliance" (Lukes 1974: 17). Much of the debates revolve around its nature, with a broadly accepted definition yet to be settled.

The roots of current Western theoretical constructions on power are based upon Karl Marx's arguments on the control of production assets, class struggle, and the role of ideology and/or Max Weber's studies on force and legitimacy, authority, and rule. Two main perspectives can be distinguished: one focuses on the cultural manifestations of the variety of "powers" that penetrate dissymmetrical social relationships and act as productive forces in society, and the other studies the functions – mainly in the *political* dimension – that frame social relationships.

The first perspective analyzes the plurality of powers that penetrates society. It examines all spheres within which there are asymmetrical social relationships and highlights the importance of the symbolic sphere and the dramatization or staging in rituals. Scholars argue that power is embedded in social relationships maintained by symbolic formations and activities (gift exchange, ceremonials, or ▶ leisure activities). This perspective unveils the conceived mechanisms of coercion that are not scrutinized in traditional political and economic studies. As Foucault puts it, "the State is superstructural in relation to a whole series of power networks that invest the body, sexuality, the family, the kinship, knowledge, technology, and so forth" (1980: 122). This emphasis is followed by a special attention to the power of representations.

Tourism scholars have paid ▶ attention to the subtleties of seduction present everywhere as "▶ authenticity" (Dean MacCannell) or "▶ gaze" (John Urry). The ethereal nature of power is taken to the ground of scientific analysis by Pierre Bourdieu, whose notion of "symbolic power" complements a power that constructs reality and, along with the social genesis of the "habitus," allows the analysis of the processes that ease the existence of coercion and quiescence in society. A duality is also claimed by Anthony Giddens' structuration theory that attempts to integrate structural analyses with more agency-centered traditions of sociology.

The second perspective deals with operationalization of power and methodological issues led by hypothesis testing and measurable elements to comprehend political systems. Scholars had mainly opposed two perspectives within this paradigm. From the *pluralistic* perspective, power is fragmented and distributed in society, and policy is the outcome of competitive struggle of each group's interests (Robert Dahl). From the *elitist* perspective, ruling elite exists as a well-defined group (Charles Wright Mills). The focus on decisionmaking as the solely measurable behavior of power has led scholars to reveal what is called the *second face of power*. This includes the study of those values that bias the election of which issues are organized into decisionmaking processes and which are located outside these processes.

The attention to the territory of ideas, values, and beliefs to understand the invisible aspects of power connects to the Marxist notion of "false consciousness" or its derivatives from Antonio Gramsci's notions of "culture" and "ideology." These concerns shift the focus of knowledge production from the nature of power (what it is) to its function and agents (how it is produced and reproduced). Lukes' third dimension of power decentralizes conflict and redefines the scope of the study of power to include the mechanisms that shape peoples' "perceptions, cognitions and preferences in such a way that they accept their role in the existing order of things" (1974: 28).

Tourism studies

Though frequently invoked as pivotal features in the production of tourism, the negotiation of the ▶ tourist experience and the administration and ▶ governance of tourism, power, and power relations are routinely under-conceptualized in this field (Church and Coles 2007: 6). This lack of attention is because practitioners are less concerned with theoretical issues and more inclined toward tourism business research and applied studies (Tribe 2004).

Cheong and Miller (2000) rely on Foucault to show different productive and repressive strategies involving interactions among varied actors located in different social positions in tourism contexts, including those agents who regulate and steer the direction of tourism-related policies, those who own the businesses, those who either serve as *ethnic* attractions or ▶ work in the ▶ industry, and those who visit the destinations. More recently, Hall (2010) revisits Lukes to highlight the multilayered faces of power, thus extending Foucault's view of the role of structural dominance, with the necessary empirical strength shown by individual actors.

Future directions

Nogués-Pedregal (2012: 186) asserts that tourism is just another name of power, for it is the most sophisticated elaboration created by capitalist forces and interests, since it produces a distinct ▶ chronotope that both stimulates the occupation of territories transforming them into destinations and contributes to the production of new meanings and ▶ senses that are being appropriated by local populations. Thus, it will continue playing a major role in tourism studies, since the nature of its governance has become more complex as the distinctions between the public and private sectors become blurred. Further, as state and society relations become more complex, the role of power will need to be stressed on exploring the agency of actors and the nature of interactions among them.

See also ▶ Acculturation, ▶ chronotope, ▶ development, ▶ policy and policymaking, ▶ stakeholder.

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Precautionary principle

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The precautionary principle was incorporated as Principle 15 into the 1992 United Nations Rio Declaration on Environment and Development at the Earth Summit. It proposes that where there are threats of serious or irreversible damage, lack of full scientific certainty shall not be used as a reason for postponing cost-effective measures to prevent environmental degradation. The principle is an international norm used in treaties and laws that recognizes the limitations of scientific methods to adequately predict environmental uncertainties into the ▶ future. In other words, it is designed to protect against harm when environmental "uncertainty" is identified. Policies to reduce the threat of future climate change, for example, may include emission reductions and shifts in ▶ travel and energy uses to provide for gaps in ▶ knowledge about future risks. The principle states that "In order to protect the ▶ environment, the precautionary approach shall be widely applied by States according to their capabilities" (UNEP 1992: Principle 15).

Considerations under the Rio Declaration act toward global partnerships of cooperation between countries and the ▶ development of international agreements which respect the theme of sustainable development: balance among society, economy, and environment. Application of the principle to the tourism ▶ industry requires focus on ecosystems and prevention of negative environmental impacts by tourism activities, growth, and development. It also protects societies in critical or sensitive habitats where cultures and ecosystems are intricately meshed. When discussing the ▶ ethics of environment and tourism, according to Fennell, "central to the application of the Precautionary Principle is the concept of proportionality or cost-effectiveness. Will environmental benefits of precautionary action outweigh the economic and societal costs?" (2006: 219). A reasonable chance that adverse environmental or societal impacts will take place should ensure precautionary measures or even a "no tourism" decision being made.

One geographical area key to research about the ▶ evaluation of the precautionary principle in tourism studies has been the globally and politically uncertain territory of Antarctica. The practical relevance of the principle in the ▶ management of ▶ Antarctic tourism and the issue of international control of tourism, the assessment, prevention, and regulation of its cumulative impacts, and the status and possible outcomes of tourism uses into the future have remained uncertain for the signatory countries of the Antarctic Treaty System. At the same time, a precautionary approach is applicable at different scales of tourism ▶ planning and management – ranging from local to international – when considerations about risk and impacts are paramount. The precautionary principle is a longer-term tourism development and planning tool that safeguards environmental and human health by anticipating and controlling for future ▶ sustainability (Fennell and Ebert 2010: 461). Future research will focus on the evaluation of the longer-term effects of the principle for ▶ sustainable tourism, most predominantly at the international scale of ▶ governance.

See also ▶ Environment, ▶ ethics, ▶ impact, ▶ planning, ▶ sustainability.

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In etymology, prestige is derived from the Latin expression of *praestigiae*. In the Middle Ages, this word was used with a pejorative sense to refer to delusion, trick, deception, or magic. Yet prestige appears related to honorific positions that are deferred to individuals that possess an exquisite position in the society, such as wisdom. Later, Veblen (1899) considered prestige as a synonym of social standing or honor some groups may possess; then these were a minority in the society. Nevertheless, prestige drives all human needs, even the most primary ones.

Tourism is in essence a social behavior mostly driven by prestige motivations. For many tourists, this is the process by which they can enhance their social standing. Defined as status, this social standing could be achieved by behaving in conformity, "bandwagon effect," with others or by differentiating, "snob effect," their experiences (Leibenstein 1950). As such, prestige motivations depend more on the manner of traveling than on the place visited (Riley 1995). Yet prestige in tourism is defined as the process by which individuals strive to improve their regard or honor through the consumption of ▶ tourist experiences that confer and symbolize prestige both for tourists themselves and for their peers.

Moreover, the prestige motivation is assumed as a multidimensional construct that refers to the social recognition which comes from belongingness to a group (visiting destinations where most friends go) or group differentiation (traveling to places where friends have not yet visited). Hence bandwagon and snob motives act as measures of the level of status tourists are willing to experience, giving rise to the reconciliation of both perspectives to achieve status (Wegener 1992).

Holidays in popular destinations where many others go are perceived as ability to confer the level of compliance tourists seek with their peer groups, relating also to prestige-worthy behavior that is able to confer status. Tourists that exhibit snobbish behavior wish to be different and exclusive: differentiating and distancing themselves from the "common herd" are drivers of their behavior. Here, demand decreases if the tourists concerned recognize that others are consuming the same commodity or that they are increasing their consumption. In tourism, experiences out of the ordinary (exclusivity) or unique ▶ travel experiences (uniqueness) give tourists a sense of prestige, conferring status through a perceived increase in social standing and impressing others. The interpersonal values of both exclusivity and uniqueness may be regarded as antecedents of a behavior that is mostly driven by the desire for social status (consequence).

▶ Future research should use a prestige motivation scale that accrues cognitive and evaluative dimensions, transforming differences of achieving social honor into a prestige hierarchy. From there, distinctive prestige attributes that may enact the spillover of the ▶ image may be outlined.

See also ▶ Luxury tourism, ▶ motivation, ▶ social class, ▶ yachting tourism.

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Principal component analysis

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Principal component analysis is a statistical method of multivariate factor analysis technique, often used in studies with a large number of interrelated variables that attempt to explain them through common inherent dimensions. This method aims to gather information contained in a number of original variables into a smaller set of statistical variables, considering a minimum loss of information. Principal component analysis is useful in cases where there is the need for creating multiple scales of analysis (Hair et al. 2005).

The reduction in the number of variables is not done by a simple selection of variables, but by the construction of new synthetic variables obtained by linear combination of the initial ones. In this process, action factors are used. The reduction is possible only if the initial p variables are dependent and have nonzero coefficients of correlation (Jolliffe 2002). In several studies, its application is complemented with other statistical techniques, such as K-test and ANOVA.

Principal component analysis is used in different areas of knowledge, where researchers work with large numbers of variables in their studies and thus seek to explain the results obtained. Some research areas utilizing this method include health, tourism, spatial analysis, and the social sciences.

The technique has been used in tourism studies to understand the inherent nature of the ▶ phenomenon. Topic areas such as ▶ tourist attractions, consumer behavior, market segmentation, ▶ destination image, residents' perceptions, and demand characteristics use principal component analysis to explain the results obtained in the implementation of research. Getz and Carlsen (2000) use this method to identify the characteristics and goals of families who own businesses in rural areas of ▶ Australia. Kastenholz et al. (1999) utilize the same technique to explain the development of ▶ rural tourism in northern and central ▶ Portugal.

Most factor analyses in tourism studies apply the principal component approach due to their quantitative characteristics with a high incidence of variables. Therefore, when compared to other multivariate techniques such as VARIMAX, this method is sufficient to explain a tourism problem from its various dimensions. As a quantitative technique, this method is likely to remain an important approach to understanding tourism and addressing its research objectives. Notwithstanding, future research could enhance its usefulness by complementing or combining principal component analysis with qualitative approaches.

See also ▶ Contingent valuation method, ▶ continuum model, ▶ methodology, ▶ quantitative research.

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Product

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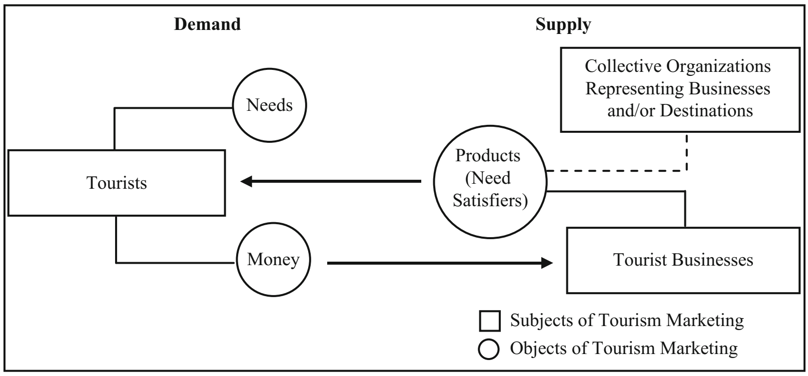
In a marketing context, products are bundles of tangible and intangible elements conveying benefits to satisfy needs. They may take the form of goods, services, ideas, events, persons, places, or organizations (Kotler and Armstrong 2008), fulfilling two distinct tasks. First, each product satisfies a need through the benefit(s) it incorporates. These are mostly the result of managerial decisions and the production process; however, the product's need-fulfilling value is only perceived by the consumer. Benefits and values are thus cocreated by the firm and the consumer (Vargo and Lusch 2006). Second, products are the prerequisite for businesses to achieve their objectives relating to turnover, profitability, market share, and the like. Only by selling products that succeed in satisfying consumer needs can businesses earn a profit.

Tourism products are those which satisfy tourists' needs. According to Jovicic, the latter are those that are "satisfied when movement is performed (▶ travel and sojourn) outside the place of residence" (1988: 2-3). They can be grouped into two distinct categories. Primary needs are those that urge a person to make a trip in order to satisfy them, such as escaping to nature for relaxation. Secondary or derived needs are those arising from the trip, such as the necessity of finding overnight accommodation (Paul 1977: 18). Tourism products are the means to satisfying these primary and secondary needs, due to the benefits offered by their consumption.

Both the needs and the products are objects in the transaction between tourists and businesses (Figure 1). Tourists exchange their money for products to satisfy their needs. These are provided by a wide range of businesses supported by organizations such as industry associations and destination marketing organizations.

Overall versus specific products

Tourism products can be determined at two distinct levels. The overall products comprise the combination of all the elements consumed by tourists during their trips, contributing to their overall experience. The specific products are the offerings of individual tourism enterprises, such as ▶ accommodation, transport, and attractions.



Product, Figure 1 Relations between subjects and objects of tourism marketing (Koutoulas 2004)

As a growing number of tourism organizations and businesses have adopted a marketing orientation, they have come to embrace the "total view of the tourism product," which is how the consumer sees the product. According to Medlik and Middleton (1975), all tourists opt for a "package," purchased either separately or as an inclusive ► tour. Producers may see their offerings (such as airline seats or hotel beds) as individual products, but these are actually elements or components of a composite total tourism product.

Components of overall products

Overall tourism products consist of numerous components due to their complex nature. Components may be of tangible or intangible nature, with services such as hotel accommodation, ► transportation, and leisure activities largely defining the overall experience. These components complement each other and are functionally interdependent as each one provides only a part of the total sum of benefits sought by tourists.

Components come in various forms: "individual products" sold independently on the market (such as hotel accommodation, air transport, admission to attractions); "free" or "public" goods such as the climate and the scenery, used or consumed by tourists free of charge; and "complementary" services that cannot be sold independently on the market, such as the services provided by a tourist information office or a tour leader.

The numerous components of the overall tourism products may be distinguished in six different ways: *by purpose of creation*, components created for a purpose not related to tourism are classified as "primary tourist supply" (such as natural attractions and historic sites), and components created especially for satisfying tourist needs are classified as "secondary tourist supply" (such as hotels and themeparks); *by origin*, built versus natural elements; *by tangibility*, tangible elements such as hotels and restaurants versus the intangibles such as the history and the climate of the destination; *by variability*, invariable elements such as the climate and the scenery of the destination versus variable elements such as destination transport services; *by time of consumption*, components classified according to the phase of the trip during which they are consumed (planning or anticipation, travel to the destination, destination activities, travel back home, recollection); and *by functional role*, components attracting tourists to the destination classified as primary tourism ► supply or as attractions, as well as components facilitating the ► travel and stay at the destination classified as secondary tourist supply or as amenities or as facilitators (Koutoulas 2004).

Future research

Tourists increasingly acting as cocreators of tourism products are an issue to be further researched and incorporated into the classic marketing theory. Empowered by a huge amount of up-to-date content readily available on the internet, tourists are not just passive consumers of travel experiences. Nowadays, they are increasingly demanding the adjustment of their travel experience to their personal tastes and preferences and have in many cases become active contributors of value to the tourism products they consume. Businesses should be aware of how this development affects their marketing efforts.

See also ▶ Destination marketing organization, ▶ experience, ▶ marketing, ▶ service.

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Professionalism

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The concept of ethical conduct has evolved as a body of ▶ knowledge over the last decade. The evolution is strongly influenced by ▶ industry maturation, global economic conditions, trans-global political events, and the growing influence of multinational companies operating in countries with differing value systems. The mere fact that this realm of influence is international in nature has resulted in strategies sensitive to interaction among and within consumers, businesses, associations, and countries. It is readily apparent that the maturity and success of ▶ international tourism no longer reside with the diversity and quality of its products and services; instead, the focus is now on "how" these enterprises conduct themselves locally and abroad (O'Fallon and Butterfield 2005). Hence, the fluidity of operating in an international sphere elevates the importance of recognizing the interactive effects that exist among individual, corporate, situational, and ▶ culture value systems.

The body of knowledge, inclusive of the concept known as professionalism in tourism, is bifurcated into two dimensions (O'Fallon and Butterfield 2005): normative theories which focus on how a person should behave, which implies the application and compliance with normative rules, and positivistic decisionmaking models which pertain to the implementation of ethical decisions within an operational context and the resultant impacts of these decisions. Normative theories are founded on Kohlberg's theory which assumes that ethical decisions are evaluative and as such are viewed as morally sound or divergent for established mores. While positivist "professional conduct models" have led to scientific testing, they extend from the past and describe an action as "congruent or incongruent" by focusing on the aggregated effect of implementing the ethical decision.

Professional conduct is the summative effect of ethical code of implementation, enforcement of policies and procedures, and alignment of the professional's personal ethical code with those embodied by the corporation. As such, the enculturation of professionals in tourism enterprises is a ▶ management tool whereby its members promote and cultivate ethical interactions among and within individuals, teams, and businesses. The primary goal is to perpetuate ethical business practices and growth of the industry by implementing sound ethical practices on a microscale (within a company) to a macroscale whereby multinational companies promote inbound and ▶ outbound tourism between/among countries. Ethical practices have been sanctioned in the areas of ▶ sustainable tourism, ▶ ecotourism, and climatic change, to name a few highly

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recognized global issues that confront multinational companies, tourism businesses, governments, and local residents. The importance of ethical conduct in a global economy has been set forth in communiques in the UNWTO's (2013) Global Code of Ethics for Tourism, a comprehensive set of principles designed to guide key players in tourism ▶ development.

Given projected trends surrounding global development of tourism enterprises, it is evident that ▶ future scholarly works should focus on psychological, sociological, cultural, and anthropological impacts associated with conducting businesses in an international ▶ environment.

See also ▶ Corporate social responsibility, ▶ decision support system, ▶ development, ▶ ethics, ▶ sustainability.

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Pro-poor tourism

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The concept of pro-poor tourism originates from a research partnership in the late 1990s among three UK organizations: the International Center for Responsible Tourism, the International Institute for the Environment and Development, and the Overseas Development Institute. The pro-poor tourism partnership defines it as tourism that can provide net benefits for poor people (Ashley et al. 2001).

Eradicating extreme poverty is a top priority of human development, as explicitly stated in the United Nations Millennium Development Goals. Inspired by the positive outcomes of a series of pro-poor tourism pilot projects, the UNWTO launches the "Sustainable Tourism for Eliminating Poverty" program. In addition to nongovernment and multilateral organizations, there are also an increasing number of countries, tourism associations, and investors interested and involved in the promotion and implementation of pro-poor tourism.

Framing pro-poor tourism

As advocated by the partnership, pro-poor tourism centers on expanding and enhancing economic opportunities for the poor. Much emphasis is also put on improving the social and environmental impacts of tourism development, such as capacity building, empowerment, and access to infrastructure and other basic services. To actualize these benefits, a reform in policy/process is usually required to facilitate local participation and engage the private sector. However, these action guidelines have been criticized for being neither theoretically nor methodologically innovative. Since any form of tourism can be pro-poor, it is difficult to draw a clear line between this and similar concepts, such as community-based, alternative, and ▶ sustainable tourism.

The working definition, "generating net benefits for the poor," is also not rigid enough. The assessment of costs and benefits of tourism is often subjective and even value laden. The criteria for determining poverty also vary a lot. Because of the variations in the interpretation and application of the term, researchers tend to agree that pro-poor tourism is not a distinct form, but, rather, it represents an approach to improving the livelihood of poor people by harnessing tourism (Chok et al. 2007). In some studies, the use of the term pro-poor tourism is detached from its original conceptualization, and generally concerns the role of the industry as a development tool (Scheyvens 2007). To avoid confusion, it is recommended to use a more generic concept, such as tourism and poverty alleviation/reduction/elimination as a broader view of pro-poor tourism (Zhao and Ritchie 2007).

Pro-poor tourism development

Local participation is emphasized in nearly every pro-poor tourism effort. Participation can be direct or indirect, contingent upon the way the poor reap the benefits from tourism-generated opportunities. The ► impact on poverty is composed of three parts: direct effects on the poor, secondary effects on the poor, and wider dynamic effects on the economy and its growth (Mitchell and Ashley 2010). Current pro-poor tourism practices are mostly oriented to enlarging direct effects through facilitating direct participation, but do not attach much importance to the other two parts, thereby constraining the functionality of tourism in influencing the poor positively.

Pro-poor tourism is not philanthropy. Commercial viability is paramount because the poor, with a fragile asset base, cannot afford to fail. Thus, the macroenvironment and institutional arrangements must be favorable, and ► destination competitiveness should be built up in order to draw and maintain an acceptable level of tourism flow that can allow survival (Zhao and Ritchie 2007). Stakeholders such as the private sector, governments, civil society, tourists, and aid donors take part in pro-poor tourism with various motivations and interests, which are not always pro-poor and concerted. The poor can be easily marginalized due to their vulnerability, so stakeholder collaboration is critical.

The political nature of pro-poor tourism is particularly a concern in the age of globalization and neoliberal market economy, where addressing equity often gives way to growth (Schilcher 2007). Significant commitment will be needed to solve structural inequities that exacerbate poverty and constrain pro-poor attempts (Chok et al. 2007). Moreover, the ethical ground of organizing trips to impoverished communities has been questioned: "gazing" at the poor and their suffering is frequently depicted as voyeurism (Frenzel and Koens 2012).

In prospect, despite the ongoing debate over the value of pro-poor tourism, it is widely recognized that the industry should and is able to play an active role in helping the poor. Influencing mainstream stakeholders to change their traditional practices and become more pro-poor would be a major challenge. Any attempt to "standardize" the development models seems doomed to failure in that the root cause of poverty is different and deeply embedded in the unique milieu of each location. Therefore, the pro-poor tourism strategy may continually be implemented on the basis of projects. There is also a need to unify pro-poor tourism with other poverty alleviation approaches. Developing systematic and scientific instruments for assessing the progress and impact of development is another focus for future research.

See also ► Community-based tourism, ► developing country, ► economic development, ► slum tourism, ► sustainable tourism.

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Protected area tourism

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Historically, protected areas represent areas of land and water set aside for protection by legislation or culture bequeathed by past civilizations, subjected to a wide range of management requirements. While these areas receive protection because of their ecological and natural values, some are recognized because of their cultural value or wilderness with need for perpetuation (Marafa 2003; Strickland-Munro et al. 2010). There is evidence that protected areas constitute a cultural artifact having a very long history. Some scholars (Holdgate and Phillips 1999) claimed that this dates back to over two million years ago when protection of natural reserves was undertaken in ▶ India.

Given the nature of the resources, protected areas are those places in which human occupation and activities regarding exploitation of resources are limited. In this regard, some were protected in ▶ Europe to provide hunting grounds for the rich and powerful over 1,000 years ago. A growing number of countries also set aside areas for cultural uses (as in sacred groves). In more recent times, protected areas are recognized as vital and essential for biodiversity conservation, as they protect ecological processes and functions. It is these values that warranted the creation of protected areas by legislation in which the Yellowstone National Park was created in 1872, making it the world's first national park. Others have since been created. Protected areas currently cover approximately 12.3 % of the total global terrestrial landmass and about 10 % of territorial waters as of 2010. Given their spatial coverage, they represent the very core areas of conservation strategies for terrestrial as well as the marine ecosystems, given that they contain most of the precious biological wealth of the planet.

As in the past, the natural settings attract a large number of tourists. Where tourism is promoted at a protected area ▶ destination, it is often a system that comprises of the area itself, the tourism operations, and the communities in close proximity (Strickland-Munro et al. 2010).

Function

As tourism continues to grow, it is now a major management issue for most of the protected areas, as many have been designated as UNESCO world heritage sites. Several of the protected areas have common features. They are mostly created by governments and are generally large areas with relatively natural environments and possibly indigenous people. They are also managed through legal or other effective means (Dudley 2008). Furthermore, they were made accessible to people for outdoor ▶ recreation and nature appreciation. From this perspective, visitation and tourism became central pillars of the protected area movement.

The opening up of protected areas has generated specific interest in trends of tourism that includes ▶ ecotourism, nature-based, adventure, and ▶ culture and ▶ heritage tourism. Consequently, it is being recognized that protected areas are vital reserves of the shared natural heritage. Despite their status as protected landscapes, they continue to allow well-managed access, appreciation, and enjoyment. Over the years, tourism in protected areas has grown exponentially. This growth is a result of global increase in tourism and also the growing interest among tourists in seeking experience at natural and cultural heritage destinations that mostly fall within protected areas. Generally, it is recognized that it is the quality of the natural environment that is increasingly seen as a major attraction. While this is seen as an advantage for its development, the pressure to respond to the needs of tourists can be a threat. The challenge is to ensure that tourism is well managed so that benefits will accrue to the site and the proponents of the tourism industry.

Challenges

One of the main challenges is to balance the flow and behavior of tourists to the protected areas with the conservation goals. Generally the varied geographical structure of the protected area can mostly offer strong instruments for a management strategy that can be oriented toward finding a balance between ▶ tourist flow and resource protection.

If the tourism industry is well conceived and operated in a sustainable way, it can be a strong force for conservation and will generate income for parks and the local communities within them. It will also create awareness and ensure support from tourists for the purpose of continuous protection of the resources that attracted them in the first place. Earlier, Eagles et al. (2002) estimated that about 10 % of tourists worldwide wish to visit natural and cultural heritage sites, making this the fastest growing segment of the industry. In the United States, this patronage has increased from less than 40 million after the World War II to over 300 million in present times.

Although the rise of ▶ international tourism means that more and more tourists have the opportunity to enjoy protected areas, there is also an increasing concern over the impacts that such visits might cause. It is important to recognize that tourism in protected areas can add to the costs of management. Proponents and curators have to invest in, manage, and maintain tourism facilities; moreover, tourists' presence and actions can result in serious negative impacts onto sensitive areas.

Finally, protected area tourism brings benefits in several ways and, if successful, provides alternative income. It might also reduce the natural resources within the host communities. Given that protected areas are unique landscapes with different trends of tourist activities, monitoring and management studies are necessary on such sites. Research results will have to be place specific. Other aspect that will require future research is conflict of use that occurs in protected areas.

See also ▶ Community-based tourism, ▶ conservation, ▶ nature tourism, ▶ park tourism, ▶ sustainable tourism.

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Psychology

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Over the past 150 years, the discipline of psychology has developed from a small, laboratory-based offshoot of philosophy to one of the most widely applied bodies of modern, social scientific knowledge. One historian of psychology has called the twentieth century "the century of psychology." This was to emphasize the applied and socially instrumental orientation of the discipline from its beginnings and its consequent application throughout society. Today, the areas covered by its professional specializations include mental illness, counseling, industrial and organizational settings, sports, criminal forensics, ▶ education, personality assessment, health, military, family, and ▶ law.

In the nineteenth century, scientific psychology focused on the study of conscious experience. By the early twentieth century, the focus had radically shifted toward investigating behavior and the lawful relationships between it and external conditions. This emphasis involved the investigation of processes of conditioning and, consequently, either denied altogether or saw as irrelevant for the explanation of behavior any theoretical understanding of mental processes within the individual. It was not until the second half of the last century that the unit of analysis shifted again, this time to the study of cognitive (thought) processes and, less prominently, emotions and motivation.

The cognitive approach came to dominate both individual and social psychology (the latter refers to the psychological rather than the sociological version). From its origins in information processing theory and the analogy between the mind and the computer, cognitive science (including cognitive psychology) has evolved into a sophisticated paradigm that is becoming increasingly integrated with neuroscience and evolutionary theory.

Recent theoretical and empirical developments have been in such areas as evolutionary psychology, behavioral genetics, human development, neuropsychology, neurodevelopment, and embodied cognition. There has also been the emergence over the last 30 years of social constructionist and discursive approaches. These recent approaches have highlighted the interdependence of internal mental processes and external environments and events. As a result, the boundary between the individual mind and the world has become less obvious.

Application to tourism

Initially, much of the work on the psychology of tourists examining experience derived from disciplines other than psychology. Human geography, consumer behavior, sociology, ▶ leisure and recreation studies, ▶ marketing and ▶ economics provided many of the early studies and conceptual frameworks for the study of decisionmaking, tourist behavior, and experiences. As Pearce and Stringer put it, "[i]n the absence of a broad psychological thrust in tourism, geographers, sociologists, and leisure and recreation researchers are doing much work which at heart is psychological" (1991: 150). This fact highlights the useful distinction between the discipline of psychology and the psychology of a ▶ tourist. The latter need not be studied from the perspective of the former.

Much work on the psychology of destination decisionmaking and choice, for example, has stemmed from work in economics, marketing, and consumer behavior rather than psychology (Decrop 2006; March and Woodside 2009). While there is conceptual overlap and cross-pollination between these disciplines, psychological concepts and frameworks have often been used in an ad hoc manner primarily as support for these other disciplinary perspectives and the questions of interest to them. In particular, the questions being investigated were practical ones about how to identify markets, generate tourist visits to a ▶ destination, limit the impacts of that visitation, and provide satisfying experiences to promote further visits by the same or new tourists. Market segmentation studies have sometimes made use of psychological studies of personality or motivation to provide useful theoretical frameworks for profiling distinct tourism consumers, for example, Stanley Plog's (2001) psychocentric-allocentric personality model.

Some researchers have explicitly argued against the idea that psychological theories and concepts should be directly applied to tourist behavior. Instead, it has been claimed that the particular context of tourism requires unique modeling and development of distinctive theoretical frameworks that incorporate but are not constrained by psychological models or theories of tourist behavior. As a result, theories of tourist behavior – such as Seppo Iso-Ahola's theory of recreational travel, Philip Pearce's "travel career ladder" (later, "travel career tapestry"), and the psychocentric-allocentric personality theory – are amalgams of ideas from various other disciplines alongside standard psychological concepts and theories.

Despite the presence of hybrid models and theories, the areas of tourist behavior most often studied from a predominantly psychological perspective are tourist motivation, decisionmaking, and the social psychology and dynamics of interactions with others (other tourists, locals, and industry personnel including tour guides) and with places (Pearce 1982; Stringer and Pearce 1984). Focus on these areas is not surprising since motivation helps determine travel choices, and much of the tourist experience depends upon the nature and quality of interactions. Together, these processes are thought to result in both the quality of the tourist experience and the level of satisfaction it produces.

The psychology of decisionmaking has recently expanded beyond modeling of the cognitive processes of information search, selection, and choices made by individuals. Building upon earlier work on family-based tourism decisionmaking (van Raaij and Francken 1984), social psychological accounts of that now also consider the broader social construction of decisions and the discursive means by which they are often transmitted and determined. As tourism products become more diversified and complex, research has also begun to focus on how decisions evolve and adapt during experiences. Some attempts have also recently been made to model these dynamic decision processes through application of complex systems theory and agent-based models, among other leading-edge developments in decision theory and modeling.

Tourist behaviors have most often been understood to emerge out of interactions with people and places. Psychological insights into the causal processes underpinning these interactions and the emotional quality of the experiences include studies of orientation to new environments (built, natural, and social); the development of attitudes to places, host communities, and experiences; and the dynamics of place attachment. There has been increasing use, for example, of models of attitude formation and change (such as the theory of planned behavior and the elaboration likelihood model) in attempts to understand how impressions of destinations and host communities are made. The study of post-trip processes of memory and reminiscence of experiences has also been pursued, in part to understand likelihood of repeat visitation and also to determine the role and meaning of tourism in the lives of individuals.

Emergent developments

New avenues being pursued at the interface between psychology and tourism project along both theoretical and thematic dimensions. Recent and promising theoretical approaches include incorporation of social constructionist and discursive psychological perspectives to help explore the emergence and dynamic development of motivational, decisionmaking, and experiential processes in tourism social settings (Pearce 2005). These perspectives provide a useful fit with the real-time and interactive coproduction of the psychological processes and experiences of tourists, an area that, to date, has been underresearched.

Similarly, there has been recent focus on conceptualizing the distinctive nature of the tourism experience from a subjective, phenomenological perspective. This work distinguishes itself through a focus on the felt, affectively and subjectively salient, and unfolding experience rather than on a strictly behavioral and outcome-oriented account (Gnoth and Matteucci 2014). Significantly, these phenomenological approaches continue the tradition (Stringer and Pearce 1991) of understanding the ► psychology of tourism by drawing upon intellectual trends beyond, but overlapping with, the discipline of psychology. Such trends include strands of ► phenomenology, anthropology, and post-structuralism.

Current theoretical developments in psychology that are less well represented in tourism research include work in evolutionary psychology, embodied and situated cognition, behavioral genetics (e.g., in relation to personality traits), and cognitive neuroscience. While such developments may seem a long way from the usual focus of tourism research, they nevertheless represent potential areas for developing future insights into motivational, perceptual, emotional, and attitudinal responses of tourists. Evolutionary approaches, for example, provide insights into status-seeking, decisionmaking processes, motivation, emotional responses, intergroup contact, and the basis of cooperation and trust, all of which are relevant to a psychological understanding of tourism. Embodied cognition, similarly, has promise for understanding the performative aspects of experiences, aspects that have been of broad interest to a range of tourism researchers.

Emergent thematic areas of interest for psychologists of tourism include the effects of new technologies and ▶ social media on decision-making and experience (“eTourism”), the relationships between behavior and ▶ wellbeing, and psychological processes that mediate between behavior and issues of ▶ sustainability, such as in ▶ slow tourism (Pearce 2011). New technologies allow information to be accessed independently and progressively in real time. These changes are increasing the dynamism of decisionmaking and thus provide further challenges for the successful prediction and modeling of tourists' behaviors and experiences. There are also profound implications for how the industry is represented in decisionmaking that is more and more instantaneously mediated “peer to peer” among tourists. Similarly, these technological developments raise important psychological questions about the effect such technologies have on experiences and on how tourists deal with complex, dynamic (yet still mediated) informational environments.

Psychologists are focusing increasingly on factors associated with wellbeing and, in particular, subjective wellbeing (self-reported assessments of happiness and life satisfaction). The extent to which travel experience contributes to, or detracts from, wellbeing and the particular forms of tourist behavior that optimize it are new areas of focus. This concern with wellbeing also dovetails in interesting ways with the prospects for such forms as slow, volunteer, ethical, and ▶ sustainable tourism. That is, desire for the preservation of the beneficial qualities derived from tourism during a period of potential resource depletion, peak oil, ▶ climate change, and ▶ sustainability challenges has reignited research interest in the factors that lead to optimal experiences and wellbeing.

Finally, psychological research has targeted, with few exceptions, the tourist. Less well understood is the psychology of other actors. While host perceptions of tourists and tourism have been investigated, there is considerable opportunity to expand understanding of the host experience through application of insights from psychology (in-group/out-group dynamics, ▶ identity formation, attribution processes). Similarly, psychological study of the interactions between front-line personnel and both tourists and locals would help complete a social psychological account of the experience.

Over the past 30 years, the psychological study of tourism has increased in sophistication and in the variety of concepts and theories applied to its setting. Further opportunities exist for broadening this application while, at the same time, integrating psychological insights with other perspectives in a way that improves the understanding of the behavior of tourists and other stakeholders. As a consequence, such broadening is likely to attract the interest of more psychologists and social psychologists to the psychology of tourism and thus increase its potential for contributing to an overall understanding of human behavior.

See also ▶ Cognition, ▶ decisionmaking, ▶ eTourism, ▶ experience, ▶ optimal arousal.

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Public good

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A public good is an economic concept that refers to one of the four main types of goods grouped on the basis of their excludability and rivalry (Mankwin and Taylor 2011). It can be defined as a good that, once produced, can be consumed by additional consumers at no additional cost and without diminishing its use value. Consumers cannot be excluded from using them once they are produced; hence, public goods are neither excludable nor rival (Mankwin and Taylor 2011). Some examples include national defense, knowledge creation, fighting against poverty, and the internet.

Since public goods are non-excludable, people can receive their benefit without paying (free rider); as a result, the private market lacks an incentive to provide such goods. However, the government can potentially remedy the problem. If it decides the potential benefits of producing public goods exceed the cost, it can provide them with tax revenue, thus benefiting the society (Mankwin and Taylor 2011). Not everyone agrees that the private market lacks incentives to produce public goods and the government is the only available option. Holcombe (1997) argues that they can be and are efficiently produced in the private sectors. Examples include computer software, television and radio broadcasts, and the like. Common resources are similar to public goods; however, they are non-excludable yet rival. Many categories are sometimes included in the list of public goods, such as clean air, water, wildlife, and congested public roads (Mankwin and Taylor 2011).

The concept of public goods is becoming increasingly important at the international and global levels. For example, many environmental issues, such as climate change, transcend national borders, and providing a stable climate is in essence a global public good. Therefore, their provision faces an even greater challenge. The free-riding incentives are even stronger when the number of people is larger. Thus, another important challenge is that cooperation is difficult among sovereign nations. International coordination requires agreement and enforcement among them, many with different or conflicting interests and rules of law (Kotchen 2014).

Public goods in tourism studies

The notion of public goods is relevant to tourism because the ► product and ► image packaged by intermediaries and sold as a ► destination experience are highly dependent on the goodwill and cooperation of host communities (Murphy 2013). Many attractions and places visited are public property or goods. Memorable experience is as much a result from excellent ► hospitality service as it is from the hospitality of the local public (Murphy 2013). The product depends on private companies' decisions and on the public attributes of the destination (cultural legacy, public safety, degree of preservation of the environment, brand image, public infrastructures, or street cleanliness). All of these have a certain degree of non-rivalry and of non-excludability, as they are characteristic of public goods.

The concept of public goods in tourism studies has been applied mainly from an economic perspective. Research focuses on their embedding components in the tourism product, public-private cooperation and financing, the role of tourism in local ► development, and the economic inclusion of public goods (Yadav and O'Neill 2013). To a lesser extent, research has been carried out on their role in ► sustainable tourism development and policies such as the works of Peter Keller on public interest and the ► commercialization of public goods such as ► culture and ► environment through tourism (Müller 2015). ► Other studies explore how ▶ resources created mainly for tourism are used by the local population as well or how many others are shared in common with local people in everyday life. More often than not, resources are overused and degraded. This is the aspect that distinguishes public from common goods. In such cases, sustainable development is severely threatened: economic wellbeing declines, environmental conditions worsen, social injustice grows, and ultimately ▶ tourist satisfaction drops (Briassoulis 2002).

Other areas of research into public goods such as ▶ heritage, ▶ pollution, poverty, and ▶ terrorism transcend national borders and are also reflected in tourism studies. However, such research seldom engages in the notion of public goods as identified in economics. Rather, it focuses on specific concepts and does not examine the definition or the underlying assumptions of them.

Insights on the concept

In tourism studies, the concept of public goods is used mostly in its economic sense. The field contributes to its understanding in terms of the public-private cooperation in the industry where public goods (and all their social, cultural, and environmental aspects) are integral and inseparable parts of the tourism product. Thus, private companies have vested economic interest and incentives of the sustainable development and maintenance of public goods despite the free-rider issue.

Public goods present a fertile area of research in tourism beyond their economic and financial measures. Recent critical studies call for post-disciplinary investigation of public goods and issues of power, access, representations, ▶ heritage, ▶ identity, ▶ globalization/glocalization, poverty, ▶ migration, ▶ terrorism, and other bumpy terrains that are present and/or ▶ play themselves out in tourism.

See also ▶ Economics, ▶ governance, ▶ political science, ▶ resource, ▶ sustainable tourism.

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Public relation

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"Public relations" is a concept, a field of study, and a profession based on the ▶ management of strategic communication among organizations and their publics. The objective is to build trust among them and to achieve a positive image in general. In this respect, public relations have many connections with tourism and become necessary in its ▶ development. Actually some scholars use "tourism PR" as an area by itself (L'Etang et al. 2007).

Public relations are necessary in the communication of companies, tourism institutions, and also destinations because both places and services address themselves to a broad range of publics. Their main aim is to build relationships with diverse publics and generate good images. Both private and public organizations use public relations activities in their promotion and communication.

Despite its importance, the number of studies on this subject is few (L'Etang 2006). There has mainly been a predominance of theoretical development and research from the ▶ marketing perspective (Huertas 2008). However, due to the importance of ▶ social media in communication, more recent research on communicative aspects of tourism businesses and institutions has been undertaken from the public relations perspective. A growth of literature has been notable in the areas of cultural studies; ▶ tourist businesses and services; logos, ▶ destination branding, event, and place image; public relations of nations and countries; and more importantly the use of new information and communication technologies in tourism.

While websites are important channels of communication, the great revolution in the area of tourism public relations has been generated by social media (Yoo and Kim 2013). These are fundamental tools of public relations for users to post comments and for organizations to create dialogs and establish relationships with their publics. Because of the intangibility and underlying risks associated with the purchase of tourism products and services, the opinions and comments of other disinterested users provide credibility and trust in tourism decisionmaking. Thus, social media have become a key tool for communication and public relations in tourism. Two types of studies on this subject have proliferated: research on how tourism organizations use social media in their communication and investigations into how social media influences their publics.

As a prospect, more research is needed on the relationship between tourism organizations and their publics in order to achieve equitable and sustainable development of the ▶ industry. ▶ Future research should also focus on the use of new communication technologies for public relations in tourism.

See also ▶ Destination branding, ▶ festival and event, ▶ image, ▶ social media, ▶ stakeholder.

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