
Jafar Jafari • Honggen Xiao
Editors

Encyclopedia of Tourism

With 211 Figures and 6 Tables

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Editors

Jafar Jafari
University of Wisconsin-Stout
Menomonie, USA

Honggen Xiao
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
Hong Kong, China

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Tourism

Norbert Vanhove
Brugge, Belgium

There is no consensus on what constitutes tourism. A definition accepted by a number of organizations (Eurostat, OECD, WTO, and UN Statistics Division 2001) suggests that “tourism comprises the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual

environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited” (Vanhove 2011: 4).

The persons in the definition are usually termed “visitors.” A ► **visitor** is defined as any person traveling to a place other than that of his/her usual environment for less than 12 months and whose main purpose of trip is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited. This differs in two respects from the former UN description: the maximum duration of stay (one consecutive year) outside the usual place of residence is determined; and “usual place of residence” is replaced by the term “usual environment.” The literature makes a distinction between conceptual and statistical (technical or operational) definitions of tourism.

Conceptual definitions

One of the oldest conceptual definitions of tourism was given by Hunziker and Krapf. Tourism is “a sum of relations and phenomena resulting from

► **travel** and stay of non-residents, in so far a stay does not lead to permanent residence and is not connected with any permanent or temporary earning activity” (Hunziker and Krapf 1942, cited from Vanhove 2011: 1).

Despite its shortcomings, this definition was also accepted by the Association Internationale d'Experts Scientifiques du Tourisme. For example, a stay in a hospital could be considered as tourism, and business trips and ► [domestic tourism](#) were totally excluded. In 1981, the association again discussed the definition at its annual congress in Cardiff and accepted the following: "The entirety of interrelations and phenomena which result from people travelling to and stopping at places which are neither their main continuous domiciles nor place of work either for ► [leisure](#) or in the context of business activities or study" (Vanhove 2011: 2).

The British Tourism Society also discussed and adopted a definition based upon the work by Burkart and Medlik: "Tourism is deemed to include any activity concerned with the temporary

short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where they normally live and ► [work](#), and their activities during the stay at these destinations" (Burkart and Medlik 1974: 39–40).

Conceptually, tourism has five characteristics. It is an amalgam of phenomena and relationships rather than a single one; these phenomena and relationships arise from movements of people to, and stays in, various destinations; the journey and stay are to and in destinations outside the normal place of residence and work; the movement to the destinations is of a short-term character; and destinations are visited for purposes not connected to paid work.

Operational or technical definitions

The main practical need for exact definitions of tourism and the ► [tourist](#) has arisen from the necessity to establish adequate statistical standards (Mieczkowski 1990). Many experts have difficulty in considering business trips and vocational travel as tourism activities.

However, they are often included in tourism because they respond to the characteristics described above and because their economic significance is the same (Burkart and Medlik 1974). technical definition needs to identify the categories of travel and visits and define the time element in terms of length of stay away from home.

A well-known technical definition is the one recommended on the occasion of the United Nations Conference on Travel and Tourism held in Rome in 1963. "For statistical purposes, the term 'visitor' describes any person visiting a country other than that in which he has usual place of residence, for any reason other than following an occupation remunerated from within the country visited" (Vanhove 2011: 3). This definition covers tourists – temporary visitors staying at least 24 h in the destination whose journey can be classified as leisure (► recreation, ► holiday, health, study, ► religion, and sport) or business, family, mission, meeting, and excursionists, cruise passengers, or temporary visitors staying less than 24 h in the country visited. Later, the phrase "24 h" became a point of discussion and was replaced by "overnight" at the United Nations Statistical Commission 1967 and the IUOTO 1968 meetings.

The UN definition refers to ► [international tourism](#) (visiting a country other than the one in which a traveler usually resides), but there is no reason to neglect domestic tourism. The 1980 Manila Declaration of the World Tourism Organization extends the definition implicitly to both domestic and international tourism. Excluded from the definition are returning residents, immigrants, migrants (temporary workers staying less than 1 year), commuters, soldiers, diplomats, and transit passengers. This definition has been in place for years, but not all countries apply it. The introduction of ► [Tourism Satellite Account](#) makes it necessary to work with a definition accepted worldwide. In 2000, Eurostat, OECD, WTO, and UN Statistic Division accepted the aforementioned technical definition.

Since the last century, the concept and practice of tourism have continuously been refined. Still other definitional issues and research questions remain. As a ► [phenomenon](#), it should be further asked what precisely tourism is or what constitutes tourism, how it can be distinguished from other leisure or professional practices, and whether it is now institutionalized worldwide. On the operational side, the debates on whether tourism is a sector, trade, or ► [industry](#), how it can be better integrated in the host destination, and how its growth can best be interfaced with ongoing issues or concerns such as ► [sustainability](#) and ► [climate change](#) are to be further clarified.

See also ► [Hospitality](#), ► [leisure](#), ► [recreation](#), ► [travel](#), ► [Tourism Satellite Account](#).

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Tourist

Heather J. Gibson
Department of Tourism, Recreation and Sport Management, University of Florida, Gainesville, USA

There is general consensus that a tourist refers to a person who travels outside of their home

community. However, this movement is where agreement tends to end. Discussions continue about how far the individual has to ► [travel](#) in order to be considered a tourist. Distances from 50 to 100 miles one way are commonly used to designate a tourist, although in some renowned destinations, such as the state of Florida in the ► [United States](#), traveling across a county line either for business or pleasure or staying in rented accommodations for less than six months designates a tourist.

Early definitions

The Florida designation raises two other contentious issues related to the tourist definition debate, one is length of stay and the other is purpose of the trip. An overnight stay or 24 h away from home has been commonly used to distinguish a tourist from a day tripper or excursionist. Indeed, one of the first definitions of an international tourist used a 24 h stay in another country as one of the main classification criteria, along with purpose of the trip which was listed under two main headings: “► [Leisure](#) (► [recreation](#), ► [holiday](#), health, study, religion, sport) [and] Business, family mission, meeting” (IUOTO 1963).

As the academic study of tourism began to gain momentum in the 1970s, Cohen (1974) in his seminal treatise on “what is a tourist?” critiqued this definition as being too broad to be of value to scholars. Despite Cohen’s critique, the use of mileage designations or classifying all types of ► [travel](#) as tourism did not disappear; instead, they marked a divergence in the study of tourism into a business/► [industry](#) orientation versus a social science focus. Scholars and practitioners who adopted an industry focus tend to use the broader mileage/time delineations to define a tourist, whereas those who view tourism as a socio-cultural ► [phenomenon](#) and have largely used anthropology, geography, sociology, and social psychology as their foundations have tended to focus on the tourist as a pleasure traveler. In line with this view, Cohen (1974) asserted that tourism is a special form of leisure, and as such, tourists can be classified according to six criteria: their

trips are temporary, are taken voluntarily, involve a return, are relatively long, are nonrecurrent (do not happen regularly), and are noninstrumental (are for pleasure, not for work).

Different types of tourist

As scholars raised concerns about the negative impacts of tourism and questions were raised about the (in)authenticity of tourist experiences, Cohen (1972) suggested that it was a mistake to think of tourists as homogenous. Rather, there are different types of tourists. Drawing upon a sociological “role theory” perspective, he distinguished four types of international tourists based on their preference for novelty or familiarity. Cohen suggested that organized mass tourists and the independent mass tourists are those who seek the highest levels of familiarity when they travel and, because of this, may cause the most change in host communities. In contrast, the explorers and the drifters seek higher levels of novelty or strangeness in their travels and tend to accept the style of accommodations and food found in a host community. Thus, they invoke less change and are likely to experience higher levels of authenticity.

Cohen’s (1972) role typology was followed by several different classifications. Plog (1974) working from a social psychological foundation proposed other types of tourist could be identified at different stages of ► [destination](#) development, starting with what he called the allocentrics (most adventurous, similar to the drifter) who visit a destination during the early stages of its development, the mid-centrics (similar to the independent mass tourist) who visit during a destination’s “heyday,” and the psychocentrics (least adventurous similar to the organized mass tourist) who visit when it is past its popularity peak. Working from an anthropological perspective, Smith (1977) identified seven different types based upon their number in a destination and their ► [adaptation](#) to the host community norms. Pearce (1985), a social psychologist, was the first to empirically verify the existence of different

types. Australians were surveyed about their perceptions as to what types of behavior were associated with different tourists. He distinguished 15 types, including pleasure, educational, and service-related travel. Yiannakis and Gibson (1992) refined Pearce’s work and, following Cohen (1972, 1974), delimited their definition to leisure travel and identified 13 roles that could be distinguished on three preference dimensions: familiarity versus strangeness, structure versus independence, and stimulation versus tranquility. Since the early days, these typologies have been applied to different contexts, including ► [ecotourism](#), sport tourism, and perceived risk. They have also been used to investigate age and gender differences among tourists.

To move forward, the underlying personality dimensions implied by both Cohen’s (1972) and Plog’s (1974) typologies warrant further exploration to not only understand choice but also the contemporary focus on tourist experience. For example, it would be interesting to once again apply the concept of tourist roles to understand authenticity, particularly as more use is made of augmenting tourist experiences with various digital modalities. So, which type of tourist would be the most receptive to digitally augmenting their tourist experience and which would reject such an intrusion? Another use of tourist roles and personality would be to investigate in more depth which type of tourist is least or more likely to travel to destinations affected by natural or anthropocentric events and which are suffering from a disruption in their tourist flows.

See also ► [Drifter](#), ► [mass tourism](#), ► [motivation](#), ► [role](#), ► [sociology](#).

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Tourist space

Michelle Metro-Roland
Department of Geography, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, USA

Tourist space, in its most basic form, is the area in which tourism is undertaken. These may be areas specifically designed, marketed, and directed at tourists or areas that draw tourists and become spaces given over to tourism. Tourist space is closely related to the concept of ► [destination](#), which is defined as “a physical space in which a ► [tourist](#) spends at least one overnight. It includes tourism products such as support services and attractions, and tourism resources within one day's return ► [travel](#) time. It has physical and administrative boundaries defining its management, images, and perceptions defining its market competitiveness. Local tourism destinations incorporate various stakeholders often including a host community, and can nest and network to form larger destinations” (UNWTO nd).

Cultural studies and landscape studies approach tourist space by highlighting the ways in which space is differentiated. Tourist spaces have both material and symbolic aspects that give them shape. Guidebooks, ► [tour](#) guides, and physical markers play an important role in delineating tourist spaces, and the presence of others “performing” as tourists also reinforces the interpretation of what constitutes tourist

space. Performing includes clothing choices (as opposed to work-a-day clothing), the ways tourists move through space (wandering and gazing as opposed to more purposeful directed movement), and the activities that are undertaken, such as photographing or engaging with marked sites and attractions (Edensor 2001).

Tourist space may function as a bubble within which the main sites are located and the services which are directed mainly at tourists are found, including hotels, ► [souvenir](#) stands, ► [guided tour](#) operations, and catering. These bubbles are found in enclave sites such as resorts as well as in urban areas (Judd 1999). Tourist space has been seen as being manufactured or “inauthentic.” According to theorists such as MacCannell (1976), tourists seek to go beyond the “front stage” to discover more “authentic” experiences of places. Many guidebooks appeal to this desire, offering to move tourists beyond the bubble. The success of this is that these local spaces are eventually overrun by tourists. Many spaces are located in “touristed landscapes” which are places receiving large numbers of tourists but which are in the end lived spaces carrying on other functions, tourism being only one (Cartier and Lew 2005).

See also ► [Destination](#), ► [landmark](#), ► [landscape](#), ► [package tourism](#), ► [urban tourism](#).

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and limitations is both for now and the ► [future](#). The report notes that unequal patterns of resource access and consumption contribute to poverty and the global environment's destruction.

Challenges of tourism sustainability

Tourism sustainability presents major challenges to current thinking and practices for the ► [industry](#), tourists, and communities. It requires present and future development to focus on the long-term interdependencies between human needs and the ► [environment](#), and on resource and development limitations. It requires a comprehensive approach that takes into account economic, sociocultural, environmental, and governance relationships (Weaver 2006).

The concept has encouraged numerous growing areas of research. They include work on issues surrounding the industry's rising greenhouse gas emissions and its climate impacts (Gössling et al. 2009) and their links with behavioral change. Current research considers the processes of governance in sustainable tourism (Bramwell and Lane 2011). Sustainability requires that access to resources is made more equitable, encouraging increasing research on tourism's relationships with poverty and its potential use as a tool for poverty reduction. There is also growing interest in authentic tourism experiences, and their links to cultural authenticity, as well as to both natural and human heritage conservation.

The complexities of ► [sustainable tourism](#) include the requirement that approaches to this process should be specific to particular contexts, such as the distinct character of each destination and particular points in time (Hunter 1997). The pursuit of sustainability is difficult because it is not an identifiable and achievable "end-state". Instead, it is an ongoing process of change or transition that must respond to complex and changing relationships around present and future needs and limitations. Tourism sustainability forms a journey that changes in relation to place, scale, ► [time](#), and numerous other factors (Miller and Twining-Ward 2005). Another challenge for the industry is that sustainability concerns its

Sustainability

Bill Bramwell
Centre for Tourism, Hospitality and Events
Research, Sheffield Business School, Sheffield
Hallam University, Sheffield, UK

The idea of tourism sustainability as a desired direction for change is now quite widely advocated. It has become an explicit structuring concept for tourism worldwide, although there are diverse views on exactly what it entails and research indicates its practical application can be limited and superficial. Sustainability is closely tied to the concept of sustainable development, with its concern to create lasting livelihoods while minimizing resource depletion, environmental damage, cultural instability, and social disruption.

The concept of tourism sustainability was influenced by reactions to the growth of postwar tourism. Early thinking on this was boosted and supported by the Brundtland Commission's landmark report, *Our Common Future*, published in 1987. It describes sustainability as requiring a reorientation of development to focus on human needs and the environment's limited ability to meet them due to the state of technology and how society is organized. The focus on needs

potential contribution to overall development, rather than the sustainability of tourism itself. With this broad conceptualization, the industry may not accept that sometimes it is not the best development option.

Practical progress and conceptual value

Past research has examined the industry's adoption of specific sustainability practices, such as energy conservation and ► [recycling](#), and also the characteristics of tourists who select more sustainable products. This research tends to consist of case studies of specific businesses (such as individual airlines), sectors (notably the hotel sector), and products (such as ski resorts) in particular places. By contrast, there are few detailed assessments of the overall level of progress toward sustainable tourism in society. There are indications that overall progress may be at best static or even moving backward due to tourism's continuing overall growth.

Some commentators criticize the concept of sustainability because of its limited practical applications. Others suggest that its multiple dimensions and looseness mean that it is too vague, ambiguous, and impractical. Its looseness means that it can be too accommodating to greenwashing, business-as-usual, or comfortable reformism. The latter suggests that economic growth can be reconciled with environmental ► [conservation](#) without fundamental changes to vested interests and mainstream beliefs and values. Yet some assert that sustainability requires far-reaching changes to the capitalist system, society's consumerism, and existing policies.

Defenders of the sustainability concept disagree that it is too ambiguous and impractical, pointing out numerous new and potential tourism ► [management](#) tools. Further, they suggest that it offers the most effective approach to date to achieving more progressive development. They contend that the concept's looseness is precisely its strength. This is because it is a deliberately flexible concept that reflects the actual complexity of society and its relations with the environment, and because its normative basis provides a useful

political meta-narrative. It serves as a helpful conceptual focus for debate and conflict among actors with differing interests and views about tourism's positive and negative features and also about how to improve its operations (Liburd and Edwards 2010). This shared focus can contribute to dialogues and negotiations required for the health of liberal democracies and for improved practical actions. For such reasons, there are concerns that, without the concept, tourism's adverse effects might be allowed to increase even more rapidly.

New research directions

The more recent research directions on sustainability often reflect growing recognition of the concept's multiple dimensions and sometimes an increasing adoption of more critical theoretical perspectives in tourism studies. Some scholars suggest that sustainability can make more difference if the related research examines a broader range of issues and topics. The agenda is beginning to look more at moral and ethical issues, struggles with inequality and ► [power](#), alternative ways of knowing and thinking, and the emancipation of people from the ► [constraints](#) on their position and agency. Moreover, increasing attention is being paid to the major obstacles to tourism sustainability and the associated big changes required in society and its ► [governance](#).

See also ► [Alternative tourism](#), ► [environment](#), ► [pro-poor tourism](#), ► [responsible tourism](#), ► [sustainable tourism](#).

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Sustainable tourism

Hwansuk Chris Choi
 School of Hospitality, Food and Tourism
 Management, University of Guelph, Guelph,
 ON, Canada

Ever since the World Conservation Strategy revived the concept of ► [sustainability](#) in 1980 and the Brundtland Commission defined and popularized the term “sustainable development” in *Our Common Future* in 1987, thousands of related articles, books, and materials have been published. ► [Sustainability](#) has enjoyed unprecedented popularity in various fields, including ► [economics](#), ► [ecology](#), sociology, agriculture, ► [management](#), ► [planning](#), tourism, and ► [marketing](#). It is becoming an essentially contested and attractive buzz notion and is frequently regarded as a panacea for all management and ► [development](#) woes. Thus, the concept has become vague in its association with notions such as (corporate) social responsibility, green reporting initiative, fair trade, environmental responsibility, ► [pro-poor tourism](#), sustainable development, sustainability, corporate citizenship, green marketing, green economy, and triple bottom line (Choi and Sirakaya 2006).

Researchers have developed and applied frameworks, models, and monitoring systems regarding sustainable tourism. However, these efforts have been hampered by the lack of consensus on the definitions and conceptual and practical boundaries of sustainability in general (Mowforth and Mundt 1998). Due to its multifaceted nature, sustainability cannot be adequately

defined or understood through the tools available in any single field, including tourism.

Sustainable tourism aims neither to revive disappearing ecosystems nor to save a community from poverty. It is a form that contributes to optimal socioeconomic transformations through preventing deterioration of social, cultural, and ecological systems. It helps maintain a community’s economic viability via well-developed management communication channels with receptive governments. Its successful implementation requires integrated *policy*, planning, *management*, *monitoring*, and social learning processes; its political viability depends on *the active engagement of community residents* it affects through their governments, social institutions, *well-managed communication among all stakeholders*, and private activities (emphasis added, Rees 1989:3). Satisfying tourists is also a critical element of sustainable tourism.

Earlier debates focused heavily on conceptual issues. Over the last decade, sustainable tourism has transformed a more practical consideration that has penetrated the society. Along with the ► [trend](#), the core DNA of sustainable tourism has been reshaped from a public-driven to a private (or NGO)-driven concept and from a supply-side to a demand-side concept. This trend has created several research issues down the road. Increasingly, companies and governments are heavily focused on sustainability practices. Unfortunately, large corporations utilize sustainability as a ► [strategy](#) to build positive corporate brand image, to reduce operating costs, and to generate additional revenues. In this sense, it is important to ask how the public sector can develop proper policies and indicators to assess sustainable progress of a private sector’s efforts. Furthermore, consumers become more ecologically conscious. However, little empirical evidence has been brought to bear on the effect of their perception shaping their attitude in a way that leads to behavior changes. Lastly, much of sustainable tourism research is still produced in industrialized country settings. The “one fits all” approach of Western constructed sustainable tourism may not be suitable for less industrialized countries. Therefore, researchers should ask,

“can the ‘one fits all’ approach be applied to destinations at different levels of their lifecycle?”

See also ► [Ecology](#), ► [ecotourism](#), ► [environment](#), ► [sustainability](#).

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Destination marketing organization

Tony Tse

School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong, China

Tourism espouses and encompasses experiencing an ► [attraction](#) or a ► [destination](#). Tourists may choose a particular destination for a multitude of motives. Related activities, in one place or spread widely, could be located in a place, a village, a city, a country, or a ► [region](#). As more and more destinations choose to promote tourism and as more tourists look for information, destination marketing organizations become more important and more organized. This mission refers to all the planning and implementation to enhance tourism, including campaigns to drive business, information services, facilitation of bookings, customer relationship management, and much more. It is about the effort to get people to visit the destination (Morrison 2013).

While different stakeholders, such as hotels and attractions, may choose to promote their own services to tourists, it is believed that coordinated and concerted efforts to promote a destination could benefit the entire ► [industry](#). Such an approach is undertaken by a destination marketing organization. Its activities include research, product development, branding, advertising, ► [public relations](#), digital marketing, and tourist information service.

One of the core functions of a destination marketing organization is the creation and ► [management](#) of a strong and competitive brand. A successful destination brand signals good value, quality, trust, assurance, and ► [anticipation](#) to potential consumers. It is a coordinated effort to project a simple, appealing, credible, and distinctive image in potential markets (Tasci and Gartner 2009). It is a common practice for a destination marketing organization to take the lead and work closely with stakeholders (travel agents, hotels, airlines, and attractions) to promote ► [tourist](#) flows to the destination.

Governments have become involved in tourism mainly because of its economic importance

(Elliott 1997). Such organizations are usually set up by the government as not-for-profit entities. Its operating budget may also be provided by the government, with the financial support of tourism-related ► [tax](#).

Research has long acknowledged that destinations are among the most difficult products to manage and market. A consistent finding is the issue of collaboration and the need for those within the destination to work together in solving problems that are deemed too demanding to solve in isolation (Fyall and Leask 2006). Effort to create successful destinations, acting as intermediary between tourism markets and destinations, is often a multifaceted and polemic task. Future research may include the investigation of collaboration in destination marketing, the role of government in destination marketing, legal aspects of destination marketing, and its return on investment.

See also ► [Destination](#), ► [destination branding](#), ► [image](#), ► [marketing](#).

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Destination website

Dan Wang

School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong, China

Destination websites refer to the official websites, which are usually designed and maintained by

destination marketing organizations, for promoting specific locations to potential tourists. Such websites are operated at different geographic and administrative levels, such as nations, states, and cities. For instance, in the ► [United States](#), destination websites are designed for states (e.g., [visitcalifornia.com](#) for California State), counties (e.g., [orangetourism.org](#) for the Orange County in California State), and cities (e.g., [sanfrancisco.travel](#) for San Francisco).

A destination website provides an internet-based platform for mainly four functions, including the provision of information for ► [planning](#), the advertising of products and services in the ► [destination](#), the sales of products (e.g., hotel rooms) and meeting and convention spaces, and the branding of the destination with a variety of stakeholders (Tang et al. 2012). The ► [development](#) of destination websites has been associated with the advent of the internet era since the late 1990s and early 2000s (Gretzel et al. 2000). Due to the ubiquitous application of the internet in business and people's daily life, these websites are becoming essential tools and platforms to promote products and services and to connect tourists and local businesses.

In tourism studies, a stream of literature has been developed to focus on the design and evaluation of the effectiveness of websites as destination marketing tools (Park and Gretzel 2007). One category of the studies is concerned with the evaluation of website designs, information contents, and usability. Another category of the studies focuses on the actual use of such websites and their influence on consumer beliefs and behaviors, such as online activities, website revisiting, as well as decisionmaking processes (Tang et al. 2012).

As such, destination websites act as information brokers on the internet to connect tourists and destinations and are positioned as gates on the internet for people to know about these places. Their evaluations and designs are of major research interests, and the development of information technology is driving their evolution. The arising of social media platforms and new business models is challenging the design of destination websites. The popularity of mobile platform

is leading the research interest to an adaptation to the world of advanced mobile technology. Destination marketing organizations need a better positioning of destination websites to provide stakeholders extra values and to be differentiated from other commercial tourism business websites and social media outlets.

See also ► [Convention and visitor bureau](#), ► [destination marketing organization](#), ► [internet](#), ► [marketing](#), ► [social media](#).

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Destination

Adao Flores¹ and Noel Scott²

¹University of Algarve, Faro, Portugal

²Griffith Institute for Tourism, Griffith University, Gold Coast, QLD, Australia

From a geographic perspective, a destination is a particular place which a ► [tourist](#) plans to visit. Typically, natural and human attractions play a major role in making the choice (Gunn 1988). A destination is different from the tourist's normal environment. The term is used to describe locations at a range of scales from an individual resort to a city, to a country, or to even a continent. A particular trip begins from an origin, through a transit region, to one or many destinations. It may be visited by tourists on a ► [tour](#) as a first stop-over, as a hub for excursions, or as an exit point from a country. Tourists may be first timers or repeat visitors of a destination. The dispersal of

tourists across destinations is important in determining their expenditure patterns. Stays may be restricted to an enclave resort area or ► [travel](#) around the core destination and beyond. The borders of a destination are often drawn based on political boundaries but arguably are better formulated from patterns of tourist behavior.

Perspectives and elements

Destinations are viewed from other disciplinary perspectives. For example, sociological studies stress that tourists create a destination through their patterns of displacement and consumption of the place (Framke 2002). The economic perspective focuses on the creation of value for tourists and other stakeholders, implying the coordination of destination supply chain processes (Manente and Furlan 1998). From a management point of view, a destination is “a physical space in which a visitor spends at least one overnight. It includes tourism products such as support services and attractions, and tourism resources within one day’s return travel time. It has physical and administrative boundaries defining its management, and images and perceptions defining its market competitiveness. Local destinations incorporate various stakeholders often including a host community, and can nest and network to form larger destinations” (UNWTO 2007:1).

From a management perspective, destinations are distinguished from places as they contain ► [accommodation](#), attractions, ► [hospitality](#) services, shopping facilities, ► [transportation](#) services, and event facilities. This business cluster is organized around a set of tourism ► [resources](#), including the environmental, historical, and cultural heritage and the ethnography and values of a host community. A destination is linked to its origin markets by a supply chain of wholesale or retail agents as well as through direct online booking systems. The distinct organization and authenticity of these resources give identity to the destination and allow tourists to have different experiences in different locations around the world.

Destinations are often described by their main attractions as “sun and sand,” cultural or historic, adventure, city, or countryside. Increasingly, destinations are developing more complex products and services that enhance their appeals or cater to new markets. Examples include tourism experiences related to health and medical services, conferences, conventions and events, and education or study opportunities. In addition, a destination may feature products such as surfing, gastronomy, skiing, golf, and the like. Transportation links are of importance in allowing tourists to access a destination. The historic growth of ► [mass tourism](#) to coastal destinations in England was based on new railway construction, and travel to ► [Spain](#) and ► [Portugal](#) was predicated on the development of commercial jet ► [aviation](#). Low-cost airlines have shifted demand to destinations near secondary airports.

Several models have sought to describe the characteristics, growth patterns, supply systems, and demand for destinations, and their development or evolution has been a subject of much discussion. Destinations are considered to rise and fall in popularity over the longer term. Butler (1980) considered a destination develops through a number of stages to reach maturity and must ultimately face a choice between stagnation and renewal. Later models suggest destinations adopt evolutionary trajectories that are influenced by complex or chaotic factors.

Marketing and management

As destinations can geographically be remote from an origin, tourists are considered to have only imperfect limited knowledge or image of them, formed through sources including uncontrolled social media (organic image) and paid-for marketing (induced image). A destination’s image is considered an important contributor to its attraction. Developing a marketing positioning and brand image is usually the role of a ► [destination marketing organization](#). Ideally, the brand of a destination is supported by the community and business stakeholders and also provides a form of coordination among them.

The Gold Coast is an Australian beach and sun destination that is popular with families. It has a number of other attractions such as themeparks and shopping. It is positioned as a fun destination, and its brand image is based on the idea that it is “famous for fun.” While branding seeks to obtain a price premium for a trip to a destination, it is also important to be affordable to the target market and to provide a choice of accommodation and other facilities.

A tourist’s choice of a destination is affected, among other factors, by seasonal amount of rain and sunshine, average temperature, and the timing of events and festivals. Seasonality may have a significant ► [impact](#) on business owners and residents with crowding during a peak in visitation and slow-down closure in the off season. From a business and employment perspective, it is better to reduce such up and down variations over a year. Demand can be described in geographic terms using core and periphery or gravity models and in psychological terms using push and pull factors. Tourists are attracted and spend most of their time in the core, but may visit attractions in the periphery. The distance to a destination is another important factor affecting profitability, with remote destinations generally less profitable. Attractions or facilities located in peripheral areas are considered to be disadvantaged in getting the volume. Push factors refer to psychological reasons for travel away from an origin, and pull factors refer to the perceived attraction of a destination. A number of more complex destination choice models have been developed (Becken and Gnoth 2004).

Destinations primarily contain numerous small businesses leading to claims that the tourism ► [industry](#) is fragmented and disorganized. To avoid this problem and to provide the coordination needed, many larger or more developed destinations appoint and fund an organization to be responsible for certain tasks. A destination marketing organization has the role of marketing the region, while a destination management organization undertakes other functions such as planning or stimulation of innovation. It is common for a destination to prepare a tourism plan to guide its development. Collection of data about tourists is

an important function of such organizations and the basis for planning. In the ► [United States](#), such organizations are called convention and tourist bureaus and are primarily funded by the private sector, while in Australia, they may be called local or regional tourism organizations and receive partial government funding. At an international level, organizations such as the World Tourism Organization provide coordination among countries on issues such as training and improving destination access through easier visa processes. The aim of these organizations is to improve destination competitiveness to sustain tourism development.

In most destinations around the world, a destination marketing or management organization is embedded in a more or less hierarchical structure (Beritelli et al. 2014). The local organizations are most often public-private partnerships in order to encourage strong cooperation and mutual sharing of benefits. Typically, they are coordinated by a regional or state organization. In turn, there is normally one national tourism organization that provides a point of communication, coordination, and action for the whole industry in the country. Each of these organizations has roles that are sometimes overlapping, leading to issues of governance and efficiency. For example, a national tourism organization is responsible for the promotion of a country overseas, but some larger destinations within the country may also wish to promote their destination leading to potential conflicts in the image being promoted and the need for marketing coordination. The identification and resolution of such organizational overlaps is an important source of increased efficiency in the management of tourism within a country.

Destination sustainability

Increasingly, the effects of tourism on the fabric of a destination give rise to multiple types of impacts, including environmental, economic, social, and cultural, leading to concerns over how destinations can be more sustainable, and thus maintain their competitiveness. This challenge has received attention from anthropologists, sociologists, and environmentalists, among

others. The effect of exceeding certain limits, usually measured in numbers of tourists, is considered to lead to crowding and negative host-guest interactions. Similarly, exceeding environmental limits may lead to unacceptable changes in the natural setting of a destination. These impacts demand more attention from communities and government when considering the long-term capacity of the destination to survive and reinvent itself, while contributing to the wellbeing of the host population.

Thus, new forms of governance and management of a destination are needed, such as networks, cluster development, or local supply systems approaches. Sustainable plans manage the “impacts of tourism on the destination’s environment, economy, and community and maintains and enhances the destination’s resources for the present and future needs of both tourists and the communities that host them” (UNWTO 2007:12). The effective sustainable management of destinations is an active area for research.

Further research

Destination is a central concept in tourism. It has been studied from a variety of perspectives, as is often found in the study of a multidisciplinary phenomenon such as tourism. Destinations are in essence a microcosm of the larger world and hence are subject to similar trends and issues. Therefore, the topics relating to its study are continually changing. Recent issues of interest include the effect of crisis and disaster on a destination (Ritchie et al. 2014) and conversely destination resilience. Increasingly, the concept of a destination product sold to a marketplace is being replaced by the idea of unusual experiences sought by tourists. While studies of such destinations as Antarctica, China, and Maldives are gaining popularity in academic circles, the subject in general is under-researched and hence under-developed (Prideaux 1996). It is even more so in respect to cross-cultural studies of emerging destinations and stakeholders network analysis (Scott et al. 2008).

See also ► [Destination branding](#), ► [destination lifecycle](#), ► [destination marketing organization](#), ► [seasonality](#).

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