

THE WILEY BLACKWELL COMPANION TO

# TOURISM

Edited by Alan A. Lew, C. Michael Hall,  
and Allan M. Williams

WILEY Blackwell



# **The Wiley Blackwell Companion to Tourism**

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# The Wiley Blackwell Companion to Tourism

*Edited by*

Alan A. Lew, C. Michael Hall, and Allan M. Williams

**WILEY** Blackwell

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# **Part 1 Introduction**

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## Chapter 1

# **Tourism Conceptualizations, Disciplinarity, Institutions, and Issues**

*C. Michael Hall, Allan M. Williams, and Alan A. Lew*

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Any contemporary global account of tourism has to acknowledge at its outset the continued growth of international and domestic tourism. Despite temporary setbacks since the turn of the twenty-first century, tourism as an industry has probably achieved a higher profile in the public consciousness of the developed world than ever before. The impacts on international tourism of the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, the American-led invasion of Iraq in 2003, government and traveler responses to the SARS virus in 2003, the Indian Ocean Boxing Day tsunami in 2004, the 2008–2012 international economic and financial crisis, and the “Arab Spring” starting in 2010 in Tunisia have all proven transitory with respect to tourism growth at the global scale, although their destination, community, and firm effects remain significant. Regional and local changes in consumer confidence and travel behavior and corresponding shifts in travel patterns, such as a reported growth in “staycations” and more local travel, have, in the main, been short term as economic conditions improve in generating regions (Hall, 2010a). Indeed, economic problems in destinations, such as Cyprus, Greece, Portugal, Spain, Thailand, and Tunisia, only served to make tourism more important than ever, not only with respect to business vitality and the economy but also in its sociocultural, environmental, and political contexts.

Although the statistics relating to the economic role of tourism are by now familiar, it is worth emphasizing them here as part of the framing of this volume. Ranked the fourth largest economic sector after fuels, chemicals, and food, tourism accounts for an estimated 5% of global gross domestic product (GDP) and 6–7% of employment (direct and indirect) (UNWTO, 2012). International tourism’s export value, including international passenger transport, was US\$1.2 trillion in 2011, accounting for 30% of the world’s commercial service exports or 6% of total exports (UNWTO, 2012). Tourism is also one of five top export earners in over 150 countries, while in 60 countries it is the number one export sector

**Table 1.1.** International tourism arrivals and forecasts 1950–2030 (millions).

<i>Year</i>	<i>World</i>	<i>Africa</i>	<i>Americas</i>	<i>Asia and Pacific</i>	<i>Europe</i>	<i>Middle East</i>
1950	25.3	0.5	7.5	0.2	16.8	0.2
1960	69.3	0.8	16.7	0.9	50.4	0.6
1965	112.9	1.4	23.2	2.1	83.7	2.4
1970	165.8	2.4	42.3	6.2	113.0	1.9
1975	222.3	4.7	50.0	10.2	153.9	3.5
1980	278.1	7.2	62.3	23.0	178.5	7.1
1985	320.1	9.7	65.1	32.9	204.3	8.1
1990	439.5	15.2	92.8	56.2	265.8	9.6
1995	540.6	20.4	109.0	82.4	315.0	13.7
2000	687.0	28.3	128.1	110.5	395.9	24.2
2005	806.8	37.3	133.5	155.4	441.5	39.0
2010	940	49.7	150.7	204.4	474.8	60.3
Forecast						
2020	1360	85	199	355	620	101
2030	1809	134	248	535	744	149

Sources: World Tourism Organization (1997ss); UNWTO (2006, 2012).

(UNCTAD, 2010). It is also the main source of foreign exchange for one-third of developing countries and half of the least-developed countries (UNWTO and UNEP, 2011).

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) predicts the number of international tourist arrivals will increase by an average 3.3% per year between 2010 and 2030 (an average annual increase of 43 million arrivals), reaching an estimated 1.8 billion arrivals by 2030 (UNWTO, 2011, 2012) (see Table 1.1). Upper and lower forecasts for global tourism in 2030 are between approximately 2 billion arrivals (the “real transport costs continue to fall” scenario) and 1.4 billion arrivals (“slower-than-expected economic recovery and future growth” scenario) respectively (UNWTO, 2011). Most growth is forecast to come from the emerging economies and the Asia-Pacific region, and by 2030 it is estimated that 57% of international arrivals will be in what are currently classified as emerging economies (UNWTO, 2011, 2012). It is also important to note that although international tourism is often the focus of government policy because of its trade and foreign exchange implications, international tourism only accounts for around 16% of all tourist trips. Forecasts and outcomes can, of course, be very different, but these forecast not only frame but, through their influence on confidence and investments, also inform the trajectory of tourism.

Tourism research does not exist in a vacuum. It is affected not only by changes in tourism consumption and production, but also wider global events and the shifting priorities and policies of higher education institutions and research funders which have placed a stronger emphasis on assessments research output quality, public–private partnerships, and the “entrepreneurial university” (Rhoades and Slaughter, 1997; Deem, 2001; Slaughter and Leslie, 2001; Slaughter and Rhoades, 2004; Paasi, 2005; Hall, 2011c, 2013a). The constant fluidity and change in their environment has led many researchers to question many of their assumptions about tourism and reassess the relevance of their work, not only in terms of policy and other applications, but also, more fundamentally, to revisit the ways in which the subject is theorized and conceptualized (Gibson, 2008, 2009, 2010; Waitt et al., 2008; Tribe, 2009, 2010;

Winter, 2009; Wilson, 2012; Benckendorff and Zehrer, 2013; Hall, 2013a). A history of the sociology of tourism knowledge, unlike a history of tourist activity, has not yet been completed. While this was not explicitly the aim of this volume, the range and depth of the chapters in this book do provide an opportunity to assess many of the key themes and issues in tourism studies, as well as the intellectual context within which they were prepared.

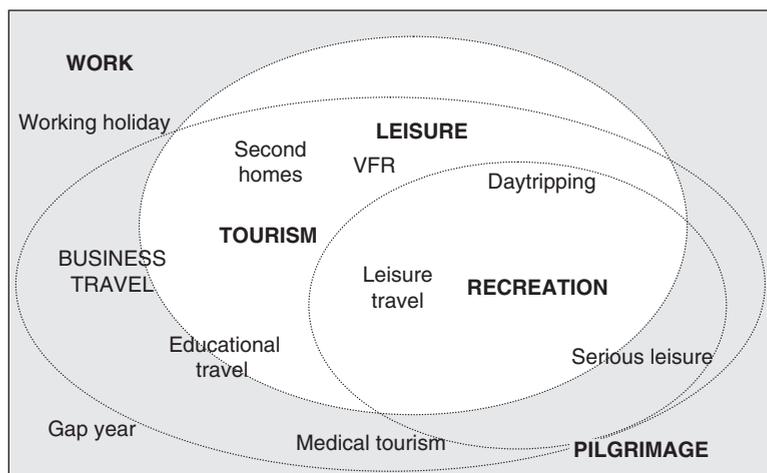
This introductory chapter is divided into three main sections. First, a brief account is presented of some of the issues surrounding the definition of tourism and, hence, its study. Second is a discussion of some of the key themes and issues that have emerged in tourism as a field of social scientific endeavor. Third, and finally, some comments are made regarding the relationships between areas of tourism research and their ebb and flow, and the selection of chapters in this volume. These issues are again taken up in the conclusion (see Chapter 50).

### Conceptualizing Tourism

Although many students of tourism have long sympathized with the sentiments of Williams and Shaw's observation that "the definition of tourism is a particularly arid pursuit" (1988: 2) it is, as they also acknowledged, "crucially important." This is in part because of the continuing need to determine tourism's economic impacts and employment effects, and its broader effects and policy ramifications. Based on generally accepted international agreements for collecting and comparing tourism statistics, the term tourism trip has come to refer to a trip of not more than 12 months and for a main purpose other than being employed at the destination (UN and UNWTO 2007). However, despite United Nations and UNWTO recommendations, substantial differences remain between countries with respect to the length of time that they use to define a tourist, as well as how employment is defined (Hall and Lew, 2009).

Undoubtedly, a substantial amount of government, industry body, and academic research effort has gone into the determination of "supply-side" or industry approaches to the definition of tourism, such as the development of Tourism Satellite Accounts (TSAs), which have become significant policy tools for organizations such as the World Travel and Tourism Council (Smith 2004, 2007; Hall and Lew, 2009). From a production or supply-side perspective, which TSAs seek to measure, the tourism industry may be defined as "the aggregate of all businesses that directly provide goods or services to facilitate business, pleasure, and leisure activities away from the home environment" (Smith, 1988: 183). However, such production-oriented approaches, while useful for comparative economic research and studies of tourism's economic impact, fail to convey the manner in which the production and consumption of tourism are interwoven, the complexity of tourism labor market structure (see Chapter 9 in this volume), and even business innovation and strategy (Leiper, 2004; Hall and Williams, 2008; Leiper et al., 2008; Hall and Page, 2010; see also Chapter 11). They also do not address the implications that this has for understanding the broader social, environmental, and political dimensions of tourism, as well as fundamental economic issues of commodification, distribution, tourism labor, and the appropriate role of the state in tourism.

An adequate conceptualization of tourism therefore clearly requires that we go beyond the narrowly economic. Most obviously, there is a need to appreciate the relationships between leisure, recreation, and tourism and other social practices, and behavior (Figure 1.1). As Parker (1999: 21) observed, "It is through studying leisure as a whole that the most powerful explanations are developed. This is because society is not divided into sports players,



**Figure 1.1.** Relationships between leisure, recreation, and tourism (after Hall, 2005). VFR, visiting friends and relations.

television viewers, tourists and so on. It is the same people who do all these things.” Furthermore, Featherstone (1987: 115) argues that the tourism phenomenon we study should be socially situated: “The significance and meaning of a particular set of leisure choices . . . can only be made intelligible by inscribing them on a map of the class-defined social field of leisure and lifestyle practices in which their meaning and significance is relationally defined with reference to structured oppositions and differences.” There is therefore considerable value in viewing tourism and recreation as part of a wider conceptualization of leisure (Shaw and Williams, 2002; Hall and Page, 2014). In Figure 1.1 dotted lines are used to illustrate that the boundaries between the concepts are “blurred.” Work is differentiated from leisure, with there being two main realms of overlap: first, business travel, which is seen as a work-oriented form of tourism in order to differentiate it from leisure-based travel; and, second, “serious leisure,” which refers to the breakdown between leisure and work pursuits and the development of leisure career paths with respect to hobbies and interests (Stebbins 1979, 1982). Although the blending or even convergence of work and leisure in a travel context has been recognized in the academic literature since the early 1980s it has now become more commonplace and recognized with the growth of working holidays, business travel, telecommuting from second homes, and volunteer tourism and gap years. In fact, government policies have often been set to enable such travel because of its perceived economic benefits to destination areas, including remedying seasonal labor deficiencies (Williams and Hall, 2002).

In addition to being defined in relation to its production and consumption, tourism is also interpreted as but one, albeit highly significant, dimension of temporary mobility and circulation (Bell and Ward, 2000; Urry, 2000; Williams and Hall, 2000, 2002; Coles et al., 2004; Cresswell, 2006; Hannam, 2008; see also Chapter 6) (Figure 1.2). The merging of aspects of leisure, recreation, and tourism research (Crouch, 1999; Hall and Page, 2014), along with the study of migration (Williams and Hall, 2000; Williams et al., 2000; Hall and Williams, 2002; Janoschka and Haas, 2013), circulation, and mobility (Urry, 2000; Cresswell, 2006) has had a substantial influence on how tourism is perceived as an area of interest in the wider academic community in relation not only to the movement of people, including the mundane

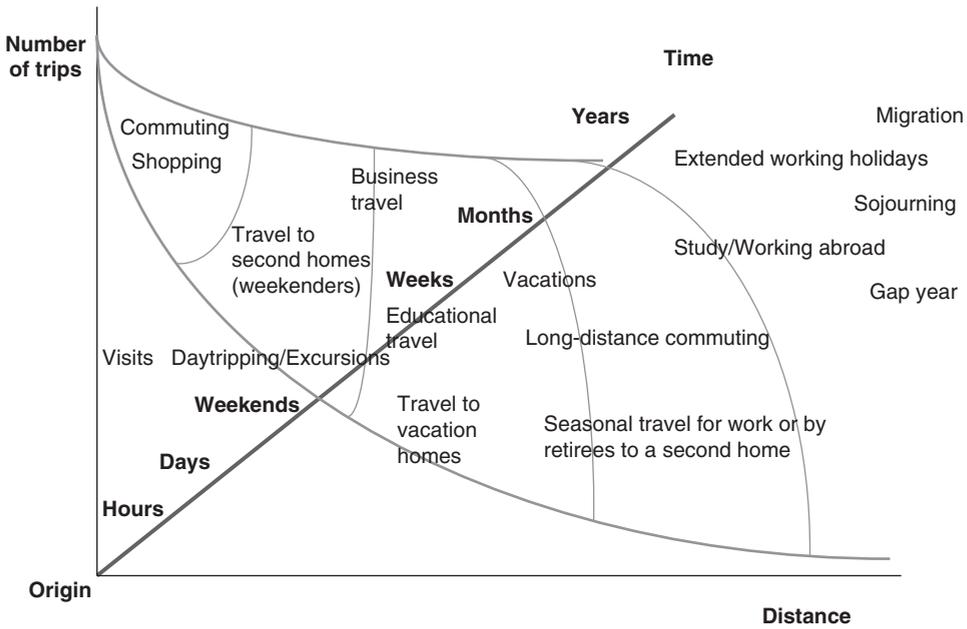


Figure 1.2. Extent of temporary mobility in space and time (after Hall, 2005).

mobilities of the everyday (Edensor, 2007), but also the movement of ideas (González, 2011; Paraskevopoulou et al., 2012; see also Chapter 11). Indeed, it is only really since the turn of the twenty-first century that temporary movements away from home, such as tourism, but also including activities such as travel for work or education, travel for health reasons, or even going overseas after finishing university, have begun to substantially catch the awareness of migration researchers (Bell and Ward, 2000). Although the influence of the “mobilities paradigm” has been relatively limited within tourism studies, it nevertheless has substantial implications for areas such as ethnicity (see Chapter 19), identity (Lugosi, 2014), innovation (Paraskevopoulou et al., 2012), and multiple-dwelling (Müller, 2006; Pitkänen, 2008; see also Chapter 31). Yet it is increasingly evident to those seeking wider perspectives on tourism that supposedly “different” forms of mobility are highly interrelated. Thus, the inclusion of same-day travel “excursionists” within technical definitions of tourism makes the division between recreation and tourism even more arbitrary (UN and UNWTO, 2007). Given innovations in transport technology, same-day travel is becoming increasingly important at widening spatial scales, an exemplification of “space–time compression” in tourism (Hall, 2005). This emphasizes the need for those interested in tourism to address the arbitrary boundaries between tourism and leisure, and tourism and migration. Tourism constitutes just one form of leisure-oriented temporary mobility, and it constitutes part of that mobility, being shaped by and shaping it.

While stressing the need to conceptualize tourism in terms of mobility, Flavell (2001: 391–392) reminds us that there is also a need “to assess really the extent or nature of movement, or indeed even see it sometimes, you have in fact to spend a lot of the time studying things that stand still: the borders, institutions and territories of nation states; the sedimented ‘home’ cultures of people that do not move.” This directs our attention to the nonmobile. Although there is a well-established literature on leisure constraints (e.g. Nyaupane and

Andereck, 2008) such notions have been relatively little applied to tourism (Shaw and Williams, 2002; Cole and Morgan, 2010; Hall, 2010b), with the possible exception of discussions of seasonality (Hinch and Jackson, 2000; Baum and Lundtrop, 2001) and a resurgence of interest in social and economic access issues in tourism. Indeed, it could be argued that, for much “mainstream” business research on tourism, issues of equity and rights of access are never considered and there often appears to be an implicit assumption that everyone can travel, has a car, and/or has a cell phone (Hall, 2010b). Nevertheless, geographers have long recognized that a basic precondition for tourism mobility is that absences from the stations of the daily world are for certain periods socially and institutionally sanctioned. The opportunity to travel has always depended on the right to be absent from home and work, with such rights having historically been reserved for very few groups in the (usually male) population (Frändberg, 1998). Indeed, Hägerstrand (1984), describing the breakaway from the space-time prism of everyday life that tourism represents, refers to this as an “escape from the cage of routines.” Similarly, the growing recognition of the role of spatial settings by sociologists has direct implications for understanding tourism as a social practice, with Giddens (1984: xxv) observing, “Time-space ‘fixity’ also means social fixity; the substantially ‘given’ character of the physical milieu of day-to-day life interlaces with routine and is deeply influential in the contours of institutional reproduction.”

However, the embeddedness of tourism in modern social and economic practices has created a significant space for social science research which may not only be of relevance for tourism itself but for a deeper understanding of the everyday as well as wider patterns of mobility. Nevertheless, the notion of tourism is open to multiple conceptualizations that rest on the ontological, epistemological, and paradigmatic assumptions of the viewer (Ayikoru, 2009; Tribe, 2009; Hall, 2011d; Lemelin et al., 2011). This means that the conceptualization of tourism remains open to substantial contestation that may almost seem at odds with a lay understanding of what tourism represents.

Before we proceed further with the contested notions of how tourism should be conceptualized, it should be noted that some commentators even questioned the utility of tourism as a concept.

We will begin by interrogating the very category of “tourism”. Is there such an entity? Does the term serve to demarcate a usefully distinct sphere of social practice? Where does tourism end and leisure or hobbying and strolling begin? This book [*Touring Cultures*] is based on the view that tourism is a term that is waiting to be deconstructed. Or as Marx might have said it is a chaotic conception, including within it too wide a range of disparate phenomenon. . . . It embraces so many different notions that it is hardly useful as a term of social science, although this is paradoxical since Tourism Studies is currently being rapidly institutionalised within much of the academy. (Rojek and Urry, 1997: 1)

Yet concerns over whether the term “tourism” is useful do not appear to have worried the vast majority of the tourism academy, nor industry and policy-makers, as the next section, which takes up the theme of the institutionalization of tourism, illustrates.

### **The Institutionalization of Tourism Studies: Tourism as a Discipline?**

Despite contestation over key concepts, tourism studies is well institutionalized in academic terms. Arguably, one of the reasons for conceptual confusion is because of the multiplicity

of disciplinary and paradigmatic approaches that have been brought to bear on tourism phenomena (Meethan, 2001), as indeed is true of many of the phenomena that are studied in the social sciences. Tribe (1997: 638) described tourism analysis as interdisciplinary, multi-disciplinary, and “conscious of its youthfulness.” Yet while such statements about the state of tourism studies are widespread, they fail to appreciate that the study of tourism in the social sciences has a far longer history than is often imagined, and is less “youthful” than Tribe implies. For example, with respect to the geography of tourism, Hall and Page (2014) chart Anglo-American and European traditions of social scientific scholarship on tourism that date to the 1920s and 1930s.

The predominant attitude long held among tourism researchers is perhaps best summed up by Bodewes, who argued that “tourism is usually viewed as an application of established disciplines, because it does not possess sufficient doctrine to be classified as a full-fledged academic discipline” (1981: 37). Tribe (1997) even suggests that the search for tourism as a discipline should be abandoned, and that the diversity of the field should be celebrated. Nevertheless, this has to be set against the increasing recognition that tourism is now recognized as a legitimate area of study in its own right, and that it has many of the characteristics of a discipline (Hall, 2005). For example, Johnston (1991), in his landmark review of Anglo-American geography, identified three key characteristics of a discipline:

- a well-established presence in universities and colleges, including the appointment of professorial positions;
- formal institutional structures of academic associations and university departments; and
- avenues for academic publication, in terms of books and journals.

Indeed, “It is the advancement of knowledge – through the conduct of fundamental research and the publication of its original findings – which identifies an academic discipline; the nature of its teaching follows from the nature of its research” (Johnston, 1991: 2).

These characteristics clearly apply to the field of tourism studies. There are departments and/or degree programs established throughout the world, although in countries such as Australia and the UK they tend to be located in newer universities and often in formerly more applied technical institutions and polytechnics. Many universities also have professorial positions in tourism. The first undergraduate degree program in tourism in the UK was established at the University of Surrey in 1973. The first programs in Australia were established at Gatton College (now part of the University of Queensland) and Footscray CAE (now part of the Victoria University of Technology) in the late 1970s. In North America tourism and hospitality still retain a very strong base in community colleges although a large number of universities also have well-developed programs, although some of these have long-standing relationships with parks and recreation management or hospitality and gaming as research foci.

There are also a number of institutional structures for tourism both in universities and colleges of higher learning – that is, departments and schools of tourism – and on a national or international basis. For example, at a national level institutions such as the Council for Australian University Tourism and Hospitality Education (CAUTHE) and the Tourism Society in the UK run annual research conferences and provide fora for discussion on tourism education. Specialty tourism research groups also operate within national academic associations, such as the Association of American Geographers, the Canadian Association of Geographers, and the Institute of British Geographers.

At the international level social scientific unions in the fields of anthropology and ethnology, economic history, geography, history, and sociology have tourism commissions or working groups. For example, the International Geographical Union Commission on Tourism, Leisure and Global Change, which was established in 2000, has existed in various guises as a commission or study group since 1972. A number of other international tourism research and education organizations also exist which have made substantial contributions to tourism studies. For example, the first refereed academic journal on tourism, *Revue de Tourisme/The Tourist Review*, was established as early as 1946, as the official organ of l'Association Internationale d'Experts Scientifiques du Tourisme (AIEST) based in Switzerland. The Council of Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education (CHRIE), which has a strong tourism component, was also established in 1946 in the USA. The Tourism and Travel Research Association (TTRA) had its beginnings in the merger of the Western Council of Travel Research and the Eastern Travel Research Association in 1970. Although it retains a strong North American base, TTRA is now a substantial international network with European and Asia-Pacific chapters. In Europe, the institutionally based Association for Tourism and Leisure Education (ATLAS) was established in 1991 to develop transnational educational initiatives in tourism and leisure. Since that time ATLAS has expanded rapidly to include chapters from the Asia-Pacific, Africa, and the Americas.

In terms of the advancement of knowledge, there is now a substantial body of tourism literature as evidenced in journals, books, conference proceedings, and electronic publications. Although the exact figures are hard to identify given name changes of publications and the growth of online publishing, there are around 230–260 journals, published in English either in full or in part, that can be identified as having a substantial academic component devoted to tourism research. This compares to the 77 journals identified by Hall et al. (2004). Nevertheless, the market of ideas in tourism geography is clearly affected by gatekeepers (Hall, 2004) and “the uneven geographies of international journal publishing spaces” (Paasi, 2005: 769) that are shaped by different national and institutional research agendas as well as language. No matter how important local and national knowledge is, unless it is conveyed in English it has little chance of entering the global marketplace of ideas and be reproduced and recirculated. This does not mean that tourism research in other languages does not have significance; rather, it just means that its international reach is not as great. Somewhat ironically, given the express desire in tourism literatures to give voice to local and indigenous perspectives, unless that voice can be spoken in English it is likely not to be heard, at least in the academic literature (Hall, 2013a). Furthermore, it is also important to point out that much tourism-related knowledge is not published in tourism journals. For example, Butler's (1980) life-cycle model was published in the *Canadian Geographer* and Britton's (1991) fundamental critique of the geography of tourism was published in *Environment and Planning D: Society and Space*, and these were both substantial contributions to the tourism literature.

Two questions follow from the above. First, does tourism studies constitute a discipline? This is a difficult question. It is not one that the editors necessarily agree upon, and reflects their different assumptions and perspectives. Indeed, there is increased interest in tourism in the concept of postdisciplinarity (Coles et al., 2005, 2006, 2009) where there is a focus on learning rather than with disciplines. According to Coles et al. (2009: 81) “there is the danger that we may be attempting to address contemporary subjects (such as tourism) through outdated and ageing frameworks for scholarly activity and academic administration.” Coles et al. (2009) also argue that a postdisciplinary approach is especially well suited to the study