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Editorial

Hospitality, Sustainable Tourism and Local Development

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Following the outlined editorial plan, the volume 20 of the journal ends with a special issue dedicated to the theme: *Hospitality, Sustainable Tourism and Local Development.* Just as tourism, as a mass phenomenon, has a relatively recent expression, the confluence between tourism and hospitality today constitutes a new field of study, both intense and open to epistemological debate (Benckendorff & Zehrer, 2013). This is an ongoing, structuring and forward-looking discussion on research on the subject.

Moreover, some signal contributions to the debate can be pointed out, such as the tribute conference to Jafar Jafari *Celebrating and enhancing the tourism Knowledge-based platform*, held in Mallorca (2013), or the unlimited contributions of studies that mark the end of the twentieth century and early twenty-first century, where John Tribe, Liburd and Chambers stand out, among others, who bring the epistemological reflection of tourism to the disciplinary issue, at the same time inter, trans or even multidisciplinary (Leiper, 2000; Tribe & Liburd, 2016; Chambers, 2018). These approaches also reflect tourism as an academic topic of study, as well as the methodological appropriations that are intended to adjust to it (Ryan, 2018). The model "Tourism as a long-run economic growth factor" de Jacint Balaguer e Cantavella-Jordá (2002), focusing on econometric relationships and the multiplier effects of tourism and competitiveness, all of which are presented as vectors of economic growth, stimulated a multiplicity of other studies and authors and reached a unique level of development. There are, however, several sub-themes that still show gaps and that contrast with the predominance of economics in terms of research in tourism and hospitality (Netto & Nechar, 2016). There are, therefore, approaches to objectives that should be in the sights of tourism and that still need to be deepened, such as the issues of employment and the "fight against poverty", the articulation of tourism with regional development, as well as a countless number of topics such as identities and local culture and safeguarding and enhancing heritage, among others (Netto & Nechar, 2016; Salgado, Lemos, Costa & Silva, 2017).

The exponential growth of tourism and the pressure on the socio-economic and environmental fabric led to the assumption of concerns about sustainability and responsibility in its practices. In fact, this desideratum came to be established in the Year of Sustainable Tourism, in 2017, and in the Agenda for Sustainable Development of 2030, whose purpose is to stimulate public-private dialogue and contribute to the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) appointed by the United Nations. Of these objectives, the following stand out in particular: "decent work and economic growth", "responsible consumption and production" and "life below water". At the same time, the focus remains on "sustainable planning" visible in the context of globalization and culture issues, but also on innovation, within the theme of territories, resources and social cohesion.

So, from the reading of this special issue, a variety of approaches stand out, interweaving more theoretical treatments with case studies that propose as research spaces the composite theme of hospitality, sustainable tourism and development, including works from Spain, Mexico, Turkey and Portugal. There is, however, a transversality in the reflections that relate them to an inclusive economic development, consumption, production and the sustainable use of resources. The tourist's "liberation" led him to seek the experience in a sense of "encounter", to privilege a non-essentialist feeling of culture and meeting

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the people of the visited places, which makes hospitality, understood as accommodation and food, a necessary circumstance for the success of tourism, but not the only one. We can even speak of a new tourism, which requires consubstantiation in systematic research that leads to the consideration of new consumer profiles, new principles of customized management, a vision of territorialized governance, of culture and heritage, in short, of flexible tourism, segmented, environmentally conscious that guarantees the sustainability of the designated tourism system.

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Tourism Development Policy and the Use of Scenario Analysis: A synthesis model

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Abstract: COVID-19's pandemic made us learn to live with a renewed sense of limits and a new level of uncertainty. One of the governance responses that emerged from this panorama was the shift to scenario analysis, which generates narratives about multiple future possibilities. This paper attempts to answer the question of why and how to use scenario analysis when defining tourism development policy. In this study, a semi-systematic investigation is conducted to broaden the scope of discussion and explore new paths associated with the topic of tourism development policy. It is believed that the use of scenarios in tourism development policy can prove to be a valuable experimental technique for developing innovative ideas. With that end, this paper proposes a scenario development process model for policy and decision makers. As in any exploratory study, there are limitations, including the difficulty to generalising certain assumptions.

Keywords: Scenario analysis; COVID-19; Policy makers; Scenario Development Process; Tourism development policy.

Política de desarrollo turístico y uso del análisis de escenarios: Un modelo de síntesis

Resumen: La pandemia de COVID-19 nos hizo aprender a vivir con un renovado sentido de los límites y un nuevo nivel de incertidumbre. Una de las respuestas de gobernanza que surgió de este panorama fue el cambio al análisis de escenarios, que genera narrativas sobre múltiples posibilidades futuras. Este artículo trata de responder a las preguntas de por qué y cómo utilizar el análisis de escenarios al definir la política de desarrollo turístico. Sobre este estudio se opta por realizar una revisión semissistemática con la intención de ampliar el campo de discusión y explorar nuevos caminos vinculados a la temática de la política de desarrollo turístico. Uno sugiere que, en lo que respecta a la política de desarrollo turístico, el uso de escenarios puede resultar una técnica experimental valiosa para desarrollar ideas innovadoras. Con ese fin, en este artículo se propone un modelo de proceso de desarrollo de escenarios para formuladores de políticas y tomadores de decisiones. Como en todo estudio exploratorio existen limitaciones, entre ellas la dificultad de generalizar ciertas suposiciones.

Palabras Clave: Análisis de escenarios; COVID-19; Responsables políticos; Proceso de desarrollo de escenarios; Política de desarrollo turístico.

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1. Introduction

Amidst the COVID-19 pandemics, there is a need to understand the current density in the content of reflection and analysis, and the simplicity in decoding issues that are so complex, current, interesting, challenging and of great relevance for the political-contemporary tourism development. Policies represent the result of the recognition that supports the development of tourism, having the possibility to increase the sector's contribution to economic growth and employment creation, while at the same time, addressing other key challenges presented to us (UNWTO-UNEP, 2012).

The potentialities of scenario analysis recommend its use by policy makers in general and also for those responsible for tourism development policy. Thus, and before COVID-19 pandemic, tourism development was widely defended by tourists, entrepreneurs and governments, and in particular by Destination Management Organisations (DMO's) (Stratigea & Katsoni, 2015).

Scenarios are essentially reasonable and well-structured stories that help to foresee how the future political-economic world will look like, in a way that makes the policy challenges stand out (Barma et al., 2016), and how they would look like in the tourism world after COVID-19.

Perhaps, only a scenario analysis within the pandemic situation and afterwards would allow policy and decision makers in tourism destinations to design a holistic strategic planning with and integrated and future perspective. The post COVID–19 pandemic comes with challenges and opportunities (WEF, 2020) that takes into consideration, all the production and resources on which tourism relies. This results in the return of tourism development as they imagine it– in accordance with their vision.

The present study investigates how this methodological knowledge framework can be made productive for researchers, to policy makers and decision makers in the context of tourism policy design and implementation, especially under the present uncertainties.

The article proceeds as follows. First, it makes a foray into the various meanings of public policy and explains why it is so important to deal with this issue. It then discusses tourism public policy showing that its implementation in the national, regional and local contexts can determine the inherent tourism development direction and outcomes. Going forward, it is suggested that scenario analysis can play an exceptional and decisive role in anticipating and overcoming constraints for tourism policy and planning implementation. Later, scenario process development is addressed to show why amid COVID-19 preparation for the future does not require precise forecasting, but a body of knowledge upon which to base praxis, an ability to learn from experience, and a keen interest in what is happening in the present. If this is carried out well, DMOs can respond or adapt to change promptly and effectively in a suitable way. Finally, the main findings are discussed, and the paper concludes with a summary of what was accomplished with it, ideas for future research and final remarks on the contribution of this study for research.

2. Methodology

In order to explore issues related to scenario analysis and tourism policy development, a semi-systematic research method was used, relying merely on the existing literature. This sort of review helps in identifying relevant theoretical perspectives and other qualitative data related to the topic the researcher wants to explore (Snyder, 2019). Thus, this paper is exploratory and aims to expand the debate on this particular topic, i.e., to bring new insights and perspectives to tourism development policy and the use of scenarios analysis by governments and destination management organisations as a preparation for a world after COVID-19 pandemic.

In this context, Hollinshead (2004, p.73) appears to point out that "almost all qualitative analysis can only ever be partial, and therefore open-ended, forms of inquiry; many researchers believe they can only ever yield 'findings' tentatively held, and never 'results' firmly concluded". Therefore, in our study we adopted the conceptualisation of Quivy and Campenhoudt (2008, p.104) who tell us that, "the problem is the theoretical approach or perspective that one decides to adopt to address the problem placed for the starting question. It is a way of interrogating the studied phenomena".

Thus, a certain amount of limitations exists when conducting an exploratory study, since one is making an interpretation of the reality and trying to discover something new and interesting (Swedberg, 2020), it is only possible to draw up hypothesis, and its verification is beyond the reach of the researcher.

3. Public Policy

When analysing the concept of policy and its use, it is first necessary to clarify its meaning (Wes, 1996). Likely, the most renowned, shortest and intuitive definition of public policy has been given to us by Thomas Dye (1972, p.2) “anything a government chooses to do or not to do”. Jenkins (1978, p.6), on the other hand, proposes a more precise conceptualization of public policy, defining it as “a set of interrelated decisions taken by a political actor or group of actors regarding the selection of objectives and the means of achieving them within a specified situation where those decisions should, in principle, be within the power of those actors to achieve”.

Hogwood and Gunn (1984) stated that there are dissimilar ways to understand ‘policy’: as a label for an area of activity (e.g. tourism policy); as an expression of intent (e.g. “we will improve tourism supply”); as specific proposals (e.g. a tourism programme); as resolutions of a government and the formal regulation (e.g. specific tourism legislation); a programme or a legislation package, staffing and funding, intermediate and ultimate results (e.g. better prepared tourism professionals); outcomes or what is really achieved (tourism supply); and a process and/or series of decisions.

Anderson (2003, p.2) prefers a conceptualisation of policy that emphasises actions rather than intentions such as “A relatively stable, purposive course of action followed by an actor or group of actors in dealing with a problem or matter of concern”. This definition centers its attention on what has been done, instead of what is only suggested or willed. It differentiates a policy from a resolution, which is inherently a specific choice among several options, and considers policy as something that takes time to reveal itself.

According to Knill & Tosun (2008), policy making is characterised by the presence of several restrictions, the existence of multiple policy processes and a never-ending cycle of policies and decisions (policy cycle processes), through which the last stage leads necessarily straight back to the first one. This means that the policy cycle is continuous and functions like an endless loop.

Paul Carney (2012, p.22), give us a broader definition for public policy which is as follows: “public policy is important because the scope of the state extends to almost all aspects of our life. However, it is just one of many denominations in political science – like democracy, equality and power – that are well known but difficult to define”.

For Peters (2021), policies are design to solve one or more problems in society, and no policy can be effective unless it has a clear understanding of the socio-economic dynamics that have produced or are producing the problem(s), nonetheless these are always subject to interpretations.

As this etymological discussion indicates, public policy is something complex to define, and it depends on a number of constituent variables, since they exist as combinations of objectives and means assembled and actioned by a multitude of authoritative policy actors operating in an environment of multiple interacting actors and organisations operating in the course time and in the geographical space (Howlett & Cashore, 2014).

Finally, on the basis of this idea, a question can be raised based on this particular thought, “which elements of community life might be amenable to policies that promote the subjective well-being of community members?” (Ressler et al., 2021, p.823), and it is imperative that policy makers always have this in consideration. Because, what one could define as ‘good policy’, is the one that involves bringing together a series of components (including communities) and processes previously designed to intervene in society and economy (Peters, 2021).

4. Tourism Public Policy and Policy Implementation

Tourism public policy, more than any other policy, is influenced by economic, social, cultural and environmental factors, as well as by the government’s formal and informal organisations and other characteristics of the political system. Baum and Szivas (2008) allude to the fact that government’s keen interest in tourism and in the sector’s development is widely known, yet scholars’ discussion about the form and level of such involvement is limited. Others, such as Aimilia et al. (2012, p.482) stated that: “tourism has always been used as a ‘fundamental tool’ for local development, since tourist consumption in the production are is multifaceted linked to all local economic activities (agriculture, fishing, handicrafts, etc.), and has a multiple and significant effect on the production and social structure”.

Tourism policy and strategies at national, regional and local contexts determine the inherent tourism development direction, prospects or potential. However, in the case of tourism, the policies of local and regional governments have a more far-reaching impact on the development of tourism than the national ones.

The issue of policy implementation matter is extremely pressing for the tourism sector, as countless tourism plans and policies are not or just partially applied, creating a gap between what was intended and what was accomplished (Martins, 2018). This problem has a grand significance as it reflects government goals and intentions, as well as the extent to which governments can turn these intentions into actions (Krutwaysho & Bramwell, 2010).

In the opinion of Dredge and Jenkins (2007, p.10) “policy involves considering and debating the political agenda, what the issues are, who is or will be involved or affected, and the alternative courses of action to address these problems”. This underlines the idea that governments play a crucial role in the execution of tourism policies. Thus, the implementation of a tourism policy considerably relies on the wider political, economic and social environment (Elliot, 1997; OECD, 2010).

One should understand that tourism policy making, and its implementation are of key importance due to its varied nature and the entanglement in inter-institutional relations and concerted policy making (Wang & Ap, 2013; Sharma, 2017). Therefore, given the relevance of the level of execution to the success of a destination, appropriate tourism policy implementation by DMOs can have a profound impact on its development. DMOs play a decisive role in the implementation of tourism development policies and strategies, while organisations that are under the wings of the local, regional or national governments, and (usually) have political and legislative power as well as financial autonomy. However, sometimes, due to several reasons, barriers to the tourism policy implementation seem insurmountable. Perhaps, the best comprehensive assessment of the most usual blockades to tourism policy execution is provided to us by Dodds (2007), who identifies barriers to the application of sustainable tourism policies contained in a Local Agenda 21 Plan for Calvia (Mallorca-Spain). The barriers to its implementation included a lack of prior planning, lack of homogenisation of regional and national policy priorities, insubstantial enthusiasm among stakeholders to the plan in the long term, scarce political will to implement the policies, and a focus on short-term gains and economic issues rather than on long-term social and environmental benefits.

On the other hand, Martins (2018), who analysed the Barcelona Strategic Tourism Plan (2010-2015) concluded that there was a lack of political will to enforce the measures included in the plan. Of the 55 measures included in it, only one was fully achieved and the execution of the measures achieved an average of only 55%. This shows that although there was a political will to elaborate a strategic tourism plan, the planning partially failed due to the lack of political will to enforce it. Identifying problems its easy but solving them is a completely different story.

Often, in the face to critical problems such as the COVID-19 pandemic or even climate changes, policies may not be able to provide adequate responses due to cognitive failures to perceive the risks (Kemmerling & Makszin, 2018; Bavel et.al., 2020).

5. Scenario Analysis and Public Tourism Policy

Probably in futures studies, the great consensus existing is the idea that there is no academic consensus regarding the application of theory to support scenario methodology (Spaniol & Rowland, 2018). Nevertheless, scenario analysis can play an exceptional and decisive role on anticipating and overcoming constraints to tourism policy and planning implementation such as the one presented in Calvia (Mallorca - Spain), but also can help destinations to adapt faster to unforeseen events such as the COVID-19 pandemic.

Scenarios have also been used to back up the questioning considerations about public policy (Massé, 1966; Hughes, 2013). However, although national governments and other political institutions still undertake scenario or other future planning activities (Blossom, 2011), confirmation that scenarios play a significant and influential role in the policy process is harder to unveil. A review made by Volkery and Ribeiro (2009) on the use of scenarios in public policy has shown that there is a lack of evidence of their major influence on policymaking. As example of this is the recent study produced by UN/ECLAC (United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean, 2020) which shows that although a scenario analysis was made by it for 2020 and 2021, the subsequent report clearly shows that its state members did not use it as a basis for policy action to reduce the impact of COVID-19 on tourism.

According to Barma et al. (2016), scenario analysis is primarily seen as a tool or technique for examining the soundness of a particular strategy. It can lead decision-makers to deviate from the usual deductions regarding the present-day trends so that they can take advantage of unforeseen opportunities and also protect themselves from probable adverse exogenous shocks.

Policy makers should always bear in mind that public policies can be changed based on new or better information about their effects. This is of paramount importance as policy makers and decision makers are certain to face strategic decisions with uncertain long-term results. These outcomes are often linked with a multiplicity of factors that are very difficult to predict because they have little or no control over them (Volkery & Ribeiro, 2009; Walker et al., 2019).

We know from the literature that techniques can be considered either technical or subjective. Nevertheless, it can be said that both present challenges for tourism policy makers when seeking to design policies based on evidence/facts. Concerning policy, scenario analysis can serve multiple distinct functions (Blossom, 2011):

- Defining the agenda, identifying subjects that need to be addressed by policy in way to explore uncertainties;
- Policy development, including a long-term assessment on the impact of policies;

Identification of long-term subjects unconnected to policy development or to the predefined agenda that may eventually be incorporated into the agenda or/and in policy development.

Following Bibri (2018), it can be said that the effectiveness of scenario analysis studies in tourism policy lies in defining a wider conceptual framework that helps in the discussion about the future, as well as a contribution to tourism policy designing and to the rise of new prospects sustained in long-term decisions.

The strength and importance of the use of scenarios in tourism policy today, in the midst of this COVID-19 pandemic, lies in the fact that it is possible to introduce uncommon combinations of probable realities, which helps individuals to break with their usual conservative ways of thinking and analysing, which will result in deliberate discontinuities in narratives about the future. This capability of imagining alternative futures through a structured analytical process will help policy makers to adapt to something completely different from what they are used to (Barma et al., 2016).

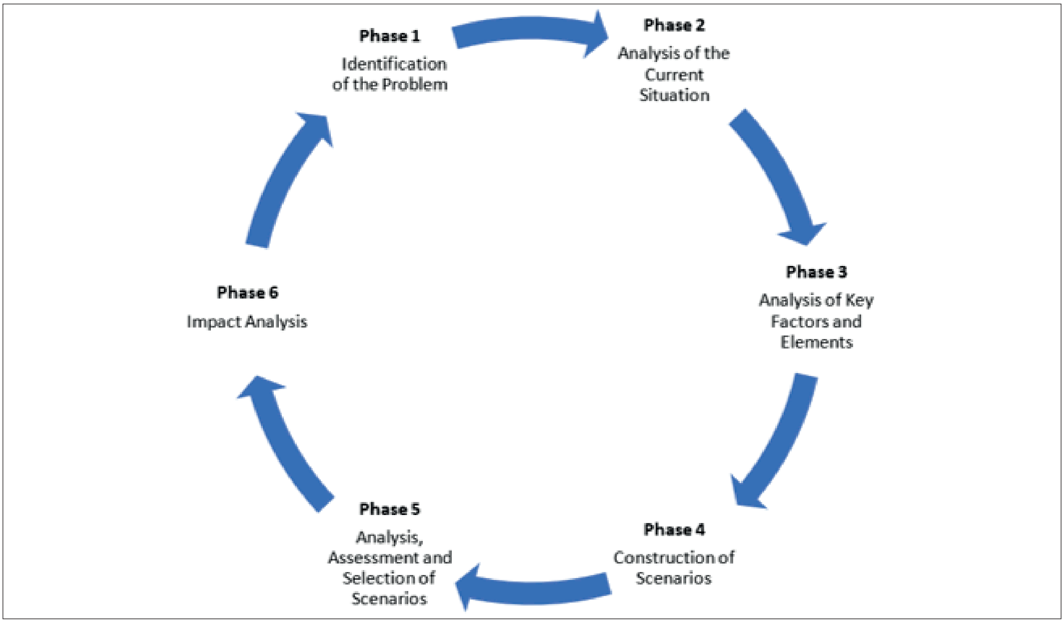
6. The Process of Scenario Development

Since the beginning of times, that mankind has been trying to develop methods to foresee the future. In the last years, researchers with different backgrounds have developed qualitative and quantitative methods to logically forecast the future. One must recognize that many divergent future scenarios are likely to happen, and that what lies ahead is yet far from the possibility of being known with absolute certainty (Bibri, 2018; Lempert, 2019). Therefore, preparing for what lies ahead obviously does not require an accurate prediction, rather than that, it requires information upon which we can base our actions, a capacity to learn from experience, monitoring what is happening in the present, and thriving and resilient organisations that can effectively answer or adjust successfully to changes (Crow & Sarewitz, 2001; Sarta et al., 2020).

Like Bostrom (2009) and others, e.g. Adams (2015) refer that it is useless to focus our attention in the most probable future scenario unless one can suppose that this will somehow unveil stable trends or otherwise show with absolute certainty what will happen next.

Scenario approaches can be regarded as methods of the future, and scenario analysis as an intricate set of methods that without exception incorporates several different methodological steps or phases (Kosow & Gaßner, 2008; Ramirez et al., 2015). Although scenarios are far from being built in a standardized way, similarities can be observed between the various models proposed in literature. Therefore, and basing ourselves in the models proposed by Bood and Postma (1997), Godet (2000), Brands et al. (2013), Stratigea and Katsoni (2015), and Spaniol and Rowland (2019) one advances with the following framework for a scenario development process (Figure 1).

Figure 1: The process of Scenario Development (Synthesis)



Source: Elaborated by the authors

Phase 1 – Identification of the Problem

Any scenario process begins with the identification of a focal issue or decision which represents the real issue to policy makers and/or other decision makers. It is imperative to define precisely the propose for which scenarios are to be developed 'What explicitly is the problem?' 'How will the scenario be developed?' 'What must it integrate?' and of equal importance 'What will be left out of consideration?'

Phase 2 – Analysis of the Current Situation

Making the analysis of the current conditions ("Where are we now?") important factors are identified. In this phase it is possible to identify strengths and weaknesses once they relate to external opportunities and threats, so PESTLE and SWOT analysis may serve as useful tools. It is very important to analyse the current situation because some factors that can determine the future can already be perceptible in the present.

Phase 3 – Analysis of Key-Factors and Elements

This step requires working out a description of the scenario in what concerns to its key factors. It is important to understand the system as a whole and the comprehension of the elements that constitute it helps to do just that. Key factors are those variables, trends, developments and events that should and must receive close attention during the course of the scenario development process. This classification (which factors are focused on, and why?) constitute a crucial step when it comes to scenario development process since there is some unpredictability that determine the differences between scenarios. There are many possibilities to carry this out, but it will always contain intuitive and creative aspects, and these are essential in way to visualize/predict the various possible future developments of any key factor.

Phase 4 – Construction of Scenarios

Scenarios are intricate systems whose elements have a multitude of interrelationships. Nevertheless, to be accepted by policy makers and/or decision makers, the constructed scenarios must be comprehensible, practical and congruous. They do not need to reflect the 'most probable future' or the 'worst', as such qualifications come without meaning given the number of future uncertainties. Even though multiple scenarios can be theoretically conceivable, to process them cognitively, it can only be made in limited numbers.

Phase 5 – Analysis, Assessment and Selection of Scenarios

This process of analysis, assessment and selection may take place, using as many scenarios as the ones vital to cover a sufficient number of perspectives and possible outcomes, but reducing its number to the minimum possible, in order to assure that the process keeps being doable. Then, they can then be analysed and interpreted by policy makers and/or decision-makers within the context of the issues they have before them and the measures that they must take.

Phase 6 – Impact Analysis

In this phase, policy makers and/or decision-makers analyse the impact of their actions, including:

1) The impact of the actions, by measuring changes in outcomes.
2) Determining if changes in results can be attributed to their efforts.
3) To balance relative impacts of actions with different key-factors.
4) Must be done an assessment of the relative cost-benefit or/and cost-effectiveness of a measure, where the following should be considered:

- Immediate, intermedium, and long-term results and impacts.
- Observable switches in target behaviour, awareness, attitudes or knowledge.
- Impacts on long-term indicators.
- Indicators that show progress towards outcome or impact.
- Costs of measures execution.
- Cost savings resulting from measures execution.

In view of its plurality, however, the scenario method must not be uniquely attributed to any of the aforementioned ways of imagining the future. Notably, the comprehension of the future, which is fundamental to the scenario technique, is marked primarily by the fact that its starting point is not an unavoidable future, but rather a series of numerous and diverse feasible futures (Kosow & Gaßner, 2008; Fauré et al., 2017).

Considering what Khakee (1991) and Ramirez et al. (2015) have stated, it can be said that given the diversity of methodological ideas, there is no series of rules for building scenarios for tourism under COVID-19 pandemic uncertainty or other future situations, nevertheless, Figure 1 shows a possible path to follow.

7. Findings and Discussion

One agrees with Dodds (2007, p.297 when she says that, "research on the implementation of tourism policy is weak" and consequently there is a clear need for research on this topic. However, it is not only in this subject of study that lacks research, but also a lack of research on scenario analysis linked to tourism and to tourism policy, a gap that this paper attempts to fulfill.

Likewise, the literature on scenario analysis was developed mainly for sectors other than tourism, and just a few references exist on the tourism public policy development and its implementation. Taking the example of the study of Dodds (2007), who identifies barriers to the execution of sustainable tourism policies contained in the context of Local Agenda 21 plan for Calvia (Mallorca – Spain), our research shows that scenario analysis, if carried out in a participatory way, can help to mobilise the different stakeholders and avoid the emergence of gaps between tourism development policy and its implementation. In the future, it can trigger a cultural change in the way institutions and organisations address the unexpected by becoming more adaptive and thus more resilient to external changes (Selin, 2006; Eriksson & Weber, 2008; Duchek, 2020).

Furthermore, there is a lack of collaborative policymaking, and the problem is that each stakeholder, including the political ones, thinks differently depending on their interests and fails to see the benefits of acting together – there is a lack of shared responsibility (Vellecco & Mancino, 2010; Hudson et al., 2019). As our paper shows, the several stakeholders are not aware of the importance of scenario analysis in tourism to prepare public policymaking for the shocks that future developments may bring and to better manage them at an early stage.

The findings also suggest that the use of scenario analysis by DMOs policy makers and decision makers can provide actionable clarity in understanding and predicting global issues, as well as challenges resulting from the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic and to prevent or even avoid gaps between tourism development policy and strategic planning implementation. However, this requires institutions and organisations to develop flexible and adaptive scenario formats and processes that promote the contrast between open and closed formats considering also the interaction of many or few actors (Eriksson & Weber, 2008; Duchek, 2020). To this end, a synthesis is proposed (Figure 1) that can help tourism policy makers, decision makers and planning makers to elaborate better theory-based scenarios and define what they need to do at each step of the way. It is felt that this is a viable and useful tool to help them develop scenarios. But this is only a proposal that seeks to be a contribution to the discussion. One must reaffirm that any exploratory study has its limitations, including the difficulty of generalising certain assumptions.

8. Final Considerations

This paper is a reflexive work that uses the different approaches and meanings of public tourism policy and scenario analysis in order to define different analytical dimensions related to these concepts. This paper also attempts to answer the following question: What are scenarios and why and how can they be used in defining tourism development policy for the post COVID-19 world? And it is our understanding that such objective has been successfully achieved.

COVID-19 pandemic has brought many challenges in many countries, regions and places, and policy makers must respond to these needs. They must not forget that even before the pandemic, communities were already very concerned with the environmental degradation, human rights issues, the links between policy makers and economic elites, and the huge economic gap that usually accompanies tourism (Guo et al., 2019).

Adapting to change implies that without cooperative actions, tourism activity will not develop as policy makers want and envision, leading to a deterioration in the competitiveness of their destinations. Furthermore, it is easier to identify development issues in tourism than to address these same problems. The essential part of policy decision-making around the world became the use of the word ‘sustainable’ as a development goal without existing an agreement on its meaning (Jenckins, 2015).

Policy is a rather complex construct and a definite definition is still missing. Nevertheless, all policy guidelines, plans, actions and regulations that are used to solve public problems. To simplify the understanding of policy making processes, theoretical frameworks, models, methods and techniques are usually designed. Scenarios have a temporal property with roots in the future and should be feasible and plausible while assuming the proper form of a story or narrative description (Spaniol & Rowland, 2018).

In summary, much more research is needed on scenario analysis in the context of tourism policy development, particularly in relation to pandemic. Existing research is still scarce, so this paper should be considered as a further contribution to understanding how tourism policy makers and decision makers can address the post COVID-19 problematic through scenario analysis.

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Tourism in protected areas: the example of Peneda-Gerês National Park (Portugal)

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Abstract: Tourism in protected areas can have a variety of positive impacts, on the protected areas themselves, for the people, communities and economies that surround them, and for the tourists who visit them. In Portugal, nature is one of the strategic differentiating assets of national tourism. Of the Portuguese protected areas there is one that stands out: the Peneda-Gerês National Park (PGNP). The aim of this article is to understand the evolution of supply and demand in tourist terms in the PGNP. It was possible to observe that the territory has early sought to consolidate itself as a brand both nationally and internationally, being inserted in networks of high prestige, having also sought to know, study and classify the existing heritage in the territory, considered as tourist attractions. The PGNP continues to be a reference in terms of tourist demand, despite having registered a decrease during the pandemic period.

Keywords: Protected areas; Nature tourism; Tourism; Peneda-Gerês national park; PGNP.

Turismo en áreas protegidas: el ejemplo del Parque Nacional de Peneda-Gerês (Portugal)

Resumo: O turismo em áreas protegidas pode ter uma variedade de impactos positivos, nas próprias áreas protegidas, para as pessoas, comunidades e economias que as rodeiam, e também para os turistas que as visitam. Em Portugal, a natureza é um dos ativos estratégicos diferenciadores do turismo nacional. Das áreas protegidas portuguesas há uma que se destaca: o Parque Nacional da Peneda-Gerês (PNPG). O objetivo deste artigo visa perceber a evolução da oferta e da procura em termos turísticos do PNPG. Foi possível observar que o território desde cedo procurou consolidar-se como marca quer nacional quer internacionalmente, estando inserido em redes de elevado prestígio, tendo também procurado conhecer, estudar e classificar o património existente no território, considerado como atratividades turísticas. O PNPG continua a ser uma referência em termos de procura turística, apesar de ter registado um decréscimo no período da pandemia.

Palavras-chave: Áreas protegidas; Turismo de natureza; Turismo; Parque nacional da Peneda-Gerês; PNPG.

1. Introduction

As a result of a saturation of conventional tourism and the change in consumer attitudes and behaviours, the "natural spaces have come to be used to satisfy the new needs created by the consumer society as spaces of increasing demand for tourism-recreational purposes" (Laranjo, 2011, p.10). Protected areas are therefore well placed to take advantage of this shift in preferences (Gamito & Silva, 2012) since they possess the values that those consumers seek. Protected area tourists are attracted precisely because these are natural areas and, consequently, extremely sensitive (Martins, 2018). Protected area managers should try to "identify negative impacts on the environment in an attempt to avoid, mitigate or minimise them" (Leung et al., 2015, p.97).

As a tourist destination, protected areas seek to impart rewarding experiences to visitors. These experiences and impacts also affect local communities at various levels (economic, social and cultural) as well as environmental risks. In Portugal, tourism in protected areas has become a national focus, especially since the 21st century. With the Tourism Strategy 2027, nature is one of the ten differentiating

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strategic assets of national tourism, being one of the anchor products of the Minho region, alongside cultural and landscape touring, religious tourism, nautical tourism, gastronomy and wines (Martins et al., 2021a; Turismo de Portugal, 2017).

Within the protected areas, the Peneda-Gerês National Park (PGNP) stands out, both in terms of supply and demand, and is considered a reference mainly associated with nature tourism. By association with an enormous botanical diversity, there is in the PGNP a set of natural habitats that support a rich and varied faunal community, with several endemic species, rare or with limited distribution in Portugal, deserving of highlight at national and international level. It also has a vast historical and cultural heritage, which is a potential attraction and development of tourism (ethnography, gastronomy, handicrafts, historic villages, megalithic, Celtic, Roman, medieval, modern remains, medieval castles and pillories, Soajo and Lindoso granaries, among others).

Regarding tourism demand, this territory, in recent years has recorded a high growth in demand, as a result of the projection and its identity in national and international terms. Therefore, the aim of this article aims to understand the evolution of supply and demand in tourism terms of the only national park in Portugal, the PGNP.

2. Tourism in protected areas

The idea of protecting certain territories and/or spaces emerged in the 19th century. However, during the 20th century, this phenomenon spread all over the world, with several countries drafting legislation, classifying these spaces as protected areas (Eagles et al., 2002).

In the process of classification, planning and management of a protected area, the first concern is normally that of protection, seeking to interdict or condition human activity. Once protection is ensured, the second step is conservation, through the implementation of actions aimed at safeguarding, managing and enhancing and recovering natural resources. Only lastly is it recommended "visitation and cultural, educational and recreational activities, as well as activities that constitute alternative paths of sustainable local development, benefiting the generation of benefits for local communities, from products or the provision of services, through the participation of local entities" (Gamito & Silva, 2012, p.6). Therefore, regarding the protected areas, it is necessary to pay attention to all the stages of this process until arriving at the idea of turning the territory into a tourist destination.

Currently, these classified areas increasingly appear, in the national and international context, as tourist destinations. In fact, the importance of the unique natural, landscape and cultural values inherent to the territory of classified areas and the growing demand of these places for recreation and leisure activities in direct contact with nature and local cultures make these spaces constitute themselves as new tourist destinations (ICNF, 2020a). The growth of interest in sustainable tourism and ecotourism reflects a growing wave of social concern about the quality of the natural environment and the effects of tourism. Consequently, there is a growing conviction that there is a need for tourism that, unlike so-called conventional tourism, does not degrade the environment. According to Paiva & Proença (2011, p.19), "consumers have started to be aware of their ecological responsibility through the protection and preservation of the environment, having more and more importance in their lives and purchasing decisions", adopting a "green consumer" lifestyle. For Eagles et al. (2002, p.14), changing recreation and tourism patterns and behaviours, the demand for outdoor recreation activities is "strongly correlated with the increasing level of education in society". Today's citizen cares more about pro-environmental behaviours. An example of this is countries such as Canada which has launched strategic plans to raise awareness of the preservation of both protected areas and the diversity of wildlife.

In fact, protected areas can contribute to local development and regional attraction, in a perspective of sustainable development, provided there is a collaboration of the communities of these areas (municipalities, tour operators, transport and other local economic agents) "both in the actions of nature conservation and in the defence of a heritage that belongs to all (forest defence monitoring of hunting and fishing, improvement of livestock and agricultural productivity, valuing the traditional forms of these activities, promotion of handicrafts and local products and rehabilitation of the historical, architectural and cultural heritage), but, above all, in boosting tourism and nature activities and sports, through protocols and partnerships that generate added value" (Gamito & Silva, 2012, p. 2).

Regarding the positive impacts/benefits, those that the authors highlight most include economic, social, community and environmental benefits (table 1):

Table 1: Potential benefits of tourism in protected areas

Type of benefits	Examples
Economic	− Generation of employment for the local population, directly and indirectly; − Increased economic income for local stakeholders; − Stimulates the emergence of tourism businesses; − Stimulates the establishment of domestic craft industries;
Social and community	− Improves living standards of local people; − Encourages local people to value their culture and local environments; − Promotes aesthetic, spiritual, health and other wellbeing-related values; − Encourages residents to learn the languages and cultures of foreign tourists, increasing the level of education of local people; − Improves physical health through recreational as well as spiritual exercise; − Encourages the development and conservation of culture by stimulating local crafts and traditional cultural manifestations;
Environmental	− Promotes education for the conservation of fauna and flora biodiversity; − Creates economic value and protects natural resources that otherwise have no perceived value to residents, or that represent a cost rather than a benefit; − Helps communicate and interpret the values of natural and built heritage and cultural heritage to visitors and residents of visited areas, promoting attachment to place, in particular, and greater appreciation of protected areas, in general; − Supports research and development of good environmental practices and management systems to influence the operation of travel tourism businesses as well as visitor behaviour in destinations; − Promotes greater pollution control.

Source: Self elaboration based on Eagles et al. (2002); Leung et al. (2015)

To maximise the benefits of tourism and minimise the negative impacts, each protected area needs a plan that describes how tourism and its associated development should be managed. In reality, tourism is often seen as an opportunity for endogenous development of a region (Martins, 2022). However, it entails pressures on the region that if not properly controlled and delimited could cause the early decline of a potential tourist destination (Butler, 2022). Since tourism in protected areas can cause negative effects that jeopardise the preservation and conservation of the natural environment and the local communities themselves, the risks must be known in order to be minimised. In this sense, planning has the function of controlling the effects of these negative impacts and aggressors to the natural environment.

2.1. Protected areas in Portugal

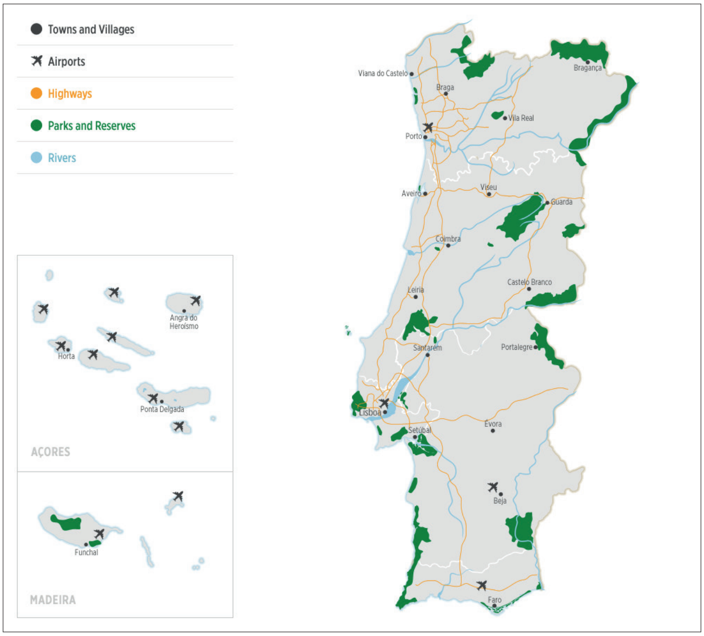
In Portugal, there is the National System of Classified Areas, comprising the National Network of Protected Areas, the areas forming part of the Natura 2000 Network and the other areas classified under international commitments entered by the Portuguese State. This national system is an asset for the country, due to the opportunity to enhance the value of the various products and services associated with it, ensuring scale, and promoting the valuation of destinations and the implementation of network management mechanisms.

According to the Institute for Nature Conservation and Forests (ICNF, 2020a), protected areas are classified as terrestrial and inland aquatic areas and marine areas in which biodiversity or other natural occurrences have, due to their rarity, scientific, ecological, social or scenic value, a special relevance that requires specific conservation and management measures, in order to promote the rational management of natural resources and the enhancement of natural and cultural heritage, regulating artificial interventions that may degrade them. The classification of a territory as a protected area aims to grant it a legal protection status suitable for maintaining biodiversity and ecosystem services and geological heritage, as well as for enhancing the landscape. The classification of a protected area may be national or regional/local in scope, or even private in scope.

In Portugal, there are various types of protected areas *1)* National Park - area containing mostly representative samples of characteristic natural regions, natural and humanised landscapes, biodiversity elements and geosites, with scientific, ecological or educational value; *2)* Natural Park - area containing predominantly natural or semi-natural ecosystems, where the long-term preservation of biodiversity may depend on human activity, ensuring a sustainable flow of natural products and services; *3)* Nature Reserve - area containing ecological, geological and physiographic characteristics, or other attributes with scientific, ecological or educational value, which is not permanently or significantly inhabited; *4)* Protected Landscape - area containing landscapes resulting from the harmonious interaction of human beings and nature, and showing great aesthetic, ecological or cultural value; and *5)* Natural Monument - a natural occurrence containing one or more aspects that, due to their uniqueness, rarity or representativeness in ecological, aesthetic, scientific and cultural terms, require their conservation and the maintenance of their integrity.

In Portugal, there are currently forty-six protected areas, of which thirty-two are national, thirteen regional or local and one private. At national level, the country has only one national park, thirteen natural parks, nine nature reserves, two protected landscapes and seven natural monuments. The total area of these nationally protected areas represents 7.6% of Portugal's territory (figure 1).

Figure 1: Map of the National Protected Areas Network in Portugal



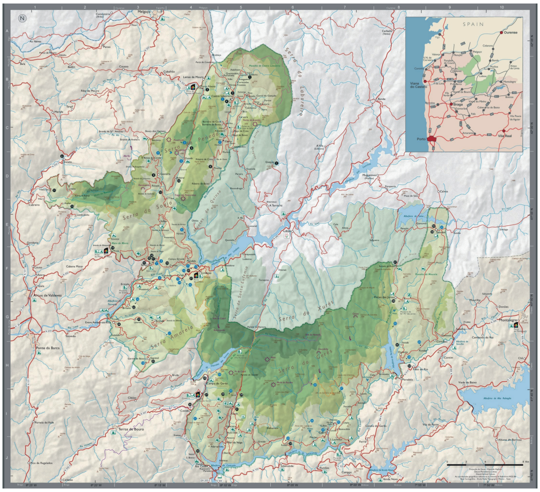
Source: Turismo de Portugal (2013)

Currently, the entity responsible for nature conservation in Portugal is the Institute for Nature Conservation and Forests. This body was created in 2012 by Decree-Law N.º 135/2012, because of the merger of several existing bodies at the time (National Forest Authority, Institute for Nature Conservation and Biodiversity, and the Permanent Forest Fund). The mission of the Institute of Nature Conservation and Forests is to "propose, monitor and ensure the implementation of nature conservation and forest policies, aiming at the conservation, sustainable use, enhancement, enjoyment and public recognition of natural heritage, promoting the sustainable development of forest areas and associated resources, foster the competitiveness of forestry sectors, ensure structural prevention within the framework of planning and concerted action in the field of forest protection and hunting and aquaculture resources of inland waters and others directly associated with forests and forestry activities" (Decree-Law N.º 135/2012, p. 3327). It is a frame with jurisdiction over the entire national territory of the mainland that carries out its activity in areas of special relevance in view of the specificity and degree of complexity, having responsibilities in classified areas, namely, arising from community obligations, as is the case of the Natura 2000 Network and the National Network of Protected Areas, as well as in forest areas, a structuring element in the occupation of the territory, which occupies about 60% of the national territory, and one of the primary components in the national economy. The Institute for Nature Conservation and Forests has in its direct management about 520 thousand hectares of national forests, forest perimeters and other properties (ICNF, 2020b). Of all the protected areas, the one that stands out the most is the PGNP, because it is the only one in Portugal with the typology of national park.

2.2. Peneda-Gerês National Park

The PGNP, with an area of 703 square kilometres, is situated in the extreme northeast of Minho, extending to Trás-os-Montes, from the lands of Serra da Peneda, Soajo, Amarela until Serra do Gerês, being cut by the rivers Lima and Cávado, assuming a horseshoe shape (figure 2).

Figure 2: Map of the PGNP



Source: ICNF (2019)

Its vast territory is distributed over three districts (Braga, Viana do Castelo and Vila Real) and two regions (Minho and Trás-os-Montes); it covers 18 parishes, distributed across the municipalities of Arcos de Valdevez, Melgaço, Montalegre, Ponte da Barca and Terras de Bouro. According to the criteria of the Nomenclatures of Territorial Units, it is located in the NTU II of the North of Portugal, covering part of the NTU's III of Alto Minho (municipalities of Ponte da Barca, Arcos de Valdevez and Melgaço), Cávado (municipality of Terras de Bouro) and Alto Tâmega (municipality of Montalegre). The PGNP area has a highly rugged mountainous relief, with steep slopes and numerous rocky outcrops.

By association with a floristic richness, there are in the PGNP a set of natural habitats that support a rich and varied faunal community, with several endemic species, rare or with limited distribution in Portugal, deserving of highlight at national and international level.

In addition to infrastructures, the PGNP also has a varied set of cultural heritage, very associated with the development of tourism activity, inserted in a wide range of activities that aim to attract various types of tourists (Martins et al., 2021b).

Before the elevation of this region to national park status, already since the 1940s the botanical scientific community, namely foresters and landscape architects, debated on the type of classification for the Peneda and Gerês Mountains, considering the creation of a natural park or a national park given its richness in natural and cultural values and humanised rural landscapes of outstanding importance. Initially the idea was to make this area a natural park and not a national park since the areas classified as national parks were neither inhabited nor intervened by Man, i.e. the space could not be humanised. However, it was understood that the natural and cultural heritage of the Peneda and Gerês Mountains, although heavily humanised, was of remarkable value and that this value, combined with the objectives directed towards the conservation, study and balanced use of the resources in question, justified the classification of a national park.

According to the current management plan of the PGNP, considering the ecological importance and sensitivity of the existing natural values, the territory is divided into two different zones: the "natural environment area" and the "rural environment area" having different levels of protection, depending on various criteria such as the existing ecosystems, the type and intensity of human uses and the existing flora and fauna.

In terms of population, the territory in general has suffered a decrease. Making a comparative analysis of the latest censuses, between 2011 and 2021, the population of the PGNP recorded a negative variation of 17.8% (from 9,071 people in 2011 to 7,456 in 2021) (table 1), corroborating the idea of Martins (2018) when referring that there has been a decrease every 10 years to around 18%.

In terms of county, the one that lost most population (considering only the parishes that cover the PGNP) was Melgaço (-23.4%), followed by the county of Arcos de Valdevez (-21.2%). On the other hand, the municipality with the lowest population loss was Montalegre (-11.8%) (table 1).

In terms of parishes, those with the largest decrease were Soajo (-31.9%) in the municipality of Arcos de Valdevez; Tourém (27.2%) in the municipality of Montalegre; Cabana Maior (25.9%) and Cabreiro (24.3%) in the municipality of Arcos de Valdevez; Castro Laboreiro and Lamas de Mouro parishes (23.4%) in the municipality of Melgaço; and Britelo (21.9%) in the municipality of Ponte da Barca (table 1).

Table 1: Evolution of the (resident) population in the parishes of the PGNP

Municipality	Parish	Census 2011	Census 2021	Variation 2011--2021
Arcos de Valdevez	Cabana Maior	239	177	-25,9
	Cabreiro	428	324	-24,3
	Gavieira	298	258	-13,4
	Gondoriz	958	861	-10,1
	Soajo	986	671	-31,9
	Total	**2.909**	**2.291**	**-21,2**
Melgaço	União das freguesias de Castro Laboreiro e Lamas de Mouro	657	503	-23,4
	Total	**657**	**503**	**-23,4**
Ponte da Barca	Britelo	485	379	-21,9
	Lindoso	427	374	-12,4
	União das freguesias de Entre Ambos-os-Rios, Ermida e Germil	612	498	-18,6
	Total	**1.524**	**1.251**	**-17,9**
Terras de Bouro	Campo do Gerês	162	149	-8,0
	Covide	343	273	-20,4
	Rio Caldo	892	770	-13,7
	Vilar da Veiga	1.286	1.074	-16,5
	Total	**2.683**	**2.266**	**-15,5**
Montalegre	Cabril	553	512	-7,4
	Outeiro	156	143	-8,3
	Pitões das Junias	161	151	-6,2
	Tourém	151	110	-27,2
	União das freguesias de Sezelhe e Covelães	277	229	-17,3
	Total	**1.298**	**1.145**	**-11,8**
	Global Total	**9.071**	**7.456**	**-17,8**

Source: Self elaboration based on INE (2021)

On the other hand, there has been an increase of the built environment in some of the parishes covered by the PGNP. It is notable a high demographic reduction in the main parishes of the PGNP, witnessing, however, an increase in the built environment, which may be related to the growth of tourism and services in the region or to the phenomenon of "second homes".

2.2.1. The PGNP as a tourist destination

Currently, the PGNP compared to other protected areas at international level has a set of factors that enhance this region as a tourist destination of excellence. In fact, it has a permanent technical staff, a management plan in place, good access conditions (e.g. roads and signposting) and accommodation for tourists, among others (ICNB, 2008). In fact, in most developing countries, national parks lack the infrastructure that the PGNP already has (Martins, 2018).

In this aspect, it was sought from early on, especially from the 1980s, to know, study and classify the PGNP heritage, material and immaterial, through the inventorying of the archaeological, architectural and ethnographic value existing heritage of the territory, in addition to the natural heritage, considered tourist attractions (table 2).

Table 2: Tourist attractions of the PGNP

Touristic Attractions	Examples
Gastronomy and traditional products	– Trout; – Lamprey with Bordeaux rice, fried with eggs or roasted; – Kid roasted in a wood oven; – Barrosã and Cachena meat (Soajo); – Honey; – Medicinal plants (teas); – Goat cheese; – Regional smokehouse; – Terras de Bouro's "Sarrabulho"; – Alvarinho wine.
Handicrafts	– Linen; – Clay.
Natural Landscape	– Albergaria Wood; Cabril Wood; Ramiscal Wood; – Penedo do Encanto; – Bouça do Colado (with rock engravings) - Parada-Lindoso; – Meda da Rocalva; – Meadinha (Gavieira); – Mourela plateau; – Waterfalls (Pincães, Arado, Tahiti, Leonte, Fafião, among others); – Viewpoints: Pedra Bela, Junceda, Boneca, Fraga Negra, Freira, Montes Velho, among others.
Historical Heritage	– Necropolis of Castro Laboreiro (Melgaço), Portela do Mezio (Arcos de Valdevez), Serra Amarela (Ponte da Barca) and Mourela (Montalegre); – Rock sanctuary of Gião (Soajo); – Geira (Roman military road with milestones that linked Bracara Augusta (Braga) to Asturica Augusta (Astorga)); – Various megalithic, Celtic and Roman remains (e.g. the Pedra dos Namorados and the Menir da Ermida statue, Ponte da Barca); – Castles of Castro Laboreiro and Lindoso; – Chalcedonian ruins; – Castro de Outeiro; – Soajo and Lindoso granaries; – Medieval pillories (e.g. from Soajo and Castro Laboreiro).

Touristic Attractions	Examples
Historical Villages	– Pomba (Gavieira) - abandoned medieval settlement; – S. Vicente do Gerês (Mata do Beredo) - abandoned medieval village; – Castro Laboreiro; – Soajo; – Peneda; – Lindoso; – Tourém; – Pitões das Júnias.
Religious Heritage	– Church and ruins of the Monastery of Santa Maria in Pitões das Júnias (Montalegre); – Sanctuary of Sr.ª da Peneda; – Sanctuary of S. Bento da Porta Aberta.
Thermal Baths	– Caldas do Gerês thermal spa.
Ethnography	– Folkloric ranches; – Popular traditions and legends; – Typical garments (example: traditional female figure from Castro Laboreiro's mountain village - the Castreja).

Sources: Self elaboration based on Nogueira, (2014); ICNF (2013)

In addition to its tourist attractions, over the years the PGNP has obtained some conservation statuses both nationally and internationally, which gives it greater visibility and projection. This protected area forms a group with the Spanish Parque Natural de la Baja Limia - Serra do Xurés, constituting with the latter, since 1997, the Transfrontier Park Gerês-Xurés. In 2009, the cross-border park was considered by UNESCO as a World Biosphere Reserve (Transfrontier Biosphere Reserve "Gerês - Xurés").

At national level, as far as the PGNP is concerned, it also has the status of Site of Community Importance (Council of Ministers Resolution nº 142/97, of 28 August). Also at national level, the PGNP, in 2010, the International Year of Biodiversity, was considered one of the 7 Natural Wonders of Portugal, in the category of Protected Areas.

At the international level, the PGNP has sought to be part of highly prestigious and recognised networks. It is part of the network of biogenetic reserves of the Council of Europe with the "Matas de Palheiros - Albergaria" (an area integrated in the Natura 2000 network); it is part of the federation of National and Natural Parks of Europe, as well as the PAN Parks network. The PGNP's membership of the PAN Parks network allows this protected area to be part of a network of excellence that only includes the best parks in Europe, being the PGNP the only one in the Iberian Peninsula to integrate this network. With the PAN Parks certification, a substantial increase in the influx of foreign tourists was assumed, namely from Northern Europe, since the PGNP was included in the itinerary of major tour operators specialising in nature tourism (Turismo de Portugal, 2016). Effectively, there has been a growth in the number of visitors to these classified areas for recreation and leisure activities in direct contact with nature and local cultures. This makes these classified areas constitute as new tourist destinations (ICNF, 2020b).

3. Methodology

To understand the evolution of tourism demand and supply of the PGPN over the last few years, we carried out a study based on a content analysis in which we sought to present the data in a statistical way. Given this main objective of the investigation, we were able to turn our attention to the specialized literature in the area, thus initiating the stage of the research phases suggested by Pizam (1987) and Tuckman (2000).

This review included the reading of several articles published in major international journals of scientific nature, books of authors of national and international reference, institutional websites and publications of official entities.

Regarding the literature review, we sought, critically and carefully, to analyze the potential benefits of tourism in protected areas. We also seek to identify the main protected areas in Portugal, focusing our study on the only national park in Portugal, the PGNP.

4. The region's tourism supply and demand

4.1. The tourism supply of the PGNP

According to Cunha (2013, p.175) one could "consider as tourism supply the set of goods and services that contribute to meet the needs of tourists", but "the multiplicity of motivations that is at the origin of travel and the peculiar characteristics of the needs of travellers do not allow to clearly delimit the contours of tourism supply", being multiple and varied its components. One of the main components is natural resources. It is therefore necessary that tourism supply implies that the tourist destination has a set of resources, products, services and facilities available to tourists.

According to the management plan of the PGNP (ICNB, 2008), the tourism potential of the PGNP is increasingly high due to the large geographical extension of the Park, the biogeomorphological richness and the landscape quality. Due to the intrinsic characteristics of this territory, the PGNP provides different types of tourism. The one that stands out most is nature tourism, as the PGNP provides outdoor/nature activities involving the observation, appreciation and enjoyment of nature, which includes hiking/walking tours, photographic expeditions, interpretative trails and fauna and flora observation activities (geological routes, birdwatching). The region provides active tourism, combining nature tourism with adventure tourism, thus reaching a wider target audience. Some examples of active tourism activities are rope manoeuvres (climbing, slide, abseiling, tree-climbing and obstacle courses), paintball, archery, bicycle rides and activities, rides and other equestrian activities, off-road rides (motorbike, moto4 and 4x4 vehicles, kartcross and similar), trekking, water trekking, cannyoning, coasteering and similar, among others. Normally, most of these activities are organised by tourist entertainment companies recognised by the Institute for Nature Conservation and Forests to operate in the protected areas or even the tourist resorts that try to make them more dynamic for visitors (Geresmont; Lamas de Mouro Camping Park; Cerdeira Camping Park). Furthermore, the region provides nautical tourism, as the Rio Caldo marina enables the practice of nautical, sport, leisure and tourist activities, ranging from sightseeing, windsurfing, sailing, rowing, motorboating, jet skiing and sport fishing. Another type of tourist offer that the region has is health and well-being tourism (thermal tourism), this being the oldest tourist activity in the PGNP. This is due to the therapeutic potential of the thermal waters of Caldas do Gerês, extending also to the SPA ('Sano Per Acqua' - Health through Water). Besides, the religious aspect has a strong pendency in the region. It is common to make an annual pilgrimage to the São Bento da Porta Aberta Sanctuary, in the parish of Rio Caldo (municipality of Terras de Bouro), where the number of pilgrims is only exceeded by the Our Lady of Fátima Sanctuary - Leiria, fostering religious tourism in the region. Another pilgrimage site within the boundaries of the PGNP is the Sanctuary of Our Lady of Peneda: the sanctuary dates to the 12th century and its twenty chapels date back to the 18th century. Finally, the region provides tourism related to culture and gastronomy. Tourists in the PGNP can enjoy the gastronomy and the existing architectural and archaeological heritage. Besides that, there are currently a set of museums that portray the historical culture of the PGNP population, namely the Ethnographic Museum of Vilarinho da Furna, the Castro Laboreiro Museum and the Ermida Museum.

Alongside these tourist attractions, the PGNP provides guided tour services and environmental education activities, either through the Vidoeiro Environmental Education Centre (operating since 2003) or through the park's "doors" project, designed to provide information and supervision to visitors and to assume an active role in the environmental education and awareness of the public. The Gates of the PGNP, designed as anchor-structures in the management and promotion of visitation in the surrounding area, are areas of visitation and communication, each one having a specific theme: a) Lamas de Mouro gate, whose theme is spatial planning; *b)* Mezio gate, whose theme is nature conservation and biodiversity; *c)* Lindoso gate, whose theme is water and geology; *d)* Campo do Gerês gate, whose theme is the history of the territory; *e)* Paradela gate (Montalegre), whose theme is landscape. The Gates work as visitor support, as privileged centres in the information and framing of visitors, in the offer of activities and specific visit programmes and, also, in the education and environmental awareness of the public in general. All five Gates (one in each municipality which is part of the PGNP) and the Vidoeiro Environmental Education Centre constitute a programmed and equipped area for the reception, recreation and leisure of the PGNP visitors, framed by an information and environmental awareness system which prepares them to explore the surrounding territory. The "gates" are strategically located on the periphery of the PGNP, at its main entrances, and "are important structures for the planning and management of visitor flow, retention function and function of guiding or leading the visit to the interior of the park" (ICNB, 2008, p.123).

Of all the types of tourism, the one that is developing with greater strength, especially in protected areas, as is the case of the PGNP, is nature tourism. According to Silva, (2013) and Cordeiro & Alves (2022), there have been important changes in the dynamics of leisure and tourism, associated with a greater environmental awareness and the appreciation of physical activity and these changes, combined with the marketing of "nature" as a consumer good and the improvement in accessibility have led to the expansion of nature tourism and consequently to an increase in demand for natural and adventure territories.

Nature tourism has been growing at a rate significantly above the average for the sector and this trend is expected to continue in the coming years (Hill & Gale, 2009). However, there are authors who consider that most tourists in protected areas are not interested only in outdoor activities/nature, being recommended that destinations that have the natural heritage as their core, seek to incorporate cultural and leisure elements in the offer (Mehmetoglu, 2007). Nevertheless, this action should be thought consciously, since the incorporation/offering of other elements can bring risks to the protected area.

As already mentioned, the PGNP, due to its great geographical extension, biogeomorphological richness and landscape quality, historical and cultural heritage, has a vast set of potentialities and resources, responding to a diversified tourist demand. Moreover, the PGNP is in a privileged position compared to other protected areas, since besides holding some conservation statuses at national level, it also has other conservation statuses at international level, becoming increasingly a tourist attraction pole not only for national tourists, but also for international tourists. Added to these assets, the PGNP has a varied set of infrastructures in terms of accommodation, an inseparable component for the practice of tourism activity. Within the operationalization of the PGNP as a tourist destination, the region has several "main actors", namely, "the interpretation centres, the museum centres, the tourism offices, the transport companies, the travel agencies, the PGNP management, the regional tourism agencies, the Portuguese tourism, the local councils and municipalities, the local community groups, the tourism enterprises, the tourism animation companies (...)" (Nogueira, 2014, p.113).

The PGNP, being long considered a tourist destination, already has some tradition in offering tourist accommodations, either in the rural space tourism modality or in the nature houses modality, seeking to respond to the needs of an increasing and demanding demand, to which is added the need for conservation of the built historical heritage. The PGNP region has a reasonable accommodation capacity, having grown both in number of establishments (table 3) and in number of beds (table 4), with a strong concentration of supply in the municipality of Terras de Bouro, either in the local accommodation modality or in the tourism enterprises modality.

In terms of number of establishments/tourist accommodation, between 2017 and 2019 we observe a trend of gradual increase in the number of establishments in the municipalities covered by the PGNP, being the municipalities of Terras de Bouro and Arcos de Valdevez those that recorded the highest number of establishments between the years 2017 and 2019: the municipality of Terras de Bouro had 47 establishments in 2017 and recorded an increase of 13 more establishments in 2019, bringing the number to 60 establishments; the municipality of Arcos de Valdevez had 33 establishments in 2017 and recorded an increase of 8 more establishments in two years, making 41 establishments in 2019.

The municipality with the most tourist establishments remains mainly the municipality of Terras de Bouro (47 establishments in 2017, 60 establishments in 2019 and 56 establishments in 2020) (table 3).

Table 3: Number of tourist establishments / accommodation in the sub--regions and municipalities covered by the PGNP in 2017 and 2020

	2017	2018	2019	2020	Variation (%) 2019-2020
Portugal	5.840	6.868	6.833	5.183	-24
Norte	1.313	1.438	1.785	1.420	-20
Alto Minho	233	242	282	244	-13
Arcos de Valdevez	33	36	41	38	-7
Melgaço	17	15	20	17	-15
Ponte da Barca	18	20	23	25	9
Cávado	155	163	206	171	-17
Terras de Bouro	47	50	60	56	-7
Alto Tâmega	63	73	79	64	-19
Montalegre	17	19	22	16	-27

Source: Self elaboration based on INE (2021)

The year 2020, the year of the start of the pandemic due to Covid-19, represented a general decrease in the number of establishments both in national terms (6,833 establishments in 2019 to 5,183 in 2020, with a variation of -24%) and in regional terms (the North recorded a drop of about 20% in the number of establishments, from 1,785 in 2019 to 1,420 in 2020). However, regarding the municipalities covered by the PGNP, the recorded drop was not so great, with the exception of the municipality of Montalegre with a variation of -27%). On the other hand, the municipality of Ponte da Barca had a positive variation of 9%. The councils of Terras de Bouro and Arcos de Valdevez had a slight variation (-7% each council) (table 3).

In terms of accommodation capacity (accommodation capacity is understood as the "maximum number of individuals that establishments can accommodate at a given time or period, this being determined through the number of existing beds and considering as two the double beds" (INE, 2016, p.492)), between 2017 and 2019 there was an increase in national terms, as well as has terms of sub-regions. In overall terms, the North in 2017 presents 15.6% of Portugal's capacity (table 4).

In terms of counties covered by the PGNP, the one with the highest availability of beds is Terras de Bouro: in 2017 it presented 1644 beds, having in 2018 increased to 1716 and in 2019 to 1876. The second municipality with more availability is the municipality of Arcos de Valdevez: in 2017 it presented 688 beds, having increased to 700 beds in 2018 and 744 beds in 2019; the third municipality with more capacity is the municipality of Melgaço: in 2017 it presented 452 beds, having in 2018 suffered a decrease to 419 beds and increased in 2019 to 432 beds. Despite having registered an increase in capacity, the municipality that has the least beds is Ponte da Barca: in 2017 it presented 264 beds, having in 2018 increased 268 beds and in 2019 to 333 beds (table 3).

Table 4: Tourist accommodation capacity of the sub-regions and municipalities covered by the PGNP between 2017 and 2020

	2017	2018	2019	2020	Variation (%) 2019-2020
Portugal	402.832	423.152	443.157	344.757	-22,2
Norte	62.855	66.501	73.987	62.229	-15,9
Alto Minho	6.667	6.985	7.517	6.885	-8,4
Arcos de Valdevez	688	700	744	705	-5,2
Melgaço	452	419	432	378	-12,5
Ponte da Barca	264	268	333	337	1,2
Cávado	7.368	7.829	8.511	7.313	-14,1
Terras de Bouro	1644	1716	1876	1854	-1,2
Alto Tâmega	2.308	2.420	2.654	2.401	-9,5
Montalegre	332	334	383	285	-25,6

Source: Self elaboration based on INE (2021)

In terms of variation between 2019 and 2020 the accommodation capacity was quite affected in national terms, showing an overall decrease of 22.2% (from 443,157 beds in 2019 to 344,757 beds in 2020). The North region registered a decrease of 15.9% (73,987 in 2019 to 62,229 in 2020). In terms of sub-regions, only the Cávado region recorded similar values to the North region (-14.1%). However, with regard to the municipalities, the values show a very small decrease in terms of capacity (with the exception of Montalegre that presented a variation of -25.6%): Arcos de Valdevez registered a negative variation of -5.2% and Terras de Bouro a variation of -1.2%. The municipality of Ponte da Barca registered a positive variation of 1.2% (table 4).

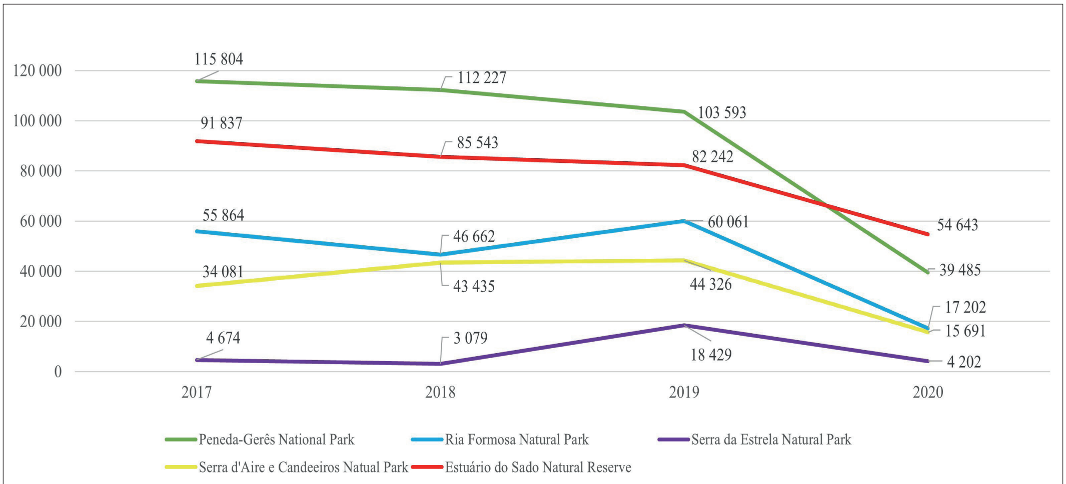
4.2. Tourism demand in the PGNP

The PGNP is recognised for its extraordinary tourist resources and potential which have been the basis for the development of tourism activity and with growing weight in the region's economy. Tourism-related activities, such as hotels, restaurants, tourist entertainment and circuits of the most varied types, have also contributed to the emergence of more activities. Examples of this are the dynamism of civil construction and the expression of trade that contribute to the local economy and job creation (ICNB, 2010).

The analysis of tourism demand for a particular tourist destination is usually recorded by the movement of visitors to existing tourist offices. These data serve only as an indicator of visitor movement. However, these data work as an aid in decision making for the entities responsible for planning and development of a given territory and may not correspond to the total number of tourists who visited the territory.

Based on data from the Institute for Nature Conservation and Forests, it is possible to observe the evolution of the number of visitors to the main protected areas (figure 3). The main protected areas visited are the PGNP (in the northern region of Portugal), the Estuário do Sado Nature Reserve (in the central region of Portugal), the Ria Formosa Nature Park (in the Algarve region), the Serra d'Aire e Candeeiros Natural Park (central region of Portugal) and the Serra da Estrela Nature Park (central region of Portugal) (figure 3).

Figure 3: Visitors in the main national protected areas (2017-2020)



Source: Self elaboration based on ICNF (2021)

In the case of PGNP it is possible to observe that between 2017 and 2019, it registered a decrease in visitors: in 2017 it had 115,804 visitors, in 2018 it had 112,227 and in 2019 it registered 103,593 visitors. However, it remains the most visited protected area in the country in 2019. In 2020, the PGNP was one of the protected areas that suffered most from the effects of the pandemic, with a sharp decrease in visitors compared to 2019 (from 103,593 visitors in 2019 to 39,485 visitors in 2020). The PGNP became the second most visited protected area in 2020, having been overtaken by the Sado Estuary Nature Reserve (54,643 visitors in 2020) (figure 3).

Making an analysis of the number of overnight guests staying in tourist accommodation establishments, there was a positive evolution between the years 2017 to 2019, both nationally and in terms of regions and at the level of the municipalities that cover the PGNP (table 5).

Between 2017 and 2019 there was an increase in the number of guests at national level of 13.3% (23,953,765 guests in 2017 to 27,142,416 in 2019), with the Northern region registering an increase of 21.6% (from 4,892,605 to 5,873,026). All municipalities covered by the PGNP, between 2017 and 2019, recorded an increase, being the municipality of Ponte da Barca the one that stood out the most (from 7,296 guests in 2017 to 13,649 guests in 2019, with a positive variation of 87.1%). In 2017, the total number of guests in the municipalities that cover the PGNP was 141,758 guests; in 2018 there was an increase to 153,418; and in 2019 to 167,927, representing an increase of 18.5% between 2017 and 2019 (table 5).

Table 5: Visitors in tourist accommodation establishments in the sub--regions and municipalities covered by the PGNP between 2017 and 2020

	2017	2018	2019	2020	Variation (%) 2019-2020
Portugal	23.953.765	25.249.904	27.142.416	10.430.600	-61,6
Norte	4.892.605	5.285.297	5.873.026	2.469.917	-57,9
Alto Minho	351.621	393.988	433.015	241.663	-44,2
Arcos de Valdevez	33.815	37.978	42.764	26.497	-38,0
Melgaço	22.227	25.303	28.077	14.913	-46,9
Ponte da Barca	7.296	7.486	13.649	12.434	-8,9
Cávado	478.267	522.150	573.156	277.703	-51,5
Terras de Bouro	70.923	74.087	74.446	53.634	-28,0
Alto Tâmega	130.280	138.410	161.597	100.391	-37,9
Montalegre	7.497	8.564	8.991	4.795	-46,7
Total visitors in the municipalities of the PGNP	**141.758**	**153.418**	**167.927**	**112.273**	**-33,1**

Source: Self elaboration based on INE (2021)

Making an analysis in municipal terms, the municipality covered by the PGNP that received more guests was Terras de Bouro, because it is the one that has more establishments and accommodation capacity. In 2017 it hosted 70,923 guests, more than half than the second municipality (Arcos de Valdevez with 33,815) representing about half of all guests of the remaining municipalities of the PGNP (141,758 in 2017).

In 2019, the municipality of Terras de Bouro continued to be the municipality that received the most guests (74,446 guests). The other counties recorded a gradual growth in terms of guests, namely Ponte da Barca (from 7,296 in 2017 to 13,649 in 2019), Arcos de Valdevez (from 33,815 in 2017 to 42,764 in 2019) and Melgaço (from 22,227 in 2017 to 28,077 in 2019) (table 5).

With the pandemic, in 2020, the demand for the PGNP registered a decrease. However, it presented better figures than in national terms: while, overall, Portugal had a negative variation of -61.6%, the northern region recorded a variation of -57.9%; the totality of the counties of the PGNP recorded a negative variation of 33.1%, (in 2019 it recorded 167,927 guests and in 2020 it recorded 112,273). Of all the municipalities in the PGNP those that recorded a marked negative variation were Melgaço (46.9%) and Montalegre (46.7%). The municipality that recorded the least variation was Ponte da Barca with a variation of 8.9% in relation to 2019 (table 5).

In terms of stay in the establishment, the average period in national terms has had a slight oscillation: in 2019 it was 2.6 nights and in 2020 it was 2.5 nights. Regarding the Northern region, the value reduces substantially to 1.8 nights (both in the pre-Covid-19 period and during the beginning of the pandemic), values almost identical to the sub-regions covered by the PGNP (1.8 nights in the sub-regions of Alto Minho and Cávado and 1.7 nights in Alto Tâmega in 2019; 1.9 nights in the sub-region of Alto Minho, 1.8 nights in the sub-region of Cávado and 1.7 nights in Alto Tâmega, in 2020) (table 6).

Table 6: Average stay of the tourist accommodation in the sub-regions and municipalities covered by the PGNP

	2019	2020
Portugal	2,6	2,5
Norte	1,8	1,8
Alto Minho	1,8	1,9
Arcos de Valdevez	1,9	2,1
Melgaço	1,6	1,8
Ponte da Barca	1,9	1,8
Cávado	1,8	1,8
Terras de Bouro	2,0	2,0
Alto Tâmega	1,7	1,7
Montalegre	1,5	2,1

Source: Self elaboration based on INE (2021)

In 2019, the municipalities of Montalegre (1,5 nights) and Melgaço (1,6 nights) were the ones that registered lower values than the average of the Northern region (1,8 nights). The other municipalities registered a value superior to the Northern region: Arcos de Valdevez and Ponte da Barca presented 1,9 nights and Terras de Bouro presented 2,0 nights.

In 2020, two municipalities registered an equal value to the Northern region (Melgaço and Ponte da Barca with 1.8 nights), and the remaining municipalities registered a higher value: Montalegre and Arcos de Valdevez with 2.1 nights and Terras de Bouro with 2 nights (table 6).

5. Conclusion

The use of protected areas in terms of tourism, as a result of the saturation of conventional tourism, changes in mentalities, attitudes, habits and behaviour among consumers is, today, a reality. Many tourists, once consumers of mass tourism, are increasingly looking for an alternative type of tourism. There are even a number of tourist destinations which, in order to distinguish themselves, already use the term “alternative” to mass tourism. Due to this change of preferences in line with the conservation and preservation of nature, protected areas can take advantage in tourism terms, appearing, both in the national and international context, as tourist destinations.

In Portugal, tourism in protected areas has become a focus mainly since the XXI century, with the Tourism Strategy 2027, with nature becoming one of the ten differentiating strategic assets of national tourism. Peneda-Gerês is the only space classified with national park status in Portugal because it is one of the country’s last strongholds where ecosystems can be found in their natural state, with little or no human influence, integrated into a humanised landscape. The PGNP stands out for also having a set of infrastructures that provide conditions to attract tourists, having several tourism products available such as nature tourism, active tourism, health and wellness tourism, religious tourism, nautical tourism and cultural tourism. The territory in question has sought to consolidate its brand in national and international terms, seeking to be inserted in networks of high prestige and recognition.

Although the territory is losing population, about 18% every 10 years (Martins, 2018), there has been a growth in the built environment, which may be related to the growth of tourism and services or to the phenomenon of second homes. In terms of tourism supply, the PGNP already has some tradition in the supply of tourist accommodation, either in the modality of local accommodation or tourist resorts. Of the five municipalities covered by the PGNP territory, Terras de Bouro is the one which registers the highest concentration in terms of tourism supply as this is where most of the supply is located. In terms of demand, the PGNP is the protected area that receives the most tourists. With the pandemic, in 2020, the demand for the PGNP registered a decrease. However, it registered more positive values if compared to the national level.

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La construcción de los productos turísticos alternativos en la comunidad de San Francisco Oxtotilpan, México. Estudio sobre los valores y significados de la población

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Resumen: En la planeación turística de un destino, es común considerar elementos técnicos y características físicas del territorio, sin embargo, poco se aprecia la influencia de los elementos sociales, que tienen un papel medular en el desarrollo de la actividad. Por lo anterior el objetivo del presente documento es distinguir los valores y significados subjetivos de los miembros de la comunidad rural de San Francisco Oxtotilpan, México, para establecer su influencia en la conformación de los productos turísticos alternativos que ofrecen. La investigación es de tipo cualitativa, con fundamento en la construción social de la realidad de Berger y Luckmann. Se utilizó la entrevista a profundidad como técnica de investigación y se aplicó el modelo de Lalive para interpretar los resultados. Se identificó un ethos denominado “Indígena Campesino”, cuyo perfil se subdivide en dos vertientes: uno “tradicional”, caracterizado por el conservadurismo poco flexible y el apego a las tradiciones, y uno “renovado”, con apertura a lo nuevo y orgulloso de su cultura; este último es el gestor de la construcción de los productos turísticos en el lugar.

Palabras Clave: Comunidad rural; Turismo; Ethos; Procesos sociales; México.

The construction of alternative tourism products in the community of San Francisco Oxtotilpan, Mexico. Study on the values and meanings of the population

Abstract: In the tourist planning of a destination, it is common to consider technical items and physical characteristics of the territory, however, the influence of social items, which have a central role in the development of the activity, is little appreciated. Therefore, the objective of this document is to distinguish the values and subjective meanings of the members of the rural community of San Francisco Oxtotilpan, Mexico, to establish their influence in the conformation of the alternative tourism products they offer. The research is qualitative, based on the social construction of reality by Berger and Luckmann. The in-depth interview was used as a research technique and the Lalive model was applied to interpret the results. An ethos called “Indigenous Peasant” was identified, whose profile is subdivided into two aspects: a “traditional” one, characterized by inflexible conservatism and attachment to traditions, and a “renewed” one, open to the new and proud of your culture; the latter is the manager of the construction of tourist products in the place.

Keywords: Rural community; Tourism; Ethos; Social processes; Mexico.

1. Introducción

El turismo alternativo surge como una opción al turismo de masas, a partir de considerar actividades que contemplen la realización plena del ser humano; diversas modalidades que van desde el turismo

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de aventura, el ecoturismo y el agroturismo, como las variantes más populares, hacen de esta forma de turismo una opción atractiva para el impulso y desarrollo de las comunidades, (Cardozo, Fernandes, Soares, & Holm, 2016; Gessa & Toledano, 2011; Giampiccoli *et al*., 2015; Narvaez, 2014; Palomino, Gasca & López, 2016; Reyes, Ortega & Machado, 2016).

Desde la adopción del discurso del desarrollo sustentable aplicado al turismo a finales del siglo XX, la actividad busca un ambiente natural y nuevos espacios para el desarrollo de un producto turístico más auténtico (Cayo-Velásquez, Apaza-Tarqui, & Yapuchura-Saico, 2019). En este sentido, los productos turísticos, según Nasimba & Cejas (2015) y Martínez (2017), comprenden un conjunto de elementos tangibles e intangibles relacionados entre sí, que según Rodríguez, Pulido-Fernández, & Rodríguez (2017) son ofrecidos en un mercado para la atención, adquisición, uso o consumo que podría satisfacer un deseo o una necesidad (García & Doumet 2017). Particularmente, en la modalidad del turismo alternativo comunitario es reconocido que se requiere del involucramiento de la comunidad y de su capacidad de creación y gestión colectivas para un adecuado funcionamiento de la oferta recreativo--turística (Albrieu, Ferrari & Navarro, 2013; Domínguez & Palmas, 2016; Mtapuri, Giampiccoli & Spershott. 2015; Giampiccoli, Jugmohan, & Mtapuri, 2015; Butcher, 2015; Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2014; Navarro, 2019; Vinasco, 2017).

Las nuevas exigencias sociales, económicas y ambientales del mercado turístico hacen necesario el diseño de productos turísticos, donde la comunidad local sea considerada como el pilar fundamental para su creación y desarrollo (Manaf, Purbasari, Damayanti, Aprilia & Astuti, 2018; López & Palomino, 2013), evaluando su viabilidad, costo social y problemáticas a las que se enfrenten (Bekele, 2019; Cañada, 2015; Méndez, Serrano & Ibarra, 2016; García, Aledo, & Ullán, 2017). Por tanto, en coincidencia con la postura de (García-Rosell, Haanpáá, Kylánen & Markuksela, 2007), se asume que el desarrollo de productos turísticos no solo debe considerarse como un proceso de gestión, sino como una construcción de múltiples actores y elementos intangibles, la cual depende de nociones, prácticas, capacidades y organización de los actores involucrados, así como de su potencial y capital social (Cardozo, Fernandes, Soares & Holm, 2016; Mendoza, Rodríguez & Enciso, 2013; Osorio-García & Domínguez, 2019).

En esta perspectiva de análisis, se considera necesario identificar los patrones de comportamiento socioculturales de las comunidades rurales vinculadas a la actividad turística alternativa, dado que la comunidad es uno de los actores más importantes en el desarrollo de la actividad turística. Por medio de este, se ve reflejada la cultura turística, la identidad y tradiciones de un lugar, sin duda alguna, es el corazón latiente que va transformando el lugar a lo largo del tiempo y junto con él, las actividades que allí se realizan.

El caso de la construcción de los productos turísticos alternativos de la comunidad de San Francisco Oxtotilpan es distintivo, ya que muestra un mayor desarrollo que el resto de las diez ofertas turísticas de las comunidades ejidales localizadas en el contexto del área natural protegida Nevado de Toluca (Osorio-García & Domínguez,, 2019). Incluso ha dado muestras de mejorar la gestión de sus atractivos recreativo-turísticos una vez superada la fase de confinamiento ocasionada por la pandemia de COVID-19. Su singularidad consiste en ser la única comunidad que aún conserva vivas la lengua y cultura ancestral Matlatzinca, y que a partir del presente siglo inició la conformación de un producto turístico biocultural de gestión comunitaria. Sin embargo, el valor de los recursos no es el único elemento que ha favorecido su desarrollo turístico, ya que la comunidad ha tenido éxito en conseguir financiamiento público, capacitación técnica y consenso en la construcción de sus productos turísticos, lo cual conduce a reconocer que existen elementos subjetivos particulares en la población que han sido propicios para dicho desarrollo. En este sentido, y con el propósito de reconocer los elementos subjetivos que son propicios – o adversos – a construir y gestionar un producto turístico de naturaleza (López-Guzmán, Sánchez-Cañizares & Pavón, 2011; Vallejo, et al. 2013), el presente artículo tiene como objetivo distinguir los valores y significados subjetivos de los miembros de la comunidad rural de San Francisco Oxtotilpan, México, con la intención de reconocer su influencia en la conformación de los productos turísticos alternativos.

2. Encuadre teórico

Como fundamentación teórica de la investigación, se tomó la Fenomenología Sociológica de Schütz (1962), cuyos supuestos se basan en la sociología del conocimiento, y la construcción social de la realidad de Berger & Luckmann (1968), quienes asumen a "…la realidad social como una construcción consensual, establecida en la interacción y la comunicación, consecuencia de la atribución de significados al mundo (Pérez, 2012: 9).

Para tal efecto, Schütz (1962), afirmaba que era preciso distinguir entre significados y motivos; los significados, hacen referencia al modo en que los actores determinan qué aspectos del mundo social son importantes para ellos, y los motivos se refieren a las razones que explican la acción de los actores. En el caso de Berger y Luckmann (1968), la realidad es construida a través de un proceso dialéctico entre la "realidad objetiva" la cual se compone de las tipificaciones recíprocas de actividades habitualizadas que conforman la institucionalización de la realidad, y "la realidad subjetiva" que se integra a partir del proceso de socialización, tanto primaria como secundaria, donde el individuo, internaliza esa realidad por medio del aprendizaje de roles y significados, además de la adquisición de sus propios intereses.

Para su concreción en la investigación que se reporta, se acudió a la propuesta interpretativa elaborada por Lalive D´Epinay (1990), quien propone un modelo operativo a partir del concepto de *ethos*, entendido como "…el conjunto de creencias, valores, normas y modelos de comportamiento del individuo, que constituye su identidad sociocultural y se hace evidente a través del relato de vida" (Vallejo et al., 2013: 432). En la misma línea de trabajo aplicada por Vallejo y coautores, se retoman como dimensiones de análisis la temporal, social y espacial de la narrativa del sujeto de estudio, a partir de asumir la idea de que la vida de los hombres se inserta en un espacio tridimensional independiente: la inserción del hombre en el tiempo, en el espacio y en lo social. La dimensión temporal ilustra la historia de vida del sujeto y su particular inserción en el contexto histórico; la dimensión social refiere las relaciones con uno mismo (yo-yo) y con los otros (yo-tú, yo-nos, yo-ellos, nos-ellos); y la dimensión espacial refiere los hábitats de vida, así como los espacios que son propios y los ajenos. Cada dimensión cobra sentido a partir de una llave de interpretación que se construye en el proceso inductivo propio de la investigación cualitativa.

3. Área de estudio

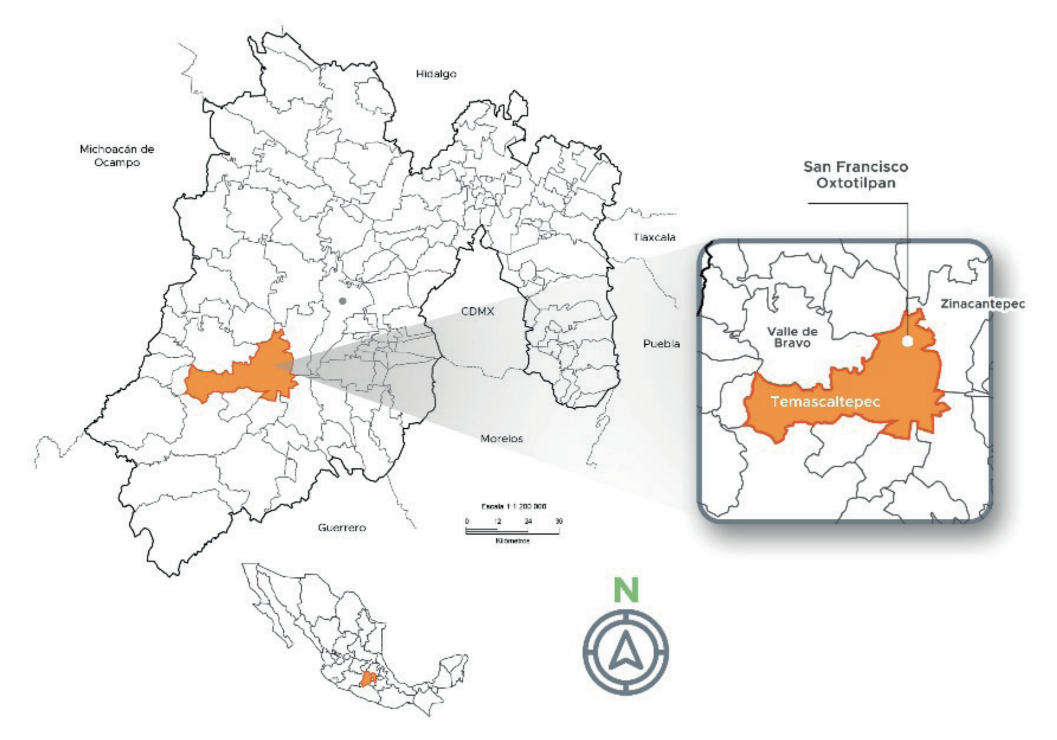
El Área de Protección de Flora y Fauna Nevado de Toluca (APFF), se sitúa en el centro Sur del Estado de México, a 23 km. al Suroeste de Toluca. (CONANP, *et, al*. 2018); durante las últimas décadas, esta ha formado parte de los atractivos turísticos más importantes del Estado de México; cada año, entre diciembre y febrero registra la máxima afluencia -en promedio 8,000 personas al mes- debido a las nevadas que se presentan en la montaña (CONANP, 2013).

Es importante resaltar que la tenencia de la tierra, es determinante para el aprovechamiento del territorio, puesto que según el Registro Agrario Nacional, de las 53,590 hectáreas que lo conforman, 45,101 corresponden a la propiedad social (ejidal o comunal), en donde se incluyen 54 núcleos agrarios, entre los que se encuentra San Francisco Oxtotilpan. De acuerdo a Gallegos (2011), el poblado en cuestión se encuentra en la parte de la región montañosa, en la zona Noreste del municipio de Temascaltepec al poniente del Nevado de Toluca, a los 19°10" N y 99°54" O e, a 50 km de la ciudad de Toluca, capital de la entidad.

El poblado de San Francisco Oxtotilpan, se encuentra en la parte de la región montañosa, en la zona Noreste del municipio de Temascaltepec, colinda por el Noroeste las montañas de El Ídolo y Piedra Herrada, por el Sureste, con San Miguel Oxtotilpan y el riachuelo y al Este, con el cerro de La Cañada y el ejido del poblado de Mesón Viejo, finalmente al sudoeste limita con el ejido del poblado de San Mateo Almomoloa; tiene un clima frío, con inviernos rigurosos y frecuentes heladas durante dicha estación. La temporada de lluvias va de abril-mayo y la de de secas, de noviembre a marzo o abril. El clima es húmedo y su temperatura media anual es de 13° C; el tipo de vegetación que predomina es el de coníferas, principalmente pino *(pinus)*, encino *(quercus)* y oyamel *(abies religiosa)*. Hay una variedad de plantas silvestres y otras, que son cultivadas, como el maguey. (Gallégoz, M., 2011). Respecto a la hidrografía, el ejido de San Francisco tiene varios cuerpos de agua, destacando el río Temascaltepec y Tilostoc; este último da origen a varios arroyos que desenbocan en la presa de Valle de Bravo, cuya relevancia es estratégica para el Sistema Cutzamala que surte de agua a la zona metropolitana de la ciudad de México (CONANP, 2016). La estructura del suelo presenta una gran inestabilidad, que combinada con la deforestación, los cambios de uso de suelo, el sobrepastoreo, las fuertes pendientes y las lluvias torrenciales generan intensos procesos de erosión.

Según datos oficiales del Instituto Nacional de los Pueblos Indígenas (INPI, 2021), el matlatzinca es uno de los pueblos indígenas del país que mayor desintegración ha sufrido, desde la época de la Conquista hasta la actualidad. De haber sido un grupo con amplio territorio en la época prehispánica, el correspondiente a los actuales estados de Michoacán, Guerrero y México, se ha reducido a una sola comunidad: San Francisco Oxtotilpan, en el municipio de Temascaltepec, Estado de México.

Ilustración 1: Localización de la comunidad de San Francisco Oxtotilpan, México.



Fuente: elaborado por Alfredo Rosas Heredia, con base en la información del Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía (INEGI) de México.

De acuerdo al Censo de Población y Vivienda 2020 del Instituto Nacional de Estadística y, publicados por la Unidad de Microrregiones de la Secretaría de Desarrollo Social, se registró un total de1506 habitantes de los cuales 708 son hombres y 798 son mujeres. La población de San Francisco se dedica esencialmente a la agricultura, cuyos productos principales, el maíz y el frijol, son generalmente para el consumo interno. Para la venta se siembra papa *(Solanum tuberosum)*, chícharo *(Pisum sativum)*, avena *(Avena sativa)*, trigo *(Triticum)*, caña de azúcar *(Saccharum officinarum)* y diversas frutas (INPI, 2021). Así mismo, se practican una serie de oficios y actividades que realizan en las ciudades para obtener recursos bajo contratos temporales, y la venta de productos elaborados por ellos mismos o bien de artículos para reventa.

La última comunidad indígena Matlatzinca sobreviviente en el paísse distingue por su indumentaria, la cual fue rescatada recientemente por el colectivo de mujeres *"Techiti",* quienes, además, preservan la práctica tradicional de la elaboración de prendas y textiles en telar de cintura. Adicionalmente, la gastronomía presenta un elemento característico: platillos a base de hierbas del campo y la elaboración de pan, tamales de ceniza, tortillas hechas a mano de diferentes maíces, el tradicional licor de zarza o "*xipe*", el *"totapi"* o pulque y los tradicionales "honguitos" de temporada. Lo mismo ocurre respecto a la medicina tradicional y herbolaria, conocimientos antiguos que se han extendido por generaciones.

La religiosidad popular ha llevado a una serie de prácticas culturales, costumbres y tradiciones, muy características y propias del lugar, dictando el calendario de celebraciones y eventos importantes, siendo las fechas más representativas el 29 de noviembre, que celebran el nuevo año Matlatzinca, y el Día de Muertos, fecha de gran importancia y tradición a nivel nacional.

El desempleo y alto índice de marginación, provocados por la falta de oportunidades de empleo en la región se ven reflejados en la gran migración que se da en los habitantes de la comunidad. Tampoco existe diversificación de las actividades productivas, lo que ha orillado a la solicitud de inserción en el turismo por parte de la comunidad, sin que estuvieran informados de las consecuencias que la actividad turística no planificada podía traer consigo (González-Domínguez, I., López-Ojeda, A., Thomé-Ortiz, H. & Guzmán-Hernández, C. 2017.). Al momento, San Francisco Oxtotilpan cuenta con un emprendimiento de tipo comunitario denominado “Parque Matawi” (ver ilustración 2), cuyo financiamiento provino de un organismo público denominado Comisión Nacional para el Desarrollo de los Pueblos Indígenas (ahora INPI), otorgado en el año 2015 por un monto aproximado de $74, 000 USD. El proyecto estuvo detenido por aproximadamente un año, reactivándose desde el año 2017 gracias a la constitución de un Comité Ejidal de Turismo (CET) dedicado a la administración del Parque y a la obtención de nuevos financiamientos públicos provenientes de la CONANP.

Así también, a través del CET se gestionaron distintas capacitaciones para los miembros de la comunidad por parte de consultoras y organizaciones no gubernamentales (como GIZ, https://www.giz.de/en/worldwide/33041.html y La Mano del Mono, https://lamanodelmono.org), y de la academia (Universidad Autónoma del Estado de México), que orientaron la creación del producto. El Parque es un espacio natural localizado a 4.6 km del centro del pueblo, en el que se localizan tres cabañas que dan servicio de hospedaje y alimentación tradicional indígena. Adicionalmente, el producto turístico comprende la venta de paquetes de actividades como talleres de educación ambiental, elaboración de textiles en telar de cintura, pláticas sobre la cosmovisión matlatzinca y visitación a sitios naturales de la comunidad, como Peña Blanca o el Paraje de las Luciérnagas (ver https://www.facebook.com/parqueecoturisticomaatawioficial).

Ilustración 2: Imagen del Parque Matawi, San Francisco Oxtotilpan, México.

Fuente: Archivo personal.

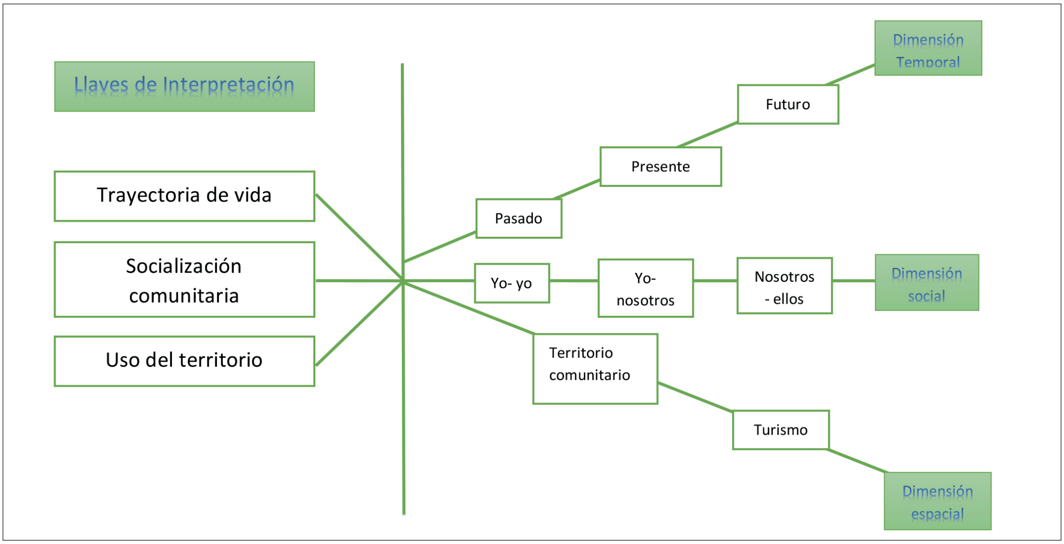
A pesar de que la construcción de su producto turístico aún se encuentra en desarrollo, los miembros del CET afirman que el emprendimiento ya cuenta con una demanda muy bien definida, según sus registros estadísticos (Comité Ejidal de Turismo de San Francisco Oxtotilpan, 2021). De esta información se obtiene que el visitante presenta el siguiente perfil: procede del Estado y Ciudad de México, principalmente; tiene un rango de edad de entre los 18 y 40 años y una educación mayoritariamente de nivel superior. Los viajes se realizan en parejas o en familia y con regularidad se acompañan de mascotas. Las motivaciones principales del traslado son la convivencia familiar y de amistad, el contacto con la naturaleza, el descubrimiento de nuevos destinos y la generación de nuevos conocimientos. Los paquetes que se ofrecen incluyen el hospedaje, la participación en talleres, seguro médico, caminatas y alimentación, con un costo promedio de $1,250.00 mxn ($61.59 USD), por persona al día.

Los habitantes de la comunidad ya se han adaptado a la dinámica del turismo, incluso durante la pandemia por COVID-19. Desde el inicio en el año 2020, el comité ejidal empezó a trabajar con nuevos protocolos de seguridad, dar servicio a una sola familia o grupo a la vez, usar constantemente el cubrebocas y el gel antibacterial, y permitir el acceso únicamente con reservación, para mantener a salvo a la comunidad y al turista. Después de dos años de pandemia, el comité prevé recibir más visitantes, suponiendo que la tendencia continuará siendo salir a lugares abiertos de tipo natural, al representar menor peligro a la integridad; así mismo reciben financiamiento de la CONANP, así como capacitaciones constantes de ONG`s como la Mano del Mono, y la GIZ, para mantener al destino saludable , sustentable y rentable.

4. Metodología

La investigación se llevó a cabo con enfoque cualitativo, la cual intenta hacer una aproximación global de las situaciones sociales para explorarlas, describirlas y comprenderlas a partir de los conocimientos que tienen los diferentes actores involucrados en ellas, puesto que los individuos interactúan con los otros miembros de su contexto social compartiendo el significado y el conocimiento que tienen de sí mismos y de su realidad social (Bonilla-Castro & Rodríguez, 2005; Villamil, 2003). Para la aplicación de una metodología cualitativa en la comunidad de San Francisco Oxtotilpan, se seleccionaron tres llaves de interpretación de acuerdo al modelo de Lalive: trayectoria de vida, socialización comunitaria y uso del territorio, las cuales orientaron la indagación de la información en consistencia con las tres dimensiones del modelo que se muestran de manera esquematizada en la ilustración 3:

Ilustración 3: Modelo interpretativo.



Elaboración con base en el modelo de Lalive (1990).

La trayectoria de vida se alineó a la dimensión temporal, y se definieron tres unidades de análisis para estudiar el flujo histórico de los habitantes de la comunidad: el pasado, rememorando vivencias de sus etapas de niñez, adolescencia y juventud; el presente, con sus ocupaciones actuales; y el futuro, a través de su proyección de vida. La socialización comunitaria se alineó a la dimensión social, para analizar las interacciones del sujeto consigo mismo (yo-yo), con quienes forman parte de su familia y comunidad (yo-nosotros), y con los turistas (yo-ellos), quienes son ajenos a la comunidad. El uso del territorio se alineó con el análisis de la dimensión espacial, considerándose las unidades de análisis del territorio de uso comunitario y de uso turístico, para reconocer la valoración y expresiones culturales que otorgan identidad a la comunidad y el territorio destinado a la actividad turística.

El análisis interpretativo del modelo se aplicó al meta-texto producido por las narrativas obtenidas de los miembros de la comunidad a través de la técnica de entrevista a profundidad. Las entrevistas se realizaron durante los años 2020 y 2021, en modalidad virtual, ya que el confinamiento por la pandemia de COVID-19 impidió la realización de manera presencial. La entrevista se diseñó de forma semiestructuada con preguntas abiertas que pudieran dar apertura al entrevistado a reseñar sus vivencias, interacciones y valoraciones, de acuerdo a las llaves de interpretación elegidas. El perfil de los habitantes entrevistados se indica en la tabla 1.

Tabla 1: Perfil de los habitantes entrevistados.

No.	Género	Edad	Formación	Ocupación	Clave
1	Femenino	23	Superior	Campo y profesional	E.M
2	Femenino	24	Superior	Campo y profesional	MC
3	Masculino	24	Superior	Campo y profesional	VC
4	Masculino	26	Superior	Campo y profesional	DC
5	Femenino	29	Superior	Campo y profesional	LG
6	Masculino	49	Básica	Campo y oficios	IR
7	Femenino	49	Básica	Campo y oficios	RC
8	Femenino	54	Básica	Campo y oficios	SC
9	Masculino	62	Básica	Campo y oficios	GA
10	Femenino	64	Básica	Campo y oficios	GG
11	Femenino	64	Básica	Campo y oficios	MD
12	Masculino	70	Básica	Campo y oficios	PR
13	Masculino	73	Básica	Campo y oficios	UG

Fuente: Elaboración propia.

Todos los entrevistados son habitantes originarios de la comunidad y han tenido algún tipo de intervención en la construcción de los productos turísticos de San Francisco, ya sea como autoridades del Comisariado Ejidal, como miembros del Comité Ejidal de Turismo o como prestadores de servicios. Cabe destacar que en la tabla 1, claramente se puede apreciar una diferencia entre los entrevistados con edad menor a los 30 años, de los mayores a 40 años, ya que los primeros declaran una ocupación profesional además de su dedicación al campo, lo que refleja un nivel educativo superior que influirá en la conformación del ethos, como se mostrará en el siguiente apartado.

Una vez realizadas las entrevistas, el meta-texto se sometió a un análisis del discurso de acuerdo a las unidades de análisis establecidas y organizando los datos a partir de cada una de las dimensiones del modelo para la conformación de los hallazgos. Con esta caracterización se logró identificar el ethos del habitante de la comunidad de San Francisco Oxtotilpan, su valoracón respecto a la actividad turística y su influencia en la construcción de los productos.

5. Hallazgos

Se presentan a continuación los hallazgos organizados de acuerdo a las dimensiones del modelo.

5.1. Dimensión Temporal

La comunidad de San Francisco Oxtotilpan es de gran tradición familiar y sus miembros acostumbran a vivir en familia nuclear. La niñez y la juventud de los entrevistados se vieron envueltas entre juegos y experiencias de trabajo en el campo, en el bosque, en "el monte", un lugar por el que el habitante muestra sentimientos de filiación absoluta, pues las experiencias vividas en dicho espacio han generado vínculos de identidad, pertenencia y amor por la tierra que los ha visto nacer a ellos, a sus predecesores y a su descendencia (GA, GG y PR).

En el pasado, bajo la dinámica de una socialización primaria vivida en el núcleo familiar, los habitantes de mayor edad incorporaron los roles de comportamiento dominantes de acuerdo a su género: las mujeres se dedicaban al cuidado de los niños, de los animales y de la casa; los hombres a la siembra y cosecha de diferentes productos agrícolas, principalmente maíz y frijol, los que constituían su base alimentaria. (IR, RC, SC, GA, GG, MD, PR y UG). Por mucho tiempo, la mujer mantuvo el rol de cocinar y limpiar la casa, lo cual se replicó en los quehaceres que tuvo a su cargo al inicio de la prestación del servicio turístico en Matawi.

En el presente, la mayoría de los adultos que habitan San Francisco Oxtotilpan se dedican a trabajar el campo, y practican una serie de oficios y actividades, como la albañilería, carpintería, entre otras, que realizan en las ciudades para obtener recursos bajo contratos temporales, la venta de productos elaborados a mano, o bien artículos para reventa. Los jóvenes, además de apoyar en estas actividades a sus padres y abuelos, salen a estudiar para tener más oportunidades que les permitan desarrollar sus emprendimientos y apoyar así a su comunidad (EM, MC, VC, DC y LG). En su visión de futuro, llama la atención que la población adulta manifestó una proyección de su persona y actividades a diez años que no dista de la actual, pues se visualizan en el campo realizando las mismas tareas y /o actividades, muy diferente a la visualización de los jóvenes, quienes se proyectan como profesionales más capacitados para desarrollar y emprender proyectos que les permitan apoyar a sus familias y a su comunidad en general (IR, RC, SC, GA, GG, MD, PR y UG).

5.2. Dimensión social

San Francisco Oxtotilpan es una comunidad de raíces indígenas que aún conserva su lengua matlatzinca original, lo que para los adultos mayores fue un conflicto importante en el desarrollo de su socialización secundaria, motivo por el cual las generaciones subsecuentes fueron educadas de manera bilingüe, perdiendo en gran medida la práctica de la lengua propia (GG, MD, PR y UG).

La población está apegada a costumbres y tradiciones que se han dictado por roles sociales a lo largo de los años, enmarcados en la dinámica de la tenencia de la tierra, los roles de género e inclusive el deber ser que dicta la religión (SC, GA y PR). Uno de los rasgos que identifican a la comunidad, es el papel protagónico otorgado a los adultos mayores dentro de su dinámica social. El adulto mayor es tan significativo para los jóvenes, que con respeto y estima se refieren a él como "tío" o "tía", e incluso como "tata" a los más sabios, aunque no sean parte de su familia. (EM, MC, VC, DC y LG): "…son los sabios, los meros gallos, porque ellos saben cómo se hacen todos los rituales." (VC).

El apego a las prácticas marcadas por la doctrina cristiana, en conjunto con las formas de uso y apropiación de la tierra, son aspectos tan determinantes en la vida social que los cargos vinculados a responsabilidades conmemorativas de la iglesia o de representatividad ejidal brindan estatus, orgullo y bienestar a los miembros que las ostentan y a sus familias (GG, MD, PR y UG). En este sentido los habitantes tienen distintos tipos y niveles de identificación y unión con su comunidad y su territorio, expresadas desde dos perspectivas: colectiva e individual. La colectiva refiere la visión conjunta de la comunidad, puesto que se proyecta una unidad como grupo, que se genera desde las prácticas culturales; en la perspectiva individual hay una identificación con el territorio desde un aspecto profundamente personal (DC y VC).

Sin embargo, en la búsqueda de mejores oportunidades laborales o de vida, muchos de los pobladores han salido de su comunidad, lo que les permite internalizar otras realidades, muy diferentes a las que aprendieron en sus núcleos familiares cuando niños. Esto ha hecho que muchos de ellos cuestionen en gran medida los paradigmáticos roles sociales y el papel tan importante que tiene la iglesia en su vida cotidiana, en prácticas como el divorcio o el disentir del consenso social (SC).

De cualquier forma, la población es celosa en permitir que gente extraña entre a su territorio o que llegue a vivir a él. En el pasado, estaba prohibido que los pobladores se casaran con personas de otros pueblos (GG, MD, PR y UG). Actualmente ya no es impedimento, sin embargo, no se permite que personas externas adquieran bienes raíces en el pueblo (EM, MC, VC, DC y LG). La actividad turística abrió una opción más para que “personas extrañas” ingresen al territorio, aunque su movilidad y comportamiento están sujetos a itinerarios y alcances prestablecidos que no se contraponen a las prohibiciones señaladas. Por ello, la comunidad se declara a favor de la actividad, ya que ha experimentado sus beneficios: el rescate de costumbres y tradiciones, la inclusión de diálogos en matlatzinca en los recorridos turísticos y la venta de productos y servicios que coadyuvan a su subsistencia.

Al habitante le gusta convivir con el visitante, mostrarle la riqueza de su tierra, atenderle y darle la mejor impresión. En un principio fue muy problemático entender el rol y comportamiento del anfitrión con el visitante, ya que tenían carencias de habilidades y conocimientos, no sabían cómo tratar a la gente, qué darles de comer y cómo hablarles, lo que implicó todo un reto para la creación de los productos. (IR, RC, SC, GA, GG y MD). La construcción de una nueva realidad por la relación “anfitrión-visitante” (nosotros-ellos), se pensó podía solucionarse a través de un proceso de capacitación, pero esta fue insuficiente (GG) ante lo desconocido de los platillos, palabras, materiales y vivencias en las que no sabían cómo conducirse. La experiencia del contacto directo con el visitante fue dando la pauta para aprender cómo interactuar con ellos, otorgar un “trato personalizado” y acoplarse a sus necesidades y características (IR, RC, SC, GA, GG y MD). Hoy comprenden que el visitante busca en el campo un respiro de la vida cotidiana, así como conocer la “esencia de la comunidad”: la comida típica, las fiestas y las costumbres.

Los prestadores de servicios identifican que el turista que llega a visitarlos se complace de la naturaleza de una forma más responsable y procuran fomentarles mayor consciencia y sensibilidad ante la problemática ambiental. Sin embargo, también hay comportamientos que disgustan a la comunidad, vinculados a relaciones de poder y discriminación hacia las personas que otorgan el servicio (EM, MC, VC, DC y LG): “..es gente *tepetonguera* a la que les falta sobre todo educación y humildad..” (DC).

5.3. Dimensión espacial

De acuerdo con los testimonios, el entorno ha cambiado bastante, rememorando la imagen que con antelación proyectaba el pueblo: más limpio, seguro y con un cielo estrellado (SC, MD y RC). La valoración que la comunidad siente por su territorio es resultado de la cosmovisión de la población, por ejemplo el “cerro” es un espacio valorado, pues hay un nivel de conexión personal del individuo con la naturaleza, lo cual se asocia con pensamientos y sentimientos de bienestar al procurarle el sustento diario, paz, armonía, felicidad y buenos recuerdos de su infancia y juventud.

La mayor parte de las actividades y experiencias que la comunidad adquiere en el día a día, están relacionadas con la naturaleza, lo que más valora y le agrada del lugar en donde vive (EM, MC, VC, DC y LG): “… me gusta la naturaleza, los árboles, el agua, y el agua aquí, gracias a dios, hay mucha, eso es maravilloso…” (SC). Entre los lugares más mencionados se encuentran el cerro y el bosque, que les vinculan con la naturaleza, les dan un sentido de pertenencia e identificación. En el centro del pueblo, se realizan la mayoría de las fiestas o reuniones comunitarias, al igual que en la iglesia central, el lugar más valorado por los adultos debido a la importancia de las celebraciones litúrgicas que santifican sus fiestas . En este sitio se encuentra “El Gigante”, un árbol venerado por la comunidad como un emblema de identidad.

La localización del Parque Matawi fue seleccionado por el tipo de terreno comunal y la cercanía con el paraje denominado Peña Blanca. El sitio es privilegiado por una particular riqueza natural en su entorno, además de sus características paisajísticas, siendo uno de los lugares más valiosos y representativos para el pueblo (IR y RC). Estos lugares sirven como escenario de la actividad turística y los externos pueden visitarlos sin perturbar la vida del habitante. Todo cambia cuando el espacio está en uso de la comunidad para la realización de un festejo, pues las fiestas y tradiciones son rituales íntimos. En algunas ocasiones, se permitieron las visitas y renta de cabañas, pero el visitante se volvía un agente externo que llegaba a incomodar por su comportamiento o grabaciones. Por ello, la administración de Parque Matawi optó por no agendar visitas en esas fechas y evitar las perturbaciones externas (RC y MD).

6. Ethos del habitante de la comunidad del Nevado de Toluca

A partir de la interpretación realizada y en seguimiento del método de Lalive, se logra identificar un ethos general del habitante de la comunidad (ver tabla 2) al que se le denominó “El indígena campesino”, pero que se subdivide en tradicional y renovador, en virtud de observar ciertas constantes en el conjunto de prácticas, creencias y valores entre sus miembros, pero a la vez algunas diferencias entre las distintas generaciones.

Tabla 2: Ethos del iindígena campesino

Ethos del indígena campesino	
Tradicional	**Renovado**
Principales valores	
Apego a la tierra: El indígena campesino tradicional, muestra un profundo apego a la tierra, al “cerro”, a su espacio natural; aprecia de sobremanera que recibe lo necesario para vivir en abundancia: agua, granos, plantas y semillas para alimentarse, además de un paisaje hermoso que le satisface en lo profundo de su ser. **Sentido de pertenencia comunitaria** Debido a la tenencia de la tierra, la comunidad es la máxima que domina las acciones del habitante, de esta manera, todo lo aprendido, los hábitos y tradiciones enseñadas en su núcleo familiar, van encaminados a identificarse, conectarse y ser aceptado por el grupo, fuente de la fuerza. Por lo tanto, el respeto por la naturaleza, el trabajo duro, el apego a tradiciones y costumbres que conforman su comunidad, son valores que regulan su vida cotidiana. **Identidad cultural indígena** El indígena campesino tradicional tiene una fuerte identidad con sus raíces y costumbres inculcadas, asumiéndose como “indígena”, aun cuando ignore muchos significados o la lengua misma, pues su cultura va más allá del lenguaje y se manifiesta en sus prácticas diarias, las ritualidades de sus diferentes celebraciones y en su linaje mismo.	**Apego y cuidado de la tierra:** Muestra el mismo apego a la tierra que el tradicional, la diferencia es que este aprovecha y se forma en buenas prácticas sustentables que le permiten cuidar más y mejor su tierra. **Sentido de pertenencia y apoyo comunitario renovados** Adicional a los valores del *ethos* tradicional, el renovado presenta factores como la formación académica, que se aprovecha y aplica para apoyar a la comunidad. El encontrar la conexión, aceptación y unidad con la comunidad partiendo de buenas acciones que ayuden al desarrollo de las potencialidades de la misma, es uno de los motivos por los que las nuevas generaciones se dirigen con proactividad para el desarrollo y administración de los proyectos productivos. **Identidad, orgullo, rescate y conservación cultural indígena** Tiene una fuerte identidad con sus raíces indígenas y se asume como tal, formándose en los significados culturales de sus ritualidades, rescatando y difundiendo sus tradiciones y costumbres, investigando y reconstruyendo lo perdido, para perpetuar el acervo para las próximas generaciones.
Valores expresados	
Religiosidad popular La religión católica es un factor determinante en la vida de la comunidad, a tal grado que muchos de los roles sociales respecto a su liderazgo, distribución del poder, usos, costumbres y tradiciones giran alrededor de ésta. **Pèrdida de representatividad de los adultos mayores** Para el indígena campesino tradicional, los adultos mayores son concebidos como los poseedores del conocimiento cultural, dominan el idioma y la ritualidad de las tradiciones y acontecimientos sociales relevantes, pero fuera de las prácticas culturales, su representatividad ha perdido peso.	**Religiosidad popular resignificada** A partir de una formación profesional, comprensión y conocimiento de la cultura, el indígena campesino renovado resignifica estas prácticas de identidad comunitaria. **Respeto a los adultos mayores** Para el indígena campesino renovado, los adultos mayores son concebidos como la piedra angular de la cultura Matlatzinca, pues son los poseedores del conocimiento cultural, hablan el idioma y manejan la ritualidad de las tradiciones y acontecimientos sociales relevantes.
Valores contrarios	
Unión/ desvinculación comunitaria El tradicionalista se ciñe a las “buenas costumbres”, aprendidas en la familia, sin embargo, debido al tipo de tenencia de tierra se conforman grupos que concentran el poder y la toma de decisiones. En esta dinámica el indígena campesino tradicional tiene que apegarse a las decisiones grupales, incluso cuando le afecten personalmente, con la finalidad de unirse a la comunidad, pero justo cuando se afectan sus intereses personales, se desvincula, intentando encontrar su bienestar propio.	**Unión/ desvinculación comunitaria** Al pertenecer a una sociedad tradicionalista, y ceñirse a las “buenas costumbres” y decisiones de los grupos de poder, tal como el indígena campesino tradicional, cuando esto afecta sus intereses personales, el indígena campesino emprendedor se desvincula intentando encontrar sus propios intereses y bienestar, pero partiendo del control del poder, por medio de la persuasión y el don de convencimiento otorgados por la formación profesional.

Fuente: Elaboración propia.

Como es observable la comunidad de San Francisco Oxtotilpan, exhibe un mismo *ethos* que presenta una fuerte identidad y sentidos de pertenencia y conexión con su cultura, su territorio, con la máxima de la búsqueda del bienestar de la comunidad y la toma de decisiones grupales. Sin embargo, se pueden distinguir dos variantes: la tradicional, manifestada principalmente en las generaciones adultas, enfocada en la preservación de costumbres y tradiciones, tal cual se le han transmitido de manera generacional, sin cuestionamientos, enmarcada en un conservadurismo poco flexible y basado en la moral y el deber ser. La segunda variante, denominada renovada, se presenta en las nuevas generaciones y se asienta en la búsqueda constante de soluciones y en la reinterpretación y rescate de su cultura, donde el factor de la formación educativa a nivel profesional ha jugado un papel fundamental. Es la vertiente del ethos renovado, el que no sólo introduce la actividad turística como parte de la diversificación de las actividades productivas de la comunidad, sino logra gestionar la construcción del producto turístico alternativo que hoy existe.

Es interesante señalar que, el ethos obtenido en esta investigación observa algunas coincidencias con el del Campesino poseedor identificado por Vallejo et al. (2013) en la comunidad de La Peñuela del área natural Nevado de Toluca, tales como la identidad comunitaria y el respeto por los adultos mayores, pero se distingue una diferencia con respecto a los valores vinculados al territorio: en el caso de La Peñuela, la tierra tiene un valor de posesión, de propiedad; en cambio, en el caso de San Francisco Oxtotilpan prevalece un valor de apego por la tierra, un sentido de raíz, de identidad. Desde nuestra perspectiva, esto se explica por la historia ancestral indígena de la comunidad de San Francisco Oxtotitlán, ya que la comunidad de La Peñuela es un asentamiento cuya historia apenas data del siglo XX (Anastasio-Martínez, Nava-Bernal & Franco-Maass, 2014).

7. Consideraciones finales

Los hallazgos presentados en el estudio fortalecen la postura de que la construcción social de los productos turísticos de la comunidad de San Francisco Oxtotilpan se articula con los procesos sociales que la comunidad vive al interior y exterior y no sólo es producto de la riqueza natural y paisajística con la que cuenta el territorio. Al interior, por ejemplo, la unidad comunitaria se manifiesta como “el grupo”, como la manera en que la institucionalización de la realidad, (la realidad objetiva, aceptada y asimilada por el grupo social) domina las acciones de la población, en donde el bienestar de la comunidad es la finalidad de las acciones que se realizan, y en la que todos, o la mayoría, deben de estar de acuerdo. Lo anterior responde directamente a la habituación de las acciones que la comunidad lleva a cabo en las diferentes interacciones a su interior, en la vida cotidiana, resultado del proceso de socialización.

Dicho proceso de socialización, permite establecer relaciones consigo mismo, (yo-yo), y con el núcleo cercano (yo-nosotros), que enmarcan los valores y significados que el habitante otorga a su comunidad, a su territorio, y su cultura, así mismo dicta los usos que el habitante implementa sobre ellos, y justo en estas atribuciones se produce el desarrollo de la actividad turística, en la que surgen nuevas relaciones y procesos sociales al exterior de su grupo, con quienes le son ajenos (nosotros-ellos), es decir la relación que se construye con el visitante (comunidad- visitante).

Es observable que a lo largo del tiempo, los habitantes han desarrollado un fuerte sentido de identidad y vínculo tripartita con su territorio, sus raíces culturales y su comunidad; gracias a esto, el turismo es bien aceptado como un detonador de beneficios para los pobladores, pero también como la oportunidad para mostrar su riqueza cultural y paisajística que los hace sentir orgullosos, concibiendo a la actividad turística como una opción para el desarrollo comunitario.

La comunidad vive un proceso de renovación particular en el que las nuevas generaciones enfrentan una revalorización de su patrimonio natural y cultural, el cual enaltecen y aprovechan para implementarlo como materia prima de proyectos productivos en la actividad turística, lo cual se debe principalmente al capital cultural adquirido en la formación educativa. Se infiere que gracias a la formación educativa de nivel superior, consecuencia de la socialización secundaria, algunos de los habitantes han adquirido conocimientos, habilidades y una visión fortalecida de su realidad, que les ha concedido reinterpretar su propia cultura, lo que les permite valorar y participar en mayor medida en el desarrollo y administración de productos turísticos.

La proactividad de las nuevas generaciones en el desarrollo y administración de los proyectos productivos muestran más y mejores frutos, además de originar nuevos proyectos. Los jóvenes reeducan y persuaden a sus adultos de nuevas y mejores estrategias de trabajar su territorio,. Se identifica, entonces, un nuevo punto de partida que influye en la construcción social de los productos turísticos de la comunidad, en el que los jóvenes actualizan sus conocimientos por medio de la educación; y a través de la comprensión y resignificación cultural, pueden tener un mejor desempeño en la administración del turismo.

Se considera que aún hay grandes retos que enfrentar en la conformación y diversificación de los productos turísticos de tipo comunitario en el Nevado de Toluca, ya que cada una de las comunidades en cuestión debe encontrar en sus propios valores y significados la esencia que guiará la construcción de sus productos turísticos.

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Ecovillages as a Development Model and the case of Api-Tourism in Sustainable Settlements

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Abstract: The study on ecovillages is characterized by the heterogeneity of its sources, being of great interest the delimitation of its theoretical and empirical framework for the knowledge of its structure, functions, and its pioneering perspectives together with its future in the light of international policies in sustainability. A methodological triangulation (structural, comparative and hypothetical-inductive) is used to develop the approach to the concept, evolution, status, and its role in the context of a green, circular, and sustainable economy. In addition, beekeeping as a fundamental activity within "Red Iberica de Ecoaldeas" (RIE) in Spain was examined through the realization of surveys and shown to be non-existent. Thus, api-tourism is considered as an applicable paradigm for the insertion of regenerative activities that are more in line with current demands and a tourism niche which potentially contribute to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

Keywords: Ecovillage; Environment; Green economy; Api-tourism; Sustainable development.

Ecoaldeas como Modelo de Desarrollo y el caso del Api-Turismo en Asentamientos Sostenibles

Resumen: El estudio de las ecoaldeas se caracteriza por la heterogeneidad de sus fuentes, siendo de gran interés la delimitación de su marco teórico y empírico para el conocimiento de su estructura, funciones y sus perspectivas pioneras junto con su futuro a la luz de las políticas internacionales. en sostenibilidad. Se utiliza una triangulación metodológica (estructural, comparativa e hipotético-inductiva) para desarrollar la aproximación al concepto, evolución, estatus y su rol en el contexto de una economía verde, circular y sustentable. Además, la apicultura como actividad fundamental dentro de la Red Ibérica de Ecoaldeas (RIE) en España fue examinada mediante la realización de encuestas y se demostró que es inexistente. Así, el api-turismo se plantea como un paradigma aplicable para la inserción de actividades regenerativas más acordes con las demandas actuales y un nicho turístico que potencialmente contribuye a los Objetivos de Desarrollo Sostenible (ODS).

Palabras Clave: Ecoaldea; Medio ambiente; Economía verde; Api-turismo; Desarrollo sostenible.

1. Introduction

Since the 1960s in the twentieth century, various social youth movements have increased interest in proposals for alternative community life, in natural environments and based on cooperation. The objectives of this return to the origins are multiple, but above all it highlights the improvement of sustainability, putting into practice an interaction with the environment based on the key principles of ecology, such as the promotion of a green economy. In later years (1980s and 1990s), these initiatives continued to consolidate and expand around the world, with numerous success stories in Europe, North and Latin America.

It is important to analyze their evolution and prospects, especially at a time when the debate on environmental degradation and the impact of human activity on the planet is more intense in the light of

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climate change and the depopulation of large areas of traditional rurality. It is time, therefore, to deepen the model of ecovillages or whether, on the contrary, they will continue to be a minority alternative way of life. Likewise, their study is especially relevant in the academic field, within the research on the new models of rurality, the new practices of sustainability.

Within the tourism literature, the concept of ecovillages and such tourism motivation is defined by Zeppel (2006) as those rural or semi-rural projects that link permanent residents of a community and their daily work with tourism aspects. These ecovillages give the visitor the opportunity to stay for a short period of time as a visitor or spend long stays as a volunteer. In addition to the daily activities practiced in the ecovillage, whether related to cultivation, livestock or beekeeping, educational activities, courses and seminars are promoted for those who simply want to learn about life in an ecovillage, become involved in a similar project, or start a new one (Borio, 2001). Sustainable tourism in international ecovillages has been a reality for some years now and a way to generate extra income for the residents of these sustainable settlements. An example is found in the ecovillage of *Pachamama* in Costa Rica (www.https://www.pachamama.com/eco-village), where a group of people regenerated and gave life to 200 hectares of pasture land, turning it into a green and healthy forest with thousands of trees and endangered species that host a great variety of wildlife, including butterflies, different types of bees, insects, monkeys, big cats and birds. Other examples can be found in Spain, where Aldeas Infantiles foundation organizes summer camps for young people between 16 and 24 years at *EcoGranja la Aldea* (https://www.laecogranja.org). Here they learn activities such as bioconstruction, sustainable agriculture, or cooking to build an ecovillage.

In this logic of sustainability and functional upgrading, api-tourism will be addressed, being defined as any trip - local, regional, national, or international - with the purpose of interacting with bees and learning about the culture that surrounds them, whether in natural or urban spaces (Porter, 2020). Furthermore, api-tourism is a tourism model that connects the traditional art of beekeeping and beehive products with the visitor (Wos, 2015) and can be the main motivating factor of the trip, (e.g., visiting the famous honey hunters in Nepal or api-routes in Slovenia) or secondary factor (Lemelin, 2020) offered within together with agritourism activities.

2. Literature review

Numerous studies on ecovillages were carried out from a sociological perspective. In this sense, there are studies related to the balance between individual and collective (Forster and Wilhelmus, 2005; Holleman and Colombijn, 2011; Jones, 2011), fulfillment of set goals (DePasqualin et al. 2008; Ergas 2010; Irrgang 2005; Kunze 2003; Kirby 2003; Mulder et al., 2006) or reconstruction of values and norms of the group (Nathan 2009; Wagner 2007; Wight 2008).

Also, there is no lack of perspectives that have approached aspects from a cosmological vision (Salamanca and Silva, 2016; van Schyndel Kasperr, 2008; Wagner 2008); or those of authors who address it in relation to the phenomenon of gentrification and whether ecovillages, as other urban communities, can be models of coexistence that help to fight this problem by constituting relational spaces in which community problems can be discussed and solved, solutions proposed and spaces of resistance to such gentrification created (Raynor and Bunce, 2020; Chitewere, 2010; Ergas, 2010; Litfin, 2014; Pickerill, 2016; Thompson, 2015). Finally, the concept of ecovillage and the possibilities of its transfer to urban spaces are addressed, concluding that they are not models that can transform the paradigm of community living, although they provide sustainable solutions at the local level (Blouin, 2007; Centgraf, 2009; Grizzuti, 2009).

According to Lockyer and Veteto (2015), ecovillages are experimental communities on alternative and sustainable living. They define the concept as one that combines minimum intrusion into the environment, social inclusion, and collective decision-making. In this line of endogenous development and minimal environmental impact, ecovillages often implement some of these mechanisms: shared housing and accommodation, local economy and currencies, connection with nature, strong social cohesion and forms of collaborative and more sustainable consumption such as communal workspaces, shared means of transport, food cooperatives, time banks and exchange of clothes and household goods, to mention only the most frequent.

As per Temesgen (2020), the economic structure of ecovillages is the key to their success or failure. Ecovillages with robust economics and good social networks are better equipped to successfully embrace alternative project financing channels and become self-sufficient. On the other hand, ecovillages that do not have sufficient resources of their own are forced to resort to more conventional business and financing models in which profits must be generated for investors, with the obvious risk for these ecovillages of losing essential elements to the very concept of sustainability which is crucial to these communities.

Following Singh et al. (2019), early definitions of ecovillage were inspired by the Eastern philosophy of connection with nature and the Western sensibility of environmental protection, where the dilemma was to maintain the balance between personal space and community development.

The concept of ecovillages began to be used in 1976 due to the increasing academic interest in Findhorn (LeVasseur, 2013), the Scottish ecovillage founded in 1962 and one of those that has received the most scholarly interest. According to Kanter (1972); they imply not only the search for self-realization for the individual, but also an interest in political and economic change. Furthermore, there are religious motivations in many of these ecovillages and intentional communities, although the same author points out that the latter religious motivations are especially important in North America due to the country's own history and characteristics.

The phenomenon of ecovillages and the increase in publications on the subject, began to receive increasing academic attention in 1991 with the article by Robert and Diane Gilman (1991). Both, editors of the ecological magazine In-Context, made this publication at the request of Gaia Trust (*), delimiting the most detailed definition of ecovillage as a human settlement in which the activities developed are integrated into the natural environment without damaging it, in a way that supports a healthy development of individuals and can be replicated in different environments over time (Gilman, 1991, cited by Jackson, 1998).

For Gilman (1991) ecovillage implies:

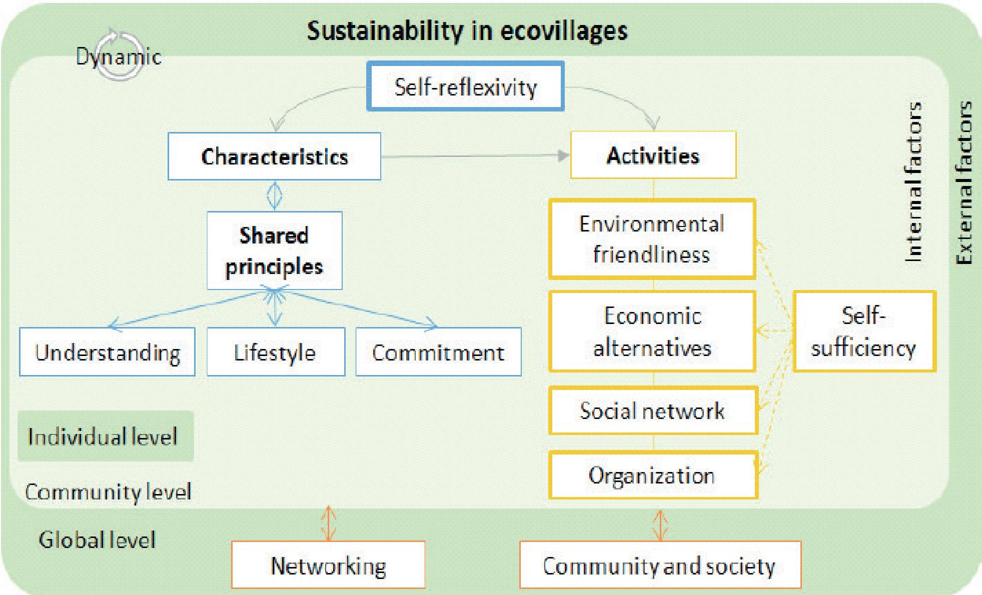
– Human scale. This means living in a community where everyone knows everyone else, so they cannot be too large population centers. The average size of an ecovillage ranges from 50 to no more than 250 people (Bang, 2005), although there are much larger ecovillages and smaller ones.
– In an inclusive settlement. All housing, leisure and recreation activities, food provision, social life and commerce are integrated in the same environment, unlike other urban environments where there are different residential areas, leisure areas and shopping areas. This does not necessarily imply that all inhabitants of the ecovillage work within the ecovillage. It is reasonable to assume that some will leave the community to work elsewhere, just as people from elsewhere may come to work in the village.
– All community activities are fully integrated into nature without harming it, which implies circular economy and recycling, use of renewable energies and no use of products that may be harmful to the environment.
– Healthy human development. Ecovillages are communities that take care of the physical, mental, emotional, and spiritual balance of their inhabitants.
– Sustainable over time, with an honest commitment not to exploit other people and communities or other forms of life, both in the present and in the future.
– Sustainable communities: whereby the concept also includes networks of ecovillages and communities that may not be based on geographical boundaries but share the above four principles. From this perspective, the term becomes much more inclusive. An ecovillage can be a rural settlement, but also an urban neighborhood. A city would not fit the definition of an ecovillage, but a city made up of many ecovillages can be considered a sustainable community.

In their strictest sense, ecovillages are communities living in isolated environments that share values of environmental sustainability, which are the basis of the commitment of their inhabitants. These values become in practice the use of renewable energies, self-supply of food, organic agriculture, organic gardening, and permaculture (Meijering, 2012). In short, a concrete example of sustainability in the body of academic literature (Waerther, 2014). They are fundamentally communities that intentionally share a vision of life and values and cooperate on an ongoing and continuous basis. Thus, early definitions share that ecovillages can have different meanings and purposes in different contexts and with different groups of people (Warburton, 1998), but that they typically share ecological values (Jackson, 2004).

Ecovillages can thus be defined as communities intentionally created to facilitate healthier human development and decrease the impact on the environment, considering the sustainability of their actions both in the present and in the future (Bang, 2005; Waerther, 2014. Therefore, they are not rigid organizations, but learning systems around sustainable and more environmentally friendly environments.

Waerther (2014) proposes a conceptual model of ecovillage that can be seen in Figure 7, and in which it is characterized by principles and values shared by all members of the community that produce a commitment of all around the shared way of life. Likewise, all activities are based on respect for the environment, interaction between people and self-sufficiency.

Figure 1: Sustainability in ecovillages



Source: Waerther (2016).

It should be noted that, in early academic work on ecovillages these are defined as social experiments, but successive research progressively shows that they are alternative models of living that aim not to deplete natural resources (Chitewere, 2006; Vazin, 2016). A rural community model conceptualized around a socially friendly, economically viable and ecologically sustainable community life and are thus a tangible proof that human beings can cooperate harmoniously both with other people and with the available natural resources. Therefore, ecovillages include dimensions of environmental care, viable economic alternatives social networks and human organizations that aspire to be self-sufficient to a greater or lesser extent (Ruiz-Escudero, 2012; Ruiz-Escudero, 2019), in fact, they all usually carry out ecological agriculture and other activities that allow them to be self-sufficient.

3. Evolution and trends of the ecovillage model

In terms of ownership, ecovillages differ substantially from one another in aspects such as the degree of private versus communal ownership since they tend to practice their ideals in their daily lives, which facilitates group cohesion and a sense of belonging (hence the nickname intentional communities). In addition, ecovillages have rules of conduct to ensure the alignment of individuals with community goals and peaceful coexistence. Common examples of community work are those in which the whole village participates in the same project: construction, communal dinners, parties, meditation, music, sports, theater, and gardening (Ergas, 2010). Each ecovillage has its own list of policies and rules, which can cover everything from the conditions for joining the community, design of the houses or when one can leave the community. The rules tend to increase as the community is confronted with new or unusual situations (Kasper, 2008).

In terms of the visible organization of ecovillages, the physical characteristics of the communities attempt to reflect their ideals, which include respect for the environment, good quality of life and a strong sense of community. The design of ecovillages reflects the spiritual, social, and ecological lifestyle of the community (Bang, 2005). Therefore, it is not possible to speak of an ecovillage as a single or overriding design. However, there are some aspects to be shared such as design goals often revolve around systems thinking, healthy ecosystem and respect for other members of the community. In the same way, dwellings can vary substantially, from very small to very large, ascetic, or very comfortable, alternative, or conventional, always according to the personalities of their inhabitants (Singh et al., 2019).

In relation to the respectful interaction with the environment, the ecovillage is also associated with the feeling of belonging to the community, solving current problems that for authors such as Bauman (2001), translate into vertiginous changes in modern society accelerated by globalization which have led many individuals to feel excluded and uprooted, resulting in a greater "hunger" for security and feeling of belonging (Blackshaw, 2012). Ecovillages as "intentional communities" Taylor, 2003) allow the sharing of knowledge, goods, and services around a common purpose, offering wide opportunities for social interaction.

Regarding governance and conflict management, Van Schyndel Kasper (2008) conducted a comparative study of eight ecovillages in North America and found common elements in the way they interact and resolve their conflicts. Since informal social interaction plays a very relevant role in these communities, there is a set of rules and norms for all members of the ecovillage. Examples of this system of rules is the organization of periodic meetings whose purpose is not only for the group to meet, but also to resolve any doubts, conflicts, or misunderstandings. It is common in all communities, even those with few communal activities, for all members to participate in both community and private projects.

It is worth noting the marked differences in the academic literature on ecovillages in Latin America, which deals with spiritual aspects linked to pre-Columbian religions and cultures. Ecovillages, therefore, encompass socioeconomic, environmental, and cultural aspects (Acosta, 2013; Caudillo-Félix, 2012; SELBA, 2015).

According to Litfin (2012), the oldest predecessors of ecovillages come on the one hand from spiritual and religious environments, and on the other hand, from countercultural back-to-nature movements of the 1960s and 1970s (Mare, 2000); decades in which an important ecology movement was created, advocating the cultivation of one's own food and the construction of housing far from the urbanite society (Daloz, 2016).

From 1994 onwards, the focus of the movement changes, to be oriented towards the construction of global networks. The Global Ecovillage Network (GEN) is founded, defined as a network coordinated by The Gaia Trust, whose objective was "to support the development of human-sustainable settlements, assist in the exchange of information between different settlements and make information available to all".

At the beginning of the 21st century, the same network has developed the idea of using ecovillages as learning centers, showing the world the possibilities of sustainable living in communities. Thus, concern for training and knowledge sharing have always been at the genesis of this global movement. Many these ecovillages developed from GEN and numerous organizations and community initiatives, but also those that had to close due to lack of funds to grow and consolidate. For all these reasons, the educational aspect was considered important to generate income (Dawson 2006; Mare, 2000) and in 2005 a common educational program was launched for the whole network with the purpose of sharing experiences and knowledge on healthier and more environmentally friendly ways of living.

Recent trends consider teaching as a way of attracting followers to a way of life, reinforcing their own community logic to the extent that they can communicate their ideals and be an example to the outside world. Thus, communities such as Chickenshack created a wide variety of courses, from personal development to "outdoor" proposals and courses on ecological agriculture (Kirby, 2003).

Since the beginning of the 21st century, and in line with the trend of ecovillages towards communication and teaching of their "modus vivendi", different authors define them as "private initiatives" which seek to recover control over community resources, with broad shared values and which act as centers for research, demonstration and, in several cases, training (Dawson, 2009). Under this new definition, ecovillages will be a center of social and ecological innovation (Dawson, 2006) given that, ecovillages also cultivate their socio-cultural dimension, taking an interest in indigenous and traditional cultures, and mastering their crafts, music, customs, and art (Walker, 2005).

More recent studies on ecovillages analyzes it in a more critical, less adaptive, but also much more ambitious perspective. Casey et al. (2020) consider ecovillages as intentional communities in unique contexts and designed to break with traditional models and the Dominant Social Paradigm. These communities create alternative social structures, which is why they can be defined as utopian projects (Cooper and Baer, 2018; Hong and Vicdan, 2015; Meijering, 2012). Furthermore, Litfin (2014) defines the purpose of ecovillages as designing a global innovative portrait of sustainable living for the 21st century because sustainability is no longer an option, but a basic norm for inhabiting our planet.

Nevertheless, some authors are more skeptical about its usefulness. According to Jackson (2004) the ideal ecovillage does not exist, it is only a possible new paradigm of a way of life yet to be developed and achieved. Garden (2006) considers that they do not actively participate or collaborate to promote sustainability outside their environment, they do not lobby international organizations, which seems to imply only a new lifestyle, rather than a change of social paradigm. Further, it does not seem confirmed that they can get rid of most of the problems of global society and achieve their goals, such as coexistence, which is not always easy or satisfactory. Fotopoulos (2006) conclude that the ecovillage movement is too simple and is often dominated by irrational and contradictory philosophies, making it more “part of the problem of the transition to a new society than its solution”, since it can contribute to disorienting people with respect to the causes and possible ways out of the systemic crisis of our society.

4. Ecovillages: development in the global economy

Despite being defined as isolated communities, as “worlds within worlds” (Garden, 2006), some authors admit that ecovillages are too small to escape the gravitational pull of the large global economy (Mare, 2000; Andreas, 2013). Ecovillages, following Litfin (2014), aspire to have a certain degree of independence in their management, but that does not necessarily mean being able to become completely self-sufficient or remain isolated from other communities, as they are connected in social, economic, and political networks. For this reason, ecovillages have sought out active forms of community involvement through organizations such as the Global Ecovillage Network (GEN).

Initially GEN, which is also the largest association of ecovillages, had 25 representatives from communities around the world. It has subsequently split into associations by geographical zones such as GEN Asia and Oceania, ENA (Ecovillage Network of America) and GEN Europe (including Europe, Africa and the Middle East) and maintains important alliances with the United Nations (“Best Practices and Economic and Social Council”). The associative dimension of the movement has multiple connections in all continents, such as the Sardovaya network in Sri Lanka with more than 2,000 ecovillages, the Iberian Ecovillage Network (RIE), the Latin American Ecovillage Network, the Brazilian Association of Alternative Communities (Abrasca) and the Rainbow Network in Chile.

However, it is highly complex to have an updated list of ecovillages on a global scale. The volatility of many of these communities is compounded by the difficulty of classifying what exactly an ecovillage is and what other form of intentional communities does not include. Moreover, the data varies widely based on whether one adopts a more specific definition or a more inclusive and open definition. GEN affiliates can give an approximation, but there are many communities that do not participate in this global network.

The 2021 revision of GEN details 187 ecovillages in the Latin American network (CASA), 103 in Africa (GEN Africa), 170 in Asia and Oceania (GENOA) and 142 in North America (GENNA) and 18 in the Middle East (17 of them in Israel). Kasper (2008) states that it is impossible to know with certainty how many ecovillages exist in the USA alone, let alone worldwide. While Jackson (2004) estimates between 4,000 and 5,000 worldwide and Bates (2003) risks talking about 15,000, all this using a more inclusive definition that also takes into account urban environments.

Meijering (2012) conducted one of the first inventories of ecovillages in Europe, reaching the figure of 473 ecovillages in this continent. The spatial distribution found reflects a large number of communities established in the United Kingdom, Germany, and Northern Europe (395 communities inventoried), relatively few (both in number and proportion) in Southern Europe (64 communities inventoried) and even fewer in Eastern Europe (14 communities inventoried). The dynamism of ecovillages, their small size and different typologies make precise figures difficult to obtain. The latest figure available from GEN counts 357 ecovillages, 89 of them in Spain alone. In its inventory, there are both rural and urban settlements and all kinds of categories (religious communities, indigenous, traditional, eco-farms, shared housing, restoration and transition communities and a long etcetera of modalities and typologies). A very interesting aspect on which to develop studies is precisely to delimit the differences and similarities between all classes.

In Eastern Europe, the scarce presence of ecovillages is attributed to a weaker civic involvement caused by the legacy of the former communist regimes, which did not favor intentional communities (Meijering, 2012). Meanwhile, many of the European communities consider themselves connected to the hippie movements of the 1960s and 1970s, committed to the struggle for equality and elimination of poverty and pacifism. The most common aspect of the communities studied is that their values combine political, environmental, and communal aspects. For the same reason, they have a commitment - tacit or expressed - to a better world and an alternative lifestyle to that of mainstream society. These ways of life are increasingly accepted and appreciated by society (Ray and Anderson, 2000).

5. Methods

The objectives in this study pursued to verify the implementation of sustainable and ecologically regenerative activities in ecovillages, in the case of the Red Iberica de Ecoaldeas (RIE), and the activity of beekeeping as a fundamental activity in this logic, analyzing api-tourism, as an applicable paradigm for the insertion of regenerative activities and more in line with the educational and informative activities of their way of life, as well as the current demand for ecotourism and agritourism.

In terms of methods applied, to examine the key concepts, evolution and categorization of the term "ecovillage" an extensive bibliometric analysis was carried out through the main academic publication databases ("Web of Science", "Scopus" and "Microsoft Academic").

Regarding the empirical framework, the comparative method was applied from the exploitation of secondary sources, and the structural and hypothetical inductive method, using the theoretical framework prior to the study of the case analysis, and a subsequent survey to all the ecovillages of the RIE network to contrast the premises on their functions and actions on sustainable and regenerative development. Surveys were carried out in eleven ecovillages in Spain and Portugal. Questions were aimed at finding out the level of knowledge on api-tourism and beekeeping in general and whether these practices were being practiced in these ecovillages. For the realization of the surveys carried out between the months of September and October 2021, the entire territory of the Iberian Peninsula where these ecovillages are located was taken into account, all of them collected and certified in the RIE, being these locations: - Valencia, Navarra, Huelva, Almería, Seville, Sevilla, León, Cádiz, Portugal, Madrid and Lugo- and were directed to the founding members or leaders of these, although these in turn recommended other new actors having thus, a snowball effect used for approaching individuals and aimed at low incidence populations (Krackhardt, & Porter, 1986).

6. Results

Results on ecovillages are extensive, both strictly academic and in numerous publications by the different ecovillage associations and groups. The number of academic publications on ecovillages has grown both in number of publications and citations, since the 1990s, with the greatest boom in publications on *ecovillages* between 2010 and 2014 and a total of 385 publications and 2178 citations up to September 2021 (Figure 6). Publications in Spanish on the concept "ecovillages" add up 82 academic publications between 2002 and 2021 ("Google Scholar").

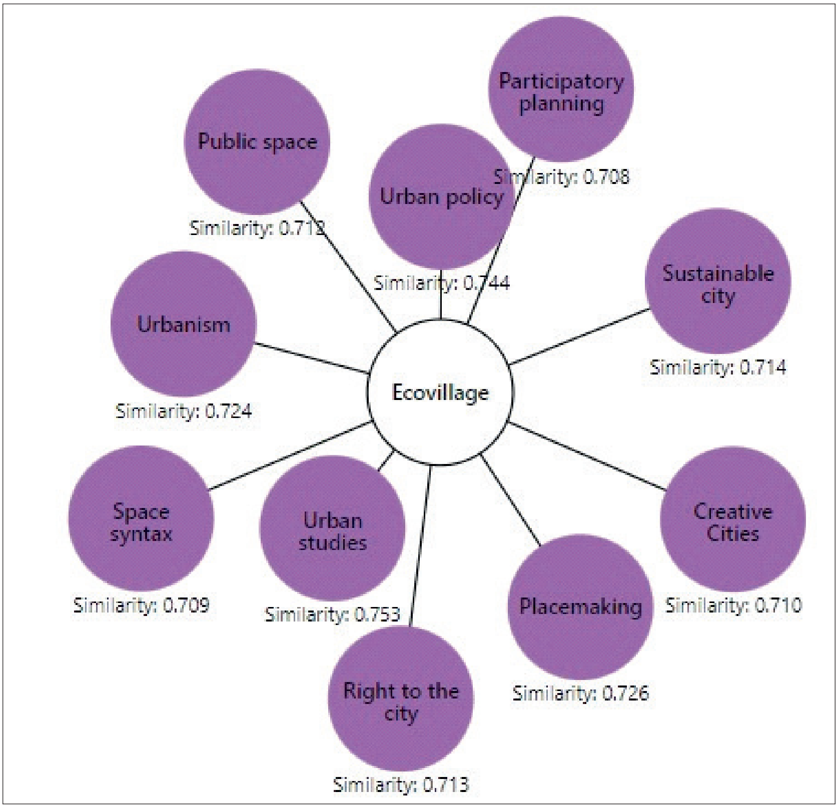
The concepts most directly related to ecovillages are those shown in Figures 2 and 3. A review of all academic publications on the topic through semantic searches in Microsoft Scholar finds frequent significant correlations (above 0.7) with concepts such as "urban studies", "urban policies", "placemaking", "urbanism" and "sustainable city", followed by "right to the city", "public spaces", "creative cities", " spatial syntax" and "participatory planning". In other words, these concepts appear frequently connected with ecovillages in the abstracts and full texts of academic papers and are interchangeable in publications.

Figure 2: Concepts most frequently associated with ecovillages

ECOVILLAGE: RELATED CONCEPTS	
Urban studies	0,753385127
Urban policies	0,74350667
Placemaking	0,726273298
Urbanism	0,723714709
Sustainable city	0,714210451
Right to the city	0,712953329
Public space	0,711986899
Creative Cities	0,710171402
Space Sintax	0,70879364
Participative Planning	0,708182395

Source: Own ellaboration using Microsoft Academic (2021)

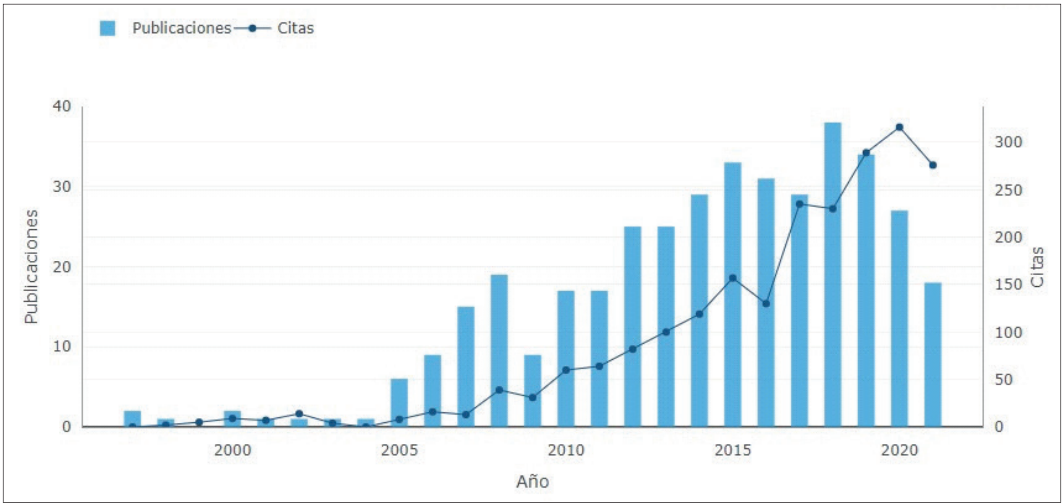
Figure 3: Graphic map of concepts most frequently related to ecovillages



Source: Own ellaboration using Microsoft Academic (2021)

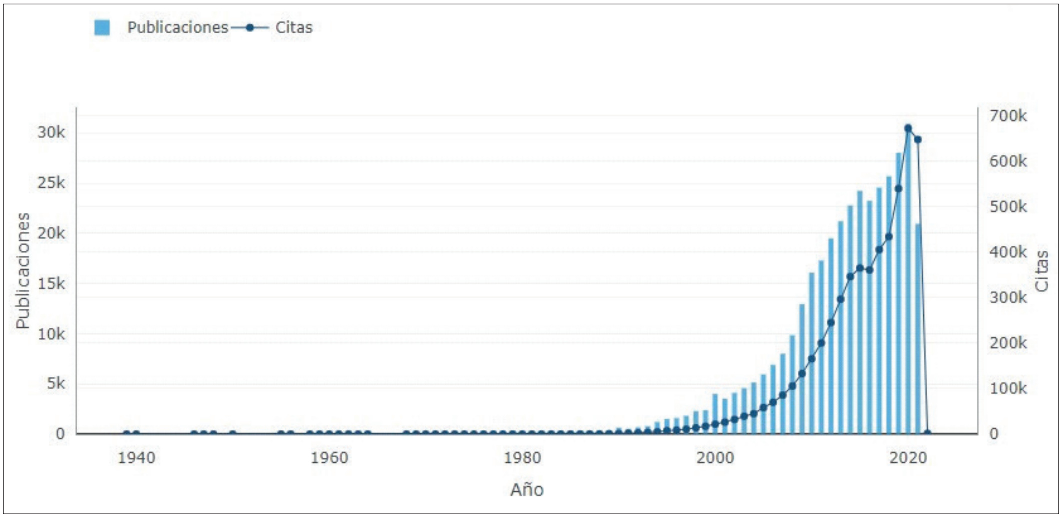
Similarly, when related concepts such as "ecoaldeas" and "ecovillages" area analyzed with the concept of sustainability through the graphs extracted from the number of publications and citations in Microsoft Academic, we can see that academic research on ecovillages (Figure 4) has a similar evolution to that of sustainability (Figure 5), evidently at very different scales. Both academic investigations (ecovillages and sustainability) maintain a growth in the number of publications as well as citations from the 2000s onwards, although the total number of publications on ecovillages / "ecovillage" reaches 390 in 2021 (reviewed on September 4, 2021, in "Microsoft Academic"), with a peak of more than 40 publications in 2018, from which interest in the topic declines. Sustainability research produced over 352,000 publications and continued in 2021 to grow in both, the number of publications and citations (reviewed September 4, 2021, in "Microsoft Academic"). Below graphs show how both concepts have evolved similarly since the 2000s.

Figure 4: Publications and citations about "ecoaldeas" / "ecovillages"



Source: Own ellaboration using Microsoft Academic (2021)

Figure 5: Publications and citations about sustainability in the academic literature



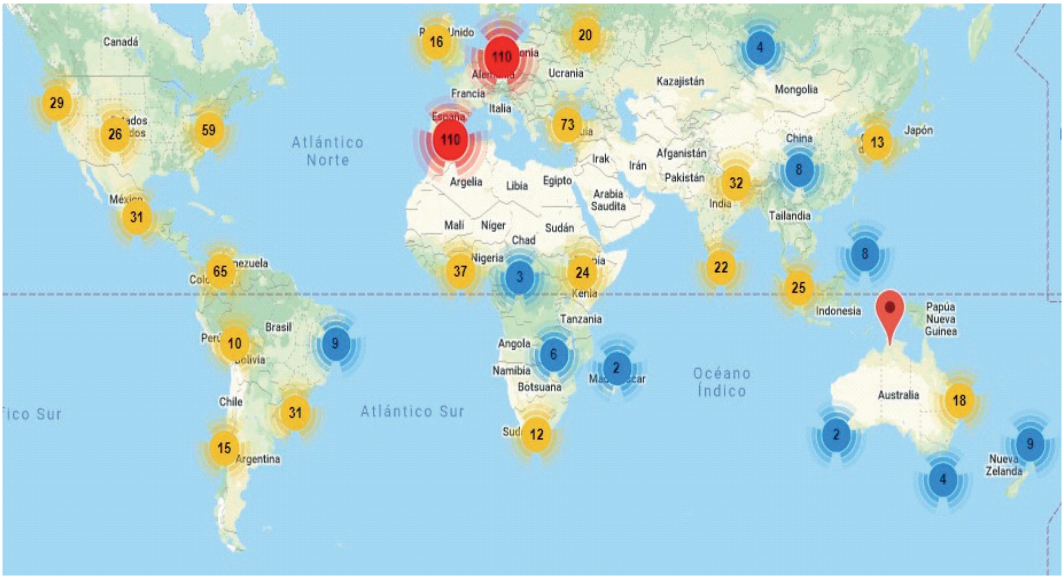
Source: Own ellaboration using Microsoft Academic (2021)

Thus, the literature review confirms that research on ecovillages is still a recent phenomenon. The term “ecovillage”, translated into Spanish as “ecoaldea” began to be used in the 1990s (Wagner, 2012). According to this author, in his bibliometric on ecovillage research, it is not always easy to determine whether a given community is an ecovillage, since the very concept of ecovillage corresponds to a self-naming by the community itself, which may in some cases fit correctly into the parameters shared by the academic community when referring to ecovillage, or it may be a mere intentional community.

It is likely that there might be actual ecovillages not included in the studies and communities that cannot be categorized as such but which are included as so in the research papers. Wagner’s (2012) bibliometric study confirmed the growing interest in the topic, with significant increases in studies since 2000. Most of the existing research uses the case study methodology -therefore qualitative- which makes it more challenging to find complete statistics on the number and categories of existing ecovillages. The author concludes that ecovillages exist all over the world. However, they are more prevalent in industrialized nations influenced by the predominant Western culture. Therefore, there are a significant number of ecovillages in Europe, North America, and Latin America and fewer in Asia, Africa, and Oceania.

In the case of Latin America, ecovillages combine an inspiration based on Western culture with pre-Columbian spiritual values, such as that of “*good living*” and return to mother earth, the concept in indigenous languages of “Sumak Kawsay”, “Suma Qamaña” or “Sumakawsay” (Acosta, 2013; Salamanca and Silva, 2016). Subsequent works do not confirm Wagner’s assertion, since the global networks of ecovillages are extensive in all continents, as can be seen in the updated map in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Ecovillages in the world



Source: Gobal Ecovillage Network (2021)

The bibliometric analysis on api-tourism, was carried out based not only on academic articles but also on other resources such as books, guides and other online academic sources. This review process followed a deductive character where the words “api-tourism” OR “apitourism” OR “beekeeping tourism” AND “tourism” OR “sustainable tourism” and others such as “agritourism” OR “rural” have been introduced in the combination of words from large databases such as WOS, Scopus and Google Scholar. The first filter resulted in more than 67,000 results in several languages, and the filter was narrowed down to the selection found in this article.

In addition to the selection of the definition and categorization of the concept, a pioneering relation was used where the contribution of api-tourism to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) is shown and how this modality of tourism can be one of the most sustainable and regenerative modalities that can be found, being directly related to 15 SDGs.

7. The role of api-tourism activities in agritourism and contribution to the sustainable development goals (SDGS).

Within alternative tourism, agritourism is defined as a tourism activity that involves visiting a farm or agricultural area to learn firsthand what life is like for those engaged in these trades and to act as a catalyst for sustainable development (Pehin et al., 2022). Farms around the world seek to diversify their activities to stimulate their socio-economic conditions (Pehin et al., 2022) and thus bring tourists closer to the rural world.

Among the most popular activities within agritourism are plantation tours (e.g., on coffee or tea plantations), fruit, vegetable, and nut picking, dinners and events on the plantation itself, farm stays and volunteering, and more recently, visits to beehive apiaries. In recent years, visits to beehive apiaries have become one of the most enriching agritourism activities.

In addition, the practice of api-tourism can be closely related to 15 of the set of 17 sustainable development goals of the 2030 agenda:

- *End of Poverty*: There are several studies that allude to the practice of api-tourism as a factor that offers economic diversity (Wos, 2014; Popescu, 2017; Shiffer, 2014, Ghosh et al., 2020; Schouten et al., 2019) helping to build resilient livelihoods for rural communities.
- *Fight Against Hunger:* Pollination is essential for cultivated crop fields (Wratten et al., 2012; Klein et al., 2018). It is an ecosystem service that would be enhanced through the development of beekeeping-tourism projects, and which also improves the nutritional value of fruits, vegetables and seeds (Brockerhoff et al., 2017) thus contributing, to the food security of the planet.
- *Wellness and Healthy Living*: Several authors described how api-tourism, thanks to bees, contributes to *wellness and a healthy living* (Ghosh et al., 2020; Wos, 2014; Spevak, 2012; Lemelin et al., 2019; Shiffler, 2014; Abou-Shaara, 2019) through bee products derived from the hive for spa treatments and apitherapy. Additionally, the products offered by bees are studied in modern medicine to prevent different diseases, including cancer (Pasupuleti, et al., 2017). Even the use of bee venom (apitoxin) has been the subject of debate in the recent SARS-CoV-2 health crisis. (Welburn et al., 2020; Yang, 2020; Männle et al., 2020).
- *Quality Education:* Creative experiences and educational functions are very important aspects in the practice of api-tourism (Wos, 2014; as Arih and Korošec, 2015). Vocational training towards the management and care of bees favors equal employment opportunities, which can be focused on a sustainable tourism model that advocates regional development (Lemelin et al., 2019), training, and entrepreneurship in local communities.
- *Gender equality*: api-tourism promotes equality between women and men in the beekeeping sector (Pocol, 2015)
- *Clean water and sanitation:* Pollination offered by bees drives the regeneration of a great variety of plants and ecosystems, important for the improvement of water quality (Skorbiłowicz et al., 2018; Klein et al., 2018).
- *Clean Energy:* As indicated by Perrot et al., (2018), by improving crop production thanks to bee pollination, the number of oilseeds, used for the creation of biofuels, increases.
- *Decent Work and Economic Growth:* It is stated by (Arih and Korošec, 2015) that beekeeping and tourism practices require intensive labor, generate new jobs, and by bee pollination, agricultural production increases, which provides greater employment opportunities, which, in turn, implies an increase in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of a nation.
- *Industry, innovation, and infrastructure*: bees are elements of nature that often inspire human innovations, for example, in large-scale precise visual navigation elements (Bianco, 2004, Karaboga, 2005). Architecture based on beehives includes the honeycomb tourism accommodation of Honey Village in Mozirje, Slovenia and the creation of the "Artificial Bee Colony Algorithm"- optimization algorithm based on the intelligent honey-seeking behavior of bees (Karaboga, 2005).
- *Reduction of inequalities:* Api-tourism generates direct jobs in rural agritourism lodgings, and indirect jobs in restaurants and complementary offerings, such as stores along the honey routes, especially those concerning the rural world, because according to Schouten et al (2019), the generation of income through beekeeping and tourism improves the living conditions of those with lower incomes and diversifies livelihood opportunities in rural areas, thus reducing inequalities.
- *Sustainable cities and communities:* Thanks to beekeeping, this practice in cities could contribute to the improvement of the air, because of pollination and the increase in urban flora (Lorenz & Stark,

2015). Bees, as argued by Skorbiłowicz et al., (2018), can be important agents in bio-monitoring the natural changes that occur in urban areas as a consequence of anthropogenic activity.

- *Responsible production and consumption*: Honey is a complete, natural, and regenerative food, and tourism of this nature values responsible consumption and non-polluting production (Klatt et al., 2014; Popescu, 2017). Also, the overexploitation of fish can be reduced thanks to the promotion of a diet based on nutrients from plants, and some authors (Klatt et al., 2014; Amjad et al., 2017) relate this to bees, since pollination contributes to reducing food waste by improving the visual aesthetics of food (size, shape, and colors).
- *Climate actions*: point towards the use of bees and their products for environmental monitoring studies to help improve the understanding of climate impacts on honey production (Baez et al., 2019).
- *Life of terrestrial ecosystems of underwater life:* bees potentially contribute to the pollination of aquatic plants, such as the water lily, (Hirthe and Porembski, 2008; Maia et al., 2014, Amjad et al., 2017) and can enhance the plant-based resources commonly found in marine species (Amjad Khan et al., 2017).
- *Life of terrestrial ecosystems:* bees contribute to the planet's biodiversity through the ecosystem service of pollination of trees and plants, as already mentioned, so api-tourism can contribute to the conservation of forests, and in turn support reforestation initiatives (Arih and Korošec, 2015).

Table 2: Contribution of Api-tourism to SDGs

SDG	Authors	Details
1	Popescu, 2017; Wos, 2014; Shiffer, 2014; Ghosh et al. 2020; Schouten et al.,2019.	Api-tourism offers economic diversity helping to build resilient livelihoods for rural communities
2	Wratten et al., 2012; Klein et al., 2018;	Pollination is essential for farm fields ecosystem services and would be increased thanks to the development of beekeeping projects
3	Ghosh et al. 2020; Lemelin et al. 2019; Wos, 2014; Spevak, 2012; Pasupuleti et al., 2017; Welburn et al., Yang, 2020; Männle et al., 2020.	Api-tourism, thanks to bees, contributes to well-being and a healthy life. The products offered by bees are studied in modern medicine to prevent different diseases
4	Arih and Korošec, 2015; Wos, 2014	Creative experiences and educational functions are very important aspects in the practice of api-tourism
5	Pocol and McDonough, 2015	Equality is promoted in the beekeeping sector
6	Wratten et al., 2012; Brockerhoff et al., 2017	Pollination offers the regeneration of a wide variety of plants and ecosystems, important for improving the quality of water
7	Patel et al., 2020	By improving crop production the number of oilseeds, used for the creation of biofuels, is increased
8	Arih and Korošec, 2015	The increase in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is related to the pollination of bees with the improvement of agricultural production.
9	Bianco, 2014; Karaboga, 2005	Bees are elements of nature that often inspire human innovations
10	Schouten et al., 2019	The income generated by beekeeping improves the living conditions of those groups with lower incomes and diversifies livelihood opportunities in rural areas
11	Lorenz y Stark, 2015; Skorbiłowicz et al., 2018	Sustainability increases with the practice of beekeeping in cities
12	Amjad Khan et al., 2017; Klatt et al., 2014	The overexploitation of fish can be reduced by promoting a diet based on plant nutrients pollinated by bees.
13	Baez et al., 2019	Use of bees and their products for environmental monitoring studies
14	Hirthe and Porembski, 2008; Maia et al., 2014; Amjad Khan et al., 2017	Bees potentially contribute to pollination of aquatic plants such as water lilies and enhance plant-based resources commonly found in marine species
15	Arih and Korošec, 2015	Bees contribute to the planet's biodiversity through pollination ecosystem services

Source: Contribution to Api-tourism to SDGs. Authors.

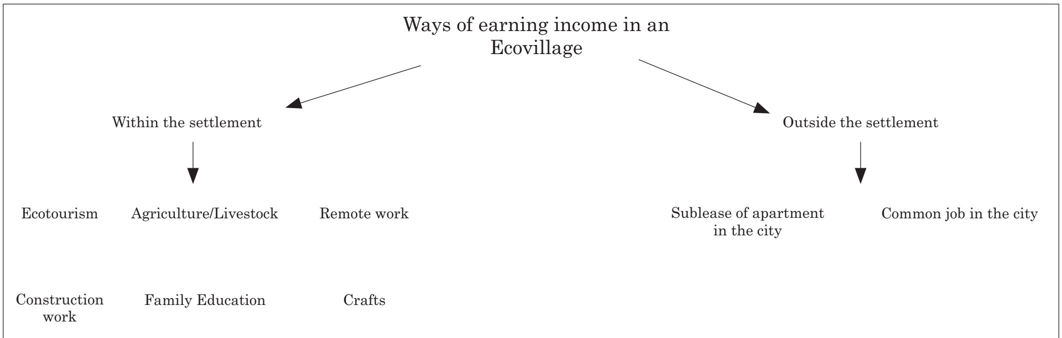
8. Productive activities within ecovillages: the case of the iberian Spanish network (RIE)

Among the usual productive activities in ecovillages: permaculture, agricultural activities, yoga, bio cooking, bioconstruction, beekeeping stands out. The benefits of beekeeping are multiple and have been applied by humans since ancient times, where products such as honey, propolis, and royal jelly stand out. However, as pointed out by Daberkow et al. (2009), this only represents 10% of the benefits offered by these insects, the remaining 90% being based on the ecosystem service of pollination.

Beekeeping is complementary to activities in the tertiary sector, those derived from the commercialization of the bee products, and activities of a tourist nature, in which case it is defined as *api-tourism*. The term api-tourism has been vaguely addressed by academic literature, being Wos (2014) the most cited and who identifies it as a model of sustainable tourism that unites the art of beekeeping and products of the hive with the visitor and which also connects traditional trades at risk of oblivion (Torres et al., 2020). More recently, Porter (2020) defines it as any trip, whether regional, national, or international, with the mere intention of interacting with bees and the culture that surrounds them, either in urban settings or in nature. Visitors will witness *in situ* the handling of a beehive, the different types of honeys that can be obtained, health techniques such as apitherapy, and other uses derived from the beehive and the world of bees. (Spevak, 2012; Wos, 2014).

Thus, beekeeping is an activity that registers a growing interest due to its contribution in the conservation of biodiversity and the environment, and several studies show that ecovillages in different parts of the world carry out the task of introduction and care of hives not only as an economic opportunity, but also as a method to pollinate their food crops and wild plants, in addition to providing them with valuable honey (Brecher, 2013; Rybakova, and Gomanova, 2014; Giulia, Borgo, and Gambazza, , 2017; Moravčíková and Fürjészová, 2018; Grewer and Keck, 2019; Temesgen, 2020; Ulug, Trell, & Horlings, 2021). Bees provide ecovillagers with a source of vitamins and healing materials, as highlithted by Moravčíková and Fürjészová (2018). Moreover, these authors add that it is an important material for the ecovillage's lighting (candles made from beeswax), use of creams and wound treatment, not to mention the pollination it provides to their fruit trees and other plants. As Plotnikova (2018, p. 209) also exposes, Smart Communities include ecotourism practices in rural areas and these are collected in a Strategy and Program for the development of the tourism industry, where in its first clause it includes beekeeping an element within the economic and provisioning activity.

Figure 7: Ways of earning income in an Ecovillage.



Source: Ways of earning income in an Ecovillage by Rybakova and Gomanova (2014).

After analyzing activities related to beekeeping and the world of bees on an international scale within ecovillages, with publications of diverse cases collected in countries such as the United States, Norway, United Kingdom, Ukraine, Russia, France, Germany and Japan, it is detected that, even being the second most important country after the United States in the number of ecovillages, according to a recent study by the academic Renau (2018), and by far the most prominent in Europe, in Spain there are, for the moment, no beekeeping or api-tourism projects in ecovillages. To arrive at this statement, members of the set of ecovillages that make up the Iberian Ecovillage Network (See Table 1) were consulted to analyze the causes more deeply.

Table 1: Characteristics of the ecovillages studied

Table 1. Brief characteristic of the ecovillages studied			Ecovillages Member of Iberian Ecovillages Network (Ecoaldeas.org)						
	Name	**Location**	**Public Email**	**web**	**Year of foundation**	**Accommodation**	**Legal Status**	**Number of members**	**Apiculture as activity**
1.	**Aldea de Olla**	Valencia (Spain)	reciclonstructor@gmail.com	NO	2012	Shared house + 2 houses	Association	6 Adults	NO
2.	**Arterra Bizimodu**	Navarra (Spain)	arterrabizimodu@gmail.com	http://arterrabizimodu.org	2013	Shared house 40beds y 4 chambers	Association	35 Adults 6 children	NO
3.	**Calabacino Alájar**	Huelva (Spain)	elcalabacino@gmail.com	NO	1992	No data available	Association	60 Adultsy 50 children	NO
4.	**Cortijo los Baños**	Almería (Spain)	info@cortijo-al--hamam.com	www.cortijo-al--hamam.com	2000	14 buildings 2 chambers	limited partnership	15 Adults y 1 Child	NO
5.	**Lakabe**	Navarra (Spain)	lakabeko@gmail.com	http://lakabe.org	1992	70 beds 2 chambers	Association	30 Adults 10 Children	NO
6.	**Los Portales**	Sevilla (Spain)	info@losportales.net	www.losportales.net	1984	2 chambers with 32 beds and 3 houses	limited partnership	40 Adults	NO
7.	**Matavenero**	León (Spain)	contacto@matavenero.net	https://matavenero.net/	1989	Shared house and 2 small houses	neighborhood meeting	50 Adults y 200 Children	NO
8.	**Molino de Guadalmesi**	Cadiz (Spain)	info@molinodeguadalmesi.com	www.molinodeguadalmesi.com	2004	25-30 beds in differnet buildings	cooperative and private farm	8 Adults	NO
9.	**Tamera**	Portugal	office@tamera.org	https://www.tamera.org/event-calendar/	1978	Tents, caravans, and some buildings	Association	170 Adults y 30 children	NO
10.	**Valdepiélagos**	Madrid (Spain)	victortorrevaquero@gmail.com	www.ecoaldeavaldepielagos.org	1995	30 houses	cooperative and neighboorhood meeting	60 Adults y 20 children	NO
11	**Proyecto O Couso**	Lugo (Spain)	info@dharana.org	www.proyectocouso.org	2013	Shared house and cabins	Foundation	No info	NO

Source: Ecovillages member of Iberian Ecovillages Network (Ecoaldeas.org) Authors.

Results show that beekeeping is currently not on the list of priorities of these sustainable settlements in Spain. Some cases, such as Molino de Gualdamesi, province of Cadiz, show that they had beehives in the past, but have stopped this practice. Others, such as Los Portales, province of Seville, show their interest in a future beekeeping project. In the case of Proyecto O Couso, there is a great potential since they are in an area where beekeeping is common due to the great melliferous flowering of its surroundings and the intention of its residents is to make it viable in the near future, in fact, they recommend a visit to the nearby Hornachuelos, a town in Cordoba, which already has an advanced beekeeping project. However, it is surprising not to have found greater interest in beekeeping and api-tourism, as activities inserted in the logic of circular and regenerative economy, on the part of the interviewees.

9. Discussion and conclusions

The first more exclusive definitions gave way more inclusive ones that contemplate many more modalities of ecovillages even in urban environments, so that sufficiently delimiting the scope of the research is fundamental and not always simple. The same scholars who pioneered the study of the ecovillage concept have come to consider it in later publications as a way of life difficult to achieve, perhaps utopian for some, but not impossible and although studies on ecovillages are valuable and numerous, the vast majority of them have been conducted from sociology and much less from other disciplines such as urbanism and planning, macro and microeconomics, psychology, anthropology or philosophy, to name but a few of the disciplines that can shed light on its possibilities and challenges. This would allow us to have a much more complete perspective on the possibilities for future development in the medium and long term.

On the other hand, most of the studies analyzed are qualitative, based on field studies and case studies, so there is a clear opportunity and need for quantitative studies to shed light on best practices that can be replicated, also to have metrics that allow adequate analysis and monitoring of the different modalities. Thus, future studies should analyze in greater quantity and quality the similarities and differences between ecovillages in different continents and sustainability practices. Although some authors consider that most of them are not alien to the Western and industrialized way of life -to which they try to be an alternative-, this is not easy to discern through detailed studies of the different cases concentrated in the same areas of the planet.

In their most exclusionary sense, ecovillages break fundamental paradigms of capitalist society such as private property, individualism and the accumulation of wealth in the hands of a few individuals to the detriment of the majority; however, for some authors they are not representative enough to speak of a new paradigm, but rather of an alternative modality within the various currents of ecocentrism and green economy. This last reflection links with the dissertations of recent works that are more critical of this phenomenon and tend to consider it as something residual and alternative, despite the fact that it is a way of life that presents very attractive opportunities in the current context, such as the challenge, in the specific case of Spain.

The growing interest in sustainability has increased studies on ecocentrism and green economy in all its forms. The review of the literature on ecovillages shows the current boom of this topic, which responds to old and new social and environmental concerns, but which would require further updating in terms of their functions and activities, as is the case of beekeeping and api-tourism, to find a greater resonance in which they could find current youth.

As for api-tourism as a business niche within agritourism, it is evidenced here that it is still to be exploited and worth being analyzed. This study has shown the eleven ecovillages belonging to the RIE, and none of which had or has interest in beekeeping. However, it should be noted that during the realization of this work projects of non-federated ecovillages and sustainable settlements were found where at least one of their residents is timidly beginning to show their knowledge of beekeeping to the outside world.

The role of beekeeping activities presents a hopeful future for humanity, since among the many tourism modalities existing today, it is beekeeping the one that possibly contributes the most to the SDGs, and is of academic interest, following Lockyer and Veteto (2015), the study of ecovillages and sustainable settlements as experimental spaces where both quantitative and qualitative methodologies can be used to demonstrate the socio-economic and environmental regenerative development of this type of tourism, both locally and globally.

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Towards a geography of tourism and agrarian initiatives. The case of Lamego and Távora

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Abstract: The agrarian change constitutes for many rural territories an alternative to the existing and traditional forms of production. This fact is particularly evident in areas of less social and economic dynamism, as is the case of Lamego and Távora in the Douro region - north of Portugal. In general terms, this region has witnessed a demographic decline and a reconfiguration of its agrarian economic structure, which used to be highly dependent on wine and fruit (apple) productions. Rural transformation has been supported by local producers and their initiatives, as well as by European and Portuguese agricultural policies. Its main consequences will be presented in this article as a case study.

Keywords: Rural change; Agrarian initiatives; Local development; Lamego and Távora region.

En dirección a una geografía de las iniciativas agrarias y del turismo. El caso de Lamego y Távora

Resumen: El cambio agrario constituye para muchos territorios rurales una alternativa a las formas de producción existentes y tradicionales. Este hecho es particularmente evidente en áreas de menor dinamismo social y económico, como es el caso de Lamego y Távora en la región del Duero - norte de Portugal. En términos generales, esta región ha sido testigo de un declive demográfico y una reconfiguración de su estructura económica agraria, que solía ser muy dependiente de las producciones de vino y frutas (manzana). La transformación rural ha sido apoyada por los productores locales y sus iniciativas, así como por las políticas agrícolas europeas y portuguesas. Sus principales consecuencias serán presentadas en este artículo como un caso de estudio.

Palabras Clave: Cambio rural; Iniciativas agrarias; Desarrollo local; Región de Lamego y Távora

1. Introduction

Currently, there are several challenges facing rural areas. If before their main function was to guarantee the obtaining of agricultural products, today they assume a multiple function, not only economic, they are the guardians of the environmental balance of many areas, they are linked to the usufruct and/or preservation of a rich historical and cultural heritage, so new activities related to tourism are installed there, to name just a few examples. In this regard, see also the opinions that had already been expressed since the end of the 20th century by authors such as Arlindo Cunha (Cunha, 2000) J. Varela, for the Portuguese case (Varela, 1993: 99-104) or Bernard Kayser, André Brun, Jean Cavailhès, Philippe Lacombe (1994), regarding the transformations carried out in rural areas throughout Europe (Kayser, Brun, Cavailhès, Lacombe, 1994).

Authors such as Alberti (Alberti, 2000: 120-157) also exemplify in the European space such different cases as Tuscany in Italy, Barroso in Portugal, or the Grenadine vineyard in Spain. Despite being territorial contexts with distinct characteristics, it is concluded that in each of them, there was a transition from traditional forms of economic organization to modern systems. In these processes, the decisions of local actors were decisive, so that, based on an external stimulus, such as the establishment of a large industrial unit, investment by emigrants returning to their region of origin or the action of rural development programs, if the aforementioned modernization took place[1].

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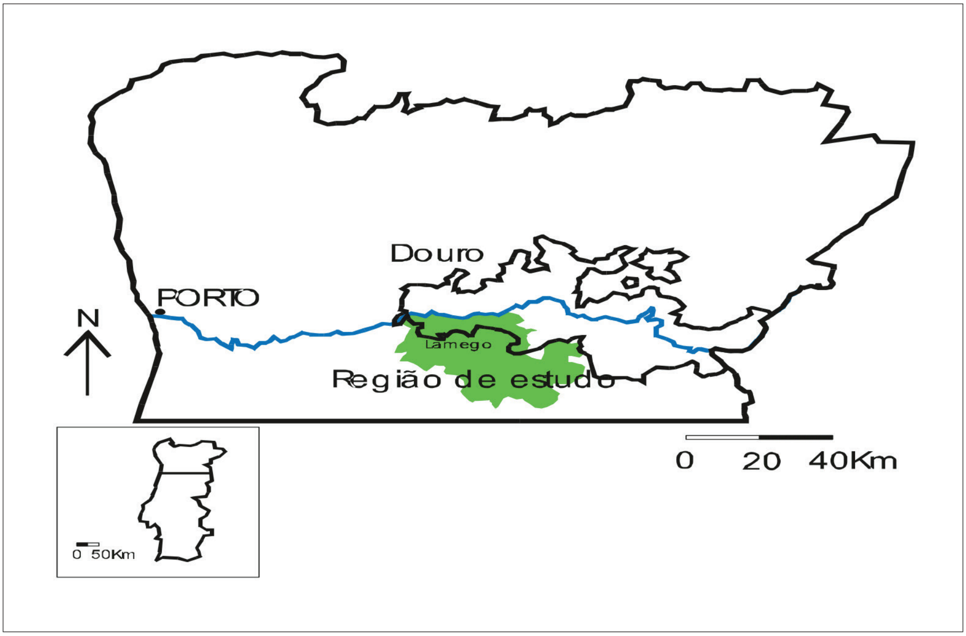
In the present case, it is proposed to analyze a process of agricultural specialization and modernization around the fruit sector and the requalification of viticulture in the small demarcation of Lamego and Távora (maps 1), trying to understand the role of institutional initiatives and small local producers in these transformation dynamics.

Maps 1: Viticulture in the small demarcation of Lamego and Távora



Source: Author's elaboration.

Similar to the conclusions obtained in other works on rural and agrarian development that focused on these themes, the ability to mobilize agricultural producers will be analyzed, concluding that it is from the initiative and innovation demonstrated by fruit and winegrowers that results lead to the progress of this type of rural areas (Mendonça, 2011).

As mentioned initially, the starting point of the theoretical and conceptual discussion began with the analysis of the term "development", first in a generic way and in a second point applied to rural areas and the perception of the multiplicity of transformations that have been taking place there. In this sense, it coincided with a perspective of evolution not only merely economic and social, but promoting the conservation of resources for present and future generations, that is, sustainable. The methodology used includes the analysis of statistical data on the increase in fruit production and the categorization of producers according to their capacity for innovation and transformation of their agricultural units. After this differentiation, an in-depth survey was applied to 40 fruit and vine growers. It was also useful for the consolidation of the methodological matrix and for the definition of the structure of the work, the investigation around the agricultural policies of the Portuguese state, in particular the ones that most interested for the study of the dynamics in Lamego and Távora: apple fruit growing and viticulture.

2. Theoretical framework

After the mid-1980s, the focus of the debate on changes in rural areas shifted from issues of agricultural competitiveness and abandonment of agriculture to the emphasis on diversifying strategies and opportunities (Lourenço, 1985), which implies specific and integrative policies if they want to preserve certain environmental aspects at risk.

Aspects such as health protection, agricultural improvements and the storage of products become priorities. Intervention is also beginning at the level of the fruit and wine production lines.

Currently, there is talk of the need to combat the depopulation of less dynamic rural areas and bring the levels of development between these and the richest regions closer together, appealing to alternatives such as multiple activities or establishing specific policies to support regions where the problems are more severe. Issues such as soil degradation and contamination also become a reason for analysis and discussion (Gonçalves & Mendonça, 2021). The reform of the Structural Funds, through the establishment of selective support measures depending on the type of regions concerned, the reform of the Common Agricultural Policy or the establishment of specific rural development programs are other initiatives. In the case study presented in this text, the role of the main interlocutors that perform and materialize them in the territory will be detailed (technicians and leaders of local authorities, public and private economic agents, agricultural cooperatives, etc.). It will start from an initial hypothesis in which we try to relate the different actors involved, considering their contribution to the decision-making process.

Based on the above consideration, the statistical indicators characterizing the activities carried out within the agricultural holding were complemented by quantitative data but also of qualitative nature, obtained from the local services of the Ministry of Agriculture and regional services of the Financial Institute for Support to the Development of Portuguese Agriculture and in producer associations and cooperatives. This review allowed us to respond to two objectives that we initially set ourselves; that of identifying the role of technical and financial management bodies (public as well as private) insofar as they have provided, together with individual producers, to the ongoing transformations[2].

3. The data

We are in the presence of seven municipalities: Armamar, Lamego, Moimenta da Beira, Penedono, Sernancelhe, Tabuaço and Tarouca, which together cover an area of 1085 Km2, with a total resident population of 71,412 individuals, which is equivalent to a population density of 65.8 inhab./Km2.

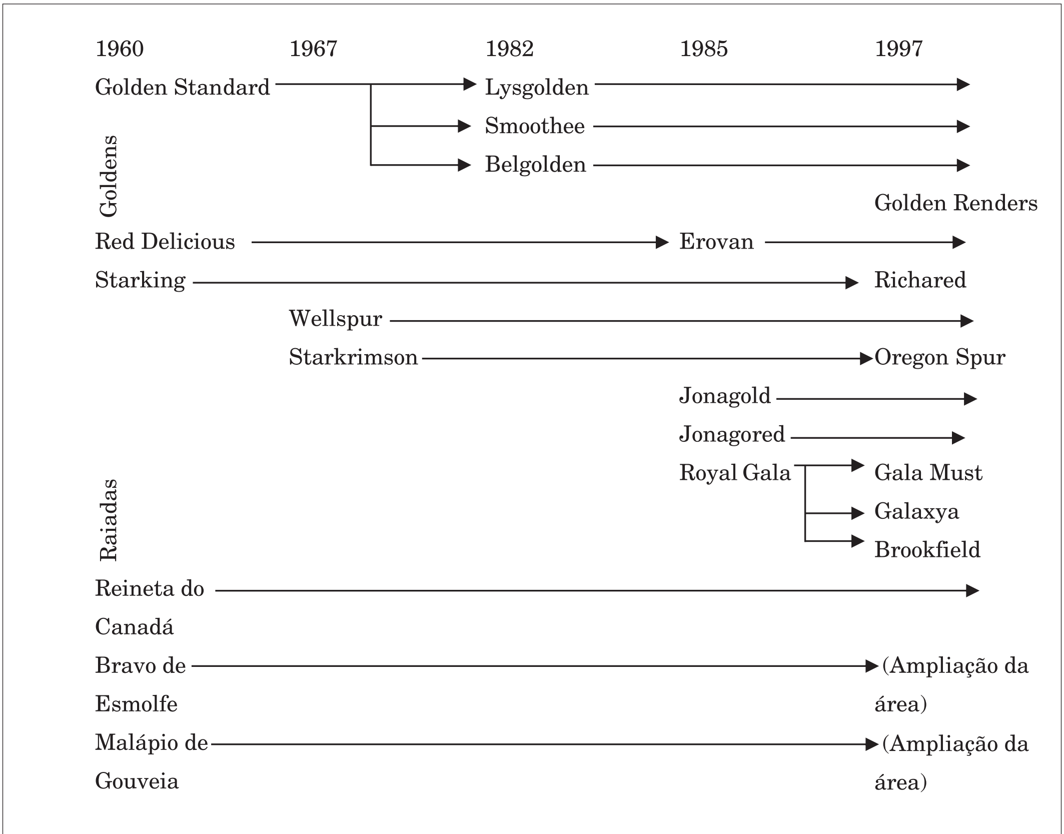
In this area, the predominance of the agrarian economy based on small property is especially clear, although it also includes other forms of economic exploitation of the land, such as those resulting from medium capitalist property in the Demarcated Douro Region. In the specific case of apple fruit growing in Lamego and Távora, it is pertinent to analyze the dynamics of specialization and productive concentration in what in recent decades has been the Portuguese fruit growing region where this production has increased the most.

In the mid-60s of the 20th century, the process of installing and monitoring the industrial orchards in Lamego and Távora was consolidated, with much more assiduous contact between the Ministry's central structure, based in Alcobaça, and the technicians of the V Technical Brigade. This area, despite still having little representation at the time in the context of national production, was beginning to be considered by the leaders of the National Fruit Plans. From that date and until the present, it has not differed from what has been done in terms of technical evolution in Portuguese fruit growing as a whole, in terms of the varieties introduced and the use of rootstocks (image 1).

What happened in this region at the end of the 50's was different: it resulted from the diffusion of the technical principles emanating from Alcobaça and that started from its research and experimentation center for fruit growing. However, if the State showed interest in expanding the area of fruit production in different regions of the country, something that had already been happening since the Fruit Development Plans of the 1930s, something more than technical decentralization was needed from the decision-making center in Lisbon, so that rationalized fruit farming could be implemented in this region. The intervention of a landowner in the region was decisive for the State to include this area in its plan to expand national orchards. That leader was the Count of Alpedrinha, D. Francisco Manuel de Vilhena[3].

In our opinion, this cooperative effort had two consequences that interfered and still interfere with the effectiveness and profitability of these organizational structures. The examples that we had the opportunity to get to know in the four municipalities studied made it possible to evidence, from interviews with managers and technicians, as well as with some of the members and by comparing the various cooperatives, the following aspects: they are structures whose implementation followed a logic of municipal dimension, not always the most recommendable from a financial and technical point of view, but which resulted from national guidelines. The technical and human equipment and the creation of structures for the elaboration and bottling of wines was a slow process and to which satisfactory levels of feasibility and even endowment did not always correspond. Later, the same happened with fruit, since in the area not exclusively wine-growing, some cooperatives began, in the 1970s/80s, to also integrate these products into their transformation and marketing chains. As an obstacle to this process, there is the overlapping of individual structures in terms of commerce, since many producers have their own cold rooms and their own sales outlets. After the previous phase, some other associative bodies have also emerged with the vocation of providing technical support to fruit and wine-growing farms.

Image 1: Synthesis of the evolution of the varieties of the Lamego and Távora orchards



Source: Interviews with technicians from agricultural areas (own elaboration).

Methodologically, we chose to consider two selection factors: to establish which owners of farms would be the target of the in-depth interview without having their own cold storage facilities and those who did.

Using the methodology of content analysis, a description was made of the different strategies and decision-making processes that have interfered in the dynamics undertaken by the various agricultural producers. It will be seen below that in most cases the dedication to agriculture followed a family bond, sometimes of several generations, but the transition from the traditional crops of the region (potatoes, cereals and cattle raising) to monoculture of orchards resulted from the influence of certain local leaders.

In addition to the individual initiative component that was just analyzed above, there was an institutional and legislative change (image 3) that also interfered in the agrarian development process. It is important to discuss our results. We have already seen that the average size of agricultural holdings is still far from an ideal situation. We will see below that this atomization is repeated in the technical and commercial support structure.

The transition from a situation of an internal, protected and closed market, with direct subsidies (trees from official nurseries) and mandatory technical support, when linked to the subsidy system, to another, in which external competition is very intense and in which the apple production sector is only subsidized indirectly, is mentioned by several producers as one of the reasons for the current difficulties. In the 60s and 70s of the 20th century, many producers became rich with their orchards. It is important to remember that there was a period of intense expansion of the internal market, with the growth of urbanization rates in the country, the emergence of a middle class that started to buy fruit daily, due to changes in food consumption habits and an increase in the power of purchase.

On the other hand, in the case of wine, the emergence of individual producers-bottlers, holders of medium-sized properties, even if it includes some of the cooperative wineries that are registered in this typology, did not call into question the hegemony of the exporters in the commercialization of Port Wine, since they dominate around 98% of the business. In terms of the domestic market, producer-bottlers still manage to have some representation (for the year 2002 they represented around 7% of the volume of wine sold) and their importance for exports is notoriously small.

Another theme is that of heritage, related to viticulture, as wine is beginning to stand out in the promotion strategies carried out by farms and by producers and traders. Old mills and wine production instruments have been recovered, using them in certain harvests, to which a special character is attributed, for example, mentioning this aspect on the label itself. Images or drawings of the traditional terraces of the Douro also appear frequently on the bottles. All these aspects can be differentiators in a wine market, where its promotion characteristics tend to be increasingly standardized. The Douro must continue to explore these aspects of landscape differentiation. Only in this way will producers be able to compensate, at least in part, for the higher production costs, as they are located in a mountain wine-growing area.

Image 2: Summary of reform measures in the fruit sector – major steps in the apple sector

20's Creation of the Alcobaça Orchards Reconstitution Board in 1921 30's, 40's and 50's Fruit Campaign First measures to rationalize production came up against the lack of modern orchards in the country 60's and 70's Technical reformism and financial incentives for "economically viable" farms Resizing of sales structures 80's and 90's Absence of specific measures under the Fruit and Vegetables Common Policies for the apple production The use of indirect support measures

Source: Own elaboration.

Subsequent studies carried out by technicians assigned to work in Lamego and Távora in the fruit sector showed how not only planting practices are changed, but also the varieties planted. Up until then, the tall trees (free standing) were subject to small interventions in terms of pruning, thus developing considerably. Regional varieties predominated, with a repertoire from the early 1960s pointing to the existence of 23 varieties. As an alternative, during this first experience, it is suggested to maintain the "Bravo de Esmolfe" variety and to introduce "Reineta" from Canada and Starking. In smaller quantities, Golden Delicious and Winterbanana were planted. In the first few years, the income obtained was considerable, to the point that technicians from Alcobaça paid a visit to the orchard to see the results obtained.

In a short time, the first placements were made on the Porto market, through buyers who came to see the orchard while it was still in flower. The sale therefore took place at the tree, the health costs being borne equally by the buyer. To avoid the hottest period and as the trip took a long time, it had to be carried out at night. The apples followed the road, packed in wicker "baskets" and wooden boxes. The commercial success, at first generating distrust on the part of the remaining farmers in Armamar, quickly led them to consider fruit growing as an alternative to their meager income.

It should be noted, however, that the performance of the technical services at that stage was carried out on a voluntary basis by the fruit growers. Only the most educated and informed normally had the initiative to seek help.

The technicians often felt that the new teachings clashed with the established practices, especially those referring to the degree of intensification of planting, spacing and ways of driving the trees. Parallel to technical advice, the Brigades employees had another important function: they provided professional training to pruner candidates and courses for plant sanitary treatments.

4. Tourism in Távora-Varosa

This group of counties, all of them marked by a strong presence of the agricultural economy, had for centuries coalesced around the city of Lamego, whose importance derives from the fact that it is the seat of the Bishop. In addition of being known for its historical legacy, related to the ecclesiastical function, it is the testimony of several periods of evolution of the wine region. In the 16th century, Douro wines were still known by the designation of "Wines of Lamego".

The city also stands out for its monumental component, particularly from the medieval period (Castelo, Sé), and for the 18th century emblazoned houses. Around the city, in several municipalities already mentioned, the testimonies of the historical past are also significant, with special emphasis on the Cistercian convents of S. João de Tarouca and Salzedas, Ponte de Ucanha in Tarouca and S. Pedro das Águias in Tabuaço There are also numerous traces of Romanization and even of earlier times. In order to boost the tourist use of this heritage, four medieval routes were established on the initiative of the Commercial and Industrial Association of Lamego and the Douro Sul Valley, with these municipalities included in three of them. The other component is the wine tourism routes, such as the Port Wine/ Douro and the Távora-Varosa Region one.

Table 1: Tourism exploitation in the Douro region

Theme	Forms of tourist exploitation
Nature	"Active tourism" (BTT routes, mountaineering, hiking...); Observation trails in the Douro International Natural Park
Wine	Viticulture Port wine route (winetourism); Távora-Varosa wine route
Culture	Popular culture Festivals and pilgrimages; Handicraft fairs and shows
High Culture	High Culture Meetings "Casa de Mateus"; Silver Biennial; Cultural routes (Medieval...)
Museums	Museum of Lamego; Port Wine Museum- Régua; Museum of Côa
Others	Other Congresses, Conventions; Meetings (Old cars...) "Almond trees in bloom"; Sport internships (river activities)
Exploring	Exploring Gastronomy; Routes of popular architecture and ethnography
Developing	Bird sightseeing; Routes of popular architecture and ethnography

Source: The author.

Authors such as Carminda Cavaco use the expression "light tourism" (Cavaco, 1996) to designate tourist activity based on quality and specificity (Cavaco, 1999), namely by the type of accommodation and food, human relations and personalized treatment, aspects that the Douro, in general, and this area in particular, can offer, in opposition to the typical forms of reception of the areas of greater affluence .

The tourist exploitation of the Douro region can also be developed through different types of thematic tourism services and products (table 1).

On the other hand, as mentioned by Cravidão and Cunha (Cravidão, & Cunha, 1993), it is necessary to avoid crossing load thresholds that jeopardize the survival of tourism. In this sense, initiatives such as the classification of the Douro as a world heritage site are essential.

Another aspect that we seek to highlight, concerns cultural practices. Two ways of materializing this happy union between tourism and the maintenance of traditional local knowledge can be mentioned: the constitution of thematic routes (Gonçalves, 2018) around the monumental and ethnographic heritage, or in the case of the Demarcated Region, the one related to the dissemination of wine producing activities, especially those that concern ancestral practices, but also, through demonstrative processes of more modern practices (Gonçalves, 2018). From all that has been said, the contribution of tourism to the establishment of a population that might otherwise tend to leave the Douro.

5. Conclusions

This work focused on the agricultural reformism of a small territory near the Douro Valley – Lamego and Távora. The theoretical framework perspective was divided into two items. The first

sought to discuss the main lines that guided the transformations of the European countryside. The second developed in more depth Portuguese agricultural reformism from the end of the 19th century to the present.

It is in this context that the transition from an eminently internal, protected and closed fruit market took place to an open market subject to very strong external competition, upon accession to the European Economic Community in 1986. Direct subsidies, even in small amounts (namely those referring to agro-environmental measures), in a fruit sector that has not been intervened, but in which the principles of technical, logistical and promotional rationalization have allowed the creation of a new typology of exploitation. Previously, the initiative was practically limited to farmers linked to the guilds, generally landowners with greater capacity to obtain specific training and information, currently with the introduction of new principles of productive rationalization, seed selection, improvement of fruit conservation processes (first networks of cold) and the establishment of their own marketing mechanisms, make it possible to lower unit production costs. Greater external competition did not exclude a significant increase in national production, particularly in the case of the production of the national variety “rocha” pear and apples.

Since the 1980s, the area of fruit production has been expanding, not only in terms of the total area, but also giving rise to a growing specialization, intensification and concentration of production. A smaller number of farms and an increase in the average area of farms have occurred not only in the parishes of fruit specialization, but also in the mountain area, where other cultures and livestock and cereal farming continue to be dominant.

The most recent Common Agricultural Policy reforms, namely those following the 2003 one, seem to be able to better address the specificities of our agriculture in general and of Lamego and Távora in particular. Portugal adapts in a particularly advantageous way to a regional agricultural production specialization based on obtaining products of geographical origin and with moderately intensive production levels.

The application document of the region to world heritage, points out the importance of wine-growing landscapes, as being able to integrate this interactivity between man and nature. We can say that the contribution of the classification is relevant and can play an important role in the maintenance of the population and in the economic and social valorization of the region. Since this is an area characterized as depressed in economic and social terms, tourism must be an integral part of the process of diversifying the economic base and be closely linked to the viability of viticulture itself.

Finally, it is concluded that we are facing a dynamic in which tradition and innovation, national agricultural policies, but also the influence of local leaders were combined. The future of this region has been defined through the territory and its agents.

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Notes

1 The great diversity of case studies marks a new stage in the approach of this type of dynamics, which is no longer exclusively applicable to the formation of industrial districts, but may refer to agriculture, tourism promotion, etc.

2 There are not many references about the profile of the fruit-growing investor. One of the few works in this sense is that of Lourenço and Rodrigo (Lourenço and Rodrigo, 1985) on fruit development in the district of Guarda. Through an exhaustive survey of the social groups involved in the process, the authors argue that the intensification of fruit growing in this specific case was not limited to state action. The similarities with Lamego and Távora are evident.

3 For the reconstitution of this history, information was provided by the relatives of this precursor of the introduction of fruit farming in the region and who are currently the descendants and owners of the largest farm in the parish of "Gojim" – "Armamar" (27 ha). Dialogues with his last caretaker were also useful, especially with regard to the commercial procedures adopted in the period of start-up of rationalized fruit growing. Another contribution, possibly even the most enriching, resulted from a lengthy visit to the Professional Agricultural School of Lamego. The conversation with its director proved to be extremely enlightening, as he was one of the first technical elements of the then Ministry of Agriculture to intervene in this initial period.

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Customer Perceptions and Strategies for Rural Tourism Accommodation

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Abstract: It is very important to highlight the understanding of the business consequences of online consumer reviews, online visibility, presence expertise of businesses, number of accommodations, market intelligence, and management response. The authors gathered data on rural tourism establishments (RTA) from a website leading infomediary for rural tourism, related to 235 French RTAs. The performance of RTAs and market intelligence was provided by complementary survey. The results of the study show how consumers position RTAs based on their positive perceptions help managers to understand what leads the consumer to position the RTA and which characteristics are most relevant. The implications of this study are for both tourism specialists and RTA managers who, in their pursuit of success, attempt to track and assess the real connections between the RTA's specific consumer positioning based on their insights, provided in the online review comments, defined business strategy, and management behavioral competencies.

Keywords: Online reviews; Market intelligence; Online visibility; Management response; Business performance; Accommodation; Services; Tourism; Strategies.

Percepciones del Cliente y Estrategias para Alojamientos de Turismo Rural

Resumen: Es muy importante destacar la comprensión de las consecuencias comerciales de las opiniones de los consumidores en línea, la visibilidad en línea, la experiencia de presencia de las empresas, la cantidad de alojamientos, la inteligencia de mercado y la respuesta de la gerencia. Los autores recopilaron datos sobre establecimientos de turismo rural (RTA) de un sitio web líder en infomediación para el turismo rural, relacionado con 235 RTA franceses. El desempeño de los RTA y la inteligencia de mercado fue proporcionado por una encuesta complementaria. Los resultados del estudio muestran cómo los consumidores posicionan los RTA en función de sus percepciones positivas y ayudan a los gerentes a comprender qué lleva al consumidor a posicionar el RTA y qué características son más relevantes. Las implicaciones de este estudio son tanto para los especialistas en turismo como para los gerentes de RTA que, en su búsqueda del éxito, intentan rastrear y evaluar las conexiones reales entre el posicionamiento específico del consumidor de RTA en función de sus conocimientos, proporcionados en los comentarios de revisión en línea, la estrategia comercial definida y competencias conductuales de gestión.

Palabras Clave: Reseñas en línea; Inteligencia de mercado; Visibilidad en línea; Respuesta de la gerencia; Negocios actuación; Alojamiento; Servicios; Turismo; Estrategias.

1. Introduction

Hospitality experiences have an impact far beyond the end of the stay. Nowadays, guests share their experiences on social media, as well as recommend them to those closest to them. Readers trust and use online consumer reviews to reduce high-risk awareness of the services they liked to buy (Su et al., 2021; Tran, 2020). The potential consumer's choice will depend on the perceived usefulness of the product to meet their particular needs and preferences. What drives consumer choice is their perception of how well the product will satisfy a given need.

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While extensive research has covered online customer feedback about products (Barnesa & Jacobsen, 2014; Reichelt et al., 2014) and services (Litvin & Hoffman, 2012; Melo, 2020; Melo et al., 2017; Nieto et al., 2014), online review studies on RTA still remain relatively scarce. A deeper understanding of customer impact feedback would be of great value to businesses in this sector (Hernández-Maestro, 2020; Melo, 2020; Melo et al., 2017; Nieto et al., 2014).

The service experience and its concept have become one of the main references for the study of consumer decision making (Carbone & Haeckel, 1994; Gruen et al., 2006; Larsen, 2007), increasing the number of investigators dedicated to figuring out how to gather valuable information from it. Consumers' service experience is defined in their ratings and comments after using a good or service. Consumer reviews are one of the main sources of information about goods and services for potential consumers, as they are a rich source of information from their peers (Dellarocas, 2003; Kim et al., 2017; Man Yee et al., 2009). Customer reviews help to increase the credibility of a good or service, as such, promoting them will help businesses to be more competitive, influencing other consumers in their decision-making. (Bickart & Schindler, 2001; Hennig-Thurau & Walsh, 2003; Zhang, Z. et al., 2016). This customer feedback from the RTAs allows management, through a detailed analysis of the benefits perceived by the customer, to focus on the customer by identifying the actions necessary to improve the performance of their business (Day, E. et al., 1988). This kind of customer-focused approach has the advantage of examining the full range of competitive options in light of customers' most important wants, needs, and perceptions (Day, E. et al., 1988).

With this study the authors try: To (1) identify customers' perception of RTAs' positioning based on the volume of positive online reviews and their characteristics, and (2) analyze the impact of business results, the accommodation business strategy and the behavioral skills of management in the positive volume of online reviews, the authors collected information from the RTAs registered on the rural tourism infomediator site Toprural, owned by HomeAway Spain, SL. To collect data on the business performance of each RTA in the sample, the authors conducted a survey. The results of this study help to fill the research gap regarding the positioning and segmentation of RTAs based on their characteristics, management strategy and online reviews of their customers; they also respond to requests from the management of the RTAs for information on their competitive position from the customers' point of view. The model proposed by the authors includes customer variables (number of online reviews), business variables (online visibility, online presence expertise, number of managed accommodations), management behavior variables (market intelligence and managerial response), and business performance variables.

The next section addresses reviewing the conceptual background and further developing the conceptual model and research hypotheses. Followed by arguments about the data and model estimation. Then, in the last section, the results of the study and respective discussion, theoretical and practical implications, recommendations for researchers and professionals, and limitations are presented.

2. Conceptual background and research hypotheses

2.1. Literature review

2.1.1. Market positioning

One of the main concepts of marketing is that of market positioning, "the place that a brand occupies in the mind of its target audience"(Ries & Trout, 1985). Positioning is the comparative perception of a product category in relation to another substitute or complementary category by a specific target audience. As a perception, positioning is subjective, it is formed from a point of reference, comparison, and by a specific audience.

The image or consumer perception is a mental representation of the perceived attributes and benefits of the product. A particular perception or image depends on the relevance of the attributes for the consumer, on his own experience, on his degree of need and desire, and on what the consumer understands from what he is told (communication) and what he receives (service).

Nowadays, with the arrival of the internet, there is an intense exchange of information creating an online visibility (reputation) that is the basis for the purchase decisions of most consumers (Therkelsen, 2003). This internet image of accommodation is a critical factor for its competitive positioning (Hoare & Bock, 2019; Reyes-Menendez et al., 2019; Rodríguez-Díaz et al., 2019; Yacouel & Fleischer, 2012). Especially in this context in which we live with increasingly informed, discerning, and demanding consumers, RTA managers cannot underestimate the importance of consumer choices, preferences, and requirements (Dryglas & Różycki, 2017).

Segmentation is an effective tool that can help businesses identify and classify customers into groups for different products and/or service offerings, according to their particular needs and preferences, characteristics, perceptions or behaviors (Ahani et al., 2019a; Day, G.S. & Wensley, 1988; Liu, J. et al., 2019; McCleary, 1995). Therefore, allowing to increase customer satisfaction and company revenues (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010; Kucukusta & Denizci Guillet, 2016).

Given the continued growth in the amount of social media information, online ratings and comments represent a rich source of feedback on consumer perceptions of the services provided (Ahani et al., 2019a; Rodríguez-Díaz et al., 2017).

More and more businesses have to acquire and use the knowledge of what is important to the consumer to achieve an effective market positioning. The subjective positioning of the accommodation, related to the consumer's mental processes, is his/her perceived image of the respective accommodation (Lewis, 1990).

2.1.2. Online reviews

The study of consumer perception of, in particular, the circumstances of tourism and hotel operations, such as service satisfaction and quality, through consumer feedback, online reviews, has been a success (Ahani et al., 2019b; Au et al., 2009; Lucini et al., 2020; Melo et al., 2017; Mittra & Khamkar, 2021; Racherla et al., 2013; Situmeang et al., 2020; Ye, Qiang et al., 2014), destination image and reputation (Lim et al., 2012; Lv et al., 2020; Reyes-Menendez et al., 2019; Rodríguez--Díaz et al., 2019; Su et al., 2021), experiences and behavior (Capriello et al., 2013; Crotts et al., 2009; Rocklage & Fazio, 2020), eWOM (Lee, H.A. et al., 2011; Melo et al., 2017; Nath et al., 2018; Rosario et al., 2020), and tourists´ willingness to pay (Nieto-García et al., 2017). Consumers seek information about the services, from their provider and from their consumers, due to the high uncertainty regarding the potential quality of the service and, respective, difficulty in its evaluation. (Filieri et al., 2018; Mittra & Khamkar, 2021; Murray & Schlacter, 1990; Thi et al., 2021). Online reviews are key indicators, and clues, of perceived satisfaction with service quality (Melo et al., 2017; Mittra & Khamkar, 2021; Racherla et al., 2013), develop expectations regarding a potential service provider (Nath et al., 2018), and present opportunities to obtain current information on tourist perceptions, travel patterns, and how tourists "consume" hospitality industry offerings. Online reviews help consumers form their expectations of a successful experience, they are a relevant guide helping to make purchasing decisions (Fagerstrøm et al., 2016; Khan et al., 2022; Tran, 2020; Wen et al., 2021). The content, source, and receiver of information are important influences on consumer information (Cheung & Thadani, 2012; Hong et al., 2017). The initial interaction theory or uncertainty reduction theory, affirms the notion that when interacting with other people, in order to reduce uncertainty, they need information about other people (Berger & Calabrese, 1975; Gursoy, 2019). Currently, RTA managers may be more apt to embrace two-way communication strategies with viewpoints that promote online reciprocity with the customer, strengthening their relationship with them (Shin, D. et al., 2014; Shin, H. et al., 2020). Positive online reviews act as signals, raising readers' awareness and improving their confidence and attitudes. Consequently, online reviews improve the company's reputation, allowing for increased bookings and profitability. (Chen et al., 2008; Melo et al., 2017; Sweeney et al., 2012; Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009; Yacouel & Fleischer, 2011; Ye, Q. et al., 2009).

2.1.3. Strategic RTA business variables

RTA managers are conscious that consumers' assessment of their experiences with the stay are dependent on their past expectations related to perceptions of the service received (Nath et al., 2018; Pai et al., 2013; Vijayakumar et al., 2021). Consumer satisfaction has been defined in the literature as a post-consumption assessment measured whether the chosen option exceeds or equals expectations (Palacio & Martín-Santana, 2004; Prayag et al., 2017). And that customer rating of an experience impacts customer satisfaction and, by extension, online word of mouth (Bleier et al., 2019; Lemon & Verhoef, 2016; Melo, 2020).

Online reviews define expectations (Hernández-Estárico et al., 2012; Mudambi & Schuff, 2010; Vijayakumar et al., 2021). Currently, organizations do not control the information disclosed on the Internet. Therefore, they need to develop better tools that are dynamic and allow, through the implementation of adequate measures applied to the main business variables for clients and organizations, to create the best image of the services offered. (Pantelidis, 2010; Ryu & Han, 2010; Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009; Zhang, Z. et al., 2010).

2.1.3.1. Online visibility

The competitive positioning of RTAs can be determined by the large number of clues, both quantitative and qualitative provided by tourists and managers (Ahmed & Rodríguez-Díaz, 2020; Rodríguez-Díaz et al., 2017). If the information collected in specialized databases about accommodation offers, composed of a series of assessments, opinions, videos, or images about the goods or services, is analyzed by each reader as a whole, it generates perceptions that produce a state of opinion that shapes the competitive positioning of the hotel businesses. Currently, the performance of businesses and tourist destinations fundamentally depends on their public image perceived by online visibility.

2.1.3.2. Online presence expertise

Business performance is promoted through training and work experience with the acquisition of management knowledge and skills as an essential resource (Beck & Wiersema, 2013; Bitencourt et al., 2020; Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005). Dynamic capabilities are defined as a set of processes, such as repeated practice that are an important learning mechanism for their development, help people understand processes more deeply by developing more effective routines (Eisenhardt & Martin, 2000).

2.1.3.3. Number of accommodations

Dimension is an important characteristic of hotels is their size and, due to economies of scale, it can be an important potential competitive advantage (Baber, 2015; Sirianni et al., 2013). The interaction between people is favored by belonging to a group, allowing the sharing of experiences, the development of valuable relationships and work towards a common goal that is enjoyable to achieve. In hospitality services, customer-customer interactivity is an integral part of the service experience, reflecting a specific social activity in the consumer's life, creating memories that will be later told as unforgettable episodes. (Camelis et al., 2013; van Doorn et al., 2010; Zgolli & Zaiem, 2017). When customers share feelings of friendship, affection and intimacy with employees, it arouses positive emotions in consumers and escalate their desire to extend their remain at the service location (Goi et al., 2014; Price & Arnould, 1999; Xu, 2020).

2.1.4. Management competencies

When businesses are small, the role of management is vital, as the management of businesses with few employees is carried out directly. As such, the influence of management on RTAs is decisive, since most of them are managed by private individuals (Kalleberg & Leicht, 1991). RTAs, like SMEs that they are, work around the personality of an individual manager, who interacts directly with the consumer, with the ability to innovate and deliver superior value to the consumer (Hills & Hultman, 2011; Roach et al., 2014; Sadiku-Dushi et al., 2019). To obtain a sustainable competitive advantage, managers must have management competencies in order to be more attentive to environmental conditions to increase their ability to adapt their internal resources (Sánchez, 2012). Probably the main source of essential resources that impact business results is the set of competencies, experience and management know-how, according to human capital theory (Pennings et al., 1998). Performance has been linked to the collection and generation, and further use of market intelligence and human capital (Gimeno et al., 1997).

2.1.4.1. Market intelligence

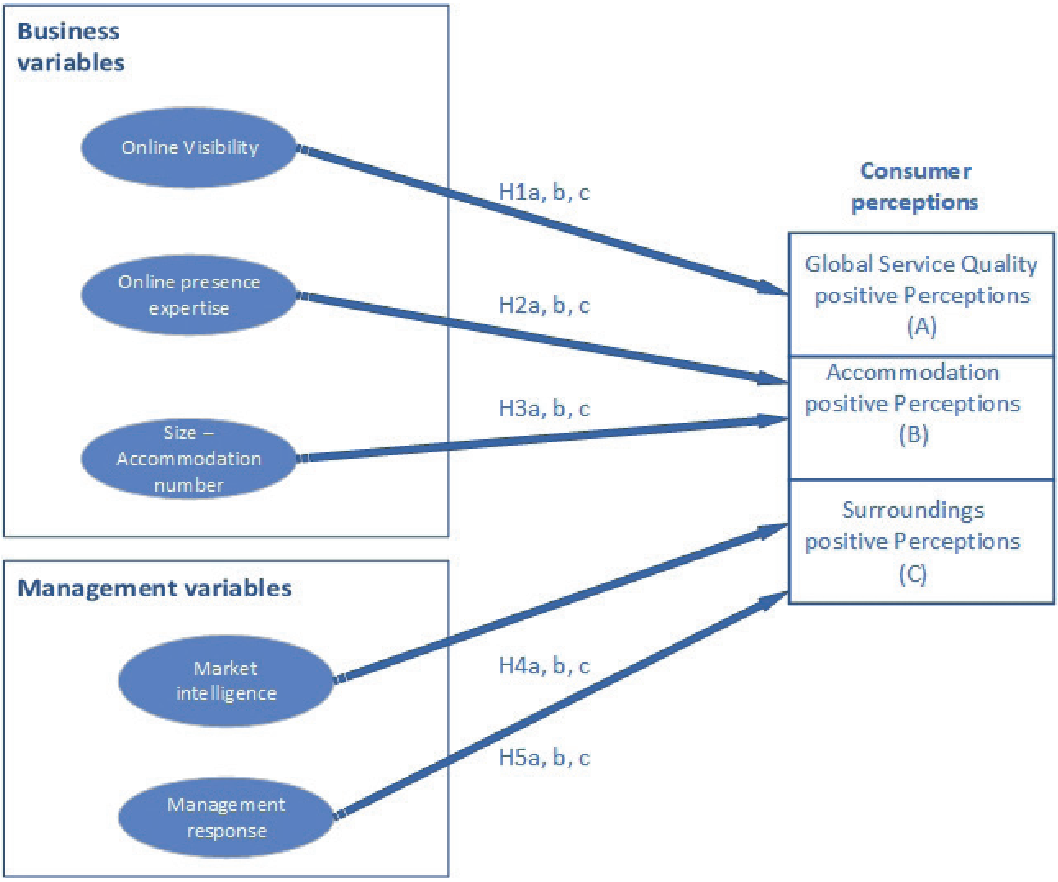
Hospitality managers, with increasing competitiveness, must be able to develop greater customer orientation in order to sustain better satisfaction of customer predilections and needs to attain their business performance objectives (Khorsand et al., 2020; Lee, Y.-K. et al., 2015; Wang, C.-H. et al., 2012). When managers rely on knowledge derived from customer and competitor reviews, their effort to create and maintain added value for their customers is rewarded with a performance that is more alert to business opportunities (Gebhardt et al., 2019; Kandemir et al., 2006; Liu, C.-H. & Lee, 2015; Lorentz et al., 2020). Businesses must constantly be aware of markets, scanning, researching, and analyzing them to identify and shape opportunities (March & Simon, 1958). These constant tasks require practical wisdom and a specific ability to understand customer behavior and decision-making (Eckhardt et al., 2019; Nonaka & Toyama, 2007).

2.1.4.2. Management response

One of the main clues perceived by consumers that RTA managers care about their consumers is management responses, which should reduce customers' perception of risk and improve the company's image (Lee, C.C. & Hu, 2005; Li et al., 2017; Proserpio & Zervas, 2017; Zhao et al., 2020), user-generated reviews must have appropriate responses from the RTA, so appropriate response strategies must be developed (Melo, 2020; Zhang, X. et al., 2020). The factors evaluated by consumers for choosing hospitality products, in the investigations carried out, indicate that the administration's responses to customer evaluations are relevant for consumers to decide (Park, S.-Y. & Allen, 2013; Wang, Y. & Chaudhry, 2018). Especially, the likelihood of a customer recommending the accommodation can increase with profesional responses to service related issues or recovery from service delivery failures (Barsky & Frame, 2009; Levy et al., 2013; Liu, S. et al., 2021; Wang, Y. & Chaudhry, 2018). In addition, management responses are also seen by potential consumers, because of the internet transparency, implying a giving clues to readers and writers that the manager cares about providing a good service to its guests (Sheng et al., 2021; Xie et al., 2014; Zhang, X. et al., 2020).

The authors proposed the following theoretical model based on this theoretical review (figure 1):

Figure 1. Proposed Theoretical Model (A, B, C)



Source: Elaborated by the authors

2.2. Hypotheses development

Greater visibility on an infomediary site should help tourists become more interested to the accommodation's positive features (Nieto et al., 2014).

Consequently, the authors propose the following:

Hypothesis 1: More online visibility of an RTA on an infomediary site has a positive impact on the number of positive perceptions of tourists (a) GSQP, (b) AP, and (c) SP.

Numerous empirical studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of the experience (Argote, 1999; Zollo & Winter, 1999). In view of this, the authors proposed:

Hypothesis 2: A wider presence in the time of an RTA on an website impact positively the number of positive consumer perceptions (a) GSQP, (b) AP, and (c) SP.

Positive satisfaction or pleasure generated from a service encounter are reasons consumers post more positive online reviews (Melo, 2020). Businesses that serve consumers by increasing interactions between them, increase the positive perceptions of the whole group and, consequently, increase the number of positive online guest reviews. Furthermore, if its dimension is larger, this effect is increased. Therefore, the authors propose that:

Hypothesis 3: More RTAs positively impacts tourists´ number of positive perceptions (a) GSQP, (b) AP, and (c) SP.

Businesses that are able to gather and use market intelligence may reach considerably higher levels of performance more consistently than their less professional and, as such, less market-oriented peers. By responding with successful solutions, they make their customers more satisfied and increase their financial returns. (Hall et al., 2017; Kumar et al., 2011).

Based on previous research, the authors propose:

Hypothesis 4: The generation of market intelligence has a positive impact on the number of positive tourist perceptions (a) GSQP, (b) AP, and (c) SP.

The performance of RTA businesses is expected to be significantly affected by the volume of responses from management (Melo, 2020; Proserpio & Zervas, 2017; Xie et al., 2017). Management responses to the guests positive comments can help establish a warmer and stronger human relationship with reviewers so the RTA manager can learn to build goodwill with their most active customers and apply that knowledge to everyone else, which will be observed by the rest of the market (Hernández-Maestro, 2020; Melo, 2020; Park, S.-Y. & Allen, 2013; Thi et al., 2021; Zhang, X. et al., 2022).

Accordingly,

Hypothesis 5: The volume of management responses has a positive impact on the number of positive tourist perceptions (a) GSQP, (b) AP, and (c) SP.

3. Methodology

3.1. Sample analysis

GSQP, AP and SP the scale of perceived satisfactory experience reported by rural tourists in France were extracted from the study of Melo et al. (2017). The authors used an online questionnaire to reveal measures of owner's/manager's perception of the businesses performance and their market intelligence. For each RTA, information on visibility on an infomediator site, volume of management responses, business characteristics (provided by former Toprural owened by Vrbo, https://www.vrbo.com/es-es/viajes/campa%C3%B1a/toprural-vrbo), performance measures and market intelligence (online questionnaire) were merged (table 1). The authors then analyzed this data with SPSS 27.

The authors selected positive perceptions of the services delivered to the guests, and identify positive customer comments. According to the literature review (Chevalier & Mayzlin, 2006; Hu et al., 2009; Melo et al., 2017; Melo et al., 2022; Nieto et al., 2014; Racherla et al., 2013).

Table 1: Variables

Variable	Measure
GSQP	Average number of categories (Satisfaction, Rest, Comfort and Host) mentioned in positive online consumer reviews.
AP	Average number of categories (Information, Temperature, Cleaning, Decoration and Multimedia) mentioned in positive online consumer reviews.
SP	Average number of categories (Seasonality, Environment, and Access) mentioned in positive online consumer reviews.
Business profitability	Managers', 7-point Likert scale (1 = very bad, 7 = excellent): − RTAs' performance, profitability − Increase in RTA bookings
	Managers', 7-point Likert scale (1 = "strongly disagree," 7 = "strongly agree"): − "I was satisfied with the income obtained by the RTA."
Management Perceptions of Guest Satisfaction	Managers', 7-point Likert scale (1 = very bad, 7 = excellent): − "Consumer satisfaction with the RTA"
Management Perceptions of Public Image	Managers' perception, 7-point Likert scale (1 = very bad, 7 = excellent): − "RTA's public image"
Online visibility	Expenditures by RTA for a promotion on infomediary Toprural: − Prestige (most expensive) − Gold − Silver − Without
Online presence expertise	Presence on the Infomediary website (months)
Accommodations number	Dichotomous: − 0 for only one accommodation − 1 for more than one accommodation
Market intelligence creation	− "I **always** attend fairs or important meetings on rural tourism." − "I am **very** attentive to news media and specialized papers on rural tourism" − "I am **always** aware about available online information of other RTAs proposals."
Management response	− N. º of management responses to online customer reviews (for each RTA,).

Source: *Prepared by the authors from* Melo et al. (2017)

Obtaining objective measures of SME performance is difficult, and as previous studies point to the existence of a positive relationship between managers' perceptions of performance and consumer evaluations, the authors used this approach (Melo et al., 2017; Nieto et al., 2014)

Table 2: Categories

Categories	Description
Global service quality perceptions	
Satisfaction	Feeling satisfied with the rural lodging.
Rest	Feeling tranquility, possibility to rest, sleep quality.
Comfort	Feeling comfortable in the establishment.
Host	Feeling welcome, cared for by the owners and other staff.
Accomodation perceptions	
Information	If the information, suggestions, and indications are helpful, present, and sufficient, and complaints are resolved by the staff.
Temperature	If the house has appropriate temperature.
Cleanliness	If the facilities are clean.
Decoration	If the establishment has good decoration.
Multimedia	If Internet and information was available for clients at establishment, and if photos, movies, images, email, and videos were available on the
Surroundings perceptions	
Seasonality	If the season is suitable to visit the property, climate.
Environment	The nature, the environment in wich the property is located
Access	If the roads are good, easy access.

Source: Prepared from Melo et al. (2017)

The subjective approach to SME performance has been widely used (Avci et al., 2011; Hallak et al., 2015). In line with Melo et al. (2017), the authors used tourists holistic positive perceptions of the quality of the services delivered based on the three main groups of positive perceptions evidenced: GSQP, AP and SP (table 2).

The authors gathered data on 2,275 French RTAs, which translated into 10,047 consumer online reviews. To sieve these data, the authors removed any RTAs without complete data, blank or duplicate consumer online reviews. In the questionnaire, the authors requested answers from 1,618 French RTAs, these RTAs represent 8,628 consumer online reviews. An email was sent to provide RTAs with access to the questionnaire on the website. Subsequently, the authors sent a reminder email. Table 3 contains the characteristics of the sample. After the filtering process, it was possible to use 235 of the responses received from the owners/managers of the French RTAs.

Table 3: Sample characteristics

RTA number	235
Online visibility − Prestige (most expensive) − Gold − Silver (less expensive) − Without	 19 96 93 27
Online presence expertise (average in months)	61
N. º of accommodations (average)	1.17
Management response volume (average)	0.83

Source: Own elaboration based on empirical data analysis.

3.2. Data analysis

The authors used basic descriptive statistics and compared all sampling frames with a range of variables using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), Welch, and chi-square tests to determine an overview of the sample and responses to different survey items. According to the literature review on tourism market studies, the authors used clustering techniques to discover a segmentation solution (Frochot, 2005; Kastenholz et al., 1999; Molera & Pilar Albaladejo, 2007; Park, D.-B. & Yoon, 2009; Pesonen, 2012).

The use of clustering has become a very common technique to identify market segments based on research data (Dolnicar, 2002). As such, a cluster analysis was performed involving GSQP, AP and SP. None of the cluster variables showed correlations above 0.9, verified by a multicollinearity analysis (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014). The use of the two-stage cluster approach that has been widely used by tourism researchers, a technique used by the authors in this study (Chang, 2006; Prayag & Hosany, 2014).

A discriminant analysis was carried out in the two clusters with positive perceptions of tourists as discriminant variables to determine the predictor variables GSQP, AP, and SP that present the greatest contribution to the distinction between clusters, which served to verify the accuracy of the ranking classification (Pearce & Lee, 2005).

3.2.1. Cluster analysis

A two-cluster solution based on rural tourism customers' perceptions of French RTAs was obtained through K-mean cluster analysis. According to the perceptions of a positive experience of staying in the French RTAs, AP and SP, the two clusters obtained were called Less Engagement (A) and More Engagement (B) (Table 4).

The cluster size presente differences, *Less Engagement* cluster includes 194 RTAs and *More Engagement* cluster includes 41 RTAs. With regards to positive tourist´s perceptions, the segments differed significantly in GSQP, AP, SP, Mng customer satisfaction, online visibility, web presence expertise, number of accommodations, and management response volume (Table 5). But not in business profitability, Mng public image, and market intelligence generation (Table 5).

Table 4: End cluster centers

	A	B	Cluster		Error			
Cases	194	41	Medium Square	df	Medium Square	df	Z	Sig
AP	-0,258	0,779	44,224	1	0,335	1	110,422	0,000
SP	-0,290	1,257	106,560	1	342,670	1	342,670	0,000

Source: Authors elaboration.

The clusters were chosen to maximize the differences between the cases in the different clusters and the F-Tests should only be used for descriptive purposes. As the observed levels of significance were not corrected, they could not be interpreted as tests of the hypothesis of equal cluster means.

The authors used several profile variables to try to understand the differences between the two segments (Table 5).

Cluster 1: Less Engagement (A)

Cluster 1 has higher spending on online visibility (reputation), Table 5. This cluster has the lowest number of positive online reviews per RTA, 12.72, and includes 82.55% of RTAs.

Cluster 2: More Engagement (B)

Cluster 2 presented significantly more positive comments in the three perceptual dimensions GSQP, AP and SP (Table 5).

This cluster is the one that has significantly more management responses to the positive evaluations of guests and establishments with more than one accommodation unit. Cluster 2 represents 17.44% of RTAs having the highest number of positive online ratings per RTA, 23.72.

Table 5: Characteristics by cluster

Variables		Clusters 1	Clusters 2
Positive perceptions	Global servive quality	-0,34	**0,68****
	Accommodations	-0,37	**0,98****
	Surroundings	-0,42	**1,58****
Performance	Business profitability	-0,11	0,06
	Mng Perception of Guest satisfaction	7,14	**5,54***
	Mng Perception of public image	5,09	7,42
Business	Online visibility	**3,08****	2,56
	Online presence expertise	48,02	**61,42****
	Accomodations number	2,06	**2,06****
Management	Market intelligence creation	-0,11	0,16
	Management response	1,18	**2,34***

Significance: * 0,10. ** 0,05
Source: Prepared by the authors

3.2.2. Discriminant analysis

The discriminant analysis, canonical discriminant function, was applied to the AP and SP dimensions (Tables 6 and 7).

Table 6: Discrimination analysis

	Discriminant function	Eigenvalue	Canonical correlation	Wilks´ λ	Significance
	1	2.022	0.911	0.289	0,000
	Std canonical discriminant function coeffs				
AP		0.670			
SP		0.915			

Note: 97.5% grouped cases correctly classified.
Source: Authors elaboration.

As a result of the discriminant analysis, it was found that all dimensions of perception contribute statistically to the discriminant function, being statistically significant.

To assess how customers' perceptions are correctly classified in the two clusters (table 7) the classification results were used and almost all (96.2%) of the 235 grouped cases were correctly classified, and the two clusters are valid and reliable. Both clusters were correctly classified into their respective groups, cluster 1 (100.0%) and cluster 2 (85.8%).

Table 7: Cluster formation evaluation by classification results.

Cluster case	Predicted group membership		
	1 (%)	2 (%)	Total (%)
1	194 (100.0)	0 (00.0)	194 (100.0)
2	9 (14.2)	35 (85.8)	41 (100.0)

Source: Authors elaboration.

3.2.4. Models

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to determine the effect of each predictor group on the three guest perception items as a whole. The adjustment statistics for each of the predictor items and the final models are presented in Table 8.

Models with groups of individual predictors across all three dimensions of perception had worse goodness-of-fit statistics than those of all-inclusive models, suggesting that the added predictors improved the models' fit beyond chance. In the first models (A.1, B.1, and C.1) the authors introduced the three variables related to the business (Table 5 - online visibility, online presence expertise, and number of accommodations). In the following three models (A.2, B.2, and C.2) all variables were introduced at the same time, variables related to the business and variables related to management (Table 5). VIF values lower than 1.5 were found for all models.

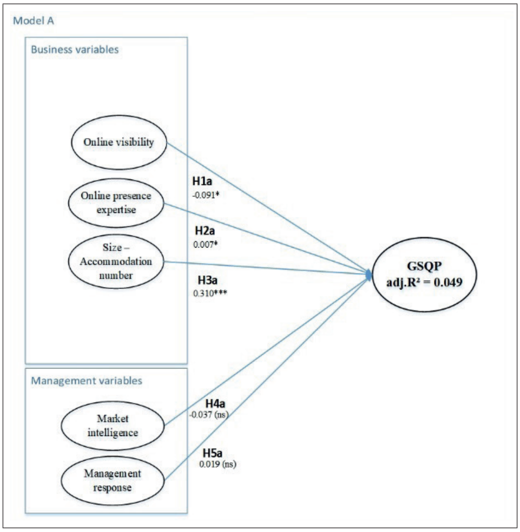
Table 8: MANOVA results

Models A, B, and C		GSQP (A)		AP (B)		SP (C)	
		MA.1	MA.2	MB.1	MB.2	MC.1	MC.2
(Constant)		-0,771***	-0,668**	0,019 (ns)	-0,750**	-1,465***	-1,287***
Business variables	Online visibility		-0,091*	-0,192***	-0,159**		-0,089 (ns)
	Online presence expertise	0.007*	0.007*		0,008*	0,013***	0,015***
	Number of accommodations	0,322***	0.310***	0,332**	0,334**	0,679***	0,649***
Management variables	Market intelligence		-0,037 (ns)				
	Management response		0,019 (ns)				
R2 adj		0,045	0,049	0,066	0,080	0,116	0,108
N		235					

Significance: *p < 0.10; **p < 0.05; ***p < 0.01; ns= non-significant
Source: Prepared by the authors based on data analysis.

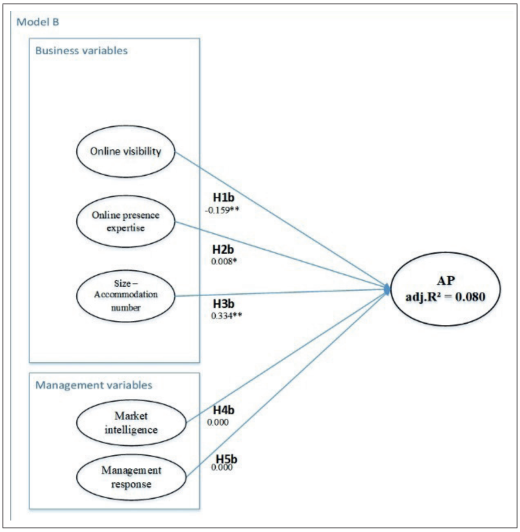
The results of the models show that online visibility (-0.091, < 0.10), experience in online presence (0.007, < 0.10) and the number of accommodations (0.310, < 0.01) showed a statistically significant effect in the GSQP, (Model A. 2, Table 8, Figure 2). Regarding the AP, online visibility (-0.159, < 0.05), experience in online presence (0.008, < 0.1) and the number of accommodations (0.334, < 0.01) showed a statistically significant effect (Model B.2, Table 8, Figure 3).

Figure 2: Model A outline results



Significance: *$p < 0.10$; ***$p < 0.01$; ns = non-significant.

Figure 3. Model B outline results

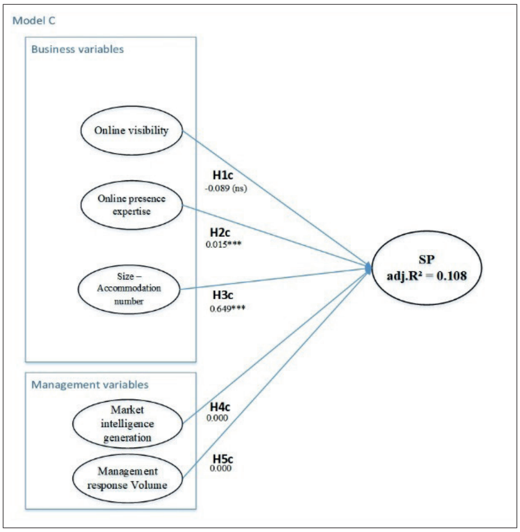


Significance: *p < 0.10; **p < 0.05; ns = non-significant

Source: Own elaboration based on empirical data analysis.

Online presence expertise (0.015, < 0.01) and number of accommodations (0.649, < 0.01) presented a statistically significant effect on SP (Model C.2, Table 8, Figure 4).

Figure 4: Model C outline results



Significance: ***p < 0.01; ns = non-significant.
Source: Own elaboration based on empirical data analysis.

By analyzing the predictors, the authors detected interesting insights about the number of accommodations and the experience in the online presence that predicts the three dimensions of perception, could become a useful management tool. However, online visibility had a negative effect on all three dimensions of perception, which was surprising.

Online visibility predicts for GSQP, AP, and LP.

4. Discussion and implications

The authors of this study, from the point of view of positive perceptions of tourists (GSQP, AP and SP), try to recognize the positioning of RTAs and examine the characteristics of the two RTA segments based on three groups of variables: strategic accommodation variables, managerial behavior competencies, and business performance.

Organization management may not give the same attention to a specific type of consumer behavior and business variable when defining strategies to improve your service offerings. Consequently, the authors consider the need to assess the real links against the specific positioning of the RTAs based on the positive perceptions of consumers, exposed in the ratings and comments of online reviews, the business strategy, and management behavioral competencies.

Another approximation of this study is that the authors use combined data from consumers, owners/managers, and business characteristics. Namely, the positive perceptions of consumers (GSQP, AP, and SP), perception of owners/managers about their performance, behavioral competencies of managers (market intelligence creation and the management response), and strategic business variables of RTAs (online visibility, experience in presence in the website and number of accommodations).

4.1. Theoretical implications

The results of this study reveal a research gap regarding the analysis of the positioning of RTAs based on the positive perceptions of the guest and on the specific characteristics of the RTAs. Another research gap that the results of this study indicate concerns a deeper knowledge of the process of acting on the volume of positive messages to the consumer through the strategic variables of the business and behavioral competencies of managers.

The authors' theoretical model makes it possible to shed light on how consumers position RTAs based on their perceptions of a positive experience, on the strategic variables of the accommodation unit, and on the manager's competencies that allow increasing the volume of positive messages from consumers.

4.2. Practical implications

This study allows the owners/entrepreneurs of RTAs to improve their understanding of which leads consumers, based on their positive perceptions of the lived experience and the characteristics of the RTA that they consider relevant, to position the RTA.

For owners/managers, it is essential to know, as much as possible, the final results of the delivery of the services provided from the perspective of your consumer. It is very important to explore the strategic variables of the business and management competencies, which are key elements to increase the volume of positive online reviews from tourists when evaluating services.

These results obtained in the study allow us to highlight two business variables that helped owners/managers to generate an increased number of positive messages in each of the three categories mentioned above: number of RTAs managed (only one or more) and, on a smaller scale, degree, time that the RTA has been on the infomediary's website.

In this research, the authors show that of the variables considered, the representative variable of management that identifies RTAs with more than one lodging is the variable that most affects the number of positive messages. In this sector, although it is possible to find RTAs with two or three accommodation units, RTA chains do not exist.

According to the research results, the authors may think that an owner/manager with more than one accommodation unit probably manages his business in a more professional way, from the point of view of his behavioral skills, as well as the use of services. that generate greater engagement and greater willingness of consumers to post messages about their tourist experiences. But it should also not be forgotten that the period of presence on the online platform serves as an indicator of the time of presence in the market and, therefore, of the number of consumers served, which probably will generate a greater number of messages.

Namely, the messages number from the positive perceptions of the experience is related to greater investment in promoting the RTA on the Infomedia platform, but surprisingly, the survey result shows a negative sign. These claims suggest that having a better and longer view of the RTA offer on the Infomedia platform decreases the number of positive online reviews.

It is possible that when an RTA is seen at the top of the Infomedia platform in the searches of potential consumers, their expectations about the services provided by the RTA are amplified, especially in more tangible attributes such as the characteristics that describe the RTA. Eventually, leading to it is possible that customers' post-experience perceptions are not as good as pre-experience perceptions in choosing the RTA.

This research has some limitations that allow the authors to suggest ideas for future studies. First, better business performance can generate the resources needed to invest more in greater online visibility and thus generate more positive feedback.

Thus, business performance can be both the antecedent and the cause. Second, the authors include information published on the TopRural website, current Vrbo. It is the most relevant infomediary for rural tourism in Europe, but it is only a specific site, so the generalization of these results to other sources of information cannot be carried out without careful analysis. Third, this study referred to RTAs in just one country, France.

According to UNWTO (2019), it is the main destination for international tourism, but again, the generalization of the results to other countries must be carefully analyzed. Simultaneous replication of this study to multiple countries and multiple online platforms such as other infomediary or destination sites, blogs, forums, social networking sites, and microblogs would be interesting to determine whether similar results emerge.

Another possible line of research would be the attempt to distinguish "moments of truth" in tourists' experiences. Finally, an insightful analysis could review how customers express themselves through the use of adjectives, first-person voice, grammatical context, or photos and videos, as well as the effects of responses posted by the RTA management.

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Gastronomy and the contribution to the sustainable development of tourism in the Serra da Estrela Region: the case of the Museu do Pão

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Abstract: Tourism can enhance regions with relevant endogenous resources where gastronomy can assert itself as a strategic product due to its contribution to the tourism experience. The present research focused on the relevance of gastronomy to the development of tourism in the Serra da Estrela region, for which a qualitative analysis was carried out based on a case study - the Museu do Pão museum complex - through semi-structured interviews with the directors of the Museu do Pão (Bread Museum) and the Municipality of Seia, in accordance with the literature and articulated with the research question and objectives. As a result, it was found that gastronomy makes a strong contribution to the sustainable development of the territory under study, with the Museu do Pão playing a central role in this process. This suggests that the valorisation of this asset in Serra da Estrela has an analogous function to other regions with similar characteristics.

Keywords: Gastronomy; Tourist products; Serra da Estrela; Sustainability; Endogenous products.

La gastronomía y la contribución al desarrollo sostenible del turismo en la región de la Serra da Estrela: el caso del Museu do Pão

Resumen: El turismo puede potenciar regiones con recursos endógenos relevantes, donde la gastronomía puede imponerse como producto estratégico por su contribución a la experiencia turística. La presente investigación se centró en el estudio de la importancia de la gastronomía para el desarrollo del turismo en la Región de la Serra da Estrela, para lo cual se utilizó un análisis cualitativo basado en un estudio de caso - el Complejo Museológico del Museu do Pão, a través de entrevistas semiestructuradas con los directores del Museu do Pão (Museo del Pan) y del Ayuntamiento de Seia, de acuerdo con la literatura y articulado con la pregunta y el objetivo de la investigación. Como resultado, se verificó que la gastronomía tiene una fuerte contribución para el desarrollo sostenible del territorio estudiado, teniendo el Museu do Pão un papel central en este proceso, lo que permite concluir que la valorización de este activo en la Serra da Estrela tiene un papel similar al de otras regiones con características similares.

Palabras Clave: Gastronomía; Producto turístico; Serra da Estrela; Sostenibilidad; Productos endógenos.

1. Introduction

Tourism is an activity capable of generating territorial development dynamics and stimulating other activities around it. In recent years it has recorded significant growth results, abruptly interrupted by the pandemic of COVID-19, with data for 2020 showing historic falls worldwide. In the post-pandemic context, it will be important to reactivate this activity with approaches that allow it to be relaunched with greater sustainability, especially of tourism destinations. This may be one of the most relevant challenges, particularly with regard to regions that traditionally have less tourism demand, but

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with strong tourism attractions based on natural environments and rural activities, as in the case of regions with low population density, where it is necessary to invest in tourism practices based on the enhancement of authenticity and uniqueness of tourist experiences.

The Serra da Estrela region is part of the NUTS II - Central Region of Portugal, of which the Municipality of Seia is a part, and presents a strong tendency of reduction and aging of the population. In tourist terms, this territory has a vast patrimonial heritage, and stood out in the pandemic scenario, having registered promising levels of demand in comparison to the national fall. There was a strong demand for the interior of Portugal, in this context, known for safety and for its natural environment, which provided an opportunity for rural areas to stand out and show their potential in terms of tourism. Thus, the role of tourism activity may prove to be fundamental to counteract this negative picture of a territory with so many potentialities, and specifically gastronomy, based on the preservation of the natural and cultural heritage of the territory, can be a highly promising asset, when worked as a tourism product.

Taking into account these premises, this research focuses on the study of Gastronomy as an important tourism product in the Serra da Estrela region, defining as objectives: 1. Analyse the relevance of Gastronomy for tourism development; 2. Identify the Museu do Pão (Bread Museum) as a resource and factor of tourism attraction; 3. Understand the synergies with the surrounding territory; 4. List the actions developed to recover and promote the gastronomic heritage; 5. Investigate the contribution of the Museu do Pão to the desired sustainable development. In order to respond to the proposed objectives, the starting question was defined as: In what way does the Museu do Pão affirm gastronomy as a tourist product in the Serra da Estrela region? As a methodology, it was decided to carry out a qualitative investigation, based on a simple case study, allowing a focused and comprehensive analysis of this situation, processes and/or professional practices. Located in the Municipality of Seia (Portugal), the Museu do Pão, was chosen as a case study, whose successful tourism structure in the surroundings of Serra da Estrela, allows a deep and detailed analysis with several sources of evidence.

The research will proceed with the literature review and the geographical and tourist framework of the territory under study. Then, the research methodology and the defined analysis model are explained. Afterwards, we proceed with the analysis and discussion of results and finally the conclusions and future lines of research.

2. The importance of gastronomy in the sustainable development of tourism destinations

Despite tourism's important contribution to the global economy, the strong growth trajectory was abruptly interrupted by the pandemic of COVID-19. According to the UNWTO (2021), tourism will have suffered its worst year on record in 2020, with international arrivals falling by 74% and destinations around the world receiving one billion fewer international arrivals than in the previous year.

The gradual and much-desired normalisation of travel requires, however, a new approach to relaunch tourism, because returning to the classic formulas for reactivating this activity is a temptation that should be avoided and in this new context will most likely have diminished effectiveness (Hall et al., 2020), which coupled with the challenges of sustainable tourism could lead to actions to recover traditional activities that can greatly contribute to leverage regions with low population density (Garcés, 2020).

Considering that tourism is evident as a promoter of regional economies, the use of gastronomy and endogenous resources, as tourism products, can turn them into competitive, differentiating and valuable products. On the other hand, tourism has specificities according to the various motivations and preferences of tourists for tourism products that give the receiving core its tourist vocation and power of attraction (Beni, 2003).

The importance of food as an important tourism resource, being a strong attraction for tourists to travel to a destination, is such that this is an increasingly studied subject. (Lee & Scott, 2015). Tourists consider food to be an important aspect when they decide to travel and this element accounts for more than a third of tourist's trip expenditure, so how it is prepared and experienced is of particular importance. Among the happiest memories, can be the experience of dining in a place where local dishes are prepared or served (Goeldner et al., 2002 Goeldner, Ritchie & McIntosh, 2002; Quan & Wang, 2004) and the knowledge of local cuisine is a way to create a greater bond between tourists and the destinations, assuming an extremely important role in the quality of the tourism experience (Cohen & Avieli, 2004; Guzmán & Cañizares, 2012). Also, Kivela and Crotts (2006), reveal that gastronomy plays such an important role in the tourism experience that some tourists may even return to the same destination to taste and live the experience again.

Gastronomy has an increasing importance as a tourism product and can constitute an identity brand of a region or country, contributing to the promotion of a destination. According to Vitorino (2017, p.1), "even when gastronomy is not the primary motivation for a trip there is always the need to enjoy basic food services and this is often a way for tourists to understand the culture of the places and create memories". Contributing to foster tourism and to the appreciation of local cuisine, gastronomy offers income to the local population as business opportunities, and also, ways of survival in many cases (Corner & Angelo, 2008).

Tourists are increasingly paying more attention to the gastronomy of destinations, often being even the main purpose of the visit, or an important part of the tourism experience as a whole. Gastronomic tourism presents itself as an opportunity to promote and strengthen destinations, and these aspects should be considered when developing tourism plans, considering gastronomy as a vital part of the character of any tourism destination, giving it a key role in its promotion and development (Guzmán & Cañizares, 2012).

The UNWTO (2012) states that gastronomic tourism applies to visitors who plan their trips partially or totally with the motivation to taste the local gastronomy, or participate in activities related to this theme and which is being developed as a tourism product. This is a type of tourism that corresponds to travel experiences for recreational or entertainment purposes that include visits to food producers, participation in gastronomic festivals, tastings of quality food products or any food-related tourism activity (Hall & Sharples, 2003; Kim & Ellis, 2014).

Gastronomy, as an important component of the world's intangible heritage and an increasingly important attraction for tourists, was the motto for UNWTO to organize the 1st World Forum on Gastronomic Tourism in 2015, having held its 6th edition in 2021 under the theme "Gastronomic tourism: promoting rural tourism and regional development", closely aligned with the Sustainable Development Goals (SGDs) and aiming to demonstrate the importance of gastronomic tourism in enhancing the reputation of destinations and empowering local communities, highlighting the strategies that farmers and small rural producers can practice. They can also use their gastronomic heritage to directly and indirectly promote tourism, thus making a positive contribution to the local and regional economy.

Turismo de Portugal (Portuguese national public body for tourism) identifies gastronomy and wine as one of tourism's strategic assets, that enriches the tourist experience, adds value to the territory and leverages differentiating assets. Tourism and gastronomy can be accomplices in the art of tourist attraction and motivation, with gastronomic tourism emerging as a powerful strategy for differentiating destinations (Turismo de Portugal, 2017).

Portuguese gastronomy was recognised as an intangible asset of Portugal's cultural heritage through a legislative document in 2000[1], with emphasis on the value of the culinary arts and the creation of increased responsibilities for the defence of its authenticity and for its enhancement and dissemination, consolidating the recognition of its tourist attraction component and the effort to continuously develop the catering sector, with special effects on the development of the agricultural sector and traditional and genuine products, favouring regional diversity as an enrichment factor. This relevant food diversity enabled Portugal to participate in a joint application that allowed UNESCO to include the Mediterranean Diet in the list of Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity in 2013, as it represents for all an example of sustainability, quality of life and well-being, revealing the gastronomic identity of the Portuguese territory that blends with local and regional productions, but also with Mediterranean heritages.

In a context of the end of the pandemic, tourism in rural territories deserves special attention, as it can help to revive local economies and above all to decentralise tourism towards less frequented destinations, with authentic, genuine and sustainable development offers. It is in this perspective that tourism development in these territories, guardians of authenticity and the environment, finds an opportunity that should be rethought and well used.

3. The Serra da Estrela region: a tourism destination with a unique gastronomic Heritage

The region of Serra da Estrela is a part of the NUTS II - Central Region of Portugal, belongs to the Intermunicipal Community Beiras and Serra da Estrela (NUTS III) and has integrated the Serra da Estrela Natural Park (PNSE), created in 1976, which has an extension of 88 850 hectares, covering 6 municipalities: Celorico da Beira, Covilhã, Gouveia, Guarda, Manteigas and Seia, whose area corresponds to the territory under analysis in this research.

Seia is a municipality belonging to the district of Guarda and has a population density of 49.9 inhabitants/km2 (CENSOS 2021 INE, 2021). According to data from PORDATA and INE (2021), analysing the evolution of the resident population in the last 10 years (variation 2011/2021), it appears that Portugal (NUTS I) registered a fall of approximately 2%, being this trend also visible in the Central Region, with a fall of 4.3% and in a more accentuated way in the target region of study, with a fall of 9.8% and the Municipality of Seia with a fall of 11.9%. In the same period of time, along with the depopulation that is being witnessed, there is a worsening at the level of population ageing, with an increase of 49% in the ageing index in the region under study, higher than the 40% registered in Portugal and in the Centre Region, but lower than the Municipality of Seia, in which the ageing index increased by 54%.

In this context, we conclude that the Serra da Estrela territory needs to be revitalised in order to rejuvenate the population, and tourism may prove to be fundamental in counteracting this negative picture of a territory with so much potential.

In terms of tourism, Serra da Estrela is part of the Central Portugal Tourism Region, which endogenously has enormous potential and a wide variety of attraction factors (mountains, protected areas, forests, rivers, thermal waters, historic villages, schist villages, museums, cathedrals, castles, churches, monasteries, manor houses, handicrafts and a very rich regional gastronomy), in addition to its privileged location, good accessibility and the hospitality of the residents (Salgado & Leitão, 2011). The Serra da Estrela region is also characterised by a tourism offer based on 4 main lines of action: Historical and cultural heritage; Religious tourism; Nature tourism and Active tourism. Equally, the Regional Plan for Touristic Development of the Centre Region 20-30 mentions as strategic pillars of development for the region, Gastronomy and Wine, Corporate and Business and also Lifestyle, Inspirational and other new trends. In relation to tourism demand, it is mostly dominated by the domestic market, while externally the main markets are the Spanish, French, Brazilian and German markets (Turismo Centro de Portugal, 2019).

Regarding tourism demand, in a 2016-2020 analysis and according to PORTADA PORDATA and INE (2021) data, there was a generalised increase until 2019: Portugal (mainland), 22%; Centre, 26%; PNSE Region, 13%. This trend was only countered in the Municipality of Seia where there was a variation of -22%. However, this growth path was abruptly interrupted due to the evolution of the COVID-19 pandemic and it is assessed that global tourism has suffered, in 2020, its worst year since records began, with international arrivals falling 74% (Alonso et al., 2021). The scenario in Portugal followed the global trend and thus the number of overnight stays in Portugal, in 2020, recorded a fall of 62.4% compared to 2019, as did the Centre Region with a fall of 52.9%. Still, the PNSE region recorded a drop of 36% and the Municipality of Seia of 23.8%, both below the drop recorded at the national level. Along with overnight stays, there was also a generalised increase in income until 2019: Portugal (mainland), 42.7%; Centre, 38.6%; PNSE Region, 32%; Municipality of Seia, 15.2%. In the year 2020, revenues in Portugal, recorded a drop of 65.9% compared to 2019, as did the Centre region with a drop of 53.8%. Even so, the PNSE region recorded a fall of 35.4% and the Municipality of Seia of 29.9%, both below the fall recorded at the national level.

These values may be justified by the internal movements of the Portuguese residents made to rural and inland areas of Portugal during the pandemic. Therefore, the year 2020 may present itself as an example of opportunity for the interior to show its visitors the best it has to offer, concluding that natural territories tend to be increasingly sought after and, in this sense, "the development of tourism should ensure the sustainability of territorial models, guaranteeing economic and financial viability (...) promoting the participation and commitment of all agents in the process of (re)construction of the territory and its balanced evolution, as a pillar of governance in an effective project of increasing social well-being" (Fernandes, 2011, p.27).

Serra da Estrela has a strong symbolic, cognitive and affective value for tourists and gastronomy and wines is a differentiating resource that characterises the tourism potential of the region, where there are natural conditions for the existence of food products that translate into a typical, original and appealing gastronomy, assuming a symbolic cultural value that represents the identity of this destination and the local communities (Silva et al., 2018). Since gastronomy is a strength point of this region, an offer based on specific products can be developed in order to improve the image and competitiveness of Serra da Estrela as a tourism destination and also respond to a more challenging tourism demand for new products and sustainable tourism development (Salgado & Leitão, 2011).

The agricultural products of the Serra da Estrela region, commonly referred to as endogenous products, traditional products, typical products, regional products or local products are the basis of the region's gastronomy. Their characteristics are essentially due to the natural and human factors of that geographical environment and are the products that tourists seek to find. Rodrigues (2020) and Pires (2021) refer to the main products of the Serra da Estrela region as being: olive oil, lamb, kid, chestnuts, cherries, cherovia, smoked sausages, white beans, honey, bread, sheep's cheese and curd cheese, trout and wine.

Some of these products have exceptional quality and characteristics covered by the systems of protection and enhancement of agri-food products, such as Protected Designation of Origin (PDO) and Protected Geographical Indication (PGI), defined by the European Union through Regulation (EU) N.º 1151/2012, of the European Parliament and of the Council, of 21 November 2012, and are identified on the website of the Portuguese Regional Directorate of Agriculture and Rural Development (DGADR) as follows: Beira Interior Olive Oils DOP, Serra da Estrela Lamb DOP, Bravo de Esmolfe Apple DOP, Serra da Estrela Cheese DOP, Serra da Estrela Curd Cheese DOP, Lamb of Beira IGP, Kid of Beira IGP and Beira Alta Apple IGP (DGADR, 2022).

This way, there are gastronomic specialities considered typical of the Serra da Estrela region such as: salt cod with cornbread, lamb (roasted, stewed or grilled), kid (roasted, stewed or grilled), "chanfana" (goat stew), "feijoca à pastor" (stewed pork, smoked sausages and white beans), "lagaradas" (salt cod with olive oil), "truta com molho de escabeche" (trout with vinegar marinade), "arroz doce" (rice pudding), "leite creme" (creme brulee), "papas de milho" (cornmeal porridge), "requeijão com doce de abóbora" (curd cheese with pumpkin jam) and "tigelada" (baked sweet with eggs, sugar and milk) (Rodrigues, 2020; Pires, 2021).

In effect, Scarpato (2003, as cited in Junior et al. 2021, p.1) refers that "Gastronomy, being the most advanced form of human beings connecting to their food, has the role of bringing global society closer; promoting sustainability through the production of local food, biodiversity, transmitting knowledge, promoting, consequently, social well-being, mainly within the tourist activity".

4. Methodology

This research is centred on the study of gastronomy as an important tourist product in the Serra da Estrela region, for which five objectives were defined, as previously mentioned, stipulating as an initial question the following: In what way does the Museu do Pão affirm gastronomy as a tourist product in the Serra da Estrela region?

As methodology, we chose to conduct a qualitative research, based on the case study, allowing a more focused and comprehensive analysis of certain situations, processes and/or professional practices (Morgado, 2012). The unit of analysis for the case study was the Museu do Pão museum complex (Bread Museum). A simple case study, as this one is intended, is an appropriate and justifiable methodology, namely when the case represents a critical test of the existing theory, when it is a rare or unique occurrence, or when the case serves a revelatory purpose (Yin, 1994). The Museu do Pão, as a successful touristic structure in the Serra da Estrela surroundings, allows a deep and detailed analysis in several evidence spaces namely: museum rooms, restaurant and traditional grocery store.

Primary data was collected through semi-structured interviews, realized in January 2022, with the private entity and target of the case study - the Museu do Pão and the public entity – the Municipality of Seia, assessing local and regional policies. The interviews were carried out personally in order to grant some degree of freedom to the participants, given the characteristics of this study. The questions were designed in accordance with the literature, the proposed objectives and with the same purpose, in order to allow comparing and reaching conclusions based on the comparative method.

The interviews were elaborated in order to answer the following hypotheses: H1) Gastronomy is a tourism product for Seia and the Serra da Estrela region; H2) The Museu do Pão (Bread Museum) is a resource and a tourist attraction factor; H3) Synergies are established among stakeholders; H4) Actions are developed to recover and leverage gastronomic heritage H5) The Museu do Pão contributes to sustainable development. Regarding the content analysis the analysis model, the same structure was followed.

5. Characterisation of the Museu do Pão (Bread Museum)

The Museum Complex of the Museu do Pão is original in its theme and its structure, which justifies this study, representing a significant contribution to the knowledge and construction of the theory. Located in the city of Seia, as a gateway to the Serra da Estrela, it is also justified by the high numbers of visitation. This is a private investment that dates back to 1996, by the initiative of a group of teachers and entrepreneurs with abundant interest in traditional mountain gastronomy, who during the following six years, gathered numerous assets and created this structure (Amado, 2011; Carvalho, 2012).

Inaugurated in 2002, it is part of the business group "O Valor do Tempo" and presents itself as a tribute to the theme of the Bread, assuming itself as one of the greatest references of museology in Portugal and the largest complex dedicated to the theme in the world. (Museu do Pão, 2022).

The location chosen is closely linked to the origin of the project's mentors and the need they felt to decentralize culture, bringing it to the inland of Portugal, being an inevitability and the obvious location for a project integrating the community. Celebrating 20 years of success, it is receiving annually over 80,000 visitors (ACIP, 2022).

This infrastructure is composed by museum rooms, a bar/library, a traditional grocery shop, a restaurant and a bakery, making it a complete tourism product with synergies and complementarities between the various facilities. The four museum rooms represent the history of the traditional cycle of Portuguese bread: from cultivation, cereal processing, milling, baking, until it reaches our tables, through documents and ancient records that provide a comprehensive and enriching description of bread, in its various forms (art, social, political and religious). The Library-Bar, open to visitors and to the local community, is a space for leisure and culture, as it has a notable library specialised in the theme of the Museum and frequently develops cultural activities, namely thematic gatherings. The grocery shop recreates the experiences and customs of the old village grocery shops and sells the main products of the region. In this space, tradition and innovation go hand in hand. The traditional breads and biscuits of the Serra da Estrela are sold, as well as other innovative breads and biscuits produced in the Museum's bakery. The restaurant is a wide-open space and a true gastronomic research centre where the ancient and always noble traditional flavours are rediscovered. Although it is a restaurant, this space transcends its function, being dedicated to the collection of knowledge and creation of unique gastronomic experiences, where the bread is never forgotten (Museu do Pão, 2022).

6. Analysis and discussion of results

After conducting the interviews, we proceeded to the analysis, according to the model defined in methodological terms, and also to the respective discussion of the results which are now reported.

H1. Gastronomy is a tourism product for Seia and the Serra da Estrela region

Regarding gastronomy as a tourism product, both interviewees mentioned that although they are aware that it is not the main attraction factor, it is of special relevance and is a strategic product recognised by tourists visiting Seia and the Serra da Estrela region, which corroborates what was highlighted in the literature review (Vitorino, 2017).

The responsible from the Museu do Pão mentioned that gastronomy reflects the local identity, allowing the preservation of traditions and the creation of authentic and memorable experiences, as it reflects and transposes the local reality to the tourist offer, with the valorisation of genuine and authentic products. She also stated that it is a distinctive factor of the region and that the meal, being a necessity of the visitor, can also be a tourism experience, a moment of sharing, conviviality and celebration that allows enjoying the surroundings of the Serra da Estrela region and the space of the Museum. It was also stated that visitors refere that they *"are often surprised with the rich gastronomy of this territory and it becomes a very important part of their trip",* considering that it can enrich the tourist experience, provide well-being, as referenced by Goeldner et al. (2002), and even increase the average stay in the region.

From the Municipality's perspective, gastronomy is also a differentiating factor, considering that tourists should take advantage of the fact that they are visiting this territory to get to know it, an idea that also agrees with the literature. On the other hand, the Mayor of Seia considers that gastronomy, as an attraction factor, can enhance Seia and the region, either *"the visitation facilities, or others such as the landscape, nature and the offer of experiences",* leading to the creation of infrastructures and the valorisation and promotion of local products, an idea in agreement with the conclusions of Guzmán and Cañizares (2012).

Finally, with regard to endogenous products considered strategic for gastronomy as a tourism product (Table 1), both entities indicate olive oil, lamb, smoked sausages, bread and cheese, and the Museu do Pão believes that lamb is a product with development potential, stating that "*lamb can be king (...) cheese is already valued and it's time to praise lamb"*.

Table 1: Strategic endogenous products in the Serra da Estrela region's gastronomy

Museu do Pão	Municipality of Seia
Olive oil	Olive oil
Serra da Estrela Lamb	Serra da Estrela Lamb
Smoked Sausages	Smoked Sausages
Bread (rye, corn and wheat)	Bread (rye, corn and wheat)
Serra da Estrela cheese and curd cheese	Serra da Estrela Cheese
White beans	Honey
Smoked Ham	Wine

Source: Elaborated by the authors based on the interviews

The responsible of the Museu do Pão also states that gastronomy should guarantee authenticity and "*truth*" and that despite the fact that it is not always easy to affirm gastronomy as a key tourism product, Seia and the region have products that, although they may have similarities at a national level, are genuine and with which they intend to continue working. The orientation should be towards the aforementioned truth and the preservation of the local gastronomy as an intangible asset that is part of the cultural heritage.

H2. The Museu do Pão (Bread Museum) is a resource and a tourist attraction factor

The Museu do Pão claims to be a resource and tourist attraction factor of national and international reference, stating that *"people that come, sometimes they don't know Seia, but they know the museum*" being an anchor for the recognition of the territory. In agreement, the Mayor of Seia considers that the Museum *"is an ambassador of the gastronomy of the region, and some tourists identify Seia through the Museu do Pão and there is a notoriety of the municipality and its products due to the Museum"*. This data is in line with the literature, which refers the importance of the food theme as a tourist resource and the food culture constitutes a strong attraction for tourists (Lee & Scott, 2015).

Gastronomy is an important component of intangible heritage and an increasing attraction for tourists, as mentioned in the World Gastronomic Tourism Forum (2021). The Museum praises the bread, as a great theme and values the local food heritage with the great involvement of Serra da Estrela, allowing to recover and preserve the traditions and the collective and intergenerational memory. The responsible of the Museu do Pão affirmed *"we receive families and the elders are the true guides"* in the same way "*the children who visit us, in a school context, return again in a family context*". For the Mayor of Seia, the Museu do Pão "*provides a complete experience, brings visitors, and in turn adds and boosts the development of other services, contributing to the necessary diversification and complementarity of the tourism offer"*.

In particular, in the case of the restaurant of the Museu do Pão, the Mayor of Seia says it is a great reference in the preservation of local gastronomy and *"provides authentic and memorable experiences, which raise gastronomy to the main attraction of the visit"*. In turn, the responsible of the Museum says that the restaurant provides true gastronomic experiences *"based on tradition and the Mediterranean diet that reflect the region*". There is a concern in creating menus with simple and authentic ingredients, inclusion of seasonal and local products, characteristic aromatic herbs, such as "*the carqueja, the rosemary, (…) knowing exactly which ingredients we use, a food with time and with flavour*". Visitors seek the identity of the local cuisine because they have this gastronomic memory or because they consciously want to taste the specialties/typical dishes (Table 2), which is in agreement with the literature. It refers that knowledge of the local cuisine is a way to create a greater bond between tourists and the destinations (Quan & Wang, 2004) and where some tourists may even return to the same destination to taste and experience it again (Kivela & Crotts, 2006).

Table 2: Main specialities/typical dishes of the Museu do Pão Restaurant

Specialities/Typical Dishes	Desserts
Ensopado de grão com bacalhau (salt cod confit with chickpea stew)	Maçã assada (roast apple)
Bacalhau à Museu (baked salt cod with vegetables and bread)	Pêra bêbeda (pear with wine)
Bacalhau com queijo Serra da Estrela DOP (Salt cod with Serra da Estrela cheese DOP)	Papas de carolo (cornmeal porridge)
Polvo à lagareiro (roast octopus with potatoes)	Arroz-doce (rice pudding)
Truta (trout)	Leite creme (creme brulee)
Borrego grelhado (grilled lamb)	Pudim de pão (bread pudding)
Açorda de borrego (lamb stew with bread)	Barrigas de freira (pastry made with almonds, cinammon, egg and bread)
Javali com farinha de milho frita (wild boar with fried cornflour)	Tigelada (baked sweet with eggs, sugar and milk)

Source: Elaborated by the authors based on the interviews

H3. Synergies are established among stakeholders

Considering that gastronomy presents itself as an opportunity to promote and strengthen destinations (Guzmán & Cañizares, 2012), it is necessary to establish synergies between the various stakeholders. In the opinion of the Mayor of Seia, the relationship with the Museu do Pão is *"fruitful and strong, there is a win-win relationship, with the organisation of promotional actions of structured tourism offer"*. In turn, the responsible of the Museu do Pão refers to a collaborative relationship given that they work on cooperative promotional activities, activities with schools, exhibitions and projects such as the Transhumance event and the mountain villages network.

As for other partnerships, the responsible of the Museu do Pão affirms good relations with the accommodation and restaurant stakeholders, as well as with local suppliers and producers and other entities, namely Estrelacoop - Serra da Estrela Cheese Producers Cooperative, Ancose - Serra da Estrela Sheep Breeders National Association. However, she recognises that the relationship with local producers can be effectively strengthened to the extent that "*there is no local production that can totally supply us, but we resort to local production whenever possible*". They also actively collaborate with educational institutions, of different levels, as a museum that transmits culture and traditions, and taking into account the research and innovation aspect of their work.

Although the responsible of the Museu do Pão is very autonomous in its lines of action, "*and makes its projects happen*", it assumes this aggregative role in the tourism offer of the region, and in agreement with the Mayor of Seia, both recognize the need to strengthen the stakeholders' relationship, i.e., create a collaborative network, which works in the common sense to leverage the brand Serra da Estrela in the national and international tourism market. It is important to support strategies that revitalize agriculture and small rural producers, as they have a preponderant role in the local and regional development. As evidenced in the literature, gastronomic tourism has a strong component of aggregation, includes visits to food producers, participation in gastronomic festivals, in product tastings (Hall & Sharples, 2003; Kim & Ellis, 2014) and in this sense, the synergies and networking assume particular relevance.

H4. Actions are developed to recover and leverage gastronomic heritage

The Museu do Pão sought to position itself through differentiation, enhancing regional gastronomy, based on *"(...) our products and our essence*" as a way of meeting customer expectations and needs and thus creating a bond between tourists and Serra da Estrela region, which is in agreement with Cohen and Avieli (2004) and Guzmán and Cañizares (2012), since they understand that gastronomy "*is a product that unites people*".

There is a constant concern at the Museu do Pão to guarantee a unique customer experience, which is achieved through excellent service. This is also visible in the positioning of the restaurant as a Gastronomic Research Centre, where there is a "*dynamic based on curiosity, sharing and teamwork*" in search of knowledge "*about food, techniques, cooking*" and a recipe *"inspired by the people and experiences of the mountains"*. Through knowledge, they seek to recreate and reinterpret regional recipes and adapt to current dietary restrictions and options "*seeking the balance and harmony of the dish*" and the customers' health and safety, in order to perpetuate the symbolic and affective value of gastronomy for all, in line with the literature (Silva et al. Silva, Kastenholz & Abrantes, 2018).

In order to leverage the gastronomic heritage, both interviewees refer to the importance of ensuring the quality of endogenous products and ensure their certification, highlighting that this is a joint effort and not only of public entities. Some important actions have been developed in this sense by the Municipality of Seia, namely the adoption of a new communication strategy with a new image. This new image is based on the use of new technologies; the rehabilitation and remodeling of the Municipal Market, in order to boost local products and producers in a proximity market; and the attraction of new visitors, through promotional events, such as the Serra da Estrela Cheese Fair, of which the Museu do Pão is also an integral part.

Both the Mayor of Seia and the responsible of the Museu do Pão agree that the valorisation of products can help the region to establish itself as an exceptional tourism destination. However, they mention the need to rejuvenate the primary sector with "new entrepreneurs that go beyond the old farmer" in order to develop the sector, new products and new solutions based on innovation and sustainability of the territory, which will be factors of attraction to the region.

In turn, the Mayor of Seia highlights the primordial role of professional and higher education schools, namely the School of Tourism and Hospitality Management in Seia, which is seen as a point of knowledge and development of skills in the area of tourism and hospitality. This is considered fundamental for the tourism development of the region, thus becoming important players in the process of change, not only with the companies, but also with the local restaurants themselves, allowing them to differentiate.

The Mayor of Seia also highlights the importance of attracting visitors for a tourist experience, as happens with the Museu do Pão, also mentioning the possibility of this example being replicated in another context in order to "*enhance and tell the story of other products*". The responsible of the Museu do Pão, as an integral part of the tourist experience at the destination, considers that there are also traditions that have been lost and are tending to be recovered, seeking to maintain and leverage the tradition of cereals by using flour from the local miller and natural yeast. In the same way, it affirms itself in the recovery of the shepherding sector, through the production of its own cheese and other products and also in the development of tourist experiences that are being planned, such as "*a day with the shepherd*", in Quinta da Lagoa, property of the business group where the Museu do Pão is situated. The Municipality of Seia has also positioned itself in this recovery of traditions, namely with regard to shepherding, with the recovery of transhumance.

H5. The Museu do Pão contributes to sustainable development

Because tourism proves to be preponderant in reviving local economies, it is essential that organisations are aligned in order to develop a more sustainable tourism model.

The Museu do Pão, in its 20 years of existence, has contributed not only to the promotion of regional gastronomy but also to the sustainable development of the territory, *"by the quality of service and attention, the friendliness, the good experiences"* that it provides, which are an attraction factor for the region. In turn, it leads to the development of other complementary tourism services, such as catering and accommodation, in agreement with the literature (Corner & Angelo, 2008). On the one hand, it is worth highlighting its commitment to the development of human potential, providing its employees with training and organisational culture, but also to the visitors themselves, through the transmission of traditions and culture. On the other hand, it favours "*the creation of employment and the improvement of the working conditions of the collaborators*" improving the quality of life, allowing family comfort such as "*giving conditions and level of education to the children"* and contributing to the economic development of the region. It also contributes to the social development, since the employability of the museum helps "*all the families that work here, allowing them to settle locally*". In addition to the families, it is also possible to highlight the museum's proximity to the scientific capital of the universities, which, given their work in partnership, may lead to the retention of young talent working towards the development of the region.

It is also remarkable the enormous concern of the Museu do Pão in being aligned with and reflecting the Serra da Estrela region itself, as is visible in the way the restaurant "thinks and executes" its menus and also, as mentioned by the Mayor of Seia, by the fact that its offer is based "*on an experience, around a endogenous product and local traditions"*.

As studied by Salgado and Leitão (2011), gastronomy can improve the image and competitiveness of Serra da Estrela region and the challenge lies in responding to consumer needs in an innovative and active way, based on the identity and culture of the region. As the Museu do Pão itself does, other companies should seek to establish themselves in a proximity market, favouring small producers, giving emphasis to local products and creating attractive products for visitors. Only in this way will it be possible to preserve the identity of the territory, demonstrate the importance of gastronomic tourism in strengthening the reputation of destinations and empowering local communities, as, proclaimed in the last edition of the World Gastronomic Tourism Forum (2021) so that this "*can create new innovative jobs*" and a sustainable tourism model can be developed.

6. Conclusions

This study intended to understand the level of importance of gastronomy as a tourism product for the Serra da Estrela region, mainly supported by the knowledge of a case study – Museu do Pão (The Bread Museum). Thus, this study started from the assumption of the need for a paradigm shift in tourism development, which can be an opportunity for low density territories (Hall et al., Hall, Scott & Gössling, 2020; Garcés, 2020), which will be based on the sustainable tourism model.

Tourism can be a promoter of the economies of regions with relevant endogenous resources, such as gastronomy, which should be enhanced as anchor products of the attractiveness of low-density territories, where they exist and, therefore, can be enjoyed in a perspective of integral experience, more authentic and genuine. This change in tourism consumption model will enhance the attractiveness and competitiveness of destinations such as the Serra da Estrela region, through a model that enhances the quality and capacity of the tourism offer of the destination, in its various components.

The objective of analysing the relevance of gastronomy for the tourism development of a destination was fully achieved, as it can be seen that food increasingly constitutes a powerful motivation and attraction of the tourist trip, as well as a subject of study (Lee & Scott, 2015). In fact, the knowledge and enjoyment of local gastronomy plays an increasingly important role in the quality of the tourist experience, so it is essential to ensure its uniqueness in the context of sustainable destination tourism, both locally (Seia) and regionally (Serra da Estrela).

Gastronomy and wine is assumed as one of the strategic assets of Portuguese tourism, especially because it contributes decisively to the tourist experience, adding value to the territories and leveraging differentiating assets of destinations, particularly those classified as low-density such as Serra da Estrela. This region is characterized by having a diverse tourism offer, which should be based on the promotion of historical, cultural and religious heritage, as well as natural and rural, enhancing the development of tourism products based on this richness of heritage. This results in a typical cuisine supported by an offer based on unique products, highly valued by tourist demand, which enhances the image of Serra da Estrela as a competitive tourist destination and with a sustainable tourism development, the more the greater the use of regional endogenous resources.

It is therefore essential to understand the synergies between all the regional stakeholders in the Serra da Estrela region. In this scope of the gastronomy, we have to highlight the suppliers of own agricultural products of the Serra da Estrela region, which are endogenous products, regional (Rodrigues, 2020) or local (Pires, 2021), which exist in this territory resulting from the interaction of several natural and human factors. Some of these products have exceptional quality and characteristics covered by the systems of protection and enhancement of agri-food products in the region, which enabled the creation of gastronomic specialties considered typical of the region.

Given that the Museu do Pão, located in Seia, has been an important resource and tourism attraction factor for the Portuguese market, we wanted to investigate in depth its contribution to the sustainable development of the region. The identical theme of this museum makes it easy to understand that gastronomy is intended to be a product boosted by the private enterprise, but that it also goes beyond its scope to the development of tourism in the Serra da Estrela region. The interest of the promoters in traditional mountain gastronomy, who have gathered a vast heritage collection, justifies the choice of this case study, which today is known and recognised at national level for the sustainable growth of the business group that owns the largest complex dedicated to the subject of bread in the world.

This research was essentially of a qualitative nature, based on the case study of the Museu do Pão. Important agents in the tourist development of the region were interviewed. In fact, in relation to H1, there is agreement that it is a strategic product, recognised by the interviewees and based on the perspective of the tourists who visit the region and also on the opinion of the authors. The responsible of the Museu do Pão mentioned that gastronomy reflects the local identity and traditions, allowing authentic and memorable experiences to visitors. The Mayor of Seia pointed out that gastronomy is also a differentiating factor and, as an attraction factor, and it can boost Seia and the Serra da Estrela region. There is also agreement in relation to the strategic endogenous products for the region's gastronomy, which were named by the interviewees. The second hypothesis (H2) is also validated, since the Museu do Pão is a resource and tourist attraction factor of local, national and international reference, being an anchor for the recognition of this territory, since the Museum is an ambassador of the gastronomy of the region and of the Municipality of Seia. Regarding possible synergies between stakeholders (H3), it appears that the relationship is fruitful and strong, collaborative, there is a win-win relationship, with the organisation of joint promotional activities. It is evidenced in the literature that gastronomic tourism has a strong component of aggregation of agents in the territory, including visits to food producers, participation in gastronomic festivals, in product tastings, generating synergies between partners and networking in the region. The actions aimed at leveraging gastronomic heritage (H4) are recognised by both interviewees, who highlight the quality of endogenous products and their certification for the enhancement of gastronomy, corroborating the perspective of various authors, as it allows tourism agents to unite around the gastronomic heritage of the region. In relation to H5, it can be seen that the 20 years of the Museu do Pão have contributed to the promotion of regional gastronomy and also to the sustainable development of the region, as Salgado and Leitão (2011) also assumed, because gastronomy can improve the image and competitiveness of the Serra da Estrela region based on the identity and culture of the region.

In summary, it was possible to verify that the five hypotheses presented in this research were approved by the interviewees, representatives of a local public authority and a private company, which constitutes the case study. This proves that gastronomy makes a strong contribution to the sustainable development of the destination Serra da Estrela and that in this territory the Museu do Pão plays a central role in this development, because of the theme and the approach and national reputation it gives to Seia and to the Serra da Estrela region. This contribution, which was confirmed by the interviews, is also verified in various studies presented in the literature review, allowing the conclusion that the promotion of gastronomy in the Serra da Estrela region has an analogous function to other regions with similar characteristics, particularly as low-density territories.

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Notes

[1] Cf. Legislative document, Resolution of the Council of Ministers No. 96/2000 of 26 July

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Importance of destination image and customer satisfaction for new emerging destinations: An empirical research case from tourism development perspective

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Abstract: The current study purposed to focus on the importance of destination Image and customer satisfaction by conducting an empirical case study from Amasya Province, Turkey. Data for the present research work was obtained from a sample of domestic tourists in Amasya. Respondents self-administered the questionnaires. A total number of 100 usable questionnaires were obtained in the research location. For the statistical analyses, the current study has used SPSS Version 23 in conjunction with Partial Least Squares (PLS). Based on the analysis, the majority of tourists seemed satisfied and had positive destination image. However this study showed that there are some points that should be developed such as tourism infrastructure, night life and entertainment environment, public transport transportation system, services for tourists and etc. Examining the factors constitutes destination image on a continuous basis is a critical issue for the new emerging destinations, so, in this regard the current work procures important implications in general. At the same time it contributes to the new theoretical knowledge.

Keywords: Hotels; Destination image; Customer satisfaction; Tourist; Heritage tourism; Amasya.

Importancia de la imagen del destino y la satisfacción del cliente para los nuevos destinos emergentes: un caso de investigación empírica desde la perspectiva del desarrollo turístico

Resumen: El estudio actual se propuso centrarse en la importancia de la imagen del destino y la satisfacción del cliente mediante la realización de un estudio de caso empírico de la provincia de Amasya, Turquía. Los datos para el presente trabajo de investigación se obtuvieron de una muestra de turistas nacionales en Amasya. Los encuestados se autoadministraron los cuestionarios. Se obtuvo un total de 100 cuestionarios utilizables en el lugar de la investigación. Para los análisis estadísticos, el estudio actual ha utilizado SPSS Versión 23 junto con Partial Least Squares (PLS). Según el análisis, la mayoría de los turistas parecían satisfechos y tenían una imagen positiva del destino. Sin embargo, este estudio mostró que hay algunos puntos que deben desarrollarse, como la infraestructura turística, la vida nocturna y el entorno de entretenimiento, el sistema de transporte público, los servicios para los turistas, etc. Examinar los factores que constituyen la imagen del destino de manera continua es un tema crítico para los nuevos destinos emergentes, por lo que, en este sentido, el presente trabajo adquiere importantes implicaciones en general. Al mismo tiempo contribuye al nuevo conocimiento teórico.

Palabras Clave: Hoteles; Imagen de destino; La satisfacción del cliente; Turista; Turismo patrimonial; Amasya.

1. Introduction

Tourism has been one of the fastest growing sectors globally since the middle of the 20th century. According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) data, around 25 million international trips were made throughout the world in the 1950s, and this number has grown steadily over the years. In the 1990s, the number of international trips exceeding 500 million reached 1 billion in 2011. The growth

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rate of the tourism sector, which continued its stable development in the following years, was realized as 4 percent on average until 2019. According to UNWTO data, while world tourism grew by 3.8 percent in 2019, the number of international travels increased to 1 billion 461 million and the revenues from international tourism to 1.5 trillion dollars. According to the data announced by the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), the total contribution of the tourism sector to the world economy is 8.9 trillion dollars. From the current data stated above, it is understood how the tourism sector has a positive effect on the economy of the countries. It can be said that tourism is an important sector that provides a solution to the unemployment problem of that country, as well as providing foreign currency inflows to the countries. According to the WTTC evaluation, the tourism sector constitutes 10 percent of the world's employment and provides employment to 330 million people (Association of Turkısh Travel Agencies, 2020). Tourism is defined as an invisible export in terms of balance of payments because it earns foreign exchange by selling goods and services to visitors. The fact that the country's natural, historical and cultural values can be marketed on-site by tourists makes tourism more advantageous than other export sectors (Costa, 2017; Khan, Sughra, Ardito, Jiaying, and Zaheer, 2020; Sana, 2021; Şen and Şit, 2015).

In the tourism sector, which has an important share in the world economy, destinations that want to increase their market share and be different from their competitors have to direct their resources in line with the strategies and objectives they have determined. One of the most important factors affecting the travel decision processes of current and potential tourists and directly affecting their destination preferences is the image studies carried out in the destination and the perceived image level (Yazıcıoğlu and Akbulut, 2015). Natural attractive factors, accessibility, tourism stakeholders, climate, other variables can be effective in the formation of the destination image, which expresses the sum of the impressions that the tourists have about a destination. (Roig and Clave, 2016; Vieira, Borges, Rodrigues, and Lopes, 2020). Since tourists' beliefs, ideas and perceptions about the destination are more important than other features of the destination, a strong image of a destination means that it is ahead of other destinations (Mcdowall and Choi, 2010). In addition, destination image is effective in the formation of behaviors such as travel satisfaction, re-visit and recommendation (Al-Ansi and Han, 2019; Zhang, Byon, Williams and Huang, 2019). Accordingly, the destination image can be considered as an antecedent variable at the point of explaining post-travel behaviors. In this context, the starting point of this study is to examine the destination image as an antecedent variable. Therefore, it can be said that destination image perceptions play an important role in tourist preferences (Prayag and Ryan, 2012).

Since the services offered in the tourism sector do not have a concrete feature that can be tried before purchasing, the tourist in a way buys the image of the destination. The image of a country or region constitutes the most important components of the touristic product (Tapia, Mele, and Garcia, 2018). The image of touristic places affects both the choice of the destination of the tourists and the satisfaction level of the destination. It can be said that a different and positive destination image can positively affect the decision to travel to that place. In addition, travel agencies and tour operators also take into account the image of the country and destination in the formation and marketing of holiday packages. For this reason, the image of the destination is decisive in the evaluation process of a tourism product (Ünal and Çakır, 2020). Since the increase in international tourism movements in recent years has brought about changes in the satisfaction and perception of tourists, it is of great importance to analyze the wishes and needs of tourists in a tourism region, to ensure customer satisfaction and thus to create a strong destination image. Knowing the factors affecting the perception of destination image and destination-based studies carried out to improve or develop the image in this direction will increase the satisfaction level of tourists from their destination experiences and will be reflected in their behaviors such as recommending or revisiting the destination (Sarıipek, Çevik and Saçılık, 2019).

In the current study, the destination image and customer satisfaction as an output of the created image; the subject of how the destination will affect the course of the tourism sector and what the possible gains will be in terms of sustainable tourism have been examined in Amasya province, Turkey. The fact that such a study has not been carried out in Amasya in this regard and that the destination image and customer satisfaction are of great importance in terms of sustainable tourism constitutes the motivation of this study. The city of Amasya, located in the Central Black Sea Region of Turkey, is a city where cultural tourism is intense with its historical urban texture, traditional Ottoman House examples, Yeşilırmak River and Valley, legends, natural and cultural values. The existence of the Yeşilırmak River passing through the city, the traditional housing texture and civil architectural examples that have been preserved from the past to the present, is almost an open-air museum with its deep-rooted cultural level. Thanks to the Harşena Mountain located in the north of the city and the Pontus King Rock Tombs, which are among the largest rock tombs in Anatolia, the city has been on the UNESCO World Heritage Tentative List since 2015. In addition, the city is one of the 15 brand cities determined by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism within the scope of Turkey Tourism Strategy 2023, due to its natural beauties, rich cultural heritage, architecture and tourism attraction points.

However though these advantages and potentials, Amasya has not been successful to attract the desired number of domestic and foreign tourists to increase occupancy rate over yearly coming tourists to the country. Many reasons may lie under this fact that should be clarified by research. Therefore this study aimed to explore the destination image and customer satisfaction of domestic tourists visited Amasya. This study, by questioning the destination image of Amasya, provides a guide to the steps to be taken in order for Amasya to be in the position it deserves in the growing tourism sector with its historical and cultural values.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Destination Image

Although there is no generally accepted and clear definition of destination image in the literature, there is a consensus that it is the whole of the subjective ideas, beliefs, impressions and expectations of the people about the destination. To make a general definition about the destination image; It can be defined as “impressions about a place” or “perceptions about a place” (Echtner and Ritchie, 2003; Stylos, Vassiliadis, Bellou, and Andronikidis, 2016). Tourism, which has an effective power in local and regional development, is seen as an important driving force especially in the development of rural areas. Destinations that are aware of the driving force of tourism are looking for ways to be successful. One of the primary conditions of achieving success is stated as creating a positive destination image. Increasing the positive image of the destination perceived by the tourists is one of the important factors that will contribute to the development of the destination. Creating a positive destination image will contribute to the destination’s competitive advantage compared to other destinations it is in competition with and its transformation into a more competitive destination (Chi and Qu, 2008; Jeong and Kim, 2020).

The touristic products offered to consumers by a destination contain environmental, economic, socio--cultural, political, geographical and historical characteristics unique to the destination. In fact, a destination differs from other destinations with these features, and all of these features form the personality of the destination. In order to be successful in the marketing of the destination, the image to be created should reflect the personality of the destination or be directly proportional. However, the image does not always reflect the real personality. In reality, destination managements only reflect the positive aspects of the destination in the image creation process. On the other hand, image is a subjective concept as it is the sum of the thoughts and beliefs in the minds of individuals and groups, and it is a subjective concept and can be used by media and affected by many factors such as friend recommendations, negative propaganda of competing destinations, and etc. For this reason, it is not possible to develop the positive image of a destination in a very short time and to erase its negative image in a short time. One of the most important factors affecting the purchasing preferences and satisfaction levels of tourists is the destination image. The image that potential and current tourists have about the destination can be considered as the main factor that determines the future of that destination in tourism. Since the tourism product is intangible and similar to each other, competition between destinations takes place through images. Tourist behavior is evaluated in three stages: before the trip, during the trip and after the trip. The destination image helps to make the purchasing decision before the travel, the experience in the destination and the evaluation of this experience, and to shape the behaviors and intentions after the travel (Özersin, 2019).

Destination image is formed by perceptual/cognitive and emotional evaluations. In this case, the destination image consists of two elements, perceptual/cognitive and emotional. Perceptual/Cognitive assessment refers to the knowledge and beliefs that people have about destination characteristics. Emotional evaluations refer to feelings about a place. While the emotional element emerges as a result of the emotional evaluation of the destination environment, the cognitive element generally emerges as a result of the evaluation of the physical characteristics of a place. As a result of cognitive and emotional evaluation of a place, the general image of that place is formed. In other words, the overall image is formed as a result of the interaction of different features in a destination (Baloğlu and McCleary, 1999; Aliedan, Sobaih, and Elshaer, 2021).

It is accepted that the image of a destination perceived by tourists plays an important role in tourists’ decision making, destination selection, post-trip evaluations and future behavior (Echtner and Ritchie, 2003). Due to this importance, various models have been proposed by many researchers about the formation of the destination image; explanations have been given in different ways. The complexity and diversity of the destination image, which has a dynamic structure, is one of the important characteristic features. The high number of components (cognitive, affective, operational) and features used to measure the destination image shows its complexity, while at the same time, there is no consensus on its measurement (Stylidis and Cherifi, 2018).

In addition, complexity means that the destination consists of various stakeholders, components and suppliers and conveys different meanings to different markets (Sonnleitner, 2011). Gallarza, Irene and Haydee (2002) conceptualized the destination image with four characteristics: complex, dynamic, multiple and relative. Complexity arises from the number of image components, multiplicity arises from the variety of objects used in measurements, and relativity arises from the subjective nature of the image. Finally, dynamism means that the image is not static, but changes over time. When the destination image is examined, it is seen that many studies focus on functional and psychological characteristics of the destination such as landscape, environment, nature, cultural venues, nightlife and entertainment, shopping opportunities, tolerance of local people and safety (Gallarza et al., 2002). Apart from these, it can be said that natural environmental dimensions such as landscape, wild nature and activities and artificial environmental dimensions such as nightclubs and shopping opportunities have a significant positive effect on destination evaluations (Nadeau et al., 2008). While the destination qualities used in many studies consist of general features such as natural environment and climate, attractions, activities, accessibility, culture, friendship with local people (Chen and Tsai, 2007), at the same time the features specific to that place are also used because the image depends on the quality of the touristic place (Beerli and Martin, 2004).

Researchers, in their studies, have found that the behavior patterns of tourists play an important role in the formation of images and that previous visit or recommendations from other people are effective in shaping these behaviors. Murphy (1999) emphasized in his research that tourist behaviors are grouped into three groups while forming the destination image: before the trip, while the trip is in progress and at the end of the trip. While the destination image is formed, the previous visits of the individuals, the behaviors that ensure satisfaction during the travel and the behavioral intentions after the visit play an important role.

2.2. Customer Satisfaction

The concept of customer satisfaction is a concept that covers meeting the wishes, needs and expectations of the customers and going beyond them. For physical goods, customer satisfaction emerges from the evaluation of the quality, performance, etc. of a product or service after purchase. On the other hand, customer satisfaction arises during the services delivery as an outcome of meeting the expectations from that service. So the comparison of customer expectations at the beginning with the end perceptions after product and service provision results in customer satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Satisfaction occurs when the benefits of the goods or services purchased by the customer and the expectations of the customer match the destination (Stylos et al., 2016; Türk, 2005).

Recently, the modern marketing understanding is based on the fact of satisfying customer requests and needs. This understanding calls for higher level of customer satisfaction which emerges from customer--orientation, being close to the customer, customer relationship management perspective and establishing a continual system of the customer relationship. Therefore the basic of these marketing functions are to boost satisfaction level and individual choices for future consumption (Goldman, 1997; cited in Midilli, 2011).

Tourism businesses should be in constant communication with customers, which are their target audiences. Thus, they will know their customer expectations and complaints and will take the necessary measures in advance. Otherwise, it will be difficult for the business to determine how they can satisfy customer expectations. A customer who is not satisfied because their expectations are not met will cause the business to lose sales and customers (Aktepe, Baş and Tolon, 2009). Zairi (2000) stated in his study that a satisfied tourist can recommend his experiences positively to five or six people, while a dissatisfied tourist can talk about his negative experiences to ten people (Cited by Shirazi and Som, 2013). Customers who were satisfied with the service they received in the past will be willing to receive the service of the same service provider in the following years (Loi, So, Lo, and Fong, 2017; Ueltschy, Laroche, Eggert and Bindl, 2007).

Today, customers' expectations are higher than in the past. The choice of goods and services offered by tourism businesses to customers is also greater than in the past. According to the contemporary marketing approach, the concept of satisfying the customer is to offer the quality expected by the customer with an extraordinary service understanding and to try to ensure that the customer is satisfied with these services. According to this understanding, businesses in tourism destinations combine customer service, quality and marketing in order to create customer satisfaction and long-term customer relations. Just as people cannot live without their physiological needs such as air, water and food, destinations cannot live without their customers. Since their source is their customers, destinations need to ensure customer satisfaction with the services they offer. Satisfaction is a valuable concept in understanding the performance of destinations (Nasir, Mohamad and Ab Ghani, 2021). Although the quality of products and services is primarily under the control of the service producer or manager, it is tourists who evaluate their quality. Tourists' evaluation of service quality affects their behavior and satisfaction with visiting the destination again or recommending it to others (McDowall, 2010; Prayag, Hosany, Muskat, and Del Chiappa, 2017). In this regard, an empirical research conducted by Jeong and Kim (2020) reported a positive correlation between destination image and satisfaction and loyalty as well. Similarly, a study performed by Wang and Hsu (2020) approved the positive role of destination image on tourist satisfaction and behavioral intention in their integrated model.

2.3. Amasya Tourism Potentials

Amasya, located in the Yeşilırmak basin, has been chosen as a settlement for different civilizations throughout history due to its strategically important geographical location and fertile lands. The area, starting from the Neolithic and Chalcolithic periods, has become important settlement center for Early Bronze Age, Hatti and Hittite Civilizations, Assyrian Trade Colonies Age, Phrygians, Scythians, Cimmerians, Medes, Persians, Mithridates, Roman Empire, Eastern Rome (Byzantine), Danishmends, Anatolian Seljuks, Ilkhanids, Ottomans and lastly the Republic of Turkey. The province, which has hosted many civilizations, is a museum in terms of historical and cultural heritage (Middle Blacksea Development Agency, 2015). With the increase in expectations for tourism in recent years, Amasya was one of the 15 brand cities selected for the development of cultural tourism by taking its cultural and historical past as the criterion in the Turkish Tourism Strategy Action Plan (2007-2013), which was prepared with the aim of meeting these expectations and ensuring the sustainability of its development in tourism (T.R. Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2007).

Amasya is located between two hills with its historical, cultural heritage and topography. The city, which is divided into two by Yeşilırmak and connected by historical bridges, has important potentials for tourism. These reflections in Amasya, which date back to ancient times and carry their traces to the present as a cultural heritage, also form the basis of the city's cultural heritage. There are many historical mosques, historical houses, historical baths, madrasas, historical bridges and structures in the center and districts including the registered cultural and natural assets in the center, mainly 4 natural sites and 34 archaeological sites (see Photo 1).

Photo 1: Amasya Historical and Touristic Sites.

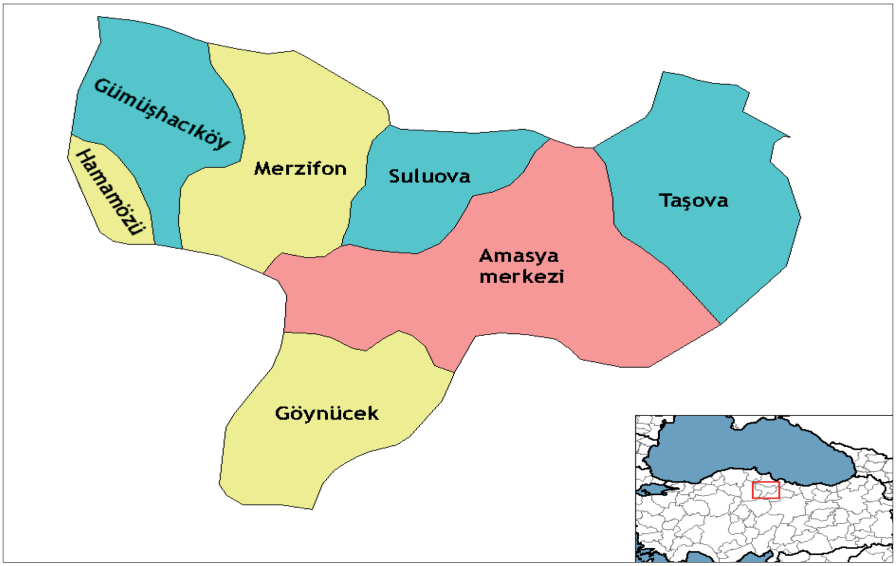
Source: Amasya Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism

It is seen that the province of Amasya has a richer potential in terms of culture and faith tourism in general. It can be said that the province of Amasya has the potential to allow most of the alternative tourism types based on nature and culture to be realized in both summer and winter seasons. For example, nature tourism activities such as trekking, cycling, tent camping, nature sports, bird watching, hunting tourism, highland tourism, thermal tourism, sports tourism and photo safari are possible (see Photo 2 and Map 1). In addition, there are areas with scenic beauty and features suitable for photographing in all seasons. This increases the attractiveness and preference for the province of Amasya (Zengin, Öztürk and Salha, 2014).

Photo 2: Amasya Natural Tourism Attractions.

Source: Amasya Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism

Map 1: Location of Amasya/Türkiye



Source: tr.wikipedia.org

Amasya possesses various types of accommodations for its visitors. In the city center or just a few kilometers from the center, in addition to the hotels with high service quality, some of the historical mansions and houses lined up on the edge of Yeşilırmak serve as boutique hotels or hostels. According to the data of the Amasya Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism (2021), when the tourism infrastructure at the accommodation point of Amasya is examined, it is seen that the number of accommodation establishments is 90, there are 1652 rooms and the number of beds is 3,554 that is not meeting the future expectations.

3. Methodology

3.1. Procedure

Quantitative research methods were used in this study. In quantitative studies, numerical methods and data are not very flexible. In this method, data are collected through "closed-ended" questions that are not open to interpretation or questionnaires with answers given as choices in order to avoid directing the participants (Mack et al., 2005). In this type of research, a determined number of data is collected from the participants. These collected data are analyzed using statistical methods. This type of quantitative research is result-oriented and is used to measure the correlation between the assumed relationships of data with each other. In this way, data is analyzed more efficiently. However, if care is not taken, the relations between the subjects may be missed. In other words, before the data collection period, every aspect of the research should be carefully related, considered and organized. On the other hand, a qualitative research has holistic, process-oriented and detail-oriented approach as much as possible (Hoskara, 2004). Qualitative studies are very suitable for small and medium-sized studies that serve the purpose. Based on this fact, the deductive approach was used in this work to investigate hypothetical relationship as well. This method is an ideal method for this type of research.

3.2. Sampling and Data Collection

The current survey was aimed to examine the destination image and satisfaction levels of domestic tourists and visitors coming to Amasya destination/Türkiye. The universe of survey consists of domestic tourists and visitors coming to Amasya destination. Although the number of tourists and visitors coming to the city is not known exactly, simple random sampling method was chosen as the sampling method. In the simple random sampling method, everyone in the universe has an equal chance of entering the sample. However, sometimes, the randomly approached respondents among little numbers of tourists refused to be participant for the survey, so they were added in the survey based on convenience and volunteering. The attained data from the participants was processed in the low season 2021 due to the time constraints. Most of the time, the tourists visit Amasya in July and August.

The research team collected the data on a one-to-one and face-to-face basis in order to obtain a better return percentage. Consequently, the all of questionnaires were conducted with the voluntary participants from different touristic places. The research team aimed to collect 150 questionnaires over the coming tourists during the data collection period of a month. However, due to low season, total numbers of 100 usable questionnaires were completed within this period and the data was ready for advanced data analysis.

3.3. Measures

The survey scales in the present research was adopted from **Çakmak** and Kök (2012). The questionnaire was categorized under two sections, such as, there are 5 questions in the first part regarding demographics; age, monthly income and education, gender, and marital status. The second part is devoted to measuring the destination image and customer satisfaction by 35 questions. There are 5 likert scale type responds to measure 30 destination image questions and 5 customer satisfaction questions. Accordingly, the statements in the questions were arranged to be evaluated as 1-strongly disagree, 2-disagree, 3-undecided, 4-agree, and 5-strongly agree.

3.4. Data Analysis

The current study has used SPSS Version 23 in conjunction with PLS (Partial Least Squares) regression method for data analyses. First the descriptive statistics was performed together with psychometric properties of the measures. Then the study scales were put to Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to assure support for the concerns of dimensionality, convergent and discriminant validity (Chin 1998; Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson, 2010). PLS regression works well in analyzing a series of cause-and-effect relationships (Gustafsson and Johnson, 2004; Ringle, Sven, and Jan-Michael, 2015). Once the measure was validated, PLS regression was used to test the validity of the proposed model.

4. Results

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

As can be seen in the table 1 below, data on the demographic characteristics of the participants were obtained. As can be seen in Table 1, data on the 'gender' factor were obtained from demographic characteristics. In the light of these data, 42 of the 100 participants are female and 58 are male. Table 1 shows the 'age' factor distribution among the demographic characteristics. According to this, out of a total of 100 participants, 20% of the participants are 24 years old and younger, 31% are 25-35 years old, 41% are 36-49 years old, and 8% are 50 years old and over. Table 1 shows the distribution of 'education level' among demographic characteristics. The expression as a percentage refers to the participants with 22% primary school, 39% high school, 18% associate degree, 17% undergraduate, 3% master's and 3% doctorate education. Table 1 shows the 'marital status' factor distribution among the demographic characteristics. Accordingly, 40% of the 100 participants are married and 60% are single. Finally table 1 shows the 'income level' distribution from demographic characteristics. According to this, 18% of the participants have an income level of 1,300 TL and below, 50% of the participants with an income level of 1,301-2,999 TL, 20% of the participants with an income level of 3,000-4,999 TL, and 4% of them with 5,000 TL and above.

Table 1: Demographic Profiles

Demographic variable	Sample composition	Percentage
Age	24 years and less 25-35 years 36-49 years 50 years and over	20.0 31.0 41.0 8.0
Gender	Female Male	42.0 58.0
Education	Secondary education and lower Vocational school Undergraduate Masters Doctorate	61.0 18.0 17.0 3.0 3.0
Marital Status	Married Single	40.0 60.0
Monthly Income	1300 TL and less 1301-2999 TL 3000-4999 TL 5000 and over	18.0 50.0 28.0 4.0

The table 2 shows that the average mean score for customer satisfaction scale is 4.062 which means the respondents have positive perceptions in general. Along with this, the average mean score for destination image is 3.915 which means the respondents have positive image in general. However there are some items that the respondents are neutral and not much satisfied. Such that the mean score for DEIM6 (Tourism infrastructure is sufficient) is low that means the infrastructural tourism developments are needed for Amasya. Second, the mean score for DEIM31 (I think it has a fast night life and entertainment environment) seems low that means the tourists expect more entertainment and more night life facilities should be organized. Third, the mean score for DEIM33 (It has an advanced, public transport transportation system) is low that means the tourists are not much satisfied with the public transport transportation system and new developments needed on this. Finally the mean score for DEIM35 (There are services for tourists) seems low that means the tourists are not satisfied of touristic services and there are limitations on this.

Table 2: Mean Values and Standard Deviations for the Scale Items

Codes	Scale items	Mean	Std. Deviation
SAT1	I truly enjoyed this trip.	3.96	0.81
SAT2	I will recommend this trip to my relatives.	4.10	0.99
SAT3	This trip has been the way I wanted it to be.	4.05	0.83
SAT4	This destination has a positive image.	4.05	0.95
SAT5	I am glad to have come to this destination.	4.15	0.85
DEIM6	**Tourism infrastructure is sufficient.**	**3.41**	1.27
DEIM7	I think it's a nice place to take a vacation.	3.97	0.94
DEIM8	It is a nice place to get to know a new culture.	4.11	0.95
DEIM9	It is a suitable place to experience different excitements.	3.98	0.88
DEIM10	It is a place to relax, away from stress.	4.10	0.89
DEIM11	It has sufficient number of accommodation facilities.	4.00	0.86
DEIM12	Accommodation facilities are very convenient.	4.04	0.87
DEIM13	Accommodation is available for every budget.	3.98	0.87
DEIM14	There is a certain standard of cleanliness and hygiene in the facilities.	4.05	0.86
DEIM15	Access to accommodation facilities is easy.	4.01	0.89
DEIM16	People living in Amasya are friendly and warm-blooded.	4.15	0.88
DEIM17	Local shopkeepers are helpful.	4.10	0.87
DEIM18	Local employees are kind.	4.06	0.85
DEIM19	I think the weather conditions are favorable for the holiday.	3.99	0.98
DEIM20	It has pristine environmental conditions.	4.02	0.84
DEIM21	I think it has an untouched nature and a clean environment.	4.00	0.89
DEIM22	I think it has interesting historical sites.	4.12	0.92
DEIM23	I think it's a safe place to travel.	4.04	0.95
DEIM24	I think it has a unique view and different natural beauties.	3.99	0.98
DEIM25	I think it hosts interesting cultural events.	4.16	0.90
DEIM26	The standard of living is high	3.90	0.96
DEIM27	I think that the price of the products sold and the services offered is suitable for me.	4.02	0.97
DEIM28	I think the shopping opportunities are sufficient.	3.89	0.98
DEIM29	It has good quality restaurants.	4.06	0.90
DEIM30	Local dishes are delicious.	3.86	1.10
DEIM31	**I think it has a fast night life and entertainment environment.**	**3.47**	1.31
DEIM32	I feel safe walking on the street.	3.77	1.00
DEIM33	**It has an advanced, public transport transportation system.**	**3.49**	1.21
DEIM34	**There are many package tours available for this destination.**	**3.39**	1.05
DEIM35	**There are services for tourists.**	**3.32**	1.21

3.2. Psychometric Properties of the Measures

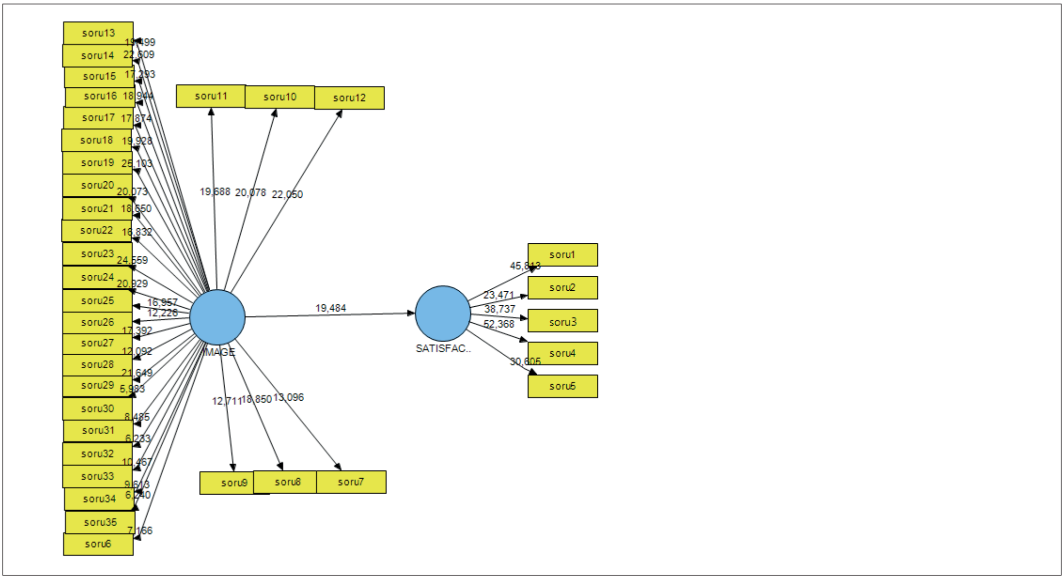
The details for the measurement items can be seen in Table 3. The Cronbach's alpha (α) and composite reliability (CR) measures were over the minimum value of .70, which depicts that items are representative of the latent constructs and internal consistency was adequate (Hair et al., 2010). As the second step, in order to check the adequacy of distribution of values for each construct, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test was performed as recommended by Field (2000) and consequently each of them were found to be over the least value of 0.50 (Customer satisfaction = 0.874, Destination image = 0.940). Furthermore, based on the Bartlett's test of sphericity measure, the multivariate normality of the set of distributions was normal for the constructs that signals a significant value, $p = 0.000$ (< 0.05). Thus, the data was ready for factor analysis (Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998). Table 3 presents factor loads test results for each construct. Convergent validity was satisfied in that factor loadings were high (values ranged from .520 to .880). Additionally, all constructs average variances extracted (AVE) values of all constructs were over the minimum value of .50, indicating convergent validity and all t-values over 1.96 are approved as significant values, (Chin, 1998; Hair Black, Babin and Anderson, 2014; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

Table 3: Factor Load, *t*-values, Reliabilities, and AVE Results

Codes	Scale items	Factor loads	t-value	Alpha	AVE
SAT1	I truly enjoyed this trip.	,846	46,22	**0.94**	**0.832**
SAT2	I will recommend this trip to my relatives.	,822	23,61		
SAT3	This trip has been the way I wanted it to be.	,815	38,40		
SAT4	This destination has a positive image.	,880	52,00		
SAT5	I am glad to have come to this destination.	,798	30,55		
DEIM6	Tourism infrastructure is sufficient.	,618	7,06	**0.97**	**0.601**
DEIM7	I think it's a nice place to take a vacation.	,632	12,96		
DEIM8	It is a nice place to get to know a new culture.	,755	18,78		
DEIM9	It is a suitable place to experience different excitements.	,597	12,39		
DEIM10	It is a place to relax, away from stress.	,749	19,81		
DEIM11	It has sufficient number of accommodation facilities.	,721	19,81		
DEIM12	Accommodation facilities are very convenient.	,714	21,97		
DEIM13	Accommodation is available for every budget.	,742	19,69		
DEIM14	There is a certain standard of cleanliness and hygiene in the facilities.	,750	22,42		
DEIM15	Access to accommodation facilities is easy.	,709	17,02		
DEIM16	People living in Amasya are friendly and warm-blooded.	,757	18,70		
DEIM17	Local shopkeepers are helpful.	,714	18,05		
DEIM18	Local employees are kind.	,752	19,75		
DEIM19	I think the weather conditions are favorable for the holiday.	,759	24,71		
DEIM20	It has pristine environmental conditions.	,741	19,84		
DEIM21	I think it has an untouched nature and a clean environment.	,707	18,65		
DEIM22	I think it has interesting historical sites.	,706	16,55		
DEIM23	I think it's a safe place to travel.	,757	23,80		
DEIM24	I think it has a unique view and different natural beauties.	,756	20,91		
DEIM25	I think it hosts interesting cultural events.	,663	16,82		
DEIM26	The standard of living is high	,618	12,08		
DEIM27	I think that the price of the products sold and the services offered is suitable for me.	,731	17,70		
DEIM28	I think the shopping opportunities are sufficient.	,681	12,06		
DEIM29	It has good quality restaurants.	,740	21,61		
DEIM30	Local dishes are delicious.	,520	6,027		
DEIM31	I think it has a fast night life and entertainment environment.	,664	8,47		
DEIM32	I feel safe walking on the street.	,529	6,13		
DEIM33	It has an advanced, public transport transportation system.	,706	10,50		
DEIM34	There are many package tours available for this destination.	,847	9,93		
DEIM35	There are services for tourists.	,684	6,28		

Although the relationship between destination image and customer satisfaction was not hypothesized in the current study. PLS regression analysis was performed by a bootstrapping technique to determine the *t*-statistics and to find out the path significance (Hair at al., 2014). The goal of PLS is maximizing the explained variance (i.e., the R^2 value) of the endogenous latent variables in a PLS regression (Hair, Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt, 2017). In this regard, based on the test results, the destination image explained 69% (R^2) of the variance in customer satisfaction and also the Figure 1 shows the *t*-statistics results that destination image makes a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction (= 0.828, t = 19.48, $p < 0.01$).

Figure 1: PLS Regression Test Results



4. Conclusion

It is only possible to manage a destination that has a different cultural richness in each region, together with social organizations such as non-governmental organizations, voluntary organizations and local governments. Brand and image concepts have a very important place in this system called destination marketing. The attempt to create a destination brand should not only be a phenomenon related to tourism employees, but should be seen as a mass transformation project. The first step of this is to create a destination image. Choosing a tourism destination as a holiday destination is directly related to the image of that destination in the eyes of tourists. The creation of this image is possible by combining many elements. So, in the current work, the factors contributing to the formation of the destination image were discussed and measured.

The results obtained from this study, which was conducted to evaluate the destination image and satisfaction levels of domestic tourists and visitors coming to Amasya destination, helped us to learn how satisfied the tourists and visitors are from this destination and to examine the reasons for the results. On the other hand, by comparing the province of Amasya with various tourism destinations in Turkey in terms of tourism adequacy, it will allow us to have an idea about what the minuses and pluses are. In addition, it will inform the managers and academicians who will conduct research in the field of tourism about the issues that should be given importance in terms of tourism destination image. The first impressions of the tourists who temporarily leave their places of residence for different causes, for example, entertainment, sightseeing, relaxing, sports and health are formed by observing the historical and natural places, the adequacy of transportation opportunities, the perception of security and the culture of the destination region. Moreover, the first impression of tourists regarding the destination is formed through the quality and adequacy of the accommodation to stay as well. Thus, these components make sense in the eyes of travellers in terms of the perception of destination.

Generally, according to the results of the survey, the majority of the tourists coming to Amasya province responded that they had enjoyment from visit and thought that they would recommend it to their relatives. Likewise, based on the survey results, tourists who think that the tourism image of

Amasya province is positive think that the natural and historical attractions of this destination make a great contribution to Amasya province. The attitudes and behaviors of the local people towards tourist plays an important role in making a tourism center more attractive. These findings were consistent with the findings found in past research, such that, an empirical study conducted in Portugal by Vieira et al. (2020) contended that "the tangible (e.g., city heritage and natural beauties) and intangible (e.g., experiences during the trip; meet new people and try something different and being an environmentally friendly city) dimensions together turn the destination product into a multi-dimensional asset". A very recent study conducted by Aliedan et al. (2021) found that destination image and tourist experience quality were found to fully mediate the influence of event quality on tourist satisfaction. Another very recent research performed in Langkawi/Malaysia by Nasir, Mohamad, and Ab Ghani (2021) contended that providing high-quality transportation service, attractive culture and adequate infrastructure could directly or indirectly increase tourist visits to Langkawi Island through satisfaction. Similarly, an empirical study conducted by Loi et al. (2017) shows that satisfaction with destination characteristics (e.g., historic and religious places, experiencing different lifestyle, tourist guide service and etc.) are realized to significantly influence the probability of revisit intention of budget travellers to Nepal.

When we look at the results of the survey, 84 out of 100 tourists coming to Amasya province stated that the tradesmen and employees in the region are kind and helpful. In terms of Amasya destination, these statistics show that the social carrying capacity of the local people is very high. On the other hand, 81 out of every 100 people who came to the city were satisfied with the quality of the restaurants, 72 out of 100 people had positive opinions about the local dishes in this region. In addition, most of the tourists who come to Amasya destination state that it has natural and historical attractions and think that it has an untouched clean environment.

On the other hand, importantly, 68 out of 100 participants of the survey study consider Amasya destination as a reliable tourism region. However the remaining 13% did not see it as reliable, while 19% stated that they did not have an opinion. Amasya province is a new emerging tourism destination and is not well known due limited marketing strategies, so the authorities should prepare a strategic plan to search the reasons of this perception. The province of Amasya has some other points that need to be developed in order to increase its touristic attractiveness and to provide better service to incoming tourists. Because the most of participants do not agree with the scale item that is "There are many package tours for this destination". This means the province of Amasya has great deficiencies in terms of promotional marketing. With the minimization of these deficiencies, it is undoubtedly thought that the rate of tourists coming to the city will be increased. In addition, there will be great increases in package tour sales. Effective management of tourism destinations depends on factors such as examining the characteristics of the destination well, coordinating its resources and marketing it in a way that will create the desired level of demand. The products and target audience of the destination can also affect destination management. It is normal for the management program for each destination to differ. In this respect, Amasya province possesses many historical places cultural heritage from Ottoman Empire and other civilizations, ecotourism and farm tourism sources. Thus DMO and other related authorities should make a management program over these touristic products.

Moreover, most of the participants think that the tourism infrastructure of this destination is insufficient. Considering that the tourism season is the most intense in June, July and August, excluding our provinces that carry out winter tourism throughout our country, it is possible to state that Amasya may encounter a number of challenges at this point. Another scale item that the most of respondents do not agree is "It has an advanced public transportation system". The population that Amasya destination will have together with the tourists coming in the summer months will exceed the limits of the public transport capacity of this province. For this reason, the problem of 'transportation' is seen as one of the most important elements to be solved. In solving the problems of the region with a team of professionals on paying attention to the environmental planning of the destination, determining the carrying capacity and accepting tourists accordingly, and conducting the Environmental Impact Assessment should be the first step.

This study like others may have some limitations. Such that, the current research was carried out on domestic tourists and visitors coming to Amasya, and foreign tourists who made a small number of visits during the year could not be included. Since it is expected that a positive destination image will positively affect customer satisfaction, this relationship was not hypothesized, but the relationship between them was tested and presented statistically. As a result, the main point here is to reveal which factors are perceived positively or negatively by the tourists, which the study has accomplished. For future research studies with a larger sample including foreign tourists in the region may be carried out at certain time intervals. In this context, researches can be conducted to test the differences in image perception between countries. Although visitor views are affected by different factors, it is thought that such studies are important for the future of tourism and should be repeated.

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The folk as a resource in the construction of the tourism image of Alto Minho (Portugal)

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Abstract: Based on the analysis of the discourse (s) on Portuguese folklore and the rescue of the past and the traditions through the invention/ reinvention of the cultural heritage, the objectives of the research are focused on the study and the valorization of folklore while An an important resource that shapes the image of Minho (Northern Portugal). We also propose to identify some of the most representative folk groups and to analyze the repercussions of the use of these manifestations of popular culture, especially the traditional dances and songs of the Alto Minho region (Portugal), in the formulation of the image of the destination, with special incidence in the district of Viana Of the Castle Viana do Castelo. We also propose to ascertain to what extent these folkloric manifestations have broadened their function of affirming the cultural identity of the receiving community. And how can we discuss an eventual deconstruction of the identity brought about by tourism? Taking into account the epistemological framework of the Social Sciences, we propose to adopt fundamentally the qualitative/ deductive methodologies since we will start from a documentary collection and analysis of the folklorist discourse (s), plus the unstructured and open data collection, namely open interviews and observation participant. The research design follows an ethnographic matrix with the use of deductive methodologies, and the guiding thread of the narrative presents a duality of the way folklore is conceived, an analysis that focuses on the confrontation and overlap of the so-called "paradigm of recomposition" Which formulates it as a representation of past customs and tradition and the pattern of 'stylization' which expresses folklore as an 'object' in itself.

Keywords: Folklore; Identities; Authenticity; Simulacrum; Tourist destination.

O folclore como recurso na construção da imagem turística do Alto Minho (Portugal)

Resumo: Com base na análise do(s) discurso(s) sobre o folclore português e do resgate do passado e das tradições através da invenção/reinvenção do património cultural, os objetivos da investigação centram-se no estudo e na valorização do folclore enquanto importante recurso que molda a imagem do Minho (Norte de Portugal). Propomos identificar alguns dos grupos folclóricos mais representativos e analisar as repercussões da utilização destas manifestações da cultura popular, em especial as danças e cantares tradicionais da região, na formulação da imagem do destino, com incidência no distrito de Viana do Castelo. Propomos também averiguar em que medida essas manifestações folclóricas ampliaram a sua função de afirmação da identidade cultural da comunidade recetora. E como discutir uma eventual desconstrução da identidade provocada pelo turismo? Tendo em conta o enquadramento epistemológico das Ciências Sociais, propomos adotar metodologias qualitativas/dedutivas, uma vez que partimos de uma recolha e análise documental do(s) discurso(s) folclorista(s), a que somamos a recolha de dados não estruturados e abertos, nomeadamente entrevistas abertas e a técnica da observação participante. O desenho da pesquisa segue uma matriz etnográfica com o uso de metodologias dedutivas. O fio condutor da narrativa apresenta uma dualidade da forma como o folclore é concebido, cuja análise incide no confronto e sobreposição do chamado "paradigma da recomposição" vs padrão da "estilização", o primeiro formulando o folclore como uma representação de costumes e tradições passadas, o segundo que o expressa como um 'objeto' em si.

Palavras-chave: Folclore; Identidades; Autenticidade; Simulacro; Destino turístico.

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1. Introduction

Folklore is now commonly accepted as synonymous with culture of popular origin, although it also serves to express its study and establish the representation of that same culture. In this last assertion, folklore forms an object that "defines a social field" (Bourdieu, 1989). However, it is within the scope of the discourse on Portuguese folklore (Branco, 1999) that, from the 1920s-30s, when the first folkloric groups were founded (Carvalho, 1999; Alves, 2013), to the present day, we can verify a duality of the way it is conceived. On the one hand, it is understood as a form of "representation" associated with past customs; on the other hand, it is considered a mode of "stylization" that turns folklore into an "object" in itself (Vasconcelos, 2001; Carvalho, 1996). Therefore, taking into account the "tension" presented by the "folkloric figuration" that fed recurrent "instrumental discourses" (Vasconcelos, 2001), today we can see the existence of a "sociological discourse" around folklore. This discourse crosses it with the study of social memories of cultural heritage, as a "symbolic and meta-cultural representation of local identities", in an eminently socio-anthropological perspective. Aware of the current use of folklore as a manifestation of popular culture as a tourist resource (Scott, 2000; Santagata, 2004; Linhares, Henriques & Moreira, 2014). for the construction of the destination image (Minho), we consider this way of activating cultural heritage to be a substantive element of the strategy of "self-survival". and self-definition" of the place. And it is here that the question of its commodification and "staged authenticity" (Fortuna, 1995; Baudrillard, 1991; McIntosh, 1999) arises.

2. Litterature Review

The image itself is a "complex and multidisciplinary" concept that has enabled studies under various approaches, such as the image of the tourist destination, the brand and its identity and value, but also the territorial image, for example. In the present work we will approach the image of the tourist destination, now formulated as an object of study in the scope of tourism and leisure (Etchner, C. M. & Ritchie, J. 2003). It is recalled that Echtner and Ritchie already defined the destination image as the "set of attributes" or "ideas" that tourists visiting the place or intending to visit have of that same destination area, which is also associated with tourist product idea (Etchner & Ritchie, 1993). In fact, the study of the image of the tourist destination takes us back to the end of the 20th century, although interest in this topic has now increased in the context of tourism research, with a special focus on territorial branding (Gallarza, M.; Saura, I. & Garcia, H., 2002; Davis, 2002). There is also an interest in t(he constitutive elements of the offer and the way in which they embody an identity and a composite product and how they are perceived by the visitor (Kastenholz, 2002), studies that have been pursued in an academic context or by territorial and tourist management entities (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Choi, Lehto & Morrison, 2007). The image of the destination that permeates the outside can be approached as a result of the way the "consumer" perceives the tourist product, which emphasizes the need for the "destination manager" to anticipate an "image" of it in order to stimulate a "destination manager". impact" on tourist behaviors (Kastenholz, 2002; Beerli & Martin, 2004). The image of a tourist territory results from a construct based on "signs" that, in the global computation, embody the formulation of values (Gallarza, Saura & Garcia, 2002)

In an analytical study on the "state of the art" of the tourist destination image and what should shape it, Gallarza, Saura and Holbrook (2011) highlights the "receptiveness" of the host community, the scenic environment and the "cultural attractions". The appreciation of a culture through everyday and social experience constitutes what is now called cultural heritage, "a symbolic synthesis of identity values in connection with the environment" (Pereiro Pérez, 2013; Bourdieu, 1989). However, the way in which individuals use and recreate their heritage goes beyond simple conscious choice. As is well known, that concept was born in France in the 1980s and came to redefine the expressions of folklore, popular and traditional culture. The concept of cultural heritage has become, at the same time, the "emblem of the community" and the reinforcement of identities, even promoting solidarity and making differences and internal conflicts disappear in order to build images of the community. It should be noted, however, that the notion of "heritage" encompasses all the resources that are inherited, movable and immovable assets, with the aim of interconnecting generations and guaranteeing the survival of groups, where the notion of "legacy" is subsumed; "cultural heritage" must have a "public", community and identity meaning (Pereiro Pérez, 2013: 40; Escaleira, 2009). But the distinction between this and the concept of culture must also be observed, mainly because of the way it is externalized in the representation of this "through the transformation of the value of cultural elements". And because it is not plausible to patrimonialize or preserve everything that encompasses culture (Barreto, 2000), cultural heritage is simply a "symbolic representation of culture" imbricated in the "negotiation of meanings". This representative synthesis of identity values of a society that culture contains and in which the signs are confirmed as their own and related to their environment, makes cultural heritage a "transversal product". Therefore, the cultural tourist consumes products that are rescued from the past (Santana Talavera, 2003), naturally without dispensing with contemporary culture and experiencing the lifestyles of a host group. There are several works that tend to theoretically frame the understanding of the so-called "folk performance" on a european scale, of which the studies *The invention of tradition*, by Eric Hobsbawm and Terence Ranger (1983), and Some problems of theory and method in the study of musical change, by John Blacking, included in the Yearbook of the international folk music council and more recently in the Yearbook for the traditional music (ICTM, 2019). Aware of the current use of folklore as a manifestation of popular culture as a tourist resource (Scott, 2000; Santagata, 2004) and as a construct of the destination image (Minho), we have in this way of activating cultural heritage a substantive element of a self-survival strategy. and self-definition of the location. And it is here that the question of its commodification and "staged authenticity" (Fortuna, 1995) arises.

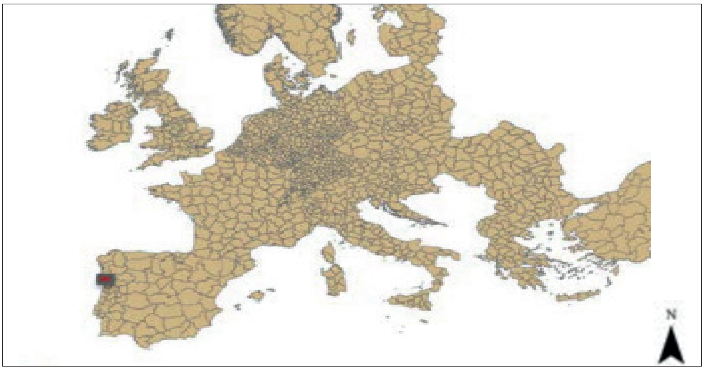
3. Methodology

Taking into account the epistemological framework of the Social Sciences, our study adopts qualitative/deductive methodologies, starting from data collection using open techniques, namely through open interviews, participant observation, discourses and analysis of meaning. In this way, we adjusted the data collection techniques to what is intended to be questioned in each component of the object of study. A causal descriptive research was chosen, in order to inventory facts, observe certain phenomena and identify variables, while testing hypotheses, with the aim of establishing cause and effect relationships between the different variables. A partially qualitative study was chosen, continuing exploratory research, to which we also associated a mixed component when a quantitative approach was applied, namely with the administration of measurement by scale through open questions using the survey in order to provide understanding on the consumer side, in this case the tourist (Quivy & Campenhoudt, 2005). As presented by Echtner and Ritchie (1993), the unstructured approach made it possible to identify "unique characteristics" of the product, enabling the collection of responses on tourist sensitivities with regard to the perceived image of the tourist destination (Gallarza; Saura & Garcia, 2002).

4. The tourist destination Alto Minho

Located in the North of Portugal, Alto Minho coincides with NUT III Minho Lima with around 250,275 inhabitants, corresponding to a rural-urban coastal territory with a unique diversity of endogenous resources - natural, heritage and cultural - distributed over the ten municipalities of the sub-region (Viana do Castelo district) that constitute a destination area with different poles of potential touristic valorization.

Map 1: Viana do Castelo District, Portugal (european scale)



Source: CIM Alto Minho. *Alto Minho 2020.*

The strategic positioning of the region where Alto Minho is located is articulated with a "proximity market" that has more than 3 million people (NUT II North of Portugal). In terms of infrastructure, this region has transport and communications with international airports (i.e. Francisco Sá Carneiro Airport, Porto), sea ports and a well-organized road network. At the same time, it has a duly qualified and competitive business network, as well as a higher education network that includes some of the largest universities in the country. This region also shows clear patterns of sustainability in environmental and energy terms, accompanied by sectors of specialization and strong "technological intensity" and internationalization, highlighting the economy of the sea, green energy, the forest, agri-food / wine and tourism. However, the ten municipalities in the region that make up the district of Viana do Castelo, have a territorial incidence of around 40% in mountain areas. In these mountain areas, the Serra D'Arga, the higher elevations of Ponte de Lima, Paredes de Coura and Melgaço, as well as the Serras da Peneda, Soajo and Amarela Peneda, Soajo and Amarela mountains, already within the Peneda-Gerês National Park, stand out. It is, therefore, a territory with specific characteristics, whether natural, scenic, socio-cultural and economic, today marked by a marked demographic devitalization and "agricultural abandonment". However, tourism presents itself today as one of the components that can reverse that cycle of crisis, mainly for its cultural and natural potential, as attested by the distinction made to it in the "European Charter for Sustainable Tourism", enshrined by the EUROPARC (European Federation of National and Natural Parks), emphasizing the commitment to a paradigm of "quality tourism" that combines the participation of institutions, companies and the local population.

5. Observation area

The Portuguese folkloric "field" (Bourdieu, 1989) has its "promoters" or "theorists" folklorists, as well as "practitioners" or "actors", that is, the so-called "players", "singers" and "dancers" of the folkloric groups or "ranchos". In addition, the "intermediaries" who arrange and promote the festivals and pilgrimages, as well as the operators of the tourist industry and, also, consumers (Vasconcelos, 2003). This "camp" is based on more than two thousand cultural and recreational associations based on a local and regional context and alluded to with the term "folkloric", whose activity focuses on the representation of dances and songs and/or in the ethnographic field. In turn, the Portuguese Folklore Federation (FFP, 2018) currently brings together only about six and a half hundred genuine groups in the "representation", along with other ethnographic associations spread across the country. We can consider the existence of a "market" embodied in the "exhibition and consumption of folklore" (Vasconcelos, 2001). Agents of this market are the committees that organize local parties and pilgrimages, as well as municipalities, record labels, tour operators and the hotel sector, among others. Most of the folklore groups in activity date back to the 1980s and derive from ethnographic dynamics grounded in a "space of cultural identity" and "symbolic capital" (Vasconcelos, 2001; Alves, 2013). With the emergence of the Portuguese Folklore Federation, the main guideline began to focus on the uncompromising "imposition and defense" of the "reconstitution", considering it imperative that the federated folklore groups continued an ethnographic collection work upstream of the presentation on stage of dancing and singing. The struggle between "authentic" representation and "pure recreation" kept many ranches away from Federation tutelage from the beginning. For example, in the district of Viana do Castelo, there are only 11 ranches with the designation of "effective associates" and three with the designation of "adherent associates" as federated. In a closer look at the same district, we find many non-federated ranches, especially in the municipalities of Vila Nova de Cerveira, Valença, Melgaço, Paredes de Coura and, particularly, in Caminha, which encompasses the Serra de Arga Arga Mountain area. The municipality of Viana do Castelo alone, according to data from the cultural services, has 28 active folkloric groups. In fact, since the origin of the Federation, there have been several folk groups in this area that refused to be subject to federative guidelines, despite the fact that affiliation to the Federation was valued in its early years (Silva, 1994; Soromenho, 2003). The choreographic richness of the Minho region, as already highlighted by Pedro Homem de Mello in his book Folclore, is rooted in the diversity of areas in which folklore is presented: "[…] that of Castro Laboreiro and that which goes from Melgaço to Valença, followed by to the south, those of Vila Nova de Cerveira (village of Gondarém and Serra de Sopo), Coura valley (with Covas as its centre), Arga mountain range (Dem, Cerquido, S. Lourenço da Montaria, Arga and Estorãos) , Afife and Carreço, Viana do Castelo (Meadela, Perne and Santa Marta de Portuzelo), Arcos de Valdevez (including Soajo) and, returning to the starting point, Paredes de Coura" (Mello, 1971). As an example of groups "not aligned" with the Federation, mention should be made of the Associação de

Danças e Cantares Genuínos da Serra de Arga and the Rancho Folclórico de Dem (Vasconcelos, 1997a; Castro, 1979), made up of inhabitants of the parishes of Arga. de Cima, Arga de Baixo, Arga de São João and Dem (Cerqueira, 2006; Vasconcelos, 1997b), and also in the municipality of Caminha the Rancho Folclórico das Lavradeiras de Gondar and the Group of Traditional Songs of Âncora. It should be noted that Viana do Castelo has an entity that aims to "research, defend and disseminate the folklore of Alto Minho". Founded in 1981, headquartered in the city of Viana do Castelo, the Associação de Grupos Folclóricos do alto Minho associates the overwhelming majority of folk groups in the municipality of Viana do Castelo.

Table 1: Folkloric groups active in the municipality of Viana do Castelo

Name	Federated Group
Grupo de Danças e Cantares da casa do Povo de Vila Nova da Anha	Not
Grupo Recreativo e Cultural de Castelo de Neiva	Not
Grupo Folclórico de Chafé	Not
Grupo Folclórico "S. Paulo da Cruz" de Barroselas	Not
Grupo Folclórico Cultural Danças e Cantares de Carreço	Effectiv
Grupo Folclórico e Etnográfico de Castelo do Neiva	Effectiv
Grupo Folclórico da Casa do Povo de Lanheses	Effectiv
Grupo de Danças e Cantares de Perre	Not
Grupo de Danças e Cantares de S. Salvador da Torre	Not
Rancho Folclórico das Lavradeiras de Vila Franca	Not
Ronda Típica de Carreço	Not
Grupo Folclórico de Santa Marta de Portuzelo	Effectiv
Grupo Folclórico da Danças e Cantares de Alvarães	Not
Grupo Etnográfico de Areosa	Not
Grupo Folclórico das Bordadeiras da Casa do Povo de Cardielos	Not
Rancho Folclórico das Terras de Geraz do Lima	Not
Rancho Folclórico do Centro Desportivo e Cultural de Outeiro	Not
Grupo Folclórico Infantil da Associação Cultural e Desportiva de Santa Marta de Portuzelo	Not
Rancho Regional das Lavradeiras de Carreço	Not
Rancho Danças e Cantares de Afife	Not
Grupo Folclórico de Viana do Castelo	
Grupo Folclórico das Lavradeiras da Meadela	Effectiv
Ronda Típica da Meadela	Not
Grupo de Danças e Cantares de Serreleis	Not
Grupo das Cantadeiras do Vale do Neiva	Not
Grupo Folclórico de S. Lourenço da Montaria	Not
Rancho Folclórico Serradores do Monte de Vila Fria	Not
Grupo Etnofolclórico "Renascer" de Areosa	Not

Source: Self elaboration based on the registration of the C. M. from Viana do Castelo and Federação Portuguesa de Folclore.

Apart from the discourses of reconstitution verses figurative stylization, part of these folkloric groups collect “memories”, reinforce “identities” and contribute to “local development”. In this sense, the local associative dimension promoted by these folkloric groups is highlighted (Gallop, 1961). In a study presented within the scope of the 2nd Congress of Folklore of Ribatejo on the folklore group as an instrument of social animation, José Jana values the ethnographic aspect that, “beyond the investigation of the social forms of the past, can be affirmed as a work on the collective consciousness of time […]” (Jana, 1990: 94). In this way, the folk group can “help to raise awareness that today is different from yesterday and that today’s behaviors cannot copy those of yesterday”. For this reason, he still considers an “expansion” of the work/action of folk groups essential, and adds: “An exhibition on agricultural implements that have fallen into disuse should perhaps be complemented with a film whose plot reconstructs that time […] and with a debate on the current problems in agriculture and a documentary on industrial agriculture and perhaps even a field trip […]. All this and much more constitutes and enhances the tourist product that can be sold, both in domestic and foreign tourism, and contributes to the fact that tourism development does not come at the expense of those who should be its first beneficiaries: the local population” (Jana, 1990: 94-95). The interest of alternative tourism developed after the 1980s was based on the exploration of new territories for the tourist offer. Cultural tourism as conceived today results from the development of the conventional tourism life cycle. The tourist exploitation of heritage resources began to incorporate tourism into an economic, business and institutional strategy. Thus, due to the pressure of the economy, the cultural legacy transformed into a product for consumption, can mean the attempt to transform the local culture into a consumable product (Greenwood, 1977), and it still presupposes the discussion about authenticity and about the discourse of simulacrum (Baudrillard, 1991). In turn, tourism as a means of “intercultural contact” has been outdated. Furthermore, cultural tourism has been, therefore, a promoter of exchanges, a catalyst for them and, at the same time, ballast for cultural transformations and renovations, also considering stereotypes and identities as an economic strategy (Santana Talavera, 1994).

6. Investigative process and results analysis

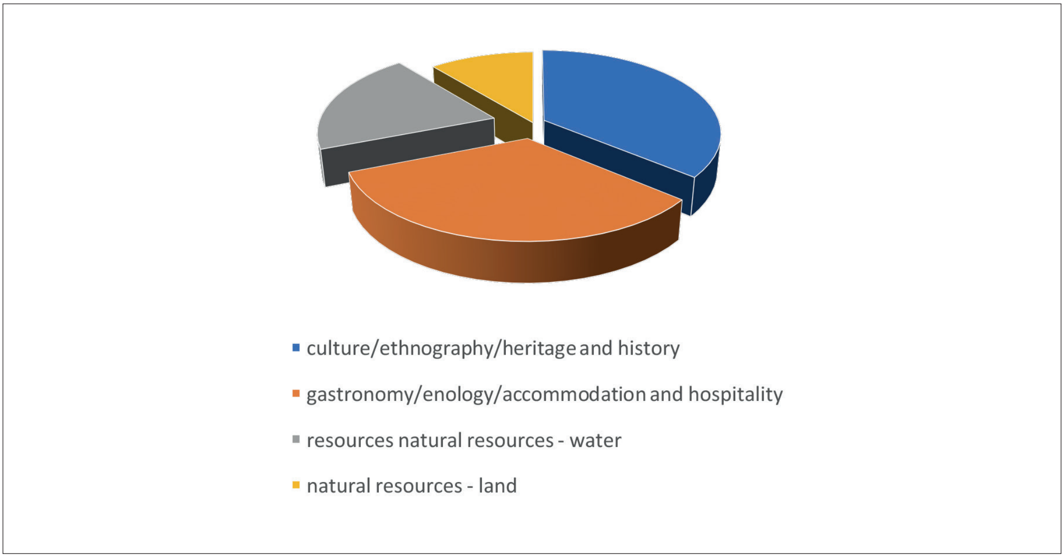
Our research was based on Pizam (1994) and McDaniel & Gates (2004). The investigation went through the identification of the problem with an exploratory approach, the review of the state of the art and direct observation. He We then designed a descriptive process with a view to ascertaining the visitor and his perception of the tourist destination. For this last step, we opted for a data collection technique based on mixed measurement, by scale measurement with an open question component, in an unstructured approach. At this stage, the “non-probabilistic convenience” sample. The questionnaires were applied in multiple strategic locations of the tourist destination, namely tourist structures (institutional and private). The universe of respondents focused on visitors/tourists in transit at the destination (incidence in the municipalities of Viana do Castelo and Caminha and Ponte de Lima) over the time the questionnaire was being applied and who used the various row services available (enterprises accommodation, visitors in leisure/culture facilities, entertainment and tourist agency companies, as well as public tourist information services). The data were collected through direct collection from interested parties in the period from June to August 2021. 90 questionnaires out of the 200 applied were validated (45% validation). The information collected in the launched and validated questionnaires was inserted into the SPSS 15.0 software for the respective treatment. In general, visitors/tourists indicate leisure (76%) as motivation for travel, although other motivations such as family or business were identified. In order to perceive the relevance attributed by visitors / tourists to the various characteristics / attributes of the visit, a Likert scale (5 points) was used from a list of 14 attributes listed (Table 2). Considering the respondents’ options on the attributes of the tourist destination, we can make components, we can associate the attributes/characteristics of the offer of the destination in 4 dimensions that associate the resources of the offer. From the outset, the dimension of culture/ ethnography/ heritage and history predominates, followed by the dimension of gastronomy/enology/accommodation and hospitality. The other two dimensions are constituted by the dimension that uses natural resources – water, and the one that uses natural resources – land (Graph 1).

Table 2: Ranking the relevance of attributes considered by the visitor/tourist

Attributes indicated by the visitor/tourist	Degree of importance*
Gastronomy / oenological experience	4,25
Feasts and pilgrimages	4,15
Folklore and ethnography	3,75
National parks and protected landscapes	3,73
Mountains	3,56
Ocean beaches	3,40
River beaches	3,20
Archaeological Heritage	3,05
Religious Heritage	3,00
Civil Heritage – Manor Houses and Noble Houses	2,29
Quality of accommodation	2,89
Quality of restaurants	2,79
Sympathy of people	2,70
Crafts	2,20

Source: Self-designed questionnaire. * Degree of relevance: 5=Very important; 1=Nothing important)

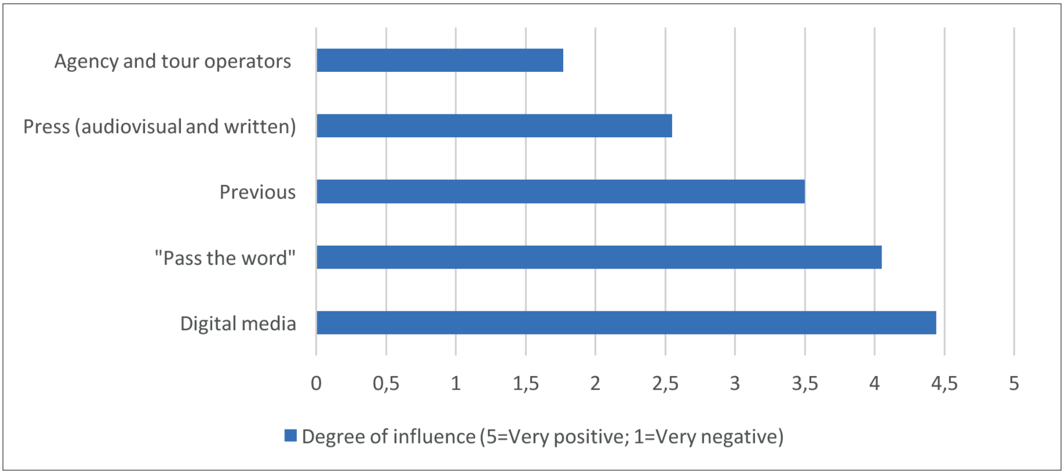
Graph 1: Dimensions of the image of the tourist destination Alto Minho



Source: Self elaboration.

We also investigated the information supports that determined the options for visiting the region, with emphasis on digital media, namely the internet (Choi, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007), followed by personal recommendation ("password"). Thirdly, we note the influence of previous visits, with the written and audiovisual press, tourist promotion leaflets, travel agencies and tour operators remaining in subsequente subsequent places (Graph 2).

Graph 2: Information supporting the options for the visit



Source: Self elaboration

7. Conclusion

The "authenticity on stage is utopian", the applause and the preference for the "beautiful" that generates it does not match the historical rigor that demands ethnoanthropological research. The folkloric bands have motivations that go beyond the search for "figurative authenticity", as they contribute to substantiating the identity of the place and to a development of a local and regional territorialist basis. Furthermore, folklore can represent a "capital for peripheral localities" and a resource for the formulation of the tourist product. At the same time, the use of folklore as a "manifestation of popular culture" as a tourist attraction and a construct of the destination image will contribute to an activation of the cultural heritage, which subsumes a strategy of "self-survival and self-definition" of the place, commodified as authentic. The image perceived by visitors/tourists of the Alto Minho destination is strongly linked to its cultural and ethno-anthropological context, but also marked by the framework provided by its natural resources, with experiences simultaneously associated with water. and the earth. Thus, the imposition of the tourist system and the discussion of the commodification of local culture as a consumable product leads us to the analysis of authenticity and the "simulacrum" (Boudrillard, 1991), and leaves open the debate of what is the local cultural reality in the face of what is shown to the tourist.

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The integration of sustainable tourism policies in European cities.

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Abstract: European cities have experienced an intense growth in tourism and other related mobilities. This pressure on urban centers has increased the public's perception of the need to design more sustainable tourism policies that deal with the various associated dilemmas. This article compares the tourism policies of eleven European cities considering what governments have introduced, or avoided, in their tourism policy documents. The objective is to observe the extent to which these actions directly related to sustainability are being incorporated. The results indicate that local tourism policies are moving away from a model of public action based only on considering the economic impact of tourism and are starting to work with a wider range of associated impacts. In this scenario, the ideas of balance and sustainability find a much clearer accommodation. This research presents a pre-crisis tourism framework that can be challenged during post-Covid19 transitions.

Keywords: Public policy; Sustainable tourism; Tourism policy; Urban tourism; European cities.

La integración de la sostenibilidad en las políticas turísticas de ciudades europeas

Resumen: Las ciudades europeas han experimentado un intenso crecimiento del turismo y otras movilidades relacionadas. Esta presión sobre los centros urbanos ha aumentado la percepción de la necesidad de diseñar políticas de turismo más sostenibles que aborden los diversos dilemas asociados. Este artículo compara las políticas turísticas de once ciudades europeas considerando lo que los gobiernos han introducido o evitado en sus documentos de política turística. El objetivo es observar en qué medida se están incorporando estas acciones directamente relacionadas con la sostenibilidad. Los resultados indican que las políticas turísticas locales se alejan de un modelo de acción pública basado únicamente en la consideración del impacto económico del turismo y comienzan a trabajar con una gama más amplia de impactos asociados. En este escenario, las ideas de equilibrio y sostenibilidad encuentran un acomodo mucho más claro. Esta investigación presenta un marco de turismo previo a la crisis que puede ser deafiado durante las transiciones posteriores a Covid19.

Palabras Clave: Políticas públicas; Política turística; Turismo sostenible; Turismo urbano; Ciudades europeas

1. Introduction

In the last two decades, most European cities have experienced a sustained growth of international tourism mobilities, either in mature destinations like London or Paris or in emerging destinations such as Lisbon or Reykjavík. This phenomenon has greatly challenged European urban cohesion and the sustainability agenda, making the governance of the socio-spatial transformations even more conflictive, derived

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from the increasing penetration of temporal mobilities and international capitals, the rise of short-term rentals mediated by digital platforms, and other issues within the overtourism phenomenon. Recently, the European Parliament covered some of these issues with the publication of a report (Peeters, et al., 2018), where overtourism is highlighted in the first policy-cycle stage of agenda-setting in European cities (p.19).

The accelerated dynamic of urban tourism is linked to and explained by other processes of globalization which are constitutive of contemporary cities. In this context the urban is becoming omnipresent, thus contributing to the urbanisation of lifestyles facilitated by the connections of metropoles (Amin & Trift, 2002). However, the diffusion of information and communication technologies has led to a radical transformation of space ontology, creating tension between "flows" and "places" (Castells, 1999). Cities and regions are becoming 'spaces of flows' and 'spaces of places' considering as staging posts of perpetual flux of mediated infrastructural flow, movement, and exchange (Graham and Marvin, 2001). These processes tend to support the construction of highly valuable spaces, like tourism/recreational urban spaces and the housing market for temporal dwellers (Graham and Marvin, 2011). Global trends such as the low-cost travel, the universalization of social networks and the global spread of new speculative housing capitals increase the rate if urban change in cities, reinforcing their attractiveness (Anton Clavé, 2019). Consequently, cities are fleetingly disrupted and reassembled by mobilities, which is believed to have profound implications for how social and economic processes are played out there (Amin & Thrift, 2002), this having wide implications for democracies (ibid.). For Colomb & Novy (2017), the development of cities as tourism spaces is inherent to globalization and the (neo) liberalisation of cities as entrepreneurial global agents competing among themselves, and urban planning increasingly focusing on place marketing and image-making.

The consequences of the unequal mobilities backed by the overtourism phenomenon and the neo--liberalization of urban tourism for people living in cities is being documented by an increasing number of scholars and non-academic organizations. Recently, several works has been reporting socio-spatial inequalities derived from the high penetration of short-term-rental accommodation mediated by platforms like Airbnb, contributing to touristification of areas already impacted by tourism and gentrification (Arias-Sans & Quaglieri-Domínguez, 2016; Quattrone, et al 2016); other studies have found out how tourism induces gentrification (Cocola-Gant 2018), opens rent gaps (Wachsmuth & Weisler, 2018;), drives the displacement of residents (Yrigoy, 2019; Cocola-Gant 2016) and how mega-events exclude immigrant minorities (Duignan & Pappalepore, 2019). The adaptation of urban spaces for food consumption has also led to *foodfication*, which has brought unequal urban transformations targeting wealthier people in different European cities (Stock & Schmiz, 2019; Mermet, 2017; Dimitrovski & Crespi Vallbona, 2018; Gonzalez & Dawson, 2016; Guimaraes, 2016). Student agency is also challenging urban transformations, as well as changing local class and household structures (Kinton et al, 2016). Other studies have emphasised how overtourism is spreading widely around European cities (Peeters, et al., 2018) and others how place congestion around attractions and city centres contributes to forms of spatial mobility exclusion of residents (Quinn, 2007; Brandajs & Russo, 2019). The increasing socio--environmental issues related with transport infrastructure like cruise ships have been reported at European and regional levels (Transport & Environment, 2019; Carić & Mackelworth, 2014). Researchers have also discovered out how the hospitality sector is contributing to job precarisation, particularly for women and immigrant workers (Cañada, 2018) and the sector has witnessed a significant expansion of informality due to the advent of the "sharing economy" (Heo, 2016).

All these issues have been increasingly contested around European and worldwide cities (Colomb and Novy, 2017). New forms of coping and community empowerment against uneven forms of urban tourism development are also being reported (Ibid.).

The role of governments in managing all these issues is a fundamental issue. Public policies are proposals for intervention designed and implemented by governments to try to deal with the public problems they face. The complexity of the design and implementation of this type of action has been the subject of research for decades (Capano et al. 2019; Hill & Varone, 2016; Peters & Zittoun, 2016). From the very first studies, emphasis has been placed on the fact that public policies are determined by their context, both in terms of institutional structures and the socio-political forces which characterise the different arenas concerned and other specific conditions which determine each situation.

From these contexts, decision-makers prioritise the objectives they wish to achieve and choose the instruments they will use to do so, considering political and institutional constraints and opportunities.

Previous analyses have pointed to the need to improve the understanding of the role of local governments in addressing sustainable development within tourism destination contexts (Beaumont & Dredge, 2010; Dinica, 2009; Wray, 2009). This is something especially true in a context where research points out that, beyond the discourses and narratives advocated, most destinations are still pro-growth, and focused on traditional concerns of economic returns (Beaumont & Dredge, 2010; Dovers & Handmer, 1993; Harrison, Jayawardena & Clayton, 2003; Wight, 2003). Critics of the 'sustainability fix' (Jonas, 2015) point out that mitigation policies with respect to tourism externalities are often subject to hegemonic expansion imperatives and face non-local, 'liquid' and enmeshed agencies, resulting in incoherent and piecemeal reaction tactics which have shown to fall short of providing structural solutions.

This has been demonstrated in different cases, like in that of urban tourism water consumption in Majorca, where the "sustainability fix" creates a lock-in to a conventional growth model in the urban water sector (Hof and Blàzquez-Solom, 2015); by the scant voice that local or regional governments have in the face of the development of infrastructure networks and their local effects (Russo & Scarnato, 2017); by the leeway provided by the EU technology and competitiveness agendas in the face of contentious issues brought locally by the 'platform economy' (Dredge and Gymothy, 2015); and in the formulation of tourism policies in London, where environmental issues are often left to one side (Maxim, 2016).

This also has been approached as an implementation gap or deficit, between the discourse of sustainable tourism goals and practice (several authors in Hall, 2011). In relation to this gap, the scale also matters, as the larger the scale the more the sustainability of tourism is affected by what is occurring outside of the tourism policy domain (Ibid.).

2. Methodologhy

This paper takes as its starting point an earlier report, produced in 2018 (González-Domingo, et al., 2018). This report selected the cities with the highest number of visitors for each EU28 country. Subsequently, we carried out a search on tourism policies in each one, discarding those that did not have any published online or not confirmed upon request with city administrations. Finally, we selected the cases of Amsterdam, Barcelona, Berlin, Brussels, Copenhagen, Dublin, Lisbon, London, Paris, Reykjavik and Vienna.

This analysis compiled the binding plans and measures related to tourism in the city. The starting point was the main tourism plan for the city, as it is summarized in Table 1. When it was necessary to go deeper on some points, other documents relevant for tourism were consulted. This is the case of cities such as Amsterdam, Paris, or Barcelona, where measures not explicitly included in the tourism plans were identified. By instance, in the case of Amsterdam, the document "City in Balance" was included. This programme of actions establishes a vision of how tourism fits into the city, and which in turn deploys other instruments such as the short-stay policy, and dialogues with other policy such as the sharing economy strategy.

Table 1: List of documents analysed for each city

City	Policy documents
Amsterdam	Strategische Agenda Toerisme in de MRA 2025 City in Balance 2018-2022
Barcelona	Tourism Strategic Plan 2020 Decree 159/2012, 20th of November, Tourist Accommodation and Private Holiday Rentals.
Berlin	Sustainable and City-Compatible Berlin Tourism Plan 2018+
Brussels	Plan Stratégique 2016. Sized for tourism & meetings
Copenhagen	The End of Tourism as we Know it. Wonderful Copenhagen
Dublin	Tourism Strategy for Dublin City 2017-2020
Lisbon	Plano estratégico para o turismo da Regiao de Lisboa 2015-2019 País, V. (2018). Lisbon Urban Tourism Policies & Sustainability. Camara Municipal de Lisboa.
London	A Tourism Vision for London 2025
Paris	Stratégie Tourisme 2022 ALUR Law: loi n°2014-366 24 mars 2014 pour l'Accès au Logement et un Urbanisme Rénové
Reykjavik	Tourism strategy for the city of Reykavik "A City for All Seasons"
Vienna	Tourism Strategy 2020

Source: Authors

The analysis consists of carrying out a critical and interpretive analysis of the contents of the current programmatic instruments for tourism. In this line of policy research, Fisher and Gottweis (2012) propose to analyse the formulation of public policies. Furthermore, tourism plans gather multiple and useful information to better understood the government and management of tourism (Velasco González, 2008). Thus, a systematic review of tourism plans allows us to observe how problems are interpreted and prioritized by public authorities and which solutions are contemplated to solve them.

A comparison between tourism plans of different destinations makes it possible to note different ways to understand and to manage issues that might put into question the sustainability of urban destinations. For doing that a selection of indicators are proposed in Table 2, which are mainly based on Santos-Lacueva, Anton Clavé and Saladié (2017):

Table 2: Indicators of analysis

Planning period (Years)		If the planning period permits the inclusion of this strategic principle, considering that sustainability requires long periods to be established.
Diagnosis		What are the problems or threats included that might affect the sustainability of tourism in the city.
Policy goals	Strategic vision	How sustainability is included or otherwise in the vision of the plan.
	Main strategic lines	Whether sustainability appears in the main strategic lines, and if yes, in what way.
Instruments	Measures	If there are any measure or instrument related to the sustainability of tourism, and if yes, which ones.
	Prioritization criteria	Whether the criteria for prioritizing the measures (if any) determine the accomplishment of sustainability development for tourism.
Governance		Explicit coordination with other policy areas or stakeholders: whether proposals related to political coordination between tourism and other departments are included, and if yes, which ones.
Mentions		Frequency of keywords: Number of times that sustainable/sustainability appear by number of pages of the document (mentions/pages).

Source: Authors own elaboration based on Santos-Lacueva, Anton Clavé and Saladié (2017)

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Strategic dimension: period, diagnosis, vision and main strategic lines

3.1.1. Planning Period

The most long-term tourism strategies are founded in Amsterdam (9 years), London and Reykjavik (both 10 years). The rest of cities' tourism plans are shorter-term. Table 3 gathers the planning period of tourism plans for each city.

Only long-term strategies which extend across elections make it possible to effectively include complex and global issues that tourism needs to deal with to guarantee its sustainability (Hall, 2011). However, long-term planning does not mean long term implementation because changes of government usually result in the creation of new strategies even though the previous ones are still in force (Santos-Lacueva, et al., 2017).

In any case, the Reykjavík City Government is the same since 2014, which also explains the maintenance of a long-term strategy. The government of the city of London was elected in 2016, the year in which it launched the current strategy and government of Amsterdam, elected in 2018, also approved its plan the same year.

Table 3: Planning period

City	Planning period														
	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025
Amsterdam								■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
Barcelona						■	■	■	■	■					
Berlin								■	■	■	■				
Brussels						■	■	■	■						
Copenhagen						■	■	■	■						
Dublin							■	■	■	■					
Lisbon					■	■	■	■	■						
London						■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
Paris							■	■	■	■	■	■			
Reykjavik	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■					
Vienna					■	■	■	■	■	■					

Source: Authors

3.1.2. Diagnosis

The tourism plans show a variety of points of view about the impacts of tourism in cities. The diagnosis might reveal not only which problems are recognized by authorities and decision-makers, but also the magnitude and the urgency of those problems. Nevertheless, few plans include a specific part for diagnosis and most of them include this information throughout the document. There are some of them, such as the case of Dublin, Lisbon and Reykjavik that do not contain negative effects of tourism. On the other hand, Barcelona has a very critical approach to tourism considering a wide range of impacts caused, or intensified by, which led to complicate the management of the city. Berlin also takes a more critical look at the management of tourism in the city, incorporating the concept of sustainability *as a guiding principle for the city-friendly further development of Berlin tourism* (Berlin, 2018).

As it is shown in Table 4, the most common issues among the different cases analysed are overcrowding, mainly of the city centres; and gentrification, frequently linked with the balance between residents and visitors or with housing issues. These problems are recognized by authorities in the plans of Amsterdam, Barcelona, Berlin, Brussels, Copenhagen, and Paris. Moreover, we identify other problems which are not recognized in all cities: such as the impacts of visitors on the quality of life (Amsterdam, Barcelona, Berlin, and Copenhagen); labour conditions (Barcelona and London); mobility (Barcelona, Berlin and Paris); infrastructures and services saturation (Barcelona, Berlin and Paris); new modes of accommodation (Barcelona, Berlin and Paris); economic issues (Barcelona and Vienna) and impacts on the public space such as cleanness and security (Amsterdam, Berlin and Paris).

Table 4: Problematic issues identified

Problematic issues identified	Am	Ba	Be	Br	Co	Du	Li	Lo	Pa	Re	Vi
Residents vs. visitors/ Quality of life	■	■	■		■						
Overcrowding	■	■	■	■	■				■		
Gentrification	■	■	■		■				■		
Labour conditions		■						■			
Mobility		■	■						■		
Infrastructures and services use		■	■						■		
New modes of accommodation		■	■						■		
Economic issues		■									■
Public space (security, cleanness)	■		■						■		

*Am=Amsterdam; Ba=Barcelona; Be=Berlin; Br=Brussels; Co=Copenhagen; Du=Dublin; Li=Lisbon; Lo=London; Pa=Paris; Re=Reykjavik; Vi=Vienna

Source: Authors

3.1.3. Vision and main strategic lines

Including sustainability in the vision or the main strategic lines appears to be a signal that the criteria of sustainability are part of the key policy values and guidelines for the management of tourism. Seven cities explicitly consider the sustainability in their vision: Amsterdam, Barcelona, Berlin, Copenhagen, Dublin, London and Paris.

On that sense, Amsterdam aims "to set up goals for 2025 jointly for (the sustainable growth) tourism". Barcelona's tourism plan recognizes in the vision that it "needs to integrate all the available tools and mechanisms so new sustainable future scenarios can be built to ensure that the generation of wealth from tourist activities does not compromise the future of the destination" and "the destination's sustainability has to be guaranteed by incorporating environmental issues, job quality and the local economic fabric." Berlin estates "sustainability as a maxim for action to ensure Berlin tourism continues to develop in a way compatible with the city (economically, ecologically and socially)". Copenhagen proposes the idea of "localhood for everyone" and in the explanation of the vision aims "a future, where tourism growth is co-created responsibly across industries with the destination's sustainable development and the locals' wellbeing at heart." Dublin plans to "build on the City's strengths, its cultural and sporting life, and the diversity and richness of its built and natural assets to create a thriving sustainable tourism industry which delivers major economic, cultural and social benefits to the City and to the Dublin Region". London enhance the balance between visitors and Londoners: "The tourism industry will work together to manage the expected significant growth in visitor numbers in a sustainable way. And we will achieve our vision by balancing the needs of Londoners and visitors, with more Londoners recognising the importance of the visitor economy and benefiting from its social and economic impact." Finally, Paris establishes that "in 2022, Paris is the city that hosts the most visitors in the world, but also the city that ensures the best welcome in the world, through its high-quality, sustainable tourism that creates jobs, and is a source of international influence."

Moreover, two of them, Barcelona and Paris, add sustainability in the main strategic axes too. In the case of Barcelona, seven initial provisions are the starting point of the plan and one of them is "Sustainability and competitiveness: An unbeatable pairing." This plan estates that "today there is no question that a destination's competitiveness has to be tackled under sustainability and responsibility criteria." Moreover, sustainability is one of the five criteria established to build the framework for tourism policies. In the case of Paris, the Plan organizes the strategy in four areas, one of them linked with sustainable tourism: "Develop sustainable tourism: A harmonious city, thanks to its solidarity-based, sustainable tourism development model that respects its environment and residents". Two main ideas structure this section: Harmonious and solidarity-based tourism and tourism that respects the environment.

Brussels, Lisbon, Reykjavik and Vienna do not include the sustainability explicitly in the vision of their plans. However, Reykjavik and Vienna mention different issues which are related with the sustainable management of tourism. For example, in the case of Reykjavik "bolster the diversification of the economic and cultural life of the city" is a priority; and in the case of Vienna the plan promotes the balance between residents and visitors and the quality of the tourism offer as follows: "Vienna 2020 will be global (worldwide, cosmopolitan, optimally networked and prominent), smart (innovative, intelligent and for the benefit of guests and Viennese residents) and premium (committed to excellent quality)".

Regarding the main strategic lines of tourism plans we find issues related with sustainable tourism even though sustainability is not explicit, except the cases of Barcelona and Paris as we pointed previously For example, Amsterdam's plan sets four main objectives, the second aims to spread visitors across the MRA in order to guarantee the quality of life in the future, because "the live ability in crowded places is under pressure."

Berlin stablishes the following priorities in the main axes: "Actively channelling the flow of tourists to improve distribution and open up potentials; Cultivate and expand a culture of hospitality; Increasing acceptance through heightened awareness and participation; Preserving a diverse neighbourhood culture and maintaining public space; Brand management for city-compatible tourism; Better exploiting the potential for cultural tourism; Accommodation regulation; Supporting tourism infrastructure and mobility; More effectively exploiting potentials in the meetings and conventions sector; and plans for enhanced security". Brussels proposes the adaptation of the strategy to guarantee a balance between attendance and habitability and to ensure that the tourist and event offer develops in harmony with the citizens of Brussels; and the deployment of the tourist and cultural offer in the 19 municipalities of the Region, by strengthening collaboration with the various players. Copenhagen establishes five strategic axes and one of them is "Tomorrow's business today" which refers to sustainable development ideas. Dublin's plan includes three strategic axes which gather sustainable principles such as respect, diversity and accessibility: To enhance the visitor experience by creating a safe, stimulating and respected City centre that welcomes people from all walks of life; To improve the visitor offer by creating a diverse and vibrant cultural, social and leisure economy that attracts people to the City to experience and enjoy its many possibilities; To make a connected City by creating a highly accessible City through the provision of improved public transport, cycling and walking facilities. London sets four lines to guide the management of tourism in the city and one of them - Infrastructure and amenities- is closely related with sustainable management: "Ensuring London can sustain and accommodate growing numbers of visitors". Reykjavik develops the strategy in four pillars (Cultural City, Conference City, Health City, Winter City) and four values (Green, Child-friendly, Quality, Cooperation). The green value establishes a direct correlation between the city's environmental and tourism policies and look on environmental factors as yardsticks for the evaluation of tourism projects. Vienna has three fields in the vision: global, smart and premium. Smart Vienna 2020 includes three strategic axes, two of them can influence the sustainability of tourism in the city: Smart mobility management; and New poles of attraction for visitors.

Diversification of tourism is also recurrent in the strategic lines of plans. It might contribute to the sustainability of the destination; however, in these cases, the main objective is **tourism growth** and it is not related to the sustainability of this activity in the city (i.e. Berlin, Lisbon, and Vienna). Moreover, we identify different connotations in the use of the concept of sustainability: some cities use the idea focused on the economic dimension and pursue the growth of tourism but in a more sustainable way (i.e. Amsterdam, Copenhagen, London); others' plans seek to guarantee the balance between residents and visitors in order to be sustainable (i.e. Amsterdam, Berlin, London, Paris, Vienna).

Some plans do not include sustainability criteria either explicitly or implicitly in the vision or in the main strategic lines. This is the case of Lisbon. The vision of the plan is "raising Lisbon to a new level of tourism excellence". It has three strategic lines to achieve the vision: "1) Forging a closer relationship between the city of Lisbon and the region: Launch of a tourism-development model that can boost the Region's integrated approach to tourism; 2) Improving the diversity of the Lisbon Region's tourist attractions: Development of new tourism products in the Region, adding to the wealth and scope of what it offers; 3) Making the most of the Lisbon Region's existing assets: Development of tourism products linked to the Region's major assets, and ensuring they are recognized and publicized". This is implemented through three strategic lines oriented to promote tourism attractions and products in the Lisbon Metropolitan Area

3.2. Action dimension: instruments

It seems that the application of appropriate policy instruments determines the possibilities of policy success. Policy instruments are tools used by governments to pursue their objectives. In the literature, policy instruments have primarily been studied as neutral devices that could be classified according to their purpose. Thus, Verdung (1998) distinguishes: 1) legislative /regulatory instruments, 2) economic/ fiscal instruments, 3) agreement based/co-operative instruments, and 4) (traditional) information/ communication-based instruments. Hood (1993, 2007) suggests considering the nature of the instruments according to the governmental capacity that is used in each case (Hood 1983, 2007). In this sense, it proposes to distinguish between tools that give access to knowledge (nodality), related with authority (authority), means that give access to public funds and resources (treasury) or instruments based on the use of organizations (organization).

However, governments cannot select between that broad an array of policy instruments, their choice is often limited due to their embedding in a larger framework of established policy regime logics (Howlett, 2009) also conditioned by the public policy sector trajectory and agency according to the level of state and regional decentralization.

In the following subsections, examples of the most important instruments to promote the sustainability of tourism activity in European cities were identified and classified according to the type of instrument and the field of action.

3.2.1. Type of instruments

Hood's proposal allows us to understand the actions planned in the field of tourism (Velasco, 2016). Authority tools are related to command-and-control regulation instruments, self regulation, standard--setting and delegated regulation or advisory committees and consultations (Hood, 1986). What we see is the deployment of instruments based on the coercive capacity of governments and the use of their position to impose different aspects.

Concerning the idea of **control and regulation** different governments develop land use regulations mainly related to tourist accommodation. We observe two main topics to be regulated: new hotel developments and short-term rentals.

Regarding the former, we find three main examples. Barcelona passed the PEUAT (Special Tourist Accommodation Plan), a land-use regulatory instrument for accommodation that divides the city into three areas, according to different spatial prospects: de-growth, zero growth and controlled growth. Second, Reykjavik establishes that new hotels must leave the ground floor open for services to the general public (tourists and residents). Third, Amsterdam Hotels Plan, which includes a sustainability check to open new hotels (National Hotel Strategy 2016-2022).

Regarding the regulation of short-term rentals, we also identify different proposals. For example: Amsterdam limits homeowners to 60 days/year tourism rentals; Vienna applies the same rules as for traditional accommodation; and the Parisian ALUR Law establishes rent control, including a time span for leases and mechanism to regulate short-term tourist accommodation in the peer-to-peer economy.

Moreover, we also find regulations about tourist mobility (i.e. Reykjavik) and noise pollution (i.e. Barcelona), in this case we can distinguish between tourism-oriented and multi-user oriented. For example, between a tourism mobility plan or regulations to improve sustainable mobility (bike lines, transit rules) which are oriented all kind of urban users. .Through instruments of authority that are not strictly based on rules, we find several cities that in their tourism plans incorporate instruments imposed to improve mobility infrastructure and transit rules, such as the initiative in Dublin to increase the number of bike lanes and pedestrianisation, and the coach mobility restrictions in the city centre of Reykjavik or, in the same city, the extension cycling/walking paths and improvements to public transportation. Lisbon proposes a new ordering of tourist transportation and public space use. Paris, for its part, promotes a sustainable mobility strategy including an increase in bike lanes and walkability, promoting bike tourism (Accueil vélo Label), coach emission reductions and improved metropolitan public transport. Other actions of authority instruments might include the Litter Management Plan 2016 – 2018 of Dublin.

Other examples are mobility cards for tourists, such as Vienna's mobility card for tourists or convention participants with access to city bikes, car parks and car-sharing as well as discounts for tourist attractions. Similarly, the tourism public transport cards offered by Barcelona and Paris.

Additionally, Amsterdam is introducing small-scale experiments to spread visitors more evenly throughout the city and reduce nuisance. Copenhagen supports people-based growth initiatives to enable positive encounters between visitors and locals. Lisbon is working on the diversification of points of interest in the historic centre and improvement of the public transport network. London supports the development of guidance for local authorities to encourage planning that supports cultural infrastructure and implement "Legible London" to help both residents and visitors walk to their destination quickly and easily. Paris is seeking to improve tourist services, such as by keeping tourist sites clean, increasing the number of public toilets and improving accessibility in transport, museums and in the tourism offer.

On the other hand, certifications already have a long tradition as policy tools. As examples of the studied cities we can mention that the city of Brussels established an Eco-dynamic Label to encourage CSR; Barcelona aspired to promote a fair work certification and eco-labels of products/services; and Paris promotes good environmental practices in businesses and the label "Destination for everyone". Awards can also be a means to get actors to align with the proposed objectives, functioning as incentives. London implemented the Green Tourism for London Scheme that worked with this logic (www.green-business.co.uk), it awards grades to hotels that meet various sustainability criteria.

Regarding **treasure tools instruments**, the most common are grants or loans, user charges, taxes and tax expenditures and funding. Taxes to obtain resources are common for the management of tourism. Traditionally these incomes have been designated for the promotion of destinations. As a new development, we found that Barcelona aims to re-invest part of the tourist tax on the city instead of on just on tourism promotion. Other examples are differentiated tourist taxes for the city centre and metropolitan area (Amsterdam) or creation of a tourist tax 2016 (Lisbon). We also find the use of funds related to sustainability and tourism, such as the tourist Iceland Site Protection Fund in Reykjavik.

About **nodality or information tools**, we find different instruments such as information collection and release, advice and exhortation, advertising, or inquiries. Instruments related to knowledge are mostly aimed at research or data creation. For example, Copenhagen carries out citizen assessment research to stay updated on local feelings towards visitors and the need for adaptive measures; London wants to provide visitors with up-to-date information on congestion levels and queuing times at popular attractions; Paris and Barcelona propose Tourism Observatories to produce knowledge that improves decision-making and Berlin suggest instruments for monitoring tourism. In fact, Berlin's Plan goes further, proposing a new information tool that aims to create an innovative information and guidance system in the urban area.

Communication instruments have been traditionally oriented to the promotion of destinations. Here we recognize some measures for the promotion of sustainable practices, such as the web to sustainable meetings in Brussels. Moreover, we identify communication instruments oriented to increase awareness among the different stakeholders and tourists. For example, concerning stakeholders, we find the examples of Brussels, which encourages the dissemination of good practices for sustainable events among stakeholders; and Paris promotes environmental practices in businesses. For the case of communication addressed to tourists to increase awareness, we find the examples of The Icelandic Pledge to encourage responsible tourists in Reykjavik, the Barcelona's campaign for tourists about sharing accommodation and the idea of promoting fair encounters with locals of Paris.

Regarding **organization instruments**, examples could be the direct provision of goods and services, use of voluntary organizations, market creation and government reorganization to increase the sustainability of tourism in cities (Hood, 1986).

3.2.2. Fields of action

After analysing the documents, we distinguished eight fields of action: 1) overtourism, 2) sustainable mobility, 3) tourist accommodation and housing, 4) accommodation, 5) MICE, 6) heritage and culture, 7) environmental impacts and 8) labour conditions. Table 5 summarizes the different fields of actions identifies in the tourism plans of each city.

Overtourism is related to overcrowding and the balance between locals and visitors. Most of these measures are addressed to the city centre, to spread visitors, to promote diversification of tourism experiences and to improve the relations between visitors and locals. We found these instruments in all analyzed cities, except Brussels, Dublin and Vienna. It is coherent with the major problems identified in the diagnosis which were related with the relationship between residents and visitors, the quality of life, overcrowding and gentrification. Concrete examples of instruments to deal with overtourism are the followings:

- Amsterdam: Tourist taxes for the city centre and metropolitan area; small-scale experiments to spread visitors more evenly throughout the city and reduce nuisance.
- Copenhagen: Carry out citizen assessment research to stay updated on local feelings towards visitors and the need for adaptive measures; people-based growth initiatives to enable positive encounters between visitors and locals.
- Lisbon: Diversification of points of interest in the historic centre.
- London: Ease demand at peak periods by providing visitors with up-to-date information on congestion levels and queuing times at popular attractions.
- Paris: Promote fair encounters with locals.
- Reykjavik: Hospitality strategy to avoid concentration of services on neighbourhoods.
- Barcelona: De-concentration strategy.

Sustainable mobility is the other big issue we identified in the measures proposed in most cities, however, just a few of them recognized problems at this stage in the diagnosis. These instruments aim to increase cycling mobility and pedestrianisation (i.e. Brussels, Dublin and London); to improve public transport in general (i.e. Lisbon, Paris and Barcelona) and to reduce GHG emissions (i.e. Paris), and to improve transit rules for coaches (Barcelona, Reikjavik). For this purpose, some cities incentive the use of public transport by tourist through transport cards (i.e. Vienna and Paris), and others implement restrictions to reduce pollution of cities (i.e. Reykjavik). Specific examples of instruments to deal with sustainable mobility are the followings:

- Brussels: Develop a tourist cycling plan.
- Dublin: Increase bike lines and pedestrianisation.
- Lisbon: Improvement of public transport network.
- London: Legible London that consist of help both residents and visitors walk to their destination quickly and easily.
- Paris: Increase bike lines and walkability; promote bike tourism: accueil vélo label; coach emission reductions; tourism public transport cards; improve metropolitan public transport; organize tourism coach and improve accessibility in transport, museums and tourism offer.

- Reykjavik: Bus mobility restrictions in the city centre; extend cycling and walking paths and improve public transportation to outdoors.
- Vienna: mobility card for tourists and convention with access to city bikes, car parks and car-sharing as well as discounts for tourist attractions.
- Barcelona: Tourism Mobility Plan.

Tourism measures that seek to solve **housing problems** seek to regulate private accommodation rentals offered in platforms. For example, this is the case of Amsterdam, Barcelona, Paris and Vienna that propose the following actions:

- Amsterdam: Private holiday rental policy that includes limiting homeowners to 60 days per year.
- Lisbon: New housing policy which comprise. eviction restrictions for old people and affordable housing for residents.
- Paris: ALUR Law establishes rent control, including a time span for leases and mechanism to regulate short-term tourist accommodation in the peer-to-peer economy.
- Barcelona: Increasing resources to avoid property-mobbing and illegal accommodation.

Regarding **accommodation**, we also found rules for new establishments (i.e. Amsterdam and Lisbon); incentives to accomplish sustainability criteria (i.e. Brussels and London); campaigns to increase tourist awareness about private rentals, increase inspection for illegal accommodation, mediation services between residents and legal tourist flats (i.e. Barcelona). More in detail, examples of these instruments are the followings:

- Amsterdam: Amsterdam Hotel Plan that comprises a sustainability check to open new hotels.
- Lisbon: Revision of the Lisbon Master Plan, creation of rules for new tourist establishments, tourist transportation and public space use.
- London: Green Tourism for London Scheme (www.green-business.co.uk) awards grades to hotels that meet various sustainability criteria.
- Vienna: Regulation for private accommodation offered on platforms such as Airbnb, 9flats, etc. the same rules as traditional accommodation.
- Barcelona: PEUAT is a special plan for accommodation that plans de-growth, zero growth and controlled growth areas; increase inspection for illegal accommodation; mediation services between residents and legal tourist flats; campaign for tourists in Barcelona about sharing accommodation such as http://www.fairtourism.barcelona.
- Brussels: Tailor-made tool to quantify and stimulate demand for hotels and respectful places to the environment.

Regarding **environmental impacts**, we found measures related to the waste management (i.e. Amsterdam and Paris), the reduction of noise pollution (i.e. Amsterdam and Barcelona), the promotion of friendly environmental practices in business (i.e. Paris), and ecological products/services and the accommodation footprint (i.e. Barcelona). Examples of instruments to cope environmental impacts are the followings:

- Amsterdam: Noise Policy to reduce noise levels in the city.
- Dublin: Litter Management Plan 2016 – 2018.
- Paris: Keep tourist sites clean; increase public toilets; and promote environmental practices in businesses.
- Reykjavik: The tourist site protection fund.
- Barcelona: Promotion of eco-labels of products/ services; reduce carbon footprint in accommodation: training, regulation, data-management and awareness; cruise waste tax, and an environmental bylaw to reduce noise.

Actions specifically focused on the sustainability of **MICE** are only found in the case of Brussels. This city proposes a web resource for sustainable meeting and to disseminate good practices for sustainable events among stakeholders. Concretely:

- Brussels: The web resource: "sustainable meetings" disseminates good practices for sustainable events among stakeholders; and Certify Visit.Brussels with the "Eco-dynamic" Label from Brussels City Council and encourage CSR.

Another minor area of action is **heritage and culture**. In this case, we can mention the increased protection of historical places (Lisbon); and the preservation of cultural infrastructure (London). More in detail, examples of instruments regarding heritage and culture are the followings:

- Lisbon: Increase protection of historical places and historical stores (Lojas Com História).
- London: Preserve London's cultural infrastructure, including the support and guidance for local authorities to encourage planning that supports cultural infrastructure.

Finally, we observe measures to deal with the precariousness in the **labour market** in the tourism and hospitality sector, only in the Barcelona tourism plan. It comprises the promotion of fair work certification, training programs, the encouragement of good practices in businesses and the participation of the Tourism Observatory. Nevertheless, the precariousness in the labour market of tourism sector is a common problem of most of destinations.

Table 5: Fields of action

Field of action of instruments	Am	Ba	Be	Br	Co	Du	Li	Lo	Pa	Re	Vi
Overtourism	■	■			■		■	■	■	■	
Sustainable mobility		■		■		■	■	■	■	■	■
Housing	■	■					■		■		
Accommodation	■	■		■			■	■			■
MICE				■							
Heritage and culture							■	■			
Environmental impacts	■	■				■			■	■	
Labor conditions		■									
Others		■					■		■	■	

*Am=Amsterdam; Ba=Barcelona; Be=Berlin; Br=Brussels; Co=Copenhagen; Du=Dublin; Li=Lisbon; Lo=London; Pa=Paris; Re=Reykjavik; Vi=Vienna
Source: Authors

4. Limitations and future research

Researchers have only accounted for local policy level approach and tourism-related policies. Despite of considering alternative instruments, a systematic revision of these instruments is difficult task as alternative measures are not always included in planning documents and in many cases are led by diverse municipal departments different than tourism areas. In addition, the management of tourism is a matter of multi-level governance, which have limited our understanding of power relations on urban management regarding the tourism policy. Therefore, a more nuanced analytical design to understand the politics of sustainability in urban tourism should incorporate the analyses of diverse policy areas which directly or indirectly are related with management and regulation of tourism economy, socio-spatial orders and transnational mobilities considering aspects of economic, housing, social affairs, environmental, urban land-use, labour and migration policies. Moreover, we have not focus on the implementation and impact of policy instruments which are necessary to understand the real effects of public action on urban sustainability and justice.

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Urban tourism and World Heritage: Relations and effects of the classification

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Abstract: The World Heritage classification emerges as a universal form of validation and dissemination of the heritage value, being a relevant tool for the communication of tourist destinations. The aim of this article is to understand the effects of the World Heritage classification on urban tourist destinations, by confronting the theoretical fundaments of urban tourism and patrimonialization with case studies that seek to evaluate the objectives and results of the World Heritage classification in these places. The different studies reviewed do not allow for a common generalized conclusion but enable to identify some destinations where the World Heritage seal has become an important factor in increasing the notoriety of the tourist destination, and, also, to recognize cities that have several factors that appeal to the visit, where the classification is not proven to be a determining factor in the attraction process for the destination.

Keywords: Urban tourism; Cultural tourism; World heritage; Historic centres; UNESCO.

Turismo urbano y Patrimonio Mundial: Relaciones y efectos de la clasificación

Resumen: La clasificación del Patrimonio Mundial surge como una forma universal de validación y difusión del valor patrimonial, siendo una herramienta relevante para la comunicación de los destinos turísticos. El objetivo de este artícolo es comprender los efectos de la clasificación del Patrimonio Mundial en los destinos turísticos urbanos, confrontando los fundamentos teóricos del turismo urbano y la patrimonialización con estudios de caso que buscan evaluar los objetivos y resultados de la clasificación del Patrimonio Mundial en estos lugares. Los diferentes estudios revisados no permiten una conclusión generalizada común pero permiten identificar algunos destinos donde el sello de Patrimonio Mundial se ha convertido en un factor importante para aumentar la notoriedad del destino turístico, y, también, reconocer ciudades que tienen varios factores que atraen a la visita, donde no se demuestra que la clasificación sea un factor determinante en el proceso de atracción del destino.

Palabras Clave: Turismo urbano; Turismo cultural; Patrimonio mundial; Centros históricos; UNESCO.

1. Introduction

Cities are essential areas for understanding human evolution. It is recognized that they are territories of attraction, development, cultural diffusion and of various interests, where a significant and growing part of the world population is concentrated. For these reasons, it is clear that cities occupy a decisive place in the tourist activity, either because they represent important and notorious tourist destinations, or because they are the cradle of a relevant part of the flows of the issuing markets. Bearing in mind the role of urban tourist destinations, the study of this phenomenon seems complex and justified. The approach taken in this text becomes from the need to understand the fundamentals of tourism in the context of the multifunctional use of cities. Specifically, the historic centres are the parts of the city where the tourist attraction is stronger and, as such, it is important to reflect on the processes of patrimonialization of urban centres. Recognition by tourist markets of the attractiveness of historic centres occurs after the attribution of heritage value to certain streets, buildings and urban artefacts.

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In this way, it is inevitable to approach the concept of patrimonialization, its main historic steps and associated concepts, as a consequence of the previous degradation of historic centres and the realization of the interest of their conservation. Urban tourism emerges as a phenomenon that is interconnected with the culture and heritage of places. One of the most visible facets of these connections can be found in the World Heritage classification, which appears, at the same time, as a factor of institutionalization of the heritage value recognized to cities and as a communication tool perceived by the tourist markets.

1. Cities as tourist destinations

Visits to cities represent high flows of human movement that tend to grow due to different factors, including the progressive conditions of accessibility and transport that make access to urban centres faster, as well as the dominant characteristics of tourist demand find answers in cities (Henriques, 2003). The profusion of urban destinations and source markets makes urban tourism a continuously growing area of research, although it is quite fragmented and complex (Pearce, 2001). In fact, tourism is just one of the economic and social phenomena that occurs in a multifaceted environment such as a city. Tourism is presented in a variety of products and experiences offered to tourists with different motivations, preferences and cultures. Therefore, it is the interaction within a triangle made up of tourists, companies providing tourist services and the local population (G. Ashworth & Page, 2011).

Cities are spaces of intersection of multiple users and functions and, therefore, they are elements with a high impact on the organization of territories and on the flows of people, goods, and capital. In particular, the historic centres soon established themselves as important tourist attractions. Research about tourism history converges to cultural and educational travels that the young people of the European elites carried out, especially in the XVII and XVIII centuries named as *Grand Tour*. Cities of great monumentality, especially French and Italian ones, were mandatory stopping places for the admiration of architecture and other art forms at that time (Davidson, 1998; C. Gunn, 1997).

Nevertheless, early forms of modern tourism focused primarily on natural resources rather than cities. Thermal baths and beaches became the first tourist destinations of the modern era. In the tourism system, cities were reserved the role of source markets, as the bourgeois elites who constituted the main portion of the bathers who went to the thermal and bathing resorts were residents of urban centres, where they had their industrial and commercial businesses. Industrialization developed in the cities two new social classes: the bourgeois class, owner of the capital, which would be the basis of a latent tourist demand that would develop with the improvements in transportation, and the working class, which would form a relevant tourist demand at the level of excursionism (Burkart & Medlik, 1981).

The development of the transport sector as well as trade and associated services had direct effects on the increase in urbanization by accentuating population flows to cities. In several cities and towns, near the train stations, hotels emerged, the so-called terminal hotels, sprang up as the train saw its demand increase. The need and opportunity of providing accommodation for the travellers made the railway companies owners of this type of lodging, as they obtained a higher economic return than the simple sale of train tickets, in addition to ensuring that traffic would not be affected by possible limitations in the capacity of the accommodation offer (Burkart & Medlik, 1981).

The first forms of urban leisure can also be found in the 19th century, which progressively became widespread. Sport occupies a prominent place. In the case of the United Kingdom, Burkart & Medlik (1981) refer to athletics, horse racing and football matches between clubs. Since then, cities have maintained a strong appeal to tourists, something that intensified in the second half of the 20th century when urban tourism began to be seen as an alternative to mass tourism of sun and sea. At the last decades, tourism is increasingly a central component of the global system of cities, in which urban culture asserts itself as a consumer good (Henriques, 2003).

Apart from the historical aspects, it matters to define the concepts that are articulated with the vision of the city as a tourist destination. The concept of tourist destination, refers, in a simple mode, as a place that attracts visitors on a relevant scale. This geographical unit can take on different scales, depending on the type of tourism in question: from a mere resort to an entire country or even a continent. The importance of a tourist destination depends on four main factors: attractions, whether fixed (climate, landscape, history) or episodic (events); accessibility, comprising the distance to the tourists' places of origin and the available modes of transport; facilities to stay and move within the destination; and tourist organization, this is, the network of entities and actors that allows to operationalize the tourism activity and communicate with potential tourist issuing markets (Burkart & Medlik, 1981; Leiper, 1979).

Currently, cities are the largest tourist destinations in the world because, in general, they combine historical and cultural elements, good communications, accommodation, restaurants, entertainment and commerce (Burkart & Medlik, 1981). They also represent the great cultural tourist places, as Lozato-Giotart (1987) highlights, European capitals (such as London, Paris or Rome) and the cities of the arts (Venice, Florence, Pisa, Granada, Bruges). At the same time, cities are tourist destinations and everyday spaces for the inhabitants and workers of these same cities, which increases the frequency and variety of users. In this way, the tourism role that cities can assume is defined by the World Tourism Organization (WTO) (Organização Mundial do Turismo, 2003), which presents cities as gateways and places of concentration of tourists within a tourist region. In practice they can be a base within a tourist itinerary or be the main attraction that motivates a travel. Ashworth & Tunbridge (2000) elaborate on this concept, defining the three main characteristics of the relationship between tourism and cities. Firstly, tourist activities in urban areas can take place in a regional or even national context. In this case, the city plays a pivotal role in the reception, retention, and maintenance of tourists within a wider network. Secondly, cities can organize themselves in cooperative networks, but also competitive with other cities in the creation of national or international tourist itineraries. Thirdly, urban tourism offers a variety of attractions and infrastructures that provide different leisure experiences to visitors, and these infrastructures are mainly developed for frequent users of cities but are also available for occasional users.

The development of urban tourism is, in the view of WTO (Organização Mundial do Turismo, 2003), the pursuit of economic benefits in terms of job creation and income raising for cities, as well as boosting the physical and social rejuvenation of older cities by defending that tourism creates opportunities and forms publics for the construction of facilities that are also used by inhabitants, such as theatres, museums or restaurants. Without the tourist activity, these facilities wouldn't probably be created.

Another way of looking at the city's resources used by tourism is through the division into primary and secondary attractions. Primary attractions are the main reason for the visit while secondary attractions are features that support visitors during their visit. However, in terms of economic revenue, secondary ones generally reach a higher level (Orbaşli, 2000). At the same time, its use may be intentional or accidental. For example, a visitor who intends to visit a cultural attraction, such as a museum or a monument, during their stay in the city, can consume in restaurants, shop or stay (G. J. Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000).

It is up to the entities responsible for the management of tourist flows to make synergies between primary and secondary attractions, in order to monetize and optimize resources. One way is to distinguish tourist resources as a category within the city, resources that clearly assume a recreational function. In this way, an intra-urban regionalization is achieved, delimiting specific areas, which are identified as RBD – *Recreational Business District*. Another way is the existence of areas in the city where there are leisure, entertainment, restaurants and shops infrastructures. These types of measures are useful for creating maps and managing tourist flows. (G. J. Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000). Various methods are used to proceed with the regionalization of tourist spaces in the city, being characteristic the restriction of space and the creation of clusters. The regionalization of the tourist city depends on three factors: the relationship between infrastructures, the tourist's spatial behaviour and the tourist's images in relation to the city. The location of leisure infrastructures depends not only on tourist demand, but also on the inhabitants and other users of the city. It is also influenced by the organization of the economic sectors responsible for infrastructure, the city's economy and land use policies. Regarding the tourist's spatial behaviour, it results from the information obtained about the city and his own personal experience as a traveller. However, this is conditioned by accessibility and available modes of transport (G. J. Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000). Finally, the image that tourists create of the city is largely due to actions to promote the city, but also to other indirect aspects such as visibility from the media, cinema or television programs (Hall, 2001).

Many cities focus their tourist development on the historic centre, but in the opinion of authors like Ashworth & Tunbridge (2000), strategies must be built to expand the tourist city, which may involve driving flows to unknown parts of the city, encouraging the creation of new areas or setting up commercial activities in other locations. In this way, the expansion of the tourist city, better distribution of economic revenues and conflict mitigation are achieved. At this level, the WTO points out that the main problems of urban tourism are the excess of demand visible in the physical pressure on attractions, traffic congestion and the need for space for activities that welcome tourists, specifically the accommodation sector (Organização Mundial do Turismo, 2003). In a more detailed way, the main conflicts of the coexistence of tourism in cities can be considered. In the case of monuments, the conflict can be evident, as the excess of visitors causes physical damage, intentional or not. Another conflict is the need to provide tourist accommodation. Historic centres have buildings that do not have the conditions for this type of service, so there will be pressure to adapt the buildings to accommodate the function of tourist accommodation, due to the preference of many tourists to be close to attractions (G. J. Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000). Also, the access to historical attractions can be conflicting, as many monuments and spaces can be visited for free or at a relatively low price. Consequently, the financial revenues generated directly by historic resources are minor and eventually insufficient to ensure their operating and maintenance costs (G. J. Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000; Orbaşli, 2000).

Another aspect that stands out concerns the selective characteristic of the tourist. In this way, tourism only offers a part of the historic city, that is, the managing entities select the heritage elements that they consider most relevant to the tourist. This situation results in an unbalanced valuation of the city and, eventually, the creation of an image that is too reductive (G. J. Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000).

Characterizing the tourist demand of cities is a complex task, as cities have users with different reasons. Inhabitants, visitors from the suburbs and international tourists are audiences that intersect in the urban space, some for leisure purposes, others for work or other types of aspects that appear in a diffuse panoply. A possible approach can be taken dependently the type of user. Henriques (2003) interpreted the typological definition created by Ashworth, which indicates four types of users. It should be noted that in order to understand this interpretation, it is important to establish the concept of city-region. This is the territory that is confined to the residential areas around the city and may incorporate dependent towns. Then, the users are: i) intentional users from outside the city-region with the specific purpose of visiting it, ii) intentional users from inside the city-region, generally those looking for recreational facilities, iii) accidental users from outside the city-region as this is the case of business tourists or those visiting family members and iv) accidental users of the interior of the city-region, being, above all, residents who are working. For this reason, it is clear that for the first two types of users, infrastructure and cultural activities are preponderant aspects for the decision to visit the city.

Inserted in the urban tourism segment, it is important to explore the concept of city break, which, in a simple way, refers to short stays in cities. It is, fundamentally, a European phenomenon, which is understandable given the existence of a large number of European cities with strong tourist attractions, the relative proximity between them, and the development of low-cost flights that connect cities that are often senders and receivers of tourists. According to the synthesis made by Brito (2017), the duration of a city break trip oscillates between one and eight nights, but most are between two and three nights. The reasons for traveling are quite diverse, but the cultural and recreational aspects stand out. These are trips that are not very dependent on the existence of certain climatic conditions. Another relevant aspect is that part of these trips have an impulsive component in the decision to travel, and are not subject to intense planning processes.

A study made for the Turismo de Portugal, i.p. (THR - Asesores en Turismo Hotelaría y Recreación, 2006) features tourists of city breaks in three groups: i) Standard: that look for services at a reasonable price, ii) Upscale: who seek more personalized, expensive experiences and who shop at the destination, iii) Thematic: with a specific reason for visiting a theme or event. This study shows, as well, that the organization of the trip is autonomous and uses online channels. In the destination they visit few attractions, due to lack of time or limited budget, and therefore they are more receptive to a return to the city to visit the attractions that they did not have the opportunity to see. The main motivation for travel is to escape, in the sense of changing the physical and social environment, in addition to socializing with travel companions. As it turns out, tourism is one of the numerous activities that take place in cities, being practiced by individuals with different motivations and profiles. This phenomenon is especially felt in the historic centres of cities, where the various heritage elements – material and immaterial – form the basis of tourist attractions.

2. The patrimonialization of historic centres

The patrimonialization of buildings, artifacts, and activities is a central concern of societies. In fact, “societies and the people, have a collective memory that is an essential part of their identity as a group and whose loss could cause serious disruption” (Salgueiro, 1999, p. 388, own translation). Already at the time of classic civilizations memory was materialized in the form of monuments. Choay (2001) clarifies the concept of monument by defining the existence of two types: the inadvertent ones that subsist without formalization, and commemorative or large buildings, whose creation and preservation is intentional to mark events or people. However, it is only by the 19th century that the interest in the traces of the past expanded. This period includes scientific expeditions, archaeological excavations, gatherings and collections of documents and objects. Such recognition of the value attributed to ruins and monuments gave rise to conservation and preservation concerns that resulted in the first heritage laws (Choay, 2001). It was also at the time of Romanticism that conservation movements were born with some capacity to pressure and influence political powers. Those movements are groups of people with social notoriety who associated themselves with scientific, artistic, and literary societies. Initially, they were movements of reaction to the processes of industrialization and urbanization, as they considered them harmful to the natural environment. Thus, they exalted rural life as opposed to city life (G. J. Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000).

By the second half of the 19th century, Europe increases its populational growth and consequently urban expansion. The enlargement of ancient medieval towns led to the demolition of obsolete walls and other buildings of historic interest. These episodes led to increased pressure from conservation movements, which translated into practical results, namely, the beginning of inventorying processes of historical and cultural resources, by several European governments, through the establishment of arts and monuments commissions that made inventories with a classification based on the aesthetics and historical character of each building or vestige (G. J. Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000).

As the value assigned to monuments became more widespread, the question arose as to how to preserve them. Choay (2001) presents two opposing currents: architects such as Viollet le Duc who defend the restoration of monuments and others, such as Ruskin, who favour only conservation. The way to act and the determination of the degree of restoration were, and still are, controversial issues and in permanent discussion. At this level, there are four main concepts: conservation, restoration, renovation, and rehabilitation, which are clearly and concisely explained by Salgueiro (1999). Conservation is a concept that conceives of intervention in a building through works aimed at its maintenance, with only the works essential for its preservation being carried out. In more deteriorated buildings, the concept of restoration is applied, which consists of the replacement of elements considered original. The concept of renovation, on the other hand, implies the demolition of buildings or larger areas of the city and their subsequent replacement by new buildings and infrastructures. Finally, the concept currently most accepted and practiced is that of rehabilitation. It is a practice directed to an area, and not only located in a building, and has a double purpose: the physical rehabilitation, through the conservation or restoration of buildings and functional revitalization that translates into the dynamism of the economic and social fabric, to increase the attraction capacity of inhabitants and economic and social activities (Hall, 2001).

The first laws of monument protection arise in the first half of the 20th century, but it's appliance was almost inexistent, due to the lack of sensibilization of the populations that did not share the vision of the conservationists movements (G. J. Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000). An essential milestone in the protection processes can be found in 1931, with the realization of the first International Congress of Architects and Technicians of Historic Monuments, which resulted in the creation of the first international charter on heritage conservation, the Athens Charter (ICOMOS, 2004). From its reading, the most significant conclusions stand out: i) The monuments conservation must occur through regular maintenance as they have an effective occupation, ii) integral restoration and the use of dissonant materials are condemned, iii) care is recommended with the construction of new buildings in the areas surrounding the monuments, especially when carrying elements of modernity, iv) countries are encouraged to develop heritage inventories and v) young generations must be more conscious of respecting and safeguarding their heritage.

Despite the impact of the Athens Charter, the awareness of the importance of safeguarding heritage only became more generalized in the 60s of the 20th century. It is largely due to the action of the conservation movement that acted as a lobby both on society and on governments, pressured the latter to take measures for the conservation and preservation of urban areas. These measures include the improvement of inventory systems, an increase in government budgets for heritage, classification and conservation of isolated buildings and complexes, and also the consideration of conservation as a measure of urban planning and not only of reaction (G. J. Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000; Orbaśli, 2000). The legislation produced in this period is quite similar in the different European countries, although two aspects can be distinguished: i) centralised policies, where the entire conservation process gravitates around a central organism and ii) decentralised policies, with regional and local organizations directing the conservation processes, as occurs in Germany, Austria, Belgium, Switzerland, United States of America or Canada (G. J. Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000).

The elaboration of the Venice Charter is an essential event of this period. Produced in 1964, as part of the 2nd International Congress of Architects and Technicians of Historic Monuments (ICOMOS, 2004). The main conclusion of the document is the broadening of the notion of monument. Each building is no longer seen as an isolated element, but as an element with its own setting. The notions of field of visibility and protection zones are created, as areas around the monuments, whose morphological characteristics should also be preserved. Another notion adopted is that of the historical and cultural environment. Each monument is embedded in a cultural context to be respected. This concept concerns houses, streets, environmental contact, and even the populations.

The following years witnessed important official initiatives recognising heritage and recommendations for its conservation, such as: Recommendation concerning the Preservation of Cultural Property Endangered by Public or Private Works, issued by UNESCO, in 1968; Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage, issued by UNESCO, in 1972; European Charter of Architectural Heritage, in 1975; Nairobi Recommendation, issued by UNESCO, in 1976; Convention for the Protection of the Architectural Heritage of Europe, in 1985; and the International Cultural Tourism Charter, in 1999. These documents delimit concepts, progressively extend the notion of heritage to architectural sets and specify the various components and facets of heritage, from the tangible to the intangible.

Of the concepts set out in these charters and documents, the basic ones should be highlighted, specifically: antiquity, aesthetics, authenticity, inheritance and identity. The reading of these concepts must be made with margins of adaptation to each cultural reality and to the time of its application. Starting with the concept of antiquity, it is clear that a historic centre is valued for being a testimony of time. However, this is a difficult concept to clarify, since the assessment of antiquity depends on personal judgements and those of the society itself (Orbaşli, 2000). For example, Europeans do not consider 100-year-old buildings to be significantly old, because most European cities were built centuries ago. On the other hand, American visitors to Europe, due to the more recent age of their cities, attribute to a centenary building a relevant antique label. Aesthetics is another concept of relative subjectivity. The notion of beauty is mostly dictated by the taste of elites who subsequently form a generalized opinion (G. J. Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000).

Considering the concepts of antiquity and aesthetics, a denser concept emerges: authenticity. Perceiving an object as authentic comes from its aesthetic and historical qualities. So, it is a concept always in equation during a conservation process, because if the process affects the structure or components of a building or urban set, it can affect its authenticity (G. J. Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000). This concept was the subject of the Nara Document on Authenticity (ICOMOS, 2004). Point 9 of this document states that in order to understand the value of the heritage, it is necessary to consider the credibility and veracity of sources of information about its value. The understanding of these sources and their relationship with the characteristics of cultural heritage is what makes it possible to establish aspects of authenticity. The following points in the document establish that the responsibility for the analysis of authenticity lies with each local culture. Therefore, the recognition of authenticity depends on the cultural context, so what may be seen as authentic for one culture may not be authentic for another.

Another concept under consideration is that of inheritance. This makes the connection between a heritage of the past, with intrinsic values, which must be preserved to constitute a resource usable by present generations, who will have the responsibility of leaving it intact for future generations (G. J. Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000).

Finally, is considered the concept of identity. The recognition by a community that a certain heritage is the result of an evolutionary process that is composed of specificities that are related only to that community, leads to the concept of identity. In other words, identity is defined by the attributes chosen and recognized by a community to represent and enhance it. The assumption of the identity trait, in the understanding of Pereira, Martins, & Baptista (2017), emerges as a fundamental factor of differentiation and can also mark the processes of reconversion of cities.

These five concepts are of particular importance for the process of conservation of historic centres, especially from the point of view of the local populations who live their daily lives and, also, for the entities responsible for their management. However, the appreciation of heritage and its inherent need for conservation cannot be dissociated from the existence of a market that values the existence of certain objects, buildings and cities. Therefore, public entities and economic agents seek to emphasize some intrinsic qualities of urban heritage, in the sense of transforming the historic centre, or just some of its components, into tourist attractions. This process, now widespread in cities with historical layers, is a common form of commodification of heritage.. Fortuna (2012, p. 24) understands current patrimonialization as the “detraditionalization of tradition”, that is, the act of patrimonializing means consecrating objects, places and practices invested with historical significance, even if this makes them dissonant elements and disconnected from the current reality of the community. This means that, from the perspective of local populations, the processes of commodification of heritage can jeopardize the authenticity of the place.

3. The classification of World Heritage in cities

International organisations such as UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization), the Council of Europe and others of national nature classify and list cities or historic areas. The classifications are intended to achieve certain objectives, specifically protection from physical aggression in cities, but also serve to allow better access to funding and technical assistance aimed at their restoration and maintenance (G. J. Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000).

The UNESCO classification as World Heritage is the one with the greatest planetary notoriety. The Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage, of November 16, 1972 (UNESCO, 1972) marked the beginning of this procedure. The classification process is responsibility of an intergovernmental committee by the UNESCO, that considers the advisory votes of the International Centre for the Study of the Preservation and Restoration of Cultural Property (ICCROM), International Council on Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS) and the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN). It is regulated under the 1972 Convention and by a document called Operational Guidelines.

The classification process is an initiative of each State, which submits an inventory of cultural and natural heritage assets located in its territory. It is based on these inventories that the Committee defines the World Heritage List, which includes properties considered to be of outstanding universal value. Every two years the list is updated. There is also the List of World Heritage in Danger, that can be updated at any time, which includes properties in risk of destruction. In establishing the risks to heritage, there is a special emphasis on aspects of urban heritage. In the text of the Convention, paragraph 4 of article 11 warns of “rapid urban or tourist development projects” (UNESCO, 1972) as one of the factors that can put a property on the list of World Heritage in Danger. Regarding the criteria for the distinction of Outstanding Universal Value, ten are established. However, for the reality of historic centres, six of them apply, namely:

> *(i) to represent a masterpiece of human creative genius; (ii) to exhibit an important interchange of human values, over a span of time or within a cultural area of the world, on developments in architecture or technology, monumental arts, town-planning or landscape design; (iii) to bear a unique or at least exceptional testimony to a cultural tradition or to a civilization which is living or which has disappeared; (iv) to be an outstanding example of a type of building, architectural or technological ensemble or landscape which illustrates (a) significant stage(s) in human history; (v) to be an outstanding example of a traditional human settlement, land-use, or sea-use which is representative of a culture (or cultures), or human interaction with the environment especially when it has become vulnerable under the impact of irreversible change; (vi) to be directly or tangibly associated with events or living traditions, with ideas, or with beliefs, with artistic and literary works of outstanding universal significance. (The Committee considers that this criterion should preferably be used in conjunction with other criteria)* (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2019, p. 25).

Another required aspect concerns the characteristics of authenticity and integrity that the sites must possess. Establish the Guidelines, in paragraph 79, that, “properties nominated under criteria (i) to (vi) must meet the conditions of authenticity. Annex 4, which includes the Nara Document on Authenticity, provides a practical basis for examining the authenticity of such properties” (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2019, p. 30). Therefore, authenticity is expressed in the following attributes, conveyed in paragraph 82 of the Guidelines (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2019, p. 26): “form and design; materials and substance; use and function; traditions, techniques and management systems; location and setting; language, and other forms of intangible heritage; spirit and feeling; and other internal and external factors”.

Concerning the characteristic of integrity, reading paragraph 89 from the Guidelines, the physical fabric (material) of the property and/or its significant features should be in good condition and the impact of deterioration processes controlled. It should include a significant proportion of the elements necessary to convey the full range of values that the property represents. The relationships and dynamic functions present in cultural landscapes, historic towns or other inhabited properties, essential to their distinctive character, should also be maintained.

For the specific cases of cities, the Guidelines provide particular conditions. The inscription of historic towns and centres on the World Heritage List can be carried out in one of three categories of urban sets: no longer inhabited, historic towns which are still inhabited and new towns of the twentieth century. Considering the specificity of historic towns, paragraph 14 of Annex 3 of the Guidelines acknowledges a special complexity of the classification of historic centres, as "historic towns which are still inhabited and which, by their very nature, have developed and will continue to develop under the influence of socio-economic and cultural change, a situation that renders the assessment of their authenticity more difficult and any conservation policy more problematic" (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2019, p. 84).

The list of classified sites includes 1154 sites, of which 897 are cultural, 218 natural and 39 are a culture and nature mix. It is noted that 334 are located in cities or are urban areas (data as of 31 July 2022).

4. Tourism as an element of refunctionalization of historic centres

Whole cities or parts of cities with exclusively historical and tourist functions are rare. Indeed, cities are multifunctional with a multivariate demand. However, in many cities there is a growth in leisure and tourism functions, aimed at both tourists and inhabitants, which is the predominant feature in several historic centres. These functional changes of cities are, therefore, responses to the challenges of globalization and reaction to the need for economic restructuring, which results in the use of cultural resources for urban regeneration (Richards & Palmer, 2010). In this context, it is understood that tourism is functionally encouraged by local government entities. This is due to the need to replace local industries, but also in view of national needs for economic development. There are countless cases of European and North American cities that repurpose urban areas, especially seafronts and riverfronts, converting industrial and port facilities into leisure areas, such as Boston, Baltimore, San Francisco, London, Glasgow, Rotterdam, Genoa, Berlin, Hamburg, Barcelona, Bilbao or Lisbon (Henriques, 2003).

These aspects of touristification point to dimensions of positivity. However, some authors warn about the risks of this process. Romão (2013, p. 45, own translation) presents the issue in a clear way, pointing out that "the commodification of cultural elements in a tourist destination can transform these values or change their meaning, in a process of adaptation to visitors' preferences or through the elimination of cultural activities that are not wanted by tourists" and that the lack of involvement of local communities in tourism development "constitutes a serious risk to their social cohesion and to the preservation of their natural and cultural heritage".

The concept of authenticity gains renewed interest considering the commodification of culture that urban tourism entails. Romão (2013) synthesizes the ideas of some authors on the ambivalence of the effects of tourism on the authenticity of destinations. On the one hand, tourism contributes with resources and awareness to the preservation of traditional activities. But on the other hand, the historical heritage, as a collectively constructed representation, can, through commercial, political or ideological objectives, be oriented in a direction that does not respect the sense of authenticity.

From the perspective of operators and managing entities of tourist destinations, the concept of tourist authenticity emerges as an alternative response to mass tourism, as mentioned by Pereira, Martins, & Baptista (2017). These authors add that due to the proliferation of tourist destinations, as a result of improvements in terms of accessibility and also because there are segments of demand for less frequented places that have not yet been framed in mass systems, promoting the authenticity of places is seen as essential. In practice, it is the development of new tourist products that result from identity reinterpretations, that is, it is the reinvention of the past with the best images to appeal to tourists.

Gunn & Var (2002) emphasize that the current tourist has a lot of information and is attentive to perceive what is authentic or what is a false reproduction. Therefore, they suggest that ethical aspects should intersect with communication. It is about not promising something in its original state but explaining to the tourist that the artefacts can be replicas or reproductions.

From the populations' point of view, tourist authenticity may not correspond to their notion of authenticity, as they consider it to be out of step with their culture and they tend to be critical of tourist gentrification processes promoted by local authorities (Pereira et al., 2017). However, Boavida-Portugal & Kastenholz (2017) refute fears regarding gentrification. From the perspective that this concept consists in the rapid transformation of the social structure of a place, which becomes occupied by higher social strata, these authors argue that tourism does not expel other activities from historic centres, but rather occupies a housing void and also an administrative abandonment to which these areas have been condemned.

It becomes perceptible that urban tourism has advantages and risks, so it is not possible to develop tourism in cities foreseeing and neutralizing all its negative effects. It is up to the various players of urban tourism to participate in the processes of planning and continuous monitoring of tourism activity. The WTO has defined the bases for tourism planning in cities considering the following stages, in a consecutive way: pre-feasibility study, terms of reference, setting of objectives, inventory and analysis of the situation, formulation of alternative plans and selection of the most favourable one, recommendations to the entities involved, implementation and monitoring (Organização Mundial do Turismo, 2003).

Regarding the specific aspects of the historic centres, the international recommendations transmitted by the WTO consider two fundamental aspects: to take special care regarding access, as these are generally areas of the city with narrow street patterns, suggesting the control of vehicles, forcing visitors to park outside the historic centres; and to carry out the historic preservation of the whole area and not only of isolated buildings, maintaining the context and the historic character and promoting rehabilitation for the installation of tourist infrastructures in a well-adjusted way with the encouragement of residential use (Organização Mundial do Turismo, 2003).

5. Effects of the World Heritage classification

World Heritage status represents a recognition of heritage value and an increased responsibility for local authorities to preserve it. This is the basic reading that can be made of the purposes of the World Heritage Convention. However, from the perspective of tourism, the effects of classification are more diverse and possibly conflicting.

As Boavida-Portugal & Kastenholz (2017, p. 401, own translation) argue, “the UNESCO ‘brand’ is one of the strongest and most unmistakable symbols of recognition of the value of heritage, attracting tourists around the world and promoting value creation based on these assets”. In fact, there are advantages that countries consider important and that pass through international recognition and civic and identity pride. It can be considered that the initial objectives of the World Heritage classification, which served as a wake-up call and a way of mobilising resources for the conservation of the classified assets, have been surpassed by the value that the classification has as a globally recognised brand which can be used in a differentiation strategy for a tourist destination. The sharp growth in the number of applications can be seen as evidence of this greater purpose (Jones, Yang, & Yamamoto, 2017).

However, the original purpose of the Convention remains valid today. The attribution of classification to some tourist destinations, in addition to increasing the visual appeal, also refocuses social attention and the priorities of public actions (Boavida-Portugal & Kastenholz, 2017), a situation that occurs especially in historic centres.

It is natural that the cities with historical centres classified as World Heritage have a tourist dynamism, where the offer of accommodation and other support services to tourists gradually grows. In this way, the historic centres develop and improve attractions and create activities and events of animation that allow capturing visitors and prolong their stay (Puertas, 2004). Therefore, it can be said that the classification of a historic centre as a World Heritage Site by UNESCO is like a distinctive and differentiating stamp that can allow a city to stand out from others, enhancing its visibility in the tourist markets.

Pendlebury, Short & While (2009) studied the fact that World Heritage classifications have increased significantly in recent years and that, in the case of historic centres, they represent major challenges in terms of defining, accessing and managing preserved assets, given the multiple users and interests, where tourism is assumed to be one of the preponderant ones. In the discussion about the effects of classification, it is also considered a dimension that states that classification can have an effect contrary to its purposes of encouraging conservation. Jones, Yang, & Yamamoto (2017) consider that besides the physical effects caused by the frequency of too many tourists, it is also possible to witness the deterioration of local customs and experiences, that is, the intangible part of a property, which is what guarantees its authenticity. Interesting, also, a sociological approach, provided by Elliott e Schmutz (2012), who consider World Heritage as a unique aspect of contemporary globalization. UNESCO’s classification is thus a way of homogenising global heritage rhetoric that is composed of heritage characteristics rather than local history attributes (Fortuna & Gomes, 2013).

Several studies seek to demonstrate the effects that the classification can have in terms of increased visibility and visitation of sites (Huang, Tsaur, & Yang, 2012; Moy & Phongpanichanan, 2014; Su & Lin, 2014), as well as on visitors' perceptions (Poria, Reichel, & Biran, 2006; Poria, Reichel, & Cohen, 2013).

However, it is extremely complicated to perceive whether a particular tourist destination would have developed similarly if it had not received the distinction of World Heritage. The reading of several studies, carried out by Jones, Yang, & Yamamoto (2017), leads these authors to conclude that attempts to correlate the attribution of the classification by UNESCO and the increase in the volume of tourists are controversial. On the one hand, there are studies that show increases in the number of visitors to places in China after classification. But, on the other hand, other studies are pointed out, such as the case of the United Kingdom, where there are only small percentages of increase in the number of tourists and others, such as Barcelona, where it is proved that it was not possible to establish a positive correlation between the attribution of the classification and the increase in the number of tourists.

A case study on the city of Porto intended to assess tourist motivations according to destination attributes (Ramires, Brandão, & Sousa, 2018). The role of the World Heritage classification was assessed in a questionnaire, where 59.21% of respondents answered that the city's World Heritage classification was something important or very important. This study also pointed out that the main reason for visiting was leisure, at a significant distance from the second reason which is culture and heritage. Another study, carried out with visitors to the city of Évora (Marujo, Serra, & Do Rosário Borges, 2012) stated that the World Heritage classification influenced the decision to visit the city. This statement was demonstrated in two clusters of tourists identified: one for which cultural motivations were paramount and another where the reasons for visiting were leisure. However, a study conducted on an individual basis for the cities of Coimbra, Évora and Porto (Pinheiro, 2018) concluded a lesser importance of the World Heritage classification. In terms of awareness, this is real, as the majority of tourists in the three cities were already aware of the classification before visiting the cities (69.7% in Coimbra, 64.1% in Évora and 54.9% in Porto). However, from the perspective of the influence that the classification exerted on the decision to visit the cities, it is noted that there are a minority of surveyed tourists who claim that the classification exerted a significant influence on the decision to visit the cities of Porto of Porto (22.2%), Coimbra (30.1%) and Évora (32.8%).

In search of some conclusions on the value and effects of UNESCO classification in a tourist destination, du Cros & McKercher (2015) summarise the most important aspects of this analysis. Indeed, there are cases in which tourist destinations registered more visitors after classification, but in others the same effect was not observed. These authors consider that the location close to the main tourist markets and the image and notoriety existing before the classification play a more important role in the development of the tourist destination than the classification itself. Therefore, they are convinced that places that were already tourist destinations end up benefiting more from the classification, as it will amplify a reality that was already positive. The more remote or unknown places do not seem to benefit from this effect in a significant way. As such, they say that the benefit of the UNESCO label will depend mainly on the ability of the destination managers and their players to use the classification in a way that is consistent with the image of the tourist destination.

6. Conclusion

The prospects point to two growing trends that remain connected: by the year 2030, 60% of the world's population will live in urban areas, while the popularity of cities as tourist destinations will continue to grow (Organização Mundial do Turismo, 2019). These two phenomena make urban tourism one of the main subjects of study and analysis, both for its size and complexity. In the panorama of cities, historic centres appear as clear tourist attractions capable of generating high-intensity demand flows. Tourism appears here as one of the most evident components of heritage enhancement of buildings and urban centres, in a context of affirmation of international demand for cultural tourism.

Alongside this path, the institutionalization of cultural heritage advocated by UNESCO assumes one of its exponents with the creation and progressive affirmation of the classification of World Heritage. It appears that around 37% of cultural sites classified by UNESCO are located in urban areas. In this way, the classification of World Heritage ensures a global validation of the heritage of a city and guarantees the attribution of a notorious distinction that will have consequences on the tourist image of the awarded city. These benefits become evident, but they should not be considered as a single formula of immediate results in the conquest of tourist flows. In the current reality of intense competition between tourist destinations, obtaining a World Heritage classification for a city is a valuable contribution to assisting the process of forming an urban and heritage brand, but the aforementioned studies do not demonstrate the classification as a determinant factor in the decision of tourists to visit these cities. In fact, World Heritage is seen as a tool that helps to differentiate, but that must be evaluated in a global framework of the various image creation and communication tools that cities, as tourist destinations, have at their disposal.

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Vivimos tiempos de incertidumbre con situaciones límite impensables hasta ahora. Los nuevos escenarios derivados de la pandemia generada por la Covid-19 pueden haber sido el punto de partida pero, en esta década tan determinante, se unen otras incertidumbres como el aumento de los costes de la energía, junto a, lo más significativo, condicionante e importante, la crisis climática.

Desde hace un tiempo se conocen análisis que alertan sobre los límites de un sistema económico caduco, sobre una degradación medioambiental sin precedentes, sobre la dependencia de un modelo energético destructivo, unas desigualdades sociales que pueden anunciar cambios político-sociales trascendentes… señales que pueden condicionar "el fin del turismo tal y como se ha conocido hasta ahora" (p 19). Al fin y al cabo, el turismo solo es un reflejo del sistema económico dominante, un capitalismo neoliberal caníbal, y es evidente que el futuro del turismo aparece indisociablemente unido al futuro de la sociedad.

La pandemia ha servido como acelerador del proceso de cambio y ha sido una buena excusa para pensar en otras realidades, algunas de ellas más voluntaristas que reales y otras bastante fantasiosas, a modo de "reflexiones sobre el sofá"; sin embargo, no olvidemos que lo generado por la Covid-19 solo ha sido un contexto, un factor coyuntural que podría repetirse en un futuro.

En este contexto ve la luz una publicación de interés para la sociedad, escrita por unos autores de referencia, y con un título bastante sugerente "El turismo, ¿fin de época? Desafíos de España como destino turístico en un nuevo escenario". Iniciar el estudio con una hipótesis como el supuesto fin de una época y con la emergencia de un nuevo modelo turístico es audaz, valiente y, a su vez, necesario y oportuno en estos tiempos de incertidumbre. Máxime si se focaliza en un territorio concreto, en este caso España como caso de estudio, un laboratorio en uno de los principales destinos del mundo.

¿Y cómo se ha llegado a esta situación? En siete capítulos los autores explicitan no solo los factores globales y los que afectan a España, no solo los antecedentes históricos y la situación actual, sino que

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exponen los factores clave que explican esta nueva época turbulenta. A lo largo de 300 páginas distinguimos tres bloques; en el primero se expone el contexto y la situación actual del turismo en España, ocupa los dos primeros capítulos; un segundo bloque, con cuatro capítulos, cada uno de ellos dedicado a un factor clave, y el último bloque, con un solo capítulo de síntesis y reflexión.

El primer capítulo analiza el proceso de desarrollo del turismo y la estructura geográfica. Se justifica la importancia del turismo en España y su peso global, la estacionalidad y las distintas iniciativas para frenarla, incluso cómo se mitifica el turismo como elemento modernizador de la sociedad; estos elementos se analizan junto a los factores de cambio globales (la mercantilización del tiempo y del espacio, la crisis del capitalismo, la pandemia, las dudas de la globalización) y los que afectan a España (modelo territorial y político, la España vaciada, el envejecimiento de la población, etc.). El resultado conforma las bases para un nuevo tiempo turístico. En estas primeras páginas también se plantea una visión crítica cuando se analizan los efectos de la masificación del litoral, los modelos *lowcost*, e incluso se cuestionan las dos percepciones sobre el turismo, las dos actitudes que conviven, la *turismofilia* y la *turismofobia*.

En el segundo capítulo se describe el modelo territorial, con la distribución espacial y temporal del turismo en España donde se intercalan espacios intensamente dependientes y espacios con menor actividad. El agudo análisis de las distintas tipologías espaciales (litoral, rural, urbano) nos ayuda a comprender una realidad llena de matices. Valoro, como especialmente interesante, el último apartado que introduce estrategias alternativas y nuevos conceptos; desde la recualificación y la reinvención de los destinos maduros, a las visiones a medio y largo plazo de los postulados poscrecentistas, donde las alternativas decrecentistas son acompañadas de medidas de justicia social como un turismo de proximidad, inclusivo y accesible también a las clases desfavorecidas para evitar la elitización espacial.

El segundo bloque expone los cuatro factores clave que justifican la transformación del modelo turístico: la movilidad, las tecnologías, la sostenibilidad y los límites al crecimiento y, por último, la política y los modelos de gestión. La movilidad espacial es condición *sine qua non* del turismo y los cambios en los medios de transporte sabemos que transforman todo el sistema turístico en los centros emisores y receptores. En este tercer capítulo se analizan múltiples cuestiones, desde el monadismo digital que algunos espacios litorales tienen desde la década de 1970, y muy extendidos en la pandemia, hasta la hipermovilidad de la última década; desde la difícil sostenibilidad del transporte aéreo, tan polémico por sus efectos en la crisis del clima, hasta el *boom* del turismo de cruceros; desde la movilidad interna de los destinos hasta el turismo accesible como nicho de mercado. Los modelos futuros deberán tener en cuenta nuevas formas de movilidad -como los surgidos con la economía de plataformas- y sus efectos en la crisis climática. En este punto, las políticas públicas son fundamentales para financiar los modelos más sostenibles, sería el caso de la Estrategia de Movilidad Sostenible e Inteligente de la Unión Europea; la clave son los enormes intereses creados en la industria actual que se resiste a un cambio de época.

La revolución tecnológica iniciada en los años sesenta del pasado siglo muestra la intensa relación entre los cambios del sistema turístico y la tecnología (capítulo cuatro). La digitalización cambia el ciclo del viaje, los modelos de distribución de las empresas, el uso de los turistas e incluso, las economías de plataforma donde la aparición de nuevos actores no turísticos (Airbnb, Vrbo,…) hacen más complejo el control/conocimiento en los destinos. Junto a estos cambios y a la imparable evolución de las TICs (big data, realidad virtual, blockchain, inteligencia artificial, 5G…), destacan los autores cómo España se ha convertido en un referente mundial de los denominados Destinos Turísticos Inteligentes (DTI). Efectivamente, las estrategias públicas para mejorar la digitalización de empresas y de los servicios públicos son impulsadas como elemento de competitividad, de eficacia sostenible, de mejora de la gobernanza de los destinos y de innovación constante. El éxito de los DTI en España, es solo comparable a políticas turísticas como las de China y Corea del Sur.

Por la afinidad de mi línea de investigación-acción, destaco el capítulo cinco que versa sobre la sosteniblidad. Sin duda es loable plantear la pregunta de si España es un destino sostenible, pero los propios autores son conscientes de que no habría una única respuesta, dada la cantidad de matices, puntos de vista y orientaciones que presenta el concepto sostenible. Sí consideramos más interesantes los retos que el turismo tiene a nivel mundial, aunque aplicados a nuestro país, donde destacan: en primer lugar la emergencia climática y su afección en las diversas tipologías de destinos (costeros, de nieve, incluso en los rurales y urbanos), cómo los fenómenos meteorológicos extremos son solo la punta del iceberg de los futuros impactos; seguidos de la explotación de recursos como el agua, el territorio y la energía; los beneficios y costes del turismo; la degradación del empleo turístico (bajos salarios, inestabilidad …) o la calidad de vida en la convivencia entre turistas y residentes. En este momento quiero destacar un enfoque social muy presente en todo el estudio, señalando cómo los residentes empiezan a ser el foco de atención. Hace tiempo que la disciplina geográfica, junto con otras como la sociología y la antropología, pusieron el foco en los impactos que afectan a la población, planteando premisas tan sencillas como "para qué desarrollar el turismo en un espacio, sino es para mejorar la calidad de vida de los residentes". Esta nueva época que se anuncia señala como aspecto necesario "reforzar los beneficios para las comunidades locales frente a los de los operadores globales" (p 300) y si no fuese así, no solo fracasaría la sostenibilidad de los destinos, sino la universalidad del turismo. A modo de conclusión, en este quinto capítulo, se recogen los instrumentos más recientes y las herramientas necesarias para avanzar hacia un destino más sostenible, apuntando algunas claves para un futuro modelo turístico.

El último factor descrito en el capítulo sexto no es menor. La política y los modelos de planificación y gobernanza del turismo marcan la diferencia en lo que respecta a mejorar la sostenibilidad del turismo, pero también la competitividad, la profundidad de los impactos, etc. Nuevamente las claves se ponen en lo social, en los actores, en el modelo de organización y su "laberinto institucional". En Europa, y especialmente en España, las administraciones públicas marcan gran parte de las estrategias turísticas y otras sectoriales que tanto influyen en el destino. El texto expone con detalle la evolución de las políticas turísticas en España, las diferentes escalas administrativas, los diferentes tipos de planificación y los mitos y realidades de la gobernanza. Sin embargo, en este punto se echa de menos que no se recoja con más profundidad el debate ideológico actual, dado que la gobernanza puede también ocultar la entrega de algunas competencias públicas a las empresas privadas, es la denominada "gobernanza desvirtuada".

El último capítulo, a modo de reflexión, argumenta a partir de los cuatro factores, las posibilidades de un cambio de modelo; pero, a su vez, los autores dejan claro que habría resistencia frente a un nuevo modelo por la defensa de los intereses creados, lo que "constituirá un factor de freno ante los cambios que se pronostican" (p 294). Quiero destacar un hecho que la pandemia ha dejado claro y que a veces se olvida, que "en los periodos de crisis, se apela de forma unánime a la necesidad de acción de las administraciones públicas" y aquí la disciplina geográfica tendría mucho que decir.

En definitiva, una obra que se convertirá en un referente, por su doble condición de trabajo de investigación, con una bibliografía abundante y actualizada, y por ser también una obra de divulgación, con buenas explicaciones y ejemplos, orientada a un amplio público, aquellas personas que tengan curiosidad por ampliar su conocimiento del turismo, del pasado, del presente y del futuro.

Respecto a los autores, les avala su trayectoria académica al ser referencias en la geografía nacional e internacional, al ser maestros de varias generaciones en las que me incluyo y, como demuestra este libro, de los que aún seguimos aprendiendo.

No quiero dejar pasar la ocasión de congratularme con el argumento de Jorge Olcina en el Prólogo, porque en esta década decisiva empezamos enfrentándonos a una pandemia y "seguramente hemos asistido a un primer estadio de transformación de destinos y actividades que vendrá acompañado de cambios-necesarios- más profundos en las próximas décadas, con la adaptación al cambio climático como telón de fondo de las actuaciones". Quizás veamos escenarios de futuro con un modelo turístico bajo en emisiones de carbono, circular, resiliente y socialmente responsable.

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