When Dr. Clare A. Gunn published the first edition of *Tourism Planning* in 1979, he vividly recalled family trips in a brand-new Model T Ford across the United States in 1921. This early exposure to the land of travel has “predestined a career in the field of planning for better tourism development.” A hundred years later, Gunn’s influential book and its vision for tourism planning embark on a new era. Tourism development involves the movement of people through time and space, either between their home and destinations or within destination areas. Typically, tourism has a positive effect on the development of culture and entertainment, thus becoming a progressive ethic and formation of experience societies (Rifkin 2011). The desire to understand the temporospatial interactions of tourists within a destination and the movement of tourists between destinations has played a critical role in the developing investigation of the phenomenon of tourism (McKercher and Lew 2004). Simply put, tourism planning is not a simple process of destination marketing, but it increasingly stretches disciplinary boundaries, imbued with contested layers of stakeholders’ interests, at whichever level the planning process is being carried out. Planning for tourism has become an important tool to maximize economic returns to the destination and minimize potential negative impacts.

The growing attention to tourism in recent decades is largely attributed to the pursuit of *genius loci*: a “sense of place” or “spatial spirit” (Karimi 2000) developing from the spatial reordering of the world. The concept of the cultural turn is rooted in an ideological paradigm viewing tourism as the dynamic motor of the economy. Tourism is heavily implicated in what Barnes (2001: 558) labels the “new economic geography,” which “emphasizes above all the social and especially the cultural character of the economy.” Tourists consume goods and services that are in some sense “out of the ordinary,” where the viewing of tourist sites and places can generate “a much greater sensitivity to visual elements of landscape or townscape than is normally found in everyday life” (Urry and Larsen 2011: 3). On the other hand, Walter (1988) implicitly applies *genius loci* to a study of the “expressive intelligibility” of places, e.g., a quality that can be perceived only holistically through the senses, memory, intellect, and imagination. Like Tuan’s (1977) view of space as the embodiment of the feelings, images, and thoughts of those who live, work, or otherwise deal with that space, tourism connects spatial change with tourists’ perception of *genius loci*. This is especially so when a place’s various publics have been steeped in economic, cultural, and sociopolitical changes, and where landscape is revitalized for tourism.

The essence of planning is underpinned by Enlightenment values that support rationality, universalism, and scientism (Allemendinger 2009). Postmodernity drives planning practices and fosters a belief that planning has the power to shape the way people live. Tourism planning occurs in a number of forms, structures, scales, and times. Getz (1993) initially identifies four broad approaches to tourism planning: boosterism, an industry-oriented approach, a physical/spatial approach, and a community-oriented approach. Hall (2008) adds a fifth approach, that of sustainable tourism planning, and an extension of that approach via the notion of steady-state tourism grounded in ecological economics. In the meantime, the rapid
development of culture, entertainment, events, and festivals is often used to restructure a tourist destination as well as to create a positive image of a city. Tourism has entered a new stage of historical and socioeconomic development in which spatial transformations occur constantly. The economic revival is a particular feature of postmodernism, which is exemplified by the redevelopment of open spaces via tourism. The rise of genius loci and pursuit of authenticity (Ouf 2001) elucidate the impact of tourism on the locals and communities. A wider discussion of the “character” of towns and cities is developed (Jiven and Larkham 2003) in relation to genius loci, which arises from the experiences of those using places rather than from deliberate “place-making.”

In practice, tourism planning is identified as fused because it is interdisciplinary, collaborative, and oscillates between process and output. It has gradually morphed into spatial justice demanding that we ask why, how, and for whom for the sake of tourism? The old configurations of tourism planning as siloed entities, largely stratified by forms, structures, scales, and times, make no sense for asking and answering these big developmental questions. The conventional models, such as boosterism and an economic planning approach, not only are parochial but also facilitate a narrow band of research questions that are more specialized rather than opening outward to real-world applications. Given the diversity of tourist destinations, existing planning strategies deemed necessary for commercial development with socio-spatial settings often seem inadequate. Concomitantly, tourism produces the friction to spark debates about various socioeconomic and environmental issues. For example, tourism policies generally rely on economic and quantitative analyses of travel patterns, while ignoring the symbolic, communicative, and cultural elements that underlie changes in tourist destinations.

While attention has been focused on the global pandemic in recent years, the gyrations in tourism planning and policy arguably were even wilder and more important. Even if COVID-19 becomes manageable or possibly a thing of the past, the powerful impact of lockdowns and social distancing on the travel psyche may be long lasting. The thinking and making function of tourism resources are a way of organizing, knowing, and describing the changing world. From a supply-side perspective, the appreciation of planning theories plays a significant role in attracting and structuring the tourist experience, which both draws people toward a destination and provides the structures that support tourism, such as hotels, attractions, and shopping malls. Dupont et al. (2016) posit that the “cultural turn” is largely a function of globalization and neoliberalism worldwide. The former draws tourism planning into competing against other business centers on a global stage, while the latter reflects a powerful dominant discourse and strategy to restructure, rescale, and reorder accumulation and regulation in capitalist societies. Hall (2000) and Polyák (2015) further argue that global economic shift influences social attitudes, generates new values, and turns planning into a useful device to formulate an attractive image to mobile capital. In this context, tourism planning is constantly being reconfigured, giving rise to “a ‘glocalized’ landscape” and “an emerging urban landscape-collage” (Beriatos and Gospodini 2004: 312) that dominated either by tradition or by communities, illustrating a flow of tourists from all over the world.

Nowadays, tourism planning may simultaneously occur in non-lieux: spaces without a clear functional identity. The term “non-lieu,” or non-place, has been proposed by Marc Augé (2009), who observes three kinds of accelerated transformations that are responsible for what he calls the “supermodernity” of the changing landscape. The first is an “acceleration of history” (p. 26), leading to an excess of events where economic activities have overwhelmed the original function of the sites. The second is a surplus in the realm of space, in which “the
excess of space is correlative with the shrinking of the planet” (p. 31). The last is “figure of excess,” a sign of transformation of what he calls “the figure of the ego, the individual” (p. 36). Reterritorialized spaces, in the context of supermodernity, should embody the past within historical and social meanings; concomitantly, “normal” social interaction ought to occur. Augé designates places in which these connections do not happen as “a space which cannot be defined as relational, or historical, or concerned with identity,” or “a non-place” (pp. 77–78). Non-places are produced by supermodernity, and they do not integrate with earlier places.

Augé’s “non-place” theory posits that tourism planning is a complex process in contemporary society. Its development can be easily divorced from any sense of locality or public participation. Tourism plays a dual role: on the one hand, it resuscitates local economies, encouraging the redevelopment of existing destinations, the adaptive reuse of old buildings, and the construction of new spaces of consumption. The destination becomes a rich cultural tapestry and a host of amenities for visitors and locals. On the other hand, tourism planning projects are sometimes at odds with the goal of maintaining a connection to the history and culture of local communities. Understanding the temporospatial implications of such processes requires the use of evolutionary methodologies to understand the complexity and simplify the reality of tourist activities to a more meaningful series of concepts and constructs.

1. THE HISTORY OF TOURISM PLANNING AND PRACTICES

1.1 The 1920s to 1960s: Planning Green Space for Leisure

Since classical times, towns and cities have performed tourism and leisure functions, and, therefore, such places have a long history for tourist consumption (Page 2011). From its inception, tourism has been associated with physical distinctiveness, e.g., the Grand Canyon, Yellowstone National Park, and other natural wonders. It is also closely related to green space, which offers different configurations and levels of access, such as public parks, sports grounds, and the grounds of institutions. Billinge (1996: 450) comments that “perhaps the single newest element in the townscape after the general regulation of the street, was the park, and more specifically the recreation ground … was essentially a nineteenth century phenomenon and a symbol of civic pride.” Foucault (1977, 1986) declares that “space itself has a history” – that the interstices of built places are derived from social, cultural, and economic contexts. The force of tourism drives the changing landscape and impacts the configuration of almost every assumption, objective, skill, and preference of the society at large. Space has increasingly become mobile and interactive with locals and tourists (Sudradjat 2012).

Modernism provides a new path for tourism planning where the importance of green space is rediscovered and reconstructed for leisure and travel. The commercialization of space is arguably important for the “movement economy” (Hillier 1996), where the power of movement generates social and economic outcomes in cities by bringing people in and facilitating encounters. While tourism planning was still in its infancy, successful examples include Stanley Park in Vancouver, Canada; Kings Park in Perth, Australia; and Auckland Domain in New Zealand, where many multiple-use green spaces have been converted into tourism attractions (Hall and Page 2014). Hadid (2016) proposes that the renovation of London’s Leicester Square should turn into “a public room, habitable and submerged beneath the surface, a heart that beats within the city.” From this perspective, green space embodies the surrounding
environment where “solid and transparent skyscrapers slicing into the earth could contain accommodation, and water could cascade down these inverted canyons as a cooling mechanism for an overworked heart. Bridges and passages would traverse the voids and solids of the new subterranean fabric, while light slits would remind the visitor of the city’s familiar fabric hovering above.”

The dominant modernist planning principles were identified as a disconnect from heterogeneous realities and controlled by elite knowledge in a universally rational model (Sandercock 2003). The rational model tends to use the “public interest” throughout the planning process. Space has shifted as a continuing dynamic, including a component of history, power relations, and changing built fabric, which also provides a focal point for community interaction, a context for tourism development, allowing opportunities for meeting tourist needs and provision of visual amenity. The acceleration of mobility and globalization entails a sort of time-space compression that has radical impacts on how people choose to travel and their appreciation of nature, landscape, and other societies. The physical form of cities is understood as a type of embodied knowledge that is activated by human use for leisure purposes (Marcus et al. 2016). Gradually, towns and cities provide the rich context for a diverse range of social, cultural, and economic activities in which the population engages, and where tourism, leisure, and entertainment form major service activities (Minhat and Amin 2012).

One consequence of tourism development in the 1920s and the rise of an applied focus on geography was the increasing move toward the coastal areas of European countries (Liu and Wall 2009). The changing coastal line in Britain inspired the first scholarly forays into the field of resort planning, which is defined as the study of the forms, including environment as land uses and associated functions of a destination area and its development. The coastal areas are viewed as dynamic and interactive over different periods of time. Williams and Shaw (1997) analyze the rise and fall of the English seaside or coastal resort and examine the two principal concerns of the historical geographer: continuity and change in the development, and organization and prospects for the resort. It is regarded as a representation of resort evolution, while tourism becomes an integral part of resort town planning rather than a mere adjunct (Smith 1992).

In the 1930s, the green belt concept was initiated in Great Britain and quickly spread to cities in many other European countries. The green belt was a band of open space on the city’s periphery, created to compensate for the lack of open space in the built environment. As part of urban planning, such designations were intended to limit urban sprawl, rather than the characteristics of the land itself and its use (Gant et al. 2011). The green belt concept is used to describe the traditional space set aside for commercial leisure use as well as the urban-rural fringe, or peri-urban zone. McKenzie (1997) defines this kind of fringe as an area extending from the edge of a city’s contiguous urban development to the outer edge of the vehicular commuter belt. Typical features include high population growth and commercial development, accommodated by spatially extensive urban-oriented land uses. The encroachment of tourist attractions, such as golf courses, is highly visible along the green belt. The centrifugal forces that draw people away from the city are counterbalanced by centripetal forces, such as employment for tourism and diversity of services (Weaver and Lawton 2001). The green belt not only serves as the grounds for the evolution and rise of a chaotic set of conflicting land uses amid pressure for urban growth, but also highlights the major recreational role key sites play in each locale, although their lack of identity and seemingly anonymous non-place status is juxtaposed (Gant et al. 2011). As with tourism destinations, rapid change in the green belt
generates tension, leading Troughton (1981) to describe the exurbs as a zone of competition and conflict. Relevant issues include the loss or fragmentation of farmland, environmental problems caused by the proliferation of septic tanks and wells, road congestion caused by commuting, and the high costs of servicing a dispersed population.

Green spaces illustrate the initial stage of tourism planning for public and private recreational activities (Fuller and Gaston 2009). The historical record shows periods of outward expansion of the mainly residential built-up areas and gradually converted them for recreational purposes, notably green spaces. The zones of mostly low-intensity land use that tend to be created in this way play a significant role in tourism. Not least they give shape and intelligibility to the urban area for comprehending distributions, such as those of green spaces (Taylor and Hochuli 2017), and providing a framework that can contribute to redevelopment and conservation.

1.2 The 1960s to 1980s: From Townscape to Vacationscape

Tourism planning gradually received more academic attention in the 1960s and early 1970s, when the urban landscape became the primary theme of geography studies. Kevin Lynch’s book (1960), titled *the Image of the City*, examines the look of the city as well as the possibilities of changing it. In Lynch’s series of studies (1960, 1972, 1981), his primary contribution is the use of “mental maps” as a means of representing individual perceptions of a place. He proposes a model in which city images, related to physical forms, are classified into five elements: paths (channels along which people move through the city), edges (the boundaries in continuity), districts (areas characterized by common characteristics), nodes (strategic focal points for orientation), and landmarks (external points of orientation). These elements were utilized to check the visual forms of Boston, Jersey City, and Los Angeles. In addition, Lynch takes the notion of “legibility” (also called “imageability”) as being synonymous with the “legibility” of a place. that is, “the ease with which its parts can be recognized and can be organized into a coherent pattern” (Lynch 1960: 2). A truly “imageable” environment enables its residents to feel at home in their surroundings. He also emphasizes certain qualities as requisite for a livable city or good urban form, including vitality (biological and ecological), access (open space, services, and jobs), control (human space), sense (clarity with which it can be perceived), fit (adaptability), efficiency (cost), and justice (social equity) (Appleyard et al. 1965).

Five elements and certain qualities proposed by Lynch provide a fertile ground for tourism planning, particularly the described interrelated ways, the form qualities, the sense of the wholeness, and the process of design. In addition, his method of using sketch maps to uncover environmental images has been adapted as a tool in both tourism planning and policymaking. The combination of the residential history, socioeconomic status, information sources, experience, and preferences of a tourist creates a cognitive image, which, in turn, influences the choice of destinations. However, the analysis of sketch maps is an inherently subjective exercise, as the distinction between nodes and landmarks may be unclear without a cross-examination of the map drawer. The typology of map elements also poses a problem for tourists, as the perceived nodes fluctuate based on the geographical location and the size of nodes varies. Therefore, Lynch (1960: 5) adds that “a distinctive and legible environment not only offers emotional security but also heightens the potential depth and intensity of human experience.” There is a great need for further qualitative research to work out why mental maps take the form that they do and how quickly they change as the environment changes. Especially,
there is a need to investigate whether landmarks for tourists can be transformed into nodes as learning continues and tourists become more familiar with the environment (Jenkins and Walmsley 1993).

In the 1960s, a group called Archigram, a portmanteau of architecture telegram, proposed a series of urban planning concepts, such as the plug-in city, the walking city, and the instant city. Within the instant city, the architects developed the idea of a “traveling metropolis,” a package that temporarily infiltrates a community. The city superimposes, for a short period of time, new spaces for communication onto an existing city. The implication is that a city that has no existence as such and which is only an incident in time and space. Inskeep (2011) confirms that we are now living in the age of the “instant city,” when new megacities can emerge practically overnight, creating a host of unique pressures surrounding land use, energy, housing, and the environment. Chalking up this concept to tourism planning, it demonstrates that tourism has become a consumer object and primarily used for the creation of an artificial environment, where mobilities and transitions play a key role in planning policies.

Jane Jacobs, one of the best-known critics in urban planning, lashed out at the evils of massive urban renewal and relocation projects in her 1961 book The Death and Life of Great American Cities (1961), claiming that these projects have undermined the social fabric and economic vitality of the city. She detested then New York urban planner Robert Moses, who is famously remembered as saying, “those who can, build; those who can’t, criticize.” Jacobs’s strong interest in understanding how cities actually work, rather than how they ought to look and function, led her to explore the patterns of social behavior found in urban neighborhoods, particularly the uses and social functions of leisure sidewalks, small neighborhood shops, and local parks in New York City’s Greenwich Village. Opposing the vast impersonal nature of most city projects, she argues that human scale must be preserved in neighborhoods. In her suggestions to urban designers and planners, Jacobs advocates diversity in neighborhood planning, public participation, dense concentrations of people, small blocks, mixed building types, and mixed space to encourage the presence of people on the streets and to create a sense of shared responsibility, tempered by a respect for individual privacy. Her emphasis on surveillance (i.e., eye on the street) as a means of ensuring neighborhood safety was later incorporated into Newman’s (1972) work on defensible space. Jacob’s theory of urban tissue has served to prompt a reexamination of prejudices, a reconsideration of established habits, and a revision of what the city is and how to act upon it to sustain its life (Malfroy 1995).

Published in the same year, the book Townscape by Gordon Cullen documents the basic ingredients of township and argues that the art of relationship depends upon three fundamental concepts: serial vision, place, and content. Serial vision is strongly related to optics and motion, in which the landscape becomes an open text to interpret. What the book proposes is that the city is fluid, containing specific fabric of towns, such as color, texture, scale, style, character, uniqueness, and authentic experience. The term “townscape” connotes historical expressiveness or historicity in its own personnalité (Conzen 1949: 89). Conzen (1966) further advocates that, when form after form is added to the surface of the earth, the whole cultural landscape should be seen as an “objectivation of the spirit” of a society. Commercial development highlighting the protection of heritage, the monumentalizing of historic centers and the restoration, and maintenance of historic buildings for the sake of “collective inheritance” becomes an integral part of township planning. The concept of the townscape refers to geographical variations in the composition of town plan, building pattern, and land utilization.
Cullen’s concept of the townscape has been widely adapted by tourism scholars, who view
旅游发展及其伴随的影响作为一个进化过程。克莱尔·冈恩（Clare Gunn）的工作《Vacationscape: Designing Tourist Regions》（1972年）巧妙地将视角从城镇景观转向休闲景观，以说明目的地的现实。

The concept of the vacationscape was extended and expanded in his following book, titled *Tourism Planning* (1979). Gunn’s *Vacationscape* was arguably the world’s first textbook on tourism (Crompton 2015), as he acknowledges that the focus of tourism is almost exclusively on promotion; however, research, planning, visitor impacts, and the relationship of tourism to the built and natural environments are at least of equal importance.

The 1970s witnessed the evolution of towns and cities where people live, work, and engage in leisure that eventually resulted from the process of urbanization (Pacione 2009). Urbanization, largely driven by a series of interrelated processes of change, is a major force contributing to the development of towns and cities. Many studies started addressing the pattern of land use, infrastructure, central business districts (CBD), recreational business districts (RBD), and the ramifications of urban sprawl for socioeconomic and environmental problems. The boom in hotel development and resort establishment in urban settings was a leitmotif of tourism planning in the 1970s. For example, Lamb (1983) suggests that the outer boundary of a city’s day trip recreational hinterland could be used as an indicator to define the outer limits of the city’s commuting sphere. Clark and Crichter (1985) provide a historical analysis of leisure and recreational forms in Britain during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, with an emphasis on the urban forms and poetical factors, forms of social control. They adopt a cross-sectional approach to analyze key periods of tourism development as well as how the evolution of urban places and recreational activities emerged.

Tourism planning exhibits a unique pattern where tourist destinations and local residences can be separate, mingle, or coexist. The overall result has been a tendency for a growing number of people to live and work in expanding towns and cities. Simultaneously, urbanization coupled with tourism results in important changes in the characters and dynamics of the urban system, land use, social ecology, and built environment. The built form of cities is seen as embodying social, cultural, and economic relations by structuring “patterns of movement, encounter and avoidance” (Hillier and Hanson 1984: ix). From this perspective, the built fabric emerges as a highly intelligent artifact with an intricate, dynamic, and multifaceted system for the storage and retrieval of information related to a wide range of societal processes. Government policies and governance, legal changes, city planning, and urban management may eventually address such problems, stimulating changes that, in turn, affect the dynamics that drive the overall urbanization process.

1.3  The 1980s to 2000s: The Emergence of the Tourism Business District

Urbanization continued to transform the environment in a profound way in the 1980s, and it became a driving force for social changes. European financial districts such as Canary Wharf in London and La Défense in Paris were developed in the 1980s and 1990s to embody the “agglomeration effect.” It implies that as businesses cluster together and share infrastructure, access to knowledge and clients, urbanization becomes more productive. The spatial patterns of tourism facilities and the ways in which they cluster became a central concern for scholars of tourism. For instance, Smith (1987), drawing on country-level data, analyzes four basic tourism regions, including urban fringe tourism. Other studies include Wall and Sinnott’s
(1980) account of recreational facilities as attractions; Boyer (1980) on the evolution of second homes in suburbs for recreational purposes; and Vedenin (1982) on changes in recreational systems. Mullins (1991) further suggests that tourist cities represent an extraordinary form of urbanization, in which cities are built solely for consumption.

In addition, political and economic factors, along with the built environment, are closely associated for tourism development as dynamic processes are emphasized. Due to the complexity and uncertainty of urban forms, planning tends to link environment-behavior studies to gauge tourism impacts on districts and specific destinations. Regarding the basic categories of public open spaces that are addressed to tourism, Boerwinkel (1995: 251–255) suggests two fundamental types of spatial order underlying the formal variety: (1) successive arrangement, in which the observer experiences a step-by-step uncovering of space through both sight and movement; and (2) simultaneous arrangement, in which buildings and open spaces are arranged in such a manner as to encourage relatively “free exploration” of space by the individual. Grainger (1995), through a survey of national land use, proposes a basic geographic concept and a key element in the emerging theory of human-environment relationship and the modeling of global environmental change. He incorporates tourist flows into three applications, e.g., international static comparisons, modeling generic non-spatial and spatial trends over time, and modeling global environmental change.

Perhaps one of the most important contributions to tourism studies in the 1980s is the Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC), proposed by Richard Butler (1980). The TALC hypothesizes what might happen to tourist destinations as they develop and reach their limits in terms of carrying capacity. It is focused more on the spatial implications of the growth and development of tourist destinations than on the specific pattern and process of development in specific destinations (Butler 2004). Hall (2004) points out that the geographical concepts at the heart of the TALC were clear in the 1980s version, but the original form was much more spatial in its orientation. Wolfe (1982) proposes an alternative curve of destination development (which he labeled the “Ellis Curve”), comprising axes of economic and environmental quality, with positive and negative components. A typical trajectory for a destination, he argues, begins positive for both elements and then passes through a stage where only the economic aspect is positive to a point at which both elements as negative as tourism begins to negatively affect the environment and fails to generate sufficient return on investment.

Building on Stansfield and Rickert’s earlier resort-based concept of the recreational business district (1970), research began to shift in the 1990s toward a growing interest in exploring tourism business districts (TBD). This shift is evident in Getz’s (1993) work on how contrasting planning systems, one regulatory and the other proactive, have resulted in markedly different tourism developments in the cities of Niagara Falls in both Canada and the United States. For example, in both border cities, older “downtown” areas have been eclipsed; on the US side, tourist-oriented facilities and services have been consciously mixed with normal central business land uses, forming a well-defined tourism business district. The establishment of the TBD clearly indicates the changing landscape due to the impacts of tourism, where the meaning of landscape is created, re-created, and contested in social processes (Ringer 1998).

Ashworth and Tunbridge (1990, 2000) establish a model of the tourist-historic city as an attempt to understand the role of historic city tourism within the mosaic of forms and functions and to consider the impacts of the spending and behavior of tourists upon historic cities. Through case studies of several tourist cities, they uncover distinct patterns, such as clustering and linear distributions in the inner city, which may be explained in terms of such factors as
accessibility, land use, zoning restrictions, and proximity to other tourism-related phenomena. They employ distributional studies to delineate hotel location, where hotels may be clustered as a function of proximity to inner-city historical attractions and businesses, or regarding transport termini and highway access. Larkham (1996) further proposes to use tourism as a tool for conservation as a tourist city has transformed at various stages of development. Land-use intensity and resort restructuring strategies were widely discussed to better understand the impact of tourism businesses.

Tourism planning in the 1990s mainly addressed complex, diverse, and dynamic issues about tourism relevant to urban forms and rural settings at large. As Jansen-Verbeke and Ashworth (1990: 619) contend, “tourism development depends upon concentration rather than on dispersal, functional combination rather than segregation, and multifunctional environments rather than monofunctional ones. Success depends upon the functional integration of facilities within multipurpose clusters, which necessitates more attention being paid to the nature of integration.” In the meantime, tourism researchers have responded to the phenomenon of impact studies in various ways. For example, Pearce (1979) traces the development of geographical interest in tourism and raises possible research avenues and theoretical developments. Six major areas of interest are identified: spatial aspects of supply, spatial aspects of demand, the geography of resorts, patterns of movements and flows, the impact of tourism, and models of tourist space. Smith (1983) introduces patterns of restaurants and dining out as a new way of tourism business. Wall et al. (1985) draw attention to the significance of large cities as tourist destinations and to the importance of accommodation establishments as a component of the urban fabric. Using accommodation directories as the major source of information, they describe the changing numbers and types of accommodation, and they analyze the spatial distribution of accommodations using the methods of point pattern analysis. Lew (1987) stresses the importance of studying travel attractions/regions and identifies three perspectives that could be adopted in tourism planning: (1) a cognitive perspective that examines how tourists perceive attractions and travel regions, (2) an ideographic perspective that explores a site’s “unique” attributes and its “universal” (in the sense used above) attributes, and (3) an organizational perspective that examines geographical aspects, such as the relationship between the location of a region and its spatially dispersed markets.

1.4 The 2000s and Beyond: Diversity of Tourism Planning and Practices

Since the 2000s, attention has switched to considering the diversity of planning policies as well as focusing on the potentially detrimental effects of overtourism on existing destinations. By contrast, the global pandemic that emerged at the beginning of 2020 brought the tourism industry to a screeching halt and destinations reliant on tourists were the hardest hit. COVID-19 also caused a rip tide of fear and confusion, dragging the whole travel industry down. New forms of travel, such as staycation, are increasingly recognized as an important alternative for leisure and travels. It has helped the recovery of a tourism industry beset by pandemic restrictions and a decreased willingness to travel due to the COVID outbreak. Despite these changes, several key planning theories have been developed to advance postmodern planning principles. For example, advocacy and pluralistic planning, which describes how planning becomes a highly politicized process and involves all citizens to address equality for all, is a zeitgeist for contemporary society. A tourist destination is seen as a complex dynamic in
which changes to the design of one region will affect changes to the economy and social fabric (Prideaux 2000; Andriotis 2003; Lohmann and Duval 2014). For example, Nahm (1999) traces the transformation of central Seoul in South Korea and the development of manufacturing-tertiary-quaternary industrial complexes. Tourist attractions change the characteristics of a downtown to a more flexible and volatile system. The tertiarization and quaternarization of tourism, in the name of urban renewal, become a nucleus for economic performance. Tourism planning is an intercommunicative practice to create a supportive environment where conflicting interests can be reconciled. Postmodernism views commodification to achieve positive results. For example, Kneafsey (2001) analyzes the process of cultural commodification in the rural tourism economy of Brittany, France, and discovers that the cultural economy is clear through the commodification of the landscape, which results in the production of an “idealized countryside” and “vernacular buildings.”

In a similar vein, Judd (1993: 179), in his discussion of tourism in US cities, suggests that “agglomeration economies apply to tourist districts not principally because concentration lowers or increases the efficiency of business transactions, but because a full panoply of services and businesses is necessary to make the space maximally attractive to consumers of the tourist space.” The tourist space emerges, including tourism infrastructure such as convention centers, sports franchises, shopping malls, casinos, and “carousal zones,” and reshapes the urban form. Tourism planning and practices tend to emphasize the systematic description while analyzing a destination as a multilayered place. The identification of isomorphic patterns in tourism focuses on valid spatial codes that integrate sociocultural, economic, and environmental aspects of transformation.

The last two decades have witnessed phenomenal growth of tourism planning and explanations about the diversity in tourism. Many researchers have used four factors—population, economy, sociocultural factors, and the geographical landscape—to measure urbanization and suburbanization (Chen et al. 2010; Fang and Yao 2006). For instance, Weaver and Lawton (2001) explore residents’ perception of tourism in the urban-rural fringe; Lew and McKercher (2006) depict the spatial movement patterns of tourists within a destination based on urban transportation modeling and tourist behavior, in order to identify explanatory factors that could influence movement. Wu and Cai (2006) coined the term “recreational belts around metropolis” (ReBAM) to describe the spatial patterns of urban residents’ leisure travel to suburban areas and to measure recreational and tourism development in these areas. Using the case of Shanghai, China, and applying the concepts of a tourism matrix, Wu and Cai demonstrate that the growth of domestic demand, policy-driven supply, and transportation networks constitute the three determinants underlying the formation of the ReBAM. A spatial interaction model reflecting the concept of distance decay and land lease rates is constructed for tourism planning. Zhang et al. (2013) measure the relationship between levels of urbanization and hotel growth from the perspectives of urbanization, tourism demand, and policy. The results show a positive relationship between urbanization and hotel growth. In a similar vein, Luo et al. (2016) examine the impacts of urbanization on tourism development in four regions of Guangdong Province by utilizing time-series data in China, ranging from 1996 to 2011. Results show that urbanization has been operationalized by a wide variety of attributes, such as population, economic forces, geographical landscape, and sociocultural dimensions. In general, these attributes facilitate tourism development; however, they do not affect different regions in Guangdong Province uniformly.
In the meantime, there are a growing number of historic cities being used as case studies by scholars of tourism planning and design (Xu 2000). For example, the city of Suzhou in China was built on an orthogonally designed water-based grid, connecting the Grand Canal and Tai Lake (Breitung and Lu 2016). This water grid once played an important role in commercial activities and social interactions in the city, but, over time, more and more canals were filled in to pave roads and build houses. The transport system has now almost entirely switched to the street grid. Drawing on historical maps, chronicles, artwork, and existing studies, it serves to highlight the significance of waterways for the identity of Suzhou. Tourism development is presented as an opportunity to reactivate the water grid for purposes of heritage conservation, transportation, and enhancement of tourist experiences. Another example is plans by Singapore’s Urban Redevelopment Authority to refresh its business districts to include additional residential, recreational, and lifestyle developments to create people-friendly neighborhoods.

The rapid development and increasing availability of geographical information systems (GIS) and space syntax analysis have led to a growing volume of spatial research, in general, and tourism studies, in particular (Allen et al. 1999). The primary function of the GIS serves to collect, capture, store, retrieve, and analyze spatial patterns, with the objective of providing a systematic record of the way in which destinations evolve in space over different periods of time. It has advantages over conventional methods in integrating various data sources, performing spatial analysis, modeling spatial processes, and mapping the results in land-use change studies. However, the application of GIS in tourism research has been minimal, even though GIS technology has been widely discussed in the tourism literature for over a decade (Urry and Larsen 2011). Thus far, tourism planning, recreation and park management, and visual resource assessment are the three tourism-related fields that have most frequently made use of GIS (Tremblay 2005).

In recent years, the issues of sustainability and impact studies have become norms while tourism planners have begun to consider the reading of the destination as a text with many interpretations. The importance of environmental, social, and corporate governance (ESG) has been recognized by various sectors, especially with respect to the United Nation’s sustainable development goals (SDGs). ESG has emerged as an important strategic tool in setting specific missions and objectives to share their benefits with the community. Furthermore, given the transformed understanding of tourist destinations and contemporary cities, existing planning strategies deemed necessary for commercial development with socio-spatial settings often seem inadequate. Multicultural planning was initiated by Qadeer (2015), who proposes that planning ought to be sensitive to cultural identity differences and forge pluralistic modes to satisfy public needs. The gradual transformation of conventional central business districts (CBD) into central social districts (CSD), places where all sorts of people meet to eat, talk, and have fun, not just go to the office. The emergence of new tourism activities, such as creative tourism, smart tourism, community-based tourism, etc., calls for planners and stakeholders to be more responsive to needs assessment and to adopt a proactive role for diversity, equity, and inclusion (DEI). For example, the Toyota auto company will build “the woven city” at the base of Mt. Fuji in Japan in 2024 to showcase a prototype city of the future linking new technology, diversity, and the ecosystem. By engaging with tourism planning and by calling for spatial justice, we are necessarily thrust into an uncertain and unknown future. What kind of tourism future might or ought to happen? What kind of future do we want, and for whom? What are the ways in which the future might be materialized, embodied, and spatialized? These questions are necessary for understanding and intervening in the complexities of tourism planning.
2. THE STRUCTURE OF THE HANDBOOK

How tourism planning is understood, articulated, and regulated has a lot to do with how we interact in it. The Handbook chapters compiled by Edward Elgar offer an account of the growth, development, and changes in recent decades and identify many of the major concerns of a broad spectrum of researchers and general-interest audiences. The chapters introduced here are not an exhaustive list but are representative and applicable beyond the particularities of specific projects, strategies, and places. They provide updated research and engagement at local, national, and global levels. A significant portion of this volume is dedicated to describing, unpacking, and framing planning strategies in various destinations, while expanding the definition of tourism planning to encompass a variety of successful case studies. Furthermore, the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic has exacerbated preexisting problems in the tourism sector, e.g., the issues of sustainability, policy, and governance have become increasingly controversial. Therefore, the Handbook is designed to offer an in-depth yet clear understanding of some of the critical issues and challenges facing contemporary tourism planning. The format serves as a generative framework for demonstrating the transformative possibilities of tourism planning and establishing compelling ways to present knowledge to a broader audience.

The structure of the Handbook shares several defining traits. First, it shifts among tourism planning, impact studies, and updated research methods. While they manifest as more strongly one or the other, they are always much more than simply a data collection method. Second, tourism planning has increasingly engaged with forms of creative cultural tourism, smart city, rethinking how we see, communicate, understand, and possibly transform tourist destinations. Third, planning is fundamentally collaborative and site-specific and embodies practices of everyday life attuned to the positionality of the subject. Lastly, contributors come from a variety of disciplinary backgrounds with expertise in different research practices. Communicating across such a diverse spectrum of individuals is helped by a grounded, action-oriented, site and a project-specific approach. The Handbook is fortunate to include contributions from authors from 15 different countries and regions who weave together a variety of tourism planning and practices.

Part I, “Foundations of tourism planning,” encompasses seven chapters. It begins with Michael Fagence’s tribute to an important legacy of Clare Gunn, who champions multidisciplinary thought and action. It is fortunate for the practice of planning for tourism that the original conceptualizations promoted by Gunn have been capable of being used both in their formative state and in more nuanced forms to meet needs and situations. This has contributed to and led, almost serendipitously, to the aggregation of a largely undefined but formidable portfolio of diagnostic, interpretive, and planning tools, e.g., concepts, models, methodologies, and theories, that have been drawn to tourism from a diversity of qualitative and quantitative disciplines. Perhaps the basic and strongest case for the enduring contribution of Clare Gunn lies in the attention he gave to the spatial aspects of planning for tourism development. His concerns about the requirements of planning at a range of scales, across different configurations, and especially so as to achieve the expression of an appropriate “sense of place” and genius loci, clearly dominated his thinking about planning for tourism.

One of the many challenges that tourism faces both in practice and in academic contemplations is the need to keep abreast of changes in relevant adjacent areas and foundational disciplines. Areas with an applied focus, like tourism, can become inward looking and stagnant and, thus, fail to adopt new approaches pursued in related areas. Tourism planning seems
particularly prone to this issue with few papers in tourism research and few tourism plans in practice acknowledging, assessing, or adopting processes and strategies already well established in planning in general. Within tourism planning practice the more focused topic of participatory planning is even less linked to movements beyond tourism. Many authors in tourism call for more participatory planning, but very few tourism planners engage in participatory planning. In Chapter 2, Gianna Moscardo examines what participatory planning is and argues that it is more than engagement with a wider range of stakeholders during the planning process. Participatory planning in tourism must be about empowerment of destination residents and it must be about planning for participation in tourism management practice as well as participation in tourism planning. This chapter reviews three trends in the wider planning literature that can guide a greater focus on, and support improvements to, participatory planning in tourism. These include greater use of systems and futures thinking, the adoption of new mobile digital technologies and social media platforms in planning processes, and implications of the story turn in social sciences and planning for engaging destination residents both in planning for, and in the practice of tourism. It concludes by offering a set of guidelines for participatory tourism planning in practice and ideas for further research in this area.

Walter Jamison’s long-standing research interest in regional tourism planning is kindled by a familiarity with and work experience in various countries. In Chapter 3, he and co-author Michelle Jamison address regional tourism planning within a developing economy context. Within a region there are many different forms of government, private sector activities, tourism priorities and demands, the nature of supply and potential differences, and impacts of various regional and national tourism planning strategies and approaches. Regional tourism planning in developing economies is a complex process requiring significant cooperation among the member countries and a network of private, public, and nonprofit stakeholders. Unlike in a more developed economy context, there are varying levels of individual and institutional capacity and understanding of the visitor economy. Different political ideologies and bureaucratic structures further complicate achieving cooperation and the implementation of a plan. This chapter is extremely useful for regional tourism planning using real-world applications and the exercise of regional planning, including an ongoing multidisciplinary literature search and leadership/participation in a number of regional and national tourism plans in Southeast Asia. It covers a wide range of planning practices, such as governance, planning, and implementation.

Chapter 4, written by Mary Anne Ramos-Tumanan and Edieser Dela Santa, uses Batanes, the northernmost islands in the Philippines, as a case study to illustrate the importance of engagement with the local community. The salience of this strategy is more relevant in areas where the governance context is characterized by geographical isolation, overlapping jurisdiction of national laws, and local governments struggling to cope with the specific demands of these laws. It is argued that where systematic monitoring of performance for sustainability is constrained by these conditions and exacerbated by mobility restrictions caused by external developments such as the COVID-19 pandemic, it is essential that policymakers and stakeholders engage in participatory approaches. This point is illustrated in considering a declared protected landscape and seascape, where issues of tourism growth and impacts prior to the pandemic, indigenous peoples (the Ivatans) and their cultural heritage, and the issue of protected area conservation all intersect and collide with one another. The chapter shows how the interconnection of the issues is revealed through a heterogeneous constructionist interpretation underpinned by stakeholders’ involvement. The heterogeneous constructionism approach
Examines how the pandemic might have changed the Ivatans’ view of tourism development and the causal conditions in which it is structured, while strengthening their resolve to maintain the protected area status of the province. Furthermore, the approach shows how engagement with local communities in protected area management has to be more broad-based and open to sectoral rather than just environmental-compliance issues, in light of gaps in importance-performance assessments.

One of the most difficult issues in tourism planning is to establish a structured network between stakeholders and local communities at the local and regional levels. There are different strategies for exploring heritage; therefore, identification of the strengths and weaknesses of the stakeholders’ cooperation networks allows entities in other territories to find solutions to similar problems. In Chapter 5, Paula Remoalado and her team explore creative tourism in the northern region of Portugal. They analyze the perception of stakeholders related to tourism in 10 municipalities of medium and low population density in northern Portugal on the promotion of creative tourist destinations. In the last decade, Portugal has emerged as one of the more active European countries in creative tourism activities, but additional efforts are necessary, such as the creation of more consolidated networks between stakeholders that work in the field. The data used for this investigation were collected until the outbreak of COVID-19. The results reveal the absence of a cohesive view of the stakeholders regarding tourism activity. This chapter is pertinent and original because there are few international studies of the stakeholder’s perception regarding creative tourism development from the perspective of local and regional institutions. It can also help institutions involved in creative tourism to better understand the regional state of the field in this tourism segment.

In Chapter 6, Portia Pearl Siyanda Sifolo and Unathi Sonwabile Henama address the role of governance within the future of work context, while unpacking the role of government during the Fourth Industrial Revolution. Framed within the governance theory that aims to explain interdependence and society’s expectations in influencing government decisions, questioning how to do it better, more effectively, and more legitimately. It presents a paradox within the concept of the future of work where the tourism industry is primarily led by the private sector, and the role of the government is about providing an enabling environment for the sector to succeed. The fragmentation of the tourism industry means that the role of government ought to be more profound, actively seeking to coordinate the tourism industry. The conclusion cautions that government is only one set among agents in an interwoven international tourism production system. Yet, the private sector owns most tourism businesses, which drive the tourism value chain.

Dallen Timothy in Chapter 7 focuses on the unique tourism planning needs in peripheral borderland regions. National borders and the areas adjacent to them (borderlands) are often neglected by central state authorities, relegating these spaces not only literally to the geographical periphery, but also to the social and economic margins of the state. Despite traditions of relative neglect, borderlands are an important part of the state, and they serve as places for carrying out a wide range of functions, including those related to national security, migration, nature protection, and filters of undesirable elements from abroad (e.g., diseases, crime, and illicit activities). The peripheral locations and specific functions of borders have resulted in several unique types of tourism that are endemic to borderlands. The same conditions have frequently helped the natural and cultural environments of borderlands to remain intact. Borderlands environments and tourism require special planning and management considerations, most particularly transfrontier development and interjurisdictional issues.
Likewise, border tourism creates unique urban morphologies when it grows organically or in a purposively planning manner. In short, tourism planning requires unique mechanisms and specialized approaches that most regions do not have to grapple with. This chapter outlines these issues, provides examples, and elucidates the main challenges to successful tourism planning in border regions.

Part II, “The changing dimensions of tourism planning principles,” encompasses seven chapters. In Chapter 8, Wieslaw Alejziak focuses on the study of the most crucial global challenges facing tourism and uses various theories of international integration in shaping tourism policy and planning tourism development. Attention is paid to the concept of multi-level governance (MLG) as an instrument that can be applied both at the planning stage of tourism development and in the management of various destinations. Multilevel governance is in favor of the network and the use of links between different entities operating at different levels of administration and management. The chapter considers so-called megatrends, transforming the modern world and affecting the development of tourism in a much wider and long-term perspective. Tourism development policy and planning constitute an interdisciplinary field of knowledge, indicating how to optimally develop tourism and manage businesses. In addition to the multilevel governance theory, other concepts, such as international integration, are considered in terms of their possible usefulness in tourism planning and management processes. Analyses in these areas concerns not only individual countries and tourist regions, but also international cooperation.

Deepak Chhabra tackles the issue of authenticity and eco-spiritual destinations in Chapter 9. Using an existentialist authenticity as a standpoint, he proposes to examine the potential of eco-spiritual tourism in stimulating the well-being of the local residents and the visitors in a popular spiritual tourism destination. Rishikesh is a rural town situated on the banks of the revered Ganges River in the foothills of the Himalayas in India, globally referred to as the spiritual capital of the world. The chapter particularly focuses on the potential of the town as an eco-spiritual destination, especially in the manner the spirit of the town is shaped by the Ganges River. Premised on the existentialist authenticity concept, an eco-spiritual framework is used to offer a discourse of the impact of the spiritual bonding with the river on the well-being of local residents and tourists. Existentialist authenticity in this context refers to the state of optimal self, sought by engaging in activities that stimulate the intrinsic connection between the river and the town.

Alberto Amore in Chapter 10 provides a timely reflection on how policies actions and inactions can undermine tourism job market growth and appeal in the United Kingdom following major triggers like Brexit and the COVID 19 pandemic. Using a policy analysis approach, the author sheds light on the changing role of the UK government in response to specific job market criticalities. Additionally, inflation and soaring energy prices are putting many businesses across the hospitality and tourism sector under further pressure. These are major macroeconomic aspects that require, now more than ever, adequate policy response for sustainable tourism development. The findings reflect policies and inactions amid increasing uncertainty about the future of the travel and tourism workforce in the United Kingdom.

In Chapter 11, Michael Fagence revisits the legacy of Clare Gunn and builds on his declared partiality toward the spatial aspects of tourism planning and the implications of fine-tuning spatial arrangements for the achievement of worthwhile tourism development. The chapter does not, however, serve as a commentary on aspects of those spatial arrangements. Rather, it draws attention to how the investigative and interpretive phases early in the tourism planning
process can reach out to and can draw in methodologies from a number of independently positioned, qualitatively inclined sciences to help in probing some of the intricacies and nuances of a portfolio of resources that may help, for example, to tell a story from history through the medium of heritage-based tourism. The special case in this chapter has been selected from the history of the nineteenth century in Australia. It tells the drama-filled story of some of the exploits of the bushranger-cum-outlaw Edward (Ned) Kelly.

In Chapter 12, Philip Xie proposes to link urban morphology to tourism planning. The proposed morphology of tourism is a multidimensional concept that reinforces physical transformation through different temporalities. Tourism penetrates and influences the urban form at all levels: land use, site development, building regulations, infrastructure, innovation, and social inclusion. The aim of this chapter seeks to highlight the elements of morphology, the characteristics of tourism, and their impacts documented in existing literature. It proposes a simple conceptual framework to form the basis for analyzing multifarious spatial practices and social interactions, including (1) urban forms in natural, street, plot, and building systems; (2) tourism attractions in points, lines, and areas; and (3) a variety of impacts incurred by tourism on urban forms, including sociocultural, economic, and spatial patterns. The rise and importance of morphology are structured around the relationship between tourism impacts, forms and functions, and key elements. This framework potentially broadens generalizability vis-à-vis academic understanding of urban form impacted by tourism, as well as in areas beyond this domain.

Chapter 13, written by José Cadima Ribeiro, Laurentina Vareiro, and Isabel Cristina Monjardino, investigates the factors influencing residents’ perceptions and attitudes towards tourism, focusing on the interaction between destination’s residents and tourists. A survey undertaken among residents of the Azores archipelago in Portugal in 2018 and findings show that sustainability has been defined by the regional government of Azores as an essential feature of the tourism strategy to be implemented in the archipelago. This was clearly stated in the Spatial Planning of Tourism of the Azores’ Autonomous Region and was reinforced by the initiative taken by the regional government regarding the process of aiming to turn the Azores into a sustainable destination. The findings follow the assumptions of the social exchange theory, namely, respondents that used to keep closer contact with tourists and/or directly benefited from the tourism industry tended to express stronger support for the industry’s development. Regional and national authorities must be aware of these results when designing their policies for the pursuit of a sustainable development strategy.

Rasha Kassem and Daniel Santamaria provide a new perspective of tourism planning. In Chapter 14, they reveal that fraud risk impedes tourism planning and competitiveness, and prior studies have shown that tourists are increasingly concerned about fraud risk. However, tourists’ perceptions of fraud risk have been given little attention in the consumer behavior literature. Understanding tourists’ perceptions of fraud risk serves to improve tourism planning and inform new marketing and communication strategies to mitigate psychological barriers to travel during the post-pandemic period. The aim of this chapter is twofold. First, it sheds light on the impact of fraud risk and tourists’ perception of fraud risk in the tourism, travel, and hospitality sectors. Second, it investigates tourists’ perception of fraud risk during the COVID-19 pandemic through a survey sent to domestic and international tourists in the United Kingdom. The findings show that tourists have perceived increased fraud risk during the pandemic. Specific types of fraud include insider, cyber, payment frauds, fraudulent holidays, refunds, and deals. We infer from these results that the perception of fraud risk is
a new mediating factor behind the “word of mouth” effect and, as such, could inform communication and marketing strategies aimed at mitigating some psychological barriers to travel post-pandemic. This chapter has important implications for businesses in the tourism, travel, and hospitality sectors in targeted investment, governance, and policy.

Part III, “Reimagining tourism planning through sustainability,” includes six chapters that address raising planning to the next level. In Chapter 15, Emmet McLoughlin and Kelly Maguire explore the relationship between sustainable planning and its application to tourism. The European Commission’s (EC) European tourism indicator system (ETIS) toolkit for sustainable destination management has been recognized as a valuable tool for both measuring sustainability performance and informing tourism policy. The aim of this chapter is, therefore, to demonstrate how, through the application of these elementary sustainability indicators, both destination management organizations (DMO) and local policymakers can accurately assess their current and future approaches to tourism planning through quantifiable evidence. The authors utilized the preexisting visitor, enterprise, and resident surveys that accompany the ETIS indicator system in several honey pot destinations within County Sligo in Ireland. Such data can help to provide an accurate representation of a destinations shift toward greater levels of sustainability, which can be benchmarked over time.

In Chapter 16, Walter Jamieson argues that there is ample evidence that many tourism-oriented commercial precincts are experiencing ever more significant challenges as they look toward the future. The chapter develops a conceptual framework that explores the intersection between planning and design which incorporates economic development and heritage dimensions with a strong emphasis on practical recommendations. Research has highlighted the fact that the importance of the visitor industry to many destinations is poorly understood. The findings show that those responsible for tourism commercial areas are pressed to deal with a wide range of issues, often concentrating on marketing and product development as well as the day-to-day management of these areas. Key stakeholders often possess neither the necessary planning and design competencies nor the requisite mindsets. Specific recommendations will include considerations of governance, stakeholder engagement, tactical planning, responsive planning regulations and processes, essential planning, and design competencies for those responsible for tourism-oriented commercial areas and for the tools needed for assessing different strategies and approaches.

In Chapter 17, Ana Sofia Duque and Paulo Carvalho focus on the European continent where several countries and cities have adopted the logic of transnational and cross-border cooperation. The chapter treats the seven Iberian Eurocities that make up Portuguese and Spanish cross-border cities and presents recent tourism planning developed in these territories as well as identifying the main opportunities and challenges related to cross-border cooperation in tourism. To achieve the defined objectives, a qualitative methodology was used, in which documental analysis is complemented with structured interviews. The selected local political leaders responsible for the seven Eurocities on both sides of the border were interviewed. The creation of a Eurocity is emerging and plays a key role in future tourism planning.

In Chapter 18, Kai Gu and Ye Li reconnect landscape research to planning practice. Intensifying pressures for landscape changes in New Zealand in the past two to three decades have created major challenges to planning. The conflict between development and landscape management in a neoliberal economy is particularly evident in the process of tourism urbanization in coastal areas. Landscape research has the potential for supporting positive tourism planning and urban design. Its significance is explored in relation to a critical examination of
changing natural and built landscape forms in Mount Maunganui, New Zealand. Studying the dynamics of the landscape and its resulting spatial structure forms both conceptual and practical bases for sustainable management of coastal areas.

Silvia Fernandes and Fatima Carvalho revisit sustainable tourism and reimagine an innovating path through smart city projects in Chapter 19. The COVID-19 crisis has halted many activities and sectors. The habits and behaviors of workers and the general public have changed considerably. As a result, the use of technologies and connections, virtual reality, and remote support are discussed. Businesses and activities have been forced to adapt quickly to new challenges. Digital technologies and platforms enhancement allow better services to people. Smart city projects can have the great potential to link people to works and services as never before. Also, the data obtained from the technological convergence involved can contribute to enhance interactions and decisions toward the “new normal.” This chapter aims to assess how Portugal is prepared to respond to this accelerated process and its demands in urban environments. Portuguese firms have developed good capacity for entrepreneurship and innovation. However, they are still behind in converting the knowledge acquired in sales and exports. And there is still insufficient collaboration at the public-private level. Smart city acceleration programs through IoT (Internet of Things) and AR (Augmented Reality), can encourage developments in these matters. This can contribute to the digital transformation of sectors such as tourism and health for their post-COVID revival.

In Chapter 20, Omid Salek Farokhi and Samereh Pourmoradian develop a tourism strategy for sustainable development in Meybod, Iran. A variety of Delphi methods, PEST environmental scanning, and interaction effects are used. Critical parameters of sustainable social tourism are combined and recognized by key experts using the Interaction Analysis Questionnaire. They utilize the key uncertainties of the three scenarios, namely, golden (optimistic), predictable (appropriate), and recessionary (suspicious) future. Individual recorded experience and interests, design planning, foreign approach, and international connections are the most significant parameters. Competitive services, quality of land and air networks, and advertising technology in tourism have been recognized as the most significant parameters. Capability structures for tourism in the era of transmission and social cohesion are regarded as regulatory variables in sustainable social tourism. The evaluation of sustainable social tourism plans demonstrates that some plans are useful and strong in only one or two scenarios and vulnerable in others. It is essential to develop multifaceted plans so as to react to situations under various conditions.

Part IV, “Case studies of successful tourism planning,” provides a medley of planning practices and tourism activities around the world. The purpose is to present case studies that compare decision-making and regional planning processes between multiple countries. In Chapter 21, Guillaume Tiberghien brings heritage tourism in Kazakhstan to the fore. After three decades of independence from the former Soviet Union, Kazakhstan is at the crossroads of its heritage tourism development, with various existing and prospective niches of tangible and intangible heritage legacies inherited from its nomadic and past Soviet times. Meanwhile, Kazakhstan keeps defining the dynamic nature of its cultural heritage and the potential of its heritage tourism practices for attracting new visitors. In a globalizing world of increasing sameness, niche tourism represents diversity and ways of making a difference. Using a niche tourism approach, the author looks at various heritage tourism developments in Kazakhstan and how tourism intersects with Kazakhstan’s post-Soviet heritage and socioeconomic development in a diversifying heritage tourism industry. The purpose is twofold. First, it aims to
examine how various tourism stakeholders are involved in the planning, commodification, and interpretation of what remains of the nomadic culture and the Soviet legacy. Using a niche tourism approach, the author then provides some planning implications for the development and diversification of heritage tourism in the country by considering nomadic cultural landscapes, the Soviet legacy of the Gulag, and the Baikonur cosmodrome as future important heritage tourism destinations; and by capitalizing on UNESCO World Heritage sites (WHS) and the heritage of the Silk Road.

In Chapter 22, Tsung-Chiung (Emily) Wu, Alex Hsu, and Wen Horng Yu develop a new strategic planning of agritourism in Taiwan. Facing the decline of traditional agriculture in rural areas, agritourism has thus become a critical alternative for revitalization, where tourism is introduced and combined with traditional farming to create new rural enterprises, hoping to increase added value and achieve a sustainable management of rural livelihood. Diversification of agritourism discloses the intricate associations, influences, and mutual benefits/costs of tourism and traditional agriculture. Endowed with novel developmental opportunities, agritourism is, in fact, founded on the traits and connotation of traditional agriculture pertinent to its production, lifestyle, and idyllic landscape. This chapter parses the transformation of conventional agrarian industries and focuses on the synthesis of the agritourism services of the various leisure farms of Yilan, Taiwan. This study provides a systematic framework of industry upgrading and integration that builds upon various levels of industries and multifunctions of rural (land) resources, setting forth the innovative tourism potential on farms. The cross-level integration of industrial types further capitalizes on the rural resources featured with leisure and recreation functions and generates multiplier benefits from diversification. Results also show that the diversification planning of agritourism has not only brought considerable economical returns, but also enhanced their resilience. Practical suggestions are provided to agritourism practitioners, rural development units, and policymakers.

In Chapter 23, Li Yang explores ethnic tourism planning in China, which has recently been promoted as an economic development and cultural preservation strategy for many destinations. This approach can have significant impacts on ethnic communities whose development potential is limited. The chapter reviews ethnic tourism development and related planning practices in three nationally well-known ethnic destinations in southwestern China and examines how tourism planning affects the potential that ethnic tourism holds for host communities. The review indicates that the destinations lack planning and managing tourism development. Local planning tends to focus on economic priorities and investment incentives with little concern given to local carrying capacities and negative impacts. Ethnic tourism has presented a dilemma between development initiatives and environmental and cultural conservation. It is argued that more effective planning approaches are required if tourism is to contribute to achieving the development goals that are sought by its advocates.

In Chapter 24, Nicola Cerpelloni, Francesco Lucifora, and Marco Platania offer a community-oriented approach to the development of cultural tourist destinations. A touristic destination is an area characterized by a clearly identifiable tourist supply. The destination must manage the territory as a product offering certain products and services so that its competitiveness in the global tourism market improves. A peculiar element of the tourist destination is given by the presence of an agency that promotes the territory/product on the tourist markets, at the same time that it plans local tourism development. To avoid carrying capacities being exceeded, the planning designed by the destination must be sustainable. Furthermore, in this development process, not only local administrators, but also the local community must be
involved. This chapter illustrates the development process of a specific tourist destination implemented by the Local Action Group (LAG) “Terra Barocca,” located in southeastern Sicily, Italy. The LAG Terra Barocca is in a geographical area formed by five towns that draw tourists for their unique landscape and for their food traditions and some have been designated UNESCO sites. The LAG is a tool promoted by the European Union to develop plans and development programs dedicated to the socioeconomic improvement of rural communities. The LAGs are groupings of public and private partners that represent both the rural populations, through the presence of local public bodies (e.g., municipalities, provinces, and mountain communities) and organizations of economic operators present in the territory. The Terra Barocca case study offers several useful indications in terms of tourism policy and represents best practice that can be implemented in similar geographical areas.

In Chapter 25, Yang Zhang examines the development of creative cultural tourism in Macau, SAR, China, a new genre of tourism eliciting active tourist participation in learning and hands-on experiences. This chapter explores tourists’ motivations for participating in creative activities, as well as their perceptions of authenticity following a visit to the Albergue Art Space. Empirical results indicate that vernacular heritage, service quality, and participatory experience are key determinants for developing creative tourism. Sightseeing, social contact, self-improvement, and escapism emerge as primary motivations for participating in creative activities. In addition, tourist perceptions of authenticity in the context of creative tourism encompass objective and existential components. This chapter proposes to incorporate aspects of participatory experience into creative tourism products.

In Chapter 26, David Coffey, Alexandra Coghlan and Sarah Gardiner present an exploratory study for developing scuba diving attractions in Queensland, Australia. Applying stakeholder agency theory, it explores stakeholder perceptions on planning best practices (PBP) for this type of tourism development. While the Great Barrier Reef is Queensland’s premier diving attraction, Queensland has also invested in several man-made scuba diving attractions (SDA) over the last twenty years, which is the focus of this chapter. Implementing SDA involves advanced high-risk challenges more significant than most land-based tourism attractions as they operate in diverse, sensitive, and vulnerable ecosystems. Therefore, they warrant advanced and unique planning development processes. The past two decades have seen the growing popularity of dive tourism, becoming one of the fastest-growing sectors in the tourism industry and making a significant contribution to the Australian economy. For SDA planning to be sustainable, there must be effective communication channels among stakeholders, and these stakeholders must be involved in decision-making during the planning processes. Stakeholders’ requirements, relationships, interactions, perceptions of PBP, and project acceptance heavily influence the project’s outcomes, which determine the development avenues for the SDA. Planners must acknowledge and understand these influences to achieve the project outcomes efficiently and effectively. For these reasons, stakeholders’ perceptions of PBP used in SDA development warrants further investigation.

In conclusion, the strength of the Handbook demonstrates a collaborative work of scholars from different disciplines, emphasizing tourism planning in a global context. A total of 26 chapters covers a wide variety of tourism planning and practices worldwide. These chapters are marked by a gradual evolution from early efforts to promote tourism as an economic development strategy to more recent efforts to incorporate sustainability and tourism development that balance growth with environmental and social responsibilities. Tourism has become one of the sectors most affected by the COVID-19 pandemic, and so planners need
to make strategic decisions regarding future development, and recovery will depend on sound approaches to mitigate the negative impacts on livelihoods. The post-COVID-19 era further highlights the need for comprehensive tourism planning in different scenarios and the potential for new technology to advance the tourist experience. Therefore, this *Handbook* contributes to the realization that the tourism planning process should be examined within a wider and systemic context, while the socioeconomic milieu in which research and practice are undertaken is a crucial factor in understanding today’s tourism planning.

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