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Mapping a history and development of tourism studies field

Abstract

This paper provides a chronological evolution of the interdisciplinary Tourism Studies (TS) field from its formation origins in the late 1960s until recently. By using the framework of the 'Knowledge force-field' developed by Tribe (2006) this socio-historical mapping of the field aims to provide a kind of 'navigating lens' to understand the origins of TS field, its burgeoning visibility, and its current complexity and challenges. This task is perceived as an important endeavour for two key reasons. Firstly, as the growth of the field has been truly sensational, particularly in the past 10-15 years, that does require an important historical reflecting point of asking 'what, how and who' questions in terms of key contributions and developments up to date. Secondly, and consequently the field has grown so much that it now appears to be fairly fragmented between different disciplinary perspectives, institutional and political agendas, over different networks and journals. These fragmentations and immense proliferations do require some general pointers, if one is to make any sense of the field. This is the case especially for younger scholars who come to the field of tourism studies from different schools and disciplines, hence often find themselves 'lost' in the plethora of audiences differentiated by their paradigms, approaches and perspectives.

Key words: historical mapping; tourism studies field; knowledge-force field; business and non-business studies approaches

Introduction and the conceptual map

This paper aims to provide a historical map of tourism studies for the last four decades, namely from the late 1960s until recently. This is an important endeavour in the context of the significant growth of this field which has been demonstrated by a steady increase in specialised tourism academics and researchers, educational programs, journals, networks, publishers and research centres (Baretje-Keller, 2007). While it needs to be acknowledged that the topic of travel and tourism has fascinated some scholars long before then, it can be claimed that tourism, as a distinct field of study, has only emerged in this period (Airey, 2004). Prior to that it was mostly 'broad philosophers or lone individuals' and historians who were writing about the phenomenon of travel and recreation in general (for more detail see Graburn & Jafari, 1991). The reason for this is fairly palpable. The production of most academic knowledge in social science is induced and motivated by the 'the-empirical social-world-out-there' that academics observe, study, interpret and represent. So, in the case of tourism it was, indeed, only after WW2 that the modern phenomenon of international travel has become available on more of

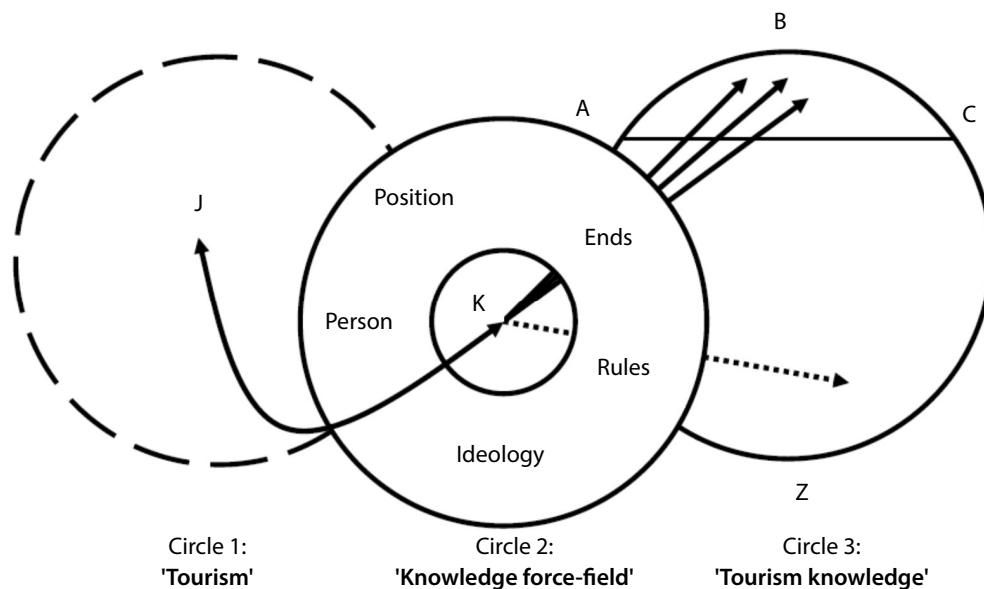
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a mass scale, hence more visible as a socio-economic and cultural matter to be worth studying at an academic level.

Nevertheless, there is a need to acknowledge that development of tourism as we dominantly perceive it today has been invented and captured from the view of the modern Western experience. In other words, travellers, tourists and academics largely originate from the developed world of the West (however problematic the concept of the West is these days). Furthermore, there is a need to be more precise and stress that while modern day international travellers have conspicuously come from a whole range of OECD developed countries¹, it has been the English-speaking world that has dominated tourism studies writings which will be the focus of this paper as the most obvious and visible foci and as one of the aspects that will be critically observed.

Therefore, the rationale behind this paper is twofold. Firstly, as the growth of the field has been truly sensational, particularly in the past 10-15 years, that does require an important historical reflecting point of asking what, how and who questions in terms of key contributions and developments up to date. Secondly, and consequently the field has grown so much that it now appears to be fairly fragmented between different disciplinary perspectives, institutional and political agendas, over different networks and journals. These fragmentations do require some general pointers and navigation, if one is to make any sense of the field, especially for young scholars who often come to the field of tourism studies from different disciplines and often find themselves 'lost' in the plethora of audiences differentiated by their paradigms, approaches and perspectives. So, in order to provide an updated and general map of the field, a framework of the 'Knowledge force-field' developed by Tribe (2006) will be used as it neatly captures the production process of academic (tourism) knowledge in the visual model presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1
The 'Knowledge force-field'



Source: Tribe (2006, p. 363).

Circle 1 represents the phenomenal world of 'Tourism' per se, that is the empirical 'reality' of its growth, flows, happenings, histories, structures, events, workings, manifestations, impacts and influences on people and environment. In other words, it is the practice of tourism, being either on the production or consumption side. Circle 2 of the 'Knowledge force-field' is where a researcher 'sits' to gaze upon the phenomenon, research it and write about it. The gaze and interpretation of researchers is generally influenced by their institutional position (discipline/faculty); socio-economic realities of person – that is of individual academics (race, ethnicity, gender, class, etc.) and their research interests; rules and ideology of their institutions and disciplines; and the final ends of what/whom the (tourism) knowledge is produced for.

As the interpretation and the production of knowledge goes through these 'filters and forces' of circle 2 we get to circle 3 of 'Tourism knowledge' where all our facts, theories, concepts and explanations lie in the form of the 'known world' expressed in written language: i.e. scientific articles, books, reports, web sites, theses, etc. However, it is important to note that this is not a linear process but rather a spiral of fluent spaces and circles created by dialectical interrelationships and influences. For example, if the principal ideology of the 'tourism world' is based around values of seeing tourism primarily as a business sector, that is what will influence where tourism scholars will be positioned and education programmes institutionalised. Therefore, the circles of division cannot be fully delineated. Yet, in such a clear visual form, the framework provides a neat structure for this paper through which the historical development of these 3 circles over the past 4 decades will be presented, albeit in a fairly general manner of what is feasible within the limits of one paper.

The paper will begin with the description of the tourism phenomenon in terms of its main international structures, importance and travel flows in context of which tourism knowledge has been created. Far from being exhaustive, the main objective is to primarily produce a general picture of key structural shifts in the process of tourism expansion. It has to be noted that the focus will be on the nature of international tourism as that is what has been a dominant preoccupation of most tourism scholars (Graburn & Jafari, 1991). Hereafter, it will describe the realities and forces within the 'Knowledge force-field'; the growth, structures and shapes of the tourism academy. Henceforth, it will provide an overview of the increase in tourism programmes, journals and networks and an overview of the disciplinary, geographical and gender structures of tourism academia. It is important to note that a detailed account as per Tribe's five forces will not be provided as the aim is to provide a general view of the field rather than individual efforts of persons. Thus, person and ends will not be able to be captured fully, although some of the key contributors will implicitly emerge in the proceeding discussion of circle 3. Finally, the empirical analysis of the tourism academy world will be followed by a discussion on the historical evolution of tourism knowledge in the past four decades and how it has been shaped in terms of its main paradigms, contributions and concepts.

Circle 1: The phenomenal world of international tourism and its strength in the global economy

People have always travelled, for as long as we can remember; it appears to be an inherent part of human nature. The early civilizations in Asia, the Middle East and the Mediterranean have left us written

records of their 'adventures'. After the fifteenth century, written records increased rapidly because of the invention of the printing press. By the mid 17th century, the well-known 'grand tour' emerged and these 'tourists' also kept diaries about their journeys, literary as well as educational and descriptive records (Graburn & Jafari, 1991). In the nineteenth century mass tourism started to develop with the beginning of the empire of Thomas Cook (Towner, 1985).

Yet, we can only talk about tourism on a visible global scale since World War II, with the take-off of air transport and general economic progress, when the international travel boom has truly began. The substantial growth of tourism activity has clearly marked tourism as one of the most remarkable economic and social phenomena of the past century. The sheer growth of international tourism from a mere 25 million in 1950 to over 1,035 billion in 2012 (corresponding to an average annual growth rate of 6.5%) clearly illustrates the case in point (UNWTO, 2012). In 1950 the top 15 destinations received 88% of international travels, in 1970 75% and in 2005 57% which demonstrates the emergence of new destinations (WTO, 2008). Tourism creates millions of jobs directly and indirectly related to tourism as well as providing governments with hundreds of millions of dollars in tax revenue each year, stimulating enormous investments in new infrastructure (WTO, 2008; Apostolopoulos, Leivadi & Yiannakis, 1996). As a consequence, tourism has become one of the major players in international commerce (WTO, 2008). In this period of phenomenal tourism growth, two key phases can be distinguished in terms of its main structural and political changes: 1) the period up to mid 1980s/early 1990s; and 2) the period since then.

In the first phase of the early years of the 1960s boom, tourism primarily emerged as a major tool of economic development for developing countries. Considered to bring about foreign exchange, employment creation, and a multiplier effect on economic growth, in 1963 the United Nations proclaimed the importance of tourism's contribution to the economies of developing countries. Under pressure imposed by international financial institutions such as the World Bank, many developing countries and in particular those with large foreign debts were encouraged to attract foreign investment in tourism by providing fiscal concessions and promotional privileges (Lanfant, 1980)². In other words, international tourism was primarily designed for travel of the emerging well-off middle class from the so-called 'world- core' of the West to the 'pleasure periphery' of undeveloped and still 'unspoiled' countries of the South and the East (e.g. Africa, Pacific, Caribbean) (Pearce, 1987).

This is clearly illustrated by the fact that up to 80 percent of all international travel (measured by volume) for the last 40 years was made up of nationals of just 20 (OECD) countries. Furthermore, over 60 percent of total international expenditure in the early 1990s was accounted for by nationals of just seven countries which have lead tourism consumption for nearly four decades: USA, Germany, Japan, UK, Italy, France and Canada (WTO, 1995; Vellas & Becherel, 1995). In terms of the nature of tourism demand, it has been established that those 'golden hordes' of tourists were dominantly interested in the rejuvenation capacity of sunny destinations to which Northern urban dwellers flee in great numbers, creating the most visible phenomenon of the '4S' based (sun, sea, sand and sex) mass tourism (Poon, 1993).

During the 1980s, however, three significant changes had begun to occur. Firstly, as developed Western countries had begun to experience first economic crisis, the tourist industry has emerged as a key component in economic diversification strategies for their dominantly manufacturing economies (Craik,

1991; Hardy, Hart & Shaw, 1991; Commonwealth Department of Tourism, 1992; Law, 1993; Montanari & Williams, 1995). Furthermore, in some cases it has been seized as a full remedy for growing unemployment in industrialized countries (Williams & Shaw, 1988), especially in Western Europe (Williams & Shaw, 1991; OECD, 1995). This was an important economic and political shift that has seriously moved tourism to the forefront of the political agenda of Western countries, by recognising it as an agent of diversification and development in urban, rural and peripheral economies of the West. It will be shown later how that also influenced the fact that many tourism educational programmes begun to significantly emerge throughout universities world-wide.

Secondly, the nature of international tourism demand had begun to change towards new, 'special interest' forms of tourism, profiling so-called 'critical consumer tourists' who demand environmentally sound holidays (Krippendorf, 1987). Poon (1993, pp. 113-151) asserted that there has been an emergence of 'new hybrid tourists' who want to experience something different, to be in control, to see and enjoy but not destroy, and are adventurous and educated. They are held in contrast to 'old tourists' who follow the masses in search of sun or snow, are cautious, here today and gone tomorrow. Urry (1990) promoted the notion of the 'post-tourist' as set within a wider framework of emerging ecological values associated with a green consumer - creativity, health, new experiences, human relations and personal growth. Munt (1994) described it as a postmodern phenomenon of new middle classes. This trend has invented a wide range of 'special tourism' activities, such as bird watching, trekking, botanical study, whale watching, etc. For example, 80 million American bird watchers accounted for US\$14 billion spent on equipment, travel and related expenses (Hawkins, 1994). In due course, 'alternative', 'soft', 'eco', 'sustainable', 'nature', 'green' tourism have become the buzzwords since then.

Finally and more recently the nature of generating markets has changed towards new emerging sources of international tourism flows. Two key trends influenced this movement: firstly, the fall of the Berlin wall freeing Eastern European countries to develop towards market economies and travel freely; and secondly, the economic growth of Asia, initially led by Japan; followed by the super seven so-called 'little dragons': Hong Kong, Singapore, Taiwan, South Korea, Thailand, Malaysia and Indonesia and more recently by China and India. It was also in the mid-1990s that particular countries such as Korea, Taiwan and China introduced the social legislation freeing international travel of their citizens.

Although developed countries still remain the major consumers of international tourism, since late 2000s China and the Russian Federation have moved up to the top of the world scale of tourism spenders. As a consequence, the nature of international tourism demand has become an eclectic mixture of many different forms of travel consumption that concurrently coexist: mass tourism of packaged sightseeing tours; sun and sea beach holidays; long-haul backpacker travel on the 'unbeaten track of exotic lands'; cultural tourism of short break weekends in urban centres; exclusive travel of bird watching and fishing; active tourism of adventure sports; well-being spas; volunteer tourism ... and more. (Zeppel, 1992; Poon, 1993; Richards, 1996; Wearing, 2001; Hannam & Ateljević, 2008).

To summarise, it can be argued that global tourism of today has no doubt achieved a higher profile in the consciousness of the public of the developed world than ever before (Hall, Williams & Lew, 2004). It is not only for the reason of numbers and economic importance but also for the fact that it gets increasingly acknowledged on the world political agenda. For example, in 2003 the United Nations General Assembly unanimously made the World Tourism Organization a full-fledged UN

agency. In 2006 the United Nations appointed September 27th as the day in which to "celebrate the phenomenon that is tourism" and started a campaign to bring this message to the whole world (WTO, 2008). As a consequence, it has been argued that tourism has finally begun to impact policy makers and has climbed onto the international political agenda to the extent that they recognise it beyond merely economic activity but rather as an important agent of economic, social, cultural and political change (Hall *et al.*, 2004). That is clearly illustrated by the fact that European Commission has recently acknowledged tourism to help strengthening the feeling of European citizenship by encouraging contacts and exchanges between citizens, regardless of differences in language, culture or traditions (European Commission 2010), while the 12th European Tourism Forum (2013) suggests tourism as: 'A Force for Economic Growth, Social Change and Welfare'.

Circle 2: The 'Knowledge force-field' of growing tourism academia

The changes within tourism academia are reflective of the phenomenal world of tourism. The boom of the worldwide tourism industry has resulted in a growth of tourism educational programmes, individual academics specialised in the field, tourism journals and tourism networks, particularly since 1990s when developed countries had begun to acknowledge tourism's economic importance economically and politically. This part of the paper provides an overview of this growth and the structures and shapes that followed its impressive boom. More specifically, it begins with the description of the growth of higher education programmes, the range of journals and tourism networks to be followed by an overview of the nature of institutional homes and disciplines within which tourism has been positioned. In terms of its main structures that refer to positions of individuals the main factors of structural distributions in terms of institutional/disciplinary homes, and socio-geographic disparities will be considered.

Higher education programmes

Airey (2004) exemplifies the growth of tourism academia by pointing out that in the UK there were about 20 students of tourism in higher education in 1972, which by the end of the century had increased to more than 4000 new students each year. Botterill, Haven and Gale (2002) point out the substantial increase in PhDs awarded in tourism in the United Kingdom, from 4 in the year 1990 to 29 in the year 1997. In 1970 there were only two universities offering tourism courses in the United Kingdom while in the year 2003-2004 there were 56 Higher Tourism Institutions offering undergraduate tourism programmes. In the same period this institutional change has resulted in the growth from almost non-existent to 30 Professors in either Tourism Management or the Tourism Studies field (Tribe & Wickens, 2004). In the Southern Hemisphere, Ryan (1995) shows a similar trend of the exponential growth of university based tourism programmes, students and individual academics.

The growth has not been confined to the developed countries only. For example, in Brazil from the early 1970s, when the first tourism programme in higher education was created there was an increase of 900%, to 250 programmes in 1990s and to 600 programmes in 2004 (Leal, 2004). Similarly, the post-1980s boom was experienced by China. Before 1978 tourism was virtually nonexistent as a subject of study, while in 1991 there were already 69 higher education institutions offering different tourism program (Zhao, 1991). Bao (2002) looked at tourism geography as the subject of doctoral dissertations

in China in the period 1989-2000 and found that among the 20 Chinese doctoral dissertations only one was produced before 1994.

Journals

Co-parallel with the growth of education programmes and academics there has been a logical correlation of the main dissemination venues for tourism knowledge – that is of academic journals. To realise how phenomenal growth this field has seen in the last few decades, it is enough to look at the current number of tourism and travel related journals – from a dozen in 1970s to almost 150 related journals in 2008. Many of these journals have been created to satisfy different disciplinary and ideological agendas, individual research interests and academic networks. In the following table a list of tourism journals is presented, showing a tremendous increase after the 1990's which was obviously parallel to the changes in circle 1, as described earlier.

As one can see from the Table 1, the establishment of tourism journals really took off in the 1990's with 88% of all journals established after 1990. 60% of all tourism journals have been established after 2000, with a striking number of journals in 2007 with the creation of a whole range of world journals of tourism by the World Research Organization. Looking at other tourism related journals (leisure, hospitality, recreation, etc.) this development is also clear with 68% of all journals established after 1990 and 28% of all journals established after 2000.

Table 1
Growth of academic tourism and other related journals

Travel & Tourism Journals	Date established (first volume)	Editor based in (2008)
1 The Tourist Review/Tourism Review/Revue de Tourisme	1946	Switzerland
2 TOURISM: An International Interdisciplinary Journal (formerly Turizam)	1952	Croatia
3 Journal of Travel Research	1963	USA
4 Annals of Tourism Research	1973	UK
5 Tourism Recreation Research	1976	India
6 Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research (formerly Hospitality Research Journal and formerly Hospitality Education and Research Journal and previously journal of hospitality education)	1976	Hong Kong
7 Tourism Management	1980	New Zealand
8 Teoros International (Revue de Recherche en Tourisme)	1981	Canada
9 FIU Hospitality and Tourism Review (formerly FIU Hospitality Review)	1983	USA
10 Turyzm	1986	Poland
11 Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education (formerly Hospitality and Tourism Educator)	1988	USA
12 ACTA Turistica	1989	Croatia
13 ANATOLIA: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research	1990	Turkey
14 Journal of Tourism Studies	1990-2005 (ceased)	Australia
15 Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing	1992	Hong Kong

Table 1 Continued

Travel & Tourism Journals	Date established (first volume)	Editor based in (2008)
16 Estudios y Perspectivas en Turismo	1992	Argentina
17 Journal of Sustainable Tourism	1993	UK
18 Journal of Sport & Tourism (Formerly Journal of Sport Tourism)	1993	UK
19 Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Management (Formerly Australian Journal of Hospitality Management)	1994	Australia
20 Journal of Vacation Marketing	1994	Australia
21 International Travel Law Journal	1994	UK
22 Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research	1995-1998 (ceased)	UK
23 Tourism Analysis	1995	USA/Australia
24 Tourism Economics: The Business and Finance of Tourism and Recreation	1995	UK
25 Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research	1996	Hong Kong
26 Journal of International Hospitality, Leisure and Tourism Management	1997-1999 (ceased)	USA
27 Studies in Travel Writing	1997	UK
28 Tourismus Journal	1997	Germany
29 Tourism Review International (formerly Pacific Tourism Review)	1997	USA
30 Visitor Studies (formerly Visitor Studies Today)	1998	Australia
31 Current Issues in Tourism	1998	Australia/New Zealand
32 Information Technology & Tourism	1998	Austria
33 Journal of Convention & Event Tourism (formerly Journal of Convention & Exhibition Management)	1998	USA
34 Tourism, Culture & Communication	1998	Australia
35 Turismo visao e acao	1998	Brazil
36 International Journal of Tourism Research	1999	UK
37 Tourism Geographies: An International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment	1999	USA
38 Tourism and Hospitality Research: The Surrey Quarterly Review	1999	UK
39 Journeys: The International Journal of Travel and Travel Writing	2000	France/UK/USA
40 International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration	2000	United States
41 Journal of Quality Assurance In Tourism & Hospitality	2000	USA
42 Journal of Travel and Tourism Research	2001	Turkey
43 Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism	2001	Hong Kong
44 Tourism Today	2001	Cyprus
45 Tourist Studies	2001	Australia/UK
46 Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism	2001	Norway
47 Tourism Forum – Southern Africa Tourism Forum – Southern Africa	2001	South Africa
48 Problems of Tourism	2001	Poland
49 UNLV Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure Science	2001	USA
50 ASEAN Journal on Hospitality and Tourism	2002	Indonesia

Table 1 Continued

Travel & Tourism Journals	Date established (first volume)	Editor based in (2008)
51 Japanese Journal of Tourism Studies	2002	Japan
52 Journal of Ecotourism	2002	Canada
53 Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education	2002	UK
54 Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism	2002	USA
55 PASOS – Journal of Tourism and Cultural Heritage	2003	Spain
56 Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change	2003	UK
57 Tourism Research Journal (TJR)	2003	India
58 E-Review of Tourism Research	2003	USA
59 Journal of Quality of Life Research in Leisure and Tourism	2004	USA
60 Tourism and Hospitality Planning and Development	2004	UK
61 Tourism in Marine Environments	2004	New Zealand
62 Journal of China Tourism Research (formerly China Tourism Research)	2005	Hong Kong
63 Tourismos: An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism	2006	Greece
64 International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research	2007	USA
65 International Journal of Tourism Policy	2007	UK/Greece
66 European Journal of Tourism Research	2007	Bulgaria
67 World Journal of Tourism Administration	2007	Australia
68 World Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Management	2007	Finland
69 The Egyptian Journal of Tourism and Hospitality	2007	Egypt
70 World Journal of Tourism Development and Marketing	2007	USA
71 World Journal of Tourism Operations and Transport	2007	Saudi Arabia
72 World Journal of Tourism Small Business Management	2007	South Africa
73 World Journal of Tourism, Leisure and Sports	2007	UK
74 World Journal of Peace through Tourism	2007	USA
75 World Journal of e-Tourism	2007	Hong Kong
76 World Journal of Ecotourism	2007	Kenya
77 World Journal of Events and Sports Tourism	2007	South Africa
78 World Journal of Cultural Tourism and Tourist Guiding	2007	USA
79 Territories and Tourism	2007	France/Canada
80 Journal of Tourism Consumption and Practice	2008	UK
81 International Journal of Tourism & Hospitality Systems	2008	India
82 Journal of Unconventional Parks, Tourism and Recreation Research	2008	USA
83 Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure & Events	2009	UK
84 Journal of Tourism History	2009	UK
85 Journal of International Volunteer Tourism and Social Development	2009	Australia
86 London Journal of Tourism, Sport and Creative Industries	Forthcoming journal	UK
87 International Journal of Digital Culture and Electronic Tourism	Forthcoming journal	Greece

Table 1 Continued

Travel & Tourism Journals	Date established (first volume)	Editor based in (2008)
88 Journal of Tourism	n.a.	India
89 Tourism and Travel (T&T)	n.a.	India
90 International Journal of Culture and Tourism Research	n.a.	Korea
91 Studies in Physical Culture and Tourism	n.a.	Poland
92 The Consortium Journal of Hospitality & Tourism	n.a.	USA
Tourism related Journals (leisure; hospitality; recreation; etc.)	Date established (first volume)	Editor based in (2008)
93 World Leisure & Recreation Association Journal (World Leisure Journal)	1958	UK
94 Cornell Hospitality Quarterly (formerly Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly)	1960	USA
95 Therapeutic Recreation Journal	1968	USA
96 Journal of Leisure Research	1969	USA
97 Leisure/Loisir: Journal of the Canadian Association for Leisure Studies (formerly Recreation Research Review and formerly Journal of Applied Recreation Research)	1970	USA
98 Journal of Leisurability	1974-2000 (ceased)	Canada
99 Leisure Sciences	1978	USA
100 Loisir et Societe/Society and Leisure	1978	Canada
101 South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation	1979	South Africa
102 Journal of Foodservice (incorporating Foodservice Technology and Foodservice Research International)	1980	UK/USA
103 Leisure Studies	1982	UK
104 Museum Management and Curatorship	1982	Canada
105 Vrijetijdstudies	1982	The Netherlands
106 Visions in Leisure and Business	1982	USA
107 International Journal of Hospitality Management	1982	USA
108 Journal of Park and Recreation Administration	1983	USA
109 International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	1989	USA
110 Journal of the International Academy of Hospitality Research	1990	USA
111 Leisure Options: Australian Journal of Leisure and Recreation	1991-1996 (ceased)	Australia
112 The Appraisal Journal	1991	USA
113 Journal of Hospitality Financial Management	1992	USA
114 Journal of Hospitality & Leisure for the Elderly	1992	USA
115 Event Management (formerly Festival Management & Event Tourism)	1993	USA
116 Annals of Leisure Research (formerly ANZALS Research Series)	1993	Australia
117 Journal of Foodservice Business Research (formerly Journal of Restaurant & Foodservice Marketing)	1994	USA
118 Journal of Travel Medicine	1994	Switzerland

Table 1 Continued

Tourism related Journals (leisure; hospitality; recreation; etc.)	Date established (first volume)	Editor based in (2008)
119 International Journal of Heritage Studies	1994	UK
120 Gaming Research & Review Journal (UNLV)	1994	USA
121 Journal of Culinary Science & Technology (formerly Journal of Nutrition in Recipe & Menu Development)	1994	Ireland/USA
122 Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management (formerly Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing)	1995	USA
123 Managing Leisure	1995	UK
124 Human Dimensions of Wildlife	1996	USA
125 Australasian Leisure Management (formerly Australian Leisure Management)	1997	Australia
126 Gaming Law Review and Economics	1997	USA
127 Praxis – The Journal of Applied Hospitality Management	1998	USA
128 Information Technology in Hospitality	1999	UK
129 Cyber Journal of Applied Leisure and Recreation Research (LARNET)	1999	USA
130 Journal of Leisure Property	2000	UK
131 Journal of Retail & Leisure Property	2000	UK
132 Gastronomica: the journal of food and culture	2001	USA
133 Travel Medicine and Infectious Disease	2003	UK
134 The Journal of Foodservice Management and Education	2005	USA
135 International Journal of Event Management Research	2005	Australia
136 Journal of Heritage Tourism	2006	UK
137 Mobilities	2006	UK/USA
138 Journal of Hospitality Application & Research	2006	India
139 ICHPER-SD [International Council for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, Sport & Dance] Journal of Research	2006	USA
140 World Journal of Sports Management	2007	South Africa
141 World Journal of Managing Events	2007	South Africa
142 World Journal of Hotel and Restaurant Management	2007	USA
143 World Journal of Airlines and Space Travel	2007	South Africa
144 International Journal of Hospitality Knowledge Management	Forthcoming journal	UK
145 International Journal of Entertainment Technology and Management	Forthcoming journal	USA
146 Australasian Parks and Leisure (formerly Australian Parks and Leisure)	n.a.	Australia
147 African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation and Dance	n.a.	South Africa
148 Gaming & Wagering Business	n.a.	USA

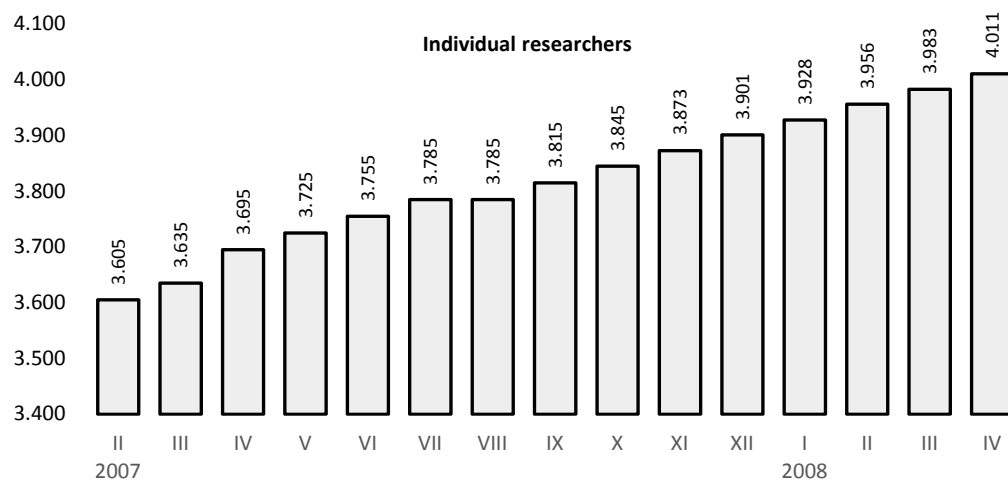
Source: Adapted, completed and updated from Hall et al., (2004, p. 11).

Networks

Baretje-Keller, the founder of an international centre for research and study on tourism - CIRET (Centre International de Recherches et d'Etudes Touristiques), strongly confirms our central argument. In his

'Report of activities: 1997-2006' he shows us the incredible growth of an average of 30 new researchers per month being included in his database since the creation of CIRET in 1996 (Baretje-Keller, 2007). He established his centre with the idea to create a global databank of university institutions, individual researchers, documents and publishers. The Figure 2 illustrates the phenomenal growth on the monthly basis towards the figure of over 4000 individual researchers registered in his network as being interested in the topic of tourism. It is important to note that Baretje-Keller makes the pro-active initiative of registering tourism scholars who do not always readily respond to his inquiry which suggests that the number of the world-wide tourism scholars is potentially even higher (personal communication, April, 2008). The figure of publications and documents is even more impressive. In 2008, there were 143.673 references analyzed by Baretje-Keller in total of refereed scientific articles and books (these also include the documents he analyzed before the creation of CIRET).

Figure 2
Growth of individual researchers 2007-2008



Source: CIRET database 2007-2008.

CIRET is one of the many networks devoted to the subject of tourism that emerged in the last couple of decades. These networks range from more general, to theme specific; from regional, national to international networks; from professional commercial industry related to academic networks (Graburn & Jafari, 1991). One impetus for the increase in networks especially in Europe was the initiative of the European Commission to develop European Thematic Networks [ETN] in order to help the universities with their promotion of subject-based collaboration (Richards, 1998). This was an important political move with the European Commission to recognize the increasing importance of tourism as a subject area of higher education in Europe.

The Table 2 provides an overview of the academic networks, divided in two types: 1) those which are only for exchanging information; and 2) those which are more active and involved in various activities, such as organising conferences and academic publications. It is important to state, however, that not all of these networks are equally open in accepting new members. The IAST, for example, created by anthropologists and sociologists in the 1970s, is a much closed network with a maximum of 75 members (Jafari, 2007).

Table 2
Academic networks

Information networks		Date established	Members
1	TRINET (Tourism Research Information Network)	1988	>1500 individual
2	CIRET (International Center for Research and Study on Tourism)	1996	3980 individual/ 708 collective
3	STRING (Sustainable Tourism Research Interest Group)	1997	n.a.
4	Asian Tourism Research	2001	177 (individual)
5	Recreation Ecology Research Network	2005	43 (individual)
Active networks		Date established	Members
6	Parks and Leisure Australia	<1933	n.a..
7	AIEST (International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism)	1951	350 individual/ collective
8	World Leisure	1952	>250
9	ICHPER-SD (International Council for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, Sport & Dance)	1958	n.a.
10	NACUFS (National Association of College & University Food Services)	1958	n.a.
11	National Recreation and Park Association	1965	n.a.
12	National Therapeutic Recreation Society	1966	n.a.
13	(ISA-)RC13 (International Sociological Association – Research Committee on Sociology of Leisure)	ISA = 1949 RC13 = 1970	ISA = 3300 individual / 147 collective RC13 = n.a.
14	TTRA (Travel and Tourism Research Association)	1970	795 individual/ collective
15	AAG – RTS (Association of American Geographers – Recreation, Tourism & Sport Specialty Group)	1974	213 individual
16	LSA (Leisure Studies Association)	1975	n.a.
17	CALS (Canadian Association for Leisure Studies)	1981	n.a.
18	HSMAI Foundation (Hospitality Sales and Marketing Association International Foundation)	1983	n.a.
19	The Association of Hospitality Financial Management Educators	1983	n.a.
20	CAUTHE (Council for Australian University Tourism and Hospitality Education)	Late 1980's	148 individual/ 26 collective
21	IAST (International Academy for the Study of Tourism)	1988	72 individual
22	VSA (Visitor Studies Association)	1988	n.a.
23	Vrijetijdsnetwerk	1990	n.a.
24	ATLAS (Association for Tourism and Leisure Education)	1991	313 collective
25	ANZALS (Australian & New Zealand Association for Leisure Studies)	1991	n.a.
26	TOLERN (Tourism and Leisure Research Network)	1991	n.a.
27	ATHE (Association for Tourism in Higher Education)	1993	39 collective
28	(ISA-)RC50 (International Sociological Association – Research Committee on International Tourism)	ISA = 1949 RC50 = 1994	ISA = 3300 individual/ 147 collective RC50 = n.a.

Table 2 Continued

Active networks	Date established	Members
29 APTA (Asia Pacific Tourism Association)	1995	300 individual/ collective
30 IFITT (International Federation for IT and Travel & Tourism)	1996	n.a.
31 The International Society for Travel Writing	1997	800
32 WCTA (World Cultural Tourism Association)	2000	n.a.
33 IGU (International Geographical Union) - C04.16 (Commission on the Geography of Tourism, Leisure and Global Change)	2000	632 individual
34 The Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Network	2000	n.a.
35 GLTRG (Geography of Leisure and Tourism Research Group)	2000	n.a.
36 European Cultural Tourism Network	2003	n.a.
37 GRITS (Gender Researchers in Tourism Studies network) → Critical Tourism Studies network	2002	130
38 SAFIT (Research and Innovation Network for Tourism in Salzburg)	2005	n.a.
39 Tourism Research Network	2006	6
40 IPTRN (The International Polar Tourism Research Network)	2007	n.a.
41 Nordic research network on historical leisure studies	forthcoming	-
42 ISTTE (International Society of Travel and Tourism Educators)	n.a.	n.a.
43 Countryside Recreation Network	n.a.	n.a.
44 Society of Park and Recreation Educators	n.a.	n.a.

Source: Desk research

The rest of the paper provides an overview of the structures and shapes of this tourism academia. In terms of its main structures that refer to positions of individuals it looks at the main factors of structural distributions in terms of institutional/disciplinary homes, and socio-geographic disparities.

Institutional homes

When the tourism boom had become an obvious phenomenon and academic interest begun to emerge, the main question was *where* tourism would be taught and institutionalised in terms of its home – i.e. a department/discipline/school to which it should 'naturally belong'. Given its early focus on the economic importance of tourism and students employment prospects Airey (2004) claims that it seemed to be logical to place tourism within business schools and/or vocational hotel management departments. He links the focus and purpose of the tourism programmes to the earlier acceptance for degree level in the 1960s of hotel and catering management programmes, which were profoundly vocational, focusing on the operation of the industry and practice, and having close connections with employers (see also for example Formica, 1996). When tourism programmes emerged within the same environment, often located in departments which offered degrees in hotel management, they followed the same vocational, industry oriented path.

At the same time, tourism also brought an interest of other more social science based disciplines, the most notable being geography, anthropology, and sociology scholars which had begun to study tourism

as one of the subjects within their home disciplines, hence offering it as one of their courses, within an anthropology degree for example (Nash, 2007). It is these early scholars who brought a broader and more critical perspective of tourism in terms of its social, political and cultural complexities. It has been this dualistic division between the more business oriented and social science based approaches that have shaped the field of tourism studies as we have it today. The way in which this has been achieved in terms of the variety of paradigms, concepts and approaches, will be covered in the circle 3 section. At this point we will still remain focused on circle 2 of disciplinary homes where tourism academics have been dominantly 'housed' and affiliated with.

The Table 3 takes the example of the IAST (International Academy for the Study of Tourism), one of the most traditional social science based networks to illustrate how tourism is dominantly institutionalised within departments/schools of tourism management, business and marketing (47%), despite the fact that their home PhD discipline is often based elsewhere (only 26% are associated with that perspective).

Table 3
Individual researchers within IAST - their disciplines and affiliations

PHD/Discipline	% of individual researchers	Affiliation	% of departments/schools where individual researchers are positioned
Tourism and economics	24	Tourism and economics	8
Tourism, management, business and marketing	26	Tourism management, business and marketing	47
Social sciences no reference	3	Social sciences no reference	8
Sociology	6	Sociology	1
Geography	22	Geography	1
(Social/cultural) Anthropology	8	Anthropology (social/cultural)	4
Philosophy	1	Philosophy	0
Psychology	6	Psychology	0
Leisure	1	Leisure	1
Tourism / No reference	3	Tourism / No reference	28
Total	100	Total	+/- 100

Source: desk research

Tribe (2001) and Pritchard and Morgan (2007) also discuss the correlation between disciplines, institutions and the tourism curriculum and point out the tendency to locate tourism programmes in management/business schools. While over 70% of the tourism programmes in the UK are located in business schools, almost 90% of individual academics belong to some social science discipline of sociology, economics, geography, anthropology, cultural studies, political science, etc. Because of such multi-disciplinarity and eclectic complexity, tourism continues to lack a recognizable home (Airey, 2004, p. 13). In a similar vein, Botterill *et al.*, (2002) show with their research of the 51 UK and Ireland universities that had awarded PhDs related to the study of tourism in the period 1990-1999, only 11 were members of the Association for Tourism in Higher Education (ATHE).

Geographic/ethnic and gender disparities

The geographical profile of tourism academia is another important aspect structuring the academic world. An example of this is the difference in focus in tourism programmes between different regions and countries around the world. Formica (1996) for example, compared the differences in hospitality and tourism education between Europe and the United States and noted several differences between the two systems. The United States is characterized by the Anglo-Saxon approach, which focuses on professional development by improving personal knowledge through using appropriate skills in order to manage hotel or lodging a business firm. European tradition is more driven by culture, as this system is directed to a more theoretical study of the social and economic aspects of tourism.

Another interesting aspect is the geographical location of the universities and the individual researchers in general. The Table 4 is the result of the analysis of these aspects within the CIRET network (over 4000 researchers), the ATLAS network (313 institutions) and TRINET (over 1600 individual researchers). The table clearly demonstrates the dominance of Western developed countries, although with fairly strong presence of Asia in terms of its educational institutions within ATLAS.

Table 4
Geographical characteristics of Trinet, Ciret and Atlas networks

Region	Individual researchers TRINET (%)	Individual researchers CIRET (%)	Universities CIRET (%)	Educational institutions and professional bodies ATLAS (%)
Western Europe	24	36	35	42
Eastern Europe	1	4	6	11
Middle East	1	1	2	2
Africa	<1	2	4	10
Asia	5	10	13	25
North America	43	27	23	2
South America	<1	4	6	2
Central America	0	<1	<1	<1
Caribbean	<1	<1	1	<1
Australasia-Oceania	26	15	10	5
Total	100	100	100	100

Source: desk research.

Tribe (2006, p. 364) specifically engages with this Eurocentric dominance in academia and asserts that the "production of knowledge and development of theory was in the past largely based upon Eurocentric research and the ideas of mainly white middle class men". Also, with respect to the geographical characteristics of the journals, Tribe (2006) notes a power of inequity, pointing out the dichotomies of so-called core-periphery relationships. Tribe refers to an analysis by Hall *et al.*, (2004) of the global distribution of journal editors, which showed how 77% of the editors are located in the United Kingdom, United States, New Zealand, Australia and Canada. Pritchard and Morgan (2007) further elaborate on the geographical imbalance with respect to tourism journals and their editors.

Also given that English is the ruling language in the international journals, gives the scholars from the English speaking countries an important advantage (Pritchard & Morgan, 2007).

Tribe's (2006) argument of tourism studies dominance by the first generation, white, male scholars grounded in ethnocentric Western, Anglo-Saxon research traditions is consistent with the fact that only 18% of the CIRET's individual researchers are female members (personal communication Baretje-Keller, March 2008). Aramberri (2002) further points out that almost all the delegates at the 2001 International Academy for the Study of Tourism (IAST) conference were male. It is interesting then to look at the researchers who are involved in the theme sex-gender within the CIRET network. The analysis of these researchers (Table 5) found out that of the total 72 researchers who are involved in this theme, 71% are female. Pritchard and Morgan (2007) have noticed the gender imbalance with regard to the editors of a selection of international tourism journals as the table below demonstrates:

Table 5
The gender imbalance of a selection of international tourism journals

Journal title	Date established	Editorial board size (number)	Male members (%)
Annals of Tourism Research	1973	108	89
Tourism Management	1979	19	84
Journal of Sustainable Tourism	1992	29	69
Journal of Vacation Marketing	1994	37	81
Tourism Analysis	1996	73	88
Current Issues in Tourism	1997	13	85
Tourism & Hospitality Research	1999	23	82
Tourist Studies	2000	11	73
Journal of Ecotourism	2001	21	81
Tourism & Cultural Change	2003	33	70
Journal of Heritage Tourism	2006	20	70
Journal of Sport & Tourism	2006	9	78

Source: Pritchard and Morgan (2007).

After this overview of the factors influencing the development of tourism knowledge, it is necessary to discuss the tourism knowledge itself. What is behind the numbers? What knowledge have these power factors within the 'Knowledge force-field' brought us? How have they presented the tourism phenomenon to us during the last 4-5 decades? That is the focus of the following section covering the 'circle 3' from the conceptual map given at the beginning.

Circle 3: 'Tourism knowledge': History of representing tourism

For the last 40 years three distinctive periods can be distinguished in creating tourism studies as a distinctive academic field: 1) the late 1960s/1970s characterized by early pioneers' work employing critical academically-oriented social sciences approach; 2) the 1980/1990s, dominated by business studies of tourism management and marketing perspectives, hence producing more applied research;

and 3) the 2000s characterized by the new turn of strengthening the critical social science trajectory as well as opening a dialogue with the tourism management camp. While gaining a different prominence in those distinct periods, it has been this divide of those two ideologically different camps which has historically characterised the tourism studies field. This divide has been labelled by different, albeit similar terms: pure vs. applied research (Smith, 1989); 'impacts-externalities' camp vs. 'business development' camp (Echtner & Jamal, 1997); academic-oriented vs. business-oriented views (Nash, 2007); tourism management vs. tourism sciences/tourism studies (Hollinshead, 2007).

The early beginnings: Late 1960s/1970s

The first groundbreaking research of the tourism studies field can be primarily attributed to the social sciences disciplines of anthropology, sociology, geography, economics and social psychology. Nash, (2007) in his latest contribution of providing an overview of those early beginnings, points out Western anthropologists and sociologists in particular have played an important role in the creation and development of a multidisciplinary tourism social science. The pioneers of that time who have been also termed 'the first generation tourism scholars' (Jamal & Kim, 2005) were: Dennison Nash, Jeremy Boissevain, Erik Cohen, Malcolm Crick, Graham Dann, Nelson Graburn, Jafar Jafari, Marie-Françoise Lanfant, Dean MacCannell, Michel Picard, Valene Smith, Margaret Byrne Swain and Pierre L. van den Berghe (Nash, 2007). The 1974 Meeting of the American Anthropological Association in Mexico City with its session devoted to the Anthropology of Tourism, organized by Valene Smith, is often regarded as a landmark in the field. The IAST network discussed earlier as one of the most traditional, elitist and closed social science based networks, was founded by the majority of those listed individuals.

Observing the prevailing white Western international travellers visiting developing countries of 'the pleasure periphery', these scholars primarily studied tourism as an important agent of social and cultural change in host countries (anthropology of indigenous cultures) and trends of travel motivations in generating countries (sociology of leisure). As a consequence, Nash (2007) explains how early tourism theories were influenced by the grand theoretical approaches in sociology and anthropology of Karl Marx, Emile Durkheim and Max Weber and often producing the cross-disciplinary studies of tourism. Thus, significant concepts and theories that reflect this influence emerged at the time: for example, tourism as the modern quest of new leisure class (MacCannell, 1976); false/staged authenticity (Smith, 1977); the concept of liminality and the rite of passage (Graburn, 1977); tourism typology and the modes of tourist experience - the notions of strangerhood and tourism as pilgrimage (Cohen, 1973, 1974, 1979); tourism as a form of imperialism (Nash, 1977). On the other hand, geographers and economists were more concerned with the environmental and economic impacts on host societies and generally issues of spatial/economic flows and regional development (e.g. Bryden & Farber, 1971; Pearce, 1987; Mathieson & Wall, 1982).

While there had been a greater variety of perspectives (from descriptive post-positivistic to interpretative perspectives) it can be argued that this period was generally characterised by the critical and fairly pessimistic view of international tourism (for a more detailed overview of all disciplines and individual contributions in this period see Graburn and Jafari (1991)). In general, it can be argued that 'golden hordes' of tourists were seen to be destroying authentic indigenous cultures and producing serious negative social and cultural impacts (Turner & Ash, 1975; Smith, 1977). Travellers however were also

often seen as 'products' of capitalism and modernity. MacCannell (1973) produced a major sociological work on the leisure class claiming that international travel is a key symbol of modernity. Feeling alienated from the modern, Western urban society (middle class) travellers search for authenticity and life meaning in the pre-modern, native cultures of the 'Other', which was seriously thwarted by increasing commercialisation and institutionalisation of the tourism industry, creating a so-called notion of 'false authenticity' (Cohen, 1973; Greenwood, 1977).

It was obvious from those theories that despite their critical and often genuine concerns to warn and 'save' host countries from the 'golden tourist hordes' or 'greedy hotel corporations' these theorisations had derived from the Eurocentric modernist thinking based on dichotomies of: self/Other; us/them; developed/undeveloped; modern/traditional; authentic/false; familiar/strange; core/periphery; first/third world. Ethnocentrism played an important role as one conducted research from a Eurocentric perspective, exporting colonial ideas and ideologies of the West into the 'third world'. In doing so, tourism practice and theory has become in many ways a form of 'Othering' through which the question if the subaltern can really speak still remains critical (Aitchison, 2001). They were also dominated by structuralist perspectives by stressing the importance of structures (such as capitalism or modernity) and often fully denying any power of individual human agency. In other words, people were seen as passive victims of 'ruthless' modernity, driven by capitalism and the colonial notions of tourism development.

The complexity of these epistemological questions has been more recently addressed by one of these early pioneers (Marie-Francoise Lanfant) in her personal career story she wrote for Nash's reflective book on early developments of the study of tourism. The following statement of her experience in her 1972 class on the sociology of international tourism in which she had 28 different nationalities neatly illustrates the point (Lanfant, 2007, p. 123):

'There in front of me I had French students, convinced of the value of free time and leisure (even more so among those with legitimate professions in view), and students from the Third World for whom the words free time and leisure had no place in their vocabulary, but who were nonetheless looking for the meanings associated with the power they sought to acquire. These last spoke of their countries and of themselves as confronted by the challenge involved in the penetration by international tourism. They spoke of circumstances in which they lived – of their home communities, which in some cases still had rudimentary conditions of existence. They spoke of their religious beliefs, held together by sacred rites, which some no longer believed in. They spoke of their families that were still attached to the old traditions. And they spoke of themselves in the face of touristic intrusions. I can testify to troubling exchanges between French students and foreign students with different points of view that created a split in the class. It came to the point where there were disputes provoked by racist sentiments. In this class the question of the Other rose to the surface with all its psychological force, and I was taken back.'

Such a critical view of international tourism was enabled by the academic context of the time when the tourism phenomenon was dominantly studied as part of general degrees in major social science disciplines which were generally inclined towards more critical views (e.g. sociology). This critical scholarship, however, begun to be slowly overshadowed in the early 1980s by the increasing need for more business-oriented perspectives based on industry driven approaches and 'useful' contributions of applied knowledge. Although business-oriented approaches also existed in this early period, they did not appear to have a significantly visible scientific effect and were 'quietly' coexisting with non-applied/

academic oriented points of view (Nash, 2007). This was soon to be changed. While the non-business approaches have continued their contributions, they have become more isolated to their diverse and dispersed disciplinary homes. In turn, the more inter-disciplinary business studies approach had gained the power of greater visibility and acceptance by academic administrators, colleagues, publishers, media and international bodies (such as world tourism organisations), to which discussion we now turn.

The dominance of the business studies approach: The 1980/1990^s

In the early 1980's as the economic crisis of oil and manufacturing industries in the OECD countries deepened, a necessary shift towards service economies in the West begun to occur. Tourism had become an important issue on the political agenda, as it begun to be seen as a way to diversify and develop rural and urban economies, which resulted in a need for more industry-driven education. We could see the trend from the circle 2 discussions how tourism has dominantly become institutionalised in business and management schools. Consequently, the positivistic business-oriented approach concerned with marketing and management issues developed mainly in this period and have been since on the forefront in tourism studies. Hall *et al.*, (2004) comment on this, arguing that an important quantity of research efforts has been put into the determination of industry approaches or the 'supply side' definition of tourism. Airey (2008) calls this period the 'industrial stage' or the 'vocational/managerial' stage and refers to the growing tourism sector and its corresponding employment needs and students demand. The journal of *Tourism Management*, that today claims to be amongst the top 3 tourism journals, was established in 1980 when it brought an emergency amongst tourism scholars to be relevant to the management of tourism industry.

The American influence from which most of these management and marketing perspectives derive, could be noted in the increasingly influential *Journal of Travel Research* and its dominantly positivistic/quantitative studies of consumer behaviour in tourism. As a result, a whole range of applied theories had begun to emerge. For example, tourism typologies as explanatory models of behaviour relating to identity and motivation were used for marketing segmentation purposes (Mazanec, 1984; Moutinho, 1987; Woodside & Carr, 1988). In line with the dominant marketing and management perspectives these contributions primarily valorised quantitative methodology only. The boom of tourism in Australasia in early 1990s was reflected in the increasing number of tourism management programmes and reflectively greater influence of industry and policy oriented research conducted in Australia and New Zealand (i.e. from prolific writers such as Michael Hall, Stephen Page and Chris Ryan). As the structure and nature of international tourism begun to change, it has opened up the need for various conceptualisations of special interest tourism and various types of travel (e.g. backpackers, eco-tourists, youth adventurers, wine tourists, volunteer travellers, to name but a few). Management and marketing perspectives have appeared in order to answer the questions of - who, what, where, when and how much - in order to improve the efficiency of tourism exchange between destinations, business organisations and tourists (Calantone & Mazanec, 1991).

While it goes beyond this paper to cite all key concepts and works that have accumulated with the growth of business oriented academics for the last 40 years or so, it can be generally argued that their goal has been to produce generalisations and typologies which can help management needs of the tourism industry and tourism policy makers. Disconnected in general from any bigger societal and political

questions their theories and concepts can be distinguished by their vocabulary of neo-liberal ideology that is dedicated to the promotion of market economies. Their concerns generally range from issues of consumer satisfaction, product development opportunities, destination images and tourist perceptions, tourism typologies and market segmentation, marketing planning, peak performance delivery in service, advertising, and strategic market planning (Calantone & Mazanec, 1991). It is important to note that this camp of business oriented approaches have been cross-fertilising their concepts and theories with other fields and disciplines, particularly leisure and recreation studies which has brought some important insights related to management of public lands and services (Smith & Godbey, 1991). In the continued fashion of producing applied knowledge, more recent concerns have been related to tourism in Asia and Eastern Europe (as important emerging markets and destinations); issues of sustainability and physical and the social carrying capacity of various tourist sites (e.g beaches, islands, heritage sites), to issues of security and terrorism. While the range of their research interests grows, one consistency remains – business-oriented points of view deny any subjectivity in their epistemological stance, claiming only the objectivist approach based on quantitative methods of generalisation (Riley & Love, 2000). In order to satisfy their key purpose to support and reproduce the existing socio-economic system and satisfy needs of tourism industry and tourism policy, their research goals are typically positivistic: to measure, to describe, to predict and to generalise. While in a typically (post) positivistic way the business point of view can overlap with the interpretative paradigm of searching an understanding and producing exploratory studies, it is the vocabulary of applied knowledge that reveals their epistemological positioning.

It is important to note however, that simultaneously to the forefront of business approaches many different disciplines have continued to be interested in tourism as a research context for bigger questions of politics, economy, culture and society, deepening now even a more visible divide in the Tourism Studies Field (TF). Tribe (1997, 2004) captures this divide by using a model whereby the field of tourism (TF) equals to TF1+TF2. TF1 represents the more positivistic and non-critical business management oriented approach and TF2 being the more interpretive and critical, albeit a dispersed, multidisciplinary non-business/social science approach. However, as the 'second generation of non-business oriented scholars' had begun to emerge in greater numbers in 2000s (and joining the first generation), they have begun to integrate social science perspectives to foreground the new debates and approaches, what Tribe (2005) describes as a turning point in the field of tourism studies. He claims a sign of increasing maturity is evidenced by more reflexivity and new tourism research 'which offers a counter-balance to tourism as a business practice and which encourages researchers to follow innovative and radical lines of inquiry' (2005, p. 5). Within the main objective of historical mapping in this paper it is this period of the new turn that represents the last section of our discussion.

Maturation and the critical turn in 2000s: Life begins at 40! ³

The new turn in tourism research has been evidenced by a whole range of initiatives and greater organisation, made visible through new journals, articles, networks and conferences (Tribe, 2005; Franklin, 2007; Airey, 2008). For example, journals of *Tourist Studies* (in 2000) and *Tourism and Cultural Change* (in 2003) have been specifically established to promote critical scholarship and innovative methodological and theoretical approaches in contrast to the positivistic and more quantitative and empirical nature of business management studies. Building a more integrated inter-disciplinary field

of tourism studies, innovative works have been emerging in their approach to analyse tourism as a powerful agent connected to critical socio-political issues of (im)mobilities, social exclusion, heritage, governance, migration, urban-rural relations, nature conservation, human and spatial marginalisation, globalisation, political representation, cultural commodification, consumption and social identities. One strong association that promotes these theoretically oriented works is ISA RC50, International Sociological Association – Research Committee on International Tourism which was established in 1994 by the majority of the previously listed first generation tourism scholars (next to the IAST). This association is currently chaired and administered by the Socio-Spatial Analysis Group and World Leisure International Centre of Excellence (WICE), based at the Wageningen University, Netherlands. These efforts have been particularly cemented by the network of Critical Tourism Scholars (CTS) who have officially proclaimed the critical turn in tourism studies through a series of conferences, books and journal articles and have now loosely gathered around 150 scholars (Ateljević, Harris, Wilson & Collins, 2005; Ateljević, Pritchard & Morgan, 2007; Pritchard, Morgan, Ateljević & Harris, 2007; Ateljević, Hollinshead & Ali, 2008; Aitchison, 2006). The CTS network was initially founded in 2002 as a smaller group of gender researchers in tourism studies (GRITS) which eventually grew into a greater movement of critically oriented scholars.

While many theoretically oriented scholars do not necessarily associate themselves with the critical turn and remain dispersed across different networks and social fractions it can be observed that in many ways the earlier tradition of first generation critical scholars has been strengthened and extended to lift the interdisciplinary field of tourism studies to a new level, which is by some described as a post-disciplinary approach (Coles, Hall & Duval, 2005). In their efforts to mobilise tourism to new theoretical grounds Coles *et al.*, (2005) wish to disentangle tourism studies from its current definition and research approach in order to lift it to an open, yet integrated field that is concerned with learning rather than disciplines. Hollinshead (2008), with his concept of tourism as a world-making phenomenon, similarly advocates for the potential of post-disciplinary research outlooks for tourism scholars and their need to move beyond hard domain boundaries of closed disciplinary and even interdisciplinary systems of analysis.

It is important to note an important aspect in these new developments. Many scholars who are based in business schools and/or did their PhDs in tourism management are leading or joining this trend in their frustration to bring purely theoretical and disciplinary based preoccupations together with 'the real world' concerns. In doing so, these efforts contribute to the greater integration of the whole tourism studies field. In the process of these critical deconstructions, a whole variety of philosophical, theoretical, methodological and political questions has been raised. Philosophically and epistemologically 'new' or critical tourism research is critical of structuralist approaches of the earlier modernist and colonial perspectives, allowing greater prominence of sub-paradigms such as post-structuralist; neo-Marxist, critical realist, feminist, and postmodern approaches. It goes beyond the essentialist dualisms such as core/periphery; first/third world; mind/body; subject/object; us/them; feminine/masculine; self/Other. It is more than simply a *way of knowing*, it is a *way of being*, a commitment to tourism enquiry which is pro-social justice, equality and anti-oppression: it is an academy of hope. It transcends the ontological shift and paradigmatic transformations (Ateljević *et al.*, 2007). It is about raising questions of social reflexivity and researcher positionality in the entanglements of their academic and social structures (Ateljević *et al.*, 2005; Nash, 2007).

Theoretically, it introduces an array of new concepts, theories and approaches that creates fertile cross/inter/post disciplinary grounds of the Tourism Studies (TS) field. Although in running the risk of simplifying, good examples represent actor-network theory, embodiment and performance, gender analysis, non-representational theory, Foucauldian studies of power and discourses, post-colonial theories, world-making and mobilities, etc. In other words, these innovative works take tourism to the forefront of social science as a research context in which the questions of seeing, making, experiencing and sustaining the world have been explored. As a consequence, innovative and progressive methods and methodologies have been promoted, such as constructivism, ethno-methodology, projective techniques, oral history, life-course analysis, the use of the survey method and the solicited diary in feminist research, memory work, discourse analysis, auto-ethnography to name a few (Ateljević *et al.*, 2007). In its challenge to reveal academic and social structures the movement has an important political agenda to emancipate and promote social justice and equality; to move from the efforts of marking a difference to making a difference (Aitchison, 2007), in order to create a truly just and sustainable world.

Despite the maturation signs, the three most important future challenges of the TS field can be observed at this point: 1) to deepen the efforts of greater dialogue between business and non-business studies approaches in order to bring together pure theoretical preoccupations and empirical concerns of necessary social change; 2) to change the public mind of tourism where the overwhelming perceptions still see it as a frivolous service industry which mostly creates negative environmental, social and cultural impacts; and 3) to move beyond still dominant Eurocentric perspectives and develop conceptualizations of tourisms that include multiple cultural differences, worldviews and research activities that reflect and recognize the plurality of all practices, positions and insights (Pritchard & Morgan, 2007). At times when the social sciences and the humanities are urged 'to become sites for critical conversations about democracy, race, gender, class, nation-states, globalisation, freedom, and community' (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p. 3), tourism social science, which represents one of the biggest contemporary phenomena of human movement and world-making, ought to respond. Pritchard and Morgan (2007, p. 26) reaffirm this opportunity for the tourism academy: 'to become an agency for positive transformation and to find more spaces for dialogue, reflexivity, equality, empowerment and co-created knowledge in our scholarship'.

Conclusion

This paper embarked on an ambitious task of the historical mapping of tourism studies for the last 40 years, through which it has become clear that the field has come a long way – from the early painstaking paving of the new area of study to the current signs of increasing maturation. In the richness and multiplicity of disciplinary and paradigmatic approaches the paper has tried to provide some sense of direction, particularly for the younger tourism scholars who often feel lost when they need to locate their specific audience in the plethora of tourism academic voices and their numerous publishing outlets. Yet, as in any exercise of social mapping aimed at providing a general picture many important contributions and signposting have been omitted. Notwithstanding, the overview of general trends and main literatures have produced an insight of the main directions, issues, terminologies, paradigms, concepts and approaches that have been brought to explain tourism-related phenomena.

Notes

¹ The OECD brings together the governments of countries 'committed to democracy and the market economy from around the world in order to promote goals of supporting sustainable economic growth; boosting employment; raising living standards; maintaining financial stability; assisting other countries' economic development and contribute to growth in world trade' (as stated on their web site). Twenty one countries of Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, the UK and the USA originally signed the Convention on the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development in the early 1960s. Since then a further ten countries have become members of the Organisation in later years.

² The World Bank became the major financier of tourism-related projects. Between 1969 and 1979, the World Bank supported 24 tourism projects in 18 countries with loans and credits from the International Development Association (IDA) totaling some \$459 million. These involved resort developments along the Mediterranean coast, in Romania, Bulgaria, Tunisia, Thailand, Mexico and the Caribbean (Pleumarom, 1994).

³ The part of the title: 'Life begins at 40' has been borrowed from an article of David Airey (2008) in which he has entertained the idea of mature-40 year-old tourism education.

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