

Master's Degree in Tourism and Communication

Dissertation

The potential of adjectival tourism for the promotion  
of a tourism destination

Petronilla Sara D'Angelo

June 2020

Mestrado em Turismo e Comunicação

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Petronilla Sara D'Angelo

Supervisor: Professora Doutora Ana Gonçalves

Co-supervisor: Professora Doutora Maria de Lurdes Calisto

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Petronilla Sara D'Angelo

Orientadora: Professora Doutora Ana Gonçalves

Coorientadora: Professora Doutora Maria De Lurdes Calisto

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*“Here's to the ones who dream  
Foolish as they may seem  
Here's to the hearts that ache  
Here's to the mess we make”*

Benj Pasek and Justin Paul (2016)

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# Contents

Acknowledgements.....	iii
List of Tables .....	vi
List of Figures .....	vi
Abstract .....	vii
List of acronyms and abbreviations.....	ix
Introduction.....	1
Research questions and objectives of the dissertation .....	2
Chapter organization .....	2
Chapter 1 – Tourism-language nexus.....	5
1.1. The encounter of tourism and language .....	5
1.2. English language in tourism.....	9
Chapter 2 - Terminology of tourism.....	13
2.1. Adjectival tourism academic framework.....	13
2.2. Adjectival tourism .....	16
2.3. Tourism, marketing and promotion .....	21
2.3.1. Tourism advertising language .....	24
2.3.2. English language in tourism promotion .....	30
2.3.2.1 English Language in Portugal.....	31
2.3.3. Promotion and destination image: concepts and relations.....	33
Chapter 3 – Methodology.....	37
3.1. List and Classification of adjectival tourism terms.....	38
3.2. Content analysis of the website visitportugal.com.....	40
Chapter 4 – Proposal of adjectival tourism classification.....	42
4.1. Revision of Rață's adjectival tourism list.....	42
4.2. Tentative classification of adjectival terms .....	51
4.3. Synthesis of results .....	55

Chapter 5 – The use of adjectival tourism terms in the Portugal’s tourism promotion..	58
5.1. Presentation of the visitportugal.com website .....	58
5.2. Adjectival tourism in visitportugal.com/EN .....	60
5.3. Content analysis of the portal visitportugal.com.....	62
5.3.1 <i>Youth tourism</i> page .....	62
5.3.2. <i>Religious tourism</i> page.....	64
5.3.3. <i>Gastronomy</i> page .....	65
5.4. The usage of adjectival tourism terms in the website visitportugal.com - Propositions .....	66
5.4.1. Adjectival tourism and webpages’ contents.....	67
5.4.2. Adjectival tourism and the national strategy for tourism.....	68
5.4.3. Adjectival tourism and destination image .....	70
Conclusions .....	74
References .....	78

## List of Tables

Table 1 Rață's list of adjectival tourism terms (2012).....	18
Table 2 Division of Adjectival tourism terms per category .....	56
Table 3 Content analysis results .....	67
Table 4 Perceived destination image of Portugal by Swedish .....	71
Table 5 Destination Image of Portugal for Chinese Market.....	72
Table 6 The image associated with Portugal as a tourism destination.....	72

## List of Figures

Figure 1 Example of tourism signage.....	8
Figure 2 Customer Journey Model .....	26
Figure 3 visitportugal.com homepage .....	59
Figure 4 Adjectival tourism terms in visitportugal.com homepage .....	61
Figure 5 Youth tourism webpage in visitportugal.com.....	63

# Abstract

This dissertation is about a specific area of tourism terminology, namely adjectival tourism terms, that is, the terms to address the different forms or types of tourism that have been emerging in recent years.

The objectives of the dissertation are to create awareness and to prompt academics to carry out further researches about this subject. At the same time, it intends to stress the potential of adjectival tourism for promotional tourism strategies. To achieve these objectives, the dissertation firstly presents the relevant concepts to contextualize adjectival tourism terms, with an overview of the tourism terminology and of tourism promotional language. Secondly, it presents a classification of adjectival tourism terms, whose results give insight of the current state of the art of this area of tourism terminology and suggestions for further developments. Finally, it takes into consideration the usage of adjectival tourism terms in the context of the official Portuguese tourism website [www.visitportugal.com](http://www.visitportugal.com), with the objective of understanding the strategy behind their usage.

The outcomes of this dissertation give insights about possible strategies to be implemented by DMOs to take advantage of adjectival tourism terms as promotional tools.

# Resumo

Esta dissertação trata de uma parte específica da terminologia do turismo, denominada *adjectival tourism*, isto é, os termos que correspondem aos diferentes formas e tipos de turismo que têm surgido nos últimos anos.

Os objetivos desta dissertação prendem-se com a criação de conhecimento de forma a incentivar académicos a realizar investigação adicional sobre este tema. Paralelamente, esta dissertação pretende sublinhar o potencial que os termos de *adjectival tourism* possuem para estratégias as promocionais. Para atingir estes objetivos, esta dissertação apresenta, em primeiro lugar, os conceitos pertinentes para contextualizar os termos de *adjectival tourism*, com uma resenha da terminologia do turismo e da linguagem promocional do turismo. Em segundo lugar, apresenta uma classificação dos termos, cujos resultados oferecem informações sobre o estado da arte da temática e sugestões para um futuro desenvolvimento. O último capítulo considera o uso dos termos no contexto do site oficial de turismo de Portugal, [www.visitportugal.com](http://www.visitportugal.com), com o objetivo de perceber as estratégias por detrás do uso de diferentes termos.

Os resultados desta dissertação oferecem observações sobre estratégias possíveis a serem utilizadas pelas DMOs para aproveitar os termos de *adjectival tourism* como ferramenta promocional.

## List of acronyms and abbreviations

CJM: Customer Journal Model

DMO: Destination Management Organization

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

ELF: English as *Lingua Franca*

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

ETP: English for Tourism and Hospitality Purposes

LSP: Language for Specific Purposes

PR: Public Relations

TDI: Tourism Destination Image

UNWTO: United Nations World Tourism Organization

WoM: Word of Mouth

# Introduction

According to the UNWTO (2019), in 2018 the number of tourists worldwide reached about 1.4 billion, that is 56-fold increase in comparison to 1950 (Roser, 2020). The increase of the number of individuals involved in tourism activities also increased the amount and breadth of the different products, services and experiences offered. It is in fact unlikely that more than 1 billion people coming from different countries, cultures and with demographic differences enjoy the same things (Ali-Knight, 2011) hence the necessity of creating a great variety of tourism offer.

In light of this, the tourism industry began to dedicate itself to a great number of specific facets of tourism. Ali-Knight (2011) reports that the first segmentation of the market occurred in the 1980 with the formation of the so-called *special interest tourism*, which are defined by Smith et al (2010) as “the provision of customized leisure and recreational experiences driven by the specific expressed interests of individuals and groups” (p.161) According to Ali-Knight (2011) *special interest tourism* can be considered as the predecessor of *niche tourism*, which emerged with the intensification of the *special interest tourism*. Ali-Knight (2011) shows in his work the academic development of *special interest tourism*, mentioning the conceptualization of a tourism interest continuum that finally led to *niche tourism*, which occurred in the last years of the past century.

On the contrary, the emergence of the so-called *adjectival tourism* only occurred in recent years as we have the first definition developed only in 2012 by Rață, that is: “various forms of tourism that have emerged over the years” (p.19). As we can understand by this definition, adjectival tourism is not concerned with the peculiarity of the tourism type, neither with the level of interest of the tourists. It includes indistinctly all types of tourism.

However, the research, implementation and potential of this concept have not been deeply developed yet, neither by academics, nor by tourism professionals.

## Research questions and objectives of the dissertation

This dissertation does not intend to be pioneer in the field, as the research about the topic of adjectival tourism is limited but not completely absent. However, the lack of extensive literature about the subject has led to one of the research questions of this dissertation, that is, *which is the current state of the art of adjectival tourism?* The objective of this research is to prompt the participation of the academia and addressing the necessity of its interfering in the creation of such terminology. To pursue this objective, the present dissertation attempts to create a classification of some adjectival tourism terms that could give useful insight on the usage of terms and on their future creation.

A second research question is the following: *what is the potential of adjectival tourism terms, specifically as a promotion tool in tourism marketing?* The objective is to understand how adjectival tourism terms are nowadays used by Destination Management Organizations. To pursue this objective, this dissertation presents an exploratory research about the current use of adjectival tourism terms in the official tourism website of Portugal, [www.visitportugal.com](http://www.visitportugal.com), looking for the reasons behind the partial use of adjectival tourism terms.

## Chapter organization

Before getting to the core of the topic in the second chapter, it is appropriate to analyze the context in which adjectival tourism has emerged and which are its main features. As we will see, adjectival tourism terms are clearly linguistic expressions, hence the necessity, in chapter one, of discussing the tourism-language nexus and the role that the English idiom plays in this nexus and, therefore, in the area of adjectival tourism.

The second chapter addresses the two main parties interested in the development of adjectival tourism: tourism academics and tourism promotion professionals. The former see adjectival tourism not only as a classification scheme, but also as a field for more practical and updated researches, while the latter sees in adjectival tourism a tool for

their promotional objectives (UNWTO, 2008). In the same chapter, the literature regarding tourism language used for promotional aims is also reviewed.

Before getting to the original researches presented in this dissertation, it was appropriate to dedicate a chapter, the third, to how these researches have been carried out or, in other words, to present and explain the methodology adopted in this dissertation.

Thereafter, since both academics and professionals are interested in adjectival tourism, in the fourth chapter a classification is proposed, which has the purpose to closely examine which type of interests lead more to the creation of tourism terms and which are the criticalities of such creation. The classification is preceded by a revision of the list of adjectival tourism terms proposed by the author Rață (2012) which will give many insights on this subject, especially in what concerns the creation of the terms and the existing of multiple labels for the same tourism product.

Later, in chapter 5, all these concepts will be applied to the visitPortugal website, with the objective of understanding the current level of usage of adjectival tourism terms in this promotional platform, the reasons behind such usage and if the promotional language strategies and techniques implemented are in line with what is suggested by academics.

This discussion unfolds from the belief that the potential of adjectival tourism is nowadays not fully exploited, due to the lack of a complete and wide research on the subject. As also discussed by Ali-Knight (2011), with the exponential increase of the number of tourists worldwide the variety of the offer must proportionally increase, in order to be competitive in the market and properly supply the demand. This increase of the market segment necessarily motivates the creation of different names for different types of offer, therefore the necessity of adjectival tourism terms.

The fifth chapter of this dissertation closely analyzes the usage of adjectival tourism terms in the website visitportugal.com, the Portuguese official tourism portal. The aim of the chapter is to understand the reason behind the (partial) usage of adjectival tourism terms in a specific section of the website, despite the fact that many more adjectival tourism terms could be used.

Ultimately, the outcomes of the dissertation are presented in the concluding chapter, which stress the more relevant result obtained from the tentative classification, discuss

the findings of the research on the website [visitportugal.com](http://visitportugal.com) and underline some major topics for further research.

# Chapter 1 – Tourism-language nexus

## 1.1. The encounter of tourism and language

One of the very first notions about the academic tourism field is that it is a “multidisciplinary discipline” (Phipps, 2009, p. 659) as it is a transversal area that touches upon and has common grounds with many other areas, such as sociology, cultural studies, economics, politics, and marketing. This feature makes tourism very fragmented and, on some levels, complicated to study and research.

One of the encounters tourism has with another discipline is the one with language. Alison Phipps, in her chapter “Tourism and Languaging”, included in the *SAGE Handbook on Tourism* (2009, p.659), suggests three ways in which this encounter takes place:

- Researches taking into discourse analytic approach looking inside the language for the ways in which tourism constructs and represents the world in language (Dann, 1996; Jaworski and Pritchard, 2005; Jaworski at al., 2003; Snow, 2004).
- An applied, model-based approach. Such models purport to offer ways of enabling the tourism industry to deal with the supposed problem of monolingual, monocultural tourist through intercultural training (Baysan, 2001; Leclerc and Martin, 2004; Pearce, 2005).
- An emergent literature addressing the teaching and training in languages and intercultural communication in the tourism industry (Fighiera and Harmon, 1986; Russel and Leslie, 2004; Winsolw, 1997).

While Phipps is more interested in the second aspect, this dissertation has the purpose of analyzing a part that falls in the possible contents of the first encounter typology. Before getting to it in more detail, it is fundamental to analyze more closely the tourism-language nexus.

When the interest in the language of tourism started to grow, the object of study was the ‘specialized language’ or Language for Specific Purposes (LSP), that is, “a language used in tourism by tourism staff for tourism purposes” (Blanca, 2018, p. 138). This approach was used for decades for educational reasons until the 1990s, when the

works by Dann (1996) changed the perspective, adding a sociolinguistic point of view, by suggesting that tourism has a language of its own that performs multiple social functions (Blanca, 2018, p.145):

as an instrument of the consumers' active involvement (both in the process of consumption and in the process of co-creating language, which, in turn, induces them to consume), as a process of social control (by the norms and values), and as a medium of socialization (employed by all stakeholders involved in activities and the development of their identities).

Thurlow and Jaworski (2011) state that “as a service industry, tourism is fundamentally – and, at times, solely – semiotic in nature, because, like advertising and marketing, a key part of what is actually produced and consumed in tourism is the semiotic context of the service” (p.4). The two authors indeed believe that language also plays an important role in creating the tourism experience, as much as the visual aspect, claiming that “the tourist *linguandscape* (Jaworski et al.2003) thus serves as an extension of the *tourist gaze* (Urry 2002, after Foucault 1976), the socially organized, systematized and disciplining ways in which tourism is structured and learned” (p.5). They also state that the lack of academic interest in the tourism–language nexus can be motivated by the dominance of the visual over the verbal so far (2011). On this matter, it is not possible to deny that the images have always played the most important role in the spread of tourism contents, both for suppliers and consumers. The former use images, considered to be the most direct and performing communication channel, to attract and convey the destinations, while the latter build in their minds their opinion of a destination by creating imaginations of it. It is no coincidence that already in 1977, Lawson and Baud Bovy, defined the concept of “destination image” as “the expression of all objective knowledge, prejudices, imagination and emotional thoughts of an individual or group about a particular location” (in Ferreira Lopes, 2011, p.307). The visual has also dominated the tourism experiences in the past centuries due to the impossibility of verbal communication caused by the lack of a *lingua franca* among the subjects. Before the worldwide spread of English, travelling to foreign countries, whose language was different from one’s own language, limited the tourist visit and sightseeing.

Nowadays, however, tourists are increasingly interested in more than just sightseeing and seek for deeper and more immersive experiences, which are impossible without verbal communication. This is another moment when the tourism and language

encounter takes place, that is, when the tourism experience is undertaken and there is the need of verbal exchange between visitors and host communities.

English as a *lingua franca* has solved many issues related to this aspect. If we think about this topic in the light of the three aspects presented by Phipps about the encounter between tourism and language, we will see that the subject of a *lingua franca* is mostly linked to the second aspect presented which addresses the problematic of monolingual and monocultural tourists, but also to the third one the author presented, concerned with language training and intercultural communication of tourism professionals and providers with the objective to facilitate verbal communication.

The tourism - language nexus takes place materially not only in the exchanges between host communities and tourists, but also with tourism signage, for example. When in a non-familiar place, it is important for tourists to receive directions and information about what is around them. For this reason, tourism signage has been created by adopting a conventional design (brown background and white text). It is normally written in the local language followed sometimes by the English translation. However, as signs often report the name of specific sites, they do not need translation.

Moreover, tourism signage does not only have the function to give directions but also provide other information; in fact, it can easily be found near points of interest reporting, for instance, the history of a place or the local relevance. Another application of tourism signage is the one related to the so called “way finding”, that is, according to Symonds et al, “the cognitive, social and corporeal process and experience of locating, following or discovering a route through and to a given space” (2017, p.9). The way finding function in tourism is concerned especially with tourists’ orientation in very big areas or spaces, such as airports.

Figure 1 Example of tourism signage



Source: SEDEC: Governo de Mato Grosso (<http://www.sedec.mt.gov.br/-/5931821-sinalizacao-turistica-aumenta-visibilidade-dos-atrativos-mato-grossenses>)

Finally, since nowadays language plays an important role in the tourism industry and the messages are also conveyed through the verbal channel, tourism and languages also encounter in the promotional area. As we will later see when reflecting on Dann's work about promotional language (1996) and brand names, language is also fundamental to attract and inform the audience about the destination. The importance of such aspect also lays in the necessity of targeting smaller parts of the audience, which cannot be achieved using only general images, but need to be associated with specific keywords and language.

On this topic, it is important to stress that in this way the tourism – language nexus starts to be relevant before the moment the tourist leaves home to reach the destination. As a matter of fact, the nexus starts to be put into practice when someone reads about a destination or simply begins to think about his/her next holidays, starting his/her decision-making process. At this time, tourism brochures, commercials, radio programs, and other communication channels become the tools that the industry uses to attract potential tourists.

Among these instruments, as we will see in this dissertation, there also are tourism websites that people visit in order to obtain information about what a place has to offer. The impact of a website, especially those developed by the DMOs (Destination

Management Organizations), are indisputable. According to Fominiené (2006), it became essential for the tourism development of a destination to have a functional website. This has also been confirmed by the European Commission Survey (2014), which found that websites are the second most important source of information to inform travel decisions. Moreover, Molinillo et al (2017) stress the importance for DMOs to have an official website, in addition to social media pages, in order to better control the information passed on to the user by implementing a monologue and avoiding the dialogue present on social media among tourists.

Notwithstanding, it must also be acknowledged that tourism information reaches potential tourists in their decision-making processes also through many unofficial channels. The concept of Word of Mouth (WoM) is easily applicable to tourism as well, for instance considering the opinions shared by friends and families or on online review platforms. As a matter of fact, the European Commission Survey (2014) reported that “recommendations of friends, colleagues or relatives were found to be the most important source of information when making travel plan decisions with 56% of respondents citing this as their most important information source” (Scott et al., 2017, p.34). Tourism in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, a so-called digitalized era, cannot escape the numerous online review websites and social media; they are the concrete expression of the tourism - language nexus addressed to (potential) tourists.

## 1.2. English language in tourism

The language selected to convey a message plays an important role in communication. In the specific context of this dissertation, it becomes also fundamental to explain and understand the reasons of such idiom selection. It is nowadays undisputable that English is the *Lingua Franca* in the globalized world, and this applies also to tourism and to its academic field.

Before making further considerations about English as the preferred language in the tourism industry, it is relevant to underline that most researches carried out so far continue to be more focused on the educational aspect of language in tourism rather than on a more meta-linguistic approach. In other words, the academic approach is

now more focused on a practical aspect linked to teaching the subject (for instance, English for specific purposes) rather than on an analysis of the importance of English and its usage as a *lingua franca* (ELF), not only by professionals involved with the industry but by host communities in general (hence, English as *lingua franca*).

From a more practical point of view, which is mostly related to the supplier party rather than to both suppliers and tourists, English is also much known as the language used for specific purposes. Language for specific purposes, also known as LSP, is “generally used to refer to the teaching and research of language in relation to the communicative needs of speakers of a second language in facing a particular workplace, academic, or professional context” (Basturkmen & Elden, 2004, p. 672). The application of LSP in the tourism context became the most logic reply to the need of a language which could be used at the same time to deal with international customers, international researches and international industries. English for specific purposes is nowadays considered as a macro-category, having as components, among many others, *English for Tourism and Hospitality Purposes* (ETP) (Zahedpisheh et al, 2017). Zahedpisheh et al. state that “learning English for tourism purposes is crucial for those who are working in guest-host relation section such as hotels, travel agencies, restaurants, information centers and tourist attractions” (p.88).

Considering now a more theoretical point of view, the English language is also referred to as a *lingua franca* in tourism, both used by host communities and tourists. According to House (2003), a *lingua franca* is (p. 557):

a language showing full linguistic and functional range (Kachru, 1997) and serving as a ‘contact language between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common national culture, and for whom English is the chosen foreign language of communication’ (Firth, 1996: 240).

Among the most important characteristics of a *lingua franca*, House cites “negotiability, variability in terms of speaker proficiency, and openness to an integration of forms of other languages” (2003, p. 557). With these features it is easy to understand why a *lingua franca* is needed and fundamental in the tourism industry. In fact, firstly the communication is between participants who are strangers to each other and do not share the same knowledge, nor languages, which requires strong negotiability. Secondly, the variability in terms of speakers’ proficiency in a tourism context is very high due to the globalization aspect of tourism which allows, for example, a tourist with

basic knowledge of English to travel to an Anglophone destination and requires, consequently, the communication between participants with very different levels of English. Finally, the openness to an integration of forms of other languages becomes, in the tourism context, more like a strategy than a characteristic as the communication objective rules the exchange between speakers, who clearly wish for the language to be easily understandable. House continues her paper claiming that English as a *lingua franca* must be considered as a language for communicative purposes, not identificatory purposes; hence it is not a threat to other languages. This feature is easily applicable to tourism as the *lingua franca* in this context only works as a temporary communication channel and not as a long-term establishment.

But why is English the *lingua franca* in tourism? First of all, since English became the global language in the world, starting to gain significance and to spread after the end of the Second World War due to the influence of the United States of America, it easily became the *lingua franca* in tourism as well. Moreover, the timeframe is also peculiar and relevant; in fact, tourism (as we know it nowadays) and English spread across the world started fairly in the same period, that is, the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. In what concerns the educational aspect, that is, ETP, the choice of English in the framework of tourism is also understandable, since, as previously mentioned, the first academic interest in tourism appeared around the educational objective and English is right now the most studied language across the world, according to Beare (2020), with 1.5 billion people learning it. In the same year, the number of English-speakers reached 1.27 billion (Ethnologue, 2020).

Another area where English has shown its supremacy is, as argued by Korstanje (2010), the academic field. The author reported how many colleagues and academics complained about the dominance of English in research, which left out all non-English speakers from the discussion. This shows how the knowledge and fluency in English are required skills in order to work in this area. In light of the aforementioned aspects, the choice to write this dissertation in English is clearly justified.

Moreover, it is important to clarify that the kind of terminology, that is, adjectival tourism terms, that will be analyzed throughout this dissertation is neither ELF, nor ESP, nor even English for academic purposes (EAP).

In this dissertation we will discuss how adjectival tourism terms have not been studied deeply and how their implementation in the tourism is very limited. As a consequence,

they are not part of the English tourism terminology that tourists are familiar with, much less the one they use. For this reason, we cannot define the terminology presented or the promotional language analyzed as *lingua franca*. In this dissertation, we will not consider the negotiability that a *lingua franca* requires between participants because we are taking into consideration the idiom used by professionals of the sector and academics in a pre-travel moment, that, as we will see, is mostly a monologue, hence not requiring negotiability.

Finally, we cannot consider adjectival tourism as EAP nor ESP, because, as we will see more in detail in the next chapter, the topic of adjectival tourism has had little discussion by academics, hence we cannot consider this field as part of this literature. In addition to this, tourism professionals, specifically those concerned with promotion, are not using adjectival tourism terms as a tool for their work and therefore this topic cannot be considered as part of this type of literature either.

However, if adjectival tourism terms received more attention and were to be more consciously implemented in the tourism area, they could easily fit in all three types of English use, that are, EAP, ESP and ELF. In fact, as soon as academics decided to carry out researches on this topic and create literature about it, in terms, for instance, of classification of the different adjectival tourism or taxonomy of the terms, adjectival tourism terms could easily be considered as part of EAP. Similarly, if the efficacy of adjectival tourism would be proved, tourism professionals and marketers could promptly start to use these terms as tools for promotion, hence the assimilation to ESP, more appropriately, to ETP. Finally, once the terms become used by several parties, they could become part of ELF, as also tourists could use them when expressing their preferences in terms of tourism, products, activities or services. This multidimensional aspect of adjectival tourism terms, together with all the contributes that further studies about them and their implementation could provide to the tourism industry, are some of the reasons that prompted the reflection presented in this dissertation.

# Chapter 2 - Terminology of tourism

## 2.1. Adjectival tourism academic framework

In this dissertation, the label *academic terminology* or academic approach to adjectival tourism refers to the group of terms used by academics, professors, authors, institutional entities and other competent authorities to describe the tourism products, services and experiences. It is understood as lacking any types of marketing features or profit-making aims; for this reason, by *academic terminology* in this dissertation we do not only consider the words, but also their usage.

As we have already mentioned, the tourism area has been studied from different points of view due to its transversal nature. In order to be as objective as possible in terms of the approach to the subject, or, in other words, in order not to be looking at the subject from any of the aforementioned points of view, it is useful to rely on impartial resources, such as the ones provided by the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO). In particular, this section will rely on the *International Recommendations for Tourism Statistics* (2010) and its *Glossary of terms*. The latter “provides a comprehensive methodological framework for collection and compilation of tourism statistics in all countries irrespective of the level of development of their statistical systems” (p. iii), and in this dissertation it will provide distinctions and classifications for the most basic notions in the tourism field. The same notions are then clarified by the *Glossary of Tourism Terms* (2010).

In the section of the *International Recommendations for Tourism Statistics* (2010) concerned about the characteristics of a trip, 6 points are listed (p.24):

1. Main purpose;
2. Types of “tourism product”;
3. Duration of a trip or visit;
4. Origin and destination;
5. Modes of transport;
6. Types of accommodation.

It is interesting to underline that only one of these six is a characteristic that is not directly related to the tourist status or choices, namely the type of tourism product. In fact, while a tourist can decide why he wants to travel (main purpose), how many nights away from home he wants to spend (duration of trip or visit), from where to where he wants to travel (origin and destination), with which vehicle (mode of transport) and where to spend the nights (types of accommodation), he is not in charge of creating the types of tourism products; the industry is. Clearly, the tourist can choose which products to consume, but he cannot decide the features of the product. It may be argued that is the demand that creates the supply; however the supply/demand realization is not accountable to individual tourists.

Another matter that makes the “types of tourism product” stand out from the characteristics of a trip is the fact that this aspect is shortly discussed in the International for Tourism Statistics and not supported by any definition of the Glossary of tourism terms, while all the other characteristics present both classifications and definitions.

Precisely because of this lack of research about the “types of tourism product”, this dissertation will discuss only this one, out of the 6 characteristics of a trip above mentioned. Another reason for this preference is the link between types of tourism product and adjectival tourism, a topic that will be discussed in the next section.

When looking for a definition of types of tourism products or a classification of such products, the following definition is presented in the International Recommendations for Tourism Statistics (2010, p.26):

3.22. A “tourism product” represents a combination of different aspects (characteristics of the places visited, modes of transport, types of accommodation, specific activities at the destination, etc.) around a specific centre of interest, such as nature tours, life on farms, visits to historical and cultural sites, visits to a particular city, the practice of specific sports, the beach, etc. This notion of “tourism product” is not related to the concept of “product” used in economic statistics, but rather to that used by professionals in the tourism business to market specific packages or destinations.

The product is, as a matter of fact, is one of the pillars of the marketing mix and numerous researches and studies have been carried out by marketing professionals about the tourism product.

On this subject, the paper presented by Dimitris Koutoulas (2014) shows how the discussion around the tourism product and its components (from a marketing-oriented point of view) is still being carried out due to the strong disagreement among authors that makes it impossible to reach a common definition and classification.

Following Koutoulas's paper, only two distinctive characteristics of tourism products are endorsed by different authors and create a unified theory around the tourism product; the first is the view of the tourism product as a need satisfier and the second is the distinction between total tourism product and specific products.

As any other product, by its very nature the tourism product has the objective to fulfill needs, which can be divided into two categories:

- "Primary tourist needs are those that urge a person to make a tourist trip in order to satisfy them.
- Secondary or derived tourist needs are those arising from the decision to make a tourist trip." (Koutoulas, p.4)

According to Koutoulas (2015, p.5), the tourism product also exists on two different levels, as follows:

- "The *total tourist product* comprises the combination of all the elements, which a tourist consumes during his/her trip.
- The *specific products* are components of the total tourist product and can be sold as individual offerings such as accommodation, transport, attractions and other facilities for tourists. In other words, specific products are the offerings of the individual tourist enterprises".

The International Recommendations for Tourism Statistics (2010, p.26) also mentions that:

"3.23. It is then possible to speak of specific types of "tourism products", such as culinary tourism, ecotourism, city tourism, sun-and-sand tourism, agro-tourism, health tourism, winter tourism, etc. This classification is increasingly requested and used by tourism stakeholders as a marketing tool. 3.24. Because these "products" are still not sufficiently characterized in a uniform way, there is no international recommendation for the use of this type of classification"

As stated in this last paragraph by the UNWTO (2010), the marketing industry has shown to be particularly interested in the usage of terms and categorization, while the

academy has not been much concerned about it, not only because they do not supply an international recommendation about them, but also because a general and comprehensive literature is missing. We are not denying the existence of several works and researches about specific tourism products, from the very broad as *sun and sea tourism* to the very narrow as *golf tourism*, but stressing the necessity to consider all the different products from the same perspective, in a more comprehensive way. A reason of such disregard may possibly be motivated by the lack of valid parameters which could be correctly applied to all tourism products or, more in general, of the difficulties in creating comparative literature having as subject types of tourism very different from each other.

Related to this loophole, but not with the specific objective of filling it, only recently a new academic field emerged: adjectival tourism.

## 2.2. Adjectival tourism

Adjectival tourism is an area of tourism which has received very little attention from the academy: there is only one definition with some academic foundation, the one by Rață (2012, p.19):

The term Adjectival tourism refers to various forms of tourism that have emerged over the years, each with its own “Adjective (Adjective or Noun used attributively) + Tourism” structure, many of which have come into widespread use by both the tourism industry and academics. Others, are only emerging concepts that may or may not reach common usage in the future.

The definition is the opening paragraph Rață’s chapter of the edited book *The English of Tourism* (2012) which is predominantly concerned with the syntax of the terms included in the adjectival tourism list and its translation into Romanian. However, this subject is also very interesting both for the academic world in terms of researches and studies and for the marketing field, since, as mentioned in the previous sections, adjectival terms could be used as a marketing tool to target the audience and better structure the product.

On this matter, it is important to stress the heterogeneity of the list of adjectival tourism terms presented by Rață (2012). As we will see more in detail in the next chapter, the terms mentioned by the author are not only tourism products, but also concepts related to tourism or characteristics the trips present. Terms like *mass tourism*, *postmodern tourism* or *passive tourism* are not products, but concepts explored by academics when studying the forms tourism assumes. *Outbound tourism*, *domestic tourism* and *intra-region tourism* are instead characteristics that define a travel for statistical purposes or for management purposes. Besides these two groups, tourism products can also be found in the list, the so-called “special interest tourism”, which are types of tourism that originated from the demand of alternative and peculiar travels that differ from what is common and mainstream. As mentioned by Ali-Knight (2011), this desire for something different arose in the 1980s and resulted in the segmentation of the tourism market which corresponded initially to homogeneous groups of consumers. However, over time, the tourist demand became more and more specific, originating the so called “niche tourism”, that is, products perfectly tailored to meet the tastes and the interests of the consumer. A very relevant characteristic for *niche tourism* is the narrow audience and target, which very frequently makes it the opposite of *mass tourism*. However, adjectival tourism and *niche tourism* are not the same thing, as *niche tourism* only represents a part of the broad group of existing adjectival tourism: in fact, for example, both *beach tourism* and *equestrian tourism* belong to the adjectival tourism group, but only *equestrian tourism* is a niche type of tourism due to the number of tourists who choose it and the level of specificity it carries.

Adjectival tourism terms are the names used to label the different types of existing tourism products. It is important to underline that these labels are rarely advertised to tourists, unless from a marketing point of view it is considered convenient and useful to attract them with a specific word selection. Moreover, tourists do not use adjectival tourism names during their destination decision-making process, namely when they are researching about the places to visit or the activities to engage in. The use of such terms could represent a restricting factor, since it would reduce the resulting outcomes. It must be taken into consideration that a destination can be the stage of different and simultaneous types of tourism and one trip can be categorized with more than one adjectival tourism term. An easy example to understand this is the city of Amsterdam, which can be at the same time stage for both *drug tourism*, *cultural tourism* and *dark tourism*, that is, types of tourism which very different from one another and which may attract very different types of tourists.

This overlapping of tourism types in the same travel experience also happens because of the existence of more comprehensive categories that include more specific categories. *Sport tourism*, for example, is a macro category that can include *golf tourism*, as well as *fishing tourism* or *surf tourism*. Hence, a trip to Ericeira can be classified both as *sport tourism* and *surf tourism* (or none of the above if the tourist decides to go there for a completely different reason).

Moreover, the same type of tourism can be named with more than one label; for example, *gastronomic tourism* can also be called *culinary tourism*, which is also known as *food and drink tourism*, often shortened to *food tourism*.

However, it must be acknowledged that between some of these labels there are just subtle differences that can mislead non-professional individuals and tourists themselves. For example, in the chapter “The challenge and prospects for sustainable tourism and ecotourism in developing countries” by Mbaiwa and Stronza of the edited book *The SAGE handbook for tourism* (2009) the difference between *ecotourism* and *sustainable tourism* is thoroughly explained; they are similar but not the same thing.

What is missing in this field of study is an approach that goes beyond the mere list and the purely linguistic approach, a basis for a more significant research, because this type of work could be useful to develop the area of adjectival tourism and to turn it into a resource and a tool for the professionals of the sector, in terms of promotion, for example. Without this deep and comprehensive work any kind of attempt to use adjectival terms would be lacking solid grounding.

A starting point for such type of studies could be the reorganization of the Rață’s list (2012) and the creation of a classification of terms with a more focused perspective on tourism. Clearly, such hypothesis comes with its strengths and weaknesses that are below presented.

*Table 1 Rață’s list of adjectival tourism terms (2012)*

aboriginal tourism	agritourism	armchair tourism
accessible tourism	alpha tourism	atomic tourism
active tourism	alternating tourism	atocity tourism
adventure tourism	alternative tourism	audio tourism
aerial tourism	ancestry tourism	authentic tourism
aerotourism	animal tourism	authenticity tourism
agrarian tourism	archaeological tourism	backpack/backpacker tourism
agricultural tourism	archaeotourism	

battlefield tourism
beachfront tourism
Beach tourism
Beer tourism
behavioural tourism
biotourism
birth tourism
black tourism
bookstore tourism
border tourism
business tourism
cecitourism
celebration tourism
celebrity tourism
cemetery tourism
cemetourism
Christian tourism
clean tourism
clubbing tourism
clustered tourism
coastal tourism
commodity tourism
community tourism
Congress tourism
conscientious tourism
contretourism
convention tourism
country tourism
countryside tourism
creative tourism
cross-border tourism
cruise tourism
culinary tourism
cultural tourism
culture tourism
dance tourism
dark tourism
day tourism
deep tourism
dental tourism
desert tourism
destination tourism
disaster tourism
domestic tourism
dispersed tourism
dive tourism
doom tourism
drug tourism
ecological tourism
ecotourism
educational tourism
edutourism
enclave tourism
entertainment tourism
equestrian tourism

erotourism
ethnic tourism
ethno tourism
euthanasia tourism
event tourism
existential tourism
experiential tourism
experimental tourism
extreme tourism
faith tourism
farm tourism
fertility tourism
fishing tourism
food tourism
fortification tourism
gambling tourism
game tourism
gaming tourism
garden tourism
gastronomic tourism
gastro-tourism
gay tourism
genealogy tourism
genetourism
geography tourism
geopark tourism
geotourism
ghetto tourism
globalization tourism
golf tourism
graffiti tourism
green tourism
grief tourism
guilt tourism
halal tourism
health tourism
heritage tourism
hobby tourism
holocaust tourism
hybrid tourism
immersive tourism
inauthentic tourism
inbound tourism
inclusive tourism
incoming tourism
indigenous tourism
infidelity tourism
intellectual tourism
internal tourism
international tourism
intra-bound tourism
intra-regional tourism
Islamic tourism
island tourism
jungle tourism

leisure tourism
literary tourism
localization tourism
luxury tourism
mass tourism
meaningful tourism
medical tourism
metaphysical tourism
modern/postmodern tourism
monopoly tourism
mountain tourism
museum tourism
music tourism
Muslim tourism
narco-tourism
national tourism
nautical tourism
niche tourism
nightlife tourism
nuclear tourism
nyctalotourism
opera tourism
outbound tourism
package tourism
participatory tourism
party tourism
passive tourism
perpetual tourism
photo tourism
photography tourism
pilgrimage tourism
placeless tourism
plantation tourism
pomo tourism
pornographic tourism
poverty tourism
prison tourism
purposeful tourism
reality tourism
receptive tourism
recession tourism
recreational tourism
religious tourism
reproductive tourism
residential tourism
responsible tourism
reunion tourism
riding tourism
riot tourism
romance tourism
roots tourism
rural tourism
scientific tourism
sex tourism

shallow tourism
shark tourism
shock tourism
shopping tourism
slavery-heritage tourism
slum tourism
social tourism
spa tourism
space tourism
sports tourism
staged tourism
stopover tourism
structured tourism

suicide tourism
superficial tourism
sustainable tourism
tea tourism
thanatourism
therapeutic tourism
Tolkien tourism
touring tourism
town tourism
township tourism
transit tourism
tribal tourism
urban tourism

vicarious tourism
victim tourism
village tourism
virtual tourism
volunteer tourism
voluntourism
water tourism
weather tourism
wellness tourism
wildlife tourism
wine tourism
winter tourism

Source: adapted from Rață (2012)

First of all, we must consider that, as Rață (2012) suggested in his definition of *adjectival tourism*, new terms frequently emerge as tourism is constantly developing: this entails, on one hand, the need for permanent updates (which can be considered a weakness, since the classification created would need to be reviewed very often) and, on the other hand, the need to establish a label only when a particular type of tourism has reached a certain status (which could be measured in terms of revenue, number of tourists, number of activities concerned, among other aspects). This is to alleviate the existing chaos of terms (which could definitely be considered a strength) by distinguishing a tourism type from a temporary trend. In this scenario of continuous appearance of new tourism products, there will be the fundamental need of distinguishing temporary trends in tourism, which have a short life and do not generate literature in tourism, from proper types of tourism products that have a status, specific characteristics and a clear public to target.

Another point with pros and cons regards the fine lines that separate certain pairs of tourism types. It must be acknowledged that, if on one hand a classification could shed light on adjectival tourism, stressing out the differences between similar categories, on the other hand, on a more negative side, it could imply the loss of the same specificities. In other words, adjectival tourism studies could both lead to the clarification of differences between very similar tourism products and, at the same time, with the aim of not creating confusion and chaos in terms of contents, prevent some very specific type of product, with a very small audience, from reaching a proper status as an effective and recognized product type. An example of these possibilities is

*Thanatourism*, which, while some authors try to distinguish it from *dark tourism*, others try to merge them (Light, 2017). Finally, the contribution such research could provide on a qualitative and quantitative level to the existing established knowledge around the field of tourism must be considered. Nevertheless, the necessity of classification is a common opinion, as previously mentioned by the UNWTO (2008).

### 2.3. Tourism, marketing and promotion

As mentioned before, tourism is a product to sell to users (tourists) and therefore marketing is a very important area to consider. As a matter of fact, the area of tourism marketing is very broad and has many branches; a main distinction that we can stress is between corporate marketing activities, which work for the success of the company and clearly for profit reasons, and destination marketing activities which are implemented by Destination Management Organizations (DMO) for the promotion of a destination.

As mentioned, this dissertation will focus on the part of tourism marketing related to the destination, that is the ensemble of activities carried out by DMOs to promote a destination. Before discussing specific topics in the next chapters, it becomes useful to review some concepts related to this area.

It is a good start to differentiate *place marketing* from *destination marketing* as the two are often confused or considered the same concept, where, according to Quinn (2013) the former is “the business of setting a particular place apart from others” while the latter “has a similar meaning, except that it is more specifically oriented towards attracting tourists and developing tourism activity” (p.87). As evidently oriented towards tourism, this dissertation focus is on *destination marketing*.

Tourism as a product is not considered to be a good. Instead, it is the set of experiences that start when a tourist leaves home and ends when he returns, similarly to what happens to a service. Therefore, all the four characteristics of services apply to tourism: it is intangible, as it cannot be physically tested before it is purchased; it is inseparable, as its production and consumption can only take place in the specific

destination or attraction it is associated with; it is variable, as its quality depends on many, some of which uncontrollable factors; and, finally, it is perishable, as it cannot be stocked since it only exists when it is consumed (Bojanic, 2008).

The product is one of the components of the marketing mix, which is the combination of the decision-making variables that companies control to reach their objectives. The traditional marketing mix was developed by McCarthy in 1975 and included 4 variables (4 Ps): Product, Price, Place and Promotion (Bojanic, 2008).

In addition to the product, that we have already discussed, the Price is its defined value and the Place is the distribution channel and logistics chosen to make it available to the final consumers (Bojanic, 2008)

The last P of the traditional marketing mix stands for Promotion, that is the communication to a targeted audience of a message, which is designed after the determination of some communication objectives. Marketers in charge of promotion also select the communication channels and the message source and, in the end, collect the feedback. Promotion is concerned with attracting users and selling the product both with verbal and non-verbal communication, such as merchandising or special offers. Besides, it is the marketing mix pillar more involved with language, therefore the one that this dissertation will take into account. Clearly this dissertation will consider the promotion of tourism products from a linguistics, hence verbal level.

Marketing communication has different tools, out of which we will be focusing on advertising for different reasons. First of all, advertising is the marketing communication more involved with language, which is another important focus of this dissertation. Secondly, in the next chapters we will analyze some advertising texts.

Djafarova (2008) mentions that “advertising is defined as a paid form of non-personal communication about ideas, goods and services to a target market through different types of mass media (Kotler, 2000; Lee and Johnson, 2005)” (p. 28).

The term advertising comes from the Latin word “advertere”, a verb that means “to turn towards”, hence, in other words, the act of trying to catch the attention and communicate a message (Goddard, 1998). Among its multiple functions, advertising is often regarded as either informative or persuasive, or both. The former has the aims of informing the audience about the existence of a product or service and its main features “without an overt intent to persuade or entice consumers” (Santilli, 1983, p.29),

which is the objective of the latter. This is possible since modern marketing also involves creating and cultivating wants (or desires) for products, even if they are not of primary necessity (a need is “an objectively real deficiency requiring fulfillment” (Santilli, 1983, p.28); persuasive advertising has exactly this aim. Referring to Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (1943), tourism corresponds to secondary needs, as the majority of tourists travel for a self-actualization need.

Djafarova (2008) also mentions that advertising (visual and non-visual) is fundamental for tourism as it is one of the few ways in which tourists can picture what they are going to experience before the experience actually takes place. This means that advertisements are not limited to communicate information about the product, but also what the product could represent for the consumers. As we have mentioned before, tourism is intangible, hence tourists do not have the opportunity to test tourism product before the purchase, but only when they are consuming it. Advertising therefore becomes the way to show and describe to potential tourists how that experience will be like, trying to make the product more tangible.

Yet, advertising, although being one of the most known, is not the only promotional tool. Other tools of marketing communication are:

- Sales promotion, that is a strategy that implements short-term incentives to encourage users to purchase a product immediately; the incentive can be a special price or added value to the basic product.
- Selling and sales management, that are, according to Todorova (2015), “personal presentation of ideas and products to the client, in which the seller persuades and helps the buyer decide to purchase” (p. 371).
- Public relations (PR), that are, “an interactive system using one or more communication devices for notice measurable effects” whose “main objectives are to achieve understanding with the audience and influence public opinion” (Todorova, 2015, p. 371).
- Direct marketing, that is communication by organizations “directly with their target customers to generate reaction and/or transaction” and whose forms are “forms are web marketing, email marketing; direct mail, web seminars,

telemarketing promotions, sales channels, direct sales, advertising flyers, catalogs and more” (Todorova, 2015, p. 372).

### 2.3.1. Tourism advertising language

One of the most important works concerned with the language of tourism in advertising is by Graham Dann (1996). In the following paragraphs we will go through Dann’s arguments about the characteristics of tourism promotional language. However, alongside with the review of these pioneering theories, other arguments will also be presented. This is because, as almost 25 years have passed since Dann’s work, the way of communicating to the audience has changed, especially due to the technological development and the increasing use of the internet, in addition to the appearance of other strategies and promotional techniques.

When considering the properties of this particular kind of language, Dann (1996) started by distinguishing two groups of properties: the first one shared with other typologies of languages (and promotional language), that are *convergent properties*, and the second one with characteristics specific only to the language of tourism, that are *divergent properties*.

The first of the so called “convergent properties” are the *functions*. The six functions of communication were proposed by Roman Jakobson in 1960 and correspond to six factors: (1) the *emotive function* of the addresser; (2) the *conative function* of the addressee; (3) the *referential function* of the context; (4) the *phatic function* of the contact; (5) the *metalinguistic function* of the code; and (6) the *poetic function* of the message.

Regarding the *emotive function*, for instance, Dann explains that in the tourism language, besides the sentiment that wants to be expressed, also the identification (or its absence) of the sender represents a very important factor for text communication. He reported that at the beginning of the development of the tourism industry the sender was usually identified but as time passed by the text often became more impersonal.

Moreover, Dann displays his disapproval in the frequent lack of direct targeting of the addressee for the *conative function*.

The *referential function* of the context in the tourism promotional language is mostly the communication of information to the addressee, for example about the products and the destinations, and the cognitive context.

A fundamental aspect of the promotional text regards its *phatic function*. Dann (1996, p. 37) states that:

as to the phatic function, in a written/pictorial context a conversational style has to be consciously adopted in order to maintain the interest of the reader/holder (e.g. by including unusual photographs, the imaginative use of color, preserving dialogue structure via rhetorical questions (e.g. what shall I/we do today?), simple words, short sentences, a user-friendly typeface and an easy to read multiple column format).

The *metalinguistic function* of the code is not so common in tourism promotional language as it should refer along the text to its own register or syntax. It is hard to find informative texts, for example, that challenge their own grammar or word selection, while this could easily happen in a common conversation (“<what do you mean?>” “<I am not following what you are saying>”) (p.36). In promotional tourism texts, the *metalinguistic function* could also be presented in forms of reference to itself, that is, the tourism industry. An example given by Dann is the sentence “there is no doubt that gastronomy is one of the best kept secrets lying beneath the touristic success of the Costa Brava” (p.37).

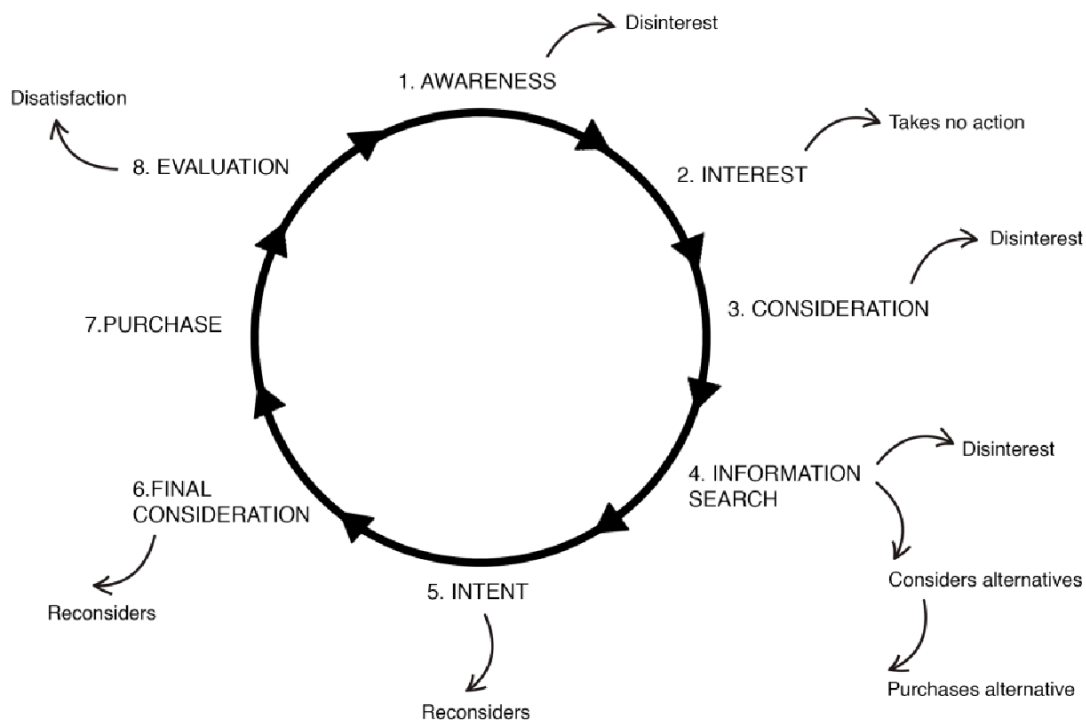
Finally, the poetic function of the message is perhaps the most important and used in tourism promotional language. It mostly comes down to the use of words that emphasize and highlight the positive characteristics of a product/destination. It can also be produced by using linguistic devices such as metaphors.

The second convergent property listed by Dann is the structure of the language; it must be appropriate to fulfill its purpose, for example, to attract potential customers, and can vary according to the strategy selected. Dann refers that tourism promotional language implements the AIDA structure; it starts by capturing the *Attention* of the potential consumer, continues by maintaining the *Interest*, then creates the *Desire* and goes on until it achieves the tourist's *Action*, that is, the purchase of the product, service or experience. This model is not recent, as it was formulated at the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, and it is too linear, assuming that one phase will surely be followed by the

other. Moreover, the structure is of an inverted triangle, which means that the numbers of those whose attention is captured are significantly less than those who will act.

In the view of the recent increase of offer and number of tourism advertisements a user is exposed to and the shift of power over the communication of the promotional messages, now more balanced and more conversational, other models have been developed placing consumers at the core. A more recent and known model is the “Consumer Journey Model” (CJM) developed by Scott et al (2015). As we can see from the figure below, the model is not linear as the AIDA model was, but also considers the customer’s journey as being more complex. In fact, it considers the possibility of a potential customer to be disinterested after the awareness of the product, being interested but not taking action and the possibility of reconsiderations throughout the journey, some of which consider purchasing alternatives. Another innovating aspect of the customer journey model is that it does not end with the action, that is the purchase, but continues with the evaluation of product/service/experience.

Figure 2 Customer Journey Model



Source: Scott et al (2015)

Another structure is, according to Dann, the push and pull model. It works on the behavior of potential tourists, as it focused on the motivations that push tourists to travel in order to pull them towards a specific destination. It consists of initially focusing on the push factors, that are the reasons that prompt the tourist to make the decision of travelling in the first place and only later to introduce the pull factors of the destination, that are the reasons that prompt the tourist to select a destination (Gnoth, 1997). The push factors are those internal to the tourists while the pull factors are external. The strategy implemented to present the push factors usually compares the daily life with the special experiences offered by the destination, creating a strong contrast. We could say that the aim is to stress what the person needs and offer the perfect solution for him/her (Dann, 1996).

According to the advertising strategy selected, the tense of the language can range from the past perfect to the future, or the present. For instance, the present tense is used in the strategy mentioned as “denial of time” (p. 50) to mark the fact that on holidays the tourist will not have to respect a rigid schedule as in their routine life. The future tense is instead used to create the desire to consume a product/service that is waiting for the tourist only. In any case, the aim is to maximize the most enjoyable characteristics by opposing extraordinary time spent having a tourism experience to the ordinary time spent at home.

The last property among the convergent ones is *magic*. The magic notion in advertising is strictly linked to the creation of envy in the subject casting the promotional message: the promoter is here selling the potential tourist the opportunity of “instantly and magically” (p. 57) making that dream (based on envy) came true. A discourse is magical when the language is manipulated in such a way that impossible events become possible, for instance “being transported out of time and space” (p.57).

The second group, that Dann denominates as “*divergent properties*” (characteristics specific only to the language of tourism), is composed of *lack of sender identification*, *monologue*, *euphoria*, and *tautology* (p.62).

As already mentioned, unlike other types of advertising where the sender is very clear, in tourism there is the lack of sender identification, at least as an individual. There are cases as official and institutional promotional campaigns where who is sending a message is well recognizable, but rarely corresponds to a person.

Moreover, this faceless entity does not have a counterpart since the discourse it implements is a *monologue*; as tourism is not an essential good, the sender speaks to whoever wants to hear the message without the necessity of receiving a reply or a feedback (Dann, 1996).

*Euphoria* is the emotion tourism promotion tries to communicate to its audience by always using positive words and superlative terms; tourism promotion does not contemplate bad experiences of any type. This property also aims to stress the positivity of the tourism experience in contrast with the negativity of the daily life.

All the discourse about tourism, not only in advertising, must be considered as *tautology*: in fact, according to Dann (1996), the aim of a tourist is to personally check out what has been communicated by a sender and that something he was informed about was there (accommodation, a destination, an activity) for him to experience. When referring to a promotional text, we know that we have reached the aim when we have succeeded in creating the want for something indispensable, by manipulating the language and using specific techniques. In other words, the majority of tourism types, excluding, business tourism, is motivated by the need of self-actualization. This need can be fulfilled in many different ways, so the success of tourism promotion is when, of all the practices possible to reach self-actualization, people decide to do it via tourism.

Furthermore, Dann provides an insight about some techniques used in tourism language.

The first one the author speaks about is *comparison*, namely the figures of speech of *simile* and *metaphor*. These techniques are able to achieve the proximity of distant destinations to tourists, by using concepts closer to them. The usage of such methods proportionally grows with the cultural distance between the audience and the destination itself.

Another technique reported is based on using specific keywords to attract potential tourists. Such words must be the ones consumers seek out to and must be used clearly and currently. The usage of keywords is called *keying* and it is the result of accurate researches carried out by the marketing professional to make sure the words selected are the most appropriate to reach the aim of attracting tourists. Similarly, this strategy has been carried out by replacing keywords with metadata tags: the META tags are used by DMOs on the internet to label the destination offer, so that, when

looking online for certain words, the destination website comes out as a result (Xiang and Fesenmaier, 2005).

*Testimony* is another technique, consisting of identifying and getting the support of a 'recognizable spokesperson', which can be a low culture celebrity, a high culture famous, a patron, a notorious character, or more rarely a satisfied tourist of the same tourism experience.

The fourth technique presented is *humor*. Although its usage is controversial, humor has revealed to be successful for different aims, such as 1) capturing the attention of potential tourists, 2) providing a suitable context for the message to send, 3) send a light-hearted warning, 4) manage the unfamiliarity, or 5) prepare the addressee to a cultural shock (Dann, 1994).

Another controversial technique that must be carefully used is *linguaging*, namely the usage of foreign terms unknown to the reader in order to create in them a sense curiosity, for instance. The overuse of such technique could have the opposite result of the desired one, namely generate lack of interest in the reader.

The last verbal technique Dann addresses is the *ego-targeting*. As we have mentioned before, tourism is not a primary need, hence only those who are interested in the message sent by promotional language become the audience. This technique has as most relevant aim the transformation of a person into an addressee of the communication and it achieves this purpose by using expressions that make the audience's individualism prevail.

Another relevant matter about the language of tourism, especially for this dissertation, is the *register*. Dann recognized the existence of multiple versions of the same languages, which varies "according to the status of the speaker, the medium of communication, and the topic under discussion" (p.211). One of the varieties of a language is register. For this reason, Dann believes that the language of tourism, and therefore its promotional language, should vary, namely in terms of register. In 1996, Dann acknowledged the necessity of creating registers according to the emerging "alternative forms of tourism" (which nowadays are considered common), namely registers "appropriate to the specialized topic or particular facet of tourism that is being treated" (p. 215). Consequently, considering the numerous forms of tourism, the language of tourism does not use a register *per se*, but it involves many registers. The

purpose is to have a peculiar language to target a specific part of the audience seeking for an experience which is far from the common and mass offers.

The ideas presented in *The language of tourism* (1996) still represent a great incentive for the investigation about the tourism-language nexus, and also about adjectival tourism. All of Dann's ideas, but especially the approach to the topic of *registers*, show the pioneering perspective the author had regarding the categorization of tourism products. He believed in the existence of specificities among the broad offer of tourism products and that each one should be stressed and treated differently, starting with their promotion. Dann mentions in his work the following registers: "ol' talk" for *nostalgic tourism*, "spasprech" for *health tourism*, "gastrolingo" for *food and drink tourism* and "Greenspeak" for *ecotourism*. Clearly, although he did not use the term adjectival tourism, nor *niche tourism*, he matched the *registers* to a type of tourism product. These combinations are important for this dissertation as they justify the tentative of a classification of adjectival tourism and the analyses of the promotional text linked to adjectival terms that will be presented in the next chapters.

### 2.3.2. English language in tourism promotion

In international advertising the most used idiom is clearly English, as it represents "technological developments, economic globalization and the improved global communications (Graddol, 1996)" (in Modrić, 2016, p.1). Besides, as we have discussed in the first chapter, English is considered nowadays the world *lingua franca*, therefore it is used globally. Moreover, the usage of such idiom, nowadays the widest used in non-English speaking countries, is linked to the status-symbol English represents in terms of its global relevance and connection to a global community, as if the status of such language automatically passes onto the product advertised (Modrić, 2016, pp.4-5). This might easily apply to tourism as people who leave home to take a trip are not only moved by the interest and curiosity of getting to know new places in the world, but also to broaden their horizons and feel like citizens of the world, where the universal language is actually English. This is equally applicable both to advertising in general and branding strategies; even when the target audience is not able to

understand whole texts in English so only few words are used, but they are enough to transmit the desired stereotyped message of universality and modernity and to fulfill the “advertere” objective. As for the languaging technique explained by Dann (1996), the use of English, also in promotional texts aimed at non-English speakers, can firstly create confusion in the reader, but this initial phase can also be followed by curiosity and, in this case, by the desire of reaching the status-symbol that English has on an international level. Consequently, the usage of English in advertising involves a wider reachable audience due to the fact that also non-English speakers become the addressee of a message. As already mentioned, English is already considered to be the world’s lingua franca and the most studied idiom, which is the final reason why the whole tourism industry, from promotion to local services, adopt it as the main language of communication.

One of the controversies about advertising in English in countries where English is not a native nor an official language is the standardization or adaptation, where the former is the implementation of the same brands, slogan, logos, etc., irrespective of the linguistic landscape of the market, and the latter is the adaptation and/or translation of the contents in the language of that specific country. Both strategies present strengths and weaknesses when selected for marketing plans and both can be considered valid (Modrić, 2016). Simões and Tuna (2015) state that (p.134):

This decision [between standardization or adaptation] will have consequences for brands, from aspects related to brand image and coherence to budgetary conditions, and will also be influenced by the target culture(s) system(s), as it is ultimately the host culture that will determine the success of any marketing decision.

### 2.3.2.1 English Language in Portugal

Following Kachru’s model (1992) about the spread of English across the world, Portugal can be found in the so called “Expanding Circle”, that is, the imaginary area where the countries that have English neither as a native language (Inner Circle), nor as an official language (Outer Circle) are, but as a foreign language used for communicative purposes (Leslie, 2009).

In fact, despite the long-established diplomatic and political relationship between Portugal and a native English country such as England, Portugal was never under the British Empire, hence it was not colonized by Great Britain like the countries which now belong to the Outer Circle were. Moreover, the dictatorial regime ruled by Salazar until 1974 promoted isolationism politics and behaviors which prevented the spread of foreign languages; only after the fall of the regime, the linguistic situation slowly started to change (Leslie, 2009).

Tononian (2014), in his dissertation about the teaching of English in Portugal, presents a journey of such development. In 2005 a survey by the European Commission (2005) listed Portugal among the 30 European countries with the lowest percentage of English language speakers (only 26%); in the same year the Portuguese government<sup>0</sup> started working on the teaching of English at schools as a mandatory subject, which undoubtedly has led to improved results. The release of a similar survey took place in 2012 (European Commission, 2012); it showed that 52% of primary and lower secondary schools taught English and that 27% of Portuguese population thought they had the skills for having a conversation in English. The highest percentage was about the estimated value of English: “53% of respondents choose the English language to be the most useful for personal development and [...] 87% of respondents think that children should learn English at school” (Tonoian, 2014, p.6)

In addition to education, there are also other factors that positively influence the spread of English across Portuguese native-speakers; among these are the lack of dubbing, with the broadcast of TV programs, series and movies in the original language (mostly English) with Portuguese subtitles and product/services advertisements both on television and in the printed press in English (Leslie, 2006).

This peculiar linguistic situation turns out to be very helpful for the tourism industry in Portugal. As previously mentioned, English became fundamental worldwide for tourism in all its components, from advertising to the planning of the trip, from transportation to the relationship with the host community and all aspects related to the stay in another country. For this reason, the spreading and common use of English among the Portuguese population positively marks the development of tourism in Portugal.

One outstanding and explicative example of the readiness and proactiveness of the Portuguese market towards international tourists is the publication by the news magazine VISÃO of “This is Portugal”. This weekly magazine is the translation to

English of the Portuguese magazine published for the millions of tourists travelling to Portugal annually (Visão, 2018).

### 2.3.3. Promotion and destination image: concepts and relations

Now that we have shortly discussed the verbal promotion for tourism purposes, we will focus on the relationship between promotion and destination, that is, in other words, the impact that promotion has on the destination image.

The destination image concept is defined by Kotler and Gertner (2002, p 251) as

the sum of beliefs and impressions people hold about place. Images represent a simplification of a larger number of associations and pieces of information connected to a place. They are a product of the mind trying to process and pick out essential information from huge amounts of data about a place.

The existence of a destination image separated from the destination identity, that is the core of the destination, the system of characteristics that identify the destination and are transmitted by the stakeholders (Konecnik Ruzzier and Go, 2013; Saraniemi, 2011), is a direct consequence of the nature of the tourism product that was discussed in the previous sections. As we have mentioned, the tourism product is intangible, which makes it necessary for the customer to idealize it before experiencing it. Promotion is a way of getting the user closer to the product, hence marketers must control as much as possible the destination image that potential tourists form in their mind (Bojanic, 2008). Besides, destination image influences the decision-making process of a potential tourist and this is a further reason for promotion to take interest in its proper development (Chon, 1990).

Since we are referring to beliefs and impressions existing in people's minds, concepts by their very nature vague and floating, it is very difficult to assess and influence the image of a destination. We must face the fact that, along with promotion, there are many variables that contribute to the formation of such images, among them the most discussed are the distance/proximity of a potential customer to the destination, the leverage of word of mouth and all the non-tourism related opinions about the

destination. All the factors influencing the creation of a destination image were classified by Gartner (1993) and named “destination image formation agents”.

Notwithstanding the difficulty of working on the destination image due to its nature, tourism marketers and DMOs have to do their best to communicate the desired image of the destination. A study carried out by Govers et al. (2007) upon the influence of the different destination image formation agents shows that pure advertising (what Gartner defined as overt agents) has limited impact on the overall formation of the destination image. Govers et al. (2007, p. 20) stressed the necessity for decision-makers to “assess the impact of their promotional decisions on revenues, market share, costs, and benefits within the realm of the various options, reasoning, and consequences of a destination’s overall marketing communication strategy”.

According to Govers et al. (2007), promotion of the destination image can be carried out directly, through narratives or pictures, or indirectly. About this second way, they in fact state (p. 15):

Destinations can influence image formation indirectly through secondary place interactions with consumers, i.e. “vicarious experiences” (Kim & Richardson 2003). These are facilitated by intermediaries and produced imagination, in for instance the media, literature, arts, as well as popular culture (e.g. motion pictures, TV-shows or music) (Cohen-Hattab & Kerber 2004).

In both cases, according to the authors, the image projected must be as loyal as possible to the destination identity, firstly to avoid false expectations which leads to a negative evaluation of the destination, and secondly to avoid the “tourism development strategy gap” (p.16), that is a gap occurring “between planning and implementation once the planned approach to tourism development is adopted” (Lai et al, 2006, p. 1171).

Another characteristic that promotion must have in order to achieve favorable attitudes by potential tourists is the quality of the knowledge transmitted via advertising. Hsu et al (2009) state (p.292):

Suppose again that tourists’ knowledge was primarily formed by being exposed to media advertisements, a favorable attitude was not so much achieved by the amount of knowledge as by the depth and quality of such knowledge, and through extension, the depth and quality of expectation.

Tourists' attitudes are also mentioned by Bojanic (1991) as one of the aspects that good advertising could manipulate. According to the author, the attitudinal advertising approach can bring in the main attitude changes in the tourist (p. 352):

destinations could either change the way in which consumers evaluate the destination, or change consumers' perceptions of the destination on the present set of evaluative criteria. For example, a country could try to downplay the importance of attributes on which it is weak and emphasize those attributes on which it has a competitive advantage. Alternatively, a country could focus its advertising on changing consumers' perceptions of its salient attributes such as value, historic appeal and hospitality.

Govers et al. (2007), have, in addition, stressed that, although the general media as TV, television news and newspapers resulted as the main formation agent at the expense of the Internet, the data results were not going to stay the same for long due to the information and communication technology development and its future convergence with media (2007). As predicted by Govers et al. (2007), this reversal of most influence factors actually took place; the study carried out by Monilino et al. in 2017 stressed the power of websites and social media developed by DMOs as one of the main destination image formation agents.

Monilino et al. (2017) refer to websites and social media as key factors during the destination image formation process and also mention some improvement points that must be taken care of by DMOs, one of these being the destination brand image.

The notion of destination brand image arose with the necessity of destinations to stand out and differentiate themselves from the large offer worldwide, that is the necessity of becoming brands themselves. As a matter of fact, the original aim of brand creation is the one expressed in the Kotler's definition of brand of 1991: "a name, term, design, symbol, or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods or services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from competitors" (cited in Keller, 1993, p.2)

However, the brand concept has developed with time and became wider, more complex and transversal, having to take into account multiple aspects and perspectives. For this reason, experts do not have a common definition for it (Maurya, 2009). These discrepancies between authors have gone so far that Maurya created a classification of the criteria of themes to clarify the concept of brand. One of the criteria mentioned by Maurya is "brand as an image in consumer's mind" (p.123).

One of the features of a brand is its capacity of creating a relationship with the users and be trustworthy for them, therefore involving an emotional attachment. Transferring this capacity into a destination marks the beginning of destination branding. Ekinci (2003) suggests that “only branded destinations would establish an instant emotional link with their customers. Therefore, we suggest that branding is the second stage of building a favorable destination image” (p. 22).

The concepts and theories presented in this chapter are a necessary framework, considering that in chapter 5 we will discuss the implementation of adjectival tourism terms in the website [visitportugal.com](http://visitportugal.com), a case study of the work of a DMO on the web to promote a destination: Portugal.

## Chapter 3 – Methodology

Due to the limited research carried out on adjectival tourism terms and their implementation for promotional purposes, this dissertation aims to gather information on the current situation and to be a basis of study for those interested in putting into practice the theories here discussed. In other words, this work aims to bring forth an exploratory research that could prompt further research and a practical use of adjectival tourism terms. Moreover, as we can understand from the first two chapters, this dissertation is mostly concerned about the language used to label some types of tourism and the language used for the promotion of such products.

Therefore, in light of the nature of research presented in this dissertation, the methodology implemented has a qualitative approach rather than a quantitative one. Notwithstanding, in order to draw some conclusions which could benefit the overall research, a quantitative analysis was used to sort out the data obtained. Specifically, after the classification proposed of adjectival tourism terms, it seemed appropriate to count the number of entries per category to obtain insights about the relevance of each group.

It was important, due to the nature of the subject discussed in this dissertation, to produce a literature review not limited to adjectival tourism terms, which is not much extensive, but also on all the relevant notions needed to understand it (the tourism – language nexus, with a bigger focus on the English language and the notion of the tourism product type) and on the context where this tool could be used, that is the promotion of a destination.

Due to the unresearched nature of the topic, an exploratory research is undertaken. This approach is adequate to the context of the analysis of adjectival tourism and its potential for tourism promotion since this is an approach “researchers explore when they have little or no scientific knowledge about the group, process, activity, or situation they want to examine but nevertheless have reason to believe it contains elements worth discovering” (Stebbins, 2001, p.5).

Since the field of adjectival tourism is little known, we are limited to advance some hypotheses. Stebbins (2001) affirms that “during an exploratory study, researchers do

think deductively at times, although they do so largely within their emerging theoretical framework rather than within established theory and a set of hypotheses deduced from it” (p.6).

Exploratory research can be implemented with different types of methods, which according to Bhat (online) can be divided into primary research methods, that are those which consist in gathering information directly from the subject, and secondary research methods, that are those which consist in gathering information from primary research already published. In this dissertation, we opted for secondary research methods, which mostly consisted in literature research and online research.

A fundamental step of the exploratory research is the formulation of hypotheses, that are propositions that can answer the research question. These propositions are then explained and investigated. In contrast with other approaches that require a conclusion where the results of the research are presented and analyzed, exploratory research does not provide conclusive results, but it is limited to proposing possible replies to the research question.

### 3.1. List and Classification of adjectival tourism terms

Given this framework, this dissertation presents a classification of adjectival tourism terms. The subject has not been much discussed in the recent years and the outlines of the concept are not very clear. The list of terms discussed has not been collected firsthand by the author of this dissertation, but retrieved from Georgeta Rață's work, the author of the article entitled “Adjectival tourism” (2012). The decision of not collecting the terms firsthand has various reasons. First of all, the list of terms collected by Rață gives insight into what the state of the art of adjectival tourism terms is. The second reason is related to the subject's dimension, meaning that that the number of adjectival tourism terms is very high and there was the need of limiting the entries.

However, the list of adjectival tourism terms needed a review for two reasons. The first is that the collection of terms produced by Rață (2012) did not consider the use of such terms for any specific purpose but only its translation into another language, hence the

author was not interested in the potential use of such terms nor in their actual significance for the tourism area. The second reason is that adjectival tourism terms are the combination of a number of terms related to tourism and not all of them refer to tourism products. As this dissertation intends to explore the application of adjectival tourism terms to the promotion of a destination image there was the necessity of excluding non-pertinent terms, which are those terms that do not represent tourism products that can be promoted. In other words, it was necessary to have in the list for the classification only those types of tourism that potential tourists seek or look for. It is, for instance, highly unlikely that, while planning the next trip, a potential tourist looks for *incoming tourism* or *mass tourism*, while it is more likely that his/her search will focus on *beach tourism* or *gastronomy tourism*, which are, by all means, products that tourists can purchase.

This process follows 4 steps:

1. The first is to exclude all terms with no relation to tourism, which means those which contain the word tourism but with no real link, either academic or promotional, with this activity.
2. Secondly, since this dissertation is about the products that are named after adjectival terms, it is important to exclude all those terms which have a link to tourism but are not products, such as the tourism-related concept (e.g. mass tourism) or characteristics of the tourism activity (e.g. domestic tourism).
3. Once we have a list of products only, we have to exclude the duplicates either on a morphological basis (e.g. only one between *gastrotourism* and *gastronomic tourism*) or a semantic basis (e.g. *gastronomic tourism* and *food and wine tourism*). This last step implies the necessity of taking into consideration some criteria, such as the usage of the terms or the appropriateness (for instance *Halal* is a more appropriate word for tourism rather than *Muslim*), therefore they need to be discussed case by case.
4. Finally, it is also necessary to remove two terms as they only have an “umbrella” function, that is to be the terms that represent a macro category (*niche tourism* and *experimental tourism*), and to merge two similar terms into one (*atomic tourism* and *nuclear tourism*).

At the end of the decluttering and revision process, the resulting list of 121 terms (out of the 225 listed by Rață) is divided into five categories created by the author of this dissertation. The division per group is done by taking into consideration the adjective of each term and what that word stresses as main characteristic of that specific tourism product. The five categories are created on the assumption that tourists are more and more interested in carrying out activities and how these are done (experiences and mode) rather than limiting themselves to sightseeing (hallmark). Notwithstanding, time and spatiality (the destination/attraction) are still factors influencing the nature of the product.

At the end, an analysis of the classification is presented, considering the number of entries per category, hence the implementation of a quantitative approach, and drawing other conclusions from the whole process.

### 3.2. Content analysis of the website [visitportugal.com](http://visitportugal.com)

The second method used in this dissertation is content analysis, which, Krippendorff (1980) defined as “a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context” (p.18). The content analysis performed in this dissertation is qualitative, which Kim and Huljis (2010) refer to as being “similar to textual analysis in that it is primarily interpretive in nature, and often does not utilize statistics for data analysis” (p. 370). These two authors investigated the application of content analysis to web-based content, which is the case of the present dissertation.

The object of the content analysis is not the whole website page but a specific part of it, that is the section where adjectival tourism terms are used and some of the corresponding pages. As the website is continuously updated and modified, it is important to stress that the analysis was carried out on the content available between October 2019 and February 2020.

The set of categories of analysis are those used in the previous chapters, that are the adjectival tourism terms discussed in chapter 4 and the strategies and techniques of

promotional language discussed in chapter 2. Specifically, we question if the six functions presented by Dann (1996) (expressive, conative, referential, metalinguistic, phatic and poetic) are expressed throughout the text and if the text has a precise structure, for instance the AIDA structure or the push/pull factor structure, to make the content more attractive, from a promotional standpoint. We also look for the implementation of specific language strategies, for instance *linguaging* and *testimony*, or if the content creator has selected a specific verbal tense.

## Chapter 4 – Proposal of adjectival tourism classification

As mentioned earlier, in section 2.1., a classification of tourism product terms is nowadays highly requested by tourism stakeholders. Another reason for its relevance is the potential value its results can have both in the academic context, as a driver for further research, and in the promotional activity, as a marketing resource and tool.

It is important to stress out the objective of such work and its choice before a deeper analysis of the terms themselves. The objective is to understand which message adjectival tourism terms intend to convey with the specific word (adjective) selection, and give insight about their possible usage, especially for the marketers that could use adjectival tourism as an alternative to common promotional strategies.

### 4.1. Revision of Rață's adjectival tourism list

In this chapter, an alternative classification is proposed based on the adjectival tourism terms presented in the article "Adjectival tourism" by Georgeta Rață (2012). The author lists 225 terms, divided into categories related to morphological structures:

- adjective + *tourism*,
- noun + *tourism*,
- bound combining form + *tourism*.

It must be highlighted that, focusing first and foremost on the linguistic aspect and on the translation of such terms to Romanian, the author did not establish any distinction between and among the terms, including consequentially also adjectival tourism terms that are not actually tourism products, nor concepts related to tourism.

For the purpose of this classification the differentiations established by Rață are not relevant, hence all adjectival tourism will be considered at the same way, regardless of their morphological structure. Before getting to the classification, however, it becomes

fundamental to review the whole catalogue of terms presented by Rață, not only to reduce their number, but primarily to create a logical groundwork based on the pros and cons mentioned earlier. For this reason, in the next section we will go through a practical revision of Rață's list, which will consist first in a decluttering process based on multiple criteria (such as relevance or duplicates), and later in a proper classification of the resulting list.

The first step in the review process is to remove a large group of terms (32<sup>1</sup>) have been removed from the list for lacking any relation to a tourism concept, either product, characteristic or trend (such as *structured tourism*, *superficial tourism* and *shallow tourism*). This exclusion resulted in the decrease of the number of entries in the list, from 225 to 194.

The next step consists of deleting all the terms related to the tourism concept but which are not tourism products themselves. This results in the exclusion of other 22 terms from the original catalogue of the Romanian author: *alternative tourism*, *authentic tourism*, *commodity tourism*, *clustered tourism*, *day tourism*, *destination tourism*, *geography tourism*, *globalization tourism*, *hybrid tourism*, *inauthentic tourism*, *leisure tourism*, *localization tourism*, *mass tourism*, *package tourism*, *passive tourism*, *postmodern tourism*, *receptive tourism*, *recreational tourism*, *responsible tourism*, *staged tourism*, *suicide tourism* and *touring tourism*. At the same way, in addition to these 22, 3 other have also been removed; they are somehow related to other tourism products but are not products themselves (such as *geopark tourism* for *geotourism*, *biotourism* for *ecotourism*, or *beachfront tourism* for *beach tourism*). To explain the reason why these have been removed, we will take *mass tourism* as an example, that is, the result of a large number of tourists visiting the same destinations, doing the same activities and living the same experiences. As tourists are nowadays aware of this phenomenon, *mass tourism* is not a product that can be sold and, consequently, this label cannot be used to promote a type of tourism; hence, its deletion from the list which is being created.

Similarly, 9 more terms have been removed: *outbound tourism*, *national tourism*, *domestic tourism*, *inbound tourism*, *incoming tourism*, *internal tourism*, *international*

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<sup>1</sup> *Aerial tourism*, *armchair tourism*, *audio tourism*, *behavioral tourism*, *celebration tourism*, *clean tourism*, *conscientious tourism*, *dance tourism*, *deep tourism*, *dispersed tourism*, *euthanasia tourism*, *existential tourism*, *fortification tourism*, *game tourism*, *genetourism*, *game tourism*, *guilt tourism*, *infidelity tourism*, *meaningful tourism*, *perpetual tourism*, *photography tourism*, *placeless tourism*, *plantation tourism*, *pomo tourism*, *pornographic tourism*, *reality tourism*, *reunion tourism*, *shallow tourism*, *structured tourism*, *superficial tourism*, *vicarious tourism*, *victim tourism*, *weather tourism*.

*tourism, intra-bound tourism and intra-regional tourism*. These nine have been removed from Rață's list on the basis that they are not tourism products, but adjectives that may characterize a trip.

By removing these last three groups of terms, the list that will be considered from this moment on is composed only by terms that are also a tourism product. Considering the aforementioned aim of this classification, that is to use adjectival tourism terms as a marketing tool for promotion, it would not be useful to have terms that do not correspond to a tourism product.

The process of reviewing the list now needs to exclude duplicates. First, we will consider the duplicate on a morphological basis and later on a semantic basis. As mentioned at the beginning of this section, the adjectival tourism terms advanced by Rață can be divided into three categories and the duplicates in signifier are linked mainly to the third category of structures presented, that is, bound combining form + *tourism*, since some of these forms are the shortened versions of previously existing forms, for example *gastrotourism, edutourism, volotourism and cemeturism*. These four labels did not reach the same level of usage as their corresponding *gastronomic tourism, educational tourism, voluntary tourism and cemetery tourism*; on the other hand, some terms of the third group surpassed in prevalence their corresponding extended forms, such as *agrotourism and ecotourism*. At the end of this process of deleting duplicate forms, 14 terms have been eliminated from the original list. This represented the first step in order to create a new list to be used for the classification. Duplicate forms would have invalidated the results.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the same tourism product can have different names, since the creation of new terms is not regulated by any sort of entity. For this reason, 20 labels have been removed from the original list by Rață, for being perfect synonyms to other terms, more used and recognized adjectival terms, also listed in the author's catalogue. Once again, having duplicated forms of the same type of tourism products would invalidate the division into groups and the subsequent considerations about the classification.

The following terms are those deleted and in brackets there is the other version, which will be included in the proposed list in this section, followed by an explanation of why a term is chosen over the other:

- *Aboriginal tourism (indigenous tourism)*,

The term *indigenous tourism* was selected over *aboriginal tourism* as it is more comprehensive. As Harry and Hood (2015, p.252) sustain:

Globally, indigenous peoples are those groups protected under international or national legislation as having specific rights based on their historical ties to a particular territory and their cultural or historical distinctiveness from other populations (Coates, 2004). Indigenous people in Canada are often called First peoples or Aboriginal peoples and have diverse languages, ceremonies, traditions, and histories. The Canadian Constitution Act recognizes three groups of Aboriginal people: First Nations, Inuit, and Métis.

From this statement we can assume that *aboriginal* is the term used in Canada, for instance, while *indigenous* is preferred worldwide. However, as reported by the CBC in 2016, this shift of terminology from *aboriginal* towards *indigenous* as preferred terms also took place in Canada.

- *Farm tourism (agritourism)*,  
*Agritourism* (or *agrotourism*) and *farm tourism* are another pair of terms used indistinctly. They both belong to the more comprehensive rural tourism, as the website Farmguests.com explains, however the terms *agritourism/agrotourism* seems to be more appropriate as it expresses more than just the place where the experience takes place (the farm), that is the whole type of activities.
- *Ancestry tourism and Root tourism (genealogy tourism)*,  
According to Mathijsen (2019) the phenomenon of immigrants going back to their homeland has been named in different ways over the years by various authors. The author also states that “the terminology is not yet fully established, and authors often use different designations for the same phenomenon or narrow the concept to a certain segment of the possible *genealogical tourism* activities. In the English-language literature, loosely defined synonyms have appeared such as “*roots tourism*” [Basu, 2004, along with the metaphorical play on words “*roots tourism*”, “*legacy tourism*” [McCain and Ray, 2003], “*ancestral tourism*” [Fowler 2003], “*lineage tourism*” (usually in a Chinese context) [Tan et al., 2001], or finally the term that has more recently come into wide use and best respects the broad and varied meaning of this phenomenon, “*genealogical tourism*” [Nash 2002; Birtwistle 2005; Santos and Yan 2009].

- *Atrocity tourism, grief tourism and black tourism (dark tourism)*,  
As Light (2017) states about the multiple terms associated with *Dark tourism*, among which *black tourism*, *atrocity tourism* and *grief tourism* “none of these alternative names has yet found widespread acceptance and the term dark tourism remains firmly established and widely used.” (p.282).
- *Congress tourism (convention tourism)*,  
According to the Encyclopedia of tourism (2000), *convention tourism* belongs to that part of business-related event tourism; the authors report that business type of events are basically “*meetings, incentives, conventions* (or conferences or congresses), and exhibitions, known as MICE.” (p.352). Later on, Getz mentions that “*Convention tourism* has been explored and featured in various textbooks (in Weber and Chon 2002)” (p.352).
- *Riding tourism (equestrian tourism)*,  
The term *riding tourism* has actually very little usage in the tourism world, with no significant consideration in the academic field. A plausible explanation of this little useage relies probably on the lack of specificity of the term, which does not have explicit reference to the core of the tourism type. In other words, *riding tourism* does not easily communicate the characteristic of this product (riding what? Bicycle? Waves? Horses?). Moreover, the use of the term “riding” to refer to activities with horses is used only sometimes combined with “packages” or “holidays”, as in the case of the website of Quinta da Marchanta, a very popular farm in Portugal offering *equestrian tourism*. On the contrary, this latter is actually very used both for promotional purposes and for academic research. It is interesting to highlight that many case studies have been carried out on a national level, for example for France, Poland, Hungary and Iceland, for different purposes like sustainable development, local development, tourism destination management and customer satisfaction (Konyves and Suta 2009, Kozak 2013, Pickel-Chevalier 2015, Sigurðardóttir & Helgadóttir 2015,).
- *Immersive tourism (Experiential tourism)*,

Very similarly to the previous pair mentioned, the label immersive tourism has received little attention on the academic side. Moreover, the word “immersive” is mostly used to qualify the experience or to refer to the type of tour or the type of travel, as in the case of Park et al. (2006). On the contrary, *experiential tourism* is rising interest as an alternative to all tourism products that can be considered as *mass tourism*.

A justification for the usage of the word immersive to refer to *experiential tourism* is given by Smith (2006), who explains that “experiences occur across two sets of dimensions: customer participation (ranging from passive to active) and connection or environmental relationship (ranging from absorption to immersion) (p.2).

- *Faith tourism (religious tourism),*

*Faith tourism* and *religious tourism* are two labels currently used indistinctly as in the case of the article about tourism in Turkey by Kurar et al. (2015). Smith et al. argue that this lack of precise terminology is a consequence of the difficulty in defining religious tourism. Many authors indeed refer to *faith tourism* only when trying to give a complete definition of *religious tourism*. If we consider the two labels in terms of usage, *religious tourism* is unarguably more frequently used than *Faith tourism*.

- *Muslim tourism and Islamic tourism (Halal tourism),*

The difficulty in defining the concept is frequent when it comes to very sensitive and complex subjects such as religion. Battour (2016, online) states, in fact, that:

Due to the multidisciplinary scope of the subject matter, there exist confusions regarding ‘*Halal tourism*’, ‘Muslim-friendly’ and ‘*Islamic tourism*’ terms. One challenge faced by academicians and practitioners is to identify the right terminologies as well as the proper clarifications of the concepts. As a result, ‘Halal tourism’ and ‘Islamic tourism’ ‘Muslim-friendly’ concepts are often used interchangeably by academicians and practitioners as if the concepts are similar.

The author then goes on with his definitions and terminology proposal, by suggesting that “it would be better to use ‘Halal’ as brand name rather ‘Islamic’ for any related product and service in tourism industry” because while the word

Halal means “permissible”, the words “Islamic” and “Muslim” are “precisely applied only to that which relates directly to the faith and its doctrines (such as Islamic law/Shariah, Islamic values, principles and beliefs, Islamic worship)” (Battour, 2016). Therefore, it is not appropriate to use the word “Islamic” or “Muslim” to refer to a travel experience.

- *Food tourism and Culinary tourism (gastronomic tourism),*

As Guzel and Apaydin (2016, p. 395) wrote:

Gastronomic tourism is rather a new form of tourism (Chaney & Ryan, 2012) and there are many different terms used for food-based tourism such as culinary tourism, tasting tourism, gastronomy tourism, and food tourism (Hall & Sharples, 2003).

Similarly, Sormaza et al (2016) agreed that *gastronomic tourism* is the most used label. Among all, the least used is *food tourism*, as is the shortened version of the more complete *food and drink tourism*.

- *Clubbing tourism and party tourism (nightlife tourism),*

The tourism academic field has paid little interest to this type of tourism from a taxonomy and terminology perspective, with multiple academic articles referring to the social impact of this type of tourism both on tourists and on host communities, but with a lack of clarification about definitions and proper terms. The least used term is *clubbing tourism*, while the most used is *party tourism*. However, the preferred term from authors is *nightlife tourism*, as it is the case of Tutenges (2012) and El Maaloug et al. (2015). The preference for this last term may be motivated by the widest implication it has, as it refers to all the activities that take place at night with the purpose of having fun, while the other narrows the possible experiences to going to a club or a party.

- *Reproductive tourism (fertility tourism),*

According to Speier (2016), *fertility tourism* has been, over the years, also referred to as *reproductive tourism*, *procreative tourism* or *cross-border reproductive care*. The two terms here discussed, *reproductive tourism* and *fertility tourism*, are, as in many other cases, used indistinctly, however the latter has a more frequent usage.

- *Countryside tourism (rural tourism)*,  
The two terms are indistinctly used by academics, as in the case of Dashper (2014). However, this author prefers the term *rural tourism* and uses it the most. An evidence of this is her edited book, "Rural Tourism: An International Perspective". Besides, the *Encyclopedia of tourism* (2000) preferred the label *rural tourism*, not even mentioning *countryside tourism* once.
- *Shock tourism (extreme tourism)*,  
When looking for a definition of *shock tourism*, a direct link to *extreme tourism* is given, as in the case of the *Travel Industry Dictionary* (online). Similarly, Aruljothi and Ramaswamy (2014) before providing the definition of *extreme tourism* write "*extreme tourism or shock tourism*" (p. 105). However, with the exception of this mentions, they sticks to the form *extreme tourism*. A possible explanation for the preference of the term *extreme* over *shock* is the fact that shock in the world of tourism is often used to refer to "cultural shock", that is, "the dissonance experienced when faced with cultural immersion in societies or destinations that are different from those to which people are accustomed" (*Encyclopedia of tourism*, p. 215).
- *Water tourism (nautical tourism)*.  
In terms of frequency, *nautical tourism* is the most used between the two terms to define this type of tourism, both from the academic side and the promotional side. However, it is interesting to say that, in few cases in which *water tourism* is preferred over nautical tourism in academic papers, those are more interested in the impact of this specific kind of product on the environment (Folgado-Fernández et al 2018, Tamiami Fachrudin and Lubis 2016).

A special mention must be presented for *nuclear tourism* and *atomic tourism*, that is, the travelling to sites related to nuclear explosion, experiments, disasters as well as museums with atomic interest (Gusterson, 2004). These two terms, atomic and nuclear, are used indistinctly to the point where Mazeikiene and Gerulaitiene (2018), in their paper about the educational aspect of this kind of tourism, decided to write that

their research was about “new educational *nuclear/ atomic tours*”. For this reason, this kind of double label is used as there is no valid criterion to choose one over the other.

On the contrary, in addition to the case of ecotourism and sustainable tourism (presented in the chapter “The challenge and prospects for sustainable tourism and ecotourism in developing countries” by Mbaiwa and Stronza (2009), which are types of tourism products that have several common characteristics but are not equivalent, neither of them will be removed. The same applies to other pairs of terms. Here are some examples.

Rață (2012) lists both *slum tourism* and *ghetto tourism*, which are often considered as two ways of indicating the same tourism product; nevertheless, as Jaeyeon Choe writes in *Encyclopedia of tourism* (Jafari and Xiao, 2000, p.395) “A connection can hence be drawn between *ghetto* and *slum tourism*. The former relates to tourists seeking ethnic and racial differences in the inner city, while the latter focuses specifically on economic disparities; however, sometimes the two overlap.”

Likewise, *drug tourism* and *narco tourism* may seem to indicate travelling to a destination with the purpose of obtaining and consuming narcotic substances, however only the former is actually related to this objective; in fact, *narco tourism* is not about the consumption of drugs, but it is related to the history of the drug cartels, especially in Colombia, and its main figures (Bloomberg LP, 2017).

One last case of types of tourism often confused as equivalent is the pair of *accessible tourism* and *inclusive tourism*; however, the former is part of the latter. According to Scheyvens and Biddulph (2017), “*accessible tourism* has value in that it seeks to ensure that tourism is produced with people of all abilities in mind, and can be consumed by people of all abilities. As such, accessible tourism is just one aspect of inclusive tourism as the latter is interested in all forms of social and economic exclusion and division.” (pp. 7-8)

Many adjectival tourism terms belong to the same macro-category, meaning a category which encompasses different tourism products that have a relevant common feature. The first that must be mentioned is *niche tourism*, since a lot of researches and professionals consider this macro category as the one that includes all the others listed. In fact, *niche tourism* is opposed to *mass tourism* as the former can segment the market based on the audience’s interest and wishes. In the catalogue offered by Rață,

three other macro-categories stand out: *health tourism*, *dark tourism* and *experimental tourism*, which will now be better explained.

*Medical tourism*, *dental tourism*, *fertility tourism*, *wellness tourism* and *therapeutic tourism* are the five categories (but there are also others) that are directly attributed to the main area of *health tourism*.

*Disaster tourism*, *holocaust tourism*, *slavery heritage tourism*, *slum tourism*, *ghetto tourism*, *prison tourism* and *poverty tourism* belong to the group of *dark tourism*. On the matter, it must be underlined that *thanatourism* and *dark tourism* cannot be made equivalent because while the former has always a strict connection to death, the latter is not only related to that subject, but also to other “dark” topics such as poverty, environmental changes or disasters. As in other cases, the two often overlap.

A special mention must be paid to *experimental tourism*; this particular form of tourism has been conceived by Joel Henry who described it as “a new way to travel based on scientific or pseudo-scientific rules. Traveling under such constraints turns travel into a kind of game. So experimental travel is something between a game and travel” (Bures, 2005, online). In the author’s contribution to Lonely Planet, 40 types of experimental travel tourism were proposed, but the ones listed by Rață are only: *aerotourism*, *alphatourism*, *alternating tourism*, *cecitourism*, *contretourism*, *erotourism*, *monopoly tourism* and *nyctalotouris*.

However, there is a difference among these macro-categories; while *niche tourism* and *experimental tourism* only work as “umbrella terms” to group other terms together, *health tourism* and *dark tourism* are themselves types of tourism products. For this reason, only the former will be removed from the final list, which will be composed of 121 adjectival terms that will go through a tentative of classification.

## 4.2. Tentative classification of adjectival tourism terms

Since this proposal of classification aims to take into account both the academic relevance and the marketing point of view, it must be underlined that the existence of such labels are used, on one hand, to look at how tourism is developing and which

forms it is taking and, on the other hand, to segment the audience to better target it. It is clear that the classification will mainly consider the adjectives used for each label; in other words, what the word used aims to stress for that specific type of tourism.

The list, created by eliminating step by step the invalid terms contained in Rață's catalogue, will now undergo the division into 5 categories, bearing in mind the before-mentioned dichotomy and the relevant characteristics each expression aims to emphasize.

#### 1. Time – When tourism takes place

Only two terms of the total 121 belong to the first category and that is the one that aims to emphasize the temporal aspect of the travel, meaning when tourism activities take place. They are *winter tourism* and *nyctalotourism tourism*, respectively, travelling between November and March and visiting attractions between dusk and dawn.

#### 2. Mode – How tourists intend to carry out their travel

A bigger category (with 20 entries) is the one composed by terms whose adjectives intend to stress out the ways in which tourists seek to carry out their travel, that can range from the impact they have on other people's lives to the mode of transport. They are listed below.

*Alphatourism*

*Accessible tourism*

*Active tourism*

*Alternating tourism*

*Backpack tourism*

*Cecitourism*

*Contretourism*

*Creative tourism*

*Ecotourism*

*Green tourism*

*Halal tourism*

*Inclusive tourism*

*Luxury tourism*

*Monopoly tourism*

*Participatory tourism*

*Social tourism*

*Stopover tourism*

*Sustainable tourism*

*Transit tourism*

*Virtual tourism*

### 3. Destination/Attraction – Where the travel is taking place

The third category (with 22 terms) is the group whose labels indicate a place as the attracting factor for its corresponding type of tourism.

<i>Aerotourism</i>	<i>Garden tourism</i>
<i>Agritourism</i>	<i>Island tourism</i>
<i>Battlefield tourism</i>	<i>Jungle tourism</i>
<i>Beach tourism</i>	<i>Mountain tourism</i>
<i>Bookstore tourism</i>	<i>Museum tourism</i>
<i>Border tourism</i>	<i>Prison tourism</i>
<i>Cemetourism</i>	<i>Rural tourism</i>
<i>Coastal tourism</i>	<i>Space tourism</i>
<i>Cruise tourism</i>	<i>Township tourism</i>
<i>Desert tourism</i>	<i>Urban tourism</i>
<i>Enclave tourism</i>	<i>Village tourism</i>

### 4. Hallmark – why that destination stands out

In addition to the personal reasons that prompt individuals to travel, there are other attractive reasons that inspire a tourist to select a destination instead of another one, mostly linked to what they can find there and the interest they have in it.

<i>Animal tourism</i>	<i>Geotourism</i>
<i>Archaeological tourism</i>	<i>Ghetto tourism</i>
<i>Atomic/nuclear tourism</i>	<i>Graffiti tourism</i>
<i>Celebrity tourism</i>	<i>Heritage tourism</i>
<i>Christian tourism</i>	<i>Holocaust tourism</i>
<i>Dark tourism</i>	<i>Indigenous tourism</i>
<i>Disaster tourism</i>	<i>Literary tourism</i>
<i>Doom tourism</i>	<i>Narco tourism</i>
<i>Entertainment tourism</i>	<i>Poverty tourism</i>
<i>Ethnic tourism</i>	<i>Shark tourism</i>
<i>Ethnotourism</i>	<i>Slavery tourism</i>
<i>Genealogy tourism</i>	<i>Slum tourism</i>

*Thanatourism*

*Tribal tourism*

*Tolkien tourism*

#### 5. Experience – what tourists want to do

With a big difference in size compared to the others, the last and largest category (with 50 entries) is composed of labels that underline the experience a tourist can have in a certain destination.

*Adventure tourism*

*Intellectual tourism*

*Beer tourism*

*Medical tourism*

*Birth tourism*

*Metaphysical tourism*

*Business tourism*

*Music tourism*

*Community tourism*

*Nautical tourism*

*Congress tourism*

*Nightlife tourism*

*Cultural tourism*

*Opera tourism*

*Dental tourism*

*Pilgrimage tourism*

*Dive tourism*

*Purposeful tourism*

*Drug tourism*

*Recession tourism*

*Educational tourism*

*Religious tourism*

*Equestrian tourism*

*Residential tourism*

*Erotourism*

*Riot tourism*

*Event tourism*

*Romance tourism*

*Experiential tourism*

*Scientific tourism*

*Extreme tourism*

*Sex tourism*

*Fertility tourism*

*Shopping tourism*

*Fishing tourism*

*Spa tourism*

*Gambling tourism*

*Sport tourism*

*Gaming tourism*

*Tea tourism*

*Gastronomic tourism*

*Therapeutic tourism*

*Gay tourism*

*Volunteer tourism*

*Golf tourism*

*Wellness tourism*

*Health tourism*

*Wildlife tourism*

*Hobby tourism*

*Winetourism*

It may be argued that the last two groups have very subtle boundaries and some adjectival terms can easily move from one category to another or that very similar

terms belong to different categories. In order to clarify this distinction, we will take as example *Narco tourism* and *Drug tourism* again. Even if they are both linked to drugs, *Narco tourism* has as main objective visiting places that are linked to drug traffic, while *Drug tourism* has as main objective the usage of such substances; in the first case the destinations are linked to drugs regardless of the visit of a tourist, while in the second case these destinations are linked to drug exclusively because tourists go there to have easy access to drugs.

In other words, some sites exist regardless of the tourist's visit but become tourism destinations due to their distinctive feature (hallmark category), while other sites become tourism destinations only due to the experience offered and would no longer be a tourism destination if the specific experience could not take place (experience category).

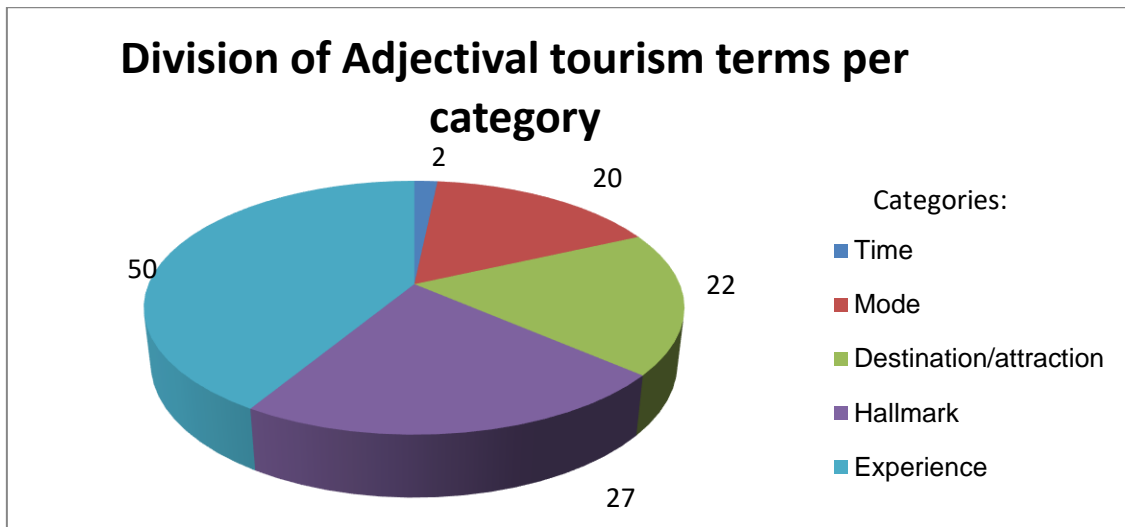
### 4.3. Synthesis of results

In the light of this classification, there are a few conclusions that can be drawn. Figure 1 represents the frequency of terms in each category considering the classification presented in the previous section.

First, we can notice that a small number of entries (2) are related with the temporal aspect, meaning when the trip take place. We can assume this aspect is due to an increasing trend in tourism that sees the rise of shorter but more frequent holidays throughout the year (staggered holidays) in detriment of seasonal long holidays.

*Destination/attraction*, *mode* and *hallmark* seem to have almost an equal representativeness for tourism since the resulting categories are comparable in terms of quantity of tourism types concerned with these characteristics. Even if they are not the most numerous, *destination/attraction*, *mode* and *hallmark* have high influence on creating specific types of tourism products and services. We can assume that, notwithstanding the recent trend of not being limited to sightseeing, that there is a part of tourists who still more interested in what they are going to visit and where they are going to spend their time than which activities and experiences they are going to do.

Table 2 Division of adjectival tourism terms per category



Source: the author's production

Nevertheless, the numbers show how experiences and the possible experimental activities are still the main focus of the tourism offer. As we will see in the next chapter, this preference is confirmed by the marketers' choice in terms of what highlight to attract more visitors, that is to focus mainly on what experiences a destination can offer. However, this is the specific case of the visitPortugal website and we cannot generalize this, as other DMOs may prefer focusing their strategies on seasonality (temporal aspect) or its heritage (hallmark aspect).

As the UNWTO stated in 2008, marketing stakeholders are interested in having a classification of types of tourism products. We can assume, based on the results of the classification, that the information obtained (together with other researches aimed to improve the understanding of adjectival tourism terms) may be useful from a marketing perspective, as they could be one more aspect to consider when deciding how to promote a certain destination and better design destination branding strategies.

From an academic point of view, we have discussed how these labels have not been a very interesting subject so far, considering the complete absence of any form of arrangement on the consensualization of their terminology. While elaborating this classification, numerous loopholes came out. To start with, some kinds of tourism types lack definitions, while others have no background in the literature, both tourism and marketing literature.

In the light of these considerations, it becomes clear that the aim of this study was to stress the potential of these terms for promotional purposes as it could be a very

efficient tool to analyze the tourism demand and offer, and target the potential tourist in more effective ways. However, before this opportunity could be put into practice, the study shows how it is necessary for academics to create some order among the very high number of adjectival tourism terms that are invented and spread, by classifying the terms and working on a proper taxonomy.

## Chapter 5 – The use of adjectival tourism terms in the Portugal’s tourism promotion

This chapter will focus on the use of adjectival tourism terms on the website [visitportugal.com](http://visitportugal.com), and will present three propositions about its partial use. Understanding the current use of adjectival tourism terms by one of the most award winning DMOs, could be helpful for shedding light on adjectival tourism terms use for advertising purposes and prompt the use of this tool by other DMOs. As we are not aware of the reasoning behind the use of adjectival tourism terms on the website, this dissertation will propose three possible explanations.

The first possible explanation explores the relation between the selection of the adjectival tourism terms used and the specific characteristics of the website contents; secondly we explore the relation between the adjectival terms used in the website and the national tourism strategy which could have motivated the use of adjectival tourism terms. Finally, we will take into account the Portugal’s current destination image and compare it with the one the DMOs in charge is aiming to pass via the use of adjectival tourism terms. However, before these propositions are discussed, the website is presented and analyzed.

### 5.1. Presentation of the [visitportugal.com](http://visitportugal.com) website

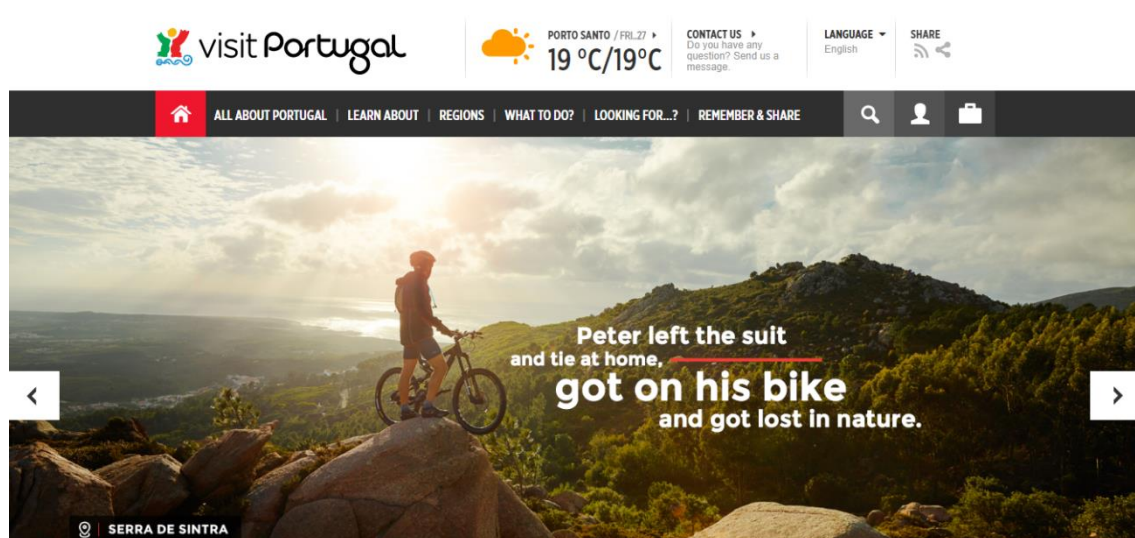
Visitportugal.com description in the “about us” page is the “official website for Portugal as a tourist destination [...] developed by Turismo de Portugal, I.P., the national tourist board”. It was awarded the title of “World’s Leading Tourism Authority Website”, by the World Travel Awards both in 2017 and 2018. In 2017 the same organization also awarded Portugal with the best tourism promotional campaign.

The website is developed by InfoPortugal, which states in its own webpage that [visitportugal.com](http://visitportugal.com) is elaborated with the aim of helping the user in 3 different phases:

1. the selection of the destination,
2. the journey to reach the place and plan the trip in all its parts,
3. the improvement of the tourist's experience while it is taking place.

These three main focuses are reflected in the main structure of the website, starting with the homepage. In fact, we could say that the main sections of the website can be categorized in 3 types.

Figure 3 visitportugal.com homepage



Source: <https://www.visitportugal.com/en>

A first type is concerned about convincing the user to choose Portugal as a destination, as it tries to attract and encourage tourists to select it. Within this group we can find the sections “all about Portugal”, “Learn about”, “Regions” and “What to do?”.

A second type aims to help the user in finding all the relevant information for planning the trip: the section “Looking for..?”, in fact, presents sub-categories regarding, for example, travel agencies, accommodation, events and useful contacts.

The same category “Looking for..?” also has sections of the third type, that is, those concerned with improving the tourist's experience while it is taking place. It contains sub-categories such as “transport terminals”, “transport companies”, “restaurants and café” or “embassies and delegations”.

InfoPortugal is also responsible for the production of content and its translation into nine languages (English, French, Italian, German, Spanish, Dutch, Russian, Japanese,

and Chinese). It is fundamental to highlight the fact that the non-Portuguese versions are translations of the website in Portuguese and not different websites in terms of contents; this is to clarify that the contents composing the nine versions are the same, hence they do not aim to target different markets based on the language spoken and content chosen.

As the only exception to what has been just mentioned there is the page regarding #Brelcome, a national campaign launched in March 2019 which has as target the English market. The webpage regarding this campaign is available in English only.

The English market in tourism represents a very important sector in economic terms. As reported by TravelBI (2020) in 2019 tourism was Portugal's main export sector for UK with receipts that reached 3286 million of Euros in 2019.

Considering this situation, the Portuguese government and tourism industry is very concerned in limiting the possible negative effects of Brexit on the national tourism, hence the launch of the campaign #Brelcome. The aim of the campaign is indeed to reassure British tourists that nothing will change, regardless of the Brexit outcome. More than the slogan saying "Portugal will never leave you", at the end of the page there are two links, one external to the website about the Health Passport and the other internal, bringing to another page of the visitportugal site ("Brexit: Information for British travelers to Portugal") containing practical useful information, also only available in English.

## 5.2. Adjectival tourism in visitportugal.com/EN

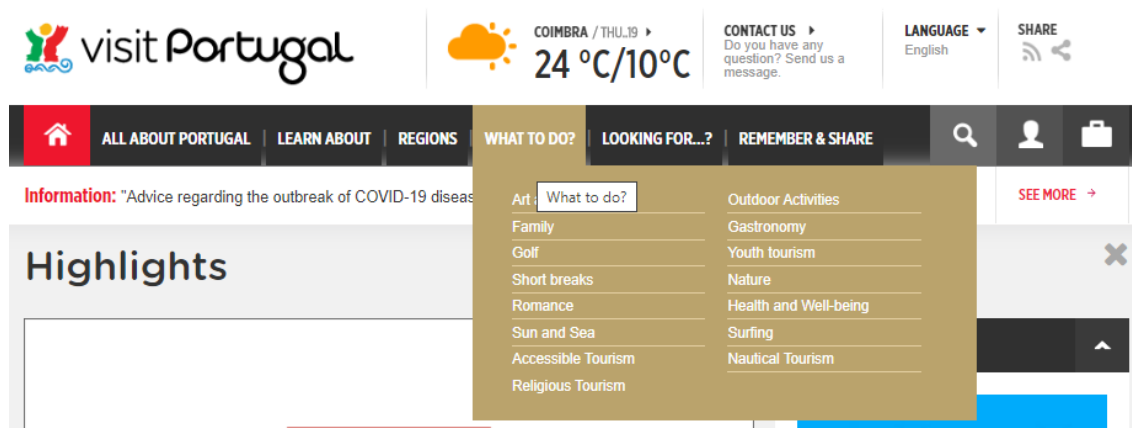
In this section the usage of the aforementioned adjectival tourism terms in the Portuguese portal for tourism will be considered.

In the section "what to do?" of the website visitportugal.com four adjectival tourism terms are already in use and they are: *accessible tourism*, *nautical tourism*, *religious tourism* and *youth tourism*. Two of these four, *nautical tourism* and *religious tourism*, were also present in the classification developed in chapter four and belong to the category named "experience – what tourists want to do".

In the section “what to do?” eleven more options are listed: *art and culture, family, golf, short breaks, romance, sun and sea, outdoor activities, gastronomy, nature, health and well-being* and *surfing*.

Although adjectival tourism terms for these segments exist, they have not been used in the website. They would have been, respectively: *cultural tourism, family tourism, golf tourism, city-break tourism, romantic tourism, beach tourism, adventure tourism, gastronomic tourism, nature tourism, health tourism, wellness tourism* and *surf tourism*. These adjectival tourism terms also belong, or would have belonged (if present in the list adopted in this dissertation in chapter 4, therefore into the classification), to the category “experience – what the tourists want to do”.

Figure 4 Adjectival tourism terms in visitportugal.com homepage



Source: <https://www.visitportugal.com/en>

A suggestion that the website is in line with the categorization created in the previous chapter can be found in the URL code of the webpages which always contains (except for *Sun and sea*) the word “experiências” (experiences), for example [www.visitportugal.com/en/experiencias/surfing](http://www.visitportugal.com/en/experiencias/surfing).

Although all seems to lead to the complete correspondence between the category “experience – what the tourists want to do” and the “what to do?” section of visitportugal.com, there is an exception that must be stressed. One of the adjectival terms already used in the portal, *accessible tourism*, actually belongs to another category, namely “Mode – How tourists intend to carry out their travel”. The presence of such type of tourism as an answer to the questions “what to do (in Portugal)?”, although it positively suggests that Portugal is an accessible destination and tourists with special needs can find activities suitable for them in Portugal, it seems to exclude

the other answers, as if in Portugal tourist can do beach tourism or accessible tourism, for instance. It is in my opinion that, to avoid this misrepresentation, information regarding accessible tourism should be inserted in the section of the page regarding “what are you looking for?”. This way tourists with special needs have the possibility to choose the activity they intend to do first, and only afterwards get useful advice about how they can carry out the activity chosen.

### 5.3. Content analysis of the portal visitportugal.com

The object of the content analysis here performed is the texts of some of the pages of the website visitportugal.com. Overall, three webpage contents have been analyzed, two of which have adjectival tourism terms as titles and one which has not.

As discussed by Santilli (1983), promotional tourism texts can be informative and/or persuasive.

As set of categories for this content analysis, we will take into consideration the *properties*, *techniques* and *registers* presented by Dann in “The language of tourism” (1996) and already mentioned in Chapter 2 of this dissertation.

#### 5.3.1 *Youth tourism* page

The first case to be analyzed in this section (*youth tourism* page) can be considered as having the two objectives at the same time, as it informs the audience about what Portugal offers to young people and at the same time tries to persuade them to visit the country.

Regarding the expressive function, that is, the sender of the texts, we can say that although it is not explicit throughout the paragraphs, it is anyway clear due to the context in which the text is presented, alias the tourism portal implemented by the

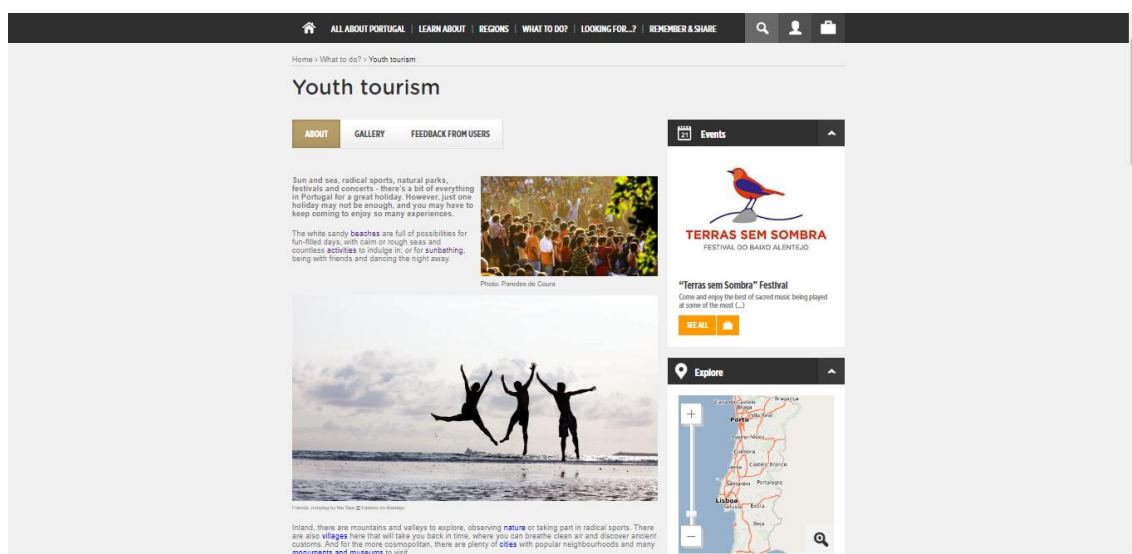
Portuguese government. Similarly, the addressee is not expressed in words, but it is given by the context of the specific page of the portal that addresses *youth tourism*.

As we are looking at informative texts, we can affirm that the referential function, that is the communication of the information, is explicit. We can find, throughout the text, reference to hostels, festivals and nightclubs, which are some of the products mostly linked to *youth tourism*.

For the phatic function, namely, to maintain the reader interested, the visitportugal.com combines short and simple texts with some photos. However, contrary to what was suggested by Dann (1996), there is neither an imaginative use of color nor unusual photographs. Moreover, while the typeface is user-friendly, the overall format is not, as the large pictures occupy most of the page space and the text, in comparison, is small.

Clearly, the poetic function is pursued by using very positive words to present the offer to young people considering visiting Portugal, such as “great”, “fun-filled”, “clean” or “best”.

Figure 5 Youth tourism webpage in visitportugal.com



Source: <https://www.visitportugal.com/en/experiencias/jovem>

Regarding the type of structure, we could say that the text follows the AIDA (Dann, 1996) scheme when it:

- captures *Attention*, by starting the text with the list of possibilities for young people applying the bold font to the first paragraph;

- maintains *Interest*, by describing the wide range of Portugal's offers according to the different preferences and budgets,
- creates *Desire*, by saying that "everyone needs a rest", and;
- induces *Action*, by suggesting the solution ("the key is to join in, get into the mood and have fun into the night!") and by giving specific links throughout the text to other pages of the website about beaches, hostels and museums.

The tense used is the present simple, with no exception from the beginning to end. None of the strategies based on the tense used were implemented in this text.

By reading the text, we can notice that the technique implemented is *keying*. Throughout the text of this page, some words have been highlighted and links to other pages of the website have been added. More specifically, examples of words with external links are *beaches*, *festivals* and *hostels*, which are clearly pertinent to target young people.

### 5.3.2. *Religious tourism* page

The second page analyzed also has an adjectival tourism term as title and it is *religious tourism*. In this page, the addresser is expressed with the use of the pronoun "we", referring to the Portuguese population. On the contrary, the addressee is not obvious, nor suggested; in other words, the audience is not specifically targeted.

In this page, once again, the text is informative which makes the referential function explicit, with mention to pilgrimage, chapels and religious beliefs. For the phatic function, in this webpage we can also see images, which appear to be larger in comparison with the font size.

Regarding the poetic function, that is, the usage of positive words to describe the content, in this page we can find "equality", "empathy" and "hospitality", in relation to the way Portuguese people welcome visitors.

In terms on strategies, for *religious tourism* the AIDA scheme has not been followed, however the push and pull strategy is used. Specifically, right at the beginning of the

text a push factor was inserted, (“whether in search of the sacred or on a journey of self-discovery”) and at the end a pull factor was added (“After all, we are united in the same spirit of equality in difference, joined in a common cause which is the ancestral openness to others that is characteristic of the Portuguese”).

As for the *techniques*, besides *keying*, also *ego-targeting* has been used. Unquestionably, the religious aspect plays an important part in the self-determination that pushes people to travel, hence the opening line of the webpage focuses on this human need and targets the ego of potential visitors. However, it is in my opinion that since this aspect plays an important role in the decision-making process, it could have been stressed more in order to attract tourists. Following the above-mentioned opening phrase, the texts focus on religion-driven attractions only (such as Christian sanctuary and Jews path), although the spiritual and not-doctrinal aspect could have been more stressed, for instance with reference to nature and peaceful landscapes, or yoga/meditation courses.

As for the tense, throughout the text, the present simple is used.

### 5.3.3. *Gastronomy* page

The last page analyzed is the one regarding *gastronomy*, as the example of a type of tourism whose adjectival term has not been adopted on the website.

In this page, the Portuguese population is many times addressed with the pronoun “we” and “our”, which makes the expressive function explicit. On the contrary, as the audience for this type of tourism is very broad, there is no reference to the conative function, alias the addressee.

As there is an accurate description of the main characteristic of the Portuguese cuisine, we can state that the referential (or informative) function is made very clear.

The phatic function is the same of the other pages considered, that is, small font size compared to the size of the picture, and also the poetic function is kept, with the usage of positive words such as “rich”, “excellent” and “delicious”.

No particular structure is implemented to make the text attractive. We could also say that the text is more informative than persuasive, as it mostly describes the Portuguese gastronomy, and for this reason the present simple is the tense used.

The technique implemented in this text is *linguaging*, that is, the usage of foreign terms in order to create a sense of confusion/mystery and eventually curiosity. In this case names of dishes in Portuguese are used, such as “cozido à portuguesa”, “queijo da Serra” and “pastel de nata”. The usage of such terms respects the characteristics of “Gastrolingo” that Dann (1996) presented when discussing the different registers of the language of tourism. The author defined *gastrolingo* as the “register of food and drink” (p.235) and explained how there is the implementation of a variant of *linguaging* that “serves to heighten the exotic qualities of a dish” (p.237). Moreover, according to Dann, the terms should not be followed by any description in order to create curiosity in the reader. However, on the contrary, on the *visitportugal* page, each term is followed by a short explanation (respectively to the dishes presented above, “a mix of meats, vegetables and various sausages, cooked in a delicious way”, “mountain cheese from Serra da Estrela” and “custard tart”).

#### 5.4. The usage of adjectival tourism terms in the website *visitportugal.com* - Propositions

Based on the usage of tourism terms in the website *visitportugal.com*, three propositions are presented in this section.

P1. DMOs do not select adjectival tourism terms to use in the promotional website based on the features of the webpage’s contents.

P2. DMOs do not select adjectival tourism terms to use in their promotional website based on their national strategy for tourism

P3. DMOs select adjectival tourism terms to use in their promotional website in order to promote a specific destination image.

#### 5.4.1. Adjectival tourism and webpages contents

The first proposition refers to the possibility that the selection of adjectival tourism terms to implement in the website *visitportugal.com* is based on the content of the site. In other words, this proposition refutes the existence of a correlation or coherence between the adjectival tourism terms used and the characteristic of the promotional and informative texts created for the website.

In order to understand this proposition, the results of the webpage content analysis are summarized in Table 2, which offers a comparative perspective.

A way to read this table is to focus on the second and third columns, that is, to see if the texts of the two pages analyzed entitled with adjectival tourism terms have the same characteristics, and then see if they are maintained in the last column. As we can see, they report the same outcome for the categories' conative function, referential function, phatic function, metalinguistic function, poetic function and tense. Even though this suggests coherence among these pages, the same characteristics are also present in the page *gastronomy*, which is not entitled after an adjectival tourism term. We can therefore assume that these are characteristics present in every page of the website.

*Table 3 Content analysis results*

	<i>"Youth tourism"</i> webpage	<i>"Religious tourism"</i> webpage	<i>Gastronomy</i> webpage
Expressing function	Not explicit	Explicit	Explicit
Conative function	Not explicit	Not explicit	Not explicit
Referential function	Explicit	Explicit	Explicit
Phatic function	Explicit	Explicit	Explicit
Metalinguistic function	N/A	N/A	N/A
Poetic function	Large images, smaller font	Large images, smaller font	Large images, smaller font
Structure	AIDA	Push/Pull factors	N/A
Technique	Keying	Keying – Ego targeting	Languaging
Tense	Present simple	Present simple	Present simple

*Source: the author's production*

It is, however, relevant to point out the coherence between *youth tourism* and *religious tourism*, not mirrored in the *gastronomy* one, in what concerns the technique. As we can see in the table, both pages named after an adjectival tourism term used the *keying* technique.

Therefore, we can state that the usage of some adjectival terms cannot be justified by content of the webpages entitled with an adjectival tourism term. Indeed, no substantial difference in promotional texts has been made between these tourism products, despite the usage of an adjectival tourism term, except for the usage of the keying technique.

As expected, in no case are adjectival terms presented to the readers, not even with small references for the metalinguistic function of the language, which could have in some way justified the usage of adjectival tourism terms as the title of the section.

On this topic, regardless of the label used, we can also notice the lack of consistency in the promotional language strategies implemented on the pages. Indeed, the basic guidelines of promotional texts are not closely followed.

#### 5.4.2. Adjectival tourism and the national strategy for tourism

Following the hypothesis that the usage of some adjectival tourism terms in the website [visitportugal.com](http://visitportugal.com) has been the reflection of some Portuguese tourism strategies, a brief content review of the most updated strategy proposed by *Turismo de Portugal*, that is, *Estratégia para o Turismo 2027*, has also been carried out. The reason why this document can be considered as relevant in this type of research lies in the fact that in the description of the strategy it is mentioned that “[*Estratégia para o Turismo 2027*] also takes into consideration the market and its trends” (2017, p.3).

The document was released at the end of 2016 and meant to establish the tourism strategy for Portugal for the following ten years. This means that this strategy is nowadays being implemented. Specifically, chapter 7 of the document presents five strategic axes with multiple corresponding lines of action. The axes discussed are

about valuing the territory and the communities and it is precisely in this section that we can find references to the adjectival terms used on the website.

One of the lines of action is about establishing tourism in the economy of the sea. In this section there is a clear statement about the importance of nautical activities and *nautical tourism* for Portugal. The sea is indeed also mentioned in the strategy as a differentiating asset; a resource that constitutes the basis and the essence of national tourism and makes it stand among other countries on a tourism level.

Among the lines of action for valuing the territory and the communities, another one is interesting since it contains clear mentions to *accessible tourism*. The objective presented is to “promote urban regeneration of cities and regions, and sustainable tourism development of territories / destinations” (p.55). The plans for urban regeneration are indeed presented as a required process in order to make the territory accessible to everyone, including people with different kinds of disabilities, reduced mobility and the elderly.

In the following line of action, references to *religious tourism* and *youth tourism* can be found. With the aim of structuring and promoting products that meet the tourist’s demand, the national tourism authority suggested the reinforcement of thematic itineraries such as the Fátima’s path and the path of Santiago and the specific targeting of a segment, the youth.

However, the youth is not the only market segment that Portugal intends to target. This last line of action clearly expresses the intention of creating “initiatives for structuring the products tailored to different segments of the demand (including specific products for, namely, families, elderly/ smart age, youth, surf, equestrian tourism, military tourism)” (p.55). As we can see, also family and surf are mentioned as specific products that the strategy intends to focus on, however their corresponding adjectival tourism terms are not used on the website, while *accessible tourism*, *nautical tourism*, *religious tourism* and *youth tourism* are applied.

Besides family and surf, also other specific products are mentioned throughout the document. *Art and culture*, *sun & sea* and *nature* are listed among the Portugal’s differentiating assets. Gastronomy is instead mentioned among the qualifying assets, that is, the assets that enrich the tourism experience and / or add value to the territories, leveraged by the differentiating assets of the destination. Well-being is instead considered as an emerging asset. This focuses on the assets that started to

be recognized internationally and which have high growth potential and may in the future generate high value-added movements and enhance the multiplier effect of tourism in the economy.

In light of this analysis, we can see that most of the entries of the section “what to do?” of the portal visitPortugal.com were mentioned in the document *Estratégia para o Turismo 2027*, regardless of the usage of adjectival tourism terms. Therefore, we suggest that there is no relation between the partial use of adjectival tourism terms in the website and the *Estratégia para o Turismo 2027*.

#### 5.4.3. Adjectival tourism and destination image

In this section we will take into consideration the destination image of Portugal and see if the choice made about the use of adjectival tourism terms can be motivated by a destination image management strategy. In order to do so, studies about Portugal’s destination have been considered, in particular the images mostly associated with Portugal as a tourism destination.

Before presenting the results of different works about Portugal’s destination image, it is important to reassert that the destination image is indeed an image or idea in people’s mind, therefore it is not the same for everyone but varies according to many factors, as, for instance, demographic factors, educational factors, and the cultural distance from a destination (Gartner, 1993). This concept must be stressed as we cannot consider the results of the studies presented as universal but as the result of that specific research. The first three researches considered in this section were carried out on national populations, from Sweden, Brazil and China, respectively, which make the resulting destination image valid only for that specific nation. In other words, for instance, since the Chinese population and the Brazilian one have different cultural distances from Portugal, it is obvious that the destination image they have of Portugal is different and that the result obtained from the research on the Chinese population are not applicable to the Brazilian one. Nevertheless, considering the result of the researches separately, they provide a general idea of Portugal’s destination image worldwide.

The first study considered to collect information about the current Portuguese destination image is a study carried out by Miranda (2015) on the perceived image of Portugal by the Swedish population. It shows that the images mostly associated with Portugal in terms of product/offer are related to sun and beach, to gastronomy and to cities.

*Table 4 Perceived destination image of Portugal by Swedish*

Which are the images or characteristics that you first remember when you think of Portugal as a tourism destination?	Frequency	%
<b>Weather (sun; warm)</b>	45	26,47%
<b>Food and Wine</b>	31	18,24%
<b>Ocean and Beach</b>	24	14,12%
<b>Friendly People</b>	21	12,35%
<b>Cities (Lisbon; Sintra; Algarve)</b>	13	7,65%
<b>Sports (Surf, Hiking and Golf)</b>	12	7,06%
<b>Architecture and Buildings</b>	9	5,29%
<b>Culture and History</b>	6	3,53%
<b>Scenery</b>	3	1,76%
<b>Nightlife</b>	3	1,76%
<b>Citylife</b>	3	1,76%
<b>Total</b>	170	100%

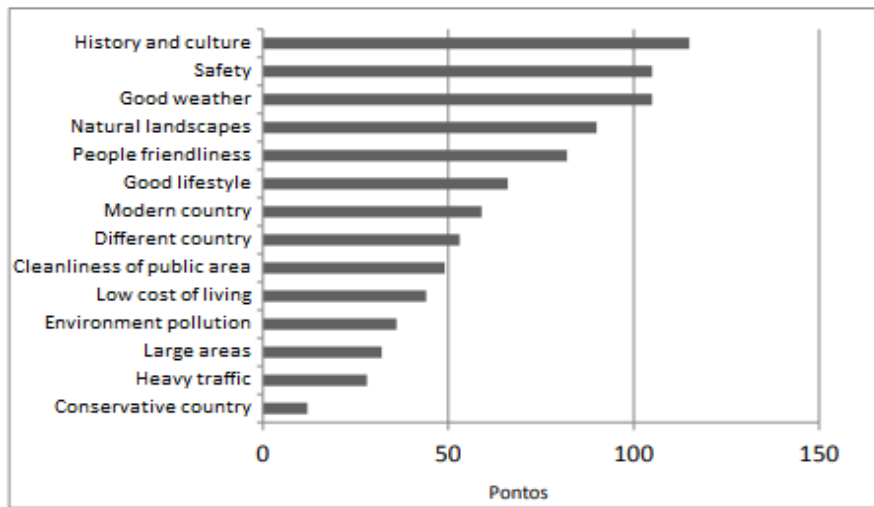
*Source: Miranda (2015: p. 47)*

Similarly, Costa Mongioli (2015) carried out a study on the perceived image of Portugal in the Brazilian market which also resulted in stressing the relevance of gastronomy and wine, nature and landscapes and culture.

Machado de Sousa Leão (2011) proposed an interesting research using a Chinese sample to analyze Portugal's destination image. Some of the results obtained are shown in the table below. As we can see from table 4, among the characteristics not related to the tourism offer, the culture of the country along with the natural landscape stand out.

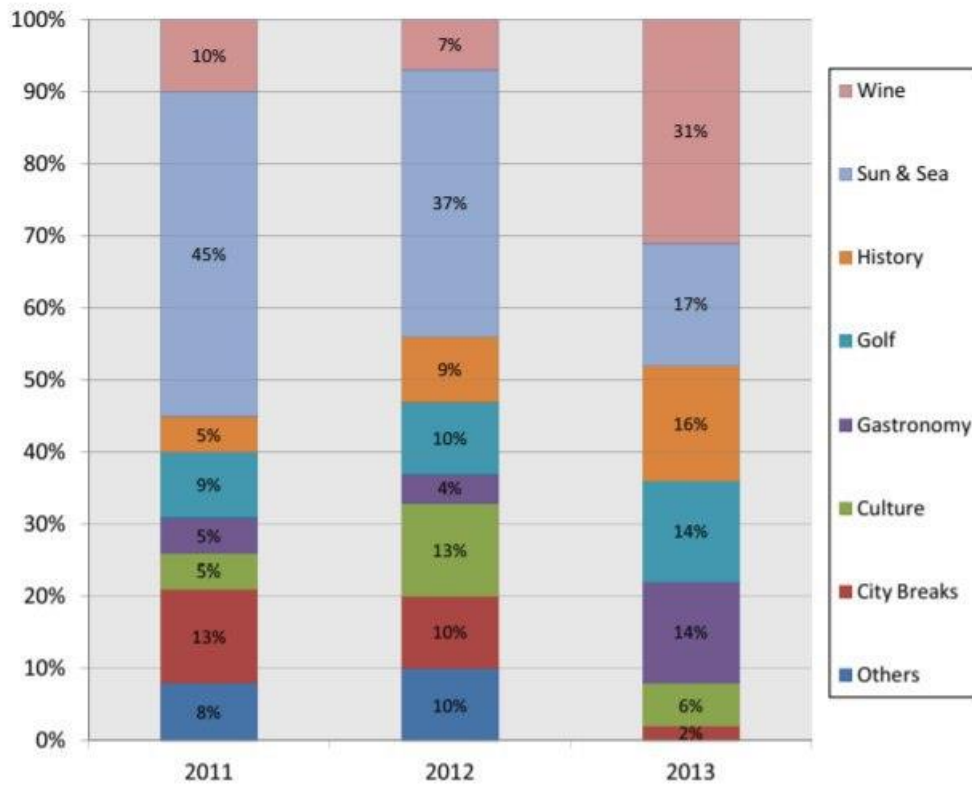
A research carried out by Montenegro et al (2014), using the United Nations World Tourism Organizations (UNWTO) Affiliate Members directory as population, showed the images associated with Portugal as a tourism destination during 2011, 2012 and 2013. As we can see from the table below, in 2013 the image of Portugal was mostly associated with wine, followed by sun and sea, history, golf, gastronomy, culture, and city break.

Table 5 Destination Image of Portugal for Chinese Market



Source: Adapted from Machado de Sousa Leão (2011: p.97)

Table 6 The image associated with Portugal as a tourism destination



Source: Montenegro et al (2014: p. 404)

In the light of the four reasearches taken into consideration in this section, we can state that Portugal as a tourism destination is seen as a place where the following tourism products can be found: art, golf, culture, gastronomy, sun & sea, short/city break, nature and wine.

Comparing this overall description of Portugal's destination image at an international level and the terms listed in the section "what do to?" of [visitportugal.com](http://visitportugal.com) we can see that there is some correspondance. All the attributions are in fact listed in the section, namely with the entries: Art and Culture, Golf, Gastronomy, Short brake, Sun and Sea, Outdoor activities, Nature and Surf. As we can see, none of the characteristics mentioned in the different studies is described in the website with an adjectival tourism term. On the contrary, none of the portuguese offer promoted with an adjectival tourism term is part of the destination image of the country. This seems to suggest that the DMO has chosen to enlight that offer for which Portugal is not famous for by using adjectival tourism terms in the website [visitportugal.com](http://visitportugal.com).

This strategy seems to be in line with results of a study carried out by Pan and Li (2011) about the relationship between the tourism destination image (TDI) and online marketing which focused on the online research undertaken by potential tourists via search engines. The authors start with the assumption that "phrases tourists use to describe their image of a destination may well be the keywords they use when searching that destination online" (p.133) and that DMOs could take advantage of this by applying this specific phrases of TDI to the contents of the website so that they appear as results of the research. The more specific (or niche) the keywords are, the more likely it is that the website appears as a result via the search engine (Pan et al., 2007).

In light of this theory, we can assume that the strategy implemented by the DMO in charge of developing [visitportugal.com](http://visitportugal.com) was not to focus on the terms that are already part of the existing destination image of Portugal, hence already associated with the destination, but instead on those that are not, that are those specific products that are not part of the imaginary linked to Portugal. The way of emphasizing those aspects was using the corresponding adjectival tourism terms.

However, it is important to stress that other entries, namely family, romance and health and wellbeing, were neither part of the image of Portugal, nor advertised using adjectival tourism terms, which could undercut the validity of this theory.

## Conclusions

The aim of the dissertation is, in fact, to prompt the participation of the academic and addressing the necessity of their contribution in the creation of adjectival tourism terms, by suggesting ideas and insights. Secondly, it intends to underline the potential of adjectival tourism terms as a promotion tool.

As we have seen throughout the dissertation, adjectival tourism represents a very specific segment of the whole tourism phenomenon which certainly deserves deeper interest and research. This need is not motivated by the complete reliability of the perfect effectiveness of adjectival tourism, but on the lack of studies that can neither prove nor contradict it.

Due to the limited knowledge and research about adjectival tourism terms, the approach implemented for this dissertation was the one of the exploratory research, which nevertheless has its limitations. Clearly, this dissertation is limited to tentative classification and propositions, hence it does not provide practical results on the potential of adjectival tourism terms as a promotional tool, nor does it establish rules for the creation of these terms. A second limitation has to do with the number of adjectival tourism terms that have been considered in the classification proposed, which clearly does not represent the total number of existing adjectival tourism terms but a random sample.

From a more academic point of view, the imperative of contributing to the creation and usage of adjectival tourism terms has been discussed. As we have seen during the revision of the list made by Rață (2012), nowadays there is no need for some expression or concepts to meet any requirements before being considered an adjectival tourism term. Therefore, we have found in the list terms not related to tourism directly, as *euthanasia tourism*, only because there is the word tourism in it, or terms that are related to tourism but are not a product, as it is the case of *niche tourism*.

As a consequence, this dissertation aimed to stress the importance for academics to take control of this topic and set some basic requirements, for example that only tourism products can be called adjectival tourism when it reaches a predefined level in terms of usage. This requirement, for instance, could avoid having more names for the same product. Moreover, academics should re-examine the existing ensemble of so-

called adjectival tourism to clarify which are the most appropriate terms to use and convey the professional attention towards the right expressions.

The classification proposed highlighted the relevance that the experiences offered by a tourism destination have, since the majority of the adjectival tourism terms analyzed were related to the activities tourists can do in a selected destination. This information, as the other gathered from the classification, is very useful for tourism professionals who have all the interest to have as many tools as possible to reach their aims.

Chapter 5 has, in fact, showed that the usage of adjectival tourism for promotional objectives is very limited and perhaps not well executed. From the visitPortugal portal we have indeed seen that only four adjectival tourism terms out of the 15 possible were used, one of which, *accessible tourism*, replying to the question “what to do?” which incorrectly leads to the assumption that in Portugal *accessible tourism* is an experience separate from all the other possible activities and therefore that all experiences in Portugal are accessible to everybody.

However, we have tried to understand the reason behind the limited use of adjectival tourism terms by considering three propositions.

The first hypothesis concerned the possible relation between the use of adjectival tourism in the website and the content of the specific pages of the website. From the analysis carried out, we have discussed that there is not a consistency between these two factors that could suggest this kind of reasoning behind the partial use of adjectival tourism terms.,

Secondly, we have investigated the usage of the terms of the section in relation with the national tourism strategy 2020-2027. The aim was to check the possibility that some adjectival tourism terms had been implemented for the strategic purpose of giving more relevance to some specific tourism products. This theory was contradicted by the fact that most of the entries of the “what to do?” section are discussed in the strategy, regardless of the usage of adjectival tourism terms.

Finally, we have investigated the current image of Portugal as tourism destination, which has resulted in the dominance of some attributions, such as gastronomy, culture, sun and beach, short breaks, golf and surf. None of these attributes has a corresponding implementation of an adjectival tourism term in the website. On the contrary, none of the adjectival tourism terms implemented (*Accessible tourism*,

*Religious tourism, Youth tourism and Nautical tourism*) had been mentioned in the studies related to Portugal's destination image. This aspect may suggest that the reason behind the partial use of the terms is part of a strategy that aims to specifically advertise the offer of the country that is not very well known and that is not part of the national tourism destination image.

This connection between online advertising and destination image, deeply studied by Pan et al. (2007) and Pan and Li (2011), indicate a possible use of adjectival tourism terms by the DMO and other tourism stakeholders. Pan and Li (2011) suggested that the way of searching online with keywords matches their way of imagining a destination and that "phrases or keywords represent different interests, goals, or tasks of users" (p. 138). The authors distinguish between keywords that have a large number of researches, representing large markets, and keywords with a small number of researches, representing small markets.

However, if we apply this to adjectival tourism terms, we could state that they are part of the small markets, which are the ones that Pan and Li (2011) suggest marketers should focus more on for differentiating purposes. The authors on the matter state (p.21):

for today's DMOs, it is becoming necessary and even more cost-effective on the Internet to capture the "niche" image held by only a few tourists. A new segmentation approach might be employed based on the distinctiveness of phrases the tourists type in.

In this light, we can assume that adjectival tourism terms could work as keywords dictated by tourists' perceived destination, or, on the contrary, could work as tools to shape the destination image that DMOs desire to transmit. Either way, it appears clear that further researches must be carried out.

Overall, in light of the outcomes of this dissertation, future research could concern, on one side, how the terms are coined, from which sources and on which bases; they might emerge due to the increasing demand of some peculiar tourism product or be the label given to a specific trend by tourism studies academics. Knowing the source of these terms could help discover a way to better regulate their creation and usage. On the other hand, future research could also be carried out to prove or contradict the usage of adjectival tourism terms as promotional tools, for instance, in the specific case of Portugal, if the label used in the website was used on purpose to shape the

destination image of the country, and eventually to find out if this worked, by carrying out research on the website users' opinions.

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