

Volume: 6
 Number: 2
 Page: 519 - 535

Article History:

Received: 2026-03-26

Revised: 2026-04-10

Accepted: 2026-04-25

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR FORMULATING TOURISM POLICIES: A SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW

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Abstract:

This study aims to produce a systematic literature review on the qualitative and quantitative determinants that model the formulation of tourism policies in the various contexts of destination development. Through a comparative analysis methodology and an open, axial, then selective coding process, under an application of the PRISMA protocol to the SCOPUS, Clarivate Web of Science, and JSTOR databases, including studies providing a conceptualization and/or treatment by variables of the constructs studied. The research deduces that 24 significant studies published before 2024 provide the conceptual framework for the evolution of tourism policies under three theories, namely promotion, sustainability and competitiveness, each of which is based on multiple dimensions and variables (items) of realization and implementation. Following the COVID-19 crisis, tourism policies assume a pivotal and fundamental role in shaping the future of the industry in question. The work was conducted by a single researcher (reviewer), which constitutes a major limitation considering the risk of exhaustiveness of the review.

Keywords: Tourism-Development, Systematic-Review, Tourism-Policy

INTRODUCTION

For a long time, the tourism industry has been considered a vector of economic, cultural, ecological, and social progress for the development of countries (Awang & Aziz, 2010, p. 53) (Jafari, 1974, p. 228).

By contextualization and dating from the declarations of the Manila conference organized by the World Tourism Organization in 1980, tourism is recognized as being an activity essential to the life of nations due to its direct, indirect and induced effects on societies at national and international levels (UNWTO, 2019, p. 9). During 2020, the industry faced an unprecedented health shock of international scope, which caused a drop of around 1.1 billion international tourist arrivals, with a loss of 910 to 1.1 billion dollars in export revenues, and 100 to 120 million jobs (Kumudumali, 2020, pp. 2-3).

It has led to structural and fundamental transformations of the activity in question, namely, an acceleration of the digitalization of production and consumption processes, flexibility in planning and economic models relating to destinations, new requirements for high qualification of human resources, as well as intense monitoring of risks and crisis management (Brozović & Saito, 2022, pp. 466-468).

Faced with these post-COVID transitions, the development of activity is seen as essential to the study; the latter constitutes the essence of tourism policies, whether in terms of formulation, implementation, and evaluation (Gao et al., 2022, p. 158).

These TPs are defined as a set of regulations, rules, directives, objectives, and development/promotion strategies that provide a framework within which collective and individual decisions are made, directly affecting the development of tourism and daily activities within a destination (Vanhove, 2002, p. 34).



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According to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the COVID-19 crisis has generated a radical, futuristic change in tourism by favoring long-term, agile policy strategies, focused on innovative, sustainable and competitive aspects (OECD, 2022, p. 16).

Knowing that the investigation into tourism policies (TP) is a major and mythical concern of researchers, particularly due to the capacity of this research to provide a clear and exhaustive understanding of the evolution of this industry, as well as to allow decision-makers to have monitoring and visibility on the advancement of knowledge and practices in this area (Guo et al., 2019, p. 12).

Iso facto, theoretical and experimental knowledge is abundant, which indicates that numerous studies theorize the conceptual framework and mention the various dimensions covered by TP's.

Faced with this profusion of knowledge, systematic literature reviews (SLRs) dealing with TP are limited in number. Therefore, this work is introduced as the state of the art, see the examination of the knowledge that has been promulgated academically for the purpose of the conceptualization of PT.

This study, pursuing the SLR method, addresses a unidirectional research question with direct effect (Hansen et al., 2022, p. 14): What are the qualitative and quantitative determinants that model the formulation of tourism policies in the various contexts of destination development?

The main objective of the work is to develop the conceptual framework for the evolution of tourism policies through an exhaustive, systematic, valid, and in-depth vision of the variables behind their theorization by academicians and their experimentation by decision-makers.

METHODS

Following the PRISMA protocol (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) (Page et al., 2021, p. 1) (Sharif et al., 2019, pp. 163-164) and in response to the research question, the papers included in the review meet the following criteria: indexation in the three databases SCOPUS, Clarivate Web of Science and JSTO. A publication date between 1960 and 2023, all types of documents are concerned, including gray literature.

The keyword query is constituted in the form of "tourism polic*" both on SCOPUS and Clarivate Web of Science, with mandatory mention sorting by title. For adaptation to the technical particularities of JSTOR, two requests were formed: "tourism policy" and "tourism policies," always with an obligatory mention in the title. Only papers published in two languages (English and French) were included in the three databases.

By filtering, the search categories that were retained on SCOPUS are business, management and accounting or social sciences or economics, econometrics and finance, or not defined. So, on Clarivate Web of Science are hospitality, leisure, sport and tourism or management, economics, business, business finance or social sciences interdisciplinary. No filter on JSTOR has been applied.

Due to exclusion criteria, studies published in other languages and outside the three databases mentioned were not subject to selection, and the same applies to those outside the study period.

Adding to that, documents not containing a conceptual framework or an analysis by qualitative or quantitative dimensions, determinants and/or variables (items) relating to the formulation, implementation or evaluation of tourism policies were excluded from the review. No minimum requirement for citations per accepted article was imposed.

On each database, an extraction of documents from search engine results is in CSV and RIS format (inserted into Zotero software). Which refers to the process, whose works met the inclusion criteria were grouped in an Excel file. A selection value is assigned to each document after reading the title and abstract (1=selected for complete reading, 0=not sure if selected, 2=not selected). Then,



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a value is assigned to each document after quickly reading the full article (1 = selected for the review, 0 = not sure to be selected, 2 = not selected).

At this stage, relevant studies were sorted by modifying the initial list of the bibliography on Zotero and inserting it directly into the qualitative analysis software NVivo.

Based on a comparative analysis methodology aimed at bringing together and processing a body or a set of researches theorizing a phenomenon or a theme by indicating the points of differentiation and similarity between the works, in order to provide a conceptual framework for mastering the object of the study (Shahrokh & Miri, 2019, p. 12).

Then, the study opted for an open coding process, listing the relevant data, axial generating the variables and then selective constructing the dimensions of the phenomenon studied. It is with the aim of carrying out a complete review of the studies, as well as extracting the qualitative and quantitative variables (items) which represent the various constructs of tourism policies, guiding the conceptual framework for formulating these (Thietart et al., 2014, pp. 205-209) (Luckerhoff et al., 2012, p. 25).

The analysis was carried out by a single researcher (reviewer), and a comparison by title and author of the articles extracted from the databases was set up to remedy duplication, with an attempt at direct contact with the authors for the documents without access or were unavailable.

The research was conducted over a period of six months, namely between September 2023 and January 2024, while the study remains qualitative with comparative reasoning, no process for risk prevention or reduction of analysis errors (bias) has been implemented.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The search covered a set of studies that were reviewed to determine their relevance based on the flowchart steps of the selection process, part of the PRISMA protocol (Sharif et al., 2019, p. 160). It appears as follows:



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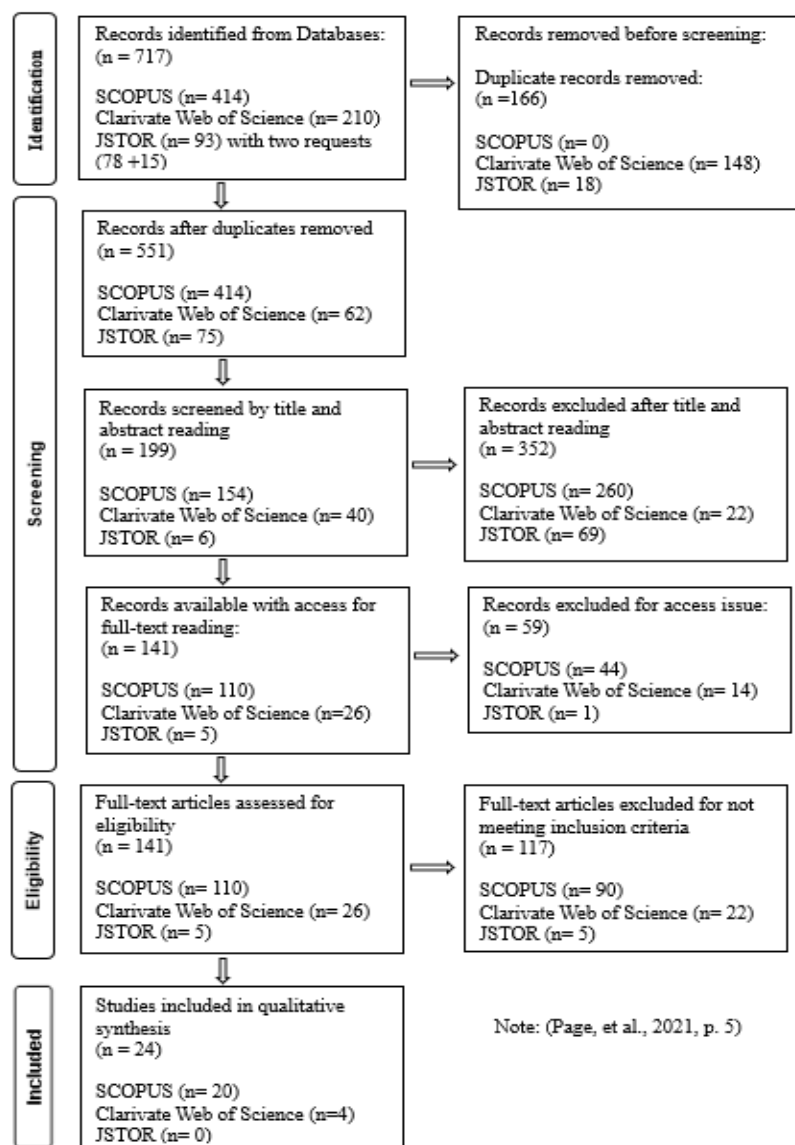


Figure 1. Flowchart of the study selection process

Tourism policy evolves between three general schools of thought or paradigms, namely the global, so-called classic one based on the promotion of tourism and the second, so-called intermediate, designed on the principles of ecological and cultural sustainability. Then follows a third, rather advanced one, supporting competitiveness. According to the literature, these different paradigms should be presented as follows:

Classic construct based on tourism promotion. The appearance of these models is accompanied by Fordist or mass tourism, which appeared after the Second World War and particularly during the Thirty Glorious Period (1945 to 1975) which marked the world economy with strong economic growth, full employment, rapid growth in purchasing power, and the rise of the mass consumer society (Tsartas & Lagos, 2012, p. 205) (Crafts & Toniolo, 2012, p. 6).

This Fordist tourism or mass tourism (appearing between 1950-60-70) is characterized by a standardization and massification of rigid tourist products and packages with accessible prices,



satisfying a lambda (unexperienced) demand for average income stimulated by tourist resorts offering the trio of sun, sea and sand (M. Williams, 2003, p. 3).

Moreover, if the essence of TP is tourism development (Gaoa, et al., 2022, p. 158), the latter and in the context of mass tourism was achieved through the promotion of the destination abroad, the investment in basic local infrastructure (urban and rural planning or layout, air, road and maritime transportation networks, etc.) and tourist infrastructure, in particular litter capacity (classified hotels and restaurants) and ancillary services (museums and entertainment parks, etc.).

The identification of poles of attractiveness, indicative planning under a partnership between the public and private sectors through contracts with multinational hotel chains, tour operators and airlines, product development and local tourist packages, the rationalization of institutional tourist structures, the professional training of human resources, as well as the anchoring of regulations and laws adapted to the growth of the activity in question, with limited attention to the protection of natural resources and cultural, given that for the quality of skills available on the labor market (Tsartas & Lagos, 2013, p. 205) (García, 2013, p. 10) (Farsari, et al., 2010, p. 148) (Chambers & Airey, 2001, p. 100) (Fayos Solá, 1996, p. 406) (Baum, 1994, pp. 187-188) (Baum, 1994, p. 261) (Jenkins, 1980, pp. 26-29) (Sessa, 1976, pp. 236-244).

These tourism policies treat the notion of "Hard Tourism" with a purely economic orientation (Krippendorff, 1982, pp. 145-146), in order to achieve the objectives relating to increasing foreign exchange earnings, contributing to the stability of the balance of payments, and improving the income levels of the local population (Fayos Solá, 1996, p. 409) (Krippendorff, 1982, p. 141).

Construct based on ecological and cultural sustainability. In the context of international debates on sustainability in the early 1980s, and before the academic theorization of the concept of sustainable tourism, authors on tourism policies noted the major importance of the integration of environmental and socio-cultural factors related to tourism development in the image of "Soft Tourism" making it possible to react to the paradox of "tourism destroys tourism" because of the overexploitation and exhaustion of resources resulting from mass tourism models, as well as taking into consideration the local quality of life for the benefit of indigenous communities (Guo, et al., 2019, pp. 1-2) (Baum, 1994, p. 185) (Krippendorff, 1982, p. 136).

With the conceptualization of sustainable tourism, the TPs forged for this purpose are characterized through three dimensions, namely, the economic sustainability of the activity, ecological and heritage/cultural sustainability (Farsari, 2012, pp. 725-727) (Tsartas & Lagos, 2012, pp. 205-206).

Concerning economic sustainability, TPs are identified for multiple purposes. Responsible consolidation of mass tourism through rejuvenation relative to the life cycle of the destination based on the attraction of new market segments, control of tourism growth by approximating the number of visitors and the capacity of the park hotel industry, reducing dependence on tour operators by opting for direct marketing, continuous development of the quality of local packages and products by improving tourist and para-tourist infrastructure (notably transport).

Enriching the existing mass product through the diversification of recreational activities, and the encouragement of responsible tourism consumption by stimulating tourists to rational behavior towards the destination (Suno Wu, et al., 2021, p. 6) (Khan, et al., 2021, p. 12) (Sánchez & Pulido-Fernández, 2014, p. 70) (Farsari, 2012, p. 725) (Farsari, et al., 2011, p. 1120) (Farsari, et al., 2010, p. 148) (Farsari, et al., 2007, p. 62).

The marketing repositioning and organization of the product destination through the diversification of products and services by opting for responsible and participatory tourism, a new branding focused on ecological and cultural aspects, and by promoting the image and identity of



the place. As well as the adoption of demarketing approaches for developed, or even saturated, destinations by leading tour operators to demand from their partners at the destination quality standards in terms of accommodation, catering, and recreational entertainment (Sunu Wu, et al., 2021, p. 6) (Maxim, 2015, p. 40) (Farsari, 2012, p. 725) (Liu, et al., 2012, p. 416) (Farsari, et al., 2011, p. 1120) (Farsari, et al., 2007, p. 62).

Sustainability of the local labor market by improving the rate of employment and entrepreneurship in the tourist market, particularly that of women, and increasing the number of tourist businesses that have survived after an average duration of their creation (commonly 18 months) (Sunu Wu, et al., 2021, pp. 7-8) (Sánchez & Pulido-Fernández, 2014, p. 68) (Farsari, et al., 2011, p. 1120) (Castellani & Sala, 2010, p. 877).

Address seasonality by smoothing (repartitioning) tourist demand over time and space by distributing tourists more equitably throughout the year. Moreover, attract tourists outside the summer season (Farsari, 2012, p. 725) (Farsari et al., 2011, p. 1120) (Farsari et al., 2010, p. 148) (Farsari et al., 2007, p. 62).

Economic diversity, which is achieved through the appropriation of the direct, indirect and induced effects of tourism by encouraging investments in other activities, as well as by minimizing imports of products from abroad, particularly by multinational hotel chains (Farsari, 2012, p. 725) (Farsari et al., 2011, p. 1120) (Farsari et al., 2010, p. 148).

Support indigenous communities by encouraging the launch of local tourism SMEs, encouraging a solidarity and equitable economy through a fair distribution of tourism income, improving health and social protection, and integrating residents into jobs created by tourism by encouraging them to receive education and training in these professions.

Adding the optimization of the added value of tourism per capita and the vacation rate of local communities benefiting from the income and activities in question, the strengthening of infrastructure and public facilities (Sunu Wu et al., 2021, p. 7) (Farsari, 2012, p. 725) (Farsari et al., 2011, p. 1120) (Castellani & Sala, 2010, p. 877) (Farsari et al., 2010, p. 148) (Vanhove, 2002, pp. 35-36).

Aiming at environmental and ecological sustainability, TPs are formulated through. The sustainable use of non-renewable hydraulic and energy resources through the reduction of overconsumption, recycling, and continuous treatment of wastewater, control of overpumping, although, the production of energy from renewable sources, especially for classified accommodation establishments, the promotion of ecological construction, the protection of tourist areas from erosion (Liu, et al., 2012, p. 416) (Farsari, et al., 2011, p. 1121) (Farsari, et al., 2010, p. 148).

Nature conservation, which involves protecting natural resources (including parks and air quality) and ecosystems through the identification of protected tourist areas through land use planning regulations (both zoning and zoning), as well as raising tourist awareness of the challenges of environmental balance and controlling visitor flows in these preserved areas in accordance with local reception capacity. Adding the encouragement of ecological and environmental labeling for tourism businesses (Khan et al., 2021, p. 11) (Farsari et al., 2011, p. 1120) (Vanhove, 2002, pp. 35-36) (Farsari et al., 2010, p. 148).

Urban management, reduction of pollution and minimization of waste by remedying air pollution, waste management and recycling by industry actors, reduction of traffic and noise, particularly in urban destinations (Farsari, 2012, pp. 725-726) (Liu et al., 2012, p. 416) (Farsari et al., 2011, p. 1120) (Castellani & Sala, 2010, p. 877) (Farsari et al., 2010, p. 148) (Farsari et al., 2007, p. 62).

Aiming at socio-cultural sustainability, TPs are formulated through. Conservation and maintenance of socio-cultural resources through the protection of sites and archaeological, heritage, and cultural elements by establishing financing and integration mechanisms to advance the



maintenance and promotion of the latter. As well as the intensive promotion of terroir (local) products (Khan et al., 2021, p. 11) (Liu et al., 2012, p. 416) (Farsari et al., 2011, p. 1121) (Farsari et al., 2010, p. 148) (Vanhove, 2002, pp. 35-36).

The quality of life of host communities by ensuring that tourist activities contribute to the conservation of traditions and morals, as well as social values. Also reducing overcrowding and congestion, ensuring supreme security and safety by supervising the consequences and negative hazards of the activity (crime, terrorism, etc.) (Sunu Wu, et al., 2021, p. 7) (Khan, et al., 2021, p. 11) (Maxim, 2015, p. 40) (Sánchez & Pulido-Fernández, 2014, pp. 68-70) (Liu, et al., 2012, p. 416) (Farsari, et al., 2011, p. 1120) (Farsari, et al., 2010, p. 148) (Vanhove, 2002, pp. 35-36).

The deployment of thematic infrastructure by modernizing the architecture of existing hotel and tourist establishments, as well as imposing ecological construction standards and traditional decoration, to enhance the local heritage image (Farsari et al., 2011, p. 1121) (Farsari et al., 2007, p. 62).

Collaboration and involvement of community stakeholders by requesting the integration of local non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in the safeguarding, maintenance, and commercial dissemination of monuments and universal archaeological sites by promoting cultural cooperation with international institutions (like UNESCO) (Maxim, 2015, p. 40) (Farsari, 2012, p. 727) (Farsari, et al., 2011, p. 1120) (Vanhove, 2002, pp. 35-36).

Other various variables are taken into consideration, namely, the implementation of comprehensive planning, political will under a public and private partnership, improvement of risk management systems, prevention, control, and reduction effects relating to ecological crises.

As well as the restructuring of the laws and regulations of the industry in question (classification standards, investment charters, subsidies, and financing of tourism businesses) in favor of sustainability. Adding the promotion of knowledge management in terms of this industry (Khan et al., 2021, p. 11) (Maxim, 2015, p. 40) (Sánchez & Pulido-Fernández, 2014, p. 68) (Liu et al., 2012, p. 416) (Vanhove, 2002, pp. 35-36).

Construct based on competitiveness. Subsequent to the period of global surge in Fordist or mass tourism (during 1950-70), a phase of post-Fordist tourism emerged as an industrial and operational response to the arrival on the market of new consumers (consumerist tourists in the early 80s) experienced undergoing regular changes in lifestyle and preferences satisfiable by flexible and customizable packages, new technologies, new forms of production, new management styles, as well as an active awareness of environmental and ecological challenges (Smeral, 1998, p. 374) (Fayos Solá, 1996, p. 406).

This period of post-Fordist tourism, also known as "The New Age of Tourism", is characterized by a hyper-segmentation of demand, a flexibility of production and distribution actors in the tourism value chain facilitating adaptation to trends and to consumer preferences, and the diagonal integration of tourism businesses and clusters (versus vertical or horizontal integration or diversification within the framework of mass tourism) using new technologies to integrate into key activities (even outside leisure) allowing them to continually approach their target customers (travel insurance, car rental service, on-site security and support, recovery of valuables, etc.) (Smeral, 1998, p. 374) (Fayos Solá, 1996, p. 407).

In this context, tourism policies arise through the theory of competitive advantages of destinations, whose objective is to achieve and maintain normal or extraordinary sustainable profits compared to regional and international competitors (Fayos-Solà, 2002, p. 6; Vanhove, 2002, p. 36) (Smeral, 1998, p. 374) (Fayos-Solá, 1996, p. 409). In this sense, their formulation is based on:



International competitiveness of factor conditions (endowments), these are natural resources, cultural and historical resources (monuments, cultural heritage, museums, art collections, customs, crafts, canals, events, etc.), resources in capital and general and/or tourist infrastructure, human resources (skills), competitiveness relative to factor prices, effectiveness and efficiency of production, commercial diversification of the destination and specialization of poles of attractiveness, as well as the homogeneous geographical distribution of tourist centers and clusters (Goel & Budak, 2010, pp. 536-539) (Fayos-Solà, 2002, p. 7) (Vanhove, 2002, p. 7) (Vanhove, 2002, p. 37) (Smeral, 1998, p. 375).

International competitiveness of demand conditions, this concerns the size and structure of segments (diversity of original markets, response to seasonality, degree of internationalization, share of long-haul travelers, etc.), positioning in rapidly growing markets, particularly through promotion, strengthening the tourist culture of consumers and host companies, protecting the consumer-tourist, as well as attracting experienced tourists, and generating new trends by participating to control and improve product quality (Fayos-Solà, 2002, p. 7) (Vanhove, 2002, p. 37) (Smeral, 1998, p. 376) (Fayos Solà, 1996, p. 407).

Competitiveness of the market and organizations, take into consideration a set of elements, namely, the competitive structure of the market and size of players, the quality of organizational management, the creation of alliances and public-private partnerships, cooperation between SMEs and NGOs, as well as progress in the adoption of various managerial and commercial aspects (branding, benchmarking, competitive and strategic monitoring, etc.) (Suno Wu, et al., 2021, p. 7) (Goel & Budak, 2010, pp. 536-539) (Fayos-Solà, 2002, p. 7) (Vanhove, 2002, p. 37) (Smeral, 1998, pp. 375-376).

Competitiveness of related and supporting activities, which depends on the ease of access to the destination, safety and security, high quality of services (public transport, banks, insurance, etc.), cultural facilities, entertainment and sports, the distribution of shopping centers, the food industry, fashion, public hygiene, well-being and health, etc. (Vanhove, 2002, p. 37) (Smeral, 1998, p. 376).

Competitiveness of local government through laws and regulations in favor of tourism, prioritization of tourism policy-strategies, exchange, interest, and income policies, mechanisms for consolidating the labor market, education and research, promotion and subsidization of investments, control of environmental pollution, barriers to entry and exit to the tourist market, staggering of vacations, etc. (Goel & Budak, 2010, pp. 536-538) (Vanhove, 2002, p. 37) (Smeral, 1998, p. 376) (Fayos Solà, 1996, p. 409).

Monitoring the effect of specific events that occur from different sources, usually socio-political instability, natural, sanitary, and financial crises, terrorist attacks, the organization of sporting and/or intraregional or global cultural events, new political visas for certain countries, and others. It is achieved by adopting prevention plans, crisis and disaster management, as well as a fast restructuring of the activity (Goel & Budak, 2010, p. 539) (Vanhove, 2002, p. 37) (Smeral, 1998, p. 376).

Some authors integrate various competitive variables specific to destinations, namely, the sophistication of competitive strategic planning processes (segmentation and target markets, product-market combinations, positioning, marketing mix strategies, organization, and financing), the effect on area scale measuring the market share of a destination in the regional tourism market, the competitive effect indicating whether a destination has a competitive advantage in attracting flows from a region, as well as the effect allocation showing whether a country specializes in attracting tourists from different regions by building its competitive advantage internationally (Vanhove, 2002, p. 38) (Alavi & Yasin, 2000, pp. 149-150).



Table 1. Overview of tourism policy paradigms

	Dimension	Variables	Authors (24 studies)
Fordist or mass tourism	Paradigm 1: Tourism policy based on tourism promotion		
	Destination marketing	Destination advertising Promotion of products and packages Digitalization of destination attractions	(Tsartas & Lagos, 2013,p.205) (García, 2013, p. 10) (Farsari, et al., 2010, p. 148)
	General infrastructure	Basic urban and rural planning (layout) Road network Air network Maritime network	(Chambers & Airey, 2001, p. 100) (Fayos Solá, 1996, p. 406)
	Tourism infrastructure	Classified accommodation establishments Classified restaurants	(Baum, 1994, pp. 187-188) (Baum, 1994, p. 261)
	Additional services	Amusement parks Various entertainment clubs Museums, arts and craft centers	(Jenkins, 1980, pp. 26-29) (Sessa, 1976, pp. 236-244).
	Poles of attractiveness	Coastal areas Tourist holiday villages	
	Mass products and packages	Massification on the 3 S model (sun, sand and sea) Standardization Rigid packages	
	Institutional structures	Indicative planning Administration and activity organization offices Promotion offices	
	Human resources	Number of annual diplomas active on the tourist labor market	
	Laws and regulations in favor of the activity	Classification regulations for accommodation establishments Public-private partnership investment charters Taxes and taxation Funding Grants	
	Natural attractions	Promotion of beaches, natural parks, forests and desert areas.	
	Cultural attractions	Promotion of historic monuments and heritage sites.	
Sustainable tourism	Paradigm 2: Tourism policy based on sustainability		
		Economic sustainability	
	Responsible and sustainable consolidation of mass tourism	Attracting new segments Monitoring tourism growth (visitors and litter capacity) Reduction of dependence on TOs Direct marketing Diversification of the existing mass product Expansion of tourist infrastructure Extension of para-tourist infrastructure Products and packages aimed at quality Responsible tourist consumption Ecological and cultural branding	(Suno Wu, et al., 2021, p. 6) (Khan, et al., 2021, pp. 11-12) (Maxim,2015, p. 40) (Sánchez & Pulido-Fernández, 2014, pp. 68-70) (Farsari , 2012,p. 725) (Liu, et al., 2012, p. 416) (Farsari, et al., 2011,



Marketing repositioning	Demarketing for saturated centers	p. 1120) (Castellani & Sala, 2010, p. 877)
Organization of the product destination	Territorial identity	(Farsari, et al., 2010, p. 148)(Farsari,et al., 2007, p. 62)
Sustainability of the local tourism labor market	Offers with responsible and participatory themes	(Vanhove , 2002, pp. 35-36)
Seasonality	Quality standards required by TOs	
	Professional integration rate	
	Companies surviving for at least 18 months	
	Women's entrepreneurship	
	Smoothing (repartition) of demand over time	
	Demand smoothing (repartition) in space	
	Tourists outside the summer season	
Economic diversity	Direct, indirect and induced effects of tourism investment	
	Minimization of product imports by multinational chains	
Indigenous communities	Encouragement of local tourism SMEs	
	Encouragement of the solidarity and a fair economy	
	Integration rate of residents into the tourist labor market	
	Integration rate of residents into training in tourism professions	
	Added value (income) of tourism per capita	
	Vacation rate of residents benefiting from tourist revenues	
	Health and social protection	
	Reinforcement of public facilities	
	Environmental and ecological sustainability	
Sustainability of non-renewable resources	Hydraulic resources	
	Production of energy from renewable sources by accommodation establishments	
	Recycling and wastewater treatment	
	Overpumping control	
	Ecological construction	
	Protection of tourist areas from erosion	
Nature conservation	Park protecting and air quality	
	Protection of ecosystems	
	Identification of protected tourist areas	
	Raising tourist awareness about the challenges of environmental balance	
	Control of visitor flows in preserved areas.	
	Ecological and environmental labeling	
Urban management	Reduced traffic	
	Noise reduction	
Reduction of pollution	Air pollution	
	Waste management and recycling	
	Minimization of waste	
	Sociocultural sustainability	
Safeguarding sociocultural resources	Archaeological sites	
	Monuments and museums	



	Heritage and religious sites	
	Promotion of local products	
The quality of life ensured by tourism activities	Conservation of morals, traditions and values	
	Reduce congestion and overcrowding.	
	Control of negative hazards of the activity (crime, terrorism, etc.)	
Thematic infrastructure	Architectural modernization of tourist establishments	
	New standards of traditional decoration	
Community institutions and actors	Comprehensive planning	
	Prevention and management of risks and effects of crises	
	Subsidy for tourism SMEs	
	Investment charters in favor of sustainable projects	
	Laws and regulations for sustainability	
	Knowledge management in tourism	
	Public and private partnership	
	Cultural cooperation with NGOs	
	Conservation of heritage under the directives of international institutions (UNESCO)	
Paradigm 3: Tourism policy based on competitiveness		
Factor conditions	Natural resources	(Suno Wu, et al., 2021,p. 7)(Tsartas & Lagos,2012,pp.205-206)
(International ranking)	Socio-cultural resources	
	Capital resources	
	General infrastructure (para-tourist)	
	Tourism infrastructure	(Goel & Budak, 2010, pp. 536-539)
	Human resources skills	
	Factor prices	(Fayos-Solà, 2002, pp. 6-7) (Vanhove , 2002,p. 37) (Alavi & Yasin,2000,pp. 149-150) (Smeral, 1998, pp. 375-376) (Fayos Solà, 1996, p. 409)
	Production efficiency and effectiveness	
	Product diversification	
	Specialization homogeneity of poles of attractiveness	
	Intensification of tourism clusters	
	Widespread adoption of ICT and digitalization of the destination	
	Area-wide effect	
	Competitive effect	
	Allocation effect	
Demand conditions	Size and structure of segments	
	Diversity of original emitting markets	
	Degree of internationalization	
	Sensitivity to seasonality	
	Positioning in high-growth markets	
	Strengthening local tourist culture	
	Consumer-tourist protection	
	Attraction of experienced tourists	
Market and organizational structures	Competitive market structure	
	Size of actors in the tourism system	
	Quality of organizational management	



	Progress in public-private partnerships
	Integration of branding, benchmarking, competitive and strategic monitoring
	Cooperation between SMEs and NGOs
Related and Support activities	Ease of access to the destination
	Safety and security
	Quality of public services
	Quality of cultural facilities
	Quality of recreational and well-being facilities
	Distribution of shopping centers
	Notoriety of the culinary industry
	Hygiene and public health
Government action	Competitive Strategic Tourism Planning
	Prioritization of tourism policies
	Laws and regulations in favor of tourism
	Foreign exchange policies
	Interest policy
	Income policy
	Promotion and subsidization of investments
	Labor market reinforcement mechanisms
	Entry and exit barriers to the tourist market
	Scheduling of public holidays
	Environmental pollution control
Effect of specific events	Shock prevention plan
	Crisis management plan
	Restructuring and reinvention plan

Through its qualitative comparative methodology based on a systematic review protocol, the study demonstrates a deep understanding of the determinants constituting the conceptual framework related to the evolution of the formulation, implementation, and evaluation of tourism policies.

Although the results of the work lack exhaustiveness for several reasons, namely, a choice limited to three scientific and academic databases, SCOPUS, Clarivate Web of Science and JSTOR. As well as a query with an obligation to mention keywords by title, and a filtering of works published only by journals belonging to the selected categories. Without taking into account documents published in languages other than English and French.

In terms of inclusion criteria, the lack of an imposition of a minimum number of citations per article included in the journal could undermine the quality of the latter. Adding that several articles dealing with tourism policies were excluded due to the lack of indication of variables or conceptual analysis frameworks, this could amplify the probability of omission.

The research was conducted by a single researcher (reviewer), in a period limited to six months, encompassing all stages of the review process. These details will surely have had a palpable impact on the completeness and academic integrity of the work.

Although the open, axial, and then selective coding mechanism based on a comparative methodology naturally leads to the removal of numerous variables (items) deemed insignificant due to the lack of their repetitive academic visibility (i.e., theorization by multiple authors) or



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information of current and/or future interest in the integration of each of the three constructs (promotion, sustainability, and competitiveness).

Taking into account all of these statements, the study completes the systematic literature review by strictly respecting all of the mandatory methodology and reasoning, while noting the detailed attention given to each of the phases of the work production.

Regarding the constructs obtained, it should be noted that the majority of the authors and the works discussed distinguish the evolution of the formulation of tourism policies into three phases, namely promotion, sustainability, and competitiveness.

Currently, academic and experimental interest is clearly shifted to the second stage, where aspects of economic, ecological, and socio-cultural sustainability are highly common, while traditional TP models based on the exclusive promotion of destinations are no longer in demand because of their adverse impacts on the existence, balance, and prosperity of the global and local tourism systems. Detecting a sharp slowdown in contributions to TP canvases established in the context of international spaces (tourism destinations) competitiveness.

CONCLUSION

Following the COVID-19 crisis, tourism policies assume a pivotal and fundamental role in shaping the future of the industry in question. Indeed, futuristic transitions in activity, particularly in terms of flexibility, agility, innovation, sustainability, and competitiveness of destination economic models (Brozović & Saito, 2022, p. 467) will directly depend on the ability of decision-makers to implement thoughtful policy strategies based on the shape of the targeted development.

Following this systematic literature review, three theories or constructs of TP crossing destination development models were developed through various modeling and experimentation determinants.

Firstly, for destinations operating in the initial stage of development, tourism policies are integrated into a context of Fordist or mass tourism, the construction of which is directed towards promotion with the objective of attracting a maximum number of visitors (Sessa, 1976, pp. 236-244).

Based mainly on dimensions (encompassing several variables/items) relating to marketing actions and efforts (advertising, promotion, digitalization of the destination's attractions), an implementation of the general infrastructure, that of tourism and services annexes (amusement parks, entertainment clubs, museums), marketing of mass, standardized, and rigid products attached to the 3 S (sun, sand, and sea), as well as the dissemination abroad of the potentialities, the assets, and the attractiveness of local natural and cultural resources (Tsartas & Lagos, 2013, p. 205) (Baum, 1994, pp. 187-188) (Fayos Solá, 1996, p. 406).

The role of tourism decision-makers is limited to indicative planning, organization of the actor system, promotion and marketing, professional training of executives, as well as the encouragement of investments and the commitment of promoters through subsidies, direct and/or public-private partnership charters (García, 2013, p. 10).

Secondly, and towards destinations with an intermediate stage of development, TPs focus on a model of sustainable tourism, or soft-tourism, whose construct is interested in the conservation and economic, ecological, and socio-cultural maintenance of destinations (Farsari, 2012, pp. 725-727) (Tsartas & Lagos, 2012, pp. 205-206).

In terms of economic sustainability, TPs rely on the responsible and sustainable consolidation of mass tourism, marketing repositioning, product-destination organization, sustainability of the local tourist labor market, smoothing of seasonality, and economic diversity of the destination by exploiting the financial effects (income) generated by tourism, while allowing indigenous



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communities to integrate, invest, and benefit from local tourism prosperity (Sunu Wu, et al., 2021, p. 6) (Khan, et al., 2021, p. 12) (Maxim, 2015, p. 40) (Sánchez & Pulido-Fernández, 2014, p. 70) (Farsari, 2012, p. 725) (Farsari, et al., 2011, p. 1120) (Farsari, et al., 2010, p. 148) (Farsari, et al., 2007, p. 62).

In the ecological sense, significant attention is paid to the conservation of non-renewable resources, the introduction of urban management, the reduction of environmental pollution, as well as the protection of ecosystems and nature by ensuring quality parks and air, the identification of protected tourist areas, raising tourist awareness, encouraging green labeling, particularly for classified accommodation establishments, as well as optimum control of tourist flows in compliance with the carrying capacity of the destination (Khan, et al., 2021, p. 11) (Farsari, 2012, pp. 725-726) (Liu, et al., 2012, p. 416) (Farsari, et al., 2011, p. 1120) (Castellani & Sala, 2010, p. 877) (Farsari, et al., 2010, p. 148) (Farsari, et al., 2007, p. 62).

The socio-cultural aspect of the TP is interested in the safeguarding of archaeological sites, monuments, historical, and religious sites by promoting local products, constituting a rich tangible and intangible heritage. Adding to this is the promotion of a thematic infrastructure with traditional decoration, in particular for new constructions. While ensuring the conservation of customs, traditions, and values of indigenous populations by controlling the hazards and negative repercussions of the industry (Sunu Wu, et al., 2021, p. 7) (Khan, et al., 2021, p. 11) (Sánchez & Pulido-Fernández, 2014, pp. 68-70) (Liu, et al., 2012, p. 416) (Farsari, et al., 2011, p. 1120) (Farsari, et al., 2010, p. 148) (Vanhove, 2002, pp. 35-36).

The role of decision-makers extends to comprehensive planning, the establishment of knowledge management systems and regulations in favor of sustainability, and the impetus for cultural and heritage cooperation with international non-governmental organizations (Khan, et al., 2021, p. 11) (Maxim, 2015, p. 40) (Liu, et al., 2012, p. 416) (Vanhove, 2002, pp. 35-36).

Thirdly, and specifically for destinations that have reached advanced development, tourism policies are drawn up through the theory of competitive advantages under the model of competitive tourism, also known as post-Fordist or The New Age of Tourism, whose TP construct aims to achieve the ability to achieve and maintain normal or extraordinary sustainable profits compared to regional and international competitors (Smeral, 1998, p. 374) (Fayos Solá, 1996, p. 406).

Regarding the theory, TP are modeled through several dimensions bringing together a set of variables, namely, the competitiveness of factorial conditions relating to endowments in natural, socio-cultural, capital, tourist and para-tourist infrastructure resources, skills and factor prices, specialization and homogeneity of poles of attractiveness, wide adoption of ICT, intensification of tourism clusters, etc. (Goel & Budak, 2010, pp. 536-539) (Fayos-Solà, 2002, p. 7) (Vanhove, 2002, p. 37).

As well as the competitiveness of demand conditions, citing the size and structure of segments, the diversity of originating source markets, positioning in fast-growing markets, the attraction of experienced tourists, the protection of consumer tourists, and else (Fayos-Solà, 2002, p. 7) (Vanhove, 2002, p. 37) (Smeral, 1998, p. 376) (Fayos Solá, 1996, p. 407).

Added to this is the competitiveness of the market and the players in the tourism system, bringing together the competitive structure of the market, the size of the players, the quality of organizational management, the constitution of alliances, and public-private partnerships, although progress has been made in the adoption of various practices such as branding, benchmarking, and competitive and strategic monitoring (Sunu Wu, et al., 2021, p. 7) (Goel & Budak, 2010, pp. 536-539) (Fayos-Solà, 2002, p. 7) (Vanhove, 2002, p. 37) (Smeral, 1998, pp. 375-376).

In addition, the competitiveness of related and supporting activities depends on the ease of access to the destination, safety and security, the high quality of cultural, entertainment, and sports



services and facilities, and the dissemination of shopping centers, among others (Vanhove, 2002, p. 37) (Smeral, 1998, p. 376).

Furthermore, the competitiveness of local government relating to laws and regulations in favor of tourism, the prioritization of tourism strategies and policies, exchange, interest, and income policies, mechanisms for consolidating the labor market, education and research, promotion and subsidy of investments, etc. (Goel & Budak, 2010, pp. 536-538) (Vanhove, 2002, p. 37) (Smeral, 1998, p. 376) (Fayos Solá, 1996, p. 409).

Ultimo, the control of the positive or negative consequences of specific events, often caused by socio-political instability, damage from natural, sanitary, and financial crises, terrorist attacks, and the organization of sporting and/or cultural events. By adopting prevention, crisis, and disaster management plans, as well as reinvention and restructuring (Goel & Budak, 2010, p. 539) (Vanhove, 2002, p. 37) (Smeral, 1998, p. 376).

The role of tourism decision-makers is globalized and manifested holistically through competitive strategic planning aimed at optimizing area, competitiveness, and allocation effects, showing if the country is specialized in attracting tourists from different regions by constituting its competitive advantage on an international scale (Vanhove, 2002, p. 38) (Alavi & Yasin, 2000, pp. 149-150).

Clearly, this qualitative study on the formulation of tourism policies could be extended to additional dimensions and variables. However, it provides an important and profitable basis for reflection, particularly for researchers and decision-makers involved in the matter.

While the major potential avenue of investigation consists of quantitative approaches to verifying and testing the relevance, accuracy, and operability of the determinants listed in the image of each of these constructs that shape the TPs.

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