Annals of Tourism Research 47 (2014) 31–47

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Annals of Tourism Research

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/atoures

# Tourism marketing research: Past, present and future

Sara Dolnicar *, Amata Ring [1]

*The University of Queensland, Australia*

ARTICLE INFO

*Article history:*
Received 9 July 2013
Revised 4 March 2014
Accepted 22 March 2014
Available online 7 May 2014

*Keywords:*
Tourism marketing
Marketing knowledge
Promise management
Big data
Tourism marketing knowledge grid

ABSTRACT

This paper creates a Tourism Marketing Knowledge Grid and uses it as a framework for the review. The grid reveals that extant tourism marketing research has primarily focused on how service promises are made and kept, and has mostly generated frameworks to improve managerial decision making or provided insights about associations between constructs. Strategic principles, underpinned by the understanding of cause-effect relationships, are rare. These findings point to exciting opportunities for future research, including increased attention on enabling promises made to tourists and development of strategic and research principles; increased use of experimental, quasi-experimental and longitudinal research designs, as well as unstructured qualitative designs; and an increased focus on the study of actual behavior.



## Introduction

Our review of articles published between 2008 and 2012 in the leading tourism journals indicates that 337 out of 1,088 articles (31%) cover marketing-related content. The *Journal of Travel Research* has published the highest proportion of tourism marketing research (49%), followed by *Tourism Management* (32%) and *Annals of Tourism Research* (14%). But what is the contribution of these articles? Have all forms of marketing knowledge been adequately addressed? What type of marketing research

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +61 7 3365 6702.
*E-mail addresses:* s.dolnicar@uq.edu.au (S. Dolnicar), a.ring@uq.edu.au (A. Ring).
[1] Tel.: +61 7 3365 6720.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2014.03.008
0160-7383/

methodology will best contribute to tourism marketing knowledge in the future? These questions stand at the center of the present review article.

A framework of tourism marketing knowledge, the *Tourism Marketing Knowledge Grid*, is developed and used to both take stock of past tourism marketing research and develop a future research agenda. The grid classifies marketing-related tourism studies by content area (for example, research into destination image) and the form of knowledge (for example, associations between constructs).

Content areas are based on Grönroos' (2006) conceptualization of marketing as a process that consists of making, enabling, and keeping promises to consumers. Grönroos is one of many marketing scholars to have questioned traditional perspectives on marketing in recent decades. Grönroos proposes a clear definition of marketing which consists of three content areas, making it particularly suitable for classifying tourism marketing contributions.

For the purpose of the grid, forms of knowledge are taken from Rossiter (2001, 2002) who postulates the existence of five categories of marketing knowledge: concepts, structural frameworks, empirical generalizations, strategic principles and research principles. Rossiter's is the only existing systematics of knowledge in marketing knowledge.

The review of tourism marketing knowledge is structured as follows: first, the two key constructs used in this review (marketing and marketing knowledge) are discussed and defined. Next, the *Tourism Marketing Knowledge Grid* is introduced. It combines marketing content areas and marketing knowledge areas and creates a framework for the review of tourism marketing research. After describing the approach taken, a stock take is presented, starting with early pioneering work which provides the building blocks for subsequent contributions. The section presents both an overview of tourism marketing research contributions and prototypical contributions in all cells of the *Tourism Marketing Knowledge Grid*. Finally, a section is dedicated to key areas of future work in the area of tourism marketing.

## What is marketing?

Marketing matches consumer needs and market offers (Lilien & Rangaswamy, 1998). How marketing is perceived by consumers and suppliers is critical, because a discipline that aims to connect consumers and organizations must be perceived as advantageous by both sides (Grönroos, 2009) to be effective. However, the predominant perception of marketing is negative. As Farmer (1967) puts it: nobody wants their daughter to marry a marketing man. "*For the past 6,000 years the field of marketing has been thought of as made up of fast-buck artists, con-men, wheeler-dealers, and shoddy-goods distributors*" (p. 1), "*What is "visible" about marketing is not the intriguing, truly exciting research work in a variety of behavioral and technical areas. Instead, it is the picture of some pitchman selling hair spray on television*!" (p. 2). The roots of this disrespect can be traced back all the way to Plato and Aristotle who felt marketers made money without adding value (Cassels, 1936).

The "marketing men" themselves traditionally viewed marketing as a toolbox for selling products, and perceived themselves as mixers of ingredients who engage in "*fashioning creatively a mix of marketing procedures and policies in his efforts to produce a profitable enterprise*" (Borden, 1964, p. 7). Borden also argues that marketing managers mix 12 ingredients: product planning, pricing, branding, distribution channels, personal selling, advertising, promotions, packaging, display, servicing, physical handling, fact finding, and analysis. A shortened version is now widely known as the 4Ps, where *product* is understood to encompass the development, design, branding, modification and elimination of products, *price* stands for setting the price for products considering costs, demand and competition, *promotion* covers advertising, sales, promotion and public relations and *place* refers to distribution channels decisions (McDonald, 2007).

Although Borden emphasizes the importance of the marketing manager understanding the market and the reaction of the market ("*The skillful marketer is one who is a perceptive and practical psychologist and sociologist*," p. 9), the interaction with the customer was not traditionally seen as being the key to success. Instead, marketing was seen as primarily product based and transaction oriented (Grönroos, 1996).

The past few decades have been characterized by an ongoing debate about what marketing theory is, which philosophical orientation is most appropriate, and whether it is art or science

(Maclaran, Saren, Stern, & Tadajewski, 2010). At the beginning of marketing as a discipline stood the identification of marketing functions (the *functions school*; Shaw, Jones, & McLean, 2010). This led to several lists of such functions, ranging from three (Clark, 1922) to 120 (Ryan, 1935). Later, the emphasis moved to the commodities being marketed (the *commodity school*), the groups of people delivering marketing functions (the *institutional school*) and the place where marketing takes place (the *interregional trade school*). In the middle of the 20th century new schools of thought emphasized the managerial perspective on the seller's side (the *marketing management school*; Jones, Shaw, & McLean, 2010) and developed key marketing concepts which are still in use today, such as the marketing mix (Borden, 1964), market segmentation (Smith, 1956), and the product life cycle (Wasson, 1960). Two other schools that remain relevant are the *consumer behavior school* of marketing, which focuses on the development of models of consumer behavior and relies heavily on psychological and sociological theories, and the *exchange school*, which views marketing as the exchange of economic values.

Discussions about what marketing is continue. The school of *relationship marketing* (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 1995) criticizes the exchange view, arguing that it fails to account for the importance of the relational engagement between organizations and customers. The *service dominant logic* approach (Vargo & Lusch, 2004) postulates that marketing is about the service-based co-creation of value, in which intangible, dynamic resources are more important than tangible, static resources. Researchers in service marketing in general (Zeithaml, Parasuraman, & Berry, 1985) and tourism marketing in specific (Calantone & Mazanec, 1991) have been aware of this co-creation process long before product marketing. Because of the inseparability of production and consumption in services in general and tourism in specific, the importance of managing expectations has always been obvious to service and tourism marketers. Therefore, the following definition of marketing proposed by Grönroos (2006) is particularly suitable to the tourism context:

> *"Marketing is a customer focus*
> *that permeates organizational functions and processes*
> *and is geared towards*
> *making promises through value proposition,*
> *enabling the fulfilment of individual expectations created by such promises*
> *and fulfilling such expectations through support to customers' value-generating processes,*
> *thereby supporting value creation in the firm's*
> *as well as its customers'*
> *and other stakeholders' processes" (p. 407).*

Grönroos' definition implies that: (1) value is not delivered by an organization, rather, the consumer is the creator of value (value-in-use) and the firm "*gets an opportunity to co-create value with its customers*" (Grönroos, 2009, p.353); (2) customers may not always wish to engage in a relationship, so non-relationship based marketing continues to be important; (3) marketing cannot function effectively as one organizational unit, instead a customer-focus attitude needs to guide the activities of the entire organization; and (4) an organization's marketing process consists of making promises to consumers, enabling such promises and fulfilling expectations that consumers develop based on the promises made.

Grönroos' definition applies to both tangible products and intangible services because a vacation is a promise (for example "an action-packed adventure") which can be kept or not kept like a promise relating to a product (for example "an immaculately clean floor" as a result of using the "easy to use and super-quiet" vacuum cleaner).

Grönroos' promises management definition of marketing is adopted for the development of the *Tourism Marketing Knowledge Grid* (Fig. 2). Knowledge generated through tourism marketing research is therefore classified into the content areas of making, enabling or keeping a promise.

## What is marketing knowledge?

Typical literature reviews focus on content, topic areas, or domains of application. Normally, they do not consider that each topic area can be approached in many different ways and that how it is

approached determines the form of knowledge that is generated. This, in turn, determines the way in which study findings can be used for future academic work and in practice. An understanding of the kinds of knowledge a scholarly discipline generates is critical for the ability to recognize the importance of any new contribution to the field and for reviewing the many decades of research. It helps to determine whether certain kinds of knowledge are over-represented and, more importantly, whether other kinds of knowledge are underrepresented and require more attention in the future.

The only systematics of marketing knowledge that has been proposed to date is that of Rossiter (2001, 2002). Rossiter classifies marketing knowledge into concepts, structural frameworks, empirical generalizations, strategic principles, and research principles (see Fig. 1).

**Marketing concepts**, the only first-order form of marketing knowledge, describe objects and give them a name. Key marketing concepts include market, brand, market segmentation, competition, and positioning. The nature of marketing concepts as a form of marketing knowledge as illustrated in Fig. 1 indicates that concepts exist independently from one another and that no relationship between them is implied. Concepts are the building blocks of higher-order forms of marketing knowledge. **Research concepts** can be seen as a sub-category of marketing concepts, and are limited to research approaches.

Second-order forms of marketing knowledge consider several marketing concepts simultaneously. They are descriptive or exploratory in nature. **Structural frameworks** lead to managerial recommendations without implying causal relationships between the marketing concepts involved. Their contribution lies in helping to structure a problem. **Empirical generalizations** postulate associations between marketing constructs. They do not, however, permit causal conclusions to be drawn.

Third-order forms of knowledge are needed to identify reasons for associations between constructs. **Strategic principles** can therefore serve as a recommender system for marketing managers. They can be derived from experimental designs, longitudinal individual-level data or deductive logic; the latter being the approach recommended by Rossiter (2012). Strategic principles lead to clear "if, do" recommendations. **Research principles** are principles relating to research approaches. Including research principles as a form of knowledge is important to any discipline, because they guide researchers in defining concepts, formulating structural frameworks, observing empirical generalizations, and testing strategic principles. They have the general form of providing "if, use" guidelines.

## The tourism marketing knowledge grid

The identification of content areas within marketing and forms of knowledge in marketing makes is possible to develop a two-dimensional systematics forming the basis for a review of literature and the development of a future research agenda. The *Tourism Marketing Knowledge Grid* is provided in Fig. 2. Given three content areas (making, enabling, and keeping a promise to the consumer) and five forms of knowledge (concepts, frameworks, empirical generalizations, strategic principles and research principles) and given that research principles do not relate to a specific content area, 13 kinds of contributions to knowledge can be made by tourism marketing studies.

But what distribution across cells of the grid is expected? A purely statistical perspective would dictate that all areas are studied equally, leading to a share of 7.7 per cent of studies expected in each cell (as illustrated in Fig. 2a).

However, this statistical position does not account for the fact that research disciplines—as they grow and mature—demand contributions of a different nature. An emerging discipline needs first to define concepts of interest; whereas in mature disciplines only the emergence of new constructs will require the generation of first-order knowledge. In tourism marketing, new concepts continue to emerge, such as social media, or electronic word of mouth. Therefore, a small proportion of research dedicated to the definition and conceptualization of new concepts is expected.

Structural frameworks and empirical generalizations are descriptive in nature. They are therefore suited for young research disciplines that are exploring associations, trying to make sense of what they observe (for example, how tourists plan their vacations), and generating hypotheses. However, as the understanding of phenomena increases, research disciplines redirect efforts towards generating firm, empirical evidence about phenomena. This involves strategic principles (if the work relates to concepts) or research principles (if it relates to research methods). It is reasonable to expect, therefore,

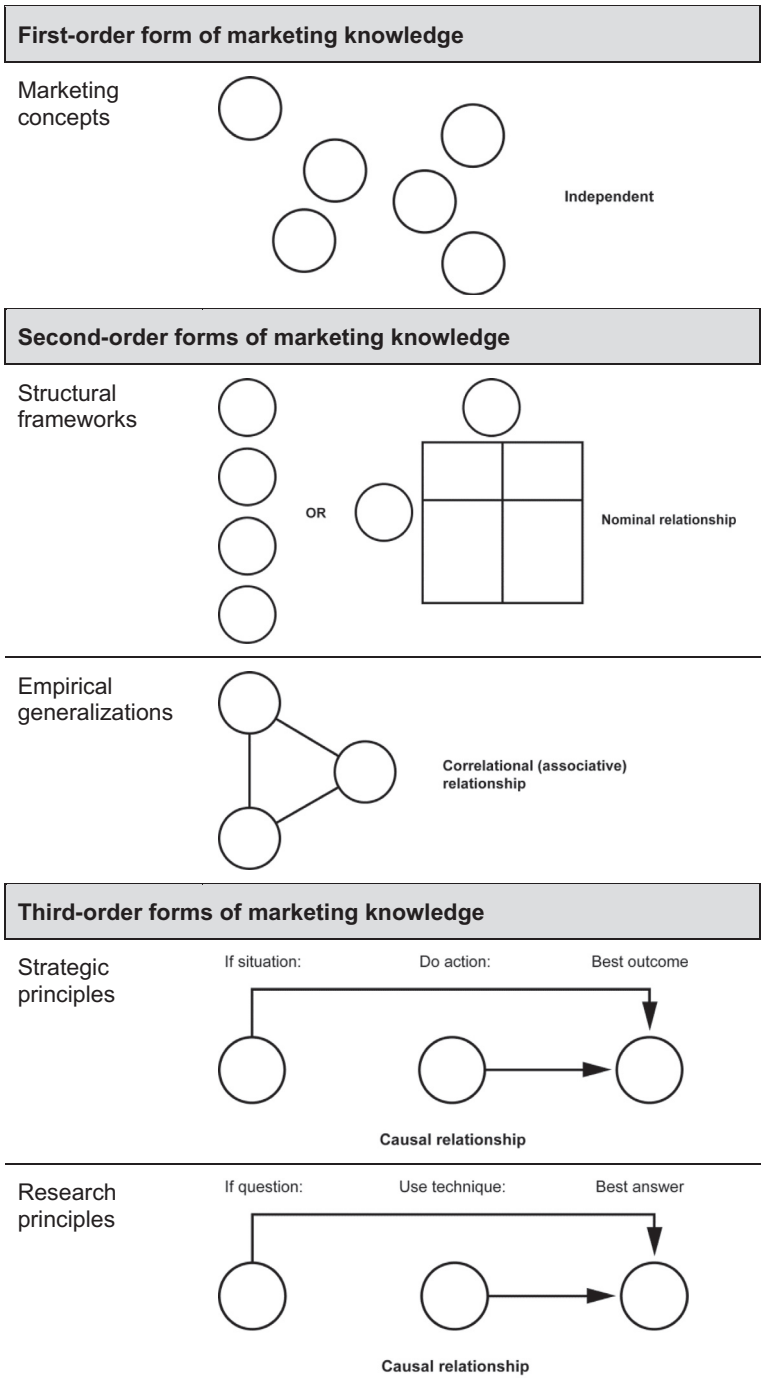


**Fig. 1.** Forms of marketing knowledge (Reprinted from Rossiter, 2002 with permission from SAGE).

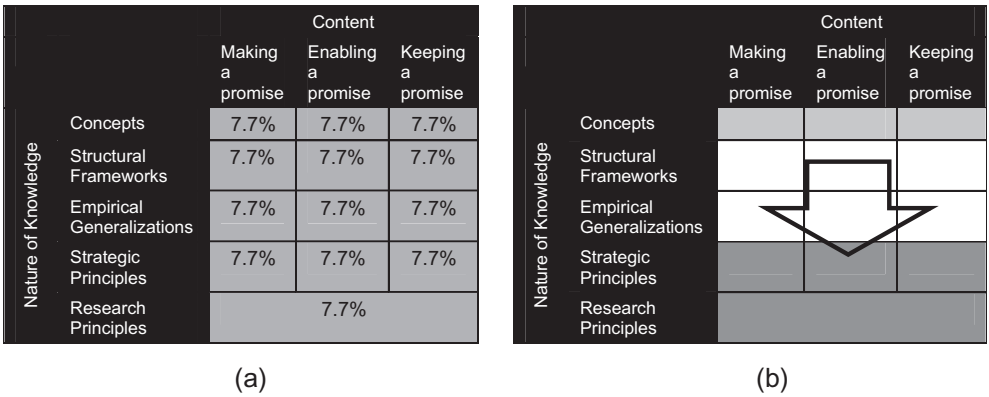


**Fig. 2.** The tourism marketing knowledge grid. (a) Statistical expectation of distribution of studies. (b) Expectation of distribution of studies in a maturing research discipline.

that less effort is directed into second-order forms of knowledge and more into third-order forms, as illustrated by the arrow in Fig. 2b. In tourism marketing research (a sub-discipline under both marketing and tourism, which has been active for at least 35 years) the expected pattern of distribution would be as indicated by the grey cells in Fig. 2b: still some work on concepts is needed as they emerge across all content areas, a lot of work is needed in the area of principles and less focus is required on structural frameworks and empirical generalizations.

## Methodology

To determine the actual distribution of tourism marketing studies across the *Tourism Marketing Knowledge Grid*, all 337 marketing-related studies that were published in the three leading tourism journals over the past five years (2008–2012) have been classified into one of the 13 cells of the grid. Articles published in the past five years have been chosen because—given that knowledge development is a cumulative process—it can be expected that work undertaken in the past five years reflects contributions made before that time. However, a small number of pioneering contributions is also discussed, representing some of the earliest published articles falling in the cells of the *Tourism Marketing Knowledge Grid*.

The 337 marketing studies were identified by searching for marketing-related terms in the title, abstract, and keywords of the articles. The keywords[2] were compiled based on a leading marketing textbook (Kotler & Keller, 2012) as well as a previous review article on tourism marketing (Oh, Kim, & Shin, 2004). The completeness of the keyword list was pretested on one issue of each of the journals, where articles not classified as being marketing related were examined to ensure nothing was missed. Articles detected via the keywords but found not to be marketing related (for example where the keyword "distribution" referred to a statistical distribution) were not further considered.

To ensure that key contributions published (1) in tourism journals before 2008 or (2) in journals outside of the tourism discipline were not missed, an additional analysis was conducted using the

[2] Advertising, big data, blog*, blog analytics, brand equity, brand extension*, brand identity, brand image, brand personality, branding, business analytics, choice, complain*, consumer behavior*, consumer generated content, customer relationship, data mining, database marketing, decision making, decision support, destination choice, destination image, direct marketing, direct selling, distribution, electronic marketing, e-marketing, e-tourism, information search, internet marketing, loyalty, marketing campaign, marketing communication, marketing mix, marketing strategy, market research, motivation, novelty seeking, online marketing, personal selling, positioning, pricing, product development, product strategy, promotion, public relation*, pull factor*, push and pull factors, push factor*, recommender, relationship marketing, reservation system*, satisfaction, search engine marketing, segmentation, service quality, service recovery, social media, sponsoring, sponsorship, strategic marketing, strategic planning, supply chain, targeting, tourism marketing, tourist behavior*, variety seeking, web marketing, weblog*, willingness to pay, word of mouth. Asterisks mark keywords where wildcard search was used.

SCOPUS database, the largest multi-disciplinary international journal data base. The same keywords were used as for the original review and "tourism" was added to those search terms. There was no restriction on the time frame or publication outlet. A total of 10,535 articles were identified using this approach. They were sorted by citations, and 617 articles that attracted half of all citations of the total 10,535 articles were selected for further inspection. Of those, 73% were published in *Annals of Tourism Research*, *Journal of Travel Research* and *Tourism Management* (confirming the choice of those three journals for the main review), 9% were published in other tourism journals, and 18% in non-tourism journals. The additional 27% of papers (164 papers; references available upon request) were reviewed in detail, leading to the conclusion that they did not contain any unique tourism marketing knowledge contributions thus adequately reflecting the picture painted in the 337 reviewed articles based on the top three tourism journals.

The approach is limited in three ways: First of all, not all articles ever published on the topic of tourism marketing have been included. Second, not all of the 337 studies fell unambiguously into one of the 13 grid cells. Such cases were assigned to the cell which better represented the primary contribution of the paper. Finally, key terms had to be included in the title, abstract or keyword. This may have led to the omission of some papers that failed to clearly articulate the key contribution in those sections. However, such omissions would have occurred across all content areas and across all knowledge areas equally and therefore a small number of omissions would not systematically bias the results.

## Tourism marketing research—a stock take

Before discussing tourism marketing research generated in the past five years, contributions by pioneers of tourism marketing research are briefly discussed. This discussion is included because knowledge development is cumulative and the pioneering work in the area of tourism marketing knowledge represents the first building blocks of knowledge, on which all subsequent work is built. It is also assumed, as predicted by the *Tourism Marketing Knowledge Grid*, that—while the pioneers of tourism marketing are likely to have started off work across all cells in the grid—the major contribution of the pioneers will lie in the introduction of key concepts. This assumption is quickly confirmed.

For example, Jafari (1974) defines the terms tourist, tourism product, and tourism industry, and uses the analogy of a market basket of goods to illustrate how tourists choose local goods and services at a tourist destination. Jafari also points to the importance of tourists' personal satisfaction with tourist experiences and how satisfaction becomes critical to consumers' willingness to pay. Jafari highlights that satisfaction is not merely a function of the goods and services purchased. Instead, as postulated later by Grönroos, satisfaction results from tourist and service provider co-creation. Ritchie and Zins (1978) add to this work by introducing the concept of destination attractiveness and conceptualizing it in more detail. These factors contribute to the attractiveness of a tourism region, thus effectively mapping the key areas relevant to making, enabling, and keeping promises to tourists.

Pizam, Neumann, and Reichel (1978) define the concept of tourist satisfaction as "*the result of the interaction between a tourist's experience at the destination area and the expectations ... about that destination*" (p. 315) and explore the underlying factors of tourist satisfaction. Importantly, at the center of the concept of satisfaction stands the expectation that it is the result of promises made by the tourist destination, the tour operator, or travel agent, and the assessment of the degree to which this promise was kept. Two years later, Taylor (1980) conceptualizes the tourism product as "*a satisfying experience*" (p. 56), and further specifies that "*trips may be differentiated by the experience sought (product) and the discrete services necessary for its attainment (plant)*" (p. 57). Taylor emphasizes the importance of identifying and understanding differences in experiences sought among different segments of tourists, in order to determine which goods and services need to be provided to satisfy their needs. Taylor suggests using a demand-supply matrix, effectively a structural framework, to compare segment needs and available resources to assist destination managers in selecting market segments.

Similarly, Bonnett (1982) proposes a structural framework consisting of marketing activities, market segments and geographical areas as the basis of developing marketing plans which in turn inform a marketing budget allocation. Even earlier, Plog's (1974) work on the psychology of tourists exemplifies a structural framework about *making a promise*. His psychographic typology of tourists links two concepts: tourists' psychographics and the destination life cycle. This framework can assist destination

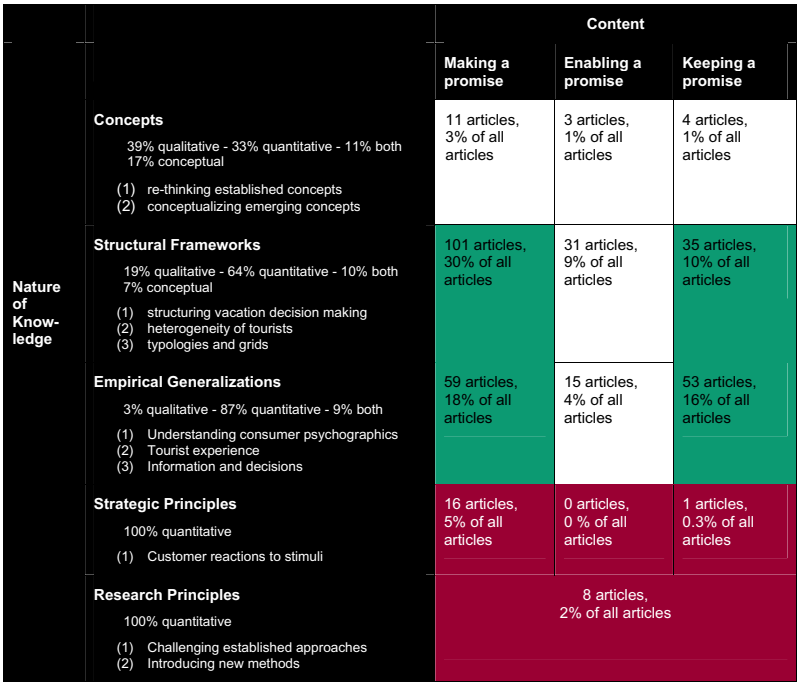


**Fig. 3.** Tourism marketing research stocktake (2008–2012).

managers, tourism planners, and the tourism industry. Central to making a promise is to understand to whom the promise is made. Plog's work provides a guide for managers on how promises should be made, and to which kinds of tourists.

Research principles have also emerged from early tourism marketing research. Bardon and Harding (1981) make recommendations about the use of on-site surveys to learn about tourists' beliefs and stated behaviors. One of the most prolific generators of research principles in tourism was Josef Mazanec. A few examples of the "Mazanec school of research principles" include: guidance on the use of cluster analysis for tourism market segmentation well before market segmentation became a staple of tourism research (Mazanec, 1984); his development of the first advertising budget allocation model for national tourism organizations using decision calculus (1986); and his introduction of neural networks as a tourism segmentation algorithm (1992). He was also the first to use structural equation models in tourism research (1983), and the first to express grave concerns about their misuse (2007a, 2007b). He logically argued in favor of binary answer options in surveys when eliciting benefits from respondents (1984), a research principle which has been rediscovered some 30 years later (for example, Dolnicar & Grün, 2013; Dolnicar & Leisch, 2012).

It can be concluded from the discussion of some of the pioneering tourism marketing research that much of it has focused on concepts, although the first structural frameworks were already being developed and the first research principles proposed.

The stock take of the last five years of tourism marketing research is shown in Fig. 3, where the green cells mark over-researched areas and the red cells under-researched areas. As expected, there is some activity in the definition, operationalization and refinement of **tourism marketing concepts**. Depending on the content area, between one and three per cent of studies focus on concepts. The need for such research becomes evident when thinking about information technology: information systems are central to *enabling promises* (Bitner, 1995; Grönroos, 2006), and the online information available requires intelligent systems for its organization, interpretation and distribution (Werthner & Klein, 1999). Definitions, conceptualizations, and operationalizations are needed of newly emerging concepts, such as social media (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010), which plays a key role in *making promises*

(for example, through online communications and promotions), *enabling promises* (for example, by providing booking opportunities) and *keeping promises* (for example, through monitoring consumers' feedback).

Another example of a new concept relating to *making a promise* to tourists is that of *rush* as "*a particular kind of excitement associated with physical performance*" (p. 963), which is a "*combination of thrill and flow*" (p. 967). Buckley (2012) introduces this concept for a highly specialized niche market (skilled adventure tourists) and argues that experiencing *rush* is the strongest motivational factor for this segment.

Existing concepts sometimes also require refinement. McKercher, Denizci-Guillet, and Ng (2012) question the legitimacy of equating loyalty with revisiting behavior to a destination, and suggest instead to differentiate between vertical loyalty hierarchy, denoting loyalty to providers in different tiers of the tourism system (for example, an airline, a travel agent), horizontal loyalty, denoting loyalty to more than one provider in the same tier of the tourism system (for example, to several hotel brands), and experiential loyalty, denoting loyalty to a preferred holiday style.

It can be concluded that, with respect to first-order forms of knowledge, tourism marketing research exhibits a pattern appropriate for a maturing research discipline. Work covers all content areas and includes both the definition of newly emerging concepts and the refinement of existing concepts.

A surprisingly high number of studies are devoted to developing **structural frameworks**. Half of the tourism marketing studies published in the top three journals in the past five years fall into this category. Common research questions include:

(1) The timing and sequence of decision-making about different aspects of a vacation (for example, Choi, Lehto, Morrison, & Jang, 2012), typically aiming to decompose the decision-making process, therefore "*help[ing] to organize ... a marketing problem*" (Rossiter, 2001, p. 20). Such research helps managers to determine when vacation-related promises should be made.
(2) The identification of differences between groups of tourists. Two-thirds of applied segmentation studies fall into this category. Although translating heterogeneity into operational marketing recommendations is not central to these studies, guidance on how to communicate with or cater for certain market segments is frequently provided. Many segmentation bases are used, including responsiveness to price (Masiero & Nicolau, 2012), expenditure patterns (for example, Lew & Ng, 2012) and discretionary income spending (Dolnicar et al., 2008).
(3) The development of typologies or grids. For example, Litvin, Goldsmith, and Pan (2008) classify electronic word-of-mouth by the scope of communication (one-to-one, one-to-many, many-to-many) and the level of interactivity. The resulting grid helps managers to harvest electronic word-of-mouth information available online for developing offers, thus contributing to knowledge about *enabling a promise*.

**Empirical generalizations** represent the second most frequently generated form of marketing knowledge in tourism; 38% of studies fall into this category. Satisfaction and loyalty (43 per cent), and motivation (16 per cent) are most frequently studied using empirical generalizations. Other typical constructs investigated include consumer perceptions, attitudes, vacation experiences, perceptions of value, destination image, and information search. Findings have implications for branding, positioning, product design, and promotional messages.

Empirical generalizations are typically derived from the analysis of cross-sectional survey data, using structural equation models (49 per cent). To establish causality, structural equation models require experimental data or individual-level longitudinal data, where the cause occurs in the first and the effect in the second measurement. They cannot "*discern causal relations in the absence of experimental or even quasi-experimental designs*" (Kline, 2011, p. 9). Such data is rarely available in recent tourism marketing studies, and the same cross-sectional data is often used for deleting items based on unsatisfactory factor loadings, and testing and modifying the structural model. This practice has been criticized repeatedly in psychology and marketing (Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996; Breckler, 1990; Kline, 2011) and tourism (Mazanec, Ring, Stangl, & Teichmann, 2010; Nunkoo, Ramkisson, Gursoy, present, & first published on March 4, 2013), because it changes the intended confirmatory

nature of structural equation modeling to being exploratory (Mazanec, 2007b), thus not permitting causal conclusions to be drawn. Consequently, studies using structural equation models relying on cross-sectional data do not go beyond empirical generalizations as they cannot establish causality.

A different approach is adopted by Bradley and Sparks (2012), who model antecedents and consequences of change in consumer value for the time-share market, using longitudinal data collected 12 months apart, thus adding knowledge in the area of *making promises*, which is, together with *keeping promises,* the most prominent area for empirical generalizations. Despite using a better than usual design, the authors state: "*our non-experimental method prevented causal relations being inferred*" (p. 203).

**Strategic principles** rarely emerge from recent tourism marketing studies. As can be seen in Fig. 3, only five per cent of articles fall into this category. One example of such a study is provided by Lindenmeier and Tscheulin (2008) who, in the content area of *keeping a promise*, use hypothetical scenarios of airline service encounters to experimentally test the effects of seat inventory control and denied boarding on satisfaction, concluding a negative net effect. Better than expected service did not lead to a comparable increase in customer satisfaction, leading to the "if, do" recommendation that: "*Due to the stronger negative effect of cross-individual price differences in lower-priced booking classes, distinct price differences should be avoided in economy class*" (p. 41).

All other strategic principles contribute to *making a promise;* not a single one of the reviewed studies develops a strategic principle relating to *enabling the promise*. Strategic principles allow the formulation of "if, do" statements (Rossiter 2001; Rossiter 2002). Prototypical examples include the study by Litvin and Mouri (2009) who experimentally test the effectiveness of generic compared to iconic advertising approaches on the favorability of destination image. Their results can be translated into the "if, do" statement: if you want to advertise to improve destination image, show iconic sites of your destination. Nicolau and Sellers (2012) experimentally support the recommendation to include a free breakfast and slightly lower your price to increase booking likelihood if you are not the most preferred hotel brand. Loda, Coleman, and Backman (2010) study the effectiveness of different sequences of exposure to traditional print advertising and the website of a destination on credibility, message strength, attitude toward the destination and purchase intent. They show, and explicitly state: "*if Web sites score the highest, then create a great Web site. Don't skimp.*" (p. 53).

Only two per cent of recently published tourism marketing studies lead to **research principles.** The common aim of this kind of research is to demonstrate superiority of methods for specific research problems and derive a recommendation of the form "*In situation X, use technique Y*" (Rossiter 2001, p. 19). An example is provided by Dolnicar, Kaiser, Lazarevski, and Leisch (2012) who state that when "*the number of variables that need to be included [in a segmentation task] is too large given the sample size, or standard techniques yield diffuse results, biclustering offers a methodologically clean and managerially attractive solution*" (p. 43). The authors experimentally demonstrate that biclustering outperforms the two most commonly used clustering algorithms in tourism research (that is, *k*-means and Ward's clustering) in terms of the reproducibility of results. They do not claim universal superiority of the new algorithm, but instead explicitly state the conditions under which the use of biclustering is advisable.

Another example is provided by Dolnicar and Grün (2008) who challenge factor-cluster-analysis: in a simulation experiment, they manipulate the underlying factor structure of the data the segment size and the distinctiveness of segments, concluding that factor-cluster analysis never outperforms cluster analysis based on raw data leading to the research principle that using "*raw data directly is the superior alternative with respect to the identification of true heterogeneity in the data*" (p. 70). Similarly, Thrane (2012) challenges an established method for modeling tourists' length of stay. Thrane shows that complex survival models are not superior to ordinary least squares regressions, recommending their use when confronted with a research situation with cross-sectional data, no right-censoring (that is, when the observation period does not end before the holiday takes place) and no time-invariant independent variables.

Overall, it may be concluded that the actual distribution of tourism marketing research does not follow the pattern hypothesized on the basis of an even distribution across all forms of knowledge and content areas, nor is it in line with the prediction of knowledge contribution for a maturing research discipline. Rather, the recent contributions to tourism marketing knowledge have been characterized by a focus on the exploration of associations between constructs of interest, thus generating mainly second-order forms of knowledge, such as structural frameworks and empirical generalizations. In line with expectations, a small number of publications focuses on conceptualizing and defining new

concepts. In terms of content, the focus of recent tourism marketing research is on *making promises* to tourists with 56 per cent of the reviewed studies falling into this category. Investigations into *keeping the promise* account for approximately 27 per cent and only 14 per cent of studies focus on the aspect of *enabling the promise* made to tourists.

## Tourism marketing research—next steps

The stock take of recent tourism marketing research highlights areas of high and low research attention and thus serves as a good basis for deriving a future research agenda for tourism marketing.

### *Forms of knowledge*

New concepts need to be defined and conceptualized as they emerge. There will and should always be a small proportion of papers contributing to this form of knowledge in any discipline, such as Xia et al.'s (2010) study on dominant movement patterns or Guttentag's (2010) discussion on virtual reality.

In addition, some concepts need to be refined, either because they have changed in nature over time or because their original conceptualization was flawed. Refinement of concepts for these reasons is of great value to a discipline. It is important, however, to avoid the constant re-definition and re-operationalization of established concepts because this practice hinders cumulative knowledge development. Also, the definitions and operationalizations of concepts in other disciplines should not be ignored. A concept that is increasingly used in tourism research is that of identity. It originates from and has been extensively studied in the discipline of psychology. Yet only a very small proportion of tourism studies using the concept of identity refer back to the original work on the concept, thus leading to either an unnecessary reinvention of the concept (which is not uncommon across all disciplines and most certainly not confined to tourism research) or, worse, an incorrect definition and operationalization of it.

Similarly, the concept of wellbeing is firmly rooted in the discipline of psychology, and is increasingly the focus of attention in tourism research. Yet established definitions and operationalizations from psychology are rarely cited. One explanation for this phenomenon is offered by Xiao and Smith (2006), who analyze citation patterns in tourism research, concluding that tourism researchers are increasingly citing work from within the field of tourism, while citations of work outside of tourism have decreased. Xiao and Smith interpret this as a sign of a maturing discipline, a positive sign. It may well be, however, that this increasingly inward orientation has negative consequences, and could lead to the omission of key work published outside of tourism that is highly relevant to a problem under study, such as concepts, strategic principles, or research principles.

Second-order knowledge generation in tourism marketing research is abundant. Future development of structural frameworks and empirical generalizations should be undertaken only selectively to avoid the production of similar studies of similar constructs which do not add substantially to knowledge. The primary role of second-order knowledge into the future lies in the structuring of new problems and the generation of hypotheses about associations between novel concepts. The focus should instead shift towards generating more strategic principles.

### *Research designs*

Developing third-order knowledge requires the use of experimental, quasi-experimental and individual-level longitudinal survey research designs. In true experiments, study participants are randomly assigned to an experimental condition, and the hypothesized cause is under the control of the researcher. An excellent example of a recent experimental study in the tourism context is provided by Baca-Motes, Brown, Gneezy, Keenan, and Nelson's (2013) study, which was conducted in a hotel. Tourists were assigned to experimental conditions that differed in the specificity and the public visibility of their commitment to pro-environmental behavior at the hotel. The effects on their actual towel reuse behavior were tested. This led to the derivation of the strategic principle that if a hotel

wants to increase towel reuse, guests should be made to commit specifically to this particular behavior and provided with a symbol, such as a pin, that makes their specific commitment visible to other hotel guests.

If it is not possible to conduct controlled experiments, quasi-experimental data can sometimes be used, meaning that the hypothesized cause cannot be manipulated by the researcher. Instead, cases that naturally fall into different categories in terms of the hypothesized cause are compared to one another. Chiou, Wan, and Lee (2008) conducted such a quasi-experiment by splitting people into visualizers and verbalizers, depending on their preferred style of information processing and, testing differences in the advertising effectiveness of two different advertising approaches. They also studied the effect of a second independent variable, which they fully controlled: the exposure to a traditional brochure advertisement compared to a virtual experience.

Another research design which could be used to derive strategic principles is individual-level longitudinal survey data. Each survey respondent is contacted at two points in time, with the hypothesized cause measured in the first survey wave and the hypothesized effect measured in the second wave, as discussed by Namasivayam (2004). Of the 337 reviewed tourism marketing studies, only eight used longitudinal data.

An aspect related to the research design is the validity of measures. If the measure used is not validly capturing the construct under study, neither second-order nor third-order knowledge can be derived. Our review brought to light a number of instances of construct operationalization that did not capture the construct as it was defined. It is critical for the validity of future marketing research that more attention is paid to measurement aspects of the research design (Dolnicar, 2013; Rossiter, 2011). One way of avoiding biased measures is to use actual behavior. The experiment conducted by Baca-Motes et al. (2013) shows that this is possible: actual towel rehanging in the hotel was used as the dependent variable—not intended reuse and not reported past reuse. There is no doubt that it is more difficult to design and implement a study that uses actual behavior as the dependent variable; but it is possible and several recent tourism marketing studies have done so by using Global Positioning System data (Orellana, Bregt, Ligtenberg, & Wachowicz, 2012; Shoval, McKercher, Ng, & Birenboim, 2011; Tchetchik, Fleischer, & Shoval, 2009) or web log files (Xiang, Gretzel, & Fesenmaier, 2009).

The methodological recommendations made above give the impression that a further push towards quantitative methods is needed in tourism marketing research. This is not necessarily the case, because many research topics cannot be investigated using typical quantitative approaches. In a study on environmentally sustainably behavior, Miller (2003) rightly points out that "*a weakness of much of this research is the distinction between what survey respondents say and what they actually ask for or do*" (p. 19). This concern is valid in relation to any topic that is either socially sensitive or not open to direct questioning because people are not consciously aware of the reasons why they engage in certain behaviors. In both cases, presenting respondents with survey questions is unlikely to provide any insights of value because people will either respond in the way they feel is socially acceptable ("Of course I choose a hotel which is eco-certified!") or they create an explanation for an unconscious behavior on the spot to comply with the researcher's request to answer all questions; a phenomenon known as satisficing (Krosnick, 1999).

One possible solution is to conduct qualitative research that provides very little structure that would influence people's comments, such as the so-called "unfocused group discussion," which was developed and successfully used for many decades by Australian social researcher Hugh MacKay (2012) to learn about Australians' attitudes and motivations. It is characterized by being unstructured, and non-directive, and involves a group of people who know one another and regularly interact, and is set in an environment where the group would naturally meet, for example, someone's home or the pub. Less radical approaches include asking open-ended questions that do not reveal the intention of the question to study participants. Woodside and Lysonski (1989) believe that such "*unaided awareness response measures are one of only two measures found to be associated strongly with sales*" (p. 9). Based on such data, deductive logic can be used to arrive at strategic principles (Rossiter 2001, 2012).

While many marketing schools are associated with a specific research paradigm or domain of inquiry, cumulatively, marketing research covers a wide range of domains or topics of investigation and has adopted different paradigms, most prominently the positivist/realist approach and the interpretive/relativist approach (Möller, Pels, & Saren, 2010). There have always been calls for

pluralism in marketing. To use the words of the most cited marketing researcher ever, Paul E. Green (2001, p. 107): "*researchers in marketing are entering the age of research 'pluralism,' in which methodologists, economic modelers, and consumer behaviorists will live side by side and learn from one another*". He also states on the same page: "*I still see a need for prescriptive research methodology that can help managers make more informed decisions. I also find it useful and refreshing to open the door to researchers who are less interested in prescriptive modeling than in understanding how the marketing world works, be it first-mover advantage, competitive duopoly, vertical structure payoffs, or what have you. Prescriptive and descriptive researchers can easily live side by side.*"

However, no matter which methodological approach is chosen, it is critical that the authors offer an interpretation of their findings to the readers and clearly state whether or not these findings imply causal relationships. As noted by Mazanec (2007a, p. 88): "*The research community has learned to offer results and to leave it open whether they may or may not be interpreted causally*."

*Content*

The review undertaken for this study highlights that certain topics in tourism marketing are heavily researched, if not over-researched. Examples include satisfaction, loyalty and tourists' psychographics. Recent research in this area has shown little substantial progress that extends beyond applying already established relationships to yet another different type of tourism product. Although such research may be useful from a managerial point of view, its theoretical contribution is limited.

Other topics hardly receive any attention, although their investigation would critically contribute to knowledge development (for example, pricing). Studies that measure real behavior are notably absent. Distribution and supply chain management have been neglected although supply chain management is of particular importance in the tourism industry where a multitude of suppliers is involved to create a tourism experience (Zhang, Song, & Huang, 2009). Strategic marketing is another field where research opportunities are not yet exhausted. Despite the considerable amount of applied market segmentation research, segmentation, results are rarely translated into positioning strategies, tailor-made new products or customized branding or pricing strategies. Strategic marketing always implies monitoring the broader environment (Bijmolt, Frambach, & Verhallen, 1996); for example, the role of substitute products, services, or experiences *outside* the tourism industry (Crouch et al., 2007). Yet this broader strategic context is rarely studied. The different motivations or needs for a vacation are diverse (and there is no shortage of research, with approximately 18 per cent of all studies studying motivations), and the ways to satisfy them are similarly diverse. Who says that, for example, variety seeking is only satisfied *within* tourism? Broadening the focus to other products, services or experiences that satisfy the same need could lead to the identification of new target markets and new ways of accessing potential tourists. Could we advertise weekend getaways to people who just experienced variety seeking in a different way, perhaps by purchasing a new piece of home decoration?

*Big data*

The current excitement about big data warrants a few specific comments about the potential impact of big data on the development of tourism marketing knowledge. Big data is nothing more than an extension of data-driven analyses or business analytics used both in industry and academia for many years to develop market intelligence and knowledge. In tourism, for example, decision support systems for managers (Hruschka & Mazanec, 1990; Mazanec, 1986; Nissan, 1987; Ritchie, 1980) and travel recommender systems for tourists (Fesenmaier, Wöber, & Werthner, 2006; Ricci, 2002) have been available for many decades.

The nature of this extension, however, is substantial, as McAfee and Brynjolfsson (2012) note. Big data implies the availability of significantly larger, often gigantic, amounts of data (volume) on a continuous basis and often in real time (velocity) from a range of diverse data sources (variety). As such, the analysis of patterns and associations in big data could create a continuous stream of second-order knowledge development. Tourism marketing research is starting to develop an interest in big data. Two recent data mining studies, one using Global Positioning System tracking data (Orellana et al.,

2012), and the other one using tourism behavior survey data over a period of five years (Law et al., 2010) suggest ways to handle large (albeit, probably not yet, big) data sets. In cases where the platform that generates the big data permits interventions (for example, when Google slightly modifies their listing of results, or when Amazon changes the appearance of the virtual shop front) experimental studies can be implemented leading to the development of third-order knowledge. Big data, therefore, neither changes the nature of knowledge, nor does it apply radically new methods of how knowledge is extracted from the data, thus being susceptible to all the same kinds of biases as data analysis using other sources of data. Big data does, however, have the potential to take knowledge generation to a new level in terms of speed and quantity. A recent publication (Vinod, 2013) lists areas in the hospitality and airline industry where big data has the potential to create competitive advantage, if used sensibly.

A number of concerns have been raised about big data analysis (for example, by Boyd & Crawford, 2012). Concerns of an ethical nature include the use of data without people's knowledge or explicit permission, and the potential of big data to create a new digital divide between the "Big Data rich" and the "Big Data poor" (p. 674). Concerns related to the quality of knowledge generated include that users may subscribe to the view that it is no longer relevant to understand reasons why people behave in certain ways because seeing their behavior is all that matters, and that users may overestimate the level of accuracy, representativeness and objectivity of results based on big data. Also, users could be tricked into "*seeing patterns where none actually exist, simply because enormous quantities of data can offer connections that radiate in all directions*" (p. 668), because it is "*easy to mistake correlation for causation and to find misleading patterns in the data*" (McAfee & Brynjolfsson, 2012, p. 9).

In sum, the authors of the present paper believe that big data has the potential to generate big amounts of high-quality second- and third-order knowledge if the big challenges associated with the analysis of big data are acknowledged and addressed appropriately.

## Conclusions

Using Grönroos (2006, p. 407) definition of marketing as a basis and integrating key components of the World Tourism Organization's (1995) definition of tourism, tourism marketing can be defined as:

*Customer focus*
*that permeates organizational functions and processes*
*and is geared towards*
*(1) making promises*
*relating to products and services*
*required when travelling to and staying in places*
*outside one's usual environment*
*for leisure, business and other purposes*
*for less than one year;*
*(2) enabling the fulfilment of individual expectations created by such promises; and*
*(3) fulfilling such expectations*
*through support to customers' value-generating processes.*

The stock take of recent tourism marketing research paints a picture of a young but maturing discipline which is prolifically developing knowledge, but sometimes forgets the big picture. The *Tourism Marketing Knowledge Grid* can help with this. It reminds us not only what puzzle pieces are missing to complete the picture, it also points to puzzle pieces that are already there. More of the same puzzle pieces are not needed. The same holds for the development of tourism marketing knowledge. For example, more studies investigating the association between satisfaction and loyalty using cross-sectional data and structural equation models are not needed. Less effort should also be put into: minor changes in definitions and operationalizations of established and satisfactorily defined and operationalized tourism marketing concepts; the collection and analysis of cross-sectional survey data; the study of stated intentions when actual behavior is of interest; the use of measures that lack validity,

even if derived from an established scale development process; testing the same associations of the same constructs over and over again; and studies which incorrectly imply causal associations between constructs.

The *Tourism Marketing Knowledge Grid* also points to which puzzle pieces are missing—where tourism marketing knowledge should go in the future. In order to move into the direction of a knowledge grid reflecting a mature discipline, more effort should be directed towards: the generation of novel hypotheses through second-order knowledge; the development of strategic principles; the development of research principles; thoroughly studying relevant work published in other disciplines; reusing consistently established definitions and conceptualizations of concepts to enable cumulative knowledge development; truly longitudinal research designs; experimental and quasi-experimental research designs; the study of actual behavior; the smart harvesting of big data; interpretations of results by authors; unstructured qualitative research approaches where quantitative approaches are not suitable; and research into enabling promises.

The opportunities are endless. The authors are looking forward to witnessing exciting new tourism marketing knowledge being developed over the coming decades; some beyond imagination.

## Acknowledgements

This study was funded by the Australian Research Council under the Discovery Grant Scheme (Project numbers DP110101347 and DP120103352).

## References

Baca-Motes, K., Brown, A., Gneezy, A., Keenan, E. A., & Nelson, L. D. (2013). Commitment and behavior change: Evidence from the field. *Journal of Consumer Research, 39*, 1070–1084.
Bardon, K. S., & Harding, D. M. (1981). On-site questionnaire surveys in UK leisure research. *International Journal of Tourism Management, 2*, 36–48.
Baumgartner, H., & Homburg, C. (1996). Applications of structural equation modeling in marketing and consumer research: A review. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 13*, 139–161.
Bijmolt, T. H. A., Frambach, R. T., & Verhallen, T. M. M. (1996). Strategic marketing research. *Journal of Marketing Management, 12*, 83–98.
Bitner, M. J. (1995). Building service relationships: It's all about promises. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 23*, 246–251.
Bonnett, J. (1982). Implications of marketing and promotion for the development of tourism. *Tourism Management, 3*, 242–247.
Borden, N. H. (1964). The concept of the marketing mix. *Journal of Advertising Research, 4*(June), 2–7.
Boyd, D., & Crawford, K. (2012). Critical questions for big data. *Information, Communication & Society, 15*, 662–679.
Bradley, G. L., & Sparks, B. A. (2012). Antecedents and consequences of consumer value: A longitudinal study of timeshare owners. *Journal of Travel Research, 51*, 191–204.
Breckler, S. J. (1990). Applications for covariance structure modelling in psychology: Cause for concern? *Psychological Bulletin, 107*, 260–273.
Buckley, R. (2012). Rush as key motivation in skilled adventure tourism: Resolving the risk recreation paradox. *Tourism Management, 33*, 961–970.
Calantone, R. J., & Mazanec, J. A. (1991). Marketing management and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 18*, 101–119.
Cassels, J. M. (1936). The significance of early economic thought on marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 1*, 129–133.
Chiou, W.-B., Wan, C.-S., & Lee, H.-Y. (2008). Virtual experience vs. brochures in the advertisement of scenic spots: How cognitive references and order effects influence advertising effects on consumers. *Tourism Management, 29*, 146–150.
Choi, S., Lehto, X. Y., Morrison, A. M., & Jang, S. (2012). Structure of travel planning processes and information use patterns. *Journal of Travel Research, 51*, 26–40.
Clark, F. (1922). *Principles of marketing*. New York: Macmillan.
Crouch, G. I., Oppewal, H., Huybers, T., Dolnicar, S., Louviere, J. J., & Devinney, T. (2007). Discretionary expenditure and tourism consumption: Insights from a choice experiment. *Journal of Travel Research, 45*, 247–258.
Dolnicar, S. (2013). Asking good survey questions. *Journal of Travel Research, 52*, 551–574.
Dolnicar, S., Crouch, G. I., Devinney, T., Huybers, T., Louviere, J. J., & Oppewal, H. (2008). Tourism and discretionary income allocation. Heterogeneity among households. *Tourism Management, 29*, 44–52.
Dolnicar, S., & Grün, B. (2008). Challenging "factor-cluster segmentation". *Journal of Travel Research, 47*, 63–71.
Dolnicar, S., & Grün, B. (2013). Validly measuring destination images in survey studies. *Journal of Travel Research, 52*, 3–13.
Dolnicar, S., Kaiser, S., Lazarevski, K., & Leisch, F. (2012). Biclustering: Overcoming data dimensionality problems in market segmentation. *Journal of Travel Research, 51*, 41–49.
Dolnicar, S., & Leisch, F. (2012). One legacy of Mazanec: Binary questions are a simple, stable and valid measure of evaluative beliefs. *International Journal of Tourism, Culture, and Hospitality Research, Special Issue in honour of the contributions of Josef Mazanec to tourism research, 6*, 316–325.
Farmer, R. N. (1967). Would you want your daughter to marry a marketing man? *Journal of Marketing, 31*(1), 1–3.

Fesenmaier, D. R., Wöber, K. W., & Werthner, H. (2006). *Destination recommendation systems. Behavioral foundations and applications*. Wallingford: CABI.
Green, P. E. (2001). The vagaries of becoming (and remaining) a marketing research methodologist. *Journal of Marketing, 64*(3), 104–108.
Grönroos, C. (1996). The rise and fall of modern marketing – And its rebirth. In S. A. Shaw & N. Hood (Eds.), *Innovation and change. Essays in honour of Michael J. Baker* (pp. 14–35). New York, NY: Macmillan.
Grönroos, C. (2006). On defining marketing: finding a new roadmap for marketing. *Marketing Theory, 6*, 395–417.
Grönroos, C. (2009). Marketing as promise management: Regaining customer management for marketing. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing, 24*, 351–359.
Guttentag, D. A. (2010). Virtual reality: Applications and implications for tourism. *Tourism Management, 31*, 637–651.
Hruschka, H., & Mazanec, J. A. (1990). Computer-assisted travel counselling. *Annals of Tourism Research, 17*, 208–227.
Jafari, J. (1974). The components and nature of tourism. The tourism market basket of goods and services. *Annals of Tourism Research, 1*, 73–89.
Jones, D. G. B., Shaw, E. H., & McLean, P. A. (2010). The modern schools of marketing thought. In P. Maclaran, M. Saren, B. Stern, & M. Tadajewski (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of marketing theory* (pp. 42–58). Los Angeles: Sage.
Kline, R. B. (2011). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
Kotler, P., & Keller, K. L. (2012). *Marketing management* (14th ed.). Harlow: Pearson Education.
Krosnick, J. A. (1999). Survey research. *Annual Review of Psychology, 50*, 537–567.
Law, R., Rong, J., Vu, H. Q., Li, G., & Lee, H. A. (2011). Identifying changes and trends in Hong Kong outbound tourism. *Tourism Management, 32*, 1106–1114.
Lew, A. A., & Ng, P. T. (2012). Using quantile regression to understand visitor spending. *Journal of Travel Research, 51*, 278–288.
Lilien, G. L., & Rangaswamy, A. (1998). *Marketing engineering: Computer-assisted marketing analysis and planning*. Addison-Wesley: Reading.
Lindenmeier, J., & Tscheulin, D. K. (2008). The effects of inventory control and denied boarding on customer satisfaction: The case of capacity-based airline revenue management. *Tourism Management, 29*, 32–43.
Litvin, S. W., Goldsmith, R. E., & Pan, B. (2008). Electronic word-of-mouth in hospitality and tourism management. *Tourism Management, 29*, 458–468.
Litvin, S. W., & Mouri, N. (2009). A comparative study of the use of "iconic" versus "generic" advertising images for destination marketing. *Journal of Travel Research, 48*, 152–161.
Loda, M. D., Coleman, B. C., & Backman, K. F. (2010). Walking in Memphis: Testing one DMO's marketing strategy to millennials. *Journal of Travel Research, 49*, 46–55.
MacKay, H. (2012). The "unfocused" group discussion technique. *Australasian Journal of Market and Social Research, 20*(2), 47–58.
Maclaran, P., Saren, M., Stern, B., & Tadajewski, M. (2010). Introduction. In P. Maclaran, M. Saren, B. Stern, & M. Tadajewski (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of marketing theory* (pp. 1–25). Los Angeles: Sage.
Masiero, L., & Nicolau, J. L. (2012). Tourism market segmentation based on price sensitivity: Finding similar price preferences on tourism activities. *Journal of Travel Research, 51*, 426–435.
Mazanec, J. A. (1983). Tourist behavior model building: A causal approach. *Tourism Review, 38*(1), 9–19.
Mazanec, J. A. (1984). How to detect travel market segments: A clustering approach. *Journal of Travel Research, 23*, 17–21.
Mazanec, J. A. (1986). Allocating an advertising budget to international travel markets. *Annals of Tourism Research, 13*, 609–634.
Mazanec, J. A. (1992). Classifying tourists into market segments: A neural network approach. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 1*, 39–60.
Mazanec, J. A. (2007a). Exploring tourist satisfaction with nonlinear structural equation modeling and inferred causation analysis. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 21*, 73–90.
Mazanec, J. A. (2007b). "Zauberlehrlings BeSEM" – oder was Anwender über Ge- und Missbrauch des Structural Equation Modeling in der betriebswirtschaftlichen Forschung wissen sollten. *Werbeforschung & Praxis, 52*(1), 25–30.
Mazanec, J. A., Ring, A., Stangl, B., & Teichmann, K. (2010). Usage patterns of advanced analytical methods in tourism research 1988–2008: A six journal survey. *Information Technology & Tourism, 12*, 17–46.
McAfee, A., & Brynjolfsson, E. (2012). Big data: The management revolution. *Harvard Business Review, 90*(10), 60–68.
McDonald, M. (2007). *Marketing plans. How to prepare them, how to use them* (6th ed.). Amsterdam: Butterworth-Heinemann.
McKercher, B., Denizci-Guillet, B., & Ng, E. (2012). Rethinking loyalty. *Annals of Tourism Research, 39*, 708–734.
Miller, G. A. (2003). Consumerism in sustainable tourism: A survey of UK consumers. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 11*, 17–39.
Möller, K., Pels, J., & Saren, M. (2010). The marketing theory or theories into marketing? Plurality of research traditions and paradigms. In P. Maclaran, M. Saren, B. Stern, & M. Tadajewski (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of marketing theory* (pp. 151–174). Los Angeles: Sage.
Namasivayam, K. (2004). Repeated measures experimentation in hospitality research: A brief overview. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 28*, 121–129.
Nicolau, J. L., & Sellers, R. (2012). The free breakfast effect: An experimental approach to the zero price model in tourism. *Journal of Travel Research, 51*, 243–249.
Nissan, E. (1987). Knowledge-based computer systems for tasks in hospitality management or related areas: Accommodation (lodging, alimentation) and leisure. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 6*(199–202).
Nunkoo, R., Ramkisson, H., & Gursoy, D. (2013). Use of structural equation modelling in tourism research: past, present, and future. *Journal of Travel, 52*, 759–771.
Oh, H., Kim, B.-Y., & Shin, J.-H. (2004). Hospitality and tourism marketing: Recent developments in research and future directions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 23*, 425–447.
Orellana, D., Bregt, A. K., Ligtenberg, A., & Wachowicz, M. (2012). Exploring visitor movement patterns in natural recreational areas. *Tourism Management, 33*, 672–682.
Pizam, A., Neumann, Y., & Reichel, A. (1978). Dimensions of tourist satisfaction with a destination area. *Annals of Tourism Research, 5*, 314–322.

Plog, S. (1974). Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 14*(4), 55–58.
Ricci, F. (2002). Travel recommender systems. *IEEE Intelligent Systems, 17*(6), 55–57.
Ritchie, J. R. B. (1980). Tourism management information systems. In D. E. Hawking, E. L. Shafer, & J. M. Rovelstad (Eds.), *Tourism marketing and management issues* (pp. 337–355). Washington, DC: Department of Human Kinetics and Leisure Studies, George Washington University.
Ritchie, J. R. B., & Zins, M. (1978). Culture as determinant of the attractiveness of a tourism region. *Annals of Tourism Research, 5*, 252–267.
Rossiter, J. R. (2001). What is marketing knowledge? Stage I: Forms of marketing knowledge. *Marketing Theory, 1*, 9–26.
Rossiter, J. R. (2002). The five forms of transmissible, usable marketing knowledge. *Marketing Theory, 2*, 369–380.
Rossiter, J. R. (2011). *Measurement for the social sciences: The C-OAR-SE method and why it must replace psychometrics*. New York: Springer.
Rossiter, J. R. (2012). Advertising management principles are derived mostly from logic and very little from empirical generalizations. *Marketing Theory, 12*, 103–116.
Ryan, F. W. (1935). Functional elements in market distribution. *Harvard Business Review, 13*, 137–143.
Shaw, E. H., Jones, D. G. B., & McLean, P. A. (2010). The early schools of marketing thought. In P. Maclaran, M. Saren, B. Stern, & M. Tadajewski (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of marketing theory* (pp. 27–41). Los Angeles: Sage.
Sheth, J. N., & Parvatiyar, A. (1995). The evolution of relationship marketing. *International Business Review, 4*, 387–418.
Shoval, N., McKercher, B., Ng, E., & Birenboim, A. (2011). Hotel location and tourist activity in cities. *Annals of Tourism Research, 38*, 1594–1612.
Smith, W. (1956). Product differentiation and market segmentation as alternative marketing strategies. *Journal of Marketing, 21*(1), 3–8.
Taylor, G. D. (1980). How to match plant with demand: A matrix for marketing. *International Journal of Tourism Management, 1*, 56–60.
Tchetchik, A., Fleischer, A., & Shoval, N. (2009). Segmentation of visitors to a heritage site using high-resolution time-space data. *Journal of Travel Research, 48*, 216–229.
Thrane, C. (2012). Analyzing tourists' length of stay at destinations with survival models: A constructive critique based on a case study. *Tourism Management, 33*, 126–132.
Vargo, S., & Lusch, R. F. (2004). Evolving to a new dominant logic for marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 68*(1), 1–17.
Vinod, B. (2013). Leveraging BIG DATA for competitive advantage in travel. *Journal of Revenue and Pricing Management, 12*, 96–100.
Wasson, C. (1960). What is "new" about a new product? *Journal of Marketing, 25*(1), 52–56.
Werthner, H., & Klein, S. (1999). *Information technology and tourism: A challenging relationship*. Wien, New York: Springer.
Woodside, A. G., & Lysonski, S. (1989). A general model of traveler destination choice. *Journal of Travel Research, 27*, 8–14.
World Tourism Organization (1995). *UNWTO technical manual: Collection of tourism expenditure statistics*, <http://pub.unwto.org/WebRoot/Store/Shops/Infoshop/Products/1034/1034-1.pdf> Retrieved 18.11.13.
Xia, J., Evans, F. H., Spilsbury, K., Ciesielski, V., Arrowsmith, C., & Wright, G. (2010). Market segments based on the dominant movement patterns of tourists. *Tourism Management, 31*, 464–469.
Xiang, Z., & Gretzel, U. (2010). Role of social media in online travel information search. *Tourism Management, 31*, 179–188.
Xiang, Z., Gretzel, U., & Fesenmaier, D. (2009). Semantic representation of tourism on the internet. *Journal of Travel Research, 47*, 440–453.
Xiao, H., & Smith, S. L. J. (2006). The maturation of tourism research: Evidence from a content analysis. *Tourism Analysis, 10*, 335–348.
Zeithaml, V. A., Parasuraman, A., & Berry, L. L. (1985). Problems and strategies in service marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 49*(2), 33–46.
Zhang, X., Song, H., & Huang, G. Q. (2009). Tourism supply chain management: A new research agenda. *Tourism Management, 30*, 345–358.