Guided Tourism
– the Role of Guidebooks in German Tourist Behaviour in Sweden

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Preface

When I moved to Östersund five years ago, I was really excited about the new place where I was going to live, and about my work as a PhD student. Now, I was sure, I would be allowed to ask lots of questions to satisfy my endless curiosity during work, while I could discover my new surroundings during my free time. It soon became clear that the discovery of new surroundings would also come to be included in my work, and that I had lots of opportunities to discover new things during free time. I am really grateful for all the places and spaces I have got to know during the past years, and for the wonderful people who have surrounded me through the years.

First of all, I would like to thank my colleagues around me. With your support and encouragement, you have greatly contributed to this work now being finished. I am grateful for the times you have spent reading my texts and discussing fiddly questions with me, and for the good times we have had laughing, drinking coffee, discussing and dreaming about present and future turns in our lives. You have also inspired me to look beyond the limits of my own subject – that is what happens in interdisciplinary institutions!

Although I was spatially separated from my supervisors for most of the time, I knew I could always count on you. You have guided me through what I first saw as a labyrinth of research, and helped me pave my own personal way. The distance between us has hardly been a disadvantage. Rather, I find that we have found ways to work together in an efficient and supportive way. Also, the European Tourism Research Institute has supported my work. Besides their financing this project together with the Mid Sweden University, the institute has stood by my work process from my first day of employment. It is also due to the friendly, efficient and competent staff that the accomplishment of this thesis has been possible. My life as a PhD student was furthermore facilitated by the financial support of the Promotion of Expertise Relating to Tourism (Stiftelsen för kunskapsfrämjande inom turism), the Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences (Kungliga Vetenskapsakademin), the Swedish Society for Anthropology and Geography (Svenska Sällskapet för Antropologi och Geografi), and the JC Kempe Memorial Foundation (Stiftelsen J C Kempes Minnesstipendiefond).

I would also like to express my gratitude to my family and friends. Although always so far away, you are present, very close to my heart. The Swedish telephone company has probably made a fortune on all the telephone calls, but that I can live with. One friend, however, has followed me to these northern latitudes, and this is my dear Jörg. With your encouraging, funny and loving way, you show me every day that there are thousands of reasons that make life just fabulous.
All this time has been a thrilling journey that has lead me through five years of challenges. Recalling the past years also makes me think of all the moments of longing for the places and people I love. This separation has been my very own experience of space. As far as I can remember, this feeling has followed me to all the different places (and there are many) where I have lived in my life. However, one day I may think back at my time in middle Sweden and miss the things I may then have left behind: the intense smell of the forest, the silence of the falling snow and the beautiful colours on warm summer nights.

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1 Introduction

Tourism is a spatial phenomenon. Tourists travel in time and space and spend time both in and between places. Tourism does not occur randomly but is, among other things, shaped by people’s journeys in space and their behaviour on-site. Tourists, again, are inspired and guided by external information and their own knowledge. However, while they do get advice from several information sources, they decide for themselves which advice to follow and which to discard.

Tourism is closely connected to mobility, as travelling is a precondition for reaching desired tourist sites. Apart from transportation, mobility is also important for the experience of space and place, and can be a source of pleasure. As tourism has mostly been treated as a rather static matter, a great deal of focus has been placed on tourism on-site rather than on tourists’ journeys in between. Contrary to this perception, it is here argued that mobility is of central importance in tourism. This view is supported by Urry (2002) and Hall (2005), among others, who consider mobility to be central to the perception of place, and assert that different forms of mobility can have particular impact on tourists’ behaviour on-site.

Having reached the tourist site, tourists’ behaviour is here assumed to be influenced not only by the site itself but also by other factors. Mobility in space may be one such factor, as well as the information tourists have access to. Lew and McKercher (2006) argue that it is important to understand tourists’ negotiations concerning time, space and place, if a local tourist industry is to develop successfully. It is not only tourist behaviour and mobility, but also tourists’ origins and the space between origin and destination that are matters of concern to the tourist-receiving region. In this, time and space are deeply integrated. Tourism can thus be closely connected to the theory of time geography. Up to now, this theory has been applied to tourism studies to a small degree only, the most quoted reason being that tourism constitutes the opposite of everyday life. On the contrary, it is here argued that keynotes in time geography can be transferred to tourist issues, and that constraints of everyday life and cages of routines (Hägerstrand, 1984) exist during holidays as well.

In this thesis the comprehensive term tourist behaviour, as used in the title, includes both tourists’ behaviour in place and their mobility in space. In the following chapters, the term tourist behaviour refers to behaviour on-site and the term tourist mobility refers to tourists’ movements between the places visited.

Tourist behaviour is considerably influenced by the information tourists have access to (McGregor, 2000; Lew & McKercher, 2006). Tourist information in general, and guidebooks in particular, identify tourist sites worth visiting, and present them in a geographical order that, it is suggested, contributes to structuring tourism space. The selection and presentation of tourist sites and regions would thereby influence tourist behaviour and mobility, and would also affect the success of local tourist industries. As well as other information sources, the production of guidebooks is concerned with the “gatekeeping” process (McQuail, 1994, p. 276) that leads to the inclusion or exclusion of tourist sites in the books. The final selection is here supposed to have a profound influence
on tourists’ choices, which ultimately implies that power is involved. It is, however, questionable whether power structures in tourist information are one-sided, as has been proposed by Cheong and Miller (2000).

The empirical focus of this thesis is on German car tourists who travel to Sweden individually. Together with Norwegians, Germans constitute the most important visitor group in Sweden (Nutek, 2007). Like other tourist groups, Germans use a combination of information sources before and during their holidays. For those travelling on their own, guidebooks constitute a very important information source (F.U.R., 2003, 2007a). Therefore, this source of tourist information stands in the centre of this thesis.

The thesis starts from the assumption that tourist behaviour and mobility are formed and influenced not only by and in the destination region itself, but also by other factors and in other spatial surroundings. Tourists bring their own individual prerequisites and motivations, have access to diverse forms of information, and travel various distances to and within the destination region. They choose tourist regions and sites, and are mobile in time and space. A related question is who has the power to influence their concluding choices. The approach used in this study is important for both the academy and the tourism industry, as it helps to understand profound structures in tourism development.

The aim of this thesis is to analyse the interrelationship between mobility, tourist behaviour and guidebooks. Mobility, it is argued, is not self-evident as has sometimes been considered, but is performed due to underlying causes. Nor should tourist behaviour on-site be dependent on supply only but also on other factors, such as the situation outside the tourist site. This thesis examines mobility in space and behaviour in place, and studies the factors that shape them. Guidebooks are considered one such factor. It is argued that information can directly influence tourist behaviour and mobility. Further, mobility that has been influenced by information can again shape behaviour on-site. Thereby, it is argued that guidebooks can influence tourist behaviour on-site both directly and indirectly.

Thus, it is important to know more about the production of information in guidebooks, as the inclusion or exclusion of tourist sites is supposed to underlie intrinsic power relations. In addition, tourists themselves might contribute to shaping the content in guidebooks, as their choice of tourist sites may result in it being impossible to omit popular tourist destinations in future books. However, such an impact can only be one of several factors that influence the production of tourist information. The composition of tourist sites in guidebooks cannot be supposed to be dependent on only the mere popularity of tourist sites, but should also depend on a range of other factors.

In accordance with the above discussion, both production and consumption of tourist information, and the implications thereof, are analysed. A basic consideration is that the whole tourism system (Leiper, 1990a) should be involved when studying tourist issues, as the behavioural outcome in time, space and place is assumed not to be dependent on the tourist-receiving region only.

Based on the research aim, the respective studies focus on the following research questions:
Which factors lead to the selection of tourist sites in guidebooks? (Article I)

In what way do spatial representations in guidebooks influence tourists’ choice of tourist sites? (Article II)

Which factors influence tourists’ spatial travel patterns? (Article III)

In what ways are spatial mobility, time period within the holiday, the characteristics of place, and access to information related to tourist behaviour on-site? (Article IV)

As the terms tourism and tourist are focal in this thesis, they are commented on here. There are a great number of definitions of the term tourism. While they all differ from each other to some degree, the concept of space and time is of importance in all of them. Hall (2005) has summarised existing definitions of tourism and concludes that they usually include voluntary movements of people, a sector of the economy and a system of people’s interrelated relationships. In addition, tourism is usually considered temporary, as having a variety of impacts, and as being primarily for leisure. While tourism may include business travel and pilgrimage, these elements are excluded in the current study. Definitions of international tourists are more homogenous. In great resemblance to the World Tourism Organisation, the United Nations (1994) define international tourists as people who travel to a country other than that in which they have their usual residence. The time period may not exceed twelve months. The main purpose of the visit may not be the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the country visited. The minimum length of stay is one night.

Outline of the thesis

This thesis consists of four articles and an introductory section, which provides the reader with background information on the production and consumption of tourist information in guidebooks, and on tourist behaviour and mobility related to this. The introductory section starts with considerations on the tourism system, and delivers arguments for the use of time geography in tourism studies. Since the empirical studies are based on German tourists, information is given on this visitor group. After a short presentation of the methods used, the overall conclusions are drawn from both the individual articles and the thesis as a whole. The text ends with summaries in English, Swedish and German.

Article I, Who Has the Power over Tourist Information? About the Selection of Tourist Sites in Guidebooks, analyses the production of German guidebooks on Sweden and detects the factors determining the inclusion or exclusion of tourist sites. Thereby, power relations within the production of this kind of information are exposed. The article was submitted to Tourist Studies in May 2007.

Article II, The Importance of Guidebooks for the Choice of Tourist Sites: A Study of German Tourists in Sweden, concentrates on the influence of German guidebooks on tourists’ selection of tourist sites. It also analyses spatial representations on Sweden and the
images conveyed in the books. The article has been published in the Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 6(3), 229-247, 2006.

Article III, Tourist Routes: A Time-Geographical Approach on German Car-Tourists in Sweden, discusses tourists’ mobility during their holidays. The study examines factors influencing tourist mobility and argues for the existence of an individual travel rhythm. The article has been published in Tourism Geographies, 9(1), 64-83, 2007.

Article IV, Germans’ Tourist Behaviour in Sweden, analyses the influence of the four factors place, space, time and information on German tourists’ activities while on holiday. The article asks the question of whether tourists are as active as they are depicted as being in current tourism discourse. Also, the difference between home and tourist behaviour is discussed. The article was submitted to Tourism in June 2007.
2 The tourism system

Tourists travel to different places. They can either travel and stay in one place only, or visit various places along an itinerary. Tourists carry along more than their luggage; they also bring their own experiences, motivations and knowledge about the places they are visiting. Hence, tourist experiences do not occur in isolation. Rather, as Hall (2005) puts it, tourist-receiving areas should also be understood in relation to tourists’ origins. This approach is further discussed in this chapter.

Among existing comprehensive approaches, Leiper (1979, 1990a) has provided a system organisation of the research field. His model of the tourism system has been frequently quoted and remodelled (e.g. Witt & Montinho, 1994; Hall, 2005; Mill & Morrison, 2006). Systems have various advantages for coping with the multidisciplinary setting of tourism, not least because of its intrinsic complexity. The tourism system contributes to the understanding of the destination, which in turn can add to the substance and meaning of the area (Farrell & Twining-Ward, 2004). With the ability to explain tourists’ mobilities, potential future movements can be forecasted, and new routes and attractions can be developed and strategically located. Also, unexploited market areas can be identified (Mill & Morrison, 2006).

In Leiper’s (1990a) model, there are three core elements. Firstly, the tourist is the actor in the system. Secondly, the tourism industry consists of a range of businesses and organisations that are concerned with the tourist supply. Different parts of the tourism industry can be located anywhere in the model, depending on the kind of supply that is offered. Thirdly, there are geographical elements, which in turn consist of four factors, all contributing to the understanding of the tourism structure. Three of these factors (the traveller generating region, the tourist destination region and the transit route region; see Figure 1) belong to the core of the system. Leiper uses the term traveller for the generating region and the departing and returning phases, but the term tourist for the destination region. In this thesis, only the term tourist is employed. Tourist-generating region and tourist-receiving region are used synonymously with tourist origin and destination region, respectively. The tourism system is surrounded by what Leiper calls environments. These constitute the fourth factor and contain, among other things, human, socio-cultural, economic, technological and physical structures, as well as political or legal ones, altogether affecting the ability to travel. All travel flows are located within such an environment, leading to an interaction between tourists and the environment. In addition, tourism itself affects both (future) tourists and the society in which it takes place. However, due to the decision to concentrate on the core structure within the tourism system, the environments are not considered further in this thesis.
Hitherto, most figures on the tourism system have implied that the journey to and from the tourist destination region must be seen as a means to arrive somewhere: either to the tourist-receiving or tourist-generating region. Those figures are true if tourists are travelling to one place only and remain predominantly immobile there. If so, the destination region is also confined by this considerably lower degree of mobility. In this case, the destination region can be marked with a closed circle or square, as is done in the original tourism system models.

However, such a system brings difficulties when it comes to round tours, as the intrinsic value of mobility is downplayed. Leiper (1990a) and Lundgren (2001) have paid attention to multiple-stop journeys in their systems. However, the transit routes between the individual tourist sites are all located outside the single destinations, thereby implying that the journey itself does not belong to the tourist-receiving region but is simply a means of transport. In contrast to these approaches, it is here argued that for tourists who travel to several places along an itinerary, the tourist route can receive a role that is more important than being a mere transportation route between destination region(s) and/or the generating region (Figure 2). A tourist-receiving region can thus consist of one or several tourist sites. At least parts of the transit route should be included in the tourist-receiving region, as mobility can be seen as playing an important role in the tourist experience. This argumentation is strengthened by the popularity of scenic drives, in which mobility plays the focal and pleasant role (Wall, 1972; Kent, 1993).

The tourist-generating region can be confined by the space that belongs to the tourists’ everyday sphere, and that is relatively known to them. The first part of the journey is located within this region. This part of the trip substitutes a part of the transit route region in the original model. The tourist-generating region is left quickly, as tourists aim to reach their destination region. This is indicated by the direct arrows in the tourist-generating

Figure 1: The tourism system. Redrawn from Leiper (1990a).
region. In this phase of the journey, tourists are considered to be less willing to take detours or extend travel time by making more stops than are actually needed. Another difference between the remodelled version and the original is that mobility is partly included in the destination region, and is not placed outside it. The tourist-receiving region in this remodelled tourism system reaches further to the tourist-generating region, beginning where the tourist-generating region ends. In the case of international tourism, political boundaries have a significant effect on tourist mobility (Timothy, 2001) and can be seen as one possible boundary of the region, where the greater part of the travel route is accomplished. The difference between the mobility in the tourist-generating region and receiving region is that mobility is understood as necessary transport in the generating region, while it is part of the attraction in the receiving one. As tourists can enjoy mobility through this region as part of the holiday attraction, they do not necessarily take the shortest possible route between two places, since mobility becomes a pleasure in itself.

![Tourism System Diagram](image)

*Figure 2*: The tourism system in the case of multiple-stop journeys. Remodelled from Leiper (1990a, pp. 24-25).

The structure of this thesis is based on the tourism system. The reason for this is that both the tourist-generating region and mobility are considered to play an important role in tourist behaviour at the sites that are visited. This notion is supported by Hall (2005), who argues that a great part of tourism research studies specific elements of the tourism system, instead of analysing the interplay between them. In addition to this, most research is focused on the tourist destination areas. Farrell and Twining-Ward (2004) confirm a strong focus on the industrial core in tourism. This might not come as a surprise, as the most remarkable effects occur here.

Tourists live in the generating region, and this implies that the journey starts and ends here. Tourist organisations promote their destination here, and this is the area where tourists usually start their search for information. Depending on their individual motivations, past experiences and preferences, information will influence their behaviour. The eventual
activities and experiences that take place in the destination region are thus not only dependent on this region itself, but also on the prerequisites that tourists carry along with them. Hence, the resulting holiday in the destination region is partly dependent on the generating region. The first article in this thesis, in which the production of tourist information is studied, is allocated to this part of the tourism system.

The use of guidebooks usually starts before the journey, but is continued throughout the holiday. As guidebooks can strongly influence their readers (McGregor, 2000), they play an important role in tourists’ behaviour and mobility. This is examined in the second article in this thesis. Guidebooks are also read after the holiday and here, the generating region serves as a place to recollect memories (Clawson & Knetsch, 1966). Guidebooks often play an important role in this, as tourists can re-experience their holiday while glancing through the book, using it as a kind of souvenir. According to this argumentation, the use of tourist information is important in the whole tourism system.

The tourist-receiving region is the area in which tourists choose to spend their holidays, thus most consequences of the tourism system occur here. Depending on the type of holiday, the tourist-receiving region can be of varying size. For those tourists staying predominantly in one place only, the tourist-receiving region is relatively small, while it has a much larger size when tourists take a trip that includes different places. The accessibility, infrastructure and structure of the tourism industry, as well as the capital flow into and within the destination area, all influence the tourist experience in this area. Among other things, accommodations, restaurants, information services, retail and attractions belong to this category. The visitors who travel here make use of the tourist supply to a varying degree. The tourist supply can vary considerably between different destinations, as can the behaviour between individual tourists and tourist sites. This is studied in the fourth article.

Tourists can view their mobility either as a means to reach their target region or as one of the main reasons for travelling at all. The latter would be the case on round tours, as mobility constitutes a great part of tourists’ holiday experiences on these trips. The article on tourist mobility (Article III) deals with this part of the tourism system. If tourists are going on a round tour, it has to be questioned whether the transit route region and destination region can be sharply distinguished, as is suggested in the original model of the tourism system. When tourists move between places at their destination, would not this imply that the transit and destination region partly merge? This question is given attention in the remodelled version of the tourism system. As argued below, the aim of tourists’ mobility can either be to reach their destination region, or, usually in the case of round tours, mobility can have an intrinsic value as well. To date, this has not been shown in a model. Spatial mobility is strongly related to considerations of time and space, which are discussed in the following chapter.
3 Tourism in time and space

The tourism system is situated in time and space. Different places are connected along the journey, and the situation in one place may affect both tourist supply and behaviour in another. In addition, the time of the holiday is restricted, a factor that distinguishes tourism from migration (Bell & Ward, 2000). Based on this argumentation, the thesis takes one of its theoretical starting points in time geography, a theory developed primarily by Hägerstrand (1970) and his colleagues in Lund (for example Lenntorp, 1976; Thrift, 1977; Mårtensson, 1979; Carlstein, 1981) in the 1970s and early 80s. Like time geography, this thesis builds on the assumption that series of events are connected in time and space by means of individual trajectories. As time and space are treated as inseparable entities, all actions and events are both space and time consuming.

Time geography rests on the idea that individuals’ lives can be mapped as trajectories in time and space. The actors are represented as physical entities. During their lives, but also during shorter periods of time like weeks or days, individuals move along paths and accomplish activities at stations that are more or less fixed in time and space. These activities usually consist of a number of discrete elements, which together form a project. Such a project could be daily shopping, but also a visit to a tourist attraction. Within a limited period of time, like a day or a holiday for that matter, the ability to reach the desired locations is restricted. Individuals move in space-time prisms that consist of possible paths, which are surrounded by time-space walls on all sides. Their size depends on both the availability of time and the pace of the individual (Hägerstrand, 1970, 1973; Lenntorp, 1976).

Time geography has contributed to the development of the social sciences. Apart from human geography, the concept has entered a multitude of other subjects by demonstrating that all social sciences contain questions of time and space. The application of time geography does not exclude tourism, although this transmission has not yet gained momentum (Smith, 1995; Hall, 2005). One reason for the relative neglect of the theory is that tourism has long been considered to be the reverse of everyday life (Quan & Wang, 2004), thus making the application of Hägerstrand’s theory seemingly unsuitable. Although this perspective continues to some extent in present-day tourism studies (e.g. Wang, 2000; Boniface, 2003), studies do exist in which time geographical theory is employed in tourism matters. In his study on spatial behaviour in the Bahamas, Debbage (1991) stated that space-time constraints are more important for tourists’ spatial behaviour than are socioeconomic factors. In Sweden, Jansson (1994) employed a time-geographical perspective, discussing tourists’ accessible time-space prisms. The study of Fennell (1996) on tourist space-time budgets in the Shetland Islands is another example of the application of time geography in tourism. Here, Fennell used a time geographical behaviour model to establish a typology of tourists. Aronsson (1997) showed graphically how tourists move through time and space, and Frändberg (1998) brought together considerations on tourism and time geography, concluding that tourism represents a reversal of time-space constraints, as it goes beyond what Hägerstrand (1984) calls the cage of routines and because tourist activities are largely spatially unbound.
If transferred to tourism-related research questions, time geography can contribute to explaining tourists’ mobility and activity structures. Though time-space restrictions on the individual days of the holiday may not be as severe as during everyday life, the whole holiday is restricted in time, as it has a definite beginning and end. This implies that the time-space prism through which a tourist travels is restricted from the outset. The size of the prism is constituted by different factors, and in this connection Jansson (1994) particularly hints at the importance of tourists’ economy and transportation. In addition, cages of routines are here argued to exist during holidays as well. Tourists are not assumed to replace restricted home behaviour with seemingly unrestricted tourist behaviour, but to carry much of their daily routines and activities with them. Even though compulsory activities associated with everyday life hardly exist during holidays, this does not necessarily mean that tourists do not replace them with other, recurring activities in order to structure their time. In this line of argumentation, structuring of time and space should take place for both mobility in space and tourist behaviour in place. Hence, cages of routines at home are argued to be replaced by different routines on holiday, be they in space or place. This is studied in Articles III and IV.

A further reason for the application of time geography on tourism is the ongoing time-space compression. In Western societies, the level of mobility has risen sharply during the past decades. Today’s routinised time-space paths are hardly comparable to those that existed when Hägerstrand and his associates first developed the theory. Mobility today seems to be the norm in the Western world (Coles & Timothy, 2004; Coles et al., 2005), where for many people tourism constitutes a self-evident part of the year. Consequently, the more mobile people are, the more travel and tourism should be part of an annual habit.

### 3.1 Time-geographical constraints in tourism

The completion of projects, be they in everyday life or during holidays, is delimited by temporal and spatial constraints. These are interactive rather than additive, and together outline possible paths for individuals. Hereby, they can also be connected to the capacity to accomplish desired projects (Hägerstrand, 1970; Lenntorp, 1976; Gregory, 2000; Hall, 2005). Hägerstrand (1970) discusses three types of constraints, all of which exist on both a macro and a micro level. His thoughts were developed in relation to everyday life, but below it is argued that they can also be used to explain projects in tourism. By providing the possibility to analyse the structures in tourist behaviour and mobility, they can add to the explanation of the tourism system.

Individuals and groups are obliged to spend certain amounts of times in certain spaces, which leads to coupling constraints. These define the place and the length of time an individual has to spend together with others, or with tools or materials, so as to produce, consume and transact. The grouping of several paths results in time-space bundles, which could be either a meeting or time spent together at a tourist destination. On a holiday, there are arguably less inflicted bundles that an individual has to relate to. Frändberg (1998) argues that tourists are usually not exposed to coupling constraints, as they are not bound to visit particular places. Many coupling constraints indeed belong to people’s everyday lives;
however, tourists visiting friends and relatives are undeniably bound to particular places. Also, tourists have to adapt their routines to certain dates and times, like school holidays, opening hours or departure times, and to their travel companies.

Authority constraints refer to time-space entities (pockets/domains) in which individuals or groups control the events taking place. Admission to the domains is restricted according to who is seeking access and when this is done. In this aspect, authority constraints resemble Foucault’s (1980) notion of power being exercised in different domains. This notion bases itself on an existing hierarchy of places to which some have access while others do not. Hence, authority constraints can exercise control on individuals’ time spending in tourism, too. They exist in forms of access restrictions to nature reserves, private properties, military areas, etc. Authority constraints can also restrict access to countries and demand passports or visas. In addition to this, it is argued that constraints exist not only to regulate access to places, but also for the knowledge thereof. Knowledge can be restricted due to poor access to tourist information. This, again, can have far-reaching impacts on tourist behaviour and mobility (Articles II, III and IV), which implies that those who produce the information are major actors within the structure of authority constraints (Article I).

Last, capability constraints refer to individual physical abilities and the facilities actors have access to. The prisms in which individuals move are of variable size (Hägerstrand 1970). In relation to tourist behaviour and mobility, the differentiation between an individual’s effective and potential reach is important. While the latter is defined by the individual’s basic ability to move, the effective reach is usually much smaller. Factors like the individual’s knowledge about a place, access to information or transportation, economic restrictions and emotional aspects limit individuals’ mobility. In addition, individuals’ capacities and biographies, as well as the supply in time-space, can influence it. In relation to this, Miller (1991) speaks of a potential path space, which is characterised in terms of time-space prisms that delimit an individual’s reach. People’s travel time budgets have not changed much during the past decades, but most tourists today can travel further thanks to lower prices and faster modes of transportation (Schafer, 2000; Hall, 2004, 2005). But people do not usually exploit the whole potential reach they have access to. Instead, they typically choose to spend their time in smaller space frames (Hägerstrand, 1978; Jansson, 1994). The dimension of the prisms depends on the locations and durations of obligatory activities, as well as on travel velocities. The coverage of distance may be influenced by a combination of factors like information, travel company, tourist supply and destination size. The same argumentation can be applied to tourist activities. While the potential supply contains a whole range of activities tourists could take part in, the effective supply may represent the supply tourists actually access. The above argumentation may contribute to our understanding of tourists’ levels of activity participation. These considerations are discussed in Articles III and IV.

The initial point in time geography is the discussion on the individual’s reach in his/her everyday life. People alternately spend time at single places (stations) and are mobile between them as they complete their projects. The alternation between mobility and immobility is here argued to exist during holiday seasons, too. Tourists travel from one place to another, spending more or less time at different tourist sites away from home. They are mobile when travelling from home to the destination, along an itinerary or on daily
excursions. They also fulfil projects on a daily and a longer-term basis. But in this, does it matter whether these projects are carried out in their familiar surroundings during their everyday life or at other places? Tourists move along trajectories through time-space prisms, travelling on their individual paths between different stations while accomplishing their projects. Thus, it could well be argued that the constraints presented here serve suitably as an applicable basis for describing, interpreting and explaining time-space mobility and behaviour during non-everyday life.

3.2 Restrictions for tourist behaviour and mobility

Transferring the discussion on time geography to tourism, it is clear that tourists can in principle travel very far per time unit, as time-space compression has increased the average possible travel speed, and costs on the average have been reduced. However, in most cases this is not done, as tourists choose to act differently, or are restricted by constraints (Hall, 2005). In addition, tourists hardly spend all their time on tourist activities. The intrinsic question is what or who has the power to govern tourist behaviour and mobility. Building on the above theoretical debate, two limitations are of particular importance in this matter. In order not to be compounded with Hägerstrand’s term constraint, these limitations are called restrictions.

Firstly, information is supposed to be a central actor in the tourism system. Tourist information not only creates knowledge and images, but also stakes out norms and directions. Different information sources are of varying importance for individual tourist groups, and as demonstrated in Chapter 5, guidebooks constitute an information source that is of great importance to Germans. Tourists today can choose from an almost unlimited number of tourist sites, and guidebooks help them in their decision-making process. After all, tourism is not just about getting away from home, but is also about spending time in selected places. Information on and images of the destination region help indicate the directions and places that meet the demands of tourists. As guidebooks structure the journey, power relations exist between guidebooks and tourists. This relation is not absolute, however, as tourists can choose how to relate to the given information and which advice to follow. In addition, the guidebooks themselves are composed through the work of authors who, in their turn, are assumed to be influenced by not only tourism space itself but also other factors (Articles I and II).

Secondly, it is argued that being mobile is important for covering distance, but that it also has a value in itself. Mobility can be of great pleasure for tourists, but, as is argued here, only during a finite time frame. Tourists cannot be expected to exhaust their potential reach during their whole holiday, but should limit the tapping of their full travel potential to a limited number of days. Hence, an individual travel rhythm that limits daily travel distances is supposed to be an important restriction for tourists (Article III). In relation to this, a similar rhythm should exist when tourists are not mobile. As tourists cannot be expected to take part in as many tourist activities as they potentially could, restrictions should exist concerning participation in tourist activities. These restrictions can be based on factors such as time, space, place and information (Article IV). Tourists are supposed to take part in
activities that might be restricted at home. Spending time with friends and family can be such an interest, as this is frequently constrained at home due to time and/or space restrictions. Consequently, the restrictions do not have to only be associated with the situation in the tourist-receiving area, but are also related to tourists’ homes and thus involve the whole tourism system.
4 Tourist information and tourist behaviour

Tourists’ movements through time and space and their behaviour on-site are closely linked to the information tourists have access to. Studies on the production of tourist information have hitherto often focused on image making and the distinction between us and them (see for example Dann, 1996; Moscardo & Pearce, 2003). In this thesis, the focus is on information linked to questions concerning power, tourist behaviour and mobility. It is argued that intrinsic relations exist between these issues and that together they are of great importance for the tourism system.

4.1 Guidebooks as important sources of tourist information

The success of destination regions is largely dependent on the dissemination of information. From the tourists’ point of view, journeys to places outside their everyday surroundings are associated not only with curiosity and positive experiences but also with insecurity and risk (Fodness & Murray, 1997; Vogt & Fesenmaier, 1998; Money & Crotts, 2003). Especially when travelling to distant places for the first time, many tourists decide to search for information about the tourist sites. This behaviour is a way to prepare for the destination, and to select places to visit. Information search can be internal and external, whereby the former is based on one’s own knowledge and previous experience and the latter implies that information is collected from other sources (Gartner, 1993; Blackwell et al., 2006). Within the external group, friends and family, guidebooks, media and travel consultants constitute the most important information sources (Snepenger & Snepenger, 1993; Lo et al., 2002). Usually, different sources of information are combined on a trip.

Tourists seek advice in tourist information before, during and after their holiday. Leiper (1990b) works with MacCannell’s (1976) notion of tourists, sites and markers. For MacCannell, a tourist attraction stands in close relationship with these three factors, whereby the marker provides information about a particular site. Leiper (1990b) divides markers into three groups, according to time of usage: generating markers are gathered before the holiday, transit markers are come across en route, and contiguous markers are placed on the tourist site itself. Although most information sources are examined before the holiday, the information search at the destination should not be underestimated, which has unfortunately sometimes been done (DiPietro et al., 2007). Relations exist between distance, motivation, socio-demographic backgrounds and the time when tourist information is predominantly used. The longer the distance to the destination, the more likely tourists are to use tourist information before departure. While tourists on cultural holidays are eager to get well informed before departure, city tourists use information on-site more than others do. Younger tourists and those who are highly educated tend to use tourist information predominantly in the destination region (Richards, 2002). Leisure tourists also use tourist information in general, and guidebooks in particular, as information sources after the journey, in order to recapitulate the holiday (Money & Crotts, 2003).
Tourist information thus plays a great role not only during the time of the journey, but also beforehand and afterward. It is important in the whole tourism system.

As soon as the destination is chosen, the importance of guidebooks increases. Their use can increase additionally as the length of stay does (Richards, 2002) and when tourists are going on a round tour (Jacobsen, 1999). Further, the distance between tourist-generating and receiving regions influences the level of information search. The longer the distance, the more important guidebooks become. Distance can be both geographical and mental. Many tourists travelling to Scandinavia, especially to its northern parts, consider the area exotic, and think of their trip as a kind of expedition. Such an attitude implies a detailed planning of the trip, and an intensive search for information (Jacobsen, 1995).

Several studies report on the importance of guidebooks; among the latest are Elsrud (2004) on Lonely Planet and Nishimura et al. (2006) on the ability of guidebooks to facilitate individual travel. Forms of guidebooks have been used since antiquity, but it was first during the emergence of the bourgeoisie that the books came to resemble those read today. While tourists were once dependent on human guides, the written guidebook has gradually replaced this group to some degree. Guidebooks are of varying importance in different cultures. For Germans, they constitute one of the most important sources. They are read thoroughly, and the industry is properly adapted to the heterogeneous demand (Scherle, 2001). Guidebooks not only influence their choice of tourist sites, but also contribute to shaping their itineraries (Jack & Phipps, 2003). When travelling to Sweden, Germans read up on the country to a large degree (Müller, 1999).

While some might argue that the Internet has displaced guidebooks, this has hitherto not been the case. On the contrary, due to more people travelling individually, composing their journey on their own, and due to a growing range of guidebooks to choose from, the popularity of this information source has even grown. Tourists use the Internet predominantly for transportation and accommodation planning. Richard (2002) argues that the Internet is used mainly to gather general information on the whole destination region, but to a minor degree for detailed information on certain tourist sites. This is still the case today (see Articles I and II). When it comes to information on itineraries or tourist sites, tourists consider the segmented information from the Internet unhandy. Loose sheets also diminish the pleasure of browsing through a comprehensive book with appealing texts and photographs.

If tourists did not know about different destinations and their qualities, travel would hardly occur (Gunn, 1997). Consequently, tourism is highly dependent on the representation of places in tourist information like guidebooks. In these books, representations do not take place by coincidence but are intentionally constructed. Hence, guidebooks are dependent on intrinsic power structures. In their study on travel literature, Duncan and Gregory (1999) conclude that travelogues are of great importance for the construction of geographical knowledge. Guidebooks contribute to shaping space and producing meaning within these spaces. This notion can be based on Lefebvre’s (1991) thoughts on the representations of space. Space can be presented in many different ways, which makes it a social construction.
4.2 Tourist information and power

Through the selection of attributes and the way they are presented, tourism spaces are provided with (in)significance, depending on whether or not they are selected. As in other sources, the information offered is restricted. It is produced due to the discourse of its own production, which influences both the subject and the way it is presented (Hughes, 1998). Hall (1997) argues for the existence of a circuit of culture, which consists of regulation, identity, consumption, production and representation. Meaning can be produced by all these factors individually, as well as by a combination thereof. In this, there are semiotic and discursive approaches. The semiotic approach, which is related to de Saussure (1960), is concerned with the way of presentation and is not studied further in this thesis.

The discursive approach is concerned with the effects of representation. This approach recognises that the producers of knowledge not only select what is true and what is not, but that they can also make their own knowledge true. Writers of guidebooks are not neutral. Like other creators of knowledge and images, guidebooks are products of individuals who are part of particular societies (Morgan & Pritchard, 1998). In addition, guidebook authors are dependent on the publishers with whom they cooperate (Gorsemann, 1995). Their selection may also be dependent on the political, social and cultural system in which it is based, and on existing norms and values. Thus, as presentation of some selected sites takes place at the expense of others, tourist information is closely connected to relationships of power. In the end, the places that are selected and presented along with other tourist sites in guidebooks do have a great impact on tourists (Lew, 1991; McGregor, 2000, Nishimura et al., 2006).

Discussions on power, especially if connected to knowledge, have often been associated with Foucault’s (1980) considerations. Foucault argued that power can create knowledge and forms of discourse, but did not relate his thoughts on power to tourism. Other researchers (Cheong & Miller, 2000, MacCannell, 2001; Lindström, 2002) have established a connection between Foucault and tourism. Cheong and Miller (2000) interpreted Foucault in the way that tourists are powerlessly exposed to the information they have access to. To them, tourists are captives who cannot select desirable suggestions from undesirable ones. In contrast to this approach, it is here argued that tourists are capable of relating to the information sources through which they seek advice. Not only do they select which advice to follow, but they also create and recreate tourism spaces by means of their own individual behaviour. In the end, tourists’ behaviour may also lead to an adjustment of the content in tourist information, which will, in turn, have an influence on future tourists.

The above thoughts can be related to Giddens’ (1984) structuration theory. Within the duality of structure, each structure is exclusive for each individual moment. Events in the past and at other places have a strong influence on the situation here and now; as it were, structure binds time and space. In this, structuration theory builds on the time-geographical concept of individuals’ paths through time and space. Transferred to information, tourist behaviour and mobility, this would mean that tourist information influences tourists’ behaviour, but also that tourists influence the future production of information by the way they travel in time and space and select the sites they visit. Tourist behaviour and mobility are discussed further in the next chapter.
4.3 **Tourist behaviour and mobility**

People spend time in and between places during their holidays, thereby displaying different forms of behaviour. In this thesis, the terms tourist behaviour and tourist mobility are distinguished between. The term tourist mobility comprises tourists’ movements in time and space and focuses on spatial interactions between places. The term tourist behaviour is engaged with the behaviour on-site and focuses on the level and form of activities performed. In this, mobility is only exceptionally included if it appears within the site that is visited.

4.3.1 **Tourist mobility**

Tourist mobility is a form of spatial interaction, which in turn can be defined as the movement of people, products, information and capital across space. Spatial mobility includes diverse forms of mobility, such as migration, commuting, capital and information flows, recreation and leisure travel. Treating tourist mobility as one of many forms of human mobility is a rather recent form of conceptualising tourism. Based on these grounds, Coles *et al.* (2005) argue that different forms of mobility ought to be studied in relation to individuals, not to tourists or non-tourists. In this connection, Bell and Ward (2000) claim that tourism is a form of temporary mobility and circulation located on one side of the mobility continuum, while migration is located on the other. They go on to argue that temporary mobility can be defined as a movement that is, in contrast to permanent migration, not exposed to a permanent change of usual residence. In addition, while permanent migration usually consists of a single transition, mobility within tourism is generally a repetitive event. Further, while only minor seasonal variations exist for migration, there are large seasonal variations for temporary mobility.

An important element within the study on mobility is that of geographical scale. In general, tourist mobility is not an undiscovered study field. Quite on the contrary, researchers (e.g. Page, 2005), tourist organisations (e.g. *Visit Sweden*, 2006) and public authorities (e.g. *Nutek*, 2007) have been eager to analyse tourists’ movements. Many studies, however, are conducted on a national and international scale. Thus, it is well known how many tourists arrive by aeroplane or ferry each year in Sweden. Reducing the scale to subnational level, however, less is known about intradestination mobility within tourism studies (Prideaux, 2005). One reason for this is that mobility is often considered a precondition for tourism, rather than a matter in its own right (Debbage, 1991; Fennell, 1996; Hall, 1999; Urry, 2002; Page, 2005).

Despite the fact that studies on intraregional mobility are scarce, a reasonable number of empirical studies on tourist mobility in general, as well as on modelling, does exist. For example, Keul and Kühberger (1997) notice a correlation between stopping time and walking speed of urban tourists, where longer stops lead to faster walking. In addition, they discover that first-time visitors make longer stops than repeat visitors do.
(2001) notices huge differences between main destination visitors and through travellers. In fact, as their mobility and behaviour are so distinct, McKercher proposes that they ought to be considered discrete markets. Flognfeldt (2005) observes a relation between the distance between tourist-generating and receiving areas and the level of intradestination mobility.

For the development during the past twenty years, the models of Lundgren (1987), Lue et al. (1993), Oppermann (1995), Flognfeldt (1999, 2005) and Ryan and Huimin (2007) have contributed to our understanding of tourist mobility. Most of these models have in common that they are built on an inductive, empirically led foundation. Recently, Lew and McKercher (2006) divided the existing models on mobility into two dimensions, contributing further to the mobility concept. Their arrangement is built on a deductive approach: instead of drawing on results from empirical studies, they base their arguments on intervening factors in urban transportation modelling and on tourism literature.

In their work on spatial mobility, most researchers have been devoted to what Lew and McKercher (2006) call linear mobility models. These models deal with the geography of place and can be grouped into three categories. The point-to-point type includes direct travel to an intended point, before returning home or to the accommodation on the same route. As the most direct route is usually chosen, the time spent at the stop is maximised in this type. If the trips are assembled consecutively, an itinerary develops. The circular pattern consists of sections that are arranged in a loop. At the end of their holiday, tourists arrive at their starting point. This movement pattern is probably the most time and distance-efficient. Within the complex pattern, a random exploratory movement is common. While there may well be an underlying logic to these trips, for example due to geographical prerequisites, they can be difficult to identify. A special type of the complex pattern is the radiating hub type, which is relatively common. In this type, tourists travel to one point (their base) and undertake excursions from there. The number of excursions can be dependent on factors including length of stay, conditions on-site and, not least, the tourists’ special interests. Most tourists today travel according to the point-to-point type. However, due to increased time budgets and destination knowledge, a modification is likely to occur.

Taken together, mobility is of great importance in tourism, and it can be safely assumed that mobility itself can be of great importance for the tourist. There may, however, be limits to how much mobility is considered positive before it becomes tiresome. Fennell (1996) reflects on the supposition that travel time can be conceived as both positive and negative. A negative conception of travel time may result in journeys to destinations that are located closer to the starting point. Regarding positive conceptions of travel time, Haldrup (2004) lists different forms of movements that are usually experienced in a positive way, like hiking. Mobility can thus surely have an importance in its own right. This argumentation relates to the notion of the potential and effective size of an individual’s reach, as tourists hardly travel as far as they potentially could, if they do not have to. After a while, travel may become tiresome.

Tourist mobility in space is closely related to tourist behaviour in place. Lew and McKercher (2006) associate a higher level of mobility to higher levels of information search and knowledge about the destination, which signifies the close connection between information, tourist mobility and behaviour. Arguably, as accessibility, tourist time budgets
and knowledge levels have tended to increase, the mobility spectrum has changed. In former times, mobility was more likely to be restricted. For many of today’s tourists, mobility in the destination region plays an important role. While some tourists become more mobile the longer they have stayed in the destination region, the mobility of others is not influenced by the time spent there. These two groups are today the mobility types that mirror most tourists’ movements (Lew & McKercher, 2006). In his study on tourist behaviour and mobility in Denmark, Haldrup (2004) underlines the connection between tourists’ mobility and the importance of spending time not between, but in, places. Tourist behaviour in place is discussed in the next chapter.

4.3.2 Tourist behaviour

Tourist behaviour strongly interacts with tourist information and mobility, as mobility is a prerequisite for reaching the place to be visited, and access to information has been shown to influence both mobility and behaviour on-site (Bhattacharyyya, 1997; Lew & McKercher, 2006). Just like tourist mobility, tourist behaviour has often been studied from a macro perspective. In such studies, focus is placed on journeys between countries and the means of transport with which they are accomplished (e.g. Burton, 1995; Page, 2005). This is also shown in the title ”Global Tourist Behavior”, edited by Uysal in 1994, implying that tourist behaviour takes place on an international scale. However, in this thesis, tourist behaviour is considered a local issue, occurring in-place when tourists are not mobile.

The term behaviour describes an individual’s activity. In his book, “Tourist Behaviour”, Pearce (2005) draws on Harré and Secord’s (1972) interpretation of the term as a summary of the individual’s visible activities and the mental processes that result from social life. Behaviour can be separated into obligatory and discretionary activities, whereby the former signifies individuals’ necessary activities like eating or sleeping, and the latter can be chosen additionally, like recreation. Tourism is located close to the discretionary end of this spectrum, as a great part of voluntariness is involved (Walmsley, 2004).

Tourist behaviour has been closely associated with tourists’ motivations, which can be influenced by push and pull factors (Medlik, 2002; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2006). These terms are based on Iso-Ahola’s (1982) division into (i) desires to escape from certain circumstances at home that initiate a person to travel (push), and (ii) desires to attain particular things somewhere else (pull). Pull factors are often considered to be attractions, or the tourist supply as a whole. In tourism literature, there has been some debate over which of these factors is most important. For example, Gunn (1997) has claimed that attractions on-site exercise a magnetic pulling power, whereas Leiper (1990b) is of the opinion that tourists are not pulled towards a place but are rather pushed by their own impulse.

The diversity of behaviour is based on various expressions of tourists’ needs and motivations (Ryan, 1997). In this connection, Pearce (1988a) developed a travel career ladder, by which tourist motivation ranges from relaxation and stimulation at the bottom of the ladder to relationship, self-esteem and development, and fulfilment at the top. A number
of typologies have hitherto been produced on tourists and their behaviour. In most of them, tourists have been grouped according to their preferences for certain destinations, activities and group versus individual travel (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2006). Two of the early typologies were produced by Cohen (1972) and Plog (1974). The former identified organised mass tourists, individual mass tourists, explorers and drifters, and the latter related personality to tourist behaviour in a distinction between allocentrics (adventurous tourists who prefer exotic places and individual travel), psychocentrics (tourists who are less adventurous and prefer resorts) and midcentrics (behaviour between these two extremes). Plog later modified his model (1995) and divided travellers into dependables (who follow patterns and routines), venturers (who seek new and exotic places) and centrics (who display characteristics of both the others). In addition to positive feedback, these and other typologies have attracted negative criticism, and Swarbrooke and Horner (2006) subsume that there will probably never exist one typology that represents all tourists.

The term tourist behaviour focuses on tourists’ on-site behaviour and their personal reactions to it. It can thereby be distinguished from consumer behaviour, which concentrates on product choice and the satisfaction with the products. In addition, tourist behaviour is more connected to the phases before and after the actual on-site behaviour (Schutte & Carlante, 1998; Bagazzi et al., 2002; Pearce, 2005). It is formed directly at the tourist site as well as in the tourist-generating region, and in between. Numerous factors influence the specific tourist behaviour, and Pearce (2005) divides the various aspects into three groups. Demographic factors are comprised of age, gender, nationality and additional issues like expenditure, occupation and education. Travelling style distinctions contain factors such as destination patterns, length of stay, trip purpose, distance travelled, transport mode and the question of whether the tourist is travelling independently or is on a package trip. Last, product and activity classifications also play a role, as different forms of tourism like cultural, educational, nature-oriented or urban tourism can be distinguished. Ross (1998) argues that antecedent conditions play a role; these include attitudes, preferences, values, beliefs and perceptions. This thesis starts from the assumption that tourist behaviour does not happen in a vacuum but is linked in time and space to tourists’ mobility, their life at home, other activities and access to information. Thereby, it is argued that information, time, space and place play important roles in tourists’ behaviour.

Desbarats (1983) and Hudson and Gilbert (2000) note that much of tourist behaviour is limited. The former reasons that constraints reduce the number of options, and illustrates how institutional and accessibility constraints on the supply of tourism facilities ultimately generate an objective choice set, from which a selection can be made. Although Desbarats’ views are almost 25 years old, they can be transferred to current thought. She states that the number of options is reduced by information constraints, producing an effective choice set. Further, a destination choice set occurs due to socially constructed preferences and here, situational constraints may limit the individual’s actual choice. Guidebooks, as one form of information source, may contribute to constructing tourism space and staking out the spatial choices and selections of places that tourists decide on (Articles I and II). This has been demonstrated by, e.g., Lew (1991) and McGregor (2000).

It can be argued that the total amount of time has an effect on both tourists’ behaviour and their mobility in space. Principally, the more time tourists have at their disposal, the longer
they can travel and the more activities they can take part in. But, constraints should decrease the length of the tour and the number of activities (Articles III and IV). Additionally, the length of the holiday influences tourists’ behaviour. This approach is supported by Pearce (1988b), for example, who shows that participation in attractions between different visitor groups tends to vary less during the first days at the destination.

Concerning space and spatial behaviour in this thesis, it is supposed that tourists going on a round tour show different behaviour than do those who spend their holiday predominantly in one place (Articles III and IV). Flognfeldt (1999) finds that the spatial behaviour is partly responsible for the choice of attractions visited. Along with Cooper (1981), Tideswell and Faulkner (2002) note that taking part in multistation trips can reduce the risk of disappointment. The latter also observe a relation between the number of information sources and the number of regions through which tourists travel. Hwang and Fesenmaier (2003) add that the decision-making process differs considerably depending on tourists’ spatial behaviour.

The factor place is given attention in connection to the difference between an individual’s behaviour at home and on holiday (Article IV). Do tourists replace their home behaviour with tourist behaviour during the time they spend on holiday? Tourists might rather carry much of their home behaviour along, including their cages of routines. Quan and Wang (2004, p. 298) studied tourism literature on this issue and conclude that tourism has sometimes been identified as a “peak experience”, as tourists may choose journeys that allow them to experience something different from their everyday lives. They go on, however, to argue that tourism also includes everyday activities. In addition, McCabe (2002), for example, points out that supporting experiences such as eating or sleeping as a matter of course belong to the tourism experience. This statement is confirmed by Jacobsen (2002), who argues that a holiday involves not only the experience of otherness, but also an amount of sameness. This behaviour is particularly important for tourists from larger countries, such as Germany or France.

But if tourists carry much of their home behaviour along, why do they travel to different places? Jansson (1994) reviews previously discussed motives and states that in summary, there are five prevailing motives for tourist travel: activities, relaxation, status, sunlust and personal reasons. Pearce (1995) reasons that tourists’ access to information should not be underestimated for motivation development. Hall (2005) adds that tourists’ motivations change during their trips and during their life courses, and concludes that tourist behaviour should be studied in a wider context. The above contributions show that tourist behaviour is not only caused by the supply at the tourist destination but that other factors, located both within and outside the tourist destination region, play an important role. Tourist behaviour is strongly linked in time and space to mobility, life at home, other activities and information.

While tourism research has long focussed on attractions, it might be assumed that other factors like the mere pleasure of experiencing a place different from home, or being able to spend time with fellow travellers, are increasing in importance. The tourist supply in the destination region is a strong reason for travelling, but recent publications have also indicated the importance of factors that are not immediately involved in the attendance of
tourist attractions. In his study on holiday styles, Jacobsen (2002) concludes that there are strong indications for an escape to other places. Here, it is important for tourists to be in a place where they are unknown, and that is different to the home environment, contingently also when language is concerned. In addition, there tends to be a strong wish to travel away from everyday life and daily routines. Elsrud (2004) states that it is important for some travellers to escape structuring devices of everyday life, including clock time. Haldrup (2004) concludes from his findings that tourists staying predominantly in one place are more concerned with personal relations than with the visitation of tourist sites. In his argumentation, places are valued for their role as a location for family life, where people can spend time together, that is free from constraints. Andersson Cederholm (2007) agrees with this, and argues that while tourist attractions may still be significant, what is most important for many tourists is their relation to fellow travellers, and the possibility of spending time together without everyday duties.
5 German tourists and their preferences

Germans have long been known as world champions of travel (DZT, 2006). Even in times of economic stagnation, they still travel to a high degree. Due to the current economic upswing, today’s general mood regarding journeys is even rising. In 2006, 56 percent of those over 14 years of age went on one journey lasting at least five days; 18 percent went on two journeys. On average, 1.3 journeys per person were accomplished in 2006. One-third of these journeys were domestic, one-third headed for the Mediterranean, and one-third were spread over the rest of the world. During the past ten years, Eastern Europe and the Mediterranean region outside Europe, such as Turkey and Northern Africa, have become exceedingly popular. With a travel intensity (the percentage of persons older than 14 years of age who go on a holiday lasting five days or longer at least once a year) between 71 and 75 percent during the past 15 years, the number of journeys has remained at a constant level (F.U.R., 2007b).

Some 3 percent of all journeys go to Scandinavia, 1 percent to Sweden. Nearly half these journeys are planned individually. Whereas the aeroplane has become more popular, especially due to decreasing prices, journeys by car or mobile home have decreased in popularity during recent years. However, the usage of cars and mobile homes for travel to Sweden remains at some 80 percent (Schweden-Werbung für Reisen und Touristik GmbH, 2003; F.U.R., 2007b). Among tourists coming to Sweden, Germans are the most important as concerns multi-day visits (sharing this position with the Norwegians). In 2006, 19 percent of all registered foreign guest nights in Sweden were German. On the whole, 2.1 million German guest nights were counted (Niutek, 2007), but this does not include stays with friends and family, in second homes or mobile homes in public space, or overnight stays in the smallest accommodations. The actual number of guest nights can thus be supposed to be much higher. Altogether, the metropolitan regions of Stockholm, Gothenburg and Malmö attracted more than half of all foreign overnight stays. However, German leisure tourists are also known for avoiding metropolitan areas, especially when they go on trips around the country and when they have visited Sweden previously. A great part of those staying in metropolitan areas is thus thought to consist of business tourists.

From the above numbers, it is obvious that Sweden does not belong to the most popular destination countries for Germans. According to the Swedish Tourist Authority (2000), 57 percent of Germans do not imagine Sweden as a desirable tourist destination. This group declares that the country is too remote, cold and dark. Those who do decide to travel to Sweden first and foremost want to experience nature. Visiting friends and relatives is another important reason for travelling to Sweden, and many Germans also search for the “Astrid Lindgren country” and the picturesque places in the Swedish countryside that have been transmitted via books and television over the past 50 years (Müller, 2001). These images are maintained by Swedish tourist organisations, films and books. In 2006, a guidebook titled “Where is Bullerby?” (original title: “Wo ist Bullerbü?”) was edited by Schwieder and Schwieder in Germany, guiding Germans to the places that are associated with the children’s writer Lindgren and her stories.
Through such disseminations, the image of Sweden as a rural country with lakes, beautiful villages and red wooden houses is maintained. At the same time, the image is recreated by German tourists who visit the country and select tourist regions that are presented in such information sources, and who leave regions not presented like this largely unvisited. However, it is argued here that this situation is currently changing due to an increased accessibility to Sweden’s larger cities. Several German airlines provide cheap flights to densely populated areas in Sweden like Stockholm and Gothenburg. This attracts different kinds of leisure tourists than those who travel to Sweden by car. In addition, this new visitor group is supposed to stay in Sweden for much shorter periods of time than previous visitor groups. It is assumed that an increased number of city tourists will eventually modify the image of the country.

During their holidays, Germans like going on excursions, sunbathing, hiking and shopping. Although Opaschowski’s (1996) presentation of Germans’ tourist behaviour is some years old now, his notion of the alternation between action and recovery, stress and calm still holds (see Article IV). A certain regularity is important during the holiday, and daily rituals are not uncommon. At this point, however, generalisations should be warned against. In a country where 82 million people live, society is composed of many different groups with their particular preferences and choices. Hence, a presentation of tourist behaviour of the whole German population is hardly possible, but can only be an approximation.

Germans use a variety of internal and external information sources when going on holiday. Among the most important sources are friends and relatives, one’s own experience, and guidebooks. When Germans go on a booked group trip, tour operators and agencies understandably play an important role. The importance of guidebooks increases as tourists travel individually; car tourists especially organise trips on their own, including the information search (F.U.R., 2003, 2007a). Chen & Gursoy (2000, p. 201) state that “Germans [have] a great propensity of utilizing tour guides”. Jack & Phipps (2003) also affirm that guidebooks play an important role for German tourists and conclude that the books influence Germans’ itineraries.

Apart from the United States, the number of guidebooks on specific destinations is higher in Germany than in any other country. The great number of titles on the German book market is also mirrored by the diversity of special issues (Agreiter, 2003). The enormous interest in travel literature may not come as a surprise, as Germany has a long history of guidebook reading. Bepler (1994) reveals that the genre of travel literature actually emerged in German-speaking areas. In their beginnings, guidebooks not only included information on sites that were recommended, but also guidelines for observation and moral improvement. The first Baedeker, which is a guidebook that later became almost synonymous with international travel, dates back to the 1830s and has since had an ever-increasing number of competitors on the book market. In the beginning, the use of guidebooks was a class-based phenomenon: above all, the travelling elite read guidebooks for their journeys through Europe (Koshar, 2000; Jack & Phipps, 2003). In 2007, the search for guidebooks and related travel literature on Europe in the Internet bookshop Amazon (www.amazon.de, 2007) reveals over 15,000 titles, most of them in German. For Sweden alone, more than 100 titles are available.
While guidebooks are read to a low degree for travelling within Germany, the probability rises as soon as political boundaries are crossed during the journey. Most Germans buy their guidebook(s) when they know where and when to travel. They use the book before, during and after the journey, and those who have used a guidebook on a trip are likely to consider this information source again in future journeys. Today, practical information constitutes the most important criteria for choice of guidebook (Guthmann & Kagelmann, 2001). This fact may be attributed to the rising number of individual German travellers.
6 Methods

Studying the tourism system from different angles requires a combination of methods. In this thesis, interviews, content analysis, statistical analysis, travel diaries and mapping of results by means of GIS are used (Table 1). Producing maps especially designed for special purposes is a pedagogic way to present sometimes complex results. Depending on the individual aims and research questions in the four articles, different kinds of methods are employed in order to analyse different concerns in tourism. This has sometimes been called a triangulation of methods (Limb & Dwyer, 2001). With a combination of methods, it is possible to adapt individual methods to the particular research questions.

Table 1: Methods used in the four articles

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In order to analyse the impact of guidebooks on tourists, a content analysis is performed on German guidebooks on Sweden. By providing new insights and increasing the reader’s understanding of the text, this method helps to draw conclusions from the analysed texts (Krippendorff, 2004). Content analysis is widely used in tourism studies, especially concerning guidebooks and other sources of tourist information (see for example Heimtun, 2001). In Article II, the space in the guidebooks that is dedicated to the Swedish tourist regions is analysed and then compared to overnight and population statistics in the regions. For this, the country of Sweden has been divided into 41 tourist regions. All registered German guest nights at hotels, youth hostels and campsites in 2002 are included in the
calculation. While the population statistics are reliable, there are some difficulties regarding the number of tourists staying in the regions, as the statistics do not include tourists who stay with friends or relatives, or who stay in private cottages during their visit. Another problem may be caused by the differing numbers between those spending time in the region during the day and those staying over elsewhere. However, as the tourist regions are relatively large and the number of tourists crossing regional borders during the day can be regarded as rather small, this difficulty is accepted. Most analysed guidebooks were published in 2003. A comparison with prior editions shows very small differences regarding content, suggesting that there are no methodological difficulties in the comparison of guest nights in 2002 and guidebooks published in 2003.

Interviews are used in Articles I and IV. In Article I, the whole study is based on interviews with guidebooks writers and publishers. Wherever possible, the interviews took place in face-to-face meetings; only in exceptional circumstances were they conducted via telephone. No differences regarding content have been observed between telephone and personal meetings, with the exception that the former are somewhat shorter. For Article IV, the interviews are used in combination with travel diaries that tourists have kept during their trips through Sweden. In this study, the interviews serve to gain a more thorough understanding of the reasons behind the behavioural choices that have been documented in the diaries. Thereby, the interviews help us to understand the grounds on which certain choices are made. The interviews are particularly helpful in explaining the difference between home and tourist behaviour, as the informants were able to articulate themselves spontaneously in spoken language.

Travel diaries are used in Articles III and IV to capture information on tourists’ mobility in space and behaviour in place. Although not as widely used as surveys or interviews, diaries constitute an important method in human geography studies. For example, Tillberg Mattsson (2001) uses travel diaries in her study on families’ trips during their free time. In studies based on travel diaries, the respondents record their daily journeys, as well as when and between which places the journeys take place. In these studies, which aim at collecting information on both mobility in space and tourist behaviour on-site, it is also important that respondents write down what they do, and where and when they do it. The advantage of this method is that detailed information can be collected on both tourists’ spatial mobility and their behaviour on-site. The combination with interviews (Article IV) is particularly beneficial in this respect, as detailed information is received on tourist behaviour, while at the same time the reasons and motives that lead to this behaviour are given. The disadvantage is that the number of participants remains low. While universally valid conclusions cannot be drawn on the basis of the information received, the results do indicate essential types of behaviour while on holiday. It is thus the author’s opinion that the results are representative of German leisure tourists who are interested in travelling to Sweden, but not for all incoming tourists in general.

Mobile populations are extremely difficult to reach, as tourism is not static and mobility is often spontaneous. This means that comprehensive studies that incorporate detailed information on tourists’ mobilities and activities are problematic, as the information collected is complex and can hardly be collected in high numbers. If knowledge is required on individual travellers, this difficulty even increases. In this aspect, it is hardly possible
today to gather detailed information on tourist behaviour and mobility from a high number of respondents. It is difficult to reach a sufficient number of people who will take part in the study if travel diaries are used. Surveys, on the other hand, cannot convey as detailed in-depth information over a longer time period as travel diaries do. Hitherto, the most frequently used methods are maps of routes and lists of intended tourist sites and stopovers. However, both methods have their weaknesses, for example the problem of gathering detailed trip information. When maps are used, the most direct route is sometimes assumed to have been chosen, but such assumptions are precarious (Lew & McKercher, 2002; McKercher & Lew, 2004).

Due to the above argumentation, it is almost impossible to study tourism comprehensively. This means that with today’s possibilities, studies on tourist mobility ought to be explorative. This might be a reason for a relative lack of research in this area. Consequently, this thesis cannot offer a complete, statistically significant picture of travelling. Instead, however, it can comment on and analyse different types of tourists and mobilities. In future, electronic devices like Global Positioning Systems (GPS) might be a suitable alternative for learning more about tourist mobility. However, even if movements in time and space can be studied in detail using such devices, the question of integrity remains. Moreover, such research does not give individual answers on the motives and reasons for individual tourist mobility, unless the respondents agree to document them personally.
7 Paper summaries

Results from Article I, Who Has the Power over Tourist Information? About the Selection of Tourist Sites in Guidebooks

The first article focuses on the production of tourist information in German guidebooks on Sweden. Germans comprise one of the most important tourist groups in Sweden, and guidebooks constitute a particularly important source of tourist information for them. The theoretical starting point of this article is the notion that a selection of tourist sites takes place in the book, as text space is limited. In the article, it is analysed how this selection takes place, and who has the power to decide over it. This is done by interviewing authors and publishers of guidebooks in Germany.

On the German market, the total number of guidebooks has increased greatly during recent years. Simultaneously, the number of publishers has grown to an even larger extent, which has led to fierce competition and economic difficulties in several publishing houses. The publishers partly pass this pressure on to the authors, who have to adapt to the situation. First and foremost, the authors suffer from a lack of paid working time. This is a minor problem for those writing guidebooks in their free time, and who use their incomes to finance their hobby, that is, travelling. However, for those who earn their principal income from writing, financial survival is difficult. In order to adapt to the changing situation, they use mainly two strategies. Firstly, they try to reduce working hours per guidebook, which normally leads to a reduction in the time spent at the destination. Secondly, some seek to reduce travel costs. This can be done by travelling to fewer places or receiving financial support from tourist entrepreneurs. The latter strategy is not encouraged by the publishing houses, though it is not penalised in any way.

The eventual selection of tourist sites and information in the guidebooks is dependent on five factors. Occupational background and individual interest together constitute the personal factors. Secondly, editorial factors, which include the character of the book series, the increasingly strict guidelines on the composition of the text and the adaptation to the target group, are of importance. Further, the geographical location of the tourist site plays a role: the longer the distance from the beaten tracks, the more important it must be valued. A smaller text volume leads to a geographical concentration, on both a regional and local scale. Fourthly, economic factors play a role, if sponsoring has occurred. Last, the content is currently changing from culture, education and background information to a focus on practical information and experience. This modification is in line with the changing notion of tourism in general, and tourists’ notions of what a holiday should contain, in particular. The changing trends within tourism are thereby supported, and simultaneously enforced, by the guidebook industry.

The influence of different actors on the selection of tourist sites in guidebooks is complex, and could be compared to a web of power relations. The tourism environment with its socioeconomic context, market size and reading traditions sets the framework within which tourist information is produced. Authors choose the attractions they write about, but can only do so within the limits set by their publishers, who, in turn, have to consider target
groups and competitors. Entrepreneurs may cooperate with individual authors, as tourist organisations might do with publishing houses. In the long run, however, the information production process is largely dependent on consumers, who ultimately decide on the success or failure of guidebooks.

Results from Article II, *The Importance of Guidebooks for the Choice of Tourist Sites: a Study of German Tourists in Sweden*

The second article is concerned with the influence of guidebooks on tourists. For this analysis, a content analysis was conducted on nine German guidebooks. The relation between the representation of tourist regions and their lodging statistics was analysed, as was the effect of population size on the selection of tourist sites in the books. In addition, the creation of spatial representations and the images of Sweden in German guidebooks were explored.

Guidebooks constitute an important information source for tourists. As they provide their readers with social and spatial information, they separate attractive sites from those that are allegedly unpleasant. In doing this, they disturb the distance decay curve, which suggests that activity declines inversely with covered distance. The share of space in the guidebooks that is dedicated to each of the 41 previously defined tourist regions ranges from 0.2 percent to 16 percent. Most space is dedicated to the Stockholm region, followed by Northern Lapland. Generally, the most described tourist regions are located in southern coastal areas. For the least mentioned areas, two patterns are observed. Disregarded regions are often located in the north, and are repeatedly located in a successful region’s shadow. A relation exists between lodging statistics and the share of pages a tourist region receives in the guidebooks. The influence of guidebooks grows as distance increases. The number of inhabitants in each tourist region is found to influence its appearance in the guidebook only to a limited degree.

The research results affirm that tourist regions, as well as tourist sites, are given meaning through guidebooks. The sequence of presented tourist regions is similar in the guidebooks. Either Stockholm is presented first, or the southern regions come first, followed by other regions in a northward order. Sweden is divided in several ways, ranging from regions along a travel route to regions created by the authors personally. The construction of a tourist region is based on thematic reasons rather than geographical grounds, with administrative boundaries playing almost no role whatsoever. The number of created regions spans from five to 25. In the end, guidebooks are found to contribute to the creation of tourism space, while simultaneously establishing expectations on the individual areas.

The five most presented themes in the books are culture, practical tourist information, nature, parks and entertainment. While the most important themes are located almost exclusively in the southern parts of the country, themes recognised as less important are concentrated in the northern parts. Guidebooks do not convey a stereotypical image of Sweden, but partly do so for the different tourist regions. They thus provide a picture of Sweden that is far more balanced than that of tourist brochures. Tourism creates its own images, and guidebooks contribute to this process by identifying, selecting and presenting
tourist sites. Most German guidebooks on Sweden are also written by Germans. Thus, the image disseminated by these books is to a varying degree influenced by the general knowledge on Sweden in Germany. In the end, this may also contribute to tourists’ experiences of tourist sites.

Results from Article III, *Tourist Routes: A Time-Geographical Approach on German Car-Tourists in Sweden*

This article is based on the a priori statement that tourism does not occur randomly in space but that factors like distance, experience and knowledge influence tourists’ spatial travel patterns. In this study, travel diaries are used to collect information. The influence of time availability on the travel route is analysed, as well as whether there is a relation between the present trip and the previous number of visits. Last, it is studied whether an individual travel rhythm exists. The term individual travel rhythm was predefined as a travel pattern that is independent of the tourist sites visited.

While two-thirds of the respondents in the study go on a trip around Sweden (travellers), one-third lodge in one place only (base tourists). The length of stay in southern Sweden is usually shorter than it is further north. Likewise, those travelling in the southern parts of the country largely stay overnight within a short distance of having passed the Swedish border, indicating that it is important for them to reach their destination country. For tourists travelling to the north, travel distances are considerably longer on the way northwards than on the way back. Obviously, there is a strong wish to overcome as great a distance as possible in the beginning of the holiday. Apart from the greater distances travelled in the north of the country, travel patterns in the whole of Sweden are similar. The mean daily distance decreases after the first day of travel and varies between short and long distances in the middle of the holiday, and then rises again at the end of the holiday.

Base tourists drive shorter daily distances, and the variation between short and long travel distances in the middle of the holiday does not exist. Once the tourists arrive at the place of accommodation, most excursions are up to a daily total of 100 kilometres; these journeys are made regularly. Usually, one or two longer excursions up to 400 kilometres are made during the holiday, often during its second part. Excursions hardly take place during the first and last days of the holiday. Neither length of stay nor distance between the accommodation and the tourists’ home region influences the excursions.

The number of previous visits does not have any significant influence on the length of the present trip. It does, however, affect the choice of travel region. The more often a travel group has been to Sweden before, the further north they usually travel. A higher number of previous holidays in Sweden also reduces the probability of visiting larger cities. Time availability influences the journey in that a shorter stay usually means that longer daily distances are covered. An individual travel rhythm is found to exist. This travel rhythm is based on long travel distances on the first and last days of the holiday, and the fact that tourists seldom stay longer than one night at their first accommodation. Both results indicate that tourists try to spend as much time as possible at a large distance from their homes. Further, the days after and before the long journeys on the first and last days of the
holiday are usually signified by a low degree of spatial mobility. This is true for both
travellers and base tourists.

The result hint at the fact that mobility constitutes a pleasant part of the trip around the
country, but only if it does not last too long. The longest stay occurs in the region with the
greatest distance from the tourist’s home. Further, the longer tourists stay in one place, the
greater the distance they cover on their next travel day. A shorter stay in the destination
country is often compensated for by longer daily travel distances. Last, if the destination
region can be reached within one day of travel, the travel distances in the beginning of the
holiday are usually longer compared to the daily distances on the way home. As soon as the
destination region is located too far away to be reached within one travel day, this pattern
reverses. For base tourists the travel rhythm is less obvious, but once at their destination
they travel shorter distances regularly, and usually make longer trips during the second half
of the holiday.

Results from Article IV, Germans’ tourist behaviour in Sweden

In the fourth article, the impression given in tourism discourse that tourists are continuously
active during their holidays is critically examined. The influence of access to information,
spatial mobility, time and the characteristics of place on tourist behaviour in place are
analysed. Further, it is reviewed whether tourist behaviour is to be seen in opposition to
home behaviour. Methodologically, this was studied with the help of travel diaries and
interviews.

The article starts with a discussion on why it is assumed that the level of tourist activity is
overestimated. Firstly, this might be a matter of methodology. Secondly, the presentation of
tourists as participating in many activities and thus spending money might help in the
demand for more public spending on this industry. Thirdly, motivation and tourist
behaviour are sometimes intermixed in tourism literature. Last, participation time is often
excluded in studies on tourist behaviour, which instead focus on the number of activities,
no matter how quickly they can be performed.

On the average, respondents undertake 1.6 activities per day, with a duration of 98 minutes.
Altogether, this means that they spend less than three hours per day on tourist activities.
The most popular activities are visiting attractions, shopping and sightseeing. Many
activities are performed independent of location. The activity level in the city is higher than
in rural areas. However, 80 percent of all activities are performed in rural areas, pointing to
the popularity of the countryside for German tourists in Sweden. While most respondents
are rather passive compared to when they are home, instead focusing on spending time
together irrespective of the activity, some state that they are more active, as time is limited
and is thus perceived as more precious. The absence of externally imposed routine is
important, but many respondents instead find new routines. Place is perceived as the
clearer difference between home and tourist behaviour, as the activities are valued in a
more positive way due to different surroundings.
Spatial mobility influences the number, duration and succession of activities. However, the activity level remains approximately the same. In contrast to travellers, base tourists are eager to vary the kinds of activities from day to day. The reason for this is that travellers find that the journey itself involves a great deal of variety. The activity level is higher in urban than in rural areas; thus place is considered an important factor in tourist behaviour. No relation is found between length of holiday and choice of activity, their duration or their daily number. Clock time is said not to be of importance. Nonetheless, most activities are performed between 11 a.m. and 6 p.m. The time committed to single activities is often rather short, indicating that it is of great importance to have visited certain tourist sites and then tick them off their list. Also, when the number of possibilities is great, restlessness might be a reason for this.

Information has a strong effect on tourist behaviour. Travellers plan their routes and activities broadly in advance, but both travellers and base tourists usually arrange their exact activities on a day-to-day basis. The use of tourist information increases the number of activities, but at the same time also shortens participation time. This implies that an upper boundary of activity level exists, which is rather unattractive to exceed. The shorter the holiday, the more important tourist information becomes. Various activities are influenced by different sources of information, but altogether guidebooks are most important. Often, they constitute the basic source of information, which is then supplemented to varying degrees.

The three determinants spatial mobility, type of place and access to information are found to be of importance for tourist behaviour. The time period allotted for the holiday does not influence tourist behaviour, but is important for daily routines. Being geographically separated from their everyday lives, most respondents perform activities at a rather slow pace. Comparing home and tourist behaviour, the major differences are not the activities themselves, but rather a slower pace, a limited time period, a different place and spatial mobility. Home behaviour is added with tourist behaviour, but to a lesser degree than hitherto supposed.
8 Conclusions

In this thesis, tourist mobility in space and behaviour in place have been analysed. Tourists’ behaviour has been connected to time, space, place and information, and strong relationships have been found to exist between all these aspects. These relationships are not one-sided but instead work reciprocally, producing a complex web of power relations in which tourists are both influenced and simultaneously shape the structures with which they are surrounded.

This thesis was introduced with the argument that tourism is a spatial phenomenon. Mobility is confirmed to play a central role in tourism. Tourist mobility not only takes place to and from selected tourist sites, but is also largely included in the destination region. Hence, mobility cannot be seen as a necessity only, but should be understood as a part of the whole travel experience. Tourists travel in time and space according to an individual travel rhythm, which may help to explain the ways an individual’s effective reach differs from the potential reach. Thus, in the search for an understanding of the tourist it would be fruitful both for research and industry to pay more attention to aspects concerning mobility in time and space, instead of primarily treating tourism as if it were a static issue.

The thesis dispels the predominant impression in current tourism discourse that depicts tourists as making use of the whole range of tourist supply. Much time is spent on activities that are not explicitly touristic. Tourist behaviour is shown not to be the opposite of home behaviour, but can be described as everyday behaviour that is complemented with some tourist activities, and that lacks externally exposed schedules. The greatest difference is the place in which the activity is performed, followed by the limited time in which the holiday occurs, and the slower pace in which activities take place. The supply side in tourism should take this result into account when planning products for their customers. Many tourists spend their holidays based on individual rhythms and routines, because these routines bring with them safety and security during days when life is spent somewhere else – security that is also sought through reading information about the tourist destination.

Mobility, information and the perception of space are closely connected. Guidebooks are important sources of information for international, independent tourists. The greater the distance of the destination from their home country, the more important guidebooks become. Through selecting tourist sites and creating tourist regions, the guidebooks contribute to the construction of tourism space, through which tourists travel. In this, guidebooks constitute an important power factor in the tourism system. As tourists move through time and space and choose certain places and activities while discarding others, they not only consume the tourism space created in the books, but also contribute to reconstructing this space. Through their behaviour, tourists contribute to forming the tourism landscape with its organisations, entrepreneurs and attractions. In this, they are part of a power web in which readers, authors and publishers are the core actors.

So, while tourists are influenced by guidebooks, their behaviour can shape the future production of the books as well as the information they provide. As tourists adapt their travel decisions to current travel trends to a great degree, little by little they affect the types
of guidebooks and their content. Further, through selecting tourist sites based on recommendations in guidebooks, tourists contribute to the popularity of certain places, which will hardly be omitted in future books. However, this is only one factor that influences the selection in future books. The authors’ personal backgrounds, editorial and economic aspects, the geography of tourist sites, and societal influences all contribute to the selection of tourist sites. Hence, while tourists admittedly do have an effect on the choice of tourist sites in guidebooks, this is only one of several factors that are important.

Hitherto, time geography has hardly been implemented in tourist studies due to the alleged contradiction between tourism and everyday life. For the visitor group studied, however, this is not the case. Much has changed since the introduction of Hägerstrand’s thoughts. The ability to cover great distances in a relatively short time has grown dramatically, while at the same time travel costs have been reduced. Tourism has become so common for many people in the Western world that it constitutes an ordinary part of their lives. Tourists do not fully utilise their potential reach, hence differences between potential and effective reach exist during holidays as well. Likewise, tourists do not undertake as many activities as they possibly can, a situation that may be called the difference between potential and effective activity levels. This, too, contributes to moderating the difference between everyday life and holiday life. This said, the use of time geography in future tourism studies is strongly encouraged.

The outcome of tourism relies not only on the destination region in which tourists spend their holidays; tourist behaviour and mobility are also dependent on home region and the mobility phase in between. The outcome of tourist behaviour at the destination is often a result of structures and decisions in other places. Tourist behaviour on-site is indeed based on local conditions, but factors like the journey to and from this place, its location in relation to other tourist sites, the source(s) of information tourists have access to and the time they spend in the destination region cannot be overestimated. It is important to see that every actor – be it the tourists themselves, the entrepreneurs, the tourist organisations or the producers of information – acts according to the surrounding structures, but that these structures are simultaneously restructured as action takes place. All actors are part of a network, and the usage of the tourism system helps to analyse and understand former, current and future developments in tourism.

It could be helpful for Swedish tourist organisations and entrepreneurs to know more about their visitors’ spatial habits and the situation in their home regions. Destination planning should not only involve the destination itself, but ought to include structures and conditions in other geographical settings. It seems as if the Swedish tourism industry has not yet understood how important guidebooks are to certain visitor groups, particularly for Germans. Hence, the power the books have on their own industry is underestimated. In this relation, research on the effect of guidebooks and other information sources on further tourist groups is encouraged. Further, power relations in different geographic or thematic contexts would be an important theme in future research. Also, the modes of transportation in the destination regions and types of roads chosen in the case of car tourists would be important research subjects. In addition, a greater attention to the whole tourism system in future tourism research is recommendable.
The results could help the industry become aware of the fact that Swedish actors themselves can influence the production of information in guidebooks if they get into contact with the producers of information. Then again, authors and publishers could learn about their own power concerning not only the rise and fall of tourist sites, but also their ability to construct tourism space and provide it with meaning. The construction of tourism space is subordinate to the current discourse of popular tourist sites and standards within guidebook production, while guidebooks themselves contribute to the reconstruction of discourses. This implies that the representation of tourism space is based on social constructions, and this is an active form of making space, involving both tourists and guidebook authors.
9 Summary

Tourism takes place in time and space. Tourists travel between different places and connect them by means of their mobility. Their behaviour on-site is not only dependent on the destination itself, but also on the situation in other places like tourists’ home regions and their spatial mobility in between. On the basis of this argument, the whole tourism system should be taken into account. The aim of this thesis is to analyse the interplay between mobility, tourist behaviour and guidebooks. The focus lies on German tourists in Sweden. Due to the importance of guidebooks to this visitor group, the thesis concentrates particularly on guidebooks as source of information. The thesis consists of four individual articles and an introductory section. Article I addresses the production of tourist information and is placed predominantly in the tourist-generating region of the tourism system. Articles II, III and IV link tourist information with tourist behaviour in place and mobility in space and are placed in the en-route section and in the tourist-receiving region, respectively.

The first article concerns the production of information in German guidebooks on Sweden. It includes an analysis of inherent power relations that steer the selection of tourist sites in the books. The results show that as competition on the book market grows, not only publishers but also individual authors have to adapt to a situation that is more and more competitive. Authors primarily suffer from a lack of paid working time, and encounter this problem by reducing travel costs and/or working time. In the end, the selection of tourist sites in the books is dependent on personal, editorial, geographical, economic and tourism-sociological factors. The production of information is dependent on a complex web of power relations, the core of which is constituted by authors, publishers and readers. It is concluded that while guidebooks have power over tourists and the success of tourist sites, tourists and actors in the destination region are also equipped with power, when it comes to influencing the selection in the books.

In the second article, the content in German guidebooks on Sweden is analysed. The sequence of tourist regions that are presented usually either starts with Stockholm or is arranged from south to north. While stereotypes concerning the whole of Sweden are not common, the individual tourist regions are generally stereotyped. Through these ways of presentation, guidebooks contribute to constructing tourism space and providing places with meaning. The Swedish tourist regions are presented to a greatly varying degree. Besides Stockholm and Northern Lapland, the regions presented most frequently are usually located in the south of the country. Thematically, the guidebooks focus most on culture, practical tourist information, nature, parks and entertainment. It is found that guidebooks influence German tourists’ choices of tourist sites in Sweden, and that this influence increases with the distance from Germany.

The third article considers tourist mobility. As tourists travel through time and space, they are influenced by factors like knowledge, distance and experience. Both base tourists (staying in one place only) and travellers (making a trip around the country) are included in the study. On average, a distance of 3,770 km is covered per trip. Results show that time availability influences tourist mobility, as a shorter stay in the destination region implies
that longer daily distances are travelled. Previous visits in Sweden do not directly influence mobility, but affect the choice of travel region: the more often the tourists have been to Sweden, the further northwards they travel. The existence of an individual travel rhythm is confirmed, which helps to explain why the size of the potential reach of German tourists in Sweden is so much smaller than their effective reach. The individual travel rhythm is defined as a travel pattern that is independent of the tourist sites that are visited. It includes, among other things, long travel distances the first and last days of the holiday, a short first stay-over, the longest stay in the region with the greatest distance from home, and a relation between the length of stay at one place and the distance covered when departing.

The fourth article analyses the influence of spatial mobility, access to information, time and the characteristics of place on tourist behaviour. It dispels the predominant impression in current tourism discourse that states that tourists are continually active during their holidays. The results show that on average, the German tourists that took part in the study devote less than three hours per day on tourist activities. The rest of their time is spent on activities not predominantly considered touristic. It is concluded that tourist behaviour does not differ much from home behaviour. The major difference is not constituted by the activities themselves, but by a difference in place in comparison to tourists’ homes, followed by a slower pace in which activities are performed, a limited time period and tourists’ spatial mobility. While it is shown that length of stay does not influence tourist behaviour in place, spatial mobility influences number, duration and succession of activities. The place where the activities are performed is an important factor for the activity level. The use of information increases the number of activities, but simultaneously decreases their duration. Guidebooks constitute the most important information source.

In conclusion, guidebooks constitute an important information source for the German visitor group in Sweden. Tourist information, mobility and behaviour on the spot are closely connected. For the analysis hereof, time geography provides a useful theoretical basis. Tourists consume the tourism space created in guidebooks, and simultaneously recreate this space when travelling, as they choose individually how to respond to the information provided. Actors, places and tourist structures all exist in relation to each other. For the resulting behaviour in place, this means that it is not only the supply at the destination that is important, but also the situation in tourists’ home regions and along their travel routes.
10 Sammanfattning


För att förstå selektionsprocessen, är det nödvändigt att belysa författarnas arbetsomständigheter. Den tyska guideboksmarknaden präglas av en allt större konkurrens. Förläggarna är pressade, och detta känner författarna av. Författarnas arbetsomständigheter är en väsentlig faktor för urvalet i böckerna.

Det visar sig av resultaten i Artikel I att selektionen av attraktioner i guideböckerna är beroende framför allt av fem faktorer. För att förstå selektionsprocessen, är det nödvändigt att belysa författarnas arbetsomständigheter. Den tyska guideboksmarknaden präglas av en allt större konkurrens. Förläggarna är pressade, och detta känner författarna av. Författarnas arbetsomständigheter är en väsentlig faktor för urvalet i böckerna.


I den fjärde artikeln analyseras inverkan av tid, rumsligt beteende, platsens egenskaper och tillgång till information på tyska turisters beteende i Sverige. Artikeln avvisar antagandet i turismdiskursen, där det påstås att turister är idealligen aktiva under sin semester. I artikeln hävdas att denna uppfattning är ett resultat av metoderna som används i studierna, samtidigt som en framtoning av aktiva turister kan te sig positiv för turismindustrin. Vidare har motivation och faktiskt turistbeteende ibland blandats ihop i turismlitteraturen. Slutfilen finns tidsfaktorn sällan med i studierna om turistbeteende, man vet alltså inte hur länge turister deltar i aktiviteterna.


11 Zusammenfassung


Der erste Artikel behandelt die Produktion von Tourismusinformation und kann überwiegend der Touristen generierenden Region innerhalb des Tourismussystems zugeordnet werden. Im zweiten, dritten und vierten Artikel werden Tourismusinformation und Mobilität mit dem Urlaubsverhalten vor Ort verknüpft. Diese Artikel können der Destinationsregion sowie dem Raum zwischen Heimatort und Zielgebiet zugeordnet werden.

Im ersten Artikel (Who Has the Power over Tourist Information? About the Selection of Tourist Sites in Guidebooks) wird die Produktion von Information in deutschen Reiseführern über Schweden untersucht. Ziel der Studie ist es, Faktoren zu identifizieren, die den Selektionsprozess der Informationsproduzenten beeinflussen. Warum werden manche touristische Plätze in den Reiseführern besprochen, andere dagegen ausgelassen? Welche bestehenden Machtbeziehungen führen zur Auswahl von Attraktionen? Um den


Reiseführer kein stereotypes Bild Schwedens vermitteln. Eine gewisse Stereotypisierung der einzelnen Regionen kommt jedoch teilweise vor.


miteinbezogen; es wird somit kaum untersucht, wie lange Touristen an den unterschiedlichen Aktivitäten teilnehmen.


Die Arbeit kommt zu dem Schluss, dass die Anwendung der Theorie der Zeitgeographie eine hilfreiche theoretische Grundlage für die Bearbeitung der Forschungsfragen bietet. Tourismusinformation, Urlaubsverhalten und Mobilität sind eng miteinander verflochten. Weiterhin wird bestätigt, dass Reiseführer eine wichtige Informationsquelle für die Gruppe deutscher Besucher in Schweden darstellen. Touristen reisen durch die touristischen Regionen, die in den Reiseführern für sie entworfen wurden und konsumieren auf diese Weise den touristisch konstruierten Raum. Dadurch, dass sie den Raum aber individuell bereisen und die Informationen, die die Reiseführer bieten, individuell befolgen, tragen sie dazu bei, den geographischen Raum auf lange Sicht ihrerseits zu rekonstruieren. Akteure, Plätze und touristische Strukturen existieren nicht in einem Vakuum, sondern sind eng miteinander verbunden. Die Entscheidungen, die Touristen letztlich treffen, werden nicht nur durch das Angebot der jeweiligen Zielgebiete beeinflusst, sondern durch das gesamte Tourismussystem.
References


F.U.R. (Forschungsgemeinschaft Urlaub und Reisen e.V.) (2007a, 27 June). Interview with Astrid Sierck on German tourists and guidebooks.


