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Carla Ricaurte-Quijano & Luis Encalada-Abarca


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RESEARCH ARTICLE



Singular times and multiple temporalities of the future in tourism planning

Carla Ricaurte-Quijano^a  and Luis Encalada-Abarca^{b,c} 

^aFacultad de Ciencias Sociales y Humanísticas, ESPOL Polytechnic University, Escuela Superior Politécnica del Litoral, Guayaquil, Ecuador; ^bCentre of Geographical Studies, Institute of Geography and Spatial Planning, University of Lisbon, Lisbon, Portugal; ^cAssociate Laboratory TERRA, Lisbon, Portugal

ABSTRACT

Critical thinking about the future needs to be at the centre of tourism planning scholarship. By using complexity theory as a framework to understand the shaping power of time, we review understandings about the future in tourism planning literature concerning three interrelated aspects: How the future is known in tourism planning, how the future has been planned in tourism, and what futures have been planned. Changing, diverse and mutually intertwined views of understanding time and approaching the future are identified and gathered into two interwoven bundles. In the first bundle, the future in tourism planning is singular, foreseeable, and technical, with strong linear and cause-effect assumptions. In the second grouping, as cause-effect assumptions are questioned, futures in tourism planning become multiple, nested, simultaneous and emerge from non-linear, relational, value-laden and time-dependent socio-political processes. A characterisation of singular time and multiple temporalities in tourism planning is presented, and their coexistence in the literature is acknowledged for its potential to stimulate ethical future-making through planning and tourism.

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Tourism planning; complexity; future; time; temporalities; future-making

Introduction

Planners frequently face chaotic settings, navigate the effects of unforeseen changes, and deal with intricate interdependencies between humans, non-humans, spaces, and times (Sengupta et al., 2016). Current planning emerges in a pronounced context of complexity associated with the climate crisis, planetary-wide migration flows, terrorism, violence, natural disasters, and war, among others. In tourism, polycrisis has been used to describe the simultaneous occurrence of disparate crises (Bianchi & Milano, 2024) in which the temporal dimensions of past, present and future become mutually implicative (Gibson, 2021; O'Regan, 2023). Escobar (2018) has pointed out that in current times, an uncritical view of the future is unethical, and planning becomes

the moral endeavour of evolving from present crises to desirable and just futures (Rastegar, 2022; Tops & Lamers, 2024). To truly address current world complexities and inequalities, planning must aim at discontinuity (van Driessche et al. 2023), transitions (Niewiadomski & Brouder, 2024), and viable futures (Tzanelli, 2023). Ethics and values, together with emergent spatiotemporal understandings, are placed at the centre of planning endeavours aimed at opening new possibilities of would-be-worlds (Hillier, 2017), collective place and world-making (Hollinshead, 2009; Lew, 2017) and designs for the pluriverse, that is, designing worlds in which many worlds coexist (Escobar, 2018).

Tourism geographies and tourism planning have traditionally emphasized the importance of place and space (Lew, 1999; Saarinen et al., 2017). However, more recently social and tourism studies are increasingly concentrating on the geographies of time and temporality (Escobar, 2018; May & Thrift, 2003; Norum & Mostafanezhad, 2016; Urry, 2016; Yeoman & Postma, 2015, and especially the *Journal of Tourism Futures*). In an uncertain context, it becomes crucial for tourism planning to become actively engaged in the rich ongoing debates about shifting understandings of the future and changing social relations with time (Hillier, 2017). Concerns about the overlooked interplay between planning and the future are hardly new, as decades ago Isserman (1985) wondered if planning had lost sight of the future, and De Roo (2016) warned that planning has become *atemporal*. Neglecting the future has repercussions in planning theory, research and practice, including a disconnection from implementation, a divorce from political advocacy, and a lack of idealism and creativity (Myers & Kitsuse, 2000). Ethical issues such as conflicting citizen views about the future, how power might shape 'uneven future-making' (Urry, 2016, p. 189) and the manipulation of methods to support desired futures (Myers & Kitsuse, 2000), need to be acknowledged. Moreover, in critical times disruptions exacerbate social, spatial and temporal inequalities by linking past experiences with current stresses (Gibson, 2021), while posthumanism places new ethical concerns beyond human futures towards multispecies (Rastegar, 2022) and non-human technological futures (Yeoman & McMahon-Beattie, 2023).

Previous reviews of tourism planning literature have analysed planning processes, and the main issues planning is concerned with (Getz, 1986). They have also compared the coevolution of tourism planning with urban and regional planning theory (Costa, 2001; Rahmafritra et al., 2020), as well as the shifts in social thought that have had repercussions for tourism planning knowledge (Dredge et al., 2011; Dredge & Jamal, 2015). Additionally, research has been conducted at the intersection between tourism, time and the future. Time has been ontologically understood as an external, singular and universal container in which tourism takes place (Graham & Healey, 1999), as well as the objective measure of transformative processes in tourism, for example, destination governance in times of crisis (Hartman, 2023), destination life cycles (Butler, 1980), or the effects of tourism impacts over time (Hall & Lew, 2009). In contrasting views about the relationship between tourism and time, temporalities comes to the forefront to embody the dynamism and rhythms of tourism processes of becoming (De Roo, 2016). As Saarinen (2004) noted, a tourism enclave's nature and identity include aspects from the present as well as remnants, practices, and ideologies from the past. Unlike the objectivity of time, temporalities become subjective, multiple and

politicised mediators for the (re)production of tourism places, practices, discourses and imaginations towards the future (Norum & Mostafanezhad, 2016). Research on new understandings of time and temporality include the linkage between micro-moments in a tourism experience (Birenboim, 2016), coevolution in multi-cyclic destination trajectories (McKercher & Wong, 2021), place-embedded connections in multiple temporalities in crisis (Gibson, 2021), or the multiple time-specific identities of tourism places and destinations (Encalada-Abarca et al., 2024) as they assemble, disassemble, and reassemble in highly time-dependent processes (Briassoulis, 2017).

This paper revises tourism planning's relationship with time and temporality by looking at how the future has been portrayed in previous studies. We place this study at the intersection between post-development scholarship and critical studies in tourism, with their focus on plurality and just futures (Bianchi & Milano, 2024; Blázquez-Salom et al., 2019; Tzanelli, 2023; Yeoman & McMahon-Beattie, 2023), and complexity theory in the social sciences with their focus on uncertainty and social change (Byrne & Callaghan, 2023; De Roo, 2016). The following section will outline a research framework to analyse tourism planning literature. Then, the methods section will clarify how the review has been conducted and subsequently, the results will be presented. Finally, the results will be discussed in light of previous literature, together with avenues for future research.

Research framework: using complexity to understand temporalities, futures and the transformative power of time

Time is typically linked with an objective state, such as Newtonian clock time or linear time in which past, present and future are sequential and bound by a beginning and an end (De Roo, 2016). Linear time includes objective socio-temporal structures, such as schedules and calendars that track, control and govern life. As objective time is singular and can be measured, compartmentalised, and traded, Laurian and Inch (2019, p. 4) warn that objective 'time has become featureless, every time a simultaneous 'now'', just like places have become 'placeless' and identical everywhere. As discussed by Shoval (2012), time geography in tourism, examines for example, the patterns of spatiotemporal behaviour that arise when holidaymakers have a finite amount of time to visit different places. On the other hand, temporalities emphasise relative or observer-dependent time, which can be individual or relational (Reinecke & Ansari, 2017). Geographies of temporality in tourism have looked at how places can be differentiated during travel by their times and rhythms (Molz's, 2010), and the subjective structures of consciousness that enable time-dependent experiences like memory, expectation, emotion or imagination (Laurian & Inch, 2019). Temporalities are multiple and vary among individuals, organizations, cultures, and generations (May & Thrift, 2003), as well as *complex*, as the past and the present become entangled with the future (De Roo, 2016). Urry (2016) has emphasised the usefulness of complexity theory for analysing the singularity of time together with the multiplicity of uncertain and contested temporalities about the future.

Complexity has been defined as the theory of transitions, change and irreversibility (Byrne & Callaghan, 2023). By bridging dualisms like linearly determined order and indeterminate chaos, natural and cultural systems, and the interplay of various forms

of being and knowing (Escobar, 2018), complexity can link technical and positivist schools of planning together with communicative and postmodern views (De Roo, 2016). A complexity understanding of tourism planning would include a set of intertwined concepts such as non-linearity, emergence, self-organisation, path dependency, adaptation, and co-evolution (Hartman, 2023). Given that complexity theory and its applications in tourism planning have been extensively analysed before (Baggio et al., 2010; Farrell & Twining-Ward, 2004; Hartman, 2023; McKercher, 1999; Stevenson et al., 2009), this paper will not address its relevance in tourism planning theory, research and practice. Instead, it will build upon previous work to advance on the pertinence of complexity theory and its language for understanding time, temporalities, as well as social processes of becoming aimed at transforming the future (Sengupta et al., 2016). To accomplish this, we have chosen to adapt Abram's (2014) work on temporalities in planning theory to focus first, on epistemological positions about what can be known about the future (De Roo, 2016); then, on methodological positions about how the future has been planned (van Driessche et al. 2023); and finally, on ontological positions about what futures ought to be designed in a world in crisis.

Epistemologies of the future: predictability and uncertainty in tourism planning

By using the concept of predictability, this first frame looks at the diverse ways of knowing and approaching the future in planning. Based on different ontologies, Yeoman & Postma (2015) identified bundles of epistemologies for capturing the future, including prediction, prognosis, and forecasting, as well as science fiction and utopia, together with their corresponding qualitative and quantitative methods. To understand epistemologies of the future, De Roo (2020) emphasise that complexity is about 'becoming' and a world in flow, change and transformation. Complexity is then partially at odds with the worlds of 'being' that are fixed and unchangeable. In the world of being, changes are the result of the incremental accumulation of variables over time. Epistemologically, this perspective holds the promise of objective and certain knowledge about the past, present and future.

In a world of *becoming* on the other hand, time has a directionality of transformation (De Roo, 2020), offering the possibility of acknowledging human intentionality in shaping the future, as well as developing planning theory that works hand-in-hand with uncertainty, constant change, transitions, and emergent results that might not be predictable. In other words, basic assumptions concerning time and the future need to be acknowledged, as diverse *epistemes* may emphasize particular ways of thinking and knowing, while simultaneously diminishing alternative ones (Driessche et al., 2023, p. 15).

Methodologies for the future: causation and social dynamics in tourism planning

The second frame looks at how diverse views about causation influence methods to intervene in the future of tourism destinations. It has been well documented that traditional systems theory studied phenomena by dividing them into their

constitutive parts and analysing them separately, while a complexity view on planning stresses the relational, iterative and mutually implicative character of social interactions (Hillier, 2017): tourism stakeholders' perceptions, narratives, values, and ultimately, their power of action, are constantly inhibited and reinforced by others. Moreover, individuals themselves are conscious, active, and hold multiple views (Byrne & Callaghan, 2023). Multiplicity in the numbers of actors, perceptions, intentions and interactions, mean that outcomes depend on various causes and these causes interact in unpredictable ways (Innes & Booher, 2018). In consequence, *complex* causation, as opposed to *linear* causation, is not concerned with the unvarying causes for each event (Byrne & Callaghan, 2023), but with the *emergent* outcomes of such interplay.

If processes of change refer to the appearance of new patterns or structures that cannot be linearly traced back to components and causes (Byrne & Callaghan, 2023), then complex causation and emergence posit methodological questions about how to conduct planning processes. For example, if the planning process is conceived as a sequential, cause-effect process of designing and achieving goals, or a messy social practice that produces emergent outcomes. For Escobar (2018, p. 110), tools, processes and methodologies are ontological in their very nature as 'they inaugurate a set of rituals, ways of doing, and modes of being'.

Ontologies of the future: aims and value-laden futures in tourism planning

The third frame looks at what futures are to be designed through planning. In linear understandings of the social, planning might foster equilibrium as the normal state to which a system would return if there were anomalous behaviours (Murphy, 1992). However, non-linear dynamics acknowledge the shaping power of human interaction to maintain or transform social systems, as well as the relation of tourism planning dynamics with socio-political change (Hartman, 2023; Innes & Booher, 2018) that is, the making of new futures in tourism (Escobar, 2018; Hollinshead, 2009). Both views raise questions about the justification for planning, and if tourism planning and planners' work is to maintain the current state of affairs through adaptation and control, or actively change the future, through co-creation, radical innovation and *re-futuring* (Escobar, 2018; Lew, 2007; Ricarte-Quijano et al., 2024). From this perspective, the values and ethics behind decision-making become central concerns. Are we planning for better tourism, the common good, future generations, or social and environmental justice? (Winkler & Duminy, 2016).

By using complexity to understand temporalities, futures and the transformative power of time, this paper explores interpretations of the future in tourism planning literature through three specific research questions. How is the future known in tourism planning literature? How has the future been planned in tourism? And finally, what futures have been planned? The first question has to do with what can we know about the future; the second question has to do with assumptions about the planning process, and the third question has to do with tourism planning's ethical responsibilities towards the future and the kinds of futures that ought to be designed.

Methodology

The review follows the methodological guidelines of Torraco (2016) and Whitemore & Knafel (2005) for conducting integrative literature reviews. Integrative reviews are useful for mature topics with a considerable amount of literature. We posit that by looking into diverse understandings, meanings, and assumptions about the future, a contribution can be made by addressing an aspect that has not been thoroughly considered in previous reviews. To conduct the review, the authors followed an iterative process that included problem identification, literature search, data evaluation, analysis, interpretation and display (Figure 1).

Literature search and data evaluation

The literature was identified through various searches in Scopus between April and June 2022. Keywords for the search were {tourism AND planning OR policy}. This first selection of keywords returned 25,297 documents and was limited to tourism planning and policy, excluding papers on governance, policymaking, policy networks and others.

Since the number of documents was too high to analyse in a review using both quantitative and qualitative methods, the authors opted to limit the search exclusively to articles that had {tourism AND planning OR policy} keywords in the title. While this decision meant excluding seminal articles, the authors considered that the review should focus on papers that were explicit about contributing to this field of knowledge. Also, a smaller sample of articles allowed a more reliable analysis. The search included articles, conference papers, books and book chapters in English and Spanish. It was limited to social sciences, business, economy, environment, and similar areas. A list of 613 documents was retrieved. Then, papers were excluded if (1) they focused on travel planning, marketing and branding, events planning, or hospitality management, (2) they were historical articles, since the review was about the future, (3) the paper was not available online (4) they were book reviews, or (5) the methodology of data collection and analysis was not defined. Both researchers analysed simultaneously the database with the selection criteria, resulting in 344 publications that were downloaded for the study.

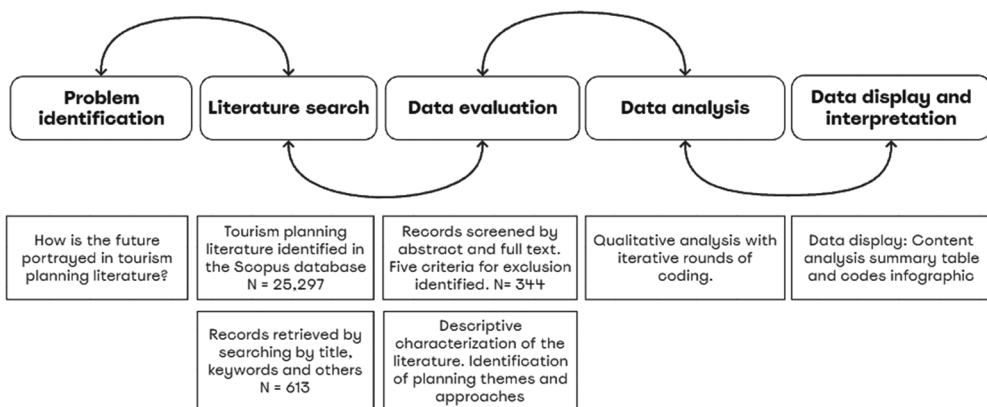


Figure 1. Literature review methodology (Source: Authors based on Whitemore & Knafel, 2005).

Data analysis and display

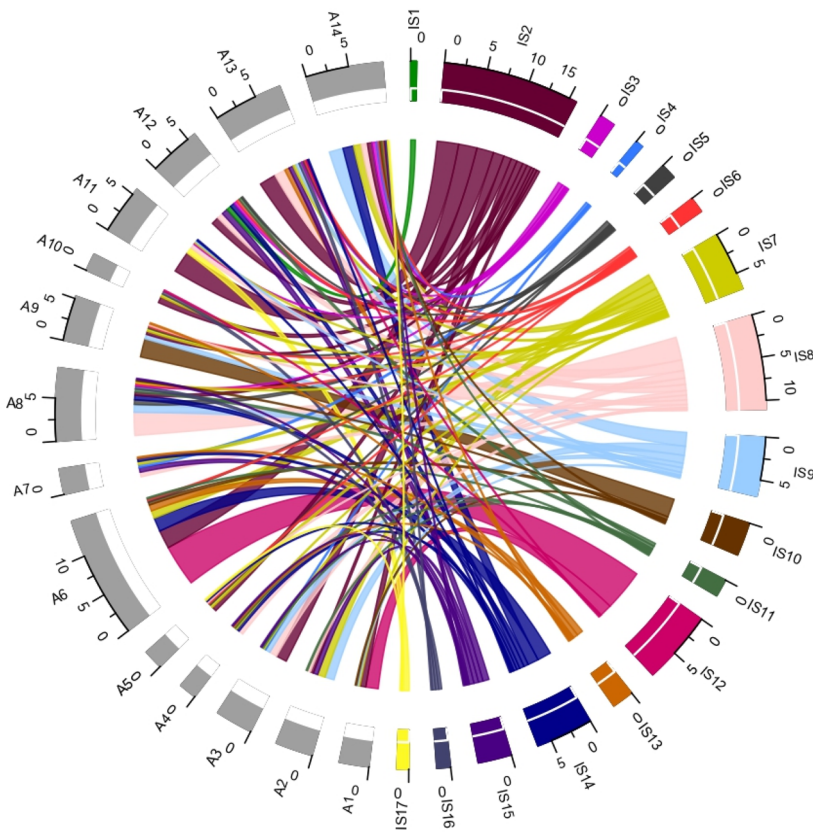
Following Torraco (2016, p. 12), the analysis of the literature included two moments. First, we did a general characterisation of the literature in tourism planning through *indexing*, that is, by reviewing the 344 abstracts and placing attributes to each *datum* (Saldaña, 2021) concerning planning *issues* (what themes are being studied in tourism planning), planning *approaches* (from which perspectives tourism planning is being studied), and planning *methods* (how planning is being studied). When authors did not explicitly identify a planning approach, these articles were left to the last, to learn the terms used by other authors. Then, the emergent attributes were analysed separately by both researchers and grouped into emergent themes or patterns (Saldaña, 2021). Both sets of results were compared and discussed aiming to abstract planning issues, approaches, and methods into groupings while helping a detailed, yet selected attention to commonalities, differences and relationships between assumptions and meanings in tourism planning. Then, we used descriptive quantitative analysis to map methods and the association between planning issues and planning approaches adopted in the literature (Figure 2).

Second, a qualitative analysis followed Miles et al. (2014) to assess understandings of the future. The framework was useful to provide clarity and coherence about what is being studied while being open to emergent issues (Miles et al., 2014; Torraco, 2016). Nvivo was used to analyse 344 abstracts and full text documents in three iterative stages: (a) first-cycle coding, (b) pattern coding and (c) data display. In the first cycle, 115 codes were identified, together with a process of analytic memoing (Miles et al., 2014) that allowed the researchers to make connections between emergent ideas. Then, pattern coding allowed the researchers to make sense of the findings by identifying connections between codes and emergent themes. Finally, data display was a methodological and creative step that allowed the reorganisation and integration of themes (Torraco, 2016). Data display involved a qualitative content analysis summary table (Table 1) that links the emergent codes and patterns together with the research framework (Miles et al., 2014). Then, an infographic (Figure 4) represents how initial codes were linked and meaningful to each other, providing a visual way to synthesise the interconnectedness of the diverse ways to understand the future that were analytically separated in the qualitative content analysis summary table. As researchers, we acknowledge that the process of searching for and selecting literature may limit our results. However, we also maintain that the validity of our study lies precisely in the objective and replicable selection process where the limitation of the data allowed a thorough analysis of the selected literature, transparency in the description of the research methods and steps, as well as the use of an integrative literature review method that facilitated an iterative inductive and deductive engagement between theory and the data (see e.g. Collins & Stockton, 2018).

Results

General characterization of the literature in tourism planning

The review unveils a multifaceted body of literature, encompassing various topics as well as evolving approaches to tourism planning. Figure 2 shows the association between planning issues and the approaches from which they were studied. Concerning



| Planning approaches | Planning issues |
|---|--|
| A1 Collaborative and cooperative tourism planning | IS1 Competitiveness and efficiency |
| A2 Comprehensive, integrative and master planning | IS2 Data, methods and tools for tourism planning |
| A3 Economic and market tourism planning | IS3 Destination dynamics |
| A4 Environmental analysis and management | IS4 Impacts of tourism development |
| A5 Interpretive, qualitative and ethnographic views of planning | IS5 Innovation in tourism planning |
| A6 Participatory and community tourism planning | IS6 Knowledge in tourism planning |
| A7 Planning for development | IS7 Planning theory |
| A8 Tourism policy and planning | IS8 Policy analysis, implementation and evaluation |
| A9 Relational approaches of governance and policy networks | IS9 Politics and roles of public organisations in tourism policy |
| A10 Resilience, adaptive and complexity-based planning | IS10 Power relations, policy networks and governance |
| A11 Spatial analysis | IS11 Processual views of planning and policy-making |
| A12 Strategic planning | IS12 Public participation, collaboration, cooperation, deliberation and partnerships |
| A13 Sustainable tourism planning | IS13 Social justice, trust and values in tourism planning |
| A14 Urban, regional and national planning | IS14 Stakeholders perceptions and attitudes |
| | IS15 Tourism planning for development and sustainability |
| | IS16 Views of planners and policy-makers |
| | IS17 Visitor management and tourism flows |

Figure 2. Association between planning approaches and planning issues (Source: Authors).

issues, the literature is heavily oriented to participatory and community tourism planning (themes include participation, collaboration, networks and partnerships), spatial approaches (urban, rural and regional planning, destination dynamics, spatial analysis, impacts of tourism development), policy analysis and implementation (policy evaluations, roles of the state, processual models, and innovation), and sustainable

Table 1. The future in tourism planning: Content Analysis Summary (Source: Authors).

| Research questions | Frames | Singular futures | Multiple futures |
|---|----------------------------------|--|---|
| Epistemologies of the future: How is the future understood and known? | Predictability | <p>Prediction, measurements and foreseeable outcomes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The future is predictable or foreseeable (Dwyer, 2015). One, common vision for the future (Adu-Ampong, 2017; Ritchie, 1999). Desirable results are achieved (Castellani & Sala, 2010; Fayos-Solá & Alvarez, 2014). | <p>Uncertainty, iteration and emergent outcomes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Uncertain futures, limited predictability (McCool, 2009). Multiple views for the future (Balomenou & Garrod, 2019). Emergent/ unintended outcomes (Farsari et al., 2011). |
| Methodologies for the future: How has the future been planned? | Social dynamics | <p>Social control</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Top-down control (Nyaupane & Timothy, 2010). Consultation with local stakeholders (Keogh, 1990) Normative models of participation (Murphy, 1988). Fixed and organised roles for the different actors (Church, 2004). Planners as experts (Choy, 1990). | <p>Social action</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Bottom-up communication (Bramwell & Pomfret, 2007) Networks of collaboration, communication, and interaction (Lin & Simmons, 2017). Emergent and self-organised planning (Lew, 2017). Messy and informal policy roles (Dredge & Jenkins, 2011). Planners as agents of social change (Lew, 2007). |
| | Causation and planning processes | <p>Sequential planning processes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Survey-analysis-plan processes, and situational analysis of the tourism system (Getz, 1986; Inskip, 1988). Technical and rational activity to find optimal solutions (Sessa, 1976). Effective and efficient process (Bahaire & Elliott-White, 1999; Keller, 2015). Goals are set from the start (Baker, 1990) gaps between planning and implementation. Goals achieved by implementation and monitoring (Liu et al., 2012). | <p>Iterative and messy planning processes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dynamic representations of the tourism process and system (Sedarati et al., 2019). Flexible, adaptive and iterative activity (Dredge & Jenkins, 2011; Khazaei, Elliot & Joppe, 2017; Reed, 1999). Highly contextual processes embedded in change (Wray, 2011). Planning is a journey where goals are continuously revised (Farsari, 2012). Goals become a process of continuous revision, action and mutual learning (Ladkin & Martinez, 2002). |
| Ontologies of the future: What futures are to be planned? | Aims | <p>Equilibrium</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stable contexts that are monitored to find anomalies (Murphy, 1992). Managed and controlled futures (Vila et al., 2010). Planning maintains the status quo in capitalist and neoliberal economies (Airey & Ruhanen, 2014). | <p>Transformation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Turbulent and dynamic contexts (Stevenson, Airey & Miller, 2009). Shaped and uncertain futures (Mair, 2014). Planning must advocate for social and environmental justice (Lew, 2007) and challenge power dynamics (Bramwell & Meyer, 2007). |
| | Values | <p>Technical processes of <i>being</i> at fixed end points</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Employment, tourism growth, contribution to economy (Fayos-Solá & Alvarez, 2014). Competitiveness and efficiency (Bahaire & Elliott-White, 1999.) Values in tourism planning are not disclosed (Volić, 2023). Tourism planning must minimize impacts of uncontrolled tourism development (Haywood, 1988). | <p>Value-laden processes of <i>becoming</i> without end points</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Tourism planning encompasses diverse cultures, interests and values (Volić, 2023). Tourism planning must shape society positively (Barton & Leonard, 2021). Foster communication (Pforr, 2006) and mutual learning (Wu et al., 2021). Local empowerment (Adebayo & Butcher, 2021). Include marginalized groups (Khazaei, Elliot & Joppe, 2017). |

Swanger, 2015), and ethnography (Mason, 2005), among others. While most quantitative research has its focus on descriptive and correlational designs to understand visitor management, destination dynamics, as well as to develop data and tools for tourism planning (see, e.g. Sedarati, Santos & Pintassilgo, 2019), there is also a small group of studies using experimental design to assess public participation, and stakeholders' engagement.

Futures in tourism planning literature

Diverse epistemologies, methodologies and ontologies of the future were identified in tourism planning literature. Through a process of pattern coding, this diversity was clustered into two interrelated bundles: singular, and multiple understandings of the future (see Table 1). Both groupings and their relevant themes will be discussed below.

Singular futures in tourism planning

- a. *Epistemologies of the future: prediction, measurements and foreseeable outcomes.* By improving methods of forecasting (Dwyer, 2015), foresight (Awedyk & Niezgodna, 2016), as well as surveys of the tourism system (Inskip, 1988), early literature placed efforts on planning tourism according to *what could happen* in the future (Getz, 1986). For van Doorn (1982), exploratory (regression, time-series, scenario planning), speculative (brainstorming, Delphi), normative (Bayesian statistics) and integrative (input-output, mapping) analyses of the future were pivotal tasks when planning tourism. Decision-making in spatial and master planning, for example, emphasizes linear timelines by defining or agreeing upon singular and common futures and spaces, while implementation involves mechanisms of control and measurement through rational spatiotemporal methods such as zoning, timetables and indicators (Castellani & Sala, 2010; Vila et al., 2010). Strategic and scenario planning, on the other hand, open the possibility of supporting decision-making on what *people would like to happen* through public participation. However, they also emphasise consensus to build singular futures (Ritchie, 1999), a trend highly exacerbated by sustainable planning (Page & Thorn, 1997) and the discourse of the common future (WCDE, 1987). As the world is fixed, the future can be predicted, foreseen and measured, allowing policymakers and planners to stress cause-effect stories of success (Byrne & Callaghan, 2023), together with an illusion of efficiency in implementation (Keller, 2015) as, 'sustainability indicators and their evolution through time could represent a useful tool [...] to assess policy efficacy' Castellani and Sala (2010, p. 878).
- b. *Methodologies for the future: sequential planning processes and social control.* In some studies, outcomes are achieved by defining clear objectives, strategies and indicators (Fayos-Solá & Alvarez, 2014; Vila et al., 2010). In other words, planning efforts connect the present and the future in instrumental ways through well-defined and measurable action that follows sequential steps: goal-setting, survey, analysis, formulation, implementation and monitoring

(Inskeep, 1988; van Doorn, 1982). Destinations become spatial containers for the components of the tourism system (Beedasy & Whyatt, 1999). Tourism attractions, services, transport infrastructure, and people are evaluated for their suitability for spatiotemporal goals (Inskeep, 1988), including resident attitudes and skills (Harrill & Potts, 2003). In this bundle, even participatory (Getz & Jamal, 1994; Keogh, 1990), and network (Pforr, 2006) approaches can give voice to stakeholders only to facilitate implementation (Battaglia, Daddi & Rizzi, 2012). In this view, strategies for place and people management are centrally coordinated, actors are passive receptors of policy (Yuksel, Bramwell & Yuksel, 1999), while highly sequential planning processes steer away from messy dynamics where temporal rhythms are uncertain (Reinecke & Ansari, 2017).

- c. *Ontologies of the future: processes of being and fostering equilibrium.* Some studies emphasise technical methods when deciding which futures are to be planned. Baker (1990, p. 33) for example, pointed out that 'while uncertainty and ambiguity cannot be eradicated completely, some tools can play an important role in formulating objectives'. In these methods, planners and politicians choose the best futures for everyone involved and affected by planning policy. Likewise, as stakeholders need managing (Battaglia, Daddi & Rizzi, 2012), the literature can advocate for participation and simultaneously warn that too much participation can disequilibrate the process and inhibit the identification of tourism planning goals (Getz & Jamal, 1994). Consequently, power dynamics can undermine the aspirations of less advantaged actors (Sautter & Leisen, 1999). Economic equilibrium is pursued (Rossouw & Saayman, 2011), together with social and spatiotemporal orders through land-use planning (Simancas-Cruz & Peñarrubia Zaragoza, 2019), and the clear identification of roles and functions of social actors and government agencies (Church, 2004).

Multiple futures in tourism planning

- a. *Epistemologies of the future: uncertainty, iteration and emergent outcomes.* The literature evidences how singular and rational understandings of time become intertwined with relative and relational understandings of multiple temporalities, as predictability in tourism planning is challenged by poor scientific evidence about tourism planning implementation (McCool, 2009). Additionally, reinforcing and inhibiting non-linear interactions between policy actors, and emerging ways of tourism governance that challenge central control (Dredge & Jenkins, 2011), contribute towards the recognition of multiple perceptions about the present and the future. De la Santa (2013), for example, identified that social interaction influences progress in policy implementation in Pamilacan Island, the Philippines. Interestingly, the degree of social interaction responded to individual beliefs, ties of solidarity and informal codes of conduct. For Wu et al. (2021, p. 2) complexity approaches to planning facilitate 'critical insight into multi-layered, context-sensitive and, sometimes, politically divergent worldviews. The result is a nuanced understanding of the multi-faceted realities'. Adaptive management (Reed, 1999); cognitive mapping

(Farsari et al., 2011), ethnographic research (Mason, 2005), bottom-up experiences of place (Muslimah & Keumala, 2018), systems dynamics (Sedarati et al., 2019), social network analysis (Hu, Chang & Lin, 2021), agent-based modelling (Zhang et al., 2022), and storytelling (Dredge & Jenkins, 2011) among other methods, bring time purposely to the table by acknowledging the mutually implicative ways in which past, present and future are entangled in diverse tourism spaces.

- b. *Methodologies for the future: iterative planning processes, messiness and social action.* Non-linear understandings of causation in the planning process have emerged from positions of unsettlement. Tourism planning literature questioned the bound analysis of the components of the tourism system without considering their interrelations (Farsari, 2012) or spatiotemporal dynamics (Jamal et al., 2004). Communicative, network and complexity approaches refocus attention towards interaction in socio-political spaces while coexisting with previous approaches of physical design and place management. Adebayo and Butcher (2021) for example, explore the intangible aspects that constrain participation in South West Nigeria such as trust and awareness about the process, hence alienating community members from tourism planning. These mutually implicative interactions challenge prediction and sequential planning. Instead, iterative, adaptive and non-linear cycles of policy formulation reflect how social perceptions, imaginations, expectations, knowledge, power and multiple temporalities are exchanged through iterative social interaction (Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2016; Reed, 1999). Untidy mechanisms, informal relations, self-organised agency (Stevenson et al., 2009), self-determination (Whitford & Ruhanen, 2010) and activism in shaping tourism spaces (Lew, 2017), challenge linear action as well as defined and stable stakeholders' roles (Dredge, 2014).
- c. *Ontologies of the future: processes of becoming and transformation.* In non-linear and multiple understandings of the future, the study of how planning happens in real settings uncovers unfair social orders and practices. Tourism planning literature is moving from 'what must be' based on ideal models and technical analysis, towards 'what ought to be' in terms of values and ethical responsibilities for the future. Planning practices such as trust-building and mutual learning, become viable ways to alter the future positively by transforming relations of power between humans and nature (Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2016). In their study, Khazaei et al. (2017) examined ways to involve immigrants as fringe stakeholders in tourism planning processes for an urban park in Toronto, Canada, as a way to promote social cohesion. Similarly, Barton and Leonard (2021), explore how planning in Mississippi can facilitate reconciliation when it brings historically divided groups together. Finally, Blázquez-Salom et al., (2019) show how innovative planning initiatives promote tourism degrowth in mature coastal destinations in Spain amidst a backdrop of hyper-capitalist consumption and resource exploitation. By putting ethical aims for the future at the centre of planning processes, planning becomes an activity of re-futuring or transforming already damaged futures (Escobar, 2018).

Discussion: singular times and multiple temporalities in tourism planning

A critical analysis of the literature shows that, with few exceptions (e.g. van Doorn, 1982), the increasing focus on time and temporalities in tourism and tourism geographies research has not yet been fully integrated into tourism planning literature. While time and temporalities are inherently part of tourism planning, explicit discussions about epistemes (van Driessche et al., 2023) of the future are less frequent. Nevertheless, the review has revealed a diverse range of epistemologies and methodologies for interpreting, managing, discussing, and designing the future (see Figure 4). It also shows how seemingly antagonistic epistemes and ontological positions concerning time, space, and the future often become intertwined dualities in tourism planning research.

Figure 4 shows the themes that emerged from the qualitative analysis of the future in tourism planning literature. On the left, singular futures connect epistemological beliefs about predictability and measured outcomes, together with the potential for objective and certain knowledge. Methodologically, they materialize in processes that seek to forecast the future from situational analysis of the present, as well as in sequential processes of designing and achieving goals. In spatial, strategic, systemic, controlled and predicted approaches, all the components and actors in tourism could work in equilibrium towards a future that is the same for all. In this view, change can be considered a disruption that needs to be stabilised, strategically managed or something destinations must adapt to (Getz & Jamal, 1994; Ivars-Baidal & Vera, 2019).

Approaches in the middle of Figure 4 group participative, adaptive, modelled and possible futures, in which apparent dualities such as predictability and uncertainty, linear and complex causality, and the simultaneous pursuit of order and transformation, coexist. While there is no doubt that tourism planning has been changing and influenced by interpretive, postmodern, and critical thought (Dredge, Jenkins & Whitford, 2011), it is also evident that collaborative and sustainable approaches have been merged with linear and rational understandings of time and place. Examples include the efficient pursuit of singular futures within bounded places, through consensus-building methods, the use of cause-effect assumptions in collaborative efforts, and the belief that sustainability can be achieved at the end of implementation processes. On the right side of Figure 4, we can find ethical, communicative and co-created *multiple futures*. In these approaches tourism planning literature is not concerned with prediction because planning consists of continuously constructing and transforming the future in the present, through the human agency embedded in dynamic policy communities, formal and informal policy networks, or evolving complex systems. Futures are *emergent*, and times and spaces are designed, created or destroyed through relations and actions (Kitchin, 2023). In multiple understandings of time and the future, change and social transformation are actively sought through degrowth, co-design, ethics, justice, or reconciliation.

In tourism literature, the tourism life cycle (Butler, 1980) is an example of how time has been portrayed as discrete: when a tourism destination switches to a new phase of development, it is no longer in the previous phase. However, in their analysis, McKercher and Wong (2021), identified that destinations co-evolve, while diverse

spatiotemporalities (Encalada-Abarca et al., 2022) and phases of development coexist simultaneously. Research on singular times and multiple temporalities in tourism include dipping into the diverse rhythms of nature through posthuman views (Rantala, 2018), the bound times of tourism logistics that are controlled by instruments and devices (i.e. flight departures), the lifespan of the objects that facilitate tourism such as infrastructure and facilities (Mandić et al., 2018), the colliding spatiotemporal behaviour of tourists and residents (Kaaristo & Järv, 2012), the momentary, subjective and space-bounded nature of tourism experiences (Birenboim, 2016), and the alternative understandings of time and future of some indigenous communities that host tourism (Martínez-Novo, 2013). Yeoman and Postma's (2015) epistemological analysis of approaches to *futureing* in tourism distinguishes between positivist forecasting and social constructivist foresight. Our findings extend previous results by exploring their coexistence in tourism planning literature.

Finally, epistemologies and methodologies for the ontological design of the future in tourism planning need to explicitly address the everyday and cross-level (Flood Chavez et al., 2024) temporalities and divergent perspectives about the future of tourism agents embedded in policy processes (Bramwell & Meyer, 2007), how the past and the present become entangled with the future in tourism destinations (Saarinen, 2004), as well as actively interconnect with ethical perspectives of *re-futureing* that are embedded in regenerative processes (Bellato & Pollock, 2023), sustainability transitions (Niewiadomski & Brouder, 2024; Rastegar, 2022), tourism degrowth (Blázquez-Salom et al., 2019), as well as place (Lew, 2017), and world-making (Hollinshead, 2009).

Conclusions

Our paper contributes to ongoing discussions in social sciences and tourism studies about geographies of time and temporality by analysing interpretations of the future from 344 tourism planning publications. The analysis addressed three research questions: How has the future been understood and known in tourism planning literature? How has the future been planned in tourism? And finally, what futures have been planned? Although the literature review has limitations and may overlook significant work on governance or policy networks, its trustworthiness and contribution lie in the integrative process used to identify epistemologies, methodologies, and ontologies of the future through a complexity theory research framework. Our results show that tourism planning is the practice of re-futureing tourism places and spaces by integrating bounded time with multiple temporalities. Time-bounded planning processes and cause-effect efforts blend with iterative and collective action, ongoing dialogues without fixed endpoints, and flexible pathways without set targets. By recognising planning in this way, we acknowledge the dynamism and rhythms of tourism processes of becoming in which past, present and future are all intertwined in the ethical (re)design of future tourism geographies, places and worlds.

To conclude, we highlight three key implications and directions for future research: First, social change and transitions that incorporate ethical standpoints about the future should be at the core of tourism planning activity that seeks to respond to the world(s) we live in. Second, further research could explore how singular time and

multiple temporalities coexist in real-world tourism planning practices, including various time-space perspectives and cultural understandings of time and the future, such as indigenous viewpoints. Finally, tourism planning literature and practice should explicitly acknowledge its epistemological foundations, as well as the methods and practices of *futuring* that underpin planning efforts aimed at ontological change.

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Notes on contributors

Carla Ricaurte-Quijano leads the Coastal and Marine Tourism Research Group in the Escuela Superior Politécnica del Litoral, Ecuador. Her current work focuses on tourism planning and public policy, with a particular focus on coastal tourism, and women in tourism.

Luis Encalada-Abarca is a researcher at the Centre of Geographical Studies, the Institute of Geography and Spatial Planning of University of Lisbon, and the Associate Laboratory TERRA, Portugal. His research interests include tourism geographies, complexity, urban geography, and tourism planning.

ORCID

Carla Ricaurte-Quijano  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-7453-254X>

Luis Encalada-Abarca  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-7163-2641>

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