



CATÓLICA

UNIVERSIDADE CATÓLICA PORTUGUESA | PORTO
Faculdade de Economia e Gestão

DOCUMENTOS DE TRABALHO

WORKING PAPERS

GESTÃO

MANAGEMENT

Nº 03/2014

**THE INFLUENCE OF TOURISM SEASONALITY ON FAMILY
BUSINESS IN PERIPHERAL REGIONS**

Gustavo Neves Lima

Universidade Católica Portuguesa (Porto)

Ricardo Morais

Universidade Católica Portuguesa (Porto)

The influence of tourism seasonality on family business in peripheral regions

Gustavo Neves Lima
School of Economics and Management,
Universidade Católica Portuguesa (Porto)

Ricardo Morais*
School of Economics and Management,
Universidade Católica Portuguesa (Porto)

*Corresponding author:

rmorais@porto.ucp.pt

Tel.: +351 226 196 200

Universidade Católica Portuguesa

Faculdade de Economia e Gestão

Rua Diogo Botelho, 1327

4169-005 Porto, Portugal

Abstract

In this conceptual article we explore the influence of tourism seasonality on family business in peripheral regions. We begin by reviewing the main characteristics of family business in peripheral regions. We proceed by reviewing literature on tourism seasonality as well as mitigation strategies at the macro level of analysis. As a corollary of such a literature review, we suggest a framework of strategies by which family businesses in peripheral regions may mitigate tourism seasonality. In particular, we combine an existing typology of coping, combating, and capitulating strategies with family business responses and service operations. We conclude by discussing the theoretical and practical implications of the framework.

Keywords: family business, peripheral regions, tourism seasonality, mitigation strategies

Introduction

Recent studies suggest that the influence of tourism seasonality on family business in peripheral regions has rarely been studied (Getz & Nilsson, 2004). Barry (1975) defines family business as an enterprise which is controlled by members of a single family. Getz et al. (2004:5) define it as “any business venture owned and/or operated by an individual, couple(s) or family”.

According to Gersick et al. (1997) family businesses link three axes: ownership, business, and family. The ownership axis concerns control. In this respect, family businesses may become self-destructing due to conflicts over control or asset ownership. Another classic problem is the decision on how much dividends should be reinvested (Getz et al., 2004).

In the business axis, one of the central questions is stability as opposed to growth. The latter is often undesired due to the degree of debt it requires (Getz et al., 2004). Family businesses thus tend to exhibit low growth rate compared to non-family firms (Peters & Buhalis, 2004). This is partly explained by the lack of professional managers, especially in small family businesses. In these businesses, human resources management is

also different due to the challenge of managing family members.

In the family axis, the main concerns are the motives for foundation. On a study of twelve family business start-ups, four main types of motivations were found: lifestyle, money, stimulation and independence (Getz & Carlsen, 2000). Often there is an emotional aspect that makes managers make sub-optimal business decisions. Many founders start their business by lifestyle motives and sometimes with the children needs in mind or ties to the land. Some internal family conflicts thus tend to focus on goals, agreements and problem solving as well as on the issue of finding equal worth within the family.

Family businesses are especially dominant in rural and peripheral areas because of traditional land-owning patterns and the impossibility of larger corporations operating in these marginal economies (Getz et al., 2004). Family businesses have been important in regional development and the successful ones contribute to community development, generate new jobs, and bring a better quality of life for the residents (Sharma & Dyer, 2009).

In the specific case of tourism and hospitality, Getz et al. (2004:194) argue that “networks of family business are essential for development in rural, remote and lesser-developed settings”. In addition, they claim that it is unusual to find multigenerational family businesses and planning for succession (Getz et al., 2004). In fact, most family businesses in tourism and hospitality never evolve beyond the foundation stage. This is partly due to low entry barriers which attract entrepreneurs with little education and training.

On a macro perspective, tourism is of great economic importance in peripheral areas given the lack of alternatives (Getz et al., 2004). However, peripheral tourism typically suffers from high costs, low accessibility, lack of infrastructure or quality facilities, and dependence on intermediaries. The local population may lack skills, capital, or inclination to tourism development and the dependence on government aid might actually inhibit entrepreneurship. Marketing and planning functions are usually under-developed in these

regions, which also face scarce human and financial resources, declining traditional markets and a fragmented industry (Getz et al., 2004).

Few studies relate tourism seasonality and destination residents. Sharma and Dyer (2009:351), for instance, argue that it “would be useful to establish some benchmarks that incorporate a seasonality aspect (...) to identify residents’ preferences”. Our main research question is therefore: 1) how tourism seasonality influences family business in peripheral regions? In order to answer this research question we review previous research on tourism seasonality in the following section. In the third section we review seasonality mitigation strategies at the macro level of analysis. In the fourth section we suggest a framework of strategies by which family businesses in peripheral regions may mitigate tourism seasonality. In the fifth and concluding section we suggest implications for theory and practice.

Tourism seasonality

Seasonality can be simply defined as “a cyclical pattern that more or less repeats itself each year” (Jang, 2004:819). Butler (1994:5) considers that tourism seasonality is “a temporal imbalance in the phenomenon of tourism, and may be expressed in terms of dimensions of such elements as number of visitors, expenditure of visitors, traffic on highways and other forms of transportation, employment, and admissions to attractions.” For Lim and McAleer (2001), the most significant aspect of seasonality involves the concentration of tourists in relative short periods of the year. For service operation managers, seasonality is a problem of inefficient use of capacity (Fitzsimmons & Fitzsimmons, 2008).

Although some broad causes of seasonality can be identified, they remain little understood (Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). In general, two main causes are acknowledged: natural factors and institutional/social factors (Lee et al., 2008). De Groote (2009) considers four main seasonality factors:

climate e.g. warm seasons, type of tourism e.g. rural, institutional aspects e.g. holidays, and demography e.g. retired people.

Butler and Mao (1997) identify three basic seasonality patterns: single peak, two peak and non-peak. Single peak occurs when there is an extreme seasonality, for example, a summer peak. Two peaks seasonality occurs when there are two seasons, usually a major summer one and a minor winter one. Finally, non-peak patterns occur mostly in urban destinations. According to Butler (1994:8), "it is the interaction between the forces determining the natural and institutionalized elements of the seasonality of tourism in both the generating and receiving areas as modified by actions of the public and private sector which creates the pattern of seasonality in tourism that occurs at a specific destination".

Baum and Hagen (1999) also consider competition from other economic sectors and the alternative use of touristic resources as supply side constraints. Commons & Page (2001) add encouragement/facilitation by the government as another stakeholder in the seasonality challenge.

Another model groups the causes of seasonality in push and pull factors to "go or not to go to" a destination. The causes are "push" when the reasons to go or not to go to the receiving area are in the generating area e.g. the tourists having free days of holidays. By contrast, the causes are "pull" when the reasons come from the receiving area e.g. a soccer game at the destination (Lundtorp et al., 1999; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005).

Another framework for understanding tourism seasonality is the leisure constraints theory (Hinch & Jackson, 2000). According to Hinch et al. (2001), a hierarchical and non-hierarchical constraints framework has the potential for offering insights into the causes of tourism seasonality. A key characteristic of the hierarchical model is the order in which constraints are encountered and negotiated (Hinch et al., 2001). By contrast, in the non-hierarchical model constraints are dynamic and integrated rather than sequential and hierarchical" (Hinch et al. 2001).

Results from Nadal et al. (2004) analysing the Balearic Islands and its most popular generating areas (Germany and United Kingdom) found some relationships between economic variables and the seasonal shape. As income grows and relative prices fall down, seasonality tends to be smoother, being consistent with the separation of holidays in several sub-periods when tourists have more income available. The nominal exchange rate has the reverse relation – the more favourable for tourists, the more they will come in the peak season. Seasonality thus varies with the type of tourists (Baum & Hagen, 1999; Krakover, 2000; Nadal et al., 2004).

Specific market segments such as business (De Groote, 2009; Lundtorp et al., 1999) and senior tourists (Commons & Page, 2001; Jeffrey & Barden, 1999; Kastenholtz & Lopes de Almeida, 2008) are also expected to smooth seasonality. International tourists are usually more seasonal than domestic demand, the latter being very important in the off-season to ensure the sustainability of businesses (Kastenholtz & Lopes de Almeida, 2008). In a study of rural context in the North of Portugal, Kastenholtz & Lopes de Almeida (2008) found that tourists in low season were older, national, repeated visitors, for shorter periods of time, more active and cultural interested, more demanding, more business oriented, interested in a more rural way of life and mainly visited the interior area of North of Portugal. In high season, tourists were younger, international, stayed longer, spent more, were more concerned about weather, and mainly visited the coastal area of North Portugal.

In terms of international generation markets, De Groote (2009) found that European tourists in South Africa were more seasonal than tourists from America, Africa, Middle East, Asia and Australia. The author thus suggests that special attention should be given to reverse climate areas in order to reduce seasonality.

The implications of seasonality can thus be studied from the point of view of supply and demand. In terms of supply, it affects, among others, local

operators, employees, and residents in the destination. In terms of demand, it affects tourists who travel or plan to do so (Lee et al., 2008; Mathieson & Wall, 1982).

In this section we explored the definition, causes, and implications of tourism seasonality. In the following section we examine seasonality mitigation strategies at the macro level of analysis.

Macro mitigation strategies

Although seasonality cannot be completely eliminated, there are ways to even out the peaks and valleys. Yacoumis (1980) suggests some solutions to tackle seasonality in Sri Lanka. Others try to make the destination an all-season e.g. Canada tried to achieve a “premier four-seasons” (Wilton & Wirjanto, 1998). Others try to extend the season by using the same product in different markets - Eurocamp (Klemm & Rawel, 2001) or changing the characteristics of the product and using sport activities e.g. rugby in New Zealand (Higham, 2005; Higham & Hinch, 2002).

The literature reveals a limited number of approaches which have been used to overcome seasonality, where efforts are more expected to be focused on off-peak seasons and methods to extend tourism along the year (Butler, 1994). Such actions include: extending the main season, establishing additional seasons, diversifying markets, using differential pricing and tax incentives on a temporary basis, encouraging the staggering of holidays, encouraging domestic tourism in off-season, and providing off-season attractions such as festivals and conferences (Baron, 1975; Butler, 1994).

Different terminology is used in different studies to address supply-side responses to seasonality. Mathieson and Wall (1982:39), for instance, argue that to offset seasonality two approaches should be taken: “alter the rate of production of supply to correspond more closely with the peaks in tourism demand” or “modify the temporal distribution of demand to match existing levels of supply”.

In general, there are four main ways to counter seasonality in peripheral destinations: events and festivals, market diversification, product diversification, and infrastructural/institutional response. Events and festivals (Baum & Hagen, 1999; Brännäs & Nordström, 2002; Mitchell & Hall, 2003; Lee et al., 2008) take numerous forms in terms of size and duration, but are finite. They are a series of linked activities such as cultural, religious, and sport events that gather tourists based on common interests. Particularly important for peripheral locations are small scale and community-driven activities (Baum & Hagen, 1999). They can be long-standing traditions or contemporary.

Festivals are not exclusive to the off-season, since many occur in the main tourist season and actually reinforce seasonality. A main event in peripheral locations may also pressure the destination transportation and accommodation systems, downgrading its image (Baum & Hagen, 1999). Events and festivals can thus be organized with the particular goal of extending the tourism season (Baum & Hagen, 1999). In order to introduce and develop events, it is possible to: increase business conferences in the winter (or in low season), offer extra activities to conference attendees to lengthen their stay, and target event organizers (Lee et al., 2008). Regional tourism boards may thus have an important role in marketing and supporting new and existing events and festivals, as well as in evaluating their economic impact. Brännäs and Nordström (2002) indicate a festival effect in their data, increasing the length of the stay. Baum & Hagen (1999:307), however, point “to a much more limited impact of individual events especially those out of the main tourism season”.

In addition to events and festivals, destinations can resort to market diversification in order to mitigate tourism seasonality. In fact, one of the causes of seasonality is a tunnelling vision by which the majority of the local players concentrate on one or small number of market segments (Baum & Hagen, 1999). Many locations try to sell more of the same to the same people over a longer period of time, usually to their usual markets with whom the industry has grown up with. For many reasons this represents an

unrealistic strategy (Baum & Hagen, 1999). Market differentiation strategy thus seeks to identify new demand for the existing products, services and facilities. This could be difficult to accomplish if the resources are inflexible or weather dependent. Baum and Hagen (1999:308) thus recognize that “effective market diversification into shoulder and off-season periods must be accompanied by the recognition that different seasons create demand for different products, with alternative presentation, packaging and, indeed, pricing”. This, in turn, may require the creation of different images for a destination at different times of the year. Groups that travel outside the main vacations include business tourism (Chung, 2009; Lundtorp et al., 1999), sport tourism (Higham, 2005; Higham & Hinch, 2002) and senior tourism, requiring niche marketing (Spencer & Holecek, 2006).

According to Baum & Hagen (1999:308), “few peripheral destinations depend on dominant markets” since their markets are instead various market segments hidden in deceptive market characteristics such as age and nationality. A common misconception, however, is that market diversification implies the attraction of new markets *per se* and that it could “readily be accommodated within existing infrastructures and on the basis of the existing profile of supply side facilities and attractions except on the basis of price mechanism” (Baum & Hagen, 1999:308). For peripheral locations, a simple market diversification will thus not present a ready response to seasonality.

Effective market diversification can ultimately lead to product and service changes (Baum & Hagen, 1999). Product diversification is therefore a third way to combat seasonality (Baum & Hagen, 1999; Lee et al., 2008; Yacoumis, 1980). Different tourist markets visit destinations at different times of the year and require different services and products. All weather resorts are therefore important. Baum and Hagen (1999:309) argue that “there are a few single investments in attractions or facilities that will, in themselves, stimulate significant additional travel to a destination, particularly ‘new seasons’, and that they should be created within the development strategy in a complementary, supportive and coherent manner”. A peripheral destination, however, can hardly sustain a major product diversification (Baum & Hagen, 1999).

The fourth tourism seasonality mitigation strategy, in addition to events and festivals as well as market and product diversification, is the infrastructural/institutional response. In this respect, flight connections, sometimes more expensive between proximate peripheral locations than long-haul mainline destinations should be considered (Baum & Hagen, 1999). In fact, seeking to overcome dependence upon a limited tourism season may require a holistic consideration among different stakeholders and consider wider infrastructural and institutional aspects such as public sector incentives as marketing support, labour subsidies, temporary tax-benefits, subsidized support for transport operators, changes in the labour market environment, and recognition that seasonal employment has negative impacts in sustaining the delivery of quality services (Baum & Hagen, 1999; Goulding et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2008).

A balanced program of events and communication projects between industry organizations and chambers of commerce that addresses seasonality and gives information on emerging trends on holiday purchase behaviour could thus smooth seasonality (Lee et al., 2008). The same can be achieved with the improvement and expansion of local and regional infrastructures as well as with visibility to state and regional icons (Lee et al., 2008). Lack of access, for instance, is a main reason for visitors not travelling, but it is a “real chicken and egg dilemma (...) that can only be overcome through a long term perspective and possibly public sector support” (Baum & Hagen, 1999:311).

In this section we have reviewed strategies to mitigate tourism seasonality at the macro level of analysis. In the following section we examine strategies to mitigate tourism seasonality at the micro level of analysis, especially in the context of family businesses in peripheral regions.

Micro mitigation strategies

In a more micro and organizational level, there are other terminologies and responses to tourism seasonality such as boosting off-season demand

or accepting seasonality (Goulding et al., 2005). In subsequent research, business and public policy measures are linked, being distinguished between reactive and proactive ones (Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2010). The framework “embrace or challenge seasonality” (Jolliffe & Farnsworth, 2003) underlines the acceptance of seasonality in employment on the one hand, and the extension of the season, on the other.

Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff (2010) segment a sample from Wales from a performance perspective, suggesting three groups of family businesses: “top performers”, “poor performers”, and “seasonal performers”. Although the majority of family businesses wants to act and extend the season, less than half of the respondents took any action to tackle seasonality. Many of the “poor performers” appeared to feel somewhat resentful and even helpless when facing seasonality (Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2010). “Seasonal performers” mention mainly external factors and the greater part feel that they cannot do anything about it. Distinctively, “top performers” indicate success in attracting different visitors and targets in the off-peak with their pro-activeness. Three groups of respondents that did not take any action were labelled as “life-style entrepreneurs”, “free riders” and “doubters”, with different attitudes that should be taken into account in order to avoid “ill-focused broad-brush strategies and consequent misallocation of marketing and other resources” (Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2010:410).

Weaver and Opperman (2000) identify six basic supply/demand matching strategies: increase, reduce or redistribute in supply and demand. In service management literature these mitigation strategies to uneven capacity fluctuations are called strategies to match capacity and demand in services. When there is variability in service demand, managing capacity and demand can be applied to the phenomenon of seasonality. In this respect, two pure strategies can be used: level capacity and chase demand. Level capacity presumes forecasting on the long run, while chase demand is adopted in the short-run. From a marketing perspective, special price offers are one influential motivation for tourists to visit a destination during off-peak (O’Driscoll, 1985). Such offers can, however, harm the destination image due to the different

expectations on attributes, functional characteristics, holistic, and psychological characteristics (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003). At the extreme, they can even transfer potential clients to off-peak time, who would be willing to pay more in peak-time.

Examples of managing demand thus include offering price incentives, segmenting demand, developing complementary services, promoting off-peak demand, and managing the reservation system and overbooking (Fitzsimmons & Fitzsimmons, 2008). Examples of managing capacity include scheduling work shifts, increasing customer participation, creating adjustable capacity, sharing capacity, cross-training employees, and using part-time employees (Fitzsimmons & Fitzsimmons, 2008). The organization thus needs a clear knowledge of capacity constraints and demand patterns.

A hybrid strategy is yield management. It begins with an understanding that unused capacity can be transformed in potential revenue for the business (Getz et al., 2004). Most services are able to accommodate a hybrid strategy (Fitzsimmons & Fitzsimmons, 2008).

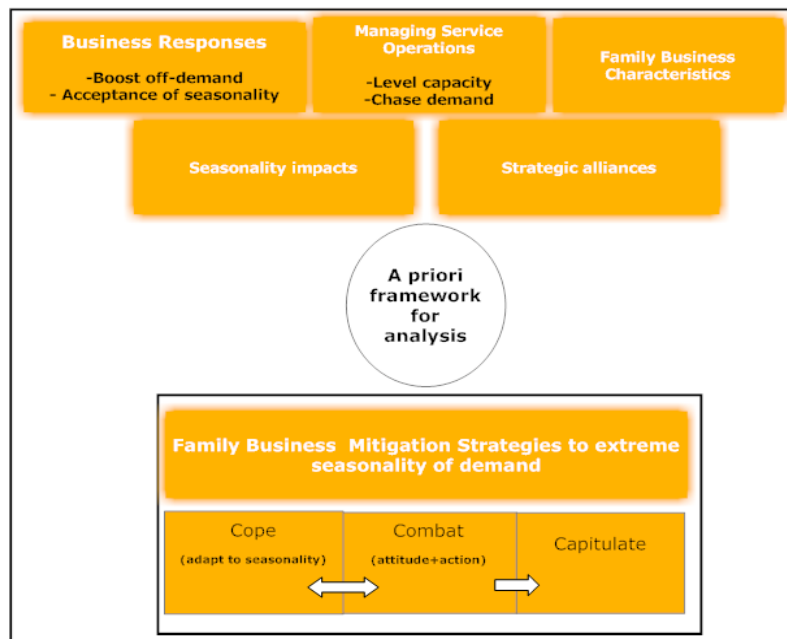
Due to the lack of statistics focusing on tourism and hospitality family business, few studies exist on the responses of family business to cyclical demand/seasonality on tourism. In a rare study with this focus on Bornholm, Getz and Nilsson (2004) observe five types of family businesses regarding their opening/closure: opened all year, closed seasonally, partially opened, strictly supplementary, and double occupied. In terms of seasonality impact on family business, this model divides them in cope, combat and capitulate actors.

Coping strategies imply that family businesses adapt to extreme seasonality and try to cope with its impacts. Combating strategies are the strategies by which family businesses try to defeat seasonality with attitude and action. Capitulating strategies imply that family businesses shrink, terminate or sell the business, either because other strategies fail or as a management option. All these strategies have “profound implications for the owners and their families” (Getz & Nilsson, 2004:28).

As a corollary of our literature review, we suggest a theoretical

framework of seasonality mitigation strategies which focuses on micro family businesses (Figure 1). An antecedent of this framework is the basilar study of Getz and Nilsson (2004) on the seasonality mitigation strategies of family business. Other models of action were added from service management literature (Fitzsimmons & Fitzsimmons, 2008), and business responses (Goulding et al., 2005), having in mind the seasonality impacts and family business characteristics.

Figure 1. Micro mitigation strategies by family businesses



Conclusion

In this conceptual paper we explore the relation between tourism seasonality and family business in peripheral regions. We review the main characteristics of family business in peripheral regions as well tourism seasonality mitigation strategies both at macro and micro level of analysis. As a corollary of our literature review, we suggest a theoretical framework of mitigation strategies by which family businesses in peripheral regions may mitigate tourism seasonality.

In particular, we distinguish between family businesses which act (combat actors), those that keep waiting for the changes to occur by external

parties (cope actors), and those that shrink or go bankrupt (capitulate actors). Combat actors increase the appeal for locals of combating seasonality in the off-peak, serve different market segments often from different nationalities, adopt service level and chase strategies, and explore innovative products. Cope actors, by contrast, wait or are only do small adaptations, waiting for the competitive environment to change. These actors close part of the business calendar, hold their position, sometimes even decrease their service quality and price continuously, also decreasing costs by reducing staff.

Specific coping and combating actions might, however, be compatible and coexist. Due to its low entry barriers and easy replication, tourism and hospitality services in peripheral regions tend to welcome unprepared managers and businesses. The main practical implication of our paper is therefore to inform such practitioners of actions they can adopt in order to upgrade from cope to combat actors. At a macro level of analysis, our paper suggests an alignment between managerial action and the destination image.

References

Baron, R. 1975. Seasonality in tourism: a guide to the analysis of seasonality and trends for policy making. Economist Intelligence Unit. Technical Series No.2. London.

Barry, B. 1975. The development of organisation structure in the family firm. *Journal of General Management*, 3(1), 42-60.

Baum, T. & Hagen, L. 1999. Responses to seasonality: The experiences of peripheral destinations. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 1, 299-312.

Brännäs, K. & Nordström, J. 2002. Tourist accommodation effects of festivals. Umea University, Department of Economics, Umea Economic Studies No. 580. Umea.

Butler, R. 1994. Seasonality in tourism: Issues and implications. In T. Baum & S. Lundtorp (Eds.), *Seasonality in Tourism*. 5-21. Oxford: Pergamon. ISBN: 0-08-043674-9.

Butler, R. & Mao, B. 1997. Seasonality in tourism: Problems and measurement'. In P. Murphy (Ed.). *Quality Management*. Chichester. New York. Wiley.

Chung, J. 2009. Seasonality in tourism: A review, e-Review of Tourism Research (eRTR), 7(5), 82-96.

Commons, J. & Page, S. 2001. Managing seasonality in peripheral tourism regions: The case of Northland, New Zealand. In T. Baum & S. Lundtorp (Eds.), *Seasonality in Tourism*. 153-172. Oxford: Pergamon. ISBN: 0-08-043674-9.

De Groote, P. 2009. Periodicity of tourism: A comparative study. 2^{ème} Journée de Recherche sur le Tourism- 2 Avril - Groupe Sup de Co La Rochelle.

Echtner, J. & Ritchie, J. 2003. The meaning and measurement of destination image. *The Journal of Tourism Studies*, 14(1), 37-48.

Fitzsimmons, A. & Fitzsimmons, J. 2008. *Service Management: Operations, Strategy, Information Technology*. International edition (6th ed.). 257-275. McGraw Hill. ISBN: 978-007-126346-7.

Gersick, K., Davis, J., Hampton, M. & Lansberg, I. 1997. *Generation to Generation: Life Cycles of the Family Business*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Getz, D. & Carlsen, J. 2000. Characteristics and goals of family and owner-operated businesses in the rural tourism and hospitality sectors. *Tourism Management*, 21, 547-560.

Getz, D., Carlsen, J. & Morrison, A. 2004. *The Family Business in Tourism and Hospitality*. Cromwell Press, Trowbridge. CABI publishing. ISBN: 0-95199-808.

Getz, D. & Nilsson, P. A. 2004. Responses of family businesses to extreme seasonality in demand: the case of Bornholm, Denmark *Tourism Management*, 25(1), 17-30.

Goulding, J., Baum, T. & Morrison, A. 2005. Seasonal Trading and Lifestyle Motivation. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 5(2), 209-238.

Higham, J. 2005. Sport Tourism as an attraction for managing seasonality. *Sports in Society*. 8(2), 238-262.

Higham, J. & Hinch, T. 2002. Tourism, sport and seasons: the challenges and potential of overcoming seasonality in the sport and tourism sectors. *Tourism Management*, 23(2), 175-185.

Hinch, T., Hickey, G. & Jackson, E. 2001. Seasonal visitation at Fort Edmonton Park: An empirical analysis using a leisure constraints framework. In T. Baum & S. Lundtorp (Eds.), *Seasonality in Tourism*. 173-186. Oxford: Pergamon. ISBN: 0-08-043674-9.

Hinch, T. & Jackson, E. 2000. Leisure constraints research: its value as a framework for understanding tourism seasonality. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 3(2), 87-106.

Jang, S. 2004. Mitigating tourism seasonality: A quantitative approach. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(4), 819-836.

Jeffrey, D. & Barden, R. 1999. An analysis of the nature, causes and marketing implications of seasonality in the occupancy performance of 92 English hotels. In T. Baum & S. Lundtorp (Eds.), *Seasonality in Tourism*. 119-140. Oxford: Pergamon. ISBN: 0-08-043674-9.

Jolliffe, L. & Farnsworth, L. 2003. Seasonality in tourism employment: human resource challenges. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 15(6), 312-316.

Kastenholtz, E. & Lopes de Almeida, A. 2008. Seasonality in rural tourism: The case of North Portugal. *Tourism Review*, 63(2), 5-15.

Klemm, M. & Rawel, J. 2001. Extending the school holiday season: The case of Eurocamp. In T. Baum & S. Lundtorp (Eds.), *Seasonality in Tourism*. 141-151. Oxford: Pergamon. ISBN: 0-08-043674-9.

Koenig-Lewis, N. & Bischoff, E. 2005. Seasonality research: the state of art, *International journal of tourism research*. Wiley Online Library, 7(4,5), 201-259.

Koenig-Lewis, N. & Bischoff, E. E. 2010. Developing effective strategies for tackling seasonality in the tourism industry. *Tourism Planning and Development*, 7(4), 395-413.

Krakover, S. 2000. Partitioning seasonal employment in the hospitality industry. *Tourism Management*, 21(5), 461-471.

Lee, C., Bergin-Seers, S., Galloway, G. O'Mahony & McMurray, A. 2008. *Seasonality in the tourism industry: Impacts and strategies*. CRC for Sustainable Tourism. ISBN: 978-1-9209-6551-8.

Lim, C. & McAleer, M. 2001. Forecasting tourist arrivals. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(4), 965-977.

Lundtorp, S., Rassing, C., & Wanhill, S. 1999. The off-season is 'no season': The case of the Danish island of Bornholm. In T. Baum & S. Lundtorp (Eds.), *Seasonality in Tourism*. 89-108. Oxford: Pergamon. ISBN: 0-08-043674-9.

Mathieson, A. & Wall, G. 1982. *Tourism: Economic, Physical and Social Impacts*. Essex: Longman ISBN: 0-470-20539-3.

Mitchell, R. & Hall, C., 2003. Seasonality in New Zealand winery visitation. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 14(3), 155-173.

Nadal, J., Font, A., & Rosseló, A. 2004. The economic determinants of seasonal patterns. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(3), 697-711.

O'Driscoll, T. 1985. Seasonality in the trans-Atlantic vacation market. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 12, 109-110.

Peters, M. & Buhalis, D. 2004. Family hotel businesses: strategic planning and the need for education and training. *Education + Training*, 46(8,9), 406-415.

Sharma, B. & Dyer, P. 2009. Residents` involvement in tourism and their perceptions of tourism impacts. *Benchmarking: An International Journal*, 16(3), 351-371.

Spencer, D. & Holocek, D. 2006. Basic characteristics of the fall tourism market. *Tourism Management*, 28(2), 491-504.

Yacoumis, J. 1980. Tackling seasonality: The case of Sri Lanka. *International Journal of Tourism Management*, 1(2), 84-98.

Weaver, D. & Oppermann, M. (2000). *Tourism Management*. Brisbane, Australia: John Wiley & Sons

Wilton, D. & Wirjanto, T. 1998. An analysis of the seasonal variation in the national tourism Indicators: A report prepared for the Canadian tourism commission. Department of Economics, University of Waterloo.