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Gender Perspective on Tourism's Influence on the Local Community: A Literature Review

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Gender Perspective on Tourism's Influence on the Local Community: A Literature Review

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Abstract

The tourism industry integrates multiple actors interrelated through a variety of dynamics and characteristics. To address this complexity, tourism studies integrate different disciplines and perspectives in order to comprehend the tourism phenomenon. One of the main topics of tourism studies has been its impact on local communities. The conjunction of these research lines with the gender perspective discloses how tourism interrelates with the host territory's particular gender dynamics. In this context, the present study aims to explore and analyse the current state of academic research on tourism's influence on the local community from a gender perspective. In this way, we explore the main research topics and outline possible future lines of research on this topic. The study is based on a literature review of academic articles from the platform Scopus. Seventy-eight articles between 2011 and 2019 were analysed through inductive analysis. Three main topics emerged for considering tourism's impact on local communities from a gender perspective: the changes provoked by tourism on the physical environment, the social environment, and the production environment in which the activity occurs.

Keywords: Gender, Gender studies, Literature review, Local community, Physical environment, Production environment, Scopus, Social environment, Tourism

Introduction

The tourism industry can be understood as a system of actors that integrates varied dynamics and characteristics due to its multiple nature (Holden, 2005). This plurality cannot be addressed from a one-dimensional perspective, which is why tourism studies interrelate many disciplines, aiming to provide and enhance a comprehensive understanding of tourism. This approach allows an understanding of tourism not only from the business point of view, but also as a part of global structures, both reproducing the barriers that these entail, and at the same time positioning itself as an opportunity for poverty reduction (Moreno and Cole, 2019).

Among the various currents flowing between social and cultural studies, the gender perspective, which developed after the appearance and dialogue of multiple feminist trends, provides a powerful vantage point from which to explore the dynamics and relations affecting our daily lives. Applying the gender perspective may shed light on the impacts of tourism on

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women, as well as the specific challenges and opportunities it presents. Although it is a growing subfield in tourism, and despite the potential contributions of feminist theories to tourism, the study of tourism from a gender perspective is an area that has only recently begun to be studied. Its origins may be placed in the 1990s (Figueroa et al., 2015). The gender approach to tourism offers a holistic perspective, demanding consideration of a large number of industry-specific dynamics, as well as structural realities that are reproduced in tourism activity. Feminism places gender inequalities at the centre of the analysis, in order to understand how they are reproduced in the tourism industry and what resources are available to reduce them. The growing interest generated by the gender perspective in scientific tourism production is an unmistakable sign of the urgency of addressing this dimension in the tourism field.

One of the main topics of tourism studies has been analysing its effects on the local community, mainly with regards to the economic, cultural and environmental impacts. In this context, gender studies may offer different insights into tourism's effects on local communities, highlighting how tourism interrelates with the host territory's particular gender dynamics. Thus, the present research aims to explore and analyse the current state of academic research from a gender perspective on tourism's influence on the local community.

Methodology

This study aims to establish the existing research, themes and perspectives framed by the intersection of tourism and gender from 2011 to the present, given the parallelism between increasing academic and social interest.

Firstly, a literature review was undertaken through the Scopus database, to identify existing areas of study in tourism and gender research. Scopus was chosen as it is an academic bibliographic database that provides access to international scientific journals from various disciplines (Booth, Sutton, and Papaioannou, 2016). It is an academically recognised database that groups publications worldwide, establishing English as a common language for both abstracts and keywords. Thus, an English search clusters all the articles that refer to the search terms, regardless of the publication's language (Arcos-Pumarola et al., 2020). To carry out the bibliographic review, the Boolean Operator "AND" was used (Booth, Sutton, and Papaioannou, 2016) in order to relate "tourism AND gender". The search was done on October 7, 2019, limiting results to articles published between 2011 and 2019 to obtain a manageable number of publications. The final result included 836 scientific articles.

Several articles were excluded following various exclusion criteria (Booth, Sutton, and Papaioannou, 2016; Ridley, 2012), such as lack of gender issues, lack of relationship with tourism or inability to access the text. A total of 290 articles were discarded, representing 35% of the total of 836 articles. Consequently, 546 articles were read and analysed.

Following a critical reading of the articles' abstracts, they were grouped into three inductive categories (Creswell, 2007): gender perspective applied to travellers, gender perspective applied to the tourist narrative and gender perspective applied to the local community. Each of these categories were further sub-divided to facilitate the processing of the data obtained. The following findings refer exclusively to the third categorisation, gender perspective applied to the local community. A total of 78 papers covered this category, that is, 14% of the articles read.

These papers were further categorised into three main topics after the inductive analysis (Creswell, 2007). The first category was for articles that focus on changes in the physical environment caused by tourism from a gender perspective. The second topic was the influence of tourism on the social environment from a gender perspective. Finally, the third topic was the impacts of tourism on the production environment from a gender perspective.

Findings

The following section is divided into three topics: changes provoked by tourism to the physical environment, the social environment, and the production environment in which the activity occurs. Each of the categories is further subdivided to ease comprehension of the topic.

Impacts on the Physical Environment

To understand and manage tourism's impacts on the physical environment, it is necessary to know what they are. In this regard, Gligor-Cimpoieru et al. (2017) analyse the importance of undertaking environmentally sustainable actions for students working towards a degree in Tourism in the European Union, where gender proved to be a differentiating factor given that female students considered it to be more critical. Such research, which points to the tendency for women to attribute importance to the environment and sustainable corporate policies, is crucial to apply a gendered perspective to the management of the physical environment in the tourism field. Furthermore, the application of gender perspectives to natural spaces and ecological resources falls within the scope of ecofeminism, which relates the state of subordination of women with that of other non-hegemonic groups, such as plants, animals, and nature in general (Umaerus et al., 2017).

Nevertheless, there are some differences between genders around the perception of the impacts on the physical environment depending on the geographical area. For example, a study based in Sweden noted that it was mostly males who have access to the management of resources and natural spaces, especially in rural areas where there is a higher number of family-run businesses. This link assumes that the management of natural resources carried out by women presents differential traits in comparison to those developed by men: the vision of natural resources is more holistic, the activities implemented in the area are more varied, the participation of the community is more active, and the preservation of natural species is perceived as more of a priority, to the detriment of extractive activities (Umaerus et al., 2017).

In this line, a study in China regarding the host community's perceptions of the natural spaces surrounding them also presented gender as a determining factor, finding that women tend to be less supportive of the development of tourism activity and the construction of communication infrastructures (Chen and Qiu, 2017). On the contrary, Pavić et al. (2016) found that in Serbia men tend to be less supportive when it comes to expanding protected natural areas and are more likely to call for greater decision-making power over the lands they hold in their possession. However, research undertaken in Cape Verde by Simão and Môsso (2013) showed that men there, perceived extractive activities more negatively and had a positive attitude towards environmental protection policies.

Water has been the most studied ecological resource in the literature with gender perspective. In fact, water management has been one of the key aspects of resource management that is expressed strongly from a gender perspective, especially in the Global South and, more specifically, in Latin America. Tourism development affects the distribution of water supplies affecting the local residents. At the same time, since women are often in charge of tasks related with obtaining water supplies, they are more affected by the competition for water access due to the high demand of water from the tourism industry. However, studies relating tourism, water and gender are still scarce considering the extent of this problem. As Weir et al. (2016) point out, water management issues cannot be tackled independently, but ought to be integrated into the analysis of the impacts of climate change and the power relations that determine the effects of this phenomenon.

Therefore, it is vital to delve into the tourism–water and water–gender-studies nexus to understand the reasons water is a scarce resource, the consequences of its ineffective management and how to reverse situations of inequality. To this end, it is necessary to consider predatory tourism's role in natural areas, such as the disproportionate use of water causing

shortfalls for local communities' crucial needs, such as everyday use and the irrigation of crops (Cole and Ferguson, 2015). Such a situation is often exacerbated for local people if they are not able to participate in the tourism industry: for example, if locals are not hired by major hotels or other types of tourist infrastructure (Cole, 2017).

Looking at the situation in Indonesia, it has been found that the lack of water significantly affects women, since they are the ones who more often undertake care-related tasks where water is a fundamental element. The issues raised by water scarcity can involve personal hygiene, the hygiene of people dependent on the carer, cooking and washing dishes (Cole, 2017). On the other hand, men in Indonesia tend to work outside the home, which means that they might not suffer from lack of water to the same extent (Cole and Ferguson, 2015). Furthermore, through an intersectional approach, Cole (2017) states that the lack of water affects migrants more severely, perpetuating class inequalities.

Impacts on the Social Environment

The academic literature surrounding the social environment of the tourism industry revolves around three main topics. Firstly, the perceptions of the host community are explored, highlighting the gendered viewpoints of the local population on the tourism activity, the access to tourism resources and the growth of tourism. Secondly, academic literature focuses on the diverse gender roles to be found in the tourism industry, analysing the role of women in heritage conservation, and the possibilities of reproducing gender roles and simultaneously departing from them. Thirdly, sexual tourism and sexual exploitation are analysed within the academic literature, focusing on the need of a clear conceptualisation of such dynamics and the intersection of gender and race in the case of sexual tourism.

The first main topic, perceptions of the host community regarding tourism, is key to the industry's social sustainability. However, it can be difficult to understand the influence of gender without taking into account other factors, such as socio-economic background and the use of public space. For this reason, several studies point towards diverse theories. There are some studies which suggest that gender can influence perceptions of the impacts arising from tourism activity on the destination. Afthanorhan et al. (2017) look at this in the context of Malaysia; Simão and Môsso (2013) assess gendered differences in the perception of safety and vandalism in Cape Verde; while Omare et al. (2019) finds a lack of difference in perception between genders in terms of access to tourism participation in Kenya. In considering these studies, it is important to bear in mind, as Simão and Môsso (2013) state, that samples may be biased since social inequalities of gender can lead to dynamics where representation is limited.

Regarding inequality of access to tourism resources, Khasawneh and Al-Smadi (2019) affirm that access opportunities in Jordan are structurally unequal. However, the patriarchal dynamics of that country are so integrated and accepted that the host population has naturalised them and does not perceive them. Writing about Vietnam, Peyvel and Gibert (2018) found a pronounced difference in gender representation of people offering guide services to tourists, a highly masculinised sector, and those working as cleaners in tourist accommodation, where women, especially migrant women, have a more significant presence.

In respect of the growth of tourism, gender has also proven to be a mediator in the local community's perceptions of its social impacts, such as the changes it brings to people's daily life. In the case of rural Iran, women tend to favour tourism development, as it is seen as creating jobs with high female employment (Abdollahzadeh and Sharifzadeh, 2014). Simultaneously, a case study in East Iran found that the construction area of second homes is seen more positively by men, since occupation in the construction industry is mostly male (Hajimirrahimi et al., 2017). In rural Romania, men were found to be more predisposed to growth in their area's tourism sector, while women tended to prefer sustainable tourism, regardless of whether the destination's popularity grew, justifying the creation of agricultural

jobs that would bring young families to live there (Muresan et al., 2016). In Besalú, Catalonia, gender was found to be a determinant in the carrying capacity perception. This study showed that gender was a determinant factor on perceiving whether a place was crowded or not, being the men more willing to regulate the number of tourists at the destination. Such perceptions may be related to the fact that men show greater sensitivity to the problem of inflation arising from growth in tourism (Muler et al., 2018).

Regarding the second topic, which are the gender roles within the tourism industry, the literature focuses on the role of women in the conservation of heritage. Frequently, cultural heritage is threatened and in danger of disappearing. This is particularly obvious in the case of intangible cultural heritage expressions since their survival relies on human practices. Although tourism has proven to be a protective force for heritage in some situations, heritage protection remains under-explored from the gender perspective. Specific case studies show that women's roles in heritage conservation is vital, placing these cultural expressions as methods of resistance. This is the case, among others, of the *ama*, Japanese women who have maintained the traditional fishing methods that entail a closer relationship with the ocean (Kato, 2019). It is also noted among the women who engage in Bolivian wrestling, confronting the stereotype that only men can devote themselves to it (Haynes, 2013); the Indian traditional dancers of the most marginalised social classes in the country (Putcha, 2019); the traditional weavers of Cyprus, who keep a severely threatened heritage alive (Kokko and Kaipainen, 2015); and the women of Moreomaoto, Botswana, who maintain the gastronomic culture of the area and implement it as a tool to achieve changes in social hierarchies (Hirtenfelder, 2016).

Considering the jobs created within the tourism sector, some researchers point to the dichotomy of the perpetuation or confrontation of established gender roles, considering aspects such as who designs the tourist service or what jobs are occupied by each gender (Cassel and Pettersson, 2015). This last point is similar to the analysis of gender roles perpetuated in the type of tourism generated when friends and relatives visit, especially where family and friends living abroad return home on holiday or for a short stay. It is common in both situations for women to undertake care tasks, such as planning visits, cleaning or cooking (Capistrano and Bernardo, 2018; Janta and Christou, 2019). Due to these dynamics, women tend to show higher stress levels when receiving visits (Capistrano and Bernardo, 2018).

Actions and policies to encourage gender equality can cause significant changes in the tourism industry, especially when the leaders of businesses, initiatives or communities are feminist women. Costa et al. (2018), in a study on leadership in tourism companies in Portugal, found that those led by women took more emotional components into account than those led by men, and that these new dynamics were gradually implemented in other companies. However, Duffy et al. (2012), in a study on the feminisation of the leadership of an Ecuadorian rural community, detected severe patriarchal and sexist structures which posed difficulties to the implementation of gender-aware policies.

Tourism also causes changes in host communities by confronting structural inequalities. This was found to be the case with women from the village of Xiaohuang in China, who, through the job opportunities offered by tourism, have become independent and no longer need to rely on marriage for security (Song and Chen, 2018). This is also the case for women in rural communities in Morocco, although the tourism industry there reproduces inequalities at the level of decision-making capacity, workload and wages, among other factors (Berlanga-Adell, 2013). One last case study illustrates how tourism in Iran allows women to be more involved in meetings and become more aware of their rights, while at the same time reproducing the structures of inequality in order to maintain the traditional roles that have been offered to tourists as authentic (Sheikhi, 2015).

The isolation of gender variables proves to be difficult due to the intersection of multiple axes of oppression found among members of the host communities, race being the

main aspect appearing in the academic literature. From this perspective, Rusell-Mundine (2012) explores the need to decolonise 'Western'-based research agendas. Rydzik et al. (2017) highlights the need to fill the gap in the academic literature on the intersections between gender, race and tourism. Tourism has been shown to be both a platform that positively impacts the host community and a mechanism that perpetuates inequalities. An example of this can be seen in the Himalayas, where the poorest and most socially marginalised people and communities find in tourism a way to survive, but are still unable to break the cycle of poverty (Dilshad et al., 2018). A similar paradox has been described in Kenya among the Maasai Mara tribe, where the same tourism that perpetuates patriarchal power roles allows women to obtain informal jobs and gain some autonomy (Christian, 2015).

As stated by Rydzik et al. (2017), Polish women migrating to the United Kingdom are generally considered inferior; their educational qualifications are often not recognised; they tend to only have access to less valued jobs (both in terms of salary and recognition); they experience fewer possibilities for promotion; and they often suffer worse working conditions than men or English women. In the tourist industry, the work available to them tends to be limited to jobs traditionally associated with women, mainly the housekeeping and reception departments. The experiences, stories and feelings of migrant women have been and are still rendered invisible, as is their contribution to the tourism industry. Racial minority women are also often sexualised and must comply with certain stereotypes to apply for jobs within the tourism field, this happens in Haiti and the Dominican Republic (Aymer, 2011).

Despite these forms of oppression, tourism has also allowed the re-appropriation of racial minorities' identity, such as women working as *sácamefotos* (take-my-pictures) or weavers in the Peruvian Andes (Ypeij, 2012). Therefore, the re-empowerment of racial stigma may lead to the empowerment of women who suffer from it (Babb, 2012). Besides, the tourism sector's informal jobs allow migrant women to access the labour market and to gain skills, such as language, until they can find a job elsewhere or one that best suits their needs (Rydzik et al., 2017).

Finally, the third area of study in the impacts of tourism on the social environment is sexual tourism and sexual exploitation, which is a topic closely followed within gender studies. The World Tourism Organization defines sex tourism as trips organised from inside or outside the tourism sector, using its structures, with the main objective of promoting a commercial sexual relationship between tourists and locals of a particular destination (UNWTO, 1995). The traditional perception is that tourists, usually men, travel to a Global South country to have sex with usually female prostitutes. It is estimated that around 10% of tourists internationally would choose their destination with this direct objective (Castilho et al., 2018).

As the Global North to Global South dynamic becomes an essential aspect of this issue, the racialisation of sex workers, or the sexually exploited, constitutes a permanent inequality, which leads to further sexualisation of the locals (Salomon, 2012). As Valcuende and Cáceres (2014) observed in Cuba, racialisation leads to a relationship between a white male tourist and a local black woman as sex tourism, while a similar relationship would be categorised as romantic tourism if the local woman was white. In Brazil's case, the intersection of race and gender relegates black women to a servant's role, in which they are sexually objectified and expected to be socially subordinate (Williams, 2017).

On the other hand, despite the global conception of the sex tourist being a Global North male, further research is needed on its conceptualisation, as well as to delineate differences between sex work based on the sex, age, race and class of those purchasing sex and those whose services are being purchased (Richards and Rei, 2015). According to Johnson (2017), male sex workers show more resilience to the economic changes they may suffer, but at the same time they are more exposed to diseases such as HIV, as sexual protection and health measures are not aimed at them. Secondly, the invisibilisation of female sexuality leads to female sex tourists

being seen as just romantic relationship seekers (Valcuende and Cáceres, 2014). This same invisibility leads to the disguising of sexual relationships between female tourists and male workers, giving importance to eroticism and the exchange of gifts (Frohlick, 2013).

Impacts on the Production Environment

Regarding the diverse impacts on the production environment, three different topics have been identified. Firstly, the inequality and patriarcal dynamics that are present in the tourism labour market and which hinder the access of women in some particular roles or perpetuate sexuallised images of women. Secondly, tourism is nevertheless the lever that empower women in some contexts, since it offers them the possibility of getting a regular income. Although related to this first topic, two particular themes were also outlined; that is the female entrepreneurship in tourism which is a vital strategy for womens' empowerment and sexual harassment in work contexts which possibility could increase in leisure contexts.

Starting with the first main topic, the tourism labour market represents both an opportunity and the perpetuation of traditional roles for women, which is a challenge for gender equality (Rinaldi and Salerno, 2019). Moreover, working conditions can bring specific challenges for women, from the need to accept sexualised roles to keep their job, to putting up with harassment (Wang and Xu, 2018). On the other hand, many women find jobs in this sector, allowing families to relocate and settle in a specific desired place, as found in Andean communities (Maxwell, 2011).

Therefore, the tourism labour market both integrates global structures of inequality and provides a platform to combat these inequalities. As in other areas, the vectors of sexual inequality are based on three gender stereotypes: that women are more oriented towards the family and care work, that women are less competent than men, and that social relations between men entail the exclusion of women (Carvalho et al., 2019).

The tourism labour market, in which worldwide the vast majority of workers are women, offers opportunities for empowerment, poverty reduction and various other benefits which can make women feel more integrated into the community (Carvalho et al., 2019). Such may be the case for the Cabo de San Lucas Navy's informal street vendors in Mexico (Wilson et al., 2012). It has been seen that in areas where tourism is under development, such as Tanzania, opportunities for women in cultural tourism can include creating and selling crafts, guiding tours and participating in community performing arts activities (Bayno and Jani, 2016). As seen in Namibia, in some cases, as a result of their income from tourism, the woman may become the head of the family, a role traditionally reserved for men (Khatiwada et al., 2014).

Regarding gendered leadership, it is crucial to contextualise each scenario in the culture in which it is taking place and take diverse dynamics into consideration (Beedle et al., 2013). The perceived differences in leadership styles of females and males can hinder women's access to positions of responsibility, especially if male-dominated hierarchies see them as incompatible with the industry's dynamics, as Perkov et al. (2016) observed in Croatia. For this reason, women who reach positions of responsibility may have to adopt leadership styles that are traditionally considered to be masculine, thus reproducing the scheme that previously hampered their professional career (Boyol Ngan and Litwin, 2019; Denizci Guillet et al., 2019). Despite this, women who occupy positions of power often emphasise their role as mentors of other women climbing vertically in the organisation (Remington and Kitterlin-Lynch, 2017).

On the other hand, informal jobs do not guarantee stability or high income, so many workers are forced into exploitation or self-exploitation, as Wilson et al. (2012) describe in the context of Mexico. Informal positions in the tourism market include seasonal and freelance work, with tasks such as manufacturing and selling crafts (Khatiwada et al., 2014). Some characteristics of the non-permanent labour market for women include lower job recognition, precarious work with fewer development opportunities, difficulty of horizontal and vertical

promotion, gender-based wage differences, and fewer possibilities to work in different fields (González-Serrano et al., 2018). Just as men tend to be in positions of responsibility, such as catering and administration, the majority of women in the tourist industry work in cleaning and customer service jobs, with fewer in positions of responsibility, as observed in Portugal by Carvalho et al. (2019).

Two of the most visible effects of structural inequalities are the wage gap and the glass ceiling. The perpetuation of a glass ceiling relates to certain barriers already discussed, such as the fact that labour relations between men tend to be stronger and that women are burdened with caring tasks at home that do not allow them to dedicate the same hours to work (Carvalho et al., 2014). Care tasks can also mean fewer possibilities for women to be internationally mobile, which makes it more difficult to obtain promotion (Bakas et al., 2018). Wage differences can be seen across all employment categories, regardless of the level of education held by the person occupying the role (García-Pozo, 2014). In Australia, these differences have been calculated as 8.5% less on average for women than their male peers in the tourism sector in general, and 7.5% less for women in the hotel sector (Kortt et al., 2018).

Other inequalities suffered by women in the labour market are integrated into the organisational structures of companies with corporate cultures that impose gender-blind work dynamics, such as non-flexible working hours. In such organisations, employees are required to be completely available during standard working hours, regardless of care responsibilities employees may have a situation which disproportionately affects women. Discriminatory behaviour, such as exclusion, inappropriate jokes, sexualisation or the devaluation of women's opinions, can also be problematic in certain working environments (Carvalho et al., 2019). Another striking factor is that the overwhelming majority of tourism students are female, yet women fill a minority of positions that include greater responsibility (Costa et al., 2012). Women also tend to obtain higher academic scores than men in tourism degrees, which results in a paradox when such fact is compared to the managerial positions they occupy (Ferreira and Silva, 2016).

The geographical contexts and social dynamics of the areas where tourism occurs can be a decisive factor in labour market patterns. For this reason, Soronellas et al. (2013) argue that the global context, such as the situation of migrant or minority women, should be considered when undertaking analysis in this field. Another significant variable relates to the dynamics common to rural areas, where men tend to occupy positions in the primary sector while women undertake more tertiary sector tasks related to care. The tourism labour market adapts to these rural dynamics, further accentuating wage differences between men and women (Cikic et al., 2018). In Andalusia, Spain, it has been estimated that the wage gap between women who work in rural tourism is approximately 23% less than their peers in urban areas, although the cost of living must be taken into account (Rivera Mateos, 2018).

The second main topic was linked to the dialogue between entrepreneurship and empowerment from a gender perspective. That is so, because they form a dynamic with certain contradictions, where the factors that have to do with the daily lives of the women who undertake entrepreneurial activities are often undervalued, biasing the results (Möller, 2012). Feminist economic theory proposes structural changes in current dynamics and power relations, arguing that the productive spheres (those that provide economic benefit) and the reproductive spheres (those of care) cannot be dissociated. Indeed, the relationship between these two spheres is what allows both to continue to function. Thus, maintaining them both demands a holistic perspective of working people and a clear break with structural norms that attribute production tasks to men and reproductive tasks to women (Bakas, 2017). Such a break would involve ceasing to attribute specific jobs or professional sectors to certain genders, thus increasing the community's resilience in times of crisis.

At the structural level, a feminist economy approach to the entire market would involve a restructuring of the sector, transforming tourism into a tool to empower women and achieve gender equality of opportunity (Nassani et al., 2018). In the case of entrepreneurs, it is key to consider this approach, given that in such projects the boundaries between roles in the spheres of production and care are diffuse (Bakas, 2017). Empowerment through tourism challenges perspectives rooted in the mindset that conceives of women's roles as raising children and being caring wives, while men provide financial support (Surangi, 2018). By breaking the cycles of subordinate gender roles, tourism has provided new sources of self-confidence, reduced feelings of emptiness, and led to more professional education for women (Aghazamani and Hunt, 2017).

Tourism supports the economic empowerment of all people based on employment, income and opportunities for entrepreneurship. However, in some cases, tourism provides remarkable empowerment specifically for women. It has improved access to various forms of education and led to increased participation in social organisations that support women's empowerment. The new status for the organisations created through tourism has also resulted in changes in preconceived moral codes, a willingness to acquire skills and the ability for women to be part of decision-making (Aghazamani and Hunt, 2017).

According to research carried out by Muñoz-Fernández et al. (2016) in Spain, women show more discipline and responsibility when they undertake entrepreneurial activities, but also show less tendency towards entrepreneurship and less willingness to take risks than men. On the other hand, female entrepreneurship tends to have a more significant positive impact on community resilience where it is established (Bakas, 2017). Despite this, female entrepreneurship tends to receive little or no public aid in general terms. Regardless of the willingness of public institutions to promote female empowerment, and despite widespread awareness of existing inequalities, female entrepreneurs only receive specific aid in the event of being victims of gender-based violence in the context of the Catalan Pyrenees (Pallarès-Blanch et al., 2015). However, there are specific cases where governments such as Ghana have created specific advisory measures to guide women entrepreneurs (Ali, 2018). The need for such measures is incontrovertible, given that although the barriers of social inequality are clear and have been widely studied, a large number of women entrepreneurs state that they are not aware of them (Costa et al., 2016). The benefit of specifically promoting female participation lies in an increased leadership capacity, a sign of gender equality (Pallarès-Blanch et al., 2015).

Another practical case where the dynamic between entrepreneurship and empowerment is exemplified is that of Bardia National Park in Nepal. In this tourist destination, women entrepreneurs reap individual benefits related to empowerment, such as self-confidence, personal skills, access to economic income, and a more prominent decision-making role in the family. However, to better link ecotourism entrepreneurship with women's empowerment, it would be necessary to solve Nepal's rural region's gender-specific challenges, which are intimately linked to its patriarchal society (Panta and Thapa, 2017). Focusing on Andean communities, Arroyo et al. (2019) observe that the cultural norms of certain communities still have considerable influence on gender dynamics and can prevent women from accessing all the advantages of tourism's development. On the other hand, in terms of motivations for starting a tourism activity, women entrepreneurs are more motivated by elements of the economic sphere and, therefore, play a greater role in decision-making in economic criteria and the diversification of primarily agricultural economies (Dieguez-Castrillon et al., 2012).

Finally, sexual harassment is a relevant issue for tourism studies. Its existence in the workplace has gained increasing prominence in recent years, as explored by Cheung et al., (2017) in a case study of Asian female tour leaders. Due to factors such as long working hours, night shifts, the prevalence of alcohol, and the intimacy implicit in the hospitality service, the tourism industry is susceptible to problems such as sexual harassment. Other characteristics of

the service industry, such as the predominance of hierarchical organisational structures, employees' low status, social interaction among workers at all levels, the social expectations of the job performance, and the sexualised image of female workers that some organisations promote can make employees in the tourism industry more vulnerable to harassment.

According to the same study, sexual harassment may provoke the adverse effects within the organisation, such as poor labour relations, financial loss, employee dissatisfaction, loss of feeling of belonging in the organisation, and increasing worker turnover. Despite this, many tourism workers cope with harassment as "part of the job" and may even be conditioned to deny its existence. This denial may be a consequence of the requirement within service-oriented industries for employees to demonstrate tolerance and patience, as well as a lack of clearly articulated policies that support workers and protect them from sexual harassment. The nature of power dynamics between service industry workers and customers increases the former's vulnerability to sexual harassment (Cheung, 2017).

Conclusions

The literature review presented in this paper fulfills this study's objectives since it offers a comprehensive approach to the current research on tourism and its impacts on host communities from a gender perspective. The present study included research from different countries and continents. It identified particular topics that are to be found in diverse parts of the globe, showing that global dynamics influence gender issues. Therefore, the tourism industry is a global phenomenon that generates and reproduces gender issues in different places. Nevertheless, some particular conflicts or problematics are particularly relevant depending on local factors, that is, gender issues fostered by global dynamics interact with cultural and economic dynamics that are more linked to specific territories.

The three main topics identified and analyzed in this paper show this role of the tourism industry as a global force that may drive gender issues in diverse destinations with specific characteristics.

Regarding the impacts on the physical environment, scientific literature highlights the importance of considering the gender perspective when it refers to managing natural spaces and resources. In this sense, there is no agreement on the perceptions in this area depending on gender. Whereas in some contexts, women are more prone to environmental protection policies and the avoidance of tourism development, in other areas, men think in the same line. Furthermore, water is the natural resource that most concerns the local community. In this case, women are the most affected by the scarcity of water due to its use for the tourism industry, as it implies the worsening of their daily life tasks at home, where water use should be essential.

Regarding the impacts of tourism upon the social environment, gender appears to be a crucial dimension. This section focused on the perception of the local community concerning different aspects of the industry, such as safety in the public space, the access to participation in tourism resources, the perception of changes to daily life and to the carrying capacity of the destination. Such perspectives are heavily mediated by gender, as well as by dimensions that include the socio-economic background and the migrant status, which suggests that an intersectional approach is crucial to the analysis of tourism. Moreover, this section explores the gender roles that can be found in tourism, both examining how they are perpetuated within the industry through care tasks, such as women caring for visiting friends and family, while simultaneously allowing to challenge them, such as women being employed and thus achieving economic stability. Lastly, sexual tourism and sexual exploitation are analysed to understand the need of a clear conceptualisation of each phenomenon and to delve into the impact of tourism on sexual dynamics in the destinations.

Finally, the last section focused on the impacts on the production environment and showed that tourism interaction with different labour markets may promote women

empowerment. Nevertheless, and depending on the tourism offer and the destination's image, sexual stereotypes, inequalities or sexual harassment may challenge the comprehension of tourism as a factor for equality. Therefore, studies on labour inequalities and injustices are crucial to raise awareness and create consciousness on the challenges that tourism jobs may involve from a gender perspective.

This study faces various limitations. Firstly, the papers analysed are based on published research found via the Scopus database using the search the parameters "tourism and gender". Further research on this topic would benefit from a broader search on other databases using synonyms as new parameters. Secondly, the literature reviewed consists exclusively of peer-reviewed papers; a future line of research could integrate more perspectives by widening the focus to book chapters and grey literature. Thirdly, the articles analysed have a narrow view on gender, mainly considering it as a demographic variable. The inclusion of gender studies on the topic of tourism's impacts on host communities would allow for implementing a broader range of approaches, such as intersectionality. Fourthly, most of the journals that appear in Scopus belong to Global North countries. In this sense, further research should strive to integrate Global South approaches to the questions presented in this work. Similarly, the search was conducted in English, which can be considered a limitation, as few articles written in other languages were found and analysed. For this reason, further research should cover scientific articles written with other languages to obtain more perspectives on this topic.

Finally, the study is based on a qualitative analysis of the literature on gender perspectives as applied to tourism and its host communities. A further bibliometric analysis of tourism and gender could be undertaken to more accurately describe the research interest in this area in recent years. For example, the number of citations, the h-index, the publications' language, the number of authors, their gender and their country could be analysed, among other parameters (Hassan et al., 2021).

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