Tourism Recreation Research

Routledge
Taylor & Francis Group

ISSN: (Print) (Online) Journal homepage: https://www.tandfonline.com/loi/rtrr20

# Blue planning – a planning model for the development of Blue Tourism in Blue Spaces

Mónica Brito & Luís Silveira

**To cite this article:** Mónica Brito & Luís Silveira (2023): Blue planning – a planning model for the development of Blue Tourism in Blue Spaces, Tourism Recreation Research, DOI: 10.1080/02508281.2023.2167909

**To link to this article:** https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2023.2167909



Published online: 28 Jan 2023.

TOURISM RECREATION RESEARCH
https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2023.2167909

Routledge
Taylor & Francis Group



# Blue planning – a planning model for the development of Blue Tourism in Blue Spaces

Mónica Brito[a] and Luís Silveira [b]

[a]University of Évora, CEGOT, CIDEHUS, Colégio do Espírito Santo, Évora, Portugal; [b]University of Coimbra, CEGOT, Faculty of Arts and Humanities, Colégio São Jerónimo, Coimbra, Portugal

**ABSTRACT**

There are regions whose features allow them to function as catalysts for the health and well-being of those who live there and those who visit them. However, to make the most of this vocation, it is necessary to know and understand these regions in depth. This will make it possible to plan and implement a development model that enhances their characteristics in favour of health and well-being, making their residential and tourist functions compatible to their mutual benefit. The main objective is to propose a specific model for planning Blue Tourism in Blue Spaces. For this, the state of the art on blue territories, their characteristics and impacts on human health and well-being are analysed, and Blue Tourism is integrated in this approach. From a diachronic perspective, tourism planning models are broached, and an innovative proposal is made. It takes the form of a theoretical model that is based on a thorough knowledge of the tourism vocation of blue territories and aims to develop a sustainable Blue Tourism. It sets out to improve the quality of life of local residents and the quality of the tourist experience for visitors, and to promote the health and well-being of both.

**ARTICLE HISTORY**
Received 20 July 2022
Accepted 4 January 2023

**KEYWORDS**
Blue Spaces; blue tourism; Blue Planning; model

## Introduction

Throughout history, human beings have repeatedly settled close to water, a feature that shapes human societies and marks their culture. More than 200 million people live in the coastal areas of Europe, and these are the main recreational destinations in the region. And although there is a tendency to associate them with risk (drowning, microbial pollution, for example), the relationship between these territories and human health indicates that there is convincing evidence of salutogenic (i.e. able to cause health and well-being) effects (as opposed to pathogenic effects) of Blue Spaces (BSs) on the health and well-being of residents (Grellier et al., 2017). This assumption arises even though there is a gap in the knowledge regarding visitors, whose exposure time tends to be shorter, but more intentional in character, which we can consider to be a catalyst for the potential positive impacts.

This article aims to characterise and explain these places associated with the water element, specifically to highlight their ability to positively influence those who live in them as well as those who visit them. Every year millions of people decide to spend their leisure time/holiday periods in areas that somehow (directly or less directly) have a close relationship with water, whether coastal or inland. We are talking about different circumstances that are often not perceived by residents and visitors. A house with a sea view is almost always more expensive to buy or rent than a house in the second furthest street from the coast, as we know. Or a hotel where there is a price difference between the room overlooking the sea and one lacking such a view. The same goes for non-coastal areas far from the sea. Take the example of the Swiss lakes; the country is characterised as a mountainous inland territory, but in fact there is (in the minds of those who live and those who visit) the attraction of the water element.

Even for shorter periods of time, such as a weekend or a Saturday or Sunday afternoon, it is usual for millions of people to travel to promenades/avenues near water bodies to enjoy walks and other leisure activities. For instance, there are Londoners who go to Brighton or other coastal cities, or the Portuguese who go both to coastal regions/towns and the banks of the Douro River. There is a proven attraction to these territories, yet their study is still at an early stage, given their potential. If we have BSs, people going to them will bring us

CONTACT Luís Silveira luis.silveira@uc.pt University of Coimbra, CEGOT, Faculty of Arts and Humanities, Colégio São Jerónimo, Largo da Porta Férrea, 3004–530 Coimbra, Portugal

closer to the concept of blue tourism, reflecting the attraction of coastal territories. For that reason, each year millions of people decide to go to them for the purpose of recreation (in the true sense of the word).

Tourism activity in coastal areas is of considerable importance to the European economy since Europe is the most-visited continent, receiving half of the world's international tourist arrivals. According to the European Commission (2021), coastal tourism is the biggest sector across the Blue Economy in terms of Gross Value Added (GVA) and employment. GVA generated by the sector amounted to slightly more than €80 billion in 2018, a 21% rise compared to 2009. More than 2.8 million people were directly employed in the sector (2018). This leading role of blue tourism is part and parcel of the European Union Blue Growth strategy, where it is stated that 'the coastal and maritime tourism sector has been identified as an area with special potential to foster a smart, sustainable and inclusive Europe' (p. 68).

Beyond this reality associated with coastal territories, the blue tourism concept and positioning that we intend to demarcate here is a concept that should also be extended to inland areas, so that they might also be perceived as localities with salutogenic properties, in the vague understanding that BSs can promote the well-being of visitors. For this to succeed, it is imperative to have sustainable support, particularly a planning model that can serve land-use managers and policy makers, hence the present proposal. Not neglecting the relevance of other Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), this article aims to be an added value and is inserted in Goal 11 (Sustainable Cities and Communities) of the UN Agenda 2030.

## Literature review

### *Blue spaces*

The definition of blue space follows a series of studies that show that there is a typology of areas where water takes centre stage, and which combine a set of characteristics that catalyse the health and well-being of their inhabitants. We are mentioning coastal regions where the sea plays this role, and also inland regions where rivers, lakes, reservoirs, and streams play the leading role. This is a relatively recent line of research which has been significantly stimulated by the Blue-Health project (2016-2020), funded by Horizon 2020.

This project contributed to the understanding of how urban BSs can affect people's well-being. It arose from interdisciplinary research where large-scale survey data was combined with case studies to understand the effects these environments can have on health (https://bluehealth2020.eu/). The project aimed to understand the effects of exposure to BSs on human health and well-being. It mapped and quantified the public health impacts of aquatic environments in European urban contexts and provided policy makers and land-use managers in these regions with information that would allow them to define policies and practices that maximise these effects (Grellier et al., 2017).

In certain contexts, water can pose threats to human life and health. It is associated with natural disasters, with the transmission of disease and poisoning, and with accidents, such as drowning, linked to bathing and sporting activities in aquatic environments. Despite this dark side, what is clear is that it is vital to the survival of species, with positive impacts on the physical and mental health of humans (White et al., 2020); in short, this is the basis of the construction of the blue space concept.

The work developed on this topic shows that there are multiple factors that influence this positive relationship, especially the proximity and exposure to its effects, because the closer, more intentional, and longer lasting the exposure, the greater its impact on human health and well-being. It is also worth mentioning the processes that link exposure to its effects. They can be of an indirect nature, such as mitigation, when water works as a temperature regulator, or more direct, when its surroundings constitute a space for physical activity, social interaction, and/or connection with nature, in a rationale of prevention. Recovery from stressful situations from a cognitive deficit can be involved, too. Time, climate, and cultural context, from a situational perspective, and age, gender, and ethnicity, from an individual perspective, are variables that affect the nature and intensity of the relationship. Policies and practices have been implemented at various levels (transnational/national, regional/local, and personal) to enhance the positive effects of water on health and well-being. This approach shows that water can translate into health and well-being for people and also for the planet, since many of the actions aimed at enhancing a positive relationship also include environmental protection and restoration (White et al., 2020).

From a conceptual perspective, many researchers have been focusing on the definition of 'blue space' for about a decade, based on the trinomial Territory, Water, and Health. In 2010 White et al. (2010) noted that although theorists admit the regenerative potential of aquatic environments or BSs, the little systematic empirical research that existed on the topic was confusing when it came to distinguishing the impacts of their presence in natural vs artificial (built) environments. These authors note that although water is an essential element for human life, its role in psychological health is less obvious. This is despite the important social and

religious significance that has been attributed to it over time by various communities and groups, and the cultural and economic value of its presence often influences the choice of a house, a hotel room, or a leisure destination.

The multidimensional concept of blue space in its relationship with health emerged as a result of the research by Völker and Kistemann (2011). After conducting a literature review to address the lack of evidence on the relationship between BSs and human well-being, the authors conducted a systematic and qualitative meta-analysis of the relevant studies on this issue. They concluded that the studies reviewed were mainly experimental and multidisciplinary, while more qualitative interdisciplinary research was needed to measure the long-term effects of BSs on well-being. They also highlighted the low relevance of the relationship between water and health in planning processes, despite the recognition of its salutogenic benefits.

The salutogenic benefits mentioned by Völker and Kistemann (2011) arise within the salutogenic approach or salutogenesis, introduced by Antonovsky (1979). It consists of a positive health paradigm, which contrasts with the pathogenic approach in that it focuses on identifying the causes of health rather than those of disease. Health promotion originates from this concept, having moved from investment in disease prevention to investment in health promotion. It is a theoretical reference that supports practices aimed at promoting the appreciation and more efficient use of individual and collective resources to improve the health and well-being of the public (Antonovsky, 1979; Antonovsky et al., 1971; Lindström & Eriksson, 2006; Álvarez et al., 2020).

The systematisation that Völker and Kistemann (2011) carried out allowed them to introduce a conceptual model to characterise, analyse and understand the salutogenic effects of BSs on health. The model is structured around the concept of therapeutic landscapes; it includes the extended perspective, in which a more pathogenesis-centred view gives way to an approach primarily focused on health and well-being. For this, it considers that landscapes that are potentially therapeutic are not actually therapeutic, as their effect is dependent on the profile of individuals.

Völker and Kistemann (2011) concluded that despite impressive findings that BSs have multiple influences on human health and well-being, blue space research is still at best a by-product of environmental psychology and health research. According to the authors, the blue component of therapeutic landscapes and its impacts on health should be the subject of research in areas such as environmental health, planning and landscape architecture, to identify the health benefits associated with the water element and to contemplate it in urban planning issues.

In the context of this article, it is crucial to mention that this paradigm is associated with the health-promoting characteristics of BSs, their role in preventing pathologies, and the need to introduce them into the planning and development process of these areas, to promote the health and well-being of their residents and visitors.

The relationship between health and living in coastal areas has also been studied, with research suggesting that coastal environments can promote health and well-being. Table 1 shows that the studies of several authors have focused on studying the benefits of coastal waters and its proximity, crossing the research with the dimensions Accessibility, Activities related to water and territories near it, Distance of people from the coast, Health and well-being, and the binomial BSs – Green Spaces. Given their proximity to the coast residents engage in physical and recreational activities directly and indirectly related to water, which is a benefit with a positive impact on their health and well-being.

Despite all the research already developed on this topic (enjoyment of coastal areas and their benefits), there are shortcomings and limitations to which some authors try to respond and help to strengthen the conclusions already reached, to increase objectivity, and to allow generalisations. One limitation is the strong spatial concentration of the studies carried out, making their diversification necessary to broaden the concept of blue space and blue health. In this regard, McDougall et al. (2020) consider that despite the considerable evidence that exposure to the characteristics of blue spaces can be beneficial to health and well-being, there is a strong concentration of studies in coastal areas and a research deficit in freshwater blue areas. This needs to be remedied, while recognising that there are differences between the impacts of the two categories.

In order to overcome this gap and acknowledging the need to understand the specificities of freshwater blue spaces and their impacts on health and well-being, these authors propose three themes that could help to narrow this gap in the field of blue health: 1) definition of an appropriate methodological framework to study freshwater spaces; 2) analysis of empirical evidence on the role of freshwater in blue health; and 3) promotion of blue health opportunities related to freshwater.

However, the lack of uniform criteria makes a comparative analysis between different geographical realities difficult, so Elliot et al. (2020) modelled the relationship between the distance from the area of residence to BSs (coastal areas, lakes, rivers, etc.) and the

**Table 1.** Main research on the impacts of proximity to blue spaces on people.

| Dimension | Subject | Objective | Findings | Author(s) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Accessibility | Access to BSs | Identify inequalities in access to BSs and their benefits. | Identifies safety issues and the perceived risk associated with water, particularly by vulnerable groups, as factors inducing an imbalance. Those responsible should encourage its use, promoting environmental quality, cleanliness, lighting, and surveillance, to increase the sense of security and attract users. | Pitt (2019) |
| Activities | Physical and mental health of physical activities (Blue Gym programme – 2009) | To investigate the impacts on physical and mental health of physical activities developed in coastal and aquatic environments. | It was found that individuals living near the coast are generally healthier and happier than those living inland. | Depledge and Bird (2009); White et al. (2016) |
| Activities | Activities near the river | Therapeutic effect of walking tours on routes along the Rhine River. | They show that these are places of choice for leisure and recreational activities, allowing recovery from everyday stress, and that the water element has a strong role, reinforcing the concept of therapeutic landscape associated with blue space. | Völker and Kistemann (2013) |
| Activities | Outdoor physical activity in coastal areas | Relationship of the evidence 'that individuals living in coastal areas are healthier than those living inland' to the intensity of outdoor physical activity of residents in England's coastal areas. | These areas encourage their residents and visitors to engage in physical activity. They may therefore be an undervalued public health tool. | White et al. (2014) |
| Activities | Coastal experiences by residents | Understand the coastal experiences sought by residents of two towns in south-west England to promote and preserve their well-being in their daily lives. | The need for greater recognition of people's emotional connections to the coast, and its therapeutic effects, within coastal management policies and practices. | Bell et al. (2015) |
| Activities | BSs and related activities | Impacts of physical activities in BSs. | Activities such as swimming are seen as catalysts for health and well-being, associated with the therapeutic properties of immersion, and should, therefore, and despite the risks, particularly when practised outdoors in cold climates, be considered in public policies and health promotion practices. | Foley (2015, 2017) |
| Activities | Recreational activities and coastal environments | Segment the activities developed in the recreational visits made annually to coastal environments, according to demographic, motivational, temporal, and regional variables. | The predominance of land-based activities (walking) over water-based activities (swimming, water sports, etc.), whose results standardise coastal recreation in England and can influence policy decisions on coastal and maritime accessibility and its implications for public health. | Elliott et al. (2018) |
| Activities | Interaction between residents and the coast/ sea | Analyse the interaction of residents of Malta's deprived neighbourhoods with the coast and the sea and its impacts on health and well-being. | The coast and the sea have a huge potential to stimulate physical activity and mental well-being, as well as feelings of integration and social interaction. | Satariano (2019) |
| Blue Spaces / Green Spaces | Relationship Blue Spaces / Green Spaces | Analyse the relationship between BSs and Green Spaces. | In a logic of complementarity with healthy green spaces, healthy BSs 'are health-friendly places and spaces where water is at the centre of a variety of environments with identifiable potential for promoting human well-being'. | Foley and Kistemman (2015, *p*. 158). |
| Blue Spaces / Green Spaces | Comparison between BSs and Green Spaces | Comparative research between BSs and Green Spaces. | The conclusions indicate that the salutogenic characteristics of BSs enhance those of green spaces and that, comparatively speaking, the effects of BSs on human health, although different, exceed those of green spaces. | Völker and Kistemann (2015) |
| Distance | Costal proximity and health and well-being (English Census) | To examine the relationship between coastal proximity and health and well-being. | Positive association between individual perceptions of health and residence in the coastal area. | Wheeler et al. (2012); White et al. (2013) |
| Distance | Health status and distance from the coast | Compare people's health status from the perspective of proximity of residence to the coast. | Living near the sea can help improve mental health in poorer urban communities. | Garrett et al. (2019) |
| Health and well-being | BSs as therapeutic landscapes | Understanding BSs as therapeutic landscapes. | The historical, social, and cultural relationship between humans and water, from the perspective of leisure, well- | Völker and Kistemann (2011); |

(*Continued*)

**Table 1.** Continued.

| Dimension | Subject | Objective | Findings | Author(s) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | being and health, and which has been promoting coastal areas, rivers and lakes as spaces for exercise, leisure and recovery, within a broader public health concept | Foley and Kistemman (2015) |
| Health and well-being | Beaches and health promotion | The role of the beach in health promotion. | Beaches encourage family physical activity, with positive health impacts from engagement with nature, fun, increased family and social interaction, and reduced stress. | Ashbullby et al. (2013) |
| Health and well-being | Health and place of residence | Analyse the general health of citizens according to their place of residence. | People living less than 5 km from the coast have a better health status than the rest, and this positive association should encourage governments to devise policies and practices that allow increasing public access to the salutogenic effects of the oceans. | Hooyberg et al. (2020) |
| Health and well-being | Urban BSs | Analyse the relationship between access and exposure to different types of urban natural environments and their respective health impacts. | Although with a different expression by gender, exposure to water and to some type of vegetation was associated with positive self-reports on general health status, mental health, and common mental disorder. | Jarvis et al. (2020) |
| Health and well-being | BSs and mental health and physical activity | To prove that BSs can benefit mental health and promote physical activity, and not really to confirm any benefits for physical health. | Short walks in BSs may provide benefits to well-being and mood but did not find a positive effect on any of the cardiovascular variables assessed. | Vert et al. (2020) |
| Health and well-being | BSs and public health | Evaluate the potential benefits of water bodies or BSs and their role in the main public health challenges of the twenty-first century. | BSs can play a role in the prevention and promotion of physical and mental health, as well as in the rehabilitation or recovery from illness. | White et al. (2020) |

Source: own preparation based on the authors cited.

frequency of leisure visits, using an analysis of 18 countries. This model paves the way for analysing the health impacts of visiting and enjoying these territories. Also, Mishra et al. (2020), propose a tool, the Blue Health Environmental Assessment Tool (BEAT), which provides a rigorous and comparable assessment of the environment and strengthens planning in the development of BSs as a public health resource. These authors understand that compared with green spaces, regarded as therapeutic landscapes and public health resources, there is little knowledge about BSs and their role in health promotion, even though they consider that in both cases the environmental quality of the sites influences the health benefits.

Also, having realised that there was no review that systematised the quantitative evidence of the potential benefits of BSs (seas, lakes, rivers, etc.) for human health, despite the growing number of studies developed with this objective, Gascon et al. (2017) proposed to give credibility to this field of research by undertaking such a review based on thirty-five articles using the PRISMA methodology. They concluded that systematisation is difficult because of the small number of studies and their heterogeneity in terms of methodology and metrics. They felt that more longitudinal research and natural experiments in more countries are needed to better understand the causal associations between BSs and health and well-being.

Finally, it is important to associate the concept of Blue Space with the concept of hydrophilicity, introduced by Gil (2008) with a user-centred perspective, which can perhaps explain the therapeutic effects of BSs, especially their impact on mental health.

Although fluvial therapy, or the therapeutic effects of rivers and their associated activities and landscapes, is linked to hydrophilicity on the assumption that they contribute to overall well-being, this concept can be expanded to encompass the remaining BSs (sea, lakes, reservoirs, etc.). In fact, the primary environment of humans is aquatic, which could explain the affective connection most people have with water and the beneficial effects that it and the activities associated with it provide for their physical and mental well-being.

Furthermore, BSs are an integral part of natural environments and there is evidence of a positive relationship between them and physical and mental health and well-being. In this context, the results of a UK study are interesting. The study covered a sample of over 20,000 individuals and shows that, on average, participants are significantly happier in natural environments than in urban ones (MacKerron & Mourato, 2013).

Also, the Blue Mind theory, developed by neuroscientist and marine biologist Wallace Nichols, states that water can improve physical health, increase happiness and creativity, and reduce stress, because just the sight or sound of water is enough to release neurochemicals in the body that stimulate well-being and induce relaxation (Nichols, 2014).

The systematic review developed allows us to conclude that the studies analysed are mostly partial, i.e. they focus on the relationship between water and health in certain environments, especially coastal and urban ones. However, there is not a more holistic study that assesses the impacts of water on health, regardless of its form (coastal or inland waters). The studies are also concentrated geographically since they are mostly based in the United Kingdom. This is limiting in terms of conclusions and prevents any kind of generalisation. There is an urgent need to study the therapeutic effects of water on health and well-being in other countries.

In addition, the focus is only on residents and the health impacts on visitors are not studied. The state of the art reveals that these topics mainly concentrate on the health and environment perspectives. This is borne out by sphere of interest of the scientific journals where almost all the published articles are found (*Health & Place*; *Landscape and Urban Planning*; *Environmental Research*; *Journal of Environmental Psychology*; *Preventive Medicine*; etc.).

The human and social sciences do not concentrate attention on the trilogy water, health and well-being, and tourism, since they fail to study the salutogenic potential of water for developing tourism, and the paradigms and planning models that could and should underlie this process.

Finally, in this study, the blue space concept encompasses both coastal territories where the resource is the sea, and inland territories where rivers, lakes, reservoirs, streams, enclosed seas, and other water bodies are taken to be aquatic elements. The analysis and the proposed model are based on this definition.

## Blue tourism

The conceptualisation of Blue Tourism (BT) should first be linked to the concept of blue economy, which was introduced in 2012, under the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development (UNCSD). All of the numerous definitions are related to the sustainable management of seas and oceans and their multiple resources. The aim is to ensure their preservation and continuity for future generations (OECD, 2016; UNCTAD, 2014; United Nations, 2014) through activities that directly rely on them, one of which is coastal tourism (European Commission, 2020).

The concept of BT thus emerges within the blue economy and is synonymous with maritime and coastal tourism as it bundles all the by-products associated with it, including nautical tourism, sun and sea tourism, cruise tourism, and others, with the development of these products having been inspired in a context of sustainability. It is a model for maritime and coastal tourism, aiming to replace mass tourism by encouraging sustainable tourism (Tonazzini et al., 2019), and its strategic relevance has long been recognised by the European Union, as seen in its Blue Growth Strategy (Ecorys, 2016).

A systematic review of the literature substantiates this equivalence, especially the work by Sharafuddin and Madhavan (2020) which contains a scientometric analysis of the thematic evolution of BT. It was based on 986 articles published in 130 scientific journals indexed by Scopus between 2000 and 2019, and in which the search terms used were 'coastal', 'marine', 'maritime' and 'cruise' combined with the term 'tourism'.

This search corroborates the perception that BT, from the terms on which it is based, is just a revamping of nomenclature applied to the denomination of maritime and coastal tourism. A tactic aimed at highlighting the fact that this type of tourism is one of the key sectors of the blue economy, emphasising its sustainability aspect. Also, Kabil et al. (2021) helped to reinforce this idea when they prepared a bibliometric analysis with the aim of analysing the scientific production on coastal tourism as an aspect of the blue economy, identifying research topics and publication patterns.

In particular, and because they explicitly use the concept of BT, it is relevant to refer to Ashworth and Tunbridge (2005). In a paper on a change in thinking in tourism development in Malta these authors analyse the transition from BT to grey tourism. In this context, the concept seems to be synonymous with the sun & sea tourism associated with Mediterranean resorts, close to mass tourism, not to sustainable tourism. This approach therefore diverges from that introduced more recently and based on assumptions of sustainability.

The conceptual and operational coincidence between BT and maritime and coastal tourism highlighted previously excludes forms of water bodies other than seas and oceans. They correspond to typologies that are also resources for encouraging multiple aquatic activities (particularly tourist ones) that add value to resorts and that can also contribute to their economic and social sustainability. But these same resources, like the maritime and marine ones, must be protected or they

will not benefit future generations, i.e. their environmental sustainability must be assured.

Furthermore, maritime and coastal tourism is not a model of sustainable tourism development. Indeed, many of its by-products, such as sun and sea tourism and cruise tourism, are part of the mass tourism model, and their negative impacts represent real threats to the sustainability of territories. Some countries have taken drastic measures to solve the consequences of these unsustainable tourism practices, even including closing some areas to tourism. Maya Bay, for example, in the Phi Phi islands, closed in 2018 to restore the balance in ecosystems after an environmental crisis caused by uncontrolled tourism demand, and the authorities banned cruise tourism in Venice after UNESCO threatened to include the city in the list of heritage at risk.

Finally, the current concept of BT does not consider the salutogenic effects that water, in its multiple forms, has on human beings. This amounts to wasting its therapeutic characteristics as an integral part of this resource, and therefore not making this factor profitable in terms of regions' tourism development and tending to favour the quality of visitors' experience. The evidence reiterates how reductive the approach taken so far to BT is, as a synonym for maritime and coastal tourism. In fact, in the context of this article, we are moving towards a redefinition of this concept that aims to overcome the limitations, shortcomings and incompatibilities with reality that have been detected and listed.

Therefore, we propose that the concept of BT should include all tourism practices developed in aquatic environments. That is, where the main resource is water bodies in their multiple forms (seas, inland seas, rivers, lakes, reservoirs, streams, and others), as well as the practices developed in the neighbouring areas, and where the concept of wellness is intrinsic, i.e. they contribute to health and well-being, and whose planning and development is based on a model of sustainability.

The Barcelona Declaration for Tourism and Cultural Heritage (NECSTouR, 2018) was based on the slogan 'Better places to live, better places to visit', contending that the spaces should be considered in their dual function, residential and touristic, with the goal being the quality of life of communities and the quality of the visitors' touristic experience. Although, in the context of this article, the tourism resources are different, the guiding assumption is the same. It argues that the salutogenic benefits of the BSs (already studied from the standpoint of the residents) can be enhanced through tourism, thus helping to improve the health and well-being of visitors while simultaneously increasing the localities' attractiveness and competitiveness for tourists.

The propensity of BSs for BT and the suitability of this type of tourism to the characteristics of these regions (and especially to its catalyst), have not been widely researched. The analysis of the state-of-the-art on these themes shows an individualised approach, focused separately on each topic and lacking a two-dimensional viewpoint which could emphasise the potential vocation of BSs for BT and the opportunity it provides to extend the salutogenic effects to more people, benefiting visitors as well as residents. However, and despite this gap in research, it is known that people indulged in bathing between the eighteenth and the mid-twentieth centuries for reasons related to curing illnesses and preserving health. Therapeutic issues were at the origin of the use of sea water in some European countries (England, Belgium, Germany), based on the assumption that it had comparable properties to some thermal springs found on land. With this assumption, thousands of people began to enjoy their leisure time by heading for the coast and fostering one of the oldest segments of tourism (sun and beach).

Some authors in this period (eighteenth and nineteenth centuries) report the benefits of sea bathing and its therapeutic/thalassotherapy qualities (Ortigão, 2014, first edition in 1876; Quaresma, 2003; Bucha, 1769, as cited by Gouveia, 2020). Ortigão (2014) even emphasised the benefits associated with river bathing, which was more accessible to some people than sea bathing but was little used, advising Rural Councils to create infrastructure for this purpose after consulting local doctors about its hydrotherapeutic benefits.

More recent evidence from different scientific fields indicates that ocean sounds activate the prefrontal cortex, an area of the brain associated with emotion and self-reflection (as well as other functions). These same sounds generate molecular changes that accelerate our body's ability to absorb oxygen, increase the level of serotonin (a chemical substance related to mood, well-being, and sleep, also called the happiness molecule), and decrease the level of cortisol (a hormone directly related to the body's response to stress). In other words, the ocean, the sounds associated with it and imagining the sight of it, lead to a series of chemical changes in the human body which contribute to health and well-being (Grellier et al., 2017; Nichols, 2014). It is considered that the smells associated with the ocean, the memories of childhood and past holidays, can also be added to the aforementioned stimuli as the appropriation of water, particularly, but not only, the ocean, by multiple senses can be a synaesthetic experience.

Historical facts and research already carried out in numerous scientific areas attest to the therapeutic properties of water bodies, but focus on their effects on local

residents. In the few cases in which the salutogenic effects of water are associated with tourism activities there is an almost exclusive predominance of the ocean and therefore of coastal areas. There is a need to occupy this research space, studying the health and well-being impacts of water associated with tourism practices, and contemplating water bodies in all their forms (oceans, seas, rivers, lakes, lagoons, and reservoirs).

This work should be based on the assumption that the salutogenic benefits of water already studied in relation to residents can apply to its visitors, thereby creating a tourism resource that can be the basis of BT as conceived in this context. And although there may be variables that can negatively influence the results, notably the exposure time, there are others, such as the intensity and concentration of exposure, which can enhance the impacts resulting from being a tourist. Indeed, only a greater research effort can yield realistic conclusions and shift them to tourism planning policies and practices in favour of public health management. The perception of tourism, particularly BT, as a tool for promoting public health could be a considerable step forward for civilisation.

## *A look at other tourism planning models*

Tourism has revealed the typical frailties of a process whose raw materials, besides being finite, are in some cases non-renewable. The limitation and inability to renew is not exclusive to tangible goods since it also affects those which, despite being intangible, are susceptible to adulteration and can undergo mutations that are in most cases irreversible. The idea that tourism can self-destruct finds its own evidence. The existence of self-destruction mechanisms might explain the distortion of the tourism offer of destinations that once saw tourism as a development strategy (Brito & Silva, 2005). BT is very susceptible to this capacity of tourism to self-destruct because the aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems associated with it are so fragile. This is one of the main motivations for tourism planning and the construction of models that both ensure sustainable tourism growth and consider the specific features of these destinations, their resources, and the tourism products to which they can give rise.

In fact, planning is the only way to prevent the tourism system from self-destructing, since only a rational use of resources can enable a lasting, high quality use, which should counter the empirical evidence that indicates a tendency to decline (Brito & Silva, 2005). This is a conclusion that derives from the very concept of tourism planning, in which, although it has various facets and conveys numerous proposals emanating from different authors and contexts, a set of common denominators can be detected more or less explicitly. In particular, planning has a fundamental role in ensuring the efficient use of resources to enable continuity. The purpose is to enhance the positive impacts of tourism development and minimise the negative while taking into account its multidimensionality (economic, social, cultural and environmental), and the fact that the ultimate goal is to at least sustain the quality of life of the local residents.

The definitions put forward by Murphy (1985, p. 156) should be noted here. This author suggests that 'planning is concerned with anticipating and regulating change in a system to promote orderly development so as to increase the social, economic and environmental benefits of the development process'. To do this, planning becomes 'an ordered sequence of operations, designed to lead to the achievement of either a single goal or to a balance between several goals'. Furthermore, Getz (1987, p. 3, cited by Hall & Page, 2006, p. 398) defines tourism planning as 'a process, based on research and evaluation, which seeks to optimise the potential contribution of tourism to human welfare and environmental quality'.

Williams (1998 cited by Mason, 2003, p. 66) also argues that 'the aim of modern planning is to seek optimal solutions to perceived problems and that it is designed to increase and, hopefully maximise development benefits, which will produce predictable outcomes'. And finally, according to the definition of Chao-zhi and Xiao-tao (2017), tourism planning refers to the overall process of deploying the development goals and implementing a comprehensive tourism system. In some places, tourism plans contain a set of legal norms, and in others they are frameworks that can contain legal elements such as zoning. In most cases their purpose is to balance, guide, and protect the long-term development of tourism.

In retrospect, it can be seen that the current tourism planning models were preceded by several stages. They can be seen in the theoretical production and paradigms associated with them, whose path is systematised in Figure 1. The reading and interpretation of this figure introduces the information contained in Table 2, where the tourism planning and planning models that were used as reference in the preparation of our proposal are listed with more detail.

In short, it can be said that tourism planning was born from urban planning. In a period of history in which tourism practices were incipient, expressed in numbers and impacts that did not yet raise concerns and in which it was understood that the problems of some areas with a tourism vocation were similar to those of

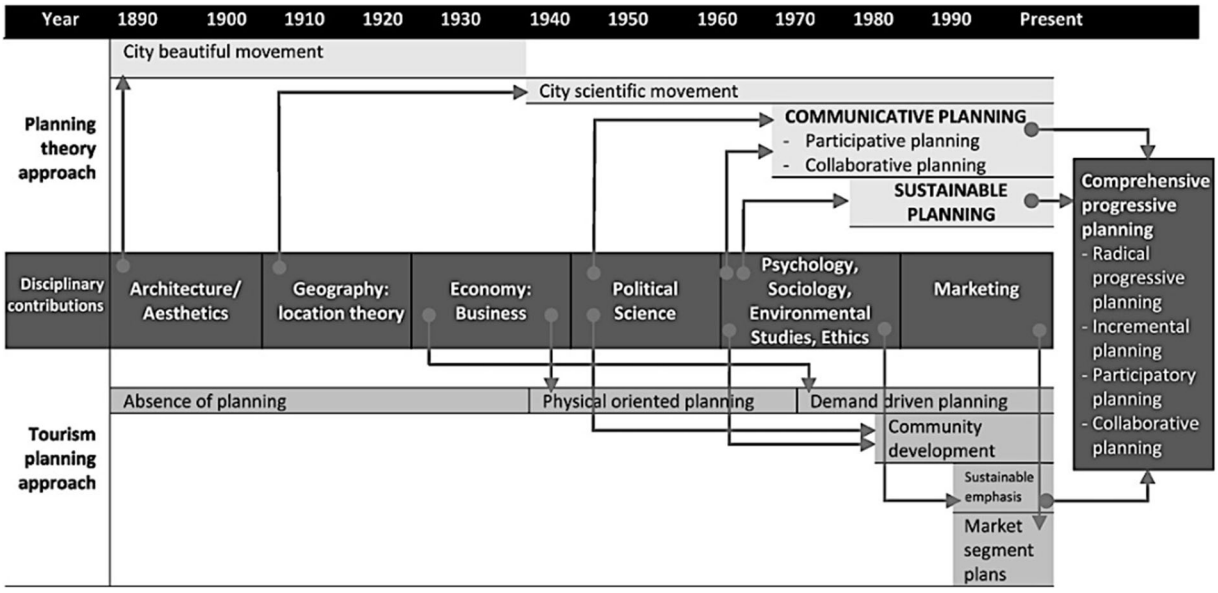


**Figure 1.** A trajectory of planning styles and influences. Source: Rahmafitria et al. (2020, p. 3).

residential areas, although concentrated in very limited periods of time.

An analysis of the evolution of planning (urban and tourism) shows there are two distinct phases: 1) Classical Planning (after the Industrial Revolution, 1850-1950), a school defending the theory that most social problems stemmed from the poor quality of life associated with inadequate infrastructure and facilities in cities; their resolution involved an increase in physical capacity, an assumption denied by the inability of this model to respond to problems such as unemployment and crime; 2) Rational Planning (after the Second World War, 1950-1970), a scientific approach to planning (comprehensive, rational and neutral), multidisciplinary, which began to be questioned in the 1970s due to the evident inconsistency between the theoretical models and their operationalisation (Costa, 2001).

From the 1980s onwards, the need to adapt planning to the new demands of the world and the tourism sector, notably to its enormous growth, diversification and even democratisation, stimulated the emergence of new paradigms. They emerged to overcome the obvious limitations and inadequacies of the previous approaches, but also to respond to new challenges, particularly those related to sustainability issues (a concept introduced in 1987 by the Brundtland Report).

Table 2 sets out some of the models proposed by different authors in that context, and whose reference is considered fundamental to introducing a new tourism planning model, specific for developing BT in BSs, to the extent that they are constructed as a theoretical background and source of learning and inspiration for this proposal. It should be noted, however, that this systematisation does not include all the models, but only those which were the most important for constructing the new model.

After this retrospective analysis and given that the objective of this article is to offer a proposal for the future, it is also necessary to analyse the trends for tourism planning, so that they are incorporated and find an answer in a new model.

According to Costa (2020), tourism planning will continue to be guided by the concerns of the twentieth century, focusing on the compatibility between the expansion of tourism, the minimisation of its negative social and environmental impacts and the maximisation of its benefits for local communities. Nevertheless, three new trends can be discerned: 1) a growing demand for cultural cities, rural/natural and low density areas, to the detriment of mass resorts; 2) a change in the association between tourism practices and free time vs. working time, as the permanent digital connection means that tourism is no longer present only in free time (organic perspective) but also in working time (holistic perspective); 3) the competitiveness of destinations stems from their ability to allow unique, differentiated, and memorable experiences, which are tailored to visitors' tastes and expectations.

In this context, the great challenge of tourism planning will be to design a model that simultaneously integrates, at the level of governance, policies and practices, planning and tourism economics and management. In addition, and in a context of social and knowledge innovation, it will catalyse the positive impacts and mitigate the negative ones at the economic, social and environmental levels, expressing the economic success of the

**Table 2.** Tourism planning models: a diachronic classification.

| Model | | |
|---|---|---|
| Designation | Features | Author(s) |
| *PASOLP (Product's Analysis Sequence for Outdoor Leisure Planning)* | It advocates tourism development based on an integrated approach, in which economic objectives are defined in line with the structure and characteristics of the country and its tourism resources.<br>Within this model, the following are taken into consideration: 1) the country's resources (existing and potential); 2) the specific requirements of each tourism market, each flow, and the profiles of tourists (current and potential); 3) the governance model, the economy and the limitations and constraints of each country; 4) the existence of competing destinations.<br>Tourism planning is perceived as a continuous process, and a system for monitoring it is proposed. | Baud-Bovi (1982) |
| *Mill and Morrison model* | It identifies a more commercially oriented tourism system, divided into four parts: 1) market, 2) travel, 3) destination, and 4) marketing.<br>It presents an integrated approach where any change introduced in one of the parts changes the functioning of the whole, emphasising the strong interdependence between the numerous stakeholders involved in the tourism system, all of which must be considered when planning tourism. | Mill and Morrison (1985) |
| *Getz's systemic integrative model (Integrative systems model of tourism theory and practice)* | Defends planning as:<br>• Scientific scheme in whose structure the following phases are identified: understanding, description, model, operationalisation, and the implementation of control strategies.<br>• It is based on the notion of a system and argues that the study and planning of tourism should consider not only the economic dimension, but also the social, environmental, and cultural dimensions.<br>• Process based on research and evaluation, which seeks to optimise the potential contribution of tourism to human well-being and to the quality of the environment. | Getz (1986) |
| *Gunn's strategic regional planning* | Strategic approach to planning, focused on the importance of the tourism experience, consisting of three levels:<br>• Continuous tourism planning based on collaboration between public and private sector stakeholders.<br>• Strategic tourism planning providing guidelines and concepts in the development programme.<br>• Local tourism planning avoiding sporadic developments that should be integrated with planning objectives.<br>• These three levels presuppose a long decision-making process aimed at developing a tourism plan with strong community involvement. | Gunn (1988) |
| *Comprehensive approach to tourism development planning* | Advocates tourism planning based on a systemic, comprehensive, integrated, community approach; it should be a systematic, continuous, flexible, and incremental process aimed at sustainable development. | Inskeep (1991) |
| *Ruschamann model* | Model with the following objectives, to: 1) define policies and processes for the implementation of equipment and activities; 2) coordinate and control spontaneous development; 3) promote incentives to stimulate the implementation of tourism equipment and services; 4) maximise socio-economic benefits and minimise costs, aiming at the well-being of the receiving community and the profitability of the sector's enterprises; 5) minimise the degradation of sites and resources that are structuring tourism and protect those that are unique; 6) empower the various public services for tourism activity; 7) ensure the introduction and compliance with regulatory standards for private activity; 8) ensure that the image of the destination reflects environmental protection and service qualities; 9) integrate tourism with other economic activities. | Ruschmann (1999) |
| *ODIT – Tourism Observation, Development and Engineering* | Methodological guide for operationalising the planning process, which interconnects all stages of the process, all the actors and guidelines of the activity, because it is through such a guide and its indicators (scientifically built and empirically verifiable) that one can identify the real situation of a destination, minimise conflicts between different perceptions, and propose a consistent and solidly based guideline. | Perret et al. (2001) |
| *Third Way for Tourism Planning* | Model which advocates:<br>• A pre-planning phase, in which a detailed diagnosis is required to inventory the available resources, characterise the social and anthropological context, and gauge the needs, objectives and availability of the various groups.<br>• Coherence and interdependence between objectives at distinct levels (local, regional, and national).<br>• The involvement of all stakeholders (actors directly or indirectly linked to tourism: political decision-makers, social institutions, NGOs, national and international tourism operators).<br>• The link between rights and responsibilities, so that tourism makes a strong contribution to development processes.<br>• The development of local and global networks and partnerships with a view to balanced exploitation and minimal impacts on destinations.<br>• Continuous evaluation and monitoring, and incorporation of its results into the process in a timely manner. | Burns (2004) |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| *Marine Spatial Planning (MSP)* | MSP is considered to be an effective tool for regulating conflicts taking place in the fragile coastal and marine spaces, for some of which tourism is also responsible. MSP can also play a significant role in the organisation of tourism development, especially in terms of ensuring/achieving the following environmental conditions:<br>• Good environmental status of the coastal zone and marine space.<br>• Quality seascapes and coastal landscapes.<br>• Resilience to climate change effects.<br><br>At the same time, in terms of spatial organisation, MSP can be beneficial to coastal and marine tourism by:<br>• providing spatial regulations so that coastal and marine space is not overwhelmed by tourism facilities and activities;<br>• wisely allocating all types of human uses in order to avoid conflicts and to achieve synergies between economic sectors;<br>• optimally organising human activities in spaces undergoing increased pressure and 'run-offs,' like the urbanised areas and the narrow zone close to both sides of the shoreline. | Papageorgiou (2016, *p*. 48) |
| *Smart Tourism Planning* | Tourism planning model with a holistic approach that is based on three interrelated levels:<br>• Strategic-relational, based on governance, in which public-private cooperation is key to achieving greater levels of sustainability and an innovative context, ensuring that the local community is the greatest beneficiary of tourism development.<br>• Instrumental, founded on digital connectivity and sensing in order to construct an information system for management that includes open and big data.<br>• Applied, which provides intelligent solutions for destination management and marketing, as well as the best tourist experience. | Ivars-Baidal et al. (2019)<br>Ivars-Baidal and Vera Rebollo (2019) |
| *Successful destination* | This model proposes a link between territorial (physical) planning and economic planning, responding to a gap detected in previous models. It is based on two basic premises which are considered determinant for the success of a tourist destination, and which should guide tourism planning in the future:<br>• The economic benefits of the destination should result from a combination of the financial performance of the private sector and the ability to induce the social and economic development of the destination – Capacity Development.<br>• Tourism planning and management should be linked with territorial planning, and tourism, in terms of governance model, should not be separated from Planning and Economics.<br><br>This model considers that a successful destination is unique, different, exciting and memorable. Its construction should result from a model in which tourism management favours 'Economics of networks itineraries', 'Experience and brand love hospitality' and 'Capacity Development', and which is thought out and made operational in conjunction with land-use planning. This should contemplate 'Physical Planning', 'Public participation and social innovation' and 'Know-how innovation'. The behaviour of tourism markets and the sustainability of policies and practices defined by governance are considered determining variables in the process. | Costa (2020) |
| *Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs)* | This is a long-term planning model applied to Blue Tourism as a synonym for Maritime and Coastal Tourism, in the awareness that this is a sector sensitive to climate change, to the situation of the natural environment that supports it and to the respective socio-economic impacts. The model combines exploratory and target-seeking scenarios to understand the future challenges of nature-based blue tourism under alternative global futures, and to develop sequences of actions to accomplish the best achievable future outcome for blue tourism at a local scale. We detail a bottom-up approach to scenario development for tourism, with local stakeholders developing local scenarios within the boundaries provided by the locally extended Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs), widely used in climate research. The co-creation process yielded several recommendations for immediate action concerning protection of the coastal environments, land use planning, internal communication with the sector, and coordinated monitoring of economic, ecological, social and cultural sustainability indicators. The approach offers a way forward for systematically assessing the future risks and opportunities that a changing environment and society create for blue tourism. | Hyytiäinen et al. (2022, *p*. 1) |

Source: own preparation based on the authors cited.

private sector and the economic and social development of the destination (Costa, 2020).

In addition to these, there are two other trends: 1) the preference of visitors for experiences that involve contact with local communities, which presupposes their strong involvement in the tourism planning and development process (Ishihara, 2020; Jamal & Getz, 1995; Miller, 2021; Murphy, 1985; Simmons, 1994), as only hosts ready to take up their role (involved) will contribute to quality experiences; tourism planning should simultaneously target the quality of life of the local community and to the quality of the tourism experience, in order to avoid conflicts of interest; 2) the transposition to tourism development of the idea 'Think Global and Act Local', of uncertain authorship, although attributed to Geddes (1915).

A tourism planning model should consider the fact that due to the size and importance of tourism, local tourism development initiatives have a global impact, hence the need for sustainability. On the other hand, destinations should be thought about, considering trends and global positioning, incorporating global innovation factors (e.g. technological); but they cannot, however, lose their identity, authenticity, and exclusivity, because they are based on their differentiation and therefore their competitiveness.

A look at the past of tourism planning, its future trends, the specificities of BSs (previously highlighted) and the concept of BT (also previously proposed), stimulates innovation and a proposal for a specific planning model to develop these areas based on this product (but not ignoring the need for it to supplement other tourism products). It should also set up an effective response to the following requirements:

Requirement 1 (R1) – In-depth knowledge of the territory and its surroundings in its different scales and dimensions. This process of building knowledge should focus on 1) the territory to be involved, in its multiple aspects (economic, social, environmental, cultural, tourism); 2) the territorial management instruments and strategic guidance documents that prepare/influence its tourism development; 3) the financing mechanisms/programmes that can make it viable, to characterise the present and determine its future potential. It must also contemplate the overall reality, taking into consideration the principle Think Global and Act Local, and the need to analyse good practices that inspire planning and/or that, with the necessary adaptations, could be extrapolated to the territory to be intervened in (formulated from Geddes, 1915; Murphy, 1985; Simmons, 1994; Jamal & Getz, 1995; Ishihara, 2020; Miller, 2021).

Requirement 2 (R2) – Making the residential function compatible with the tourist function of these territories, given that tourism development assumes that good places to live are good places to visit. It must be ensured that tangible and intangible investment simultaneously favours the quality of life of communities and the quality of the tourist experience, enhancing salutogenic effects (formulated from Ashbullby et al., 2013; Foley & Kistemman, 2015; Hooyberg et al., 2020; Jarvis et al., 2020; NECSTouR, 2018; Vert et al., 2020; Völker & Kistemann, 2011; White et al., 2020).

Requirement 3 (R3) – Involvement of local communities in the process of tourism planning and development, so that they are part of the process and results, and are available to play their role as hosts, responding to the expectations of visitors. This involvement also enables an efficient identification of opportunities generated by tourism development and their monetisation by local people (formulated from Geddes, 1915; Murphy, 1985; Gunn, 1988; Simmons, 1994; Jamal & Getz, 1995; Costa, 2020; Ishihara, 2020; Miller, 2021).

Requirement 4 (R4) – Interrelationship between the tourism system and other systems, involving the various public and private stakeholders with a direct or indirect connection to tourism, to define policies and practices that ensure coherence between sectoral objectives and efficient use of resources (formulated from Mill & Morrison, 1985; Getz, 1986; Burns, 2004; Costa, 2020).

Requirement 5 (R5) – Capacity-building of regions and their communities in the context of tourism development, to build resilience skills in response to climate change. Water territories are particularly vulnerable to climate change, with profound changes expected: the rise in the average sea level in the particular case of coastal regions and, in both coastal and inland areas, the reduction or modification of their water resources, as a consequence of extreme phenomena (droughts, floods, etc.). The continuous adaptation of regions and their communities to these transformations, already underway, should be incorporated into the planning process insofar as it directly affects tourism resources and influences sustainable tourism development, namely, by calling into question its economic and social impacts (formulated from Arabadzhyan et al., 2021; Jarratt & Davis, 2020).

Requirement 6 (R6) – Continuous monitoring and evaluation, with the immediate incorporation of the results in the plan and its operationalisation, to ensure its constant adaptation to reality and its changes. The complexity and intensity of the relations of the tourism system with other systems, the unpredictability of changes resulting from the action of man and nature, and their accelerated pace, force a dynamic stance in tourism planning and its operationalisation (formulated from Baud-Bovi, 1982; Burns, 2004).

The listed requirements will find an answer in the Blue Planning model (Figure 2), a planning model whose goal is to promote the development of tourism, making the residential function compatible with the tourist function, aiming at the quality of life of residents, the tourist experience of visitors, and the promotion of health and well-being of both. Where? In the blue spaces. How? Through blue tourism.

## Methodology

### *The role of the literature review in the context of the proposed model*

The present work is not a literature review as a standalone study (Kraus et al., 2022). The purpose of the literature review carried out here is to provide the context for a specific planning model proposed for developing Blue Tourism in Blue Spaces, which is the key objective of this work. The literature review is therefore a stage in this process, but one that must be undertaken before moving on to the next stage. However, because it is important in the present context, we treat it with the same methodological rigour that would be due if it were the subject of an independent study.

The methodological basis of this article is structured by a literature review on its three guiding elements: Blue Spaces, Blue Tourism and tourism planning, which is the basis for the planning model proposal presented. Based on the classification proposed by Lim et al. (2022), this literature review is part of a conceptual study in that it supports the main objective in the form of a proposed planning model specifically for Blue Spaces. The literature review explains the key concepts associated with the model, but it is not exhaustive as it is a methodological step that precedes a proposal, albeit conceptual. This proposal, although supported by the results of the state-of-the-art analysis, introduces novel elements intended to respond to a gap identified among the operational models supporting tourism planning.

Having defined the role of the literature review in the present context, it should also be mentioned that regarding the design and given the specifics of the article, a theoretical synthesis was produced, but a theoretical adaptation was also undertaken (Jaakkola, 2020). A theoretical synthesis was carried out because for each of the guiding concepts of the model the previously produced knowledge has been organised. As for the theoretical adaptation, this was carried out because the current concept of Blue Tourism (synonymous with Maritime and Coastal Tourism) has been questioned and held to be reductive from the territorial standpoint (it only mentions coastal areas) and omits the salutogenic effects of Blue Spaces on human health and well-being. A more comprehensive definition is proposed from the spatial point of view, one which includes all water bodies, and gains conceptual nourishment from the conclusions on the salutogenic effects of Blue Spaces on resident populations, associating them with tourism practices.

According to the classification, when it comes to type, presented by Kraus et al. (2022), based on Lim et al. (2022) and Kraus et al. (2020), this is a systematic literature review (SLR). It has been conducted systematically, using a protocol whose operationalisation enables transparent dissemination and replicability. In terms of focus, and again in line with Kraus et al. (2022), this is a domain-focused review in that it examines concepts (Blue Space and Blue Tourism) and a course (planning). Given that we are dealing with an SLR, the next section describes the protocol that was followed in the literature review of the present article.

### *The literature review protocol*

This literature review focused on the concepts underlying the proposed model and secondary data on Blue Spaces, Blue Tourism and tourism planning was collected and analysed.

The review method followed the Scientific Procedures and Rationales for Systematic Literature Reviews protocol or, SPAR-4-SLR PROTOCOL (Paul et al., 2021). It complied with the stages presented therein, namely: assembling, arranging, and assessing. 'Assembling' includes the substages of identification and acquisition.

In terms of 'identification', this research is focused on the concepts of Blue Space and Blue Tourism and on tourism planning models. The purpose is to propose a tourism planning model for areas where water is a present element in order to enhance its salutogenic effects in favour of the health and well-being of visitors and residents. For this, an exhaustive search of scientific articles was conducted in scientific journals whose quality is attested by their indexing to the Web of Science (WOS) and Scopus.

For 'acquisition', we made use of the WOS and Scopus databases (regarding the bibliography on Blue Spaces and tourism planning); regarding Blue Tourism and given the scarcity of scientific articles on this concept in these databases, we also made use of studies and reports produced by official authorities such as the European Union.

With regard to the Blue Spaces perspective, fifty-five scientific articles relating to the term itself and framed within the area of social sciences were extracted. Of these, thirty-four (from the ten most recent years and mentioning the salutogenic effects of Blue Spaces)

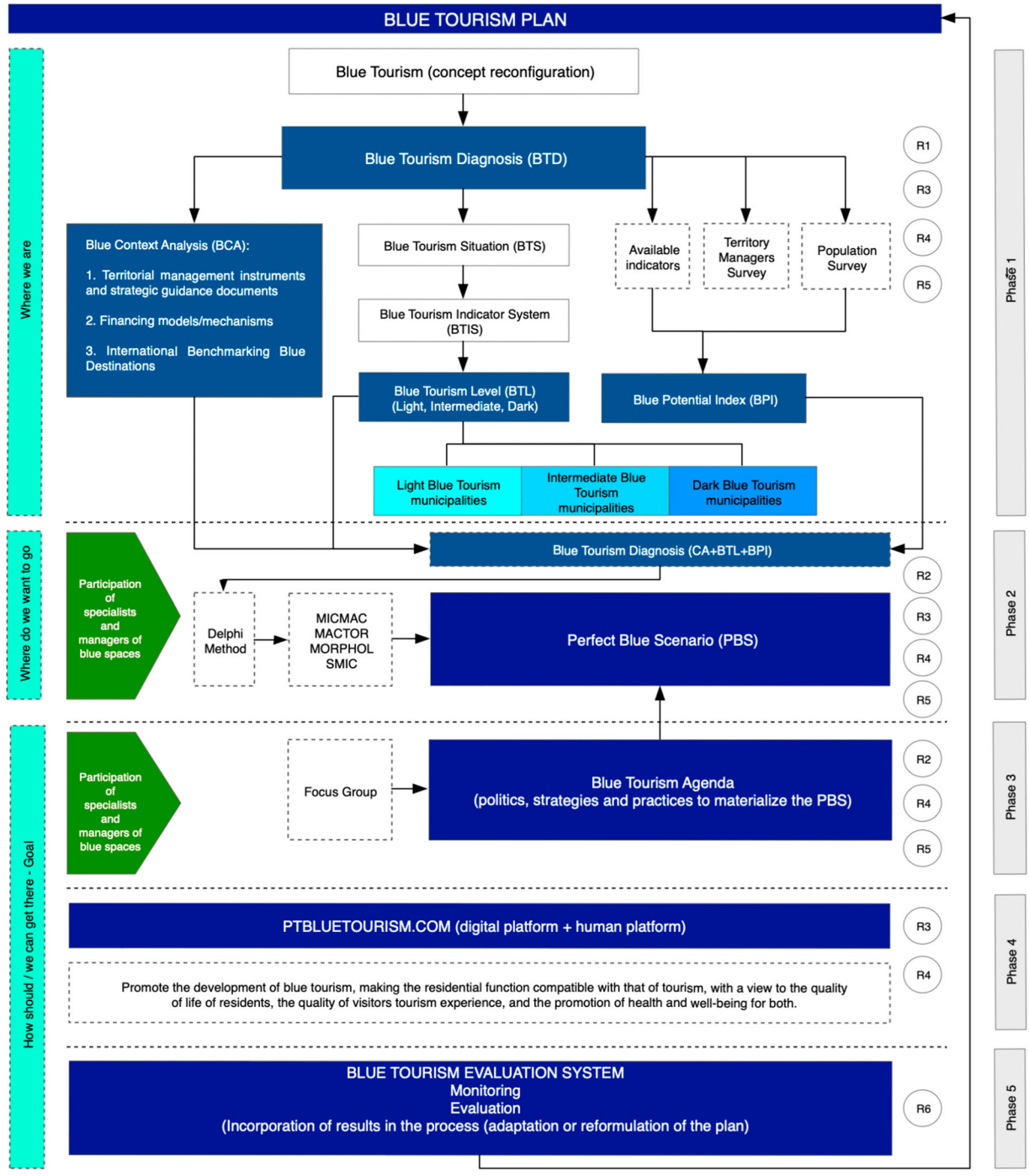


**Figure 2.** Blue planning – a planning model for the development of blue tourism in blue spaces. Source: Own construction.

were analysed. Those produced by Völker and Kistemann (2011, 2013 and 2015), by White et al. (2013, 2014, 2016 and 2020), Foley (2015, 2017), and Foley and Kistemman (2015) are highlighted, referring to the continuous contribution that these authors have made to the production of knowledge on Blue Spaces. The research period on this topic ran until May 2022.

The approach to the Blue Tourism concept was similar, although little scientific production was found on this topic (research carried out until June 2022). The information found treated this concept and tourist product as a synonym for maritime and coastal tourism. The studies and reports produced by official authorities such as the European Union were particularly useful. The purpose was to define the concept of Blue Tourism and, given the content analysis conducted, a reconceptualisation was proposed which extrapolates the conclusions drawn from the analysis of the scientific production on BSs to water body areas, from the perspective of tourism.

For tourism planning, forty-five articles were extracted (keywords: tourism AND planning AND model). Their content was analysed and organised by choosing twelve models, presented by Baud-Bovi (1982), Mill and Morrison (1985), Getz (1986), Gunn (1988), Inskeep (1991), Ruschmann (1999), Perret et al. (2001), Burns (2004), Papageorgiou (2016), Ivars-Baidal et al. (2019), Ivars-Baidal and Vera Rebollo (2019), Costa (2020), and Hyytiäinen et al. (2022). As far as tourism planning models are concerned, because there is not a significant scientific production that sets up proposals for tourism planning models, a longer period was contemplated, with the last article being dated 2022. The research period lasted until September 2022.

The 'arranging' stage includes the sub-stages organisation and purification. The articles collected from the above-mentioned databases were organised and purified based on the following criteria: 1) keywords that guided the search: blue spaces, blue tourism and tourism planning model; 2) scientific area – social sciences; 3) type of article, namely conceptual, empirical and review articles; in the particular case of Blue Tourism, in addition to this procedure, documents and reports from official bodies such as the European Union and the United Nations were extracted; 4) publication timeframe: In the case of the Blue Spaces concept the articles produced in the last decade were considered, and in relation to Blue Tourism and tourism planning, no starting date was set for the analysis period because of the lack of scientific production.

Finally, the 'assessing' stage includes evaluation and reporting. In relation to these two sub-stages and the methodological procedure underlying them, it should be noted that a content analysis was performed for the Blue Spaces concept, based on the following parameters: Dimension; Subject; Objective; Findings; and Author(s). The results are shown in Table 1. The aim was to facilitate the reading and interpretation of the scientific contributions of the different authors in order to build the proposed model presented.

In the case of blue tourism, the content analysis of the concepts led to the conclusion that all the analysed bibliographical references always refer to the synonyms of blue tourism. This conclusion is the basis for the new definition described in this article after associating and extrapolating the conclusions drawn from reading and interpreting the information contained in Table 1.

Regarding tourism planning models, the bibliographical analysis was organised and the result is presented in Table 2. Here the model is identified, along with its main characteristics and the respective authors. For this process, whose objective was to frame and support our model proposal, the models that were considered to serve this purpose were selected. After a reflective approach to the state of the art, a specific tourism planning model is proposed for the tourism development of BSs, with the focus on blue tourism.

It aims to respond, within the research already produced on these themes, to the absence of a model adapted to the specificities of these spaces and which would make the most of their potentialities, in favour of the health and well-being of residents and visitors. It is the construction and presentation of a theoretical model of tourism planning, intended to be discussed and validated by the scientific community, so that in a subsequent step after the introduction of the results of this stage, it can be tested by applying it to case studies.

We reiterate the idea initially presented in the methodology that the literature review in this article is not an independent study but a stage of a theoretical production process whose main step is to propose a specific tourism planning model for developing Blue Tourism in Blue Spaces. The best practices, gaps, and areas for future research are identified and presented at the end of the process and not in the methodology. In conclusion, although methodological rigour required the use of the SPAR-4-SLR PROTOCOL in the literature review, it had to be adapted to fit the nature and objectives of this article.

## Results and discussion

The analysis of the state-of-the-art shows that although tourism planning is increasingly the focus of knowledge production within the scope of tourism studies, the models proposed are generic and do not contemplate the specific features, whether regional or of another nature. While this eclectic perspective is understandable, it requires sometimes significant adaptation when it comes to its operationalisation, on pain of failing to maximise the tourism development process. However, these casual extrapolations may culminate in amateurish, poorly thought-out conclusions, biasing the process and its results.

The BSs are areas with a very particular profile, as already described, with potentialities that can be beneficial to the quality of life, health, and welfare of their residents. Based on the assumption that areas that are good places to live are good places to visit, we believe that thanks to its sustainable nature BT can be a way to develop tourism. For this to happen, it should be within the scope of a model that makes the residential function compatible with the tourist function, simultaneously boosting the quality of life of the residents with the quality of the tourist experience of the visitors,

and the health and welfare of both. It is because of this assumption that the Blue Planning – planning model for the development of BT in BSs is proposed (Table 3 and Figure 2); it is a specific tourism planning model for developing BSs focused on BT, but respecting the complementarity between tourism products, between activities, and between regional units.

This model provides a response to three questions: 1) Where are we? 2) Where do we want to go? 3) How should/can we get there? Answers were accordingly structured that outline a tourism development path for the BSs based on BT, based on the set of requirements mentioned above, and whose interrelationship is represented in Table 3.

The operationalisation of the Blue Planning – a planning model for developing BT in BSs, graphically represented in Figure 2, is divided into five distinct phases, composed of the procedures described below:

Phase I – Blue Tourism Diagnosis: an exclusive diagnosis model for BSs. This phase comprises three stages:

Stage 1. Blue Tourism Situation – which will include two tools:

1.1. Blue Tourism Indicator System (BTIS) – consisting of a selection of indicators (e.g. the number of guests, average length of stay; number of surf/ … /sailing schools; number of practitioners by geographical origin; number of bathing beaches; number of concessionaires) available from official sources (e.g. National Statistical Office, EUROSTAT, UNWTO) (this selection should be made according to each situation). For each indicator, theoretical limits will be defined (minimum and maximum) corresponding to each level of BT development: Light Blue Tourism; Intermediate Blue Tourism; Dark Blue Tourism. Depending on the values recorded by each indicator, it will be classified and subsequently included in one of the following levels.

1.2. Blue Tourism Level (BTL) – composed of three levels: Light Blue Tourism Territory; Intermediate Blue Tourism Territory; Dark Blue Tourism Territory. The inclusion of the destination area in one of the levels is a result of the joint behaviour of the BTIS indicators. As reality does not fully correspond to the purity of the models, and the values of the indicators will not all correspond to the same level, the inclusion will be made according to the arithmetic average of the levels into which the indicators fall, on the assumption that: Light Blue Tourism = 1; Intermediate Blue Tourism = 2; Dark Blue Tourism = 3. The calculated average will approximate by default to one of the levels into which it will fall.

Stage 2. Blue Potential Index (BPI) – consisting of a set of indicators (to be selected according to each situation), for which unavailable information is activated (by applying questionnaires to land-use managers with knowledge of and intervention capacity in tourism planning and development, and also to the resident population); available information is also collected from official sources, assessing the potential of each destination area for the development of BT. The qualitative and quantitative indicators will make it possible to determine the material conditions (e.g. infrastructure and equipment, climatic conditions, geophysical characteristics, etc.) and immaterial conditions (expectations, perceptions, skills, historical background, traditions, capacity to attract investment, etc.) for developing BT and to map them, giving clues as to the products, strategies and activities that could constitute future paths for the area.

Stage 3. Blue Context Analysis (CA) – comprises three dimensions:

3.1. Analysis of the Land-use Management Instruments and Strategy Guidance Documents, general or sectoral, which condition and/or influence the BT development planning in the destination unit to be intervened in.

3.2. Analysis of financing models and mechanisms that enable planned policies and practices. It must consider public and private sources and their interlinking.

3.3. International Benchmarking Blue Destinations: an exercise that will provide a global perspective in which good international practices will be identified and serve to inspire the reference scenario to be outlined in the subsequent phase.

Phase II – Perfect Blue Scenario (PBS): For the destination unit to be intervened in, a reference scenario (PBS) that will be the goal to achieve in the long term (ten years) will be drawn up. To this end, three rounds of the Delphi technique will be applied to a group of experts made up of stakeholders with knowledge and/or experience (on different scales) related to tourism planning and development in the broad sense and to BT in particular. In the definition of the reference scenario, the panel members will use all the information gathered in the BT Diagnosis. In the construction of the Perfect Blue Scenario the Anglo-Saxon approach, configured by the Delphi technique, can be crossed with the French School by using the MICMAC (Multiplication Cross Impacts Matrix Applied to a Classification), MACTOR method (Matrix of the game of actors according to the Actors, Objectives, Power Relations Method), MORPHOL method (Morphology of scenario hypothesis of potential LV development scenarios), and SMIC Prob-Expert method (Systems and Matrices of Crossed Impacts on the probabilization of combinations of optimistic, neutral and pessimistic scenario hypothesis configurations), for the scenario validation arising from the Delphi technique operationalisation.

Phase III – Blue Tourism Agenda: A strategic orientation document consisting of policies, strategies, and practices for its implementation. The technique used in its construction will be the Focus Group, to be

**Table 3.** Blue tourism: operational matrix

| Questions | | Answers | Phases | Requirements |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Where are we? | Blue Tourism Diagnosis | 1. Blue Tourism Situation (BTS):<br>1.1 Blue Tourism Indicator System (BTIS)<br>1.2 Blue Tourism Level (Light Blue Territories; Intermediate Blue Territories; Dark Blue Territories)<br>2. Blue Potential Index<br>2.1 Available (qualitative and quantitative) indicators<br>2.2 Land-use Managers Survey<br>2.3 Population Survey<br>3. Context analysis (CA):<br>3.1 Territorial management instruments and strategic guidance documents<br>3.2 Funding models/mechanisms<br>3.3 International Benchmarking Blue Destinations | I | R1<br>R3<br>R4<br>R5 |
| Where do we want to go? | Perfect Blue Scenario (PBS) | 1. Delphi Survey<br>(Expert panel of BSs managers/specialists) | II | R2<br>R3<br>R4<br>R5 |
| How should/can we get there? | Blue Tourism Agenda | 1. Focus Group<br>(Expert panel of BSs managers/specialists) | III | R2<br>R4<br>R5 |
| | Bluetourism.com | 1. Digital platform<br>2. Partner network (human platform) | IV | R3<br>R4 |
| | Blue Tourism Evaluation System | 1. Monitoring<br>2. Evaluation | V | R6 |

Source: Own construction.

implemented in a group composed of BT and BSs specialists and territorial managers. The action of this group will consider the results of the BT Diagnosis (starting point), the Blue Potential Index (material and immaterial potential), and the Blue Context Analysis, in particular the inspiration of good international practices. This document will outline future paths for developing BT in the Blue Space to be intervened in, aiming at the quality of life of residents, the quality of the tourist experience of visitors, and the promotion of health and well-being for both.

Phase IV – Bluetourism.com: This platform has a mixed nature, taking on a human component that materialises in a network of stakeholders, directly and indirectly involved in the BT development in the target Blue Space, fostering the involvement, the discussion and the collaborative projects; and there is a digital component, with an informative and communicational mission, which will confirm the BT development status at each point in the target destination unit of intervention, through its graphical representation and the set of indicators associated with the developed tools (BTS and BPI).

Phase V – Blue Tourism Evaluation System: A continuous monitoring and evaluation system, based on the dual nature of the bluetourism.com platform, which will enable the detection of deviations between the plan and its operationalisation, to enable their incorporation in the plan and correction in due course.

One final aspect to be highlighted in the proposed model is related to its territorial coverage. This should be defined according to the political-administrative structure in force in each country and could coincide with the municipality or with a region if the scale makes its operationalisation feasible. However, it could also be a blue space whose limits, although not administrative, could be defined according to the homogeneity of the material and immaterial characteristics that favour the development of BT (for example, an area surrounding a large lake). In these cases, it must be ensured that the diversity of administrative responsibility does not compromise the governance and the operationalisation of the plan.

## Conclusion

This paper has attempted to demonstrate that the evolution of tourism planning has followed distinct directions with respect to adapting to the passage of time, tourism activity, regions and areas, and societies where these processes have taken or are taking place. The planning process should be constant and adaptable to the different variables related to territory, society, and tourism, but models do not always keep pace with the tempo and direction of change, nor do they cross through the contributions of different research areas in favour of the development of regions. This need for an interdisciplinary approach presupposes a change of mentality among theoreticians, but also among politicians and land-use managers, converting into partnerships, networks and collaborative projects that increase efficiency in thought and action. It is also concluded that the territory must be understood and intervened

in an integrated way; the residential dimension and the tourism dimension cannot be thought of in isolation, otherwise the main role of tourism as a catalyst for sustainable development will be compromised. In regions with a tourism vocation, research and tangible and intangible investments should always have a dual perspective: promoting the quality of life of communities, and a quality and differentiated tourist experience, always within a framework of sustainability.

Finally, we conclude that in the current context, from both a residential and a touristic point of view, there are still a range of assets in the regions that have still not been properly identified, studied and monetised in favour of health and well-being. Although the individual and collective mindset is increasingly aligned with the salutogenic approach, public policies and practices still favour investment in cure rather than prevention. When it comes to tourism and leisure practices, in their multiple typologies, the salutogenic effects of those associated with water are not yet fully recognised. Although work is being developed from the residential standpoint of the regions, it must be extrapolated to their tourism dimension, albeit adapted according to the specific circumstances.

### *Theoretical implications*

The intention was to contribute to expanding knowledge on concepts that are still little researched but where previous studies indicate that they can be/are related to the contribution of health and well-being of the people who live and visit, i.e. blue territories and blue tourism. At the present time, when the planet is entering a post-pandemic phase and experiencing climate change, questions and findings are arising regarding problems associated with people's physical and mental health. Equally, we need to rethink forms of tourism that are sustainable (environmentally and culturally, not to mention economically) and serious alternatives to current planning models. It is in this scenario that the present innovative and sustainable proposal has evolved. In short, the theoretical implications of our work amount to a redefinition of the concept of Blue Tourism. This results from an interdisciplinary approach that extends the conclusions of the work developed on Blue Spaces from a residential perspective to their tourism function. This redefinition opens up a new field of theoretical debate based on the tourism/health and well-being/water relationship, which may give rise to a production of knowledge whose practical application could support the health and well-being of residents and visitors in water areas and to sustainable land-use development.

### *Practical implications*

The paper demonstrates that there is a strong need for tourism planning that includes the sustainable valorisation of the combination of interests and needs of residents and visitors who are in the blue spaces. These are areas with therapeutic capacities enhanced by the proximity to water bodies. The paper is useful for planners, land-use managers, policy makers and academics. It shows how a new planning model can be put into practice in the future, one that is able to meet the challenges ahead. To sum up, this work culminates in the proposal of a tourism planning model specific to water resorts, which has been thought out and presented in a format that will allow regional agents to apply it directly, as if it were an instruction manual.

### *Limitations and future research*

The possible limitation of the work developed and the proposed planning model is the fact that it has not yet been applied to reality. This means that there is no evidence to confirm its feasibility. This limitation is accepted; however, the proposed model is a theoretical construction based on well-founded precedents, which opens doors for future research, based on its operationalisation and the potential introduction of changes/improvements that may well help to increase its functionality and suitability for reality. It is a work in progress, and the future operationalisation of the proposed model is part of the authors' plans.

A final note for future research, namely those aimed at the practical application of the model to territorial units. The proposed model falls within the scope of strategic planning, having by nature a forecasting and predictive character, sensitive to the externalities that may impact on the behaviour of the different dimensions of the tourism system. This is not a descriptive, static methodology which does not take into account the dynamic behaviour of the territory, its multiple individual and collective actors, and the events which may occur and condition these same behaviours (Lim, 2021).

This prospective nature of the proposed model, evidenced by the methods and techniques associated with it (Delphi method, focus group), gives it a conditional dimension (Lim, 2021). In view of its time horizon (the long term), one must above all pay attention to Requirement 6 (R6), i.e. the need for continuous monitoring and evaluation and the consequent incorporation of its results into the plan itself and its operationalisation. Neglecting this procedure will mean insisting on implementing policies and practices that are inadequate to the new realities that may arise at any

given moment and compromise the development of Blue Tourism in Blue Spaces, and in a broader vision, the overall sustainable development of the territory.

## Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author(s).

## Notes on contributors

*Mónica Brito*, Ph. D., is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Sociology, University of Évora, Portugal and researcher at CEGOT (Centre of Studies in Geography and Spatial Planning). Her research interests focus on blue tourism, health and wellness tourism, tourism planning, sustainable tourism, and innovation and entrepreneurship in tourism.

*Luís Silveira*, Ph.D. in tourism and development, is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Geography and Tourism of the University of Coimbra, Portugal and researcher at CEGOT (Centre of Studies in Geography and Spatial Planning), Portugal. His research interests focus on tourism in low-density territories, islands, coastal tourism, nautical tourism and cultural tourism.

## Funding

This research was supported by the Centre of Studies in Geography and Spatial Planning (CEGOT), financed by national funds through the Fundação para a Ciência Tecnologia (FCT) with the reference UIDB/04084/2020.

## ORCID

*Luís Silveira* http://orcid.org/0000-0002-8030-7074

## References

Álvarez, S., Ruiz-Cantero, M., Cassetti, V., Confiño, R., & Álvarez-Dardet, A. (2020). Salutogenic interventions and health effects: A scoping review of the literature. *Gaceta Sanitaria*, *35*(5), 488–494. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gaceta.2019.12.002

Antonovsky, A. (1979). *Health, stress and coping*. Jossey-Bass.

Antonovsky, A., Maoz, B., Dowty, N., & Wijsenbeek, H. (1971). Twenty-five years later: A limited study of the sequelae of the concentration camp experience. *Social Psychiatry*, *6*(4), 186–193. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00578367

Arabadzhyan, A., Figini, P., García, C., González, M., Lam-González, Y., & León, C. (2021). Climate change, coastal tourism, and impact chains – a literature review. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *24*(16), 2233–2268. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2020.1825351

Ashbullby, K., Pahl, S., Webley, P., & White, M. (2013). The beach as a setting for families' health promotion: A qualitative study with parents and children living in coastal regions in Southwest England. *Health & Place*, *138*(47), 138–147. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.healthplace.2013.06.005

Ashworth, G., & Tunbridge, J. (2005). Moving from blue to grey tourism: Reinventing Malta. *Tourism Recreation Research*, *30* (1), 45–54. https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2005.11081232

Baud-Bovi, M. (1982). New concepts in planning for tourism and recreation. *Tourism Management*, *3*(4), 308–313. https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177(82)90056-5

Bell, S., Phoenix, C., Lovell, R., & Wheeler, B. (2015). Seeking everyday wellbeing: The coast as a therapeutic landscape. *Social Science & Medicine*, *142*, 56–67. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2015.08.011

Brito, M., & Silva, C. (2005). Turismo e planeamento: A continuidade ou a auto-destruição [Tourism and planning: continuity or self-destruction]. *Revista de Turismo & Desenvolvimento*, *2*(2), 11–25. https://doi.org/10.34624/rtd.v0i4.13851

Burns, P. (2004). Tourism Planning – A Third Way?. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *30*(1), 24–43.

Chao-zhi, Z., & Xiao-tao, L. (2017). Tourism planning. In L. Lowry (Ed.), *The sage international encyclopedia of travel and tourism* (pp. 1253–1257). SAGE Publications, Inc. https://www.doi.org/10.41359781483368924.n459.

Costa, C. (2001). An emerging tourism planning paradigm? A comparative analysis between town and tourism planning. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *3*(6), 425–441. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.277

Costa, C. (2020). Tourism planning: A perspective paper. *Tourism Review*, *75*(1), 198–202. https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-09-2019-0394

Depledge, M., & Bird, W. (2009). The blue gym: Health and well-being from our coasts. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, *58*(7), 947–948. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2009.04.019

Ecorys. (2016). *Study on specific challenges for a sustainable development of coastal and maritime tourism in Europe*. European Commission. Retrieved December 9, 2021, from https://publications.europa.eu/pt/publication-detail/-/publication/ ab0bfa73-9ad1-11e6-868c-01aa75ed71a1.

Elliot, L., White, M., Grelliera, J., Garrett, J., Cirach, M., Wheeler, B., Bratmane, G., Bosch, V. d., Ojalah, M., Roikoi, A., Lima; M, A., O'Connor, A., Mireia Gascon, M., Nieuwenhuijsenb, M., & Fleming, L. (2020). Research note: Residential distance and recreational visits to coastal and inland blue spaces in eighteen countries. *Landscape and Urban Planning*, *198*(2020), 1–6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.landurbplan.2020.103800

Elliott, L., White, M., Grellier, J., Rees, S., Waters, R., & Fleming, L. (2018). Recreational visits to marine and coastal environments in England: Where, what, who, why, and when? *Marine Policy*, *97*(November 2018), 305–314. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpol.2018.03.013

European Commission. (2020). *The EU blue economy report. 2020*. Publications Office of the European Union.

European Commission. (2021). *The EU blue economy report. 2021*. Publications Office of the European Union.

Foley, R. (2015). Swimming in Ireland: Immersions in therapeutic blue space. *Health & Place*, *35*, 218–225. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.healthplace.2014.09.015

Foley, R. (2017). Swimming as an accretive practice in healthy blue space. *Emotion, Space and Society*, *22*(February 2017), 43–51. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emospa.2016.12.001

Foley, R., & Kistemman, T. (2015). Blue space geographies: Enabling health in place. *Health & Place*, *35*(2015), 157–165. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.healthplace.2015.07.003

Garrett, J., Clitherow, T., White, M., Wheeler, B., & Fleming, L. (2019). Coastal proximity and mental health among urban adults in England: The moderating effect of household income. *Health & Place*, *59*(September 2019), 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.healthplace.2019.102200

Gascon, M., Zijlema, W., Vert, C., White, M., & Nieuwenhuijsen, M. (2017). Outdoor blue spaces, human health and well-being: A systematic review of quantitative studies. *International Journal of Hygiene and Environmental Health*, *220*(8), 1207–1221. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijheh.2017.08.004

Geddes, P. (1915). *Cities in Evolution*. Williams and Norgate.

Getz, D. (1986). Models in tourism planning. *Tourism Management*, *7*(1), 21–32. https://doi.org/10.1177/004728758602500167

Gil, F. (2008). La fluvioterapia [fluviotherapy]. *Medicina Naturista*, *2*(3), 223–232.

Gouveia, A. (2020). Riscos Antrópicos na zona costeira de Portugal continental. As capacidades de antecipação (prevenção) e de resposta (unpublished PhD thesis). University of Coimbra. https://eg.uc.pt/bitstream/10316/95207/3/Tese_Riscos_DPM_Final_Jose_Gouveia.pdf.

Grellier, J., White, M., Albin, M., Bell, S., Elliott, S., Gascón, M., Gualdi, S., Mancini, L., Nieuwenhuijsen, M., Sarigiannis, D., Bosch, M., Wolf, T., Wuijts, S., & Fleming, L. (2017). Bluehealth: A study programme protocol for mapping and quantifying the potential benefits to public health and well-being from Europe's blue spaces. *BMJ Open*, *7*(6), https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2017-016188

Gunn, C. (1988). *Tourism planning*. Taylor & Francis.

Hall, M., & Page, S. (2006). *The geography of tourism and recreation. Environment, place and space*. Routledge.

Hooyberg, A., Roose, H., Grellier, J., Elliott, L., Lonneville, B., White, M., Michels, N., De Henauw, S., Vandegehuchte, M., & Everaert, G. (2020). General health and residential proximity to the coast in Belgium: Results from a cross-sectional health survey. *Environmental Research*, *184*(2020), 109225. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2020.109225

Hyytiäinen, K., Kolehmainen, L., Amelung, B., Kok, K., Lonkila, K., Malve, O., Similä, J., Sokero, M., & Zandersen, M. (2022). Extending the shared socioeconomic pathways for adaptation planning of blue tourism. *Futures*, *137*(2022), 102917. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.futures.2022.102917

Inskeep, E. (1991). *Tourism planning: An integrated and sustainable development approach*. Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Ishihara, Y. (2020). Overview of community-based tourism. In S. K. Walia (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of community-based tourism management, concepts, issues & implications* (pp. 26–38). Routledge.

Ivars-Baidal, J. A., Celdrán-Bernabeu, M., Mazón, J., & Perles-Ivars, A. (2019). Smart destinations and the evolution of ICTs: A new scenario for destination management? *Current Issues in Tourism*, *22*(13), 1581–1600. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2017.1388771

Ivars-Baidal, J. A., & Vera Rebollo, J. F. (2019). Planificación turística en España. De los paradigmas tradicionales a los nuevos enfoques: Planificación turística inteligente [Tourism planning in Spain. From traditional paradigms to new approaches: Intelligent tourism planning]. *Boletín de la Asociación de Geógrafos Españoles* [*Bulletin of the Association of Spanish Geographers*], *82*(2765), 1–31. https://doi.org/10.21138/bage.2765

Jaakkola, E. (2020). Designing conceptual articles: Four approaches. *AMS Review*, *10*(1-2), 18–26. https://doi.org/10.1007/s13162-020-00161-0

Jamal, T., & Getz, D. (1995). Collaboration theory and community tourism planning. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *22*(1), 186–204. https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(94)00067-3

Jarratt, D., & Davis, N. (2020). Planning for climate change impacts: Coastal tourism destination resilience policies. *Tourism Planning & Development*, *17*(4), 423–440. https://doi.org/10.1080/21568316.2019.1667861

Jarvis, I., Koehoorn, M., Gergel, S., & Van Den Bosch, M. (2020). Different types of urban natural environments influence various dimensions of self-reported health. *Environmental Research*, *186*, 1–8. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2020.109614

Kabil, M., Priatmoko, S., Magda, R., & Dávid, L. (2021). Blue economy and coastal tourism: A comprehensive visualization bibliometric analysis. *Sustainability*, *13*(7), 3650. https://doi.org/10.3390/su13073650

Kraus, S., Breier, M., & Dasí-Rodríguez, S. (2020). The art of crafting a systematic literature review in entrepreneurship research. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, *16*(3), 1023–1042. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11365-020-00635-4

Kraus, S., Breier, M., Lim, W. M., Dabić, M., Kumar, S., Kanbach, D., Mukherjee, D., Corvello, V., Piñeiro-Chousa, J., Liguori, E., Fernandes, C., Ferreira, J. J., Marqués, D. P., Schiavone, F., & Ferraris, A. (2022). Literature reviews as independent studies: Guidelines for academic practice. *Review of Managerial Science*, *16*(8), 2577–2595. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11846-022-00588-8

Lim, W., Kumar, S., & Ali, F. (2022). Advancing knowledge through literature reviews: 'what', 'why', and 'how to contribute'. *The Service Industries Journal*, *42*(7–8), 481–513. https://doi.org/10.1080/02642069.2022.2047941

Lim, W. M. (2021). Conditional recipes for predicting impacts and prescribing solutions for externalities: The case of COVID-19 and tourism. *Tourism Recreation Research*, *46*(2), 314–318. https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2021.1881708

Lindström, B., & Eriksson, M. (2006). Contextualizing salutogenesis and Antonovsky in public health development. *Health Promotion International*, *21*(3), 238–244. https://doi.org/10.1093/heapro/dal016

MacKerron, G., & Mourato, S. (2013). Happiness is greater in natural environments. *Global Environmental Change*, *23*(5), 992–1000. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2013.03.010

Mason, P. (2003). *Tourism impacts, planning and management*. Butterworth-Heinemann.

McDougall, C., Quilliam, R., Hanley, D., & Oliver, D. (2020). Freshwater blue space and population health: An emerging research agenda. *Science of the Total Environment*, *737*, 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.140196

Mill, R., & Morrison, A. (1985). *The tourism system: An introductory text*. Prentice-Hall.

Miller, M. (2021). *Economic development at the community level: Creating local wealth and resilience in developing countries*. Routledge.

Mishra, H., Bell, S., Vassiljev, P., Kuhlmann, F., Niin, G., & Grellier, J. (2020). The development of a tool for assessing the environmental qualities of urban blue spaces. *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening*, *49*, 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ufug.2019.126575

Murphy, P. (1985). *Tourism a community approach*. Routledge.

NECSTouR. (2018). *Barcelona declaration of tourism and cultural heritage: Better places to live, better places to visit*. https://necstour.eu/better-places-to-live-better-places-to-visit.

Nichols, W. (2014). *Blue mind: The surprising science that shows how being near, in, on, or under water can make you happier, healthier, more connected, and better at what you do*. Little, Brown and Company.

OECD. (2016). *The ocean economy in 2030*. OECD Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264251724-en.

Ortigão, R. (2014). *As praias de Portugal. Guia do banhista e do viajante* [The beaches of Portugal. A guide for bathers and travellers]. Quetzal Editores.

Papageorgiou, M. (2016). Coastal and marine tourism: A challenging factor in marine spatial planning. *Ocean & Coastal Management*, *129*(2016), 44–48. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocecoaman.2016.05.006

Paul, J., Lim, W., O'Cass, A., Wei Hao, A., & Bresciani, S. (2021). Scientific procedures and rationales for systematic literature reviews (SPAR-4-SLR). *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, *45*(4), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijcs.12695

Perret, J., Teyssandier, J., Marette, C., & Barthes, C. (2001). *Piloter le tourisme durable dans les territoires et les enterprises: Guide de savoir-faire* [Piloting sustainable tourism in territories and enterprises: A guide of know-how]. AFIT.

Pitt, H. (2019). What prevents people accessing urban blue-spaces? A qualitative study. *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening*, *39*, 89–97. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ufug.2019.02.013

Quaresma, A. (2003). *O turismo no litoral alentejano - do início aos anos 60 do século XX. O exemplo de Milfontes* [Tourism in the Alentejo Coast - from the beginning to the 1960s of the twentieth century. The example of Milfontes]. Milfontes.net.

Rahmafitria, F., Pearce, P., Oktadiana, H., & Putro, H. (2020). Tourism planning and planning theory: Historical roots and contemporary alignment. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *35*, 100703. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2020.100703

Ruschmann, D. (1999). *Turismo e planejamento sustentável: a proteção do meio ambiente* [Tourism and sustainable planning: protecting the environment]. Papirus.

Satariano, B. (2019). Blue therapeutic spaces on islands: Coastal landscapes and their impact on the health and wellbeing of people in Malta. *Island Studies Journal*, *14*(2), 245–260. https://doi.org/10.24043/isj.100

Sharafuddin, M., & Madhavan, M. (2020). Thematic evolution of blue tourism: A scientometric analysis and systematic review. *Global Business Review*, 1–22. https://doi.org/10.1177/0972150920966885

Simmons, D. (1994). Community participation in tourism planning. *Tourism Management*, *15*(2), 98–108. https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177(94)90003-5

Tonazzini, D., Fosse, J., Morales, E., González, A., Klarwein, S., Moukaddem, K., & Louveau, O. (2019). *Blue tourism. Towards a sustainable coastal and maritime tourism in world marine regions*. Eco-union.

UNCTAD. (2014). *The oceans economy: Opportunities and challenges for small island developing states*. United Nations.

United Nations. (2014). *Blue economy concept paper*. United Nations. https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/index.php?page = view&type = 111&nr = 2978&menu = 35.

Vert, C., Gascon, M., Ranzani, O., Márquez, S., Triguero-Mas, M., Carrasco-Turigas, G., Arjona, L., Koch, S., Llopis, M., Donaire-Gonzalez, D., Elliott, L., & Nieuwenhuijsen, M. (2020). Physical and mental health effects of repeated short walks in a blue space environment: A randomised crossover study. *Environmental Research*, *188*, 1–15. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2020.109812

Völker, S., & Kistemann, T. (2011). The impact of blue space on human health and well-being – salutogenetic health effects of inland surface waters: A review. *International Journal of Hygiene and Environmental Health*, *214*(6), 449–460. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijheh.2011.05.001

Völker, S., & Kistemann, T. (2013). Reprint of: "I'm always entirely happy when I'm here!" Urban blue enhancing human health and well-being in Cologne and Düsseldorf, Germany. *Social Science & Medicine*, *91*, 141–152. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2013.04.016

Völker, S., & Kistemann, T. (2015). Developing the urban blue: Comparative health responses to blue and green urban open spaces in Germany. *Health & Place*, *35*, 196–205. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.healthplace.2014.10.015

Wheeler, B., White, M., Stahl-Timmins, W., & Depledg, M. (2012). Does living by the coast improve health and wellbeing? *Health & Place*, *18*(5), 1198–1201. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.healthplace.2012.06.015

White, M., Alcock, I., Wheeler, B., & Depledge, M. (2013). Coastal proximity, health and well-being: Results from a longitudinal panel survey. *Health & Place*, *23*, 97–103. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.healthplace.2013.05.006

White, M., Elliott, L., Gascon, M., Roberts, B., & Fleming, L. (2020). Blue space, health and well-being: A narrative overview and synthesis of potential benefits. *Environmental Research*, *191*(2020), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2020.110169

White, M., Pahl, S., Wheeler, B., Fleming, L., & Depledge, M. (2016). The 'blue gym': What can blue space do for you and what can you do for blue space? *Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom*, *96*(1), 5–12. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0025315415002209

White, M., Smith, A., Humphryes, K., Pahl, S., Snelling, D., & Depledge, M. (2010). Blue space: The importance of water for preference, affect, and restorativeness ratings of natural and built scenes. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, *30*(4), 482–493. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2010.04.004

White, M., Wheeler, B., Herbet, S., Alcock, I., & Depledge, M. (2014). Coastal proximity and physical activity: Is the coast an underappreciated public health resource? *Preventive Medicine*, *69*, 135–140. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ypmed.2014.09.016