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## MANAGING SEASONALITY IN TOURISM

### Turizmde Mevsimselliğin Yönetimi

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#### Abstract

Seasonality is usually recognized as a problem of tourism that has many negative consequences for the private and public sectors. The widespread impact of seasonality on tourism has increased the importance of understanding how these sectors can sustainably respond to such a phenomenon. This paper aims to examine the industry and government responses to seasonality. It specifically seeks to discover what responses the literature on tourism addresses to managing the problem of seasonality. The review indicates that tourism businesses and governments mainly respond to seasonality by developing strategies to tackle it when seen as a substantial problem or otherwise adapting to it. The literature points to various strategies for tackling seasonality in tourism. Common strategies include reducing demand in the peak season, increasing demand outside the peak season, reducing supply, increasing supply in the peak season, redistributing demand and supply, extending the main season, establishing additional seasons, diversification of the product mix and the markets, applying marketing campaigns and targeted advertising, using differential pricing, public sector incentives, development of urban, cultural, business, congress, religious, sports and winter tourism, and other alternatives, developing special-interest tourism, encouraging domestic tourism in the off-season, staggering the main school and industrial holidays over a longer period, and two-center holidays

**Keywords:** Tourism, Seasonality, Seasonal Demand, Responses to Seasonality, Strategies for Tackling Seasonality

#### Öz

Mevsimsellik, turizmde genellikle özel ve kamu sektörleri için pek çok olumsuz sonucu olan bir sorun olarak kabul edilmektedir. Mevsimselliğin turizm üzerindeki yaygın etkisi, bu sektörlerin böyle bir olguya sürdürülebilir bir şekilde nasıl yanıt verebileceğini anlamının önemini artırmıştır. Bu makale, endüstrinin ve hükümetlerin mevsimselliğe verdiği tepkileri incelemektedir. Özellikle, turizm literatürünün mevsimsellik sorununun yönetimine yönelik hangi tepkilere işaret ettiğini ortaya koymayı amaçlamaktadır. Literatür incelemesi, turizm işletmeleri ve hükümetlerin, mevsimselliği önemli bir sorun olarak gördüğünde onunla başa çıkmak için stratejiler geliştirerek veya bunun dışında ona uyum sağlayarak yanıt verdiğini ortaya koymaktadır. Literatür, turizmde mevsimsellik ile mücadele için çeşitli stratejilere işaret etmektedir. Yaygın stratejiler, yoğun sezonda talebi azaltmak, yoğun sezon dışında talebi artırmak, arzı azaltmak, yoğun sezonda arzı artırmak, talep ve arzı yeniden dağıtmak, ana sezonu uzatmak, ek sezonlar oluşturmak, ürün karmasını ve pazarları çeşitlendirmek, pazarlama kampanyaları ve hedefli reklamlar uygulamak, farklılaştırılmış fiyatlandırma, kamu teşvikleri kullanmak, şehir, kültür, iş, kongre, dini, spor ve kış turizmini ve diğer alternatifleri geliştirmek, özel ilgi turizmini geliştirmek, sezon dışı iç turizmi teşvik etmek, okul ve sanayi tatillerini daha uzun bir döneme yaymak ve iki merkezli tatiller geliştirmektir.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Turizm, Mevsimsellik, Mevsimsel Talep, Mevsimselliğin Yönetimi, Mevsimselliğe Tepkiler, Mevsimsellik ile Mücadele Stratejileri

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## INTRODUCTION

Tourism has become one of the key businesses that contribute to the world economy substantially (Cook et al., 2018; Edgell et al., 2011; Holloway et al., 2009; Wall & Mathieson, 2006). It is one of the main sources of income and the primary export category for many developing countries, creating employment and opportunities for development (Dwyer et al., 2020). Edgell et al. (2011, p. 99) have projected that tourism will grow constantly over the next twenty years as there is a global increase in leisure time and disposable income for millions of people in both developed and developing countries. According to the World Tourism Organization (2023a), global tourism keeps growing and generating substantial amounts of annual revenue. The organization reports that over 960 million tourists traveled internationally in 2022 and tourism receipts reached USD1 trillion which grew by 50 percent in real terms compared to the previous year. Moreover, international arrivals kept rising in the first quarter of 2023 reaching 80 percent of pre-pandemic levels.

Even though there is often a tendency to consider the progress of tourism in economic terms, what seems to have gained more importance is the sustainable growth of tourism, which points to development without depleting the resources of the natural and built environment but improving the visitor and host society experience (Dwyer et al., 2020; Edgell et al., 2011; World Tourism Organization, 2023b). Seasonality is one of the most critical and perennial issues that impede the sustainable development of tourism (Duro & Turrion-Prats, 2019; Turrion-Prats & Duro, 2019). Because of its numerous negative effects, it is usually recognized as one of the main problems of tourism that needs to be tackled (Baum & Lundtorp, 2001; Butler, 1998; Hinch & Jackson, 2000; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). Although destinations are generally believed to work hard to reduce seasonality (Butler, 2001; Getz & Nilsson, 2004; Lim & McAleer, 2001) and some do nothing or little other than embrace it (Andriotis, 2005; Flognfeldt, 2001; Jang, 2004; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2010; Lundtorp et al., 1999; Lundtorp et al., 2001), seasonality is a problematic facet of tourism that still waits for more action.

Seasonality is viewed as one of the least understood aspects of tourism, even though it has gained considerable importance (Butler, 2001; Jang, 2004; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). A good many papers have focused on various aspects of seasonality in tourism since the 70s (Cannas, 2012; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). Despite the creditable strides in academic research on such a topic, there is little doubt that more studies should be conducted to have a better grasp of it. In our opinion, one of the key issues of tourism is understanding how to manage seasonality successfully. Although considerable research has been conducted on practices of mitigating seasonality (Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005), it may seem surprising that little academic effort has been devoted to studying such a critical subject in a wider context. A review of the literature may be quite beneficial in revealing the progress in the subject and providing a holistic view of it. The purpose of this paper is therefore to examine the industry and government responses to seasonality by concentrating on the literature. The paper aims at the following research question:

RQ. What responses does the literature address to managing the problem of seasonality in tourism?

The paper is organized into seven sections. In what follows, we initially provide some definitions of seasonality, then move to discuss the causes of seasonality and the impacts of seasonality on tourism. Subsequently, we explain the process of gathering information for the study. We canvass the responses to seasonality in the main section. Some concluding remarks and implications are provided in the final section.

## DEFINITIONS OF SEASONALITY

The term 'seasonality' has various definitions in relation to tourism (Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). For instance, Allcock (1995) describes seasonality as "the tendency of tourist flows to become concentrated into relatively short periods of the year". To Butler (1998), seasonality is "a temporal imbalance in the phenomena of tourism and may be expressed in terms of dimensions of such elements as the number of visitors, expenditure of visitors, traffic on highways and other forms of transportation, employment, and admission to attractions". Bar-On (1999) defines it in broader terms as "the effects occurring

each year with more or less the same timing and magnitude". Goeldner et al. (2000) consider seasonality in simple terms as "peaks and valleys in demand". Jang (2004) portrays it as "a cyclical pattern that more or less repeats itself each year". To Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2005), seasonality is "some sort of pattern in the [tourist] visits that reoccur every year". From an alternative point of view, it can be briefly defined as measurable concentrated fluctuations in intra-year tourism demand.

## CAUSES OF SEASONALITY

Seasonality in tourism is generally considered to originate from a number of causes. Some of these are enumerated by Frechtling (1996) as climate/weather; social customs/holidays; business customs; and calendar effects. Bar-On (1999) points to climate/weather at the destination or home region; the constraints of schools and other holidays; festivals, special attractions, and/or off-season closure of facilities; lifestyle; and the pricing and promotion policies of tourism firms as the main causes of seasonal tourism demand. Baum and Hagen (1999) address five common reasons for seasonality which are climate and the true seasons of the year; human decision factors; social pressure and fashion; sporting seasons; inertia or tradition. Lundtorp et al. (1999) group these into pull and push factors which relate to the demand and supply side of tourism. From a spatial perspective, these factors are linked with both tourist-generating and receiving areas (Corluka, 2019; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). Andriotis (2005) considering a specific instance, refers to the high level of dependency on access carriers and tour operators, and their reluctance to send tourists during the off-season as important causes of seasonality. In addition, Boffa and Succurro (2012) suggest that online booking serves as a factor that increases seasonality.

Causes of seasonality are usually demarcated by some categories. Natural and institutional/institutionalized factors are seemingly the most common ones. These often lend themselves as two forms of seasonality as well (see Butler, 2001; Corluka, 2019; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). The first category refers to seasonality caused by natural phenomena, for instance, climate, and the true seasons of the year (Butler, 2001). According to Smith (1993), it is almost self-evident that tourism is contingent on weather and climate, and most outdoor tourism depends on the attraction of certain natural resources that are climate-dependent. Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2005) state that destinations that rely on outdoor facilities, and weather and climate-dependent tourism activities most likely experience an influence of natural seasonality on their tourism businesses. Seaside resorts, ski resorts, and cruise tourism regions are some good examples of destinations dominated by weather and climate conditions. For instance, many cruise lines operating in regions with weather constraints serve their markets under the auspices of natural phenomena (Esteve-Perez & Garcia-Sanchez, 2017; Rodrigue & Notteboom, 2012, 2013).

The second category relates to seasonality resulting from human actions and policies (Baum & Lundtorp, 2001; Butler, 2001). Institutional seasonality refers to traditional and often legislated temporal variations in activities and inactivity (Butler, 2001). Such a type of seasonality is deemed a more complex, much more widespread, and less predictable phenomenon than its natural counterpart since it is based on human behavior and decisions (Baum & Lundtorp, 2001; Butler, 2001; Lee et al., 2008). It is seen as the corollary of religious, cultural, ethnic, social, and organizational factors, sometimes having links to natural phenomena, and sometimes nothing more than age-old whims and preferences (Butler, 2001; Corluka, 2019). Public holidays, school, and industrial holidays are some common factors that lead to this kind of seasonality (Cannas, 2012; Corluka, 2019; Koenig, 2004). Summer school vacations are particularly recognized as a dominant reason (Butler, 2001; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). Butler (1998) points to school holidays, business reasons, and convenience as the primary reasons for travel during the summer peak months. Allcock (1995) states that religious pilgrimages are also important reasons for travel in many parts of the world and may be among the principal reasons for the pattern of seasonality in many tourist destinations.

Social pressure or fashion, the sporting season, and tradition/inertia are seen as some additional causes of seasonality (Butler, 2001; Cannas, 2012; Corluka, 2019; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). To Butler (2001), seasons originating from social pressure or fashion should better be recognized as a third category of seasonality, which could most properly be called 'social' seasonality. He further suggests that the sporting season and inertia or tradition may be appropriately considered the fourth and fifth forms of seasonality. Likewise, Koenig (2004), Martinez et al. (2020), Nadal et al. (2004), Turrion-Prats and Duro

(2018), Xie (2020) and Zvaigzne et al. (2022) speak of some economic factors that influence the seasonal patterns of tourism demand. For instance, Nadal et al. (2004) suggest that potential consumers' incomes, relative prices, and nominal exchange rates seemingly play a role in affecting seasonal concentration. Turrion-Prats and Duro (2018) and Xie (2020) have more recently shown that such economic determinants affect tourism seasonality.

Hinch and Jackson (2000) and Lopes de Almeida and Kastenholtz (2019) have further attempted to provide a theoretical framework for underlying causes of seasonality in tourism within the context of leisure constraints. Lopes de Almeida and Kastenholtz (2019), for instance, considered the main determinants of seasonality in terms of natural, institutional, and psychosocial/behavioral seasonality. Among the widespread discussions on causes of seasonality, Allcock (1995) contends that seasonality is a complex and variable phenomenon that cannot be explained by direct reference to any one set of factors, climatic or otherwise.

## IMPACTS OF SEASONALITY ON TOURISM

Seasonality can affect both the demand and supply sides of tourism, potentially having significant consequences for destinations (Amelung et al., 2007; Koenig, 2004). Jolliffe and Farnsworth (2003) state that seasonality affects all aspects of the contemporary hospitality industry. It is especially considered to impact all facets of supply-side behavior in tourism including marketing, the labor market, business finance, stakeholder management, and operations (Baum & Lundtorp, 2001). It should be, with little doubt, recognized that the impact of seasonality would vary depending on the characteristics of destinations. Two of these represent the location of the destination itself and the location of tourism enterprises in it, which to some extent reflect the variety of physical conditions and the nature of the attractions (Baum & Hagen, 1999; Corluca, 2019; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005).

The impacts of seasonality, just as the causes, are viewed as diverse and complex (Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). Drawing upon the literature (Andriotis, 2005; Cannas, 2012; Corluca, 2019; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005), the impacts of seasonality on tourism can be considered from three different angles which consist of positive and negative impacts, supply-side and demand-side impacts, and economic, employment, sociocultural and ecological impacts. In what follows, we mainly adopt the latter one, since it is a more common approach and broader considerations on the subject are beyond the purview of this study.

From an economic standpoint, seasonality is generally agreed to impact the tourism business negatively (Allcock, 1995; Butler, 1998; Manning & Powers, 1984). It can cause numerous problems for all major stakeholders in tourism activity including operators, employees, local people, and tourists themselves (Commons, 1999). Butler (1998) states that seasonality represents a loss of potential business. Sutcliffe and Sinclair (1980) suggest that resources may be underutilized during the off-season, whilst capacity shortages occur at periods of peak demand due to a high level of seasonality of tourist arrivals. In a similar vein, Manning and Powers (1984) state that seasonality can cause inefficient resource use, loss of profit potential, and administrative scheduling difficulties. Baum and Lundtorp (2001) point to some further negative consequences of major variations in seasonal demand. These include a short business operating season, the need to generate a yearly revenue while undergoing fixed annual costs, underutilization of capital assets that do not have alternative uses, difficulties in attracting inward investment, troubles in maintaining the supply chain, problems in ensuring sustained support from transport providers, problems related to employment, and problems in keeping service and product quality standards.

Recent research has provided some evidence of the economic impacts of seasonality on hotels. Chiriko (2021), for instance, found that seasonality had a significant economic effect on hotels in the sample destination of his study. He states that hotels experienced substantial drops in room occupancy rates in the low season, which resulted in a significant loss of revenue as these hotels must cover the fixed costs of the off-season and the payroll of their full-time staff. However, he further notes that hotel managers did not consider recruitment and staff-related costs as a major issue, because of the sizes of their enterprises. Stojic et al. (2022), moreover, showed that seasonality affected high-growth firms negatively. These effects were explained

by the common consequences of seasonality, such as capital underutilization, instability of earnings, and high sensitivity to external shocks.

Seasonality can, however, have some positive economic impacts as well, such as maintenance work on facilities or attractions planned for the off-peak periods which supports some ancillary businesses (Corluka, 2019; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). However, it should be noted that some other outsourced services (food and beverage supply, housekeeping service, etc.) may also be reduced in volume or even laid off due to the reduced operation or closure of tourism facilities in the low season, causing considerable losses to such providers.

Some of the most obvious and direct influences of seasonality in tourism probably relate to employment. The impacts of seasonality on tourism employment are mainly seen as negative, affecting both employers and employees (Corluka, 2019). Jolliffe and Farnsworth (2003) state that seasonality impacts the management of human resources in organizations operating in a seasonal context tremendously, leading to widespread seasonal employment, underemployment, and unemployment.

Several studies have shown that tourism operators adjust their labor force needs to the seasonal patterns of demand. Krakover (2000), for instance, found that hotel operators were accustomed to employing and disemploying staff according to the motions of regular seasonal patterns, noting that these operators were less prepared, unwilling, or unable to synchronize labor with demand entirely. Adler and Adler (2003) in their longitudinal investigation, reported that Hawaiian resorts went through flexible employment by expanding and constricting their labor forces to adapt to annual seasonal fluctuations. Radlinska and Gardziejewska (2022) have recently revealed that about twenty-four percent of tourism employers in the tourist region of the Polish Baltic Sea accommodated their labor force to seasonal changes in demand. They state that a decrease in demand caused a reduction in the working hours of employees or a complete reduction in seasonal employment.

Such adaptations of employment to seasonal changes in demand have also led to some discussions on mobility and migration in the tourism labor force. For instance, Ball (1989), arguing the links of seasonality with local labor markets, notes that seasonal demand for labor gave rise to something of a tradition in seasonal labor movements, which sometimes perhaps turned into permanent, inward labor migrations in the seaside resorts and other pressured holiday areas in North Wales. Baum and Lundtorp (2001), further, point to short-term employment as one of the downsides of seasonality, creating high levels of either off-season unemployment or temporary outward migration.

To Lee-Ross and Pryce (2010), the main impact of seasonality on employment is that it divides the tourism labor market into two categories that refer to 'core' and 'peripheral' labor. They note that the first category enjoys a better work environment compared to the second one where usually a low level of payment and poor working conditions prevail. Krakover (2000) states that seasonal workers pertain to the latter one. Such a category may be quite problematic, because, seasonal work tends to attract those on the periphery of the labor market, who are less educated, semi-skilled, or unskilled, rather than attracting skilled young recruits for work and careers, thus making it more difficult to maintain product and quality standards in the absence of long-term staff (Baum & Hagen, 1999; Baum & Lundtorp, 2001; Corluka, 2019). According to Corluka (2019), another problem is that seasonal employment may result in higher operational costs because of increases in payment at specific job positions in the main season due to a lack of employees and fixed costs paid for training workers every peak season. An inherent waste may be experienced by hiring staff each year temporarily, investing in them through training, and then losing that investment at the end of the main season (Cooper et al., 2005; Fletcher et al., 2018). The seasonal nature of tourism is not, however, always considered bad for everyone, since it gives people who do not seek permanent employment an opportunity to get temporary jobs and allows time for employees to recuperate during the off-season (Allcock, 1995; Ball, 1989; Cannas, 2012; Corluka, 2019; Hudson & Cross, 2005; Rossello & Sanso, 2017).

Seasonality, from a sociocultural point of view, has impacts not only on the host society but also on visitors (Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). These impacts pertain to both the peak and off-peak periods. Negative effects of a seasonal demand on the local community originate from the concentration of tourists, and thus the dramatic increase in population during the



peak season which places considerable strain on infrastructure and services (Corluka, 2019). Several problems for both the local community and visitors include overcrowding, slower traffic, congested rural lanes, parking issues, increased risks of accidents, telecommunication troubles, electric power shortages, water scarcity, issues of crime, and increased prices during the main season (Andriotis, 2005; Commons, 1999; Getz & Nilsson, 2004; Goulding, 2005; Hinch & Jackson, 2000; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005; Parrilla et al., 2007). Along with such factors, poor treatment from temporary workers and hostility from the residents who suffer from excess tourist flows can contribute to reducing the visitor's satisfaction with their vacation (Commons, 1999). Moreover, tourist attractions being out of service to visitors and locals during the off-season may both affect the potential visitors and lower the reputation of the overall image of a destination (Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). Not all the sociocultural impacts of seasonal demand can, however, be deemed adverse. The off-season is, for instance, often seen as the single best occasion that creates opportunities for both tourism resources and the host society to rejuvenate before the onset of the next season (Baum & Hagen, 1999; Butler, 2001; Cannas, 2012; Corluka, 2019; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005).

Since a vast amount of tourism activities rely on natural resources, there can be no doubt that high seasonal demand can also have substantial impacts on the environment and ecology. These impacts, as mentioned above, are largely linked to the concentrated tourism demand in the peak season which strains the destination capacity and gives way to the overuse of local resources (Corluka, 2019; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). The excessive use of natural resources during the high season is considered to have a negative impact on the ecological carrying capacity of a destination (Cannas, 2012; Manning & Powers, 1984). Some negative ecological effects of seasonality include wildlife disturbance, air pollution, sewage disposal problems, litter problems, physical erosion of footpaths, and high levels of trampling and soil compaction (Commons, 1999; Corluka, 2019; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005; Martin et al., 2014). Aside from the perceived negative effects of seasonality on the natural habitat, some take the view that low seasonal demand can have considerable positive influences. Just as in the sociocultural perspective, lengthy dormant seasons with little or no tourist traffic are considered the only chance for the exhausted and depleted natural resources to recover (Baum & Lundtorp, 2001; Butler, 2001; Cannas, 2012; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005). Commons (1999), however, contends that such a period may not prove long enough.

## DATA COLLECTION

In light of the research question, we have searched for papers about seasonality in tourism on both print and electronic resources and concentrated on the fully accessible ones written in English due to reading problems with writings in other languages. To Rowley and Slack (2004) library catalogs, search engines, and online databases or abstracting and indexing services are useful tools for assisting in the identification and location of documents to be used in a literature review. In this study, we utilized the catalogs of two local university libraries and a popular web search engine Google Scholar. Using these, we identified over one hundred works that mainly consisted of journal articles and book chapters. Some other resources included conference papers, technical reports, a doctoral dissertation, and a master's thesis. However, it should be noted that not all of these provide specific discussions that can relate to our subject. The publication years of the studies considered here range from 1976 to 2022.

## RESPONSES TO SEASONALITY IN TOURISM

When studying the topic of managing seasonality in tourism, what straightaway to note is that two main distinct actions can be taken by tourism stakeholders to seasonality. Jolliffe and Farnsworth (2003), studying seasonality in tourism employment, have suggested that a business' response to seasonality would be either 'embracing' or 'challenging' it. It is stated that those embracing seasonality would be accepting the seasonal nature of the industry, while challengers, as opposed to that, would strive for a less seasonal business. The authors also suggest that considering a business' response as being on a continuum brings forth other possible strategies falling somewhere in between these extremities. Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2010) have confirmed a noticeable polarization between those who are willing to counteract seasonality and those who are not. They have further identified three specific groups among business owners/managers, such as "lifestyle entrepreneurs who seek a period

with no business”, “free riders who rely on somebody else’s action”, and “doubters who doubt the effectiveness of taking any action [against seasonality]”.

## Challenging Seasonality

There has been a long-standing discussion about adopting suitable strategies for tackling the problem of seasonality in tourism successfully. A good number of papers have drawn attention to such a perplexing issue to varying extents and levels of interest. The following discussion addresses various responses derived from the relevant literature, particularly aiming to provide a wide array of them.

Given the complexity of seasonal tourism demand, a sustainable practical response to seasonality, ideally an ‘all-round’ one cannot be easily addressed. The literature, however, points to some generally recognized strategies to grapple with such a phenomenon. As shown in Table 1, these strategies, which may be deemed ‘traditional’, are quoted frequently across the literature. The discussion, initially focusing on the common strategies, is then extended to other pertinent responses drawn from the reviewed studies.

**Table 1:** Common Strategies for Tackling Seasonality in Tourism

Strategy	Sources
Reduce demand in the peak season	Koenig (2004); Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2005); Parrilla et al. (2007); Weaver and Lawton (2010); Cannas (2012); Ferrante et al. (2018)
Increase demand outside the peak season	Fitzpatrick Associates (1993); Koenig (2004); Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2005); Weaver and Lawton (2010); Cannas (2012); Ferrante et al. (2018)
Reduce supply	Koenig (2004); Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2005); Weaver and Lawton (2010); Cannas (2012); Ferrante et al. (2018)
Increase supply in the peak season	Koenig (2004); Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2005); Weaver and Lawton (2010)
Redistribute demand	Fitzpatrick Associates (1993); Koenig (2004); Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2005); Weaver and Lawton (2010); Cannas (2012); Ferrante et al. (2018)
Redistribute/restructure supply	Koenig (2004); Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2005); Weaver and Lawton (2010); Cannas (2012); Ferrante et al. (2018)
Extending the main season	Ball (1989); Butler (2001); Kennedy and Deegan (2001); Jolliffe and Farnsworth (2003); Getz and Nilsson (2004); Koenig (2004); Bender et al. (2005); Amelung et al. (2007); Parrilla et al. (2007); Chung (2009); Karamustafa and Ulama (2010); Cannas (2012); Kastenholtz and Lopes de Almeida (2013); Petrevska (2013); Connell et al. (2015); Vergori (2017)
Establishing additional seasons	Butler (2001); Bender et al. (2005); Parrilla et al. (2007); Kastenholtz and Lopes de Almeida (2013); Vergori (2017)
Diversification/variation of the product mix, Diversified attraction (e.g., conferences, festivals, and other short-term events in the off-season)	Sutcliffe and Sinclair (1980); Manning and Powers (1984); Fitzpatrick Associates (1993); Allcock (1995); Ashworth and Thomas (1999); Baum and Hagen (1999); Commons (1999); Lundtorp et al. (1999); Goeldner et al. (2000); Baum and Lundtorp (2001); Butler (2001); Commons and Page (2001); Kennedy and Deegan (2001); Fernandez-Morales (2003); Jolliffe and Farnsworth (2003); Koenig (2004); Andriotis (2005); Bender et al. (2005); Goulding et al. (2005); Hudson and Cross (2005); Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2005); Amelung et al. (2007); Parrilla et al. (2007); Garau-Vadell and de Borja-Sole (2008); Lee et al. (2008); Chung (2009); Karamustafa and Ulama (2010); Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2010); Weaver and Lawton (2010); Bigovic (2011); Edgell et al. (2011); Boffa and Succurro (2012); Cannas (2012); Halpern (2012); Pegg et al. (2012); Kastenholtz and Lopes de Almeida (2013); Connell et al. (2015); Coshall et al. (2015); Vergori (2017); Fletcher et al. (2018); Corluca (2019); Duro and Turrion-Prats (2019); Turrion-Prats and Duro (2019); Chiriko (2021); Grossi and Mussini (2021); Lozano et al. (2021); Duro and Turrion-Prats (2022); Ramos and Sol Murta (2022)

Diversification of the markets, Market segmentation	Sutcliffe and Sinclair (1980); Fitzpatrick Associates (1993); Allcock (1995); Ashworth and Thomas (1999); Baum and Hagen (1999); Commons (1999); Jeffrey and Barden (2000); Butler (2001); Commons and Page (2001); Fernandez-Morales (2003); Mitchell and Hall (2003); Getz and Nilsson (2004); Koenig (2004); Andriotis (2005); Bender et al. (2005); Cooper et al. (2005); Goulding (2005); Goulding et al. (2005); Hudson and Cross (2005); Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2005); Amelung et al. (2007); Parrilla et al. (2007); Kastenholz and Lopes de Almeida (2008); Lee et al. (2008); Karamustafa and Ulama (2010); Weaver and Lawton (2010); Cannas (2012); Halpern (2012); Pegg et al. (2012); Kastenholz and Lopes de Almeida (2013); Connell et al. (2015); Vergori (2017); Fletcher et al. (2018); Turrion-Prats and Duro (2018); Duro and Turrion-Prats (2019); Turrion-Prats and Duro (2019); Grossi and Mussini (2021); Lozano et al. (2021); Senyao et al. (2021); Duro and Turrion-Prats (2022); Ramos and Sol Murta (2022)
Applying marketing campaigns and targeted advertising	Fitzpatrick Associates (1993); Lee et al. (2008); Halpern (2012); Coshall et al. (2015); Corluca (2019); Lozano et al. (2021)
Using differential pricing	Sutcliffe and Sinclair (1980); Manning and Powers (1984); Fitzpatrick Associates (1993); Ashworth and Thomas (1999); Commons (1999); Goeldner et al. (2000); Jeffrey and Barden (2000); Butler (2001); Commons and Page (2001); Kennedy and Deegan (2001); Fernandez-Morales (2003); Jolliffe and Farnsworth (2003); Mitchell and Hall (2003); Koenig (2004); Andriotis (2005); Bender et al. (2005); Cooper et al. (2005); Goulding (2005); Goulding et al. (2005); Hudson and Cross (2005); Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2005); Amelung et al. (2007); Parrilla et al. (2007); Lee et al. (2008); Chung (2009); Karamustafa and Ulama (2010); Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2010); Weaver and Lawton (2010); Bigovic (2011); Boffa and Succurro (2012); Cannas (2012); Halpern (2012); Pegg et al. (2012); Kastenholz and Lopes de Almeida (2013); Connell et al. (2015); Coshall et al. (2015); Vergori (2017); Fletcher et al. (2018); Corluca (2019); Turrion-Prats and Duro (2018); Lopes de Almeida and Kastenholz (2019); Duro and Turrion-Prats (2019); Turrion-Prats and Duro (2019); Xie (2020); Chiriko (2021); Lozano et al. (2021); Senyao et al. (2021); Duro and Turrion-Prats (2022); Zvaigzne et al. (2022)
Public sector incentives (e.g., marketing support, labor and/or operator subsidy, tax incentives on a temporal basis)	Sutcliffe and Sinclair (1980); Fitzpatrick Associates (1993); Allcock (1995); Baum and Hagen (1999); Butler (2001); Jolliffe and Farnsworth (2003); Koenig (2004); Andriotis (2005); Bender et al. (2005); Goulding (2005); Goulding et al. (2005); Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2005); Lee et al. (2008); Karamustafa and Ulama (2010); Cuccia and Rizzo (2011); Cannas (2012); Halpern (2012); Vergori (2017); Lozano et al. (2021); Senyao et al. (2021)
Development of cultural, business, congress, religious, sports, winter, urban, social, and visiting friends and relatives (VFR) tourism	Sutcliffe and Sinclair (1980); Fitzpatrick Associates (1993); Ashworth and Thomas (1999); Fernandez-Morales (2003); Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2005); Garau-Vadell and de Borja-Sole (2008); Chung (2009); Cuccia and Rizzo (2011); Boffa and Succurro (2012); Figini and Vici (2012); Petrevska (2013); Grossi and Mussini (2021); Senyao et al. (2021); Duro and Turrion-Prats (2022); Ramos and Sol Murta (2022); Zvaigzne et al. (2022)
Developing special-interest tourism	Fitzpatrick Associates (1993); Kennedy and Deegan (2001); Andriotis (2005); Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2005)
Encouraging domestic tourism in the off-season	Sutcliffe and Sinclair (1980); Butler (2001); Bender et al. (2005); Karamustafa and Ulama (2010); Cannas (2012); Vergori (2017)
Staggering the main school and industrial holidays over a longer period	Fitzpatrick Associates (1993); Allcock (1995); Bar-On (1999); Commons (1999); Goeldner et al. (2000); Butler (2001); Commons and Page (2001); Bender et al. (2005); Goulding (2005); Goulding et al. (2005); Karamustafa and Ulama (2010); Cannas (2012); Kastenholz and Lopes de Almeida (2013); Vergori (2017); Corluca (2019)
Two-center holidays	Allcock (1995); Hudson and Cross (2005); Coshall et al. (2015); Corluca (2019)

What one can give priority to discuss is some fundamental strategies that basically intend to level supply and demand. Since seasonality mainly pertains to the temporal imbalances in demand, several studies speak of strategies that could level the supply and demand to a possible extent in the hope of influencing overall seasonal fluctuations. Weaver and Lawton (2010), for instance, suggest that if supply exceeds demand, one can increase demand, reduce supply, and redistribute supply, while one could reduce demand, increase supply, and redistribute demand if demand exceeds supply.



Destinations may opt for increasing demand when the total demand is below capacity or the demand is low at certain times, usually in the off-peak season (Weaver & Lawton, 2010). Trying to extend the main season and establish additional seasons are some strategic attempts to create and foster demand outside the main season (where costly mistakes, gains, and losses should be counted, see Sasser, 1976). As opposed to that, it can be necessary to reduce demand when visitor claims for a destination, product, or service surpass the capacities, especially in the high season, and possibly redistribute and transfer it to the low periods of demand through a number of tactical responses (Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005; Koenig, 2004; Weaver & Lawton, 2010), so that, for instance, extreme seasonal fluctuations could be pacified and the usual quality of services retained.

Alternatively, managers may prefer to increase supply by expanding the capacity, preferably on a temporary course, to cope with short-term demand fluctuations (Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005; Koenig, 2004; Weaver & Lawton, 2010). However, should it turn permanent, an increased problem of underutilization of facilities in the off-peak season can disturb and distress the business (Koenig, 2004). Moreover, recurring visitor flows as a result of increased supply may intensify seasonal polarization leading to something worse that would be even more difficult to deal with.

Business owners and managers, sometimes, consider reducing supply when it is not possible or desirable to increase demand substantially (Weaver & Lawton, 2010). Such a strategy can be adopted to cut expenses and avoid additional costs outside the high season or to delimit excess tourism demand in the peak season (Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005; Koenig, 2004; Weaver & Lawton, 2010). As an alternative to seasonal cut-down or closedown, equipment and labor that are not used at full capacity can be shared with another business, where applicable, to utilize the underused resources at an optimal level (Commons, 1999; Sasser, 1976). For instance, using tourist information centers as business information centers in the off-season or sharing aircraft, airport equipment, and services of low-volume airlines those with busier ones can contribute to reducing costs significantly (Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005; Sasser, 1976). Aside from that, some family business owners employ their apartments as tourist accommodations at peak times and hire them as student housing during the dormant season.

The motive for redistribution of supply is to sustain the business over a longer period through, for instance, facility renewals, or product and service redesign (Weaver & Lawton, 2010). If a product no longer appeals to the markets as originally intended, then it would be refashioned as much as possible to match the customers' demands and retain their interests (Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005; Koenig, 2004; Weaver & Lawton, 2010).

Much emphasis has been laid on stimulating greater activity outside peak seasons to mitigate seasonal fluctuations in demand (Butler, 2001; Cooper et al., 2005; Wall & Mathieson, 2006). Many studies point to multiple strategies that can help to raise demand in a relatively low period. Diversification of the product mix is one of the most favored strategies for achieving a more balanced flow of trade (Allcock, 1995; Hudson & Cross, 2005). Since attractions are the key elements of a destination, introducing off-season attractions in addition to those that create demand in the main season is generally assumed to boost tourist flows during low-demand periods. Typical examples to attract people to a destination in the off-season include festivals, conferences, exhibitions, and games, also broadly referred to as events (Baum & Hagen, 1999; Butler, 2001; Cooper et al., 2005; Koenig-Lewis & Bischoff, 2005; Pegg et al., 2012). A golf festival at a beach resort, summertime walking, jogging, and climbing routes at a winter sports resort, conference trade at a spa-town, as well as seasonally themed horticultural shows, classic vehicle rallies, food and drink demonstrations, craft fairs, antique fairs, and farmers' markets in the context of historic houses, are among the instances that can help foster the off-season business (Allcock, 1995; Goulding, 2005). Hudson and Cross (2005) tell of some success stories about how festivals and diversified products have aided winter destinations to maximize their summertime occupancy rates and revenues. It should be borne in mind that some events may elicit only a short-lived interest that can achieve little success. Vergori (2017) notes that events and festivals cannot create a second season on their own due to their finite durations yet can serve as a determinant to attract people in the off-season. Moreover, introducing new off-season concepts may coerce many destinations to struggle for managing their public images because of mostly recognized as either summertime or wintertime resorts. Pegg et al. (2012), for instance, stress that businesses need to alter tourist perceptions of the Australian alpine region as a winter-only destination and persuade tourists to try the other options available at other times of the year.

One of the other commonly advocated strategies to spark off demand during the low period is market diversification. In contrast to the practice of selling more of the same to the same people over a longer period, this strategy, in its simplest form, seeks to present the existing product to new market segments consisting of potential consumers (Allcock, 1995; Baum & Hagen, 1999). The concentration of effort is to identify and access target groups who are more likely to travel outside the high season (Baum & Hagen, 1999; Hudson & Cross, 2005; Lozano et al., 2021). Some groups that may be willing to take off-season travel include senior citizens, empty nesters, conference delegates, incentive travelers, affinity groups, and special interest groups (Amelung et al., 2007; Baum & Hagen, 1999; Cannas, 2012; Hudson & Cross, 2005). Goulding (2005) provides an interesting example of market development, where tourism authorities sought to reposition the Borders as a secondary short break destination for young urbanites and activists, and high discretionary-spend city dwellers.

It has been suggested that efforts to diversify markets can be enhanced by employing marketing campaigns and targeted advertisements (Corluka, 2019; Halpern, 2012; Lee et al., 2008; Lozano et al., 2021). Successful advertising campaigns or public relations programs may strengthen the perceived attractiveness of a destination or the reputation of a particular tourism establishment (Seaton, 1995). In view of the importance of making customers aware of the advantages and availability of off-season holidays, marketing activities are seen as vital for implementing counter-seasonal strategies successfully (Corluka, 2019).

A better understanding of market segmentation, tourists' motivations, and their seasonal behaviors can support the adoption of a product and marketing approach that will spur greater activity during the low season and the identification of more efficient strategies to deal with seasonality (Lee et al., 2008; Lopes de Almeida & Kastenholz, 2019). Calantone and Johar (1984), in their attempt to segment the tourist market by season, showed that both the types of tourists and the benefits sought change according to seasons. Nadal et al. (2004) also express that tourists who take a vacation in the peak season differ from those who spend a vacation in the off-season. Senyao et al. (2021) emphasize that off-season tourism pertains to a distinct market segment that can be grouped into promotion-motivated tourists and traditional seasonal tourists. They state that tourists in the first group are price-sensitive, have difficulty in remaining loyal, are similar to mass tourists, and prefer package tours, whereas tourists in the other group are more inclined to revisit a place and remain steadfast. The authors also suggest that efforts for off-season tourism development should concentrate on alternative tourist segments by mainly encouraging traditional off-season tourists rather than promotion-motivated mass tourists given the potential negative economic and social influence of the latter group on destination development. Koc and Altinay (2007) categorized peak and off-peak season tourists as heavy-user and light-user segments, taking into account monthly seasonal factors. Figini and Vici (2012), examining synergies and tradeoffs arising from the demands and needs of distinct types of off-season tourists, determined three basic segments of tourism which were business, leisure, and cultural tourism. Depending on the shared features of business and leisure tourists, these were, however, boiled down to two homogenous groups that were leisure lovers and culture lovers.

Aside from launching new attractions and discovering new market segments, several studies point to encouraging certain types of tourism to extend off-season demand. Duro (2016), Fernandez-Morales (2003), Figini and Vici (2012), Fitzpatrick Associates (1993), and Grossi and Mussini (2021) stress that cultural tourism can be an effective way of dealing with seasonal demand. To Fitzpatrick Associates (1993), the development of cultural tourism has various advantages that differentiate it from other forms of tourism, including its educational value, the development and conservation of cultural resources, the rejuvenation of run-down areas, and the broadening of tourism season. They point to the importance of culture/heritage attractions in the latter respect, both because these attractions are weather-independent and a large proportion of the tourists they attract, especially seniors and long-haul tourists, are willing and able to travel in the off-season. Some also substantiate the positive role of such a type of tourism in evening out the peaks and troughs in demand effectively. Fernandez-Morales (2003), for instance, concluded from his study that the combination of sun and beach, skiing, and cultural tourism was an interesting means of reducing seasonality. In a similar vein, Duro (2016) showed that some destinations in Spain that specialized in business and cultural tourism and had strong cultural attractions and tourist diversification were far less seasonal than those that majorly relied on seaside tourism. However, it is also noteworthy that business tourism is indicated by some studies as a

more balanced and steadier type of tourism than leisure tourism in terms of seasonal variations (Chung, 2009; Lundtorp et al., 1999; Swarbrooke & Horner, 2001).

Cisneros-Martinez et al. (2018) highlight the role of social tourism in coping with seasonal imbalances in demand and attaining economic sustainability. Such a type of tourism is also supposed to bring significant social benefits, such as preventing the closure of tourist establishments by providing greater entertainment in seaside resorts during the low season. VFR tourism with its relatively evenly distributed visitations throughout the year is another type of tourism that can help the industry actors mollify the negative effects of chronic tourism seasonality (Weaver & Lawton, 2010). VFR tourists are reported to be more inclined to take trips in the off-season, thereby elongating the holiday season at the destination (Bischoff & Koenig-Lewis, 2007). It can be inferred from Moller et al. (2007) that senior tourism may also contribute to increasing off-season demand as seniors mainly prefer to travel in the off-peak season. In a similar vein, developing golf tourism is seen as a very coherent and reliable strategy for balancing seasonal peaks and troughs in traditional mass tourism destinations, particularly those in the Mediterranean region (Garau-Vadell & de Borja-Sole, 2008). Encouraging domestic tourism and developing special-interest tourism are two other initiatives to spur greater demand in off-seasons (Butler, 2001; Cannas, 2012; Kennedy & Deegan, 2001; Vergori, 2017). Moreover, sports, event, congress, urban, religious, cruise, and winter tourism are some other commonly acknowledged types of tourism to grapple with a seasonal demand (Ashworth & Thomas, 1999; Boffa & Succurro, 2012; Cuccia & Rizzo, 2011; Ramos & Sol Murta, 2022; Zvaigzne et al., 2022).

Pricing as one of the major marketing mix tools may operate in two directions in relation to the seasonal concentration of demand (Allcock, 1995). First, price mechanisms are often offered as a means of controlling excessive tourism demand (Holloway et al., 2009). Raising the prices considerably is thought to be an effective way of discouraging trade during the high season and reducing peaking on weekends and vacations (Allcock, 1995; Manning & Powers, 1984). According to Holloway et al. (2009), such an attempt, however, may not always lead to the desired limiting effect, especially when the demand for major tourist attractions is relatively inelastic. However, they add that a pricing policy helps to raise revenue which can contribute to financing the implementation of visitor management. Xie (2020) notes that high-income people are typically less sensitive to price changes in peak seasons and proposes that pricing strategies should be designed to address different market segments and seasons. Lopes de Almeida and Kastholz (2019) stress the importance of price sensitivity in terms of different market segments, noting that business, senior, and sports (e.g., golf) tourists are less sensitive to seasonal price differences.

Nadal et al. (2004) express that seasonality tends to be less acute as consumers' incomes increase and relative prices decrease. They further state that advantageous nominal exchange rates seemingly encourage tourists to go on vacations during the peak season and therefore intensify the seasonal concentration. Correspondingly, Turrion-Prats and Duro (2017) and Turrion-Prats and Duro (2018) report that increases in incomes of tourist-generating countries and annual relative prices contribute to reducing destinations' seasonal concentration notably, while an increase in the nominal exchange rate raises the concentration to some degree. It should be also noted that exchange policies aiming to increase demand by devaluing national currencies may primarily attract tourists of low income who have limited budgets for expenditure (Nadal et al., 2004).

Second, several studies suggest that package prices, discounted prices, and special price offers can serve as stimuli to boost demand outside the main season (Allcock, 1995; Baum & Hagen, 1999; Chung, 2009; Fitzpatrick Associates, 1993; Koenig, 2004; Manning & Powers, 1984; Senyao et al., 2021; Wall & Mathieson, 2006). For instance, Jeffrey and Barden (2001) found that a reduction in hotel room rates was the most often used incentive among the surveyed hoteliers to persuade previous guests to revisit during off-peak periods. They, however, express that an extra product or service that would add up to a short-term value was incorporated into the off-season package, which is deemed a much more effective strategy in attempting to spur low-season demand. To Allcock (1995), pricing incentives have probably been associated most effectively with market differentiation in the case of several schemes designed specifically for retired people who are able to benefit from off-season offers.

Holloway et al. (2009) stress that operators adopt marginal costing techniques, where the holidays are priced to cover variable costs and make some contribution to fixed costs, to attract customers outside peak season. They add that since operating hotels are subject to some overhead costs regardless of remaining open or closed, any guests that these hotels can attract will contribute to meeting their expenses. Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2005) note that many tourist accommodations, as opposed to those that opt for staying closed during the off-season, must remain open to obtain sufficient income to cover their fixed costs (see also Fletcher et al., 2018, pp. 264-265). Corluka (2019) recalls that the tourism industry consists of intangible and perishable products, and if such products, for instance, hotel rooms, flight tickets, or festival tickets are not sold on a given date they would have no economic value. However, although differential pricing is one of the commonly recommended methods for addressing the problem of seasonality, Fletcher et al. (2018) emphasize that many attraction managers oppose seasonal price differentiation in practice since visitors feel that they are being overcharged as they are unable to come in the off-season. They further add that attraction operators tend to narrow seasonal price ranges and offer additional product benefits to counter such a perception problem.

Two-center holidays are indicated as one of the other responses to seasonality. This type of holiday is intended to attract clients to a well-established resort that may be suffering from extreme demand but binds a part of the holiday to a less well-utilized resort or one with different types of attractions (Allcock, 1995; see Bar-On, 1999; Hudson & Cross, 2005). Examples include a holiday package to a ski resort combined with activities in a nearby seaside resort, or a week by the sea with a week in the country's capital city or an antique cultural center (Allcock, 1995; Hudson & Cross, 2005). Such a strategy is, however, deemed quite ineffective in countering seasonality but at least may help to make it more manageable (Allcock, 1995).

Several other selective responses to address the problem of seasonality in tourism include developing quality products, expanding access to destinations (Kennedy & Deegan, 2001), development of transport policy, promoting incentive travel (Fitzpatrick Associates, 1993), improving and expanding regional infrastructure (Corluka, 2019), introducing or enhancing year-round and all-weather leisure and accommodation facilities, and attractions (Ashworth & Thomas, 1999; Bar-On, 1999; Cooper et al., 2005; Fitzpatrick Associates, 1993; Hudson & Cross, 2005), increasing popularity of three-day weekends with a holiday on Friday or Monday, splitting vacations between various seasons of the year (Goeldner et al., 2000), altering or strengthening distribution channels (Weaver & Lawton, 2010), collaborating with tour operators and travel agencies, public social programs intending to make the tourism experience accessible for seniors (Lozano et al., 2021), product improvements, confronting global warming, investing heavily in snowmaking, affordable housing projects, developing new economic activities (Hudson & Cross, 2005).

From a holistic point of view, special emphasis is given to the role of governments and their public-sector agencies in responding to some of the effects of seasonality effectively (Baum & Hagen, 1999; Goulding, 2005; Goulding et al., 2005). Some of the advocated public sector incentives to manage the seasonality of tourism consist of marketing support, financial advice, labor subsidy to maintain employment and services, training initiatives for the labor force, staggering of school holidays, time-constrained tax concessions, direct subventions to operators to make them stay open, subsidized support for transport operators in the off-season, and creating, supporting or participating in seasonal extension programs (Baum & Hagen, 1999; Goulding, 2005; Goulding et al., 2005). Some studies also suggest that levying taxes on visitor arrivals or presence can contribute to controlling excessive tourism demand in the peak season (Boffa & Succurro, 2012; see Lim & McAleer, 2008; Sutcliffe & Sinclair, 1980), whereas Cuccia and Rizzo (2011) contend that such a response may not be practical considering the price elasticity of tourism demand, but still can be employed to compensate for the negative externalities of seasonality. Another public sector tool stated by the latter scholars is regulation which can be used to limit the number of tourists to be admitted into the destination in cases of high concern for sustainability.

### Embracing Seasonality

There may be little choice but to adapt to seasonal demand in coastal, rural, and peripheral regions, particularly in destinations that rely on weather-dependent attractions and outdoor activities where actions to tackle seasonality would not yield the

desired outcomes. Kastenholz and Lopes de Almeida (2008) state that it would be quite hard to achieve a major change in the seasonal pattern of demand in such regions given the uncontrollable determinants of the phenomenon, ergo the most suitable strategies would be seeking to live with seasonality in a sustainable manner. Lundtorp et al. (1999) provide a typical example of how weather and some other impediments make it so difficult to attract tourists in wintertime and almost impracticable to create a continuous year-round demand in a highly seasonal peripheral tourist destination. Koenig-Lewis and Bischoff (2005) mention that climatic factors and the existence of alternatives in a highly competitive business environment, e.g., low foreign holiday prices were some substantial barriers to off-peak season development in some seasonal regions.

It can be inferred from the literature that destinations and tourism enterprises can adapt or submit to seasonality in several ways. When it is not possible or desirable to increase demand in a significant way, tourist accommodations and other service providers may downsize supply, and close partly or entirely in the off-season in the hope of reducing fixed and variable costs (Weaver & Lawton, 2010). Some businesses, besides, may opt to restrict their opening and closing times (Goulding, 2005). A good example of how some visitor attractions, such as historic properties, museums, heritage centers, science centers, wildlife, farm and zoo attractions, outdoor recreation sites, and transport-related attractions adjusted their operating days and hours in the off-peak period was provided by Connell et al. (2015).

A great many enterprises may conform to low seasonal demand by reducing the sizes of their labor forces. Getz and Nilsson (2004), for instance, report that a sample of family business owners in the industry mainly responded to seasonality through the dismissal of their employees. It is also stated that some others got through the off-peak period by supplementing their income from other sources, some drew upon their savings, and some took out loans. A few owners favored arranging parties, going on vacations, hosting personal guests, relying on social security, using private financing, and working alone during that period. Flognfeldt (2001) also exemplifies how firms and locals engaging in the tourism business in the region of Ottadalen have adapted themselves to seasonal demand over time.

Aside from these, Goulding et al. (2005) point to a number of policy measures, such as taking environmental regeneration initiatives, focusing business support on the existing seasonal trading pattern, and supporting off-season community initiatives that can be taken by public sectors recognizing the seasonal status quo. Allcock (1995), on the other hand, gives an example of how French authorities attempted to take advantage of off-season periods to improve the educational and skill levels of tourism workers.

## CONCLUSION

While seasonality is recognized as having positive aspects, it is generally deemed a common problem of tourism destinations that has numerous negative consequences for both private and public sectors. Given the widespread impact of seasonality on the tourism business, it is critically important to understand how these sectors can respond to such a phenomenon in a sustainable way.

This paper has discussed the responses to seasonality in tourism by revisiting the relevant literature. Generally, tourism businesses and governments may respond to seasonality by developing demand and supply-related strategies at the micro and macro levels to counter it when it is a major concern or taking no substantive actions and adapting to it when seasonality is not seen as a problem or there is little to do about it. The literature points to various strategies for counteracting seasonality. Seemingly, not a single strategy alone proves sufficient to cope with such a problem effectively due to its complex nature. While recognizing that seasonality is an intractable problem of tourism, the literature suggests that it is possible to mitigate it through strategic public and private sector measures. The success of measures to be taken is contingent on having a good understanding of the causes that create seasonal demand in the destination. Measures that align well with the causes of seasonal concentration may achieve greater success. Considering the characteristics of the destination, understanding consumers' motivations and behaviors, and developing strong marketing strategies are also important. Besides, collaboration among private and public sector bodies engaged in the tourism industry is deemed vital. As some scholars suggest, it is



however arguable that seasonality is a problem for everyone that should be tackled or can be handled successfully. Managing the seasonality of tourism is a rather complex and challenging issue. More research is, therefore, necessary to gain deeper insights into the subject. Future research, for instance, could seek to examine the practical efficacy of existing strategies in reducing seasonality and mitigating its negative effects.

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