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Management from the Nova School of Business and Economics.

**DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS IN EUROPE: TOURISM PERFORMANCE
TRENDS IN EUROPEAN CITIES AT DIFFERENT DESTINATION LIFECYCLE
STAGES**

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Abstract:

This research focuses on the evaluation of destination competitiveness. Firstly by applying destination lifecycle theory in ten European cities and understanding whether tourism performance indicators exhibit any correlation with a destination's lifecycle stage and offering insights for strategic development and management. Finally, over 440 metrics from 15 sources were collected to understand which indicators are more commonly used and lays the foundation for flexible destination assessment in the dynamic tourism sector.

Keywords: Tourism, Europe, Lifecycle, Destination Development

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1. Tourism Performance Trends in European Cities at Different Destination Lifecycle

Stages

1.1. Introduction

The tourism business has evolved into an ever-growing vital area of the global economy as the years have passed, reaching a 7.6% contribution to the global GDP in 2022, with Europe being responsible for 9.3% of the total tourism GDP in 2019 (WTTC 2023). However, destinations' tourism performance and popularity are dynamic; it changes with time. Examining the relationship between tourism performance indicators and destination lifecycle stages is crucial to comprehending this evolution and optimising the strategic development and administration of European cities as tourism destinations.

At the core of this section is a fundamental question: **Are there noticeable trends in tourism performance indicators within certain European cities at different destination lifecycle stages, and do they provide insights for strategic tourism development and management?** Some of the papers' objectives to address this question are, firstly, understanding the phases of 10 European cities (Lisbon, Porto, Barcelona, Madrid, Amsterdam, Paris, Prague, Vienna, Rome, and Venice) by applying destination lifecycle theory and mapping their trajectories through the stages of development over the last 10 years (2012-2022). Then, to inquire into the correlation between tourism performance indicators and specific lifecycle stages and assessing which indicators are most influential at different points in a city's evolution and development. And, finally, to explore how these cities can use this type of knowledge to plan and execute actions to better develop as tourism destinations (getting to the next stage).

1.2. Literature Review

Tourism Competitiveness

First of all, it's important to understand the broader topic of interest before diving in deeper, but it's hard to understand what it is and how to measure it. According to Crouch and Ritchie

(1999), this difficulty of defining competitiveness comes down to its inherently comparative nature and its multifaceted character. A possible definition of Tourism Competitiveness stated by Dupeyras and MacCallum (2013) is: “Tourism competitiveness for a destination is about the ability of the place to optimise its attractiveness for residents and non-residents, to deliver quality, innovative, and attractive (e.g. providing good value for money) tourism services to consumers and to gain market shares on the domestic and global market places, while ensuring that the available resources supporting tourism are used efficiently and in a sustainable way.”.

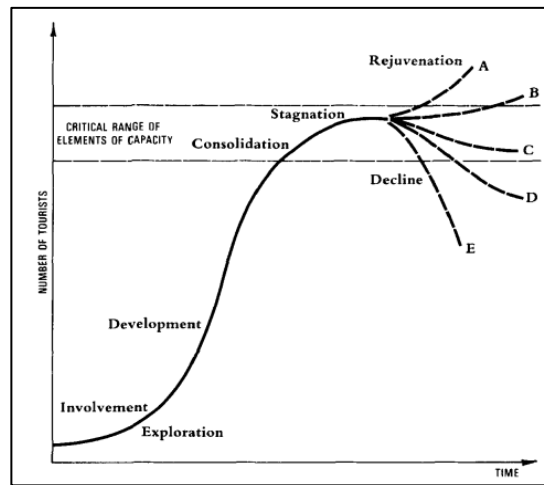
One of the more popular indexes used to assess tourism competitiveness is the biennial *Travel & Tourism Development Index* (TTDI), which used to be called *Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index* (TTCI) modelled by The World Economic Forum (WEF). This change was made in 2021 to reflect wider range of ideas pertaining to the evolution of travel and tourism with a special focal point on the increasing importance of sustainability and resilience in promoting the sector. In addition, there is a greater emphasis on acknowledging the sector's crucial role in promoting social and economic growth (WEF 2022). It also aids in highlighting strengths and weaknesses for each country in five relevant pillars for travel and tourism by ranking countries (117 in 2021's index) 1-6 ([Appendix A](#)). A more specific tool (triennial) for European regions is *The EU Regional Competitiveness Index* (RCI) designed by the European Commission also helps regions understand where they are at comparatively to other European regions and supports them in constructing developing strategies ([Appendix B](#)) (EC 2023).

Destination Lifecycle

Since the 1960s, tourism research has used the life cycle idea as a useful tool for comprehending, tracking, and evaluating tourist activity. The Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC) model ([Graphic I](#)) was developed in the 1980s by Butler as an extension of the life cycle product model, with a focus on the tourism sector (Bolaky 2008). In line with this concept, a tourism product goes through six distinct stages in its lifecycle: exploration, involvement, development,

consolidation, stagnation which can be followed by either a decline or a revitalization of the product.

Graphic I - Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC)



I - R.W. Butler (1980)

The primary phase is the exploration phase, distinguished by a reduced number of tourists that are mainly fascinated by its natural and historical/cultural features (high chance of interaction with locals) since there still aren't specific and unique facilities provided for tourists.

At the involvement stage, a tourism industry starts developing (some modest importance for the local economy) as the number of visitors rise. Residents start to implement facilities such as accommodation and catering (locals' interaction with visitors still play a vital part). The involvement of the government starts to take place (advertising and marketing plan).

In the development stage, a fast growth of visitors can be observed. Plenty of marketing is made to make this a "well-defined tourist market" and a commercial product. This is a significant phase since the destination changes quite a bit with the construction of attractions and facilities by non-locals (resorts, hotels, restaurants, etc.) to complement all the natural and cultural attractions already existent before. The locals' contact and facilities provided gains less and less importance as this stage progresses.

The consolidation stage is still represented by an increase in visitors but at a much slower pace and a high tourism density (great visitor pressure on the region). Large-scale organisations and companies are present. The sector has an influential contribution to the economy as

advertising and marketing is reached worldwide.

The penultimate phase is the stagnation stage where growth stops, and the peak quantity of visitors have been attained. The location is well-known but starts to decline in popularity. A considerable problem here arises as plenty of environmental, social, and economic difficulties appear, mainly due to exceeding capacity levels.

Lastly, five different phases can follow a stagnation stage with the two most important ones being Rejuvenation and Decline. As the name suggests, the decline stage indicates a drop in the number of visitors as they are no longer attracted to the destination (due to itself or due to the rise in popularity of other places). Some hotels and facilities disappear and/or are converted for other purposes (normal accommodation like apartments for example). On the other hand, a destination can take action to rejuvenate after stagnating. It is necessary to either introduce new tourism products or radically redesign existing ones. This can happen, for example, with the construction of unique and innovative artificial attractions or by making use of formerly unexplored natural resources (Butler 1980).

1.3. Scope and Methodology

To properly achieve the objectives set for this research, it's important to understand what methods will be used and the limitations. Firstly, as mentioned previously, the initial step will be applying Butler's model and map out where each city is on the lifecycle over the last 10 years. Ten popular European destinations from seven different countries were chosen: Lisbon; Porto; Barcelona; Madrid; Amsterdam; Vienna; Paris; Prague; Rome; Venice. The main indicator used to distinguish each stage will be the number of arrivals since for, it is used on the y axis in Butlers model and secondly, the majority of research to this day uses arrivals as the prime benchmark due to the fact that the number of arrivals mirrors the demand for tourism, which affects a destination's total worth and appeal (McKercher and Wong 2021). Two other relevant indicators that will aid in identifying phases are both indexes referenced previously:

TTDI and RCI. These provide a more qualitative analysis as these indexes are based on factors such as safety, environmental sustainability, innovation, etc ([Appendix A and B](#)) and have been used before to apply the TALC model (Kubíčková and Martin 2020).

Next, the aim will be to investigate if performance indicators are correlated to each lifecycle stages (for example, if the average daily rate is higher in a consolidated destination versus a developing destination). A time series analysis will be used here. In other words, data will be analysed over the last 10 years to identify any trends or patterns in performance indicators within the destination's lifecycle. The selected indicators are Overnights, Average Length of Stay (ALOS), Average Daily Rate (ADR), Occupancy Rate and Revenue per Available Room (RevPAR) as these are the major demand KPI's in the tourism/hospitality sector (Wu, Song, and Shen 2017). A meaningful limitation in tourism research is the “limited reliability of statistical information for tourism” (Zmysłony 2011). Many different websites and articles give different figures especially due to the problem in homogenizing the area of the city in question, i.e., various articles can consider the greater city area of Paris but then also communicate numbers of only the city area of Amsterdam, which creates an unfair and bias analysis. Therefore, all data extracted will be considering only the pure city area and excluding any neighbouring cities (All data can be seen in [Appendix C](#)). Great part of the data sources consists of national institutes of statistics and websites of official tourism bodies. An increasingly relevant point of view will also be looked at: online popularity. Using tools like google trends and data such as the number of posts in that location will help figure out any pertinent correlations to each lifecycle stage. A limitation here is the mixture of definitions. An easy example is the number of posts using “#Porto” on Instagram is the same with the hashtag “#Lisbon”. This can be misleading since many posts using the Porto hashtag refer to the football club and therefore, isn't a true representation of the online popularity of the destination.

Lastly, the cities will be grouped in their respective stages and the results in the previous

step will be analysed (using graphs and comparisons) to understand what insights these patterns provide for strategic tourism development and management.

1.4. Data Analysis

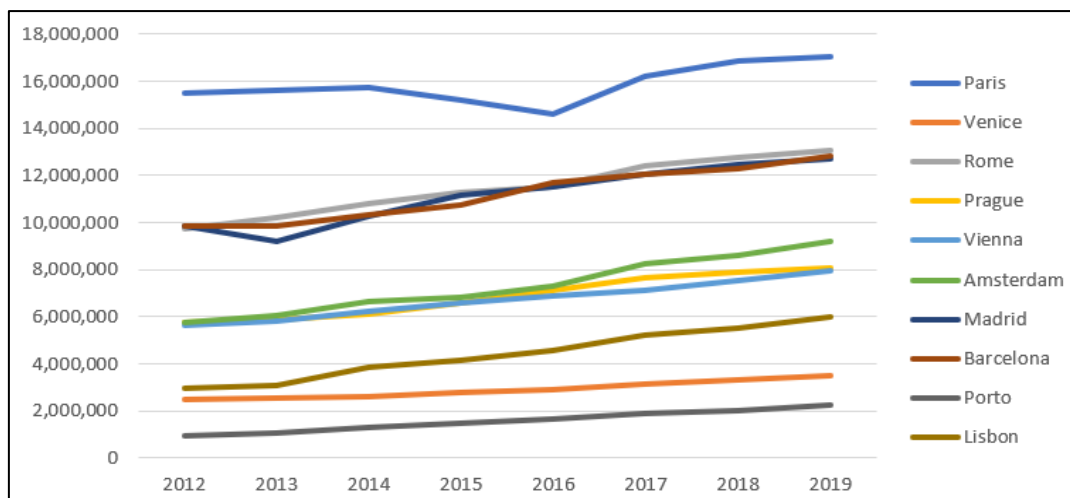
Analysing Destination Lifecycle

Once again, the number of arrivals will be the main indicator to analyse each cities' lifecycle stage (Gore et al. 2022), but also, their growth rates will equally play a role since Butler (1980) referenced how it plays a part in each stage (for example, rapid growth in arrivals in a development stage or no growth at all at a stagnated phase). This growth rate is used in many other research papers such as Gore, Borde, and Desai (2023) when studying Goa's evolution.

Even though the scope of this study is from 2012 to 2022, the major drop in arrivals (and every other performance indicator for that matter) that's common in all 10 cities in 2020 and 2021 was famously caused by the COVID-19 pandemic which restrained people from travelling to other countries as a safety measure. Therefore, for this particular analysis, data from 2020 onwards will be excluded as the decrease in numbers observed doesn't represent a decline in destination popularity but rather, the consequence of a global pandemic.

Graphic II shows how the number of arrivals evolved over 8 years where some cities can be grouped due to being in similar situations.

Graphic II – Line Chart of annual arrivals from 2012 – 2019



II - Own Elaboration

The first group consists by the three cities with the lowest number of arrivals: Lisbon, Porto, and Venice. Logically, it would make sense for these three cities to be at the earliest stage of the lifecycle compared to the other cities, which is the case for Lisbon and Porto but not Venice. Starting with the Portuguese cities, we can back this claim of them being behind by also analysing their growth rates which are summarized in Table I. They both present the highest average growth rate, a characteristic of the development stage. More evidence of this is also the

Table I – Average growth rate (2012-2019)

European Cities	Average Growth Rate
1. Porto	11.46%
2. Lisbon	9.48%
3. Amsterdam	6.48%
4. Vienna	4.83%
5. Venice	4.81%
6. Prague	4.71%
7. Rome	4.09%
8. Barcelona	3.65%
9. Madrid	3.44%
10. Paris	1.26%

I - Own elaboration

fact that Portugal is the second lowest ranked country (out of the rest of the countries involved in this study) in the TTDI in 2013, 2015 and 2021. Porto is also the least competitive according to the RCI in 2016 and 2019, with Lisbon also only just recently gaining 41 places in the most recent edition (2022). Additionally, the pair were the best recovering cities post-pandemic in 2022 with Porto even surpassing its 2019 numbers which is further confirmation of the cities' considerable growth. This comes down to the proactivity of the Portuguese government implementing early lockdowns and therefore, being also the first ones to open and allow tourists to enter the country (Ames 2020) and hosting events that attracted tourism such as the 2020 (in Lisbon) and 2021 (in Porto) UEFA Champions League finals (Hughes 2023).

However, even though Venice appears to have similar arrivals, its average growth rate isn't as high, ranking 5th between the ten cities. The average growth rate is closer to the average of the next group, which will be shortly talked about, meaning, in this case, Venice ranks higher

than Lisbon and Porto. The main reason for Venice having a lower number of arrivals than Amsterdam, Vienna and Prague are due to its smaller size (according to Giuffrida (2022), Venice only has around 50.000 inhabitants). More evidence that Venice is further along the lifecycle is supported by Russo (2002). He concluded in 2002 that the cities' growth was mainly attributable to day-trips (another reason for lower arrivals) as the costs of accommodation in Venice are extremely high (which is still true to this day as its average ADR from 2014 to 2022 is around 336 euros, more than 100 euros higher than the second placed city whilst having the penultimate lowest occupancy rate at just 67.45%) which could in due course lead to stagnation or decline. Nonetheless, since Venice is still growing, it is at the consolidation stage.

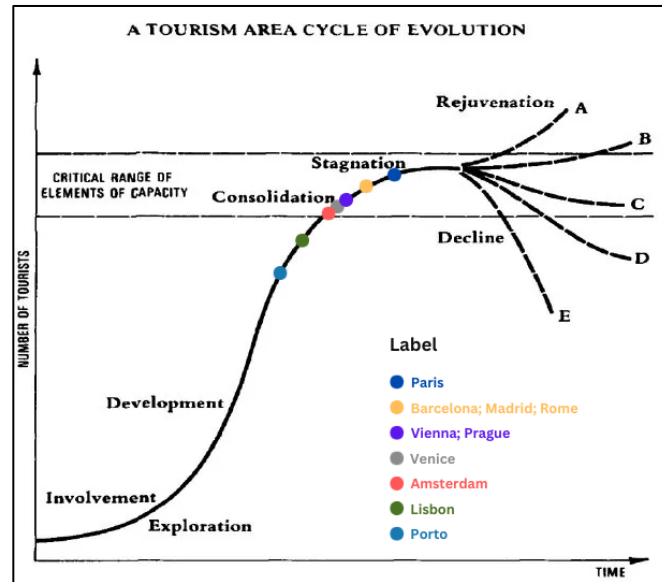
The following group of cities that can be observed are comprised of Amsterdam, Vienna, and Prague. All three basically start from the same place in 2012 (Graphic II) but Amsterdam slightly grew at a faster pace (6.48%) comparatively to Vienna and Prague who practically exhibit the same average growth rate (4.83% and 4.71%, respectively) through the 8 years in question. This means Amsterdam is marginally behind both Vienna and Prague in the lifecycle as it is developing at an increased rate. Looking at the tourism competitiveness indexes, starting off with the TTDI, Austria and the Netherlands are both ranked higher than Portugal but lower than the countries which will be mentioned afterwards. Prague is an exception though, as the Czech Republic is badly ranked (8 places behind Portugal in 2021) but, according to the RCI, the city itself is moderately ranked (46° in 2022, higher than Lisbon, Porto, and Venice). Tourism has a significant influence on the economy in all three cities: In 2016, tourism in Prague had a 5% share of the city's GDP and Amsterdam had 4.1%. Employment in tourism was similarly high as Prague had an 8.4% share of the city's employment and Amsterdam had 9.8% (Prague City Tourism 2020). In 2018, Vienna's share of the city's GDP was 4.8% while its share of the city's employment was 11.4% (Vienna Tourism Board B2B 2021). We can conclude that Vienna, Prague, and Amsterdam are also in a Consolidation stage.

The subsequent cluster of cities consists of Rome, Barcelona, and Madrid. In similar fashion to the last group, all three start on almost identical arrivals in 2012. However, they also display growth rates alike (between 4.09% and 3.44% - Table I). The TTDI also supports the maturity of these destinations with both Spain and Italy ranking highly (1st and 6th in 2021). The same reasons mentioned in the previous paragraph (high tourism employment share and GDP share) also apply here, however, due to their slower growth rates, Barcelona, Madrid, and Rome are further along on the lifecycle and also find themselves in the consolidation stage.

Lastly, the most mature city, which could be expected because of its size and popularity, is Paris. It stands out between the rest of the cities as Paris has displayed a vast positive difference in arrivals over the years (Graphic II). The indexes definitely contribute to affirming that Paris is the most competitive and developed city out of all the ones in question. France ranks 2nd in Europe (2021) in the TTDI while also being classified the 3rd best European region (2022) according to the RCI. However, Paris also stands out negatively as it presents the lowest average growth rate with a measly 1.26% between 2012 and 2019 (Table I). This slowdown in growth suggests Paris is close to the stagnation stage. One of the main rationales could reside in the same reason that provoked the decline in arrivals in both 2015 and 2016 (Graphic II): lack of safety. Both years were unfortunately known for various terrorist attacks in France and nearby countries, with the worst one being the attacks in none other than Paris on the 15th of November in 2015, standing as the most violent attack in the Western world in recent years killing around 130 people (Jenkins 2016). This obviously led to fear of travelling to Paris and causing the subsequent drop in arrivals. This theme is still prominent to this day as many terrorism acts continue to surge: a teacher was murdered in an Islamist attack in Paris, on October 13th, 2023, and a man attacked and injured six individuals at the Gare du Nord train station in Paris on the 11th of January (Reuters 2023). Another clue that indicates the idea of near stagnation is the near stalling Paris experienced between 2012 and 2014, before the attacks in 2015 where

arrivals grew a mere 0.72% in 2013 and 0.71% in 2014. Nevertheless, it did experience positive growth over these years, and so Paris is still at the Consolidation stage, but at the end of the phase. Graphic III summarizes the whole destination lifecycle for all 10 cities.

Graphic III – Updated Tourism Area Life Cycle



III – Own Elaboration

Correlation with Tourism Performance Indicators and Digital Presence

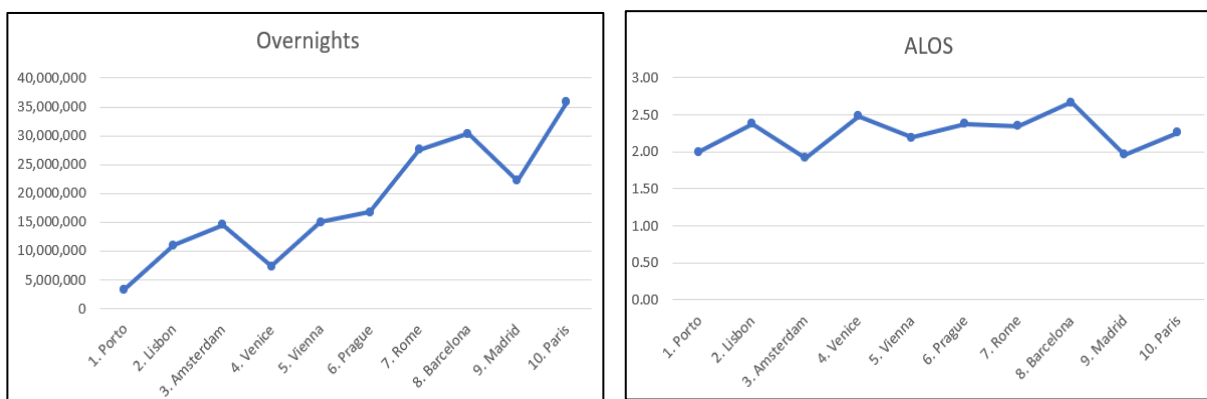
Using a connected scatter plot, a possible relationship between an indicator and the phase each city is in can be observed. This relationship can either have a positive association (as the lifecycle stage progresses, ADR also increases), a negative association (as the lifecycle stage progresses, ADR decreases) or have no association at all if there is no correlation. It can also be linear (one variable increases or decreases by roughly the same unit as another variable) or curvilinear (two variables that don't follow a straight line but exhibit a curve) (Balentyne and Mindrila, n.d.).

Overnights and ALOS

Overnights and ALOS (Appendix D) were merged into one topic as overnights directly contributes to the calculation of ALOS (Overnights/Arrivals = ALOS). Starting off with Overnights and similarly to the number of arrivals, by inspecting Graphic IV a positive relationship can be perceived since, as the lifecycle progresses, the number of overnights also

increase, with Venice and Madrid being the only exceptions. On the other hand, the ALOS seems to be uncorrelated to the phases of these 10 cities. The graph shows a pretty neutral line with irregular ups and downs which is a surprise since Butler (1980) alluded to the fact that the ALOS decreases as the destination develops. This is also supported by Strapp (1988) who defended that the initial stages of a destination lead to longer stays due to its tougher access while as a destination evolves during the lifecycle, the subsequent improvements in transport make short-term stays possible and, therefore, ALOS declines. (see [Appendix E](#)).

Graphic IV – Scatterplot of the average of overnights and ALOS (2012-2019)

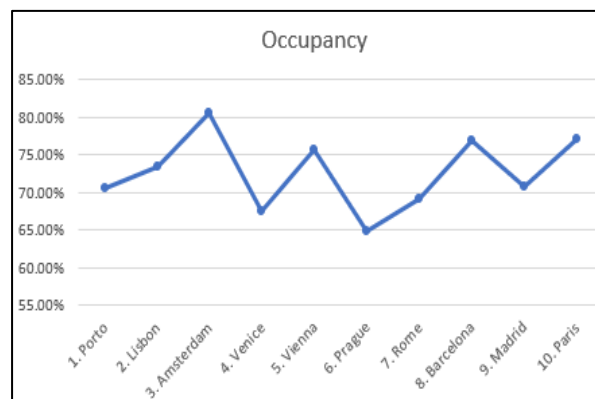


IV - Own Elaboration

Occupancy Rate

When it comes to the occupancy rate ([Appendix F](#)), there too appears to be an asymmetrical graph ([Graphic V](#)) with Prague (consolidation stage) exhibiting the lowest value and Amsterdam (nearest city to the developing ones) displaying the maximum value. For that reason, the occupancy rate appears to be unrelated to each cities' lifecycle phase.

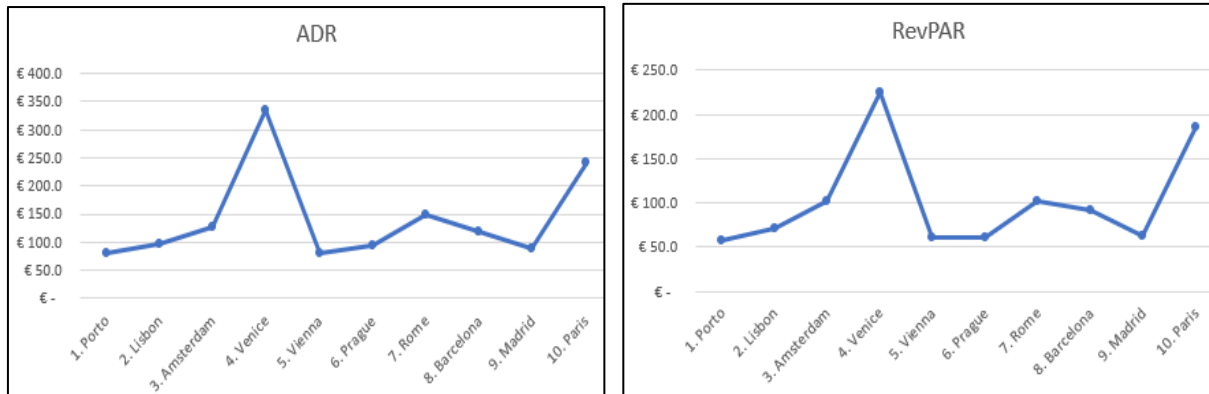
Graphic V – Scatterplot of the average occupancy rate (2012-2019)



V - Own Elaboration

ADR / RevPAR

Graphic VI – Scatterplot of the average ADR and RevPAR (2012-2019)



VI - Own Elaboration

Regarding ADR and RevPAR ([Appendix G](#)), Venice and Madrid again look to be the odd ones out as Venice registered exorbitant numbers and Madrid the complete opposite with quite low numbers for its position in the lifecycle ([Graphic VI](#)). By eliminating the outliers ([Graphic VII](#)), a somewhat weak positive relationship can be noticed because there are still some exceptions like Vienna and Prague who drop below Amsterdam's numbers and Barcelona that also break the trend. Nevertheless, the general trend is for ADR and RevPAR to increase as the lifecycle progresses, even if it is at different rates (Porto has the lowest RevPAR at the earliest stage and Paris has the highest RevPAR at the latest stage).

Graphic VII – Scatterplot of the average ADR and RevPAR excluding Venice and Madrid



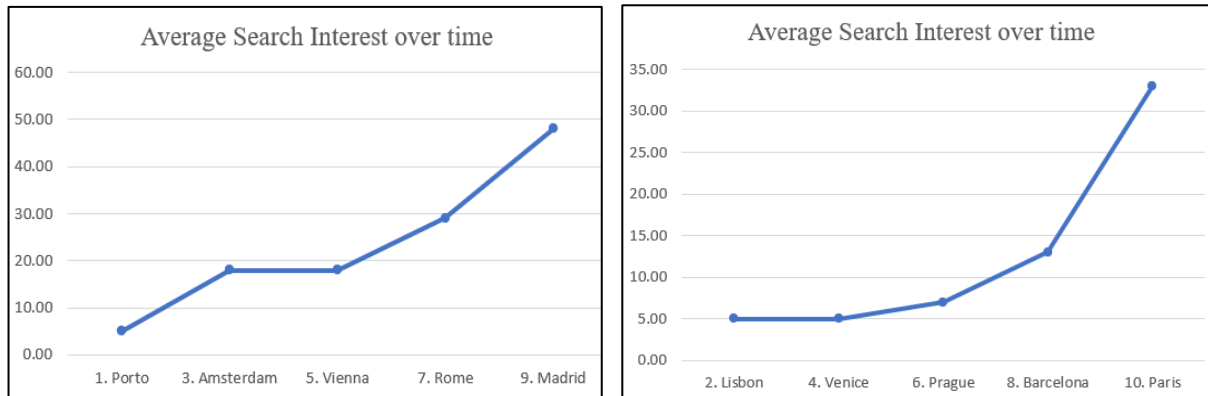
VII - Own Elaboration

Google Trends and Social Media

Google Trends allows search interest to be measured (in relation to the peak on the chart for the specified region and time (Google, n.d.)). In this case, Google Trends only allows five

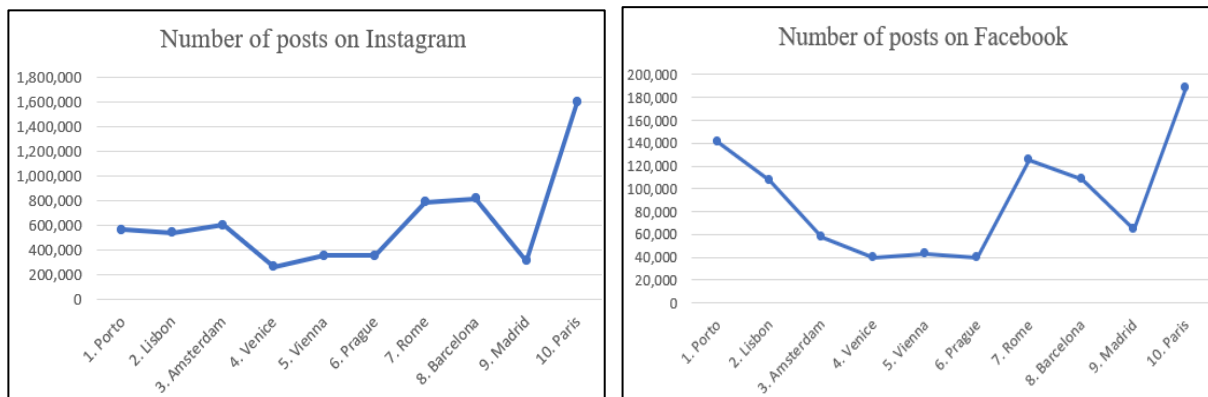
search terms to be compared at once, therefore, to properly understand if any correlation existed, two separate sets of cities were defined (by alternating positions in the lifecycle – full charts can be seen in [Appendix H](#)). By analysing [Graphic VIII](#), a positive linear relationship can be perceived in both groups of cities which definitely suggests a correlation exists between online search interest and the lifecycle stage (more mature destination = higher search interest).

Graphic VIII – Scatterplot of the average search interest over time (2012-2023)



VII – Adapted from Google Trends (2023)

Graphic IX – Scatterplot of the number of posts on Instagram and Facebook

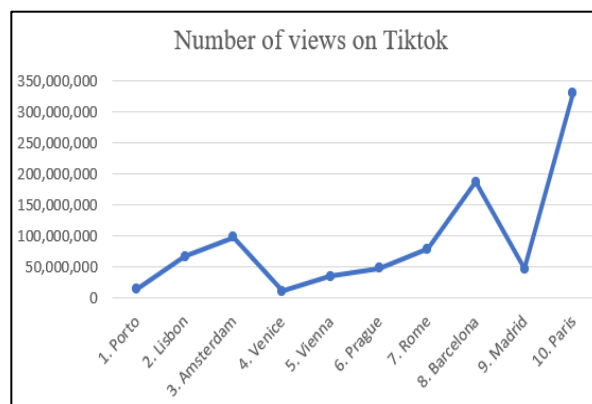


IX – Own Elaboration

In terms of social media, three of the biggest visual platforms (Dixon 2023) were chosen and to minimize the limitations mentioned previously, the hashtag “#visit(name of city)” was utilized to eliminate any bias. Interestingly, the fastest growing cities (Porto, Lisbon, and Amsterdam) appear to have more posts on both Instagram and Facebook than the following three cities who are established in the consolidation stage ([Graphic IX](#)). But the general indication is that digital presence increases with the maturity (Madrid once again being the odd one out) which can be seen by looking at the numbers of Rome, Barcelona, and Paris. The graph

referring to Facebook's numbers are also compelling as a sort of curvilinear relationship can be discerned (Number of posts increase, followed by a decrease and increase once more as the lifecycle progresses). On the other hand, TikTok measures the popularity of the hashtag by number of views (Graphic X). Similarly to Instagram, the trend is for views to grow quite a bit with the cities which find themselves in an earlier phase on the lifecycle but then drops with cities who are further on the lifecycle progress and finally, increases again (Madrid being the exception).

Graphic X – Scatterplot of the number of views on TikTok



X – Own Elaboration

1.5. Implications for Tourism Management and Strategy and Final Considerations

Understanding this life cycle pattern makes it possible to design interventions that could stop what would otherwise seem to be an inevitable march towards entropy. When a destination finds itself in a stagnation, crisis, or decline cycle, increased self-awareness makes it possible to highlight and strengthen underutilised resources. This in turn sparks a renewed feeling of creativity and possibilities that could've otherwise been overlooked or missed (Hwang 2017). This is supported by Gore, Borde, and Desai (2023) who concluded that there was a correlation between arrivals and strategies that were implemented, and that the government can utilize the lifecycle to formulate comprehensive strategies to lengthen the more beneficial stages and prevent or delay any future potential decline.

Understanding the positive correlation between overnight stays and the stage of the tourist lifecycle implies that as a destination advances through its lifecycle, more overnight stays are

often drawn there. Destination managers may use this information to prepare for and anticipate a rise in demand for accommodation. Butler (1980) suggests that ALOS reduces as a destination matures, but there is no obvious association between ALOS and the lifetime. Tourism management should be wary of assuming a uniform trend and consider destination-specific elements that may impact the duration of stay which can also be said for occupancy rate (due to its lack of correlation). Although there are certain outliers, such as Venice and Madrid, the overall pattern of rising ADR and RevPAR as a destination advances through its lifecycle encourages that it may be able to refine its pricing policies over time. Supervisors should keep an eye on the state of the market and modify prices to optimise profits. On the other hand, the outliers may indicate that dissimilar pricing strategies can work when developing (adopting higher prices to accompany a superior quality end-product like Venice or going for lower prices like Madrid and Vienna). Mature locations tend to draw more online search interest, and so, tourism managers should use digital marketing techniques more often as destinations evolve to guarantee exposure and take advantage of the growing interest. Facebook postings' curvilinear connection raises the possibility of distinct phases of higher and lower levels of online interaction. Managers of tourism should keep a careful eye on social media trends and modify their outreach and content plans accordingly. This is also supported by the trend of views on TikTok. Supervisors have to review the demographic inclinations of every platform and tailor content to correspond with the evolving interests of their intended audience.

The differences across cities (Madrid and Venice standing out in a number of metrics) highlight how crucial it is to take destination-specific aspects into account when making strategic plans. Supervisors should execute in-depth evaluations of the distinctive qualities and challenges associated with every destination. The results highlight the necessity of adaptability in tourist management approaches. A one-size-fits-all strategy might not work, and changes have to be made in accordance with each destination's unique qualities and lifecycle stage.

2. Main Indicators when Assessing Destination Attractiveness

2.1. Introduction

The global tourism environment is undergoing significant transformations due to recent events, including the COVID-19 crisis, geopolitical tensions around the world and prevailing megatrends in climate, demographics, migration, and technologies. Globalization of economy and markets is another factor significantly impacting this environment. All these elements, coupled with societal demands for inclusive and eco-friendly supply chains, are influencing the configuration of global touristic value chains.

This context, which is to some extent chaotic, requires an in-depth analysis from the investors in order to limit their risk and maximize their options and opportunities by properly understanding which location can bring the most benefits.

This study will bring clarity on the most meaningful and relevant parameters and indicators which should be considered based on analysis of various city indexes and research papers in order to support decisions on where to invest energy, time, and money by major tourism corporations (OECD 2023).

2.2. Theoretical Context

Porter (1990) published a pioneered book in 1990 titled "*The Competitive Advantage of Nations*" which was initially employed to examine the competitive advantage of nations within particular industries. And soon after its principles and associated "Diamond model" have been extended to the analysis of the competitiveness of regions and cities.

Twenty-seven years later, Giaoutzi (2017), developed a new concept described in the following book: "*Tourism and Regional Development: New Pathways*". The latter underlines the importance of new ways and alternative strategies for regional development through tourism. He proposes innovative models and practices that regions can adopt to capture the potential benefits of tourism.

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While Ritchie and Crouch (2003) promote comparative analyses to identify commonalities and distinctions in indicators used by tourism organizations, emphasizing the importance of benchmarking practices specific to tourism.

Jamal and Robinson (2009) put in evidence a few years later, the strategic considerations for destinations and more specifically for city selection, as highlighted by factors such as cultural richness, accessibility, tourist infrastructure, and adherence to local regulations.

A novel perspective was presented by Andereck and Nyaupane (2010), who highlighted the need for an integrated approach by highlighting how economic, social, and environmental aspects are interconnected in assessments of tourist cities.

Xiang et al. (2017) note a growing trend in integrating technology and data-driven insights for comprehensive city assessments beyond traditional metrics such as population density, economic indicators, and infrastructure development. Cities, as focal points of social, cultural, and economic activity, are crucial in this dynamic global landscape. For major businesses, choosing a city strategically involves navigating a complex decision-making process within the global business climate (Dixit, Clouse, and Turken 2019).

The first attractiveness factor is related to economic growth of a region (OECD 2023). Economic growth is calculated with 3 factors: the GDP per capita, employment and productivity. Diemer et al. (2022) warn that European regions with high per capita income and some of the least developed areas face the risk of succumbing to a development trap, which means their economic growth is lower than the country they're located in. They emphasize that addressing these issues is crucial for Europe's growth, productivity, and competitiveness, as it wastes human, social, and knowledge resources.

The evolution of concepts in the hereabove mentioned articles and documents reflects a gradual transition from analyzing the competitiveness of nations to emphasizing the position of cities in tourism management. The utilization of models is progressively accepted as a normal

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approach in order to ease the work of regions to capture the potential advantages of tourism. Cities are progressively seen as transformative elements influencing tourism success and attractiveness. The importance and necessary deep dive in understanding tourism practices is also considered as more and more important. Identification of distinctive city factors seem to play an increasingly pivotal role in destination choices and lately the recognition of the global approach as an undisputable parameter in the evaluation and selection of cities.

In a broader context, the OECD (2023) report on regional attractiveness aligns with these findings, recognizing the impact of global changes on how regions are perceived. The slowdown in global expansion and the emphasis on nuanced understanding of regional appeal parallel the difficulties and opportunities discussed in the sector.

The OECD report being a recent publication which integrates in a more advance way the ideas developed by peer's but, more importantly, the new global environment and its key constraints and challenges. Therefore, the OECD report will represent our reference information, in order to understand the intricacies of how major tourism corporations evaluate cities for deciphering strategic moves in the ever-evolving tourism sector.

The world is undergoing significant changes; companies are adapting by prioritizing environmental responsibility and securing supply chains.

Regional attractiveness policies aim to make places more appealing, fostering growth and reducing disparities. This is crucial as many countries experience a widening gap between prosperous and struggling regions.

A region's ability to handle challenges and improve is influenced by its global connections, including internet quality, transportation, and a skilled workforce. Assets like airports and ports attract foreign investment, support businesses, and draw talent and visitors.

The OECD assesses attractiveness using over 50 factors, considering economic health, connectivity, visitor experience, environment, resident well-being, and many more. "Regional

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attractiveness compasses" are tools aiding leaders in understanding strengths and weaknesses, guiding decisions to balance environmental protection and overall well-being.

Key findings include:

- **Investments:** Technology, quality universities, and efficient transportation attract foreign investments.
- **Talented People:** Affordability, fast internet, and an international student presence enhance a region's appeal.
- **Visitors:** A clean environment, vibrant places, and an international student presence attract visitors.

The report emphasizes collaborative policymaking among governments and communities to enhance attractiveness. Learnings from 15 European regions suggest targeted support for struggling regions and tailored plans for unique challenges in border, coastal, island, and mountainous regions.

Looking ahead, the report can inform programs addressing population changes and supporting specific groups. It also guides strategies to market regions effectively. Overall, it serves as a valuable resource for regions and partners, aiding informed decisions for resilience, fairness, and balance in a constantly evolving world (OECD 2023).

Before we deep dive into the analysis, it's crucial to understand the concept of a city index. A city/country index is a ranking system that assesses different elements of a nation or city according to predetermined standards. It gives users a comparative study so they can see how well one place does in comparison to another. The indexes address a wide range of subjects, including the economy, infrastructure, innovation, environment, safety and security, and chances for culture and recreation. In addition to focusing on technology breakthroughs, research and development, quality of life, environmental sustainability, safety and security, and access to culture and recreation, they evaluate economic indicators such as GDP, employment

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rates, and the business environment. We have chosen three city/country indexes to identify the most significant indicators.

- Euromonitor International's Top 100 City Destinations Index (Yasmeen, Vladykin, and Popova 2021) helps tourism organizations and destinations determine locations with substantial tourism growth potential. The index compares 54 indicators split into six main pillars, including tourism performance, health and safety, sustainability, tourism infrastructure, economic and business performance, and finally, tourism policy and attractiveness.
- The Travel & Tourism Development Index 2021 by the World Economic Forum (WEF 2022) provides unique perspectives into each country's strong points and development areas. This latest version stresses the value and seriousness of sustainability and the need of creating a solid foundation in the present to ensure a resilient future.
- Mastercard's Global Destination Cities Index (Mastercard 2019) shows steady growth in international travel and local commerce, with Bangkok being the top city for the fourth consecutive year. Major cities like London, Paris, and Bangkok remain dominant, with Asia-Pacific cities experiencing the largest increase in international travellers since 2009.

In addition to these indexes, 12 tourism research papers were selected. These articles will aid in understanding the different concepts and methods that have been created during the last decades. Some examples are:

- The Čibinskienė and Snieškienė (2015) paper evaluates tourism competitiveness using qualitative and quantitative analysis methods, including the input of various experts in the area. Their model of tourism competitiveness considers external (such as resort status, state's monetary policy, and education system) and internal factors (like travel

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agencies, theatres, and zoos). The model suggests that quantitative (quantitative indicators obtained a weight of 55% versus a weight of 45% for qualitative metrics) measures should be chosen for further evaluation to calculate the city tourism competitiveness index.

- Dupeyras and MacCallum (2013) for OECD developed a framework to assess tourism competitiveness in mature tourism economies. The framework incorporates both core and supplementary metrics to assist leaders and organisations in their analysis and offer insightful tourism policy development. The OECD Tourism Papers on Indicators for Measuring Competitiveness in Tourism emphasizes the importance of visitor satisfaction, market trends, economic impact, well-being, justice, governance, security, environmental quality, and health services in enhancing destination attractiveness. The proposed framework encourages the use of existing data sources and encourages further research to gather evidence and apply additional indicators. It also accentuates the need for ongoing refinement and calibration based on pilot testing and evidence gathered from implementation.
- The Cvelbar et al. (2016) article explores the correlation between competitiveness and productivity in tourism, concentrating on tourism contribution to GDP per employee in tourism. The study analysed six pillars using 55 indicators for 139 destinations from 2007 to 2011. Results showed that factors that are specifically measuring tourism elements, such as tourism infrastructure and destination management, are the main drivers in developing countries. On the other hand, destination competitiveness in more developed countries depend not only on tourism specific factors, but also consider wider economic conditions. The research grants a unique proposition to operationalizing and estimating a tourism competitiveness framework and considers its possible influences for tourism policy. This paper also underscores the imperative of addressing one of the

main objectives (which is normally overlooked) of destination competitiveness and management: improving resident welfare.

- The Sánchez and López (2015) model results support the importance of services, specialization, prices, reputation, economic development, prices, and tourist arrivals in determining destination competitiveness. Some influential factors include leisure supply, culture, general infrastructure, weather, accessibility, tourist assessment, tourist infrastructure, and events. Destination managers must address three elements: inherited factors, indirect control, and direct changes. They can improve specialization through marketing activities, create resources like libraries, museums, sports clubs, and large department stores, and improve the environment to attract tourists. By analyzing this framework, they can discover the correlation between certain variables and tourist arrivals and identify what can be boosted or maintained to increase competitiveness. It uses the OLS method to analyse the relationship between tourism arrivals, GDP per capita, employment, and gross value added (GVA) for tourism. The results show that tourism contributes to 11% of Spain's GDP. The study suggests that regions with fewer tourist arrivals can offer high employment and tourism GVA, while those with more arrivals may not.

2.3. Scope and Methodology

In order to achieve the objectives outlined previously, many indicators were collected from various sources (ranging from 2005, all the way to 2023) to better understand which indicators proved to be the most important and recurrent when evaluating the attractiveness of a city in the tourism sector. More specifically, 15 sources were used, 3 of them being city/country indexes (Mastercard 2019; WEF 2022; Yasmineen, Vladykin, and Popova 2021), while the remaining 12 consist of numerous research papers that investigate tourism and destination competitiveness and which indicators/drivers are more relevant (Čibinskienė and Snieškienė

2015; Cvelbar et al. 2016; Dupeyras and MacCallum 2013; Gooroochurn and Sugiyarto 2005; Guo, Jiang, and Long 2019; Mira, Moura, and Breda 2016; OECD 2023; Perna, Custódio, and Oliveira 2018; Sánchez and López 2015; Sarancha 2020; Soares, Muñoz, and Alarcón-Urbistondo 2018; Weng, Xiao, and Yu 2022). These indexes and papers were chosen as they provided the specific indicators used in their respective frameworks. This established a considerable limitation as many others merely stated vague dimensions and sub-dimensions such as “safety” or “friendly people”. Another limitation was the fact that a sizeable number of research papers (an example is the research by Fernández et al. (2020)) used either all or selected some (to tweak and adapt their framework to the destinations’ reality) of the existing indicators from the *Travel & Tourism Development Index* (WEF 2022) since it’s arguably the most significant tourism competitiveness index at this moment. Obviously, as the indicators from the original have been incorporated, including further research papers with the same indicators would bias the results.

All the extracted indicators were separated into several dimensions and sub-dimensions (which were decided by using many of the dimensions in order to better comprehend which areas are mainly used when evaluating city attractiveness. An additional reason for this segregation is due to the immense diversity of indicators (301 unique indicators) where a significant amount were trying to measure very similar dimensions. The complete list can be observed in [Appendix I](#) (“Total” column is calculated by summing all of the indicators utilized, including any repetitions, which is represented in the “#” column).

2.4. Data Analysis

Each of four dimensions (Visitor Appeal, Social, Environment and Economic Attractiveness) will be looked at and analysed using a table ([Tables II, III, IV and V](#)) summarizing the recurrent indicators in descending order of the number of indicators extracted (and therefore, “importance” when evaluating attractiveness in the tourism sector).

Visitor Appeal

The dimension that proved to be the most noteworthy was, as expected, Visitor Appeal which includes various sub-dimensions such as Tourism Supply and Demand, Entertainment and Infrastructure, Cultural Capital, Pricing, Accessibility and Tourism Information. Around 40.1% (out of a total of 446, including repetitions) of all indicators belonged to this dimension.

Table II – Indicators from the Visitor Appeal dimension

Dimension	Sub-dimension	Total	Indicator	#
Visitor Appeal	Tourism Supply/Demand	67	Number of enterprises of accommodation, catering and similar	6
			Expenditure of international tourists	6
			International tourist arrivals	5
			Number of tourist accommodation beds/rooms	5
			Average Length of stay	4
			Number of nights spent in tourist accommodation	4
			Tourism contribution to GDP	4
			Tourism density	3
			Total domestic tourism revenue of each city	3
			Seasonality Index	2
			Share of overnight stays by foreign tourists	2
			Accommodation Occupancy rate	2
			Number of Tour operators	2
	Entertainment and Infrastructure	42	Retail and recreation	4
			Number of car rentals	3
			Culinary heritage	2
			Total number of world-famous music festivals	2
			Sports Clubs Index	2
			Number of amusement/theme parks	2
			Number of zoos	2
	Cultural Capital	31	Number of UNESCO World Heritage Sites	8
			Number of museums	6
			Number of art facilities	3
			Share of employment in culture and creative industries	3
			Number of tourist attractions per thousand people	2
	Pricing	19	Purchasing power parity	5
			Accommodation prices	4
			Fuel prices	2
	Accessibility	11	Visa requirements	7
	Tourism Information	9	Visitor satisfaction	2
Total		179		

II - Own elaboration

This significance is further highlighted by the higher weight coefficient (of indicators in this dimension) in some frameworks (such as Čibinskienė and Snieškienė 2015; Soares, Muñoz, and Alarcón-Urbistondo 2018; Yasmeen, Vladykin, and Popova 2021) used when calculating

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attractiveness and other authors that use tourist arrivals as the independent variable in their proposed model (such as Sánchez and López 2015; Weng, Xiao, and Yu 2022).

As can be seen in Table II, the primary sub-dimension are indicators focused on quantifying tourism supply and demand with the most popular indicators measuring the number of accommodation enterprises, rooms/beds and the expenditure and arrivals of international tourists. However, even though a great diversity of indicators were used (only 13 of the 32 unique indicators were repeated), the majority consist of tourism performance indicators. The significance of tourism performance indicators is further underlined by various authors and organizations: Sánchez and López (2015) single out tourist arrivals, expenditure and satisfaction as the key destination competitiveness indicators; in Euromonitor's index, Yasmeen, Vladykin, and Popova (2021) explain that performance indicators illustrate how well the industry is performing while Dupeyras and MacCallum (2013) place value on the use of overnights (sustaining an engaging tourist experience that encourages guests to extend their overnight visits is a key metric of destination competitiveness) and inbound tourism revenues (analysing the evolution of such can help assess the expansion or decline of a destination's respective tourism sector).

Entertainment and infrastructure followed with the number of retail and recreational enterprises being the most recurrent indicator. Once more, the lack of a high number of repeating indicators indicates the sheer diversity of indicators used. The bulk of measurements utilized here (Appendix I) consist of the enumeration of a certain activity or its infrastructure (such as the number of tennis clubs, large sport stadiums or opera houses). Euromonitor actually attributes the highest weight coefficient (in their framework) to this sub-dimension since a successful and developed destination depends heavily on its infrastructure, which supports the tourism supply chain, creates jobs, increases demand, and improves visitor experiences. (Yasmeen, Vladykin, and Popova 2021).

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Next came cultural capital where more than half of sources registered the Number of UNESCO World Heritage Sites as an indicator, with it also being the most frequent indicator overall. The number of museums also proved to be a recurring factor. OECD (2023) emphasize that cultural capital is a critical tool and serve as a valuable asset that regions can utilize to attract visitors while Dupeyras and MacCallum (2013) affirm destinations gain a competitive advantage by granting visitors one-of-a-kind experiences through culture.

The subsequent sub-dimension was pricing where purchasing power parity (PPP) and accommodation prices were the leading indicators. WEF (2022) explains that reduced travel-related expenses enhance a destination's appeal to visitors and simultaneously makes its travel and travel sector more enticing for investors. Dupeyras and MacCallum (2013) defend the use of PPP as one of the most crucial elements influencing the choice of location is the fluctuation of costs, since prices play a crucial and sizable role in a destination's overall tourist attractiveness.

Lastly, the remaining two sub-dimensions are accessibility and tourism information. Indicators such as visitor satisfaction or city popularity on google trends weren't popular among the 15 sources. On the other hand, even though there weren't many diverse indicators in the accessibility sub-dimension, visa requirements (ease of access) were a prominent factor (2nd most recurring indicator). This is due to the fact that restrictive policies depreciate a visitors' willingness to travel to a destination (WEF 2022). Dupeyras and MacCallum (2013) also highlight the relevance in easing visa requirements as this enables visitors to migrate freely which, in turn, enhances a destinations' capability to be a serious competitor in the global tourism marketplace and achieve the associated benefits.

Social

Social was the second most influential dimension that is comprised of the following sub-dimensions: Transportation, Digitalisation, Safety and Security, Health, Social Cohesion,

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Education, Government, Demographic. Approximately 34.8% of indicators belonged to the social dimension.

Table III – Indicators from the Social dimension

Dimension	Sub-dimension	Total	Indicator	#
Social	Transportation	34	Number of airline operators	3
			Quality of aviation infrastructure	3
			Road density	3
			Share of individuals satisfied with the quality of public transport (%)	2
			Quality of railway infrastructure	2
			Quality of roads	2
			Adequate access to public transport	2
			The actual road area in each city	2
	Digitalisation	25	Share of households with access to internet (%)	5
			Broadband internet subscribers	2
			Possession of mobile telephone	2
	Safety and Security	23	Crime rate	5
			Number of intentional homicides per 100,000 population	3
			Share of the population that feel safe walking alone at night (%)	2
			Global terrorism index	2
			Political instability and absence of violence index	2
			Reliability of police services	2
	Health	20	Physician density	4
			Number of hospital beds	3
			Share of the population satisfied with the availability or quality of healthcare (%)	2
	Social Cohesion	16	Poverty rate	2
	Education	16	Share of the population with tertiary education (%)	4
			Number of universities in the World's top ranking	3
	Government	12	Share of the tourism sector in government expenditure	5
			Priority given to the tourism industry	2
			Efficiency of marketing and branding to attract tourists	2
	Demographic	9	Total population	4
			Population density	2
Total		155		

III - Own elaboration

According to Table III, transportation was the most essential social sub-dimension. There weren't any clear "winners" but the number of airline operators, quality of aviation infrastructure and road density were the most frequently used indicators here. Sánchez and López (2015) underline that transport infrastructure is a crucial element to acknowledge when choosing a location since it provides mobility options that may greatly improve the entire travel experience. Dupeyras and MacCallum (2013) also classify connectivity as a fundamental of destination competitiveness: tourism attractiveness, visitor influx and economic gains are all

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influenced by easier accessibility of air routes, abundance of flight operators and the travel time from primary markets. The WEF (2022), in addition to praising the importance of air connectivity, also mention the relevance of having effective and readily accessible port and ground transit, especially when it comes to crucial corporate hubs and popular tourist sites.

Digitalisation was the sub-dimension that followed. The share of households with access to internet was the standout indicator. Only three indicators were repeated, suggesting a high diversity of indicators used. Euromonitor highlights the immense influence that the digital landscape has in this day and age, describing it as a pivotal force in the emerging business landscape that promotes efficiency and creativity, builds relationships between suppliers and customers, and speeds up the exchange of information (Yasmeen, Vladykin, and Popova 2021). OECD (2023) even label this new era of technology as a “game changer for tourism businesses” by allowing small and medium-sized enterprises to reach domestic and international consumers more easily. They additionally point out that the digital era provided new opportunities for the tourism sector with the emergence of digital nomads (remote workers that travel due to their flexible schedule), a new and growing customer market. Moreover, the WEF (2022) identify ICT (Information and Communications Technology) as crucial for enabling companies to understand and expand their customer base and improve operational effectiveness.

Safety and security were the subsequent sub-dimension. Crime rate and the number of intentional homicides per 100,000 population were the most persistently used indicators. Obviously, the destinations with safety and security issues (high levels of crime for example) deflect visitors and reduce attractiveness (WEF 2022).

Next came the health sub-dimension. A great variety of indicators used meant that there were few repeated indicators. Nonetheless, physician density was the main indicator used. Interestingly, out of the four sources from 2021 to 2023 used, only Euromonitor uses indicators that take into account the recent COVID-19 pandemic, validating this decision by asserting that

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the arrival of Covid-19 induced major changes in the tourism sector, meaning a higher emphasis should be put on health and safety as everyone recovers (Yasmeen, Vladykin, and Popova 2021). WEF (2022) actually also mention that the pandemic underscored the sector's vulnerability to communicable diseases but clarify that they don't consider the pandemic in their framework. OECD (2023) highlight the potential and opportunity in the growing over-65 age group in Europe as around half don't travel due to health reasons. By offering good quality and accessible healthcare, these destinations can increase attractiveness for this target.

Social cohesion, just like the health sub-dimension, additionally shows a high diversity of indicators with only one used twice: Poverty rate.

Education was on par with the total number of indicators (16) as the previous sub-dimension, with the share of the population with tertiary education (%) and the number of universities in the world's top ranking being the favoured measurements. Sánchez and López (2015) explain that better education leads to better quality labour which, in turn, leads to increased quality in tourism services. Dupeyras and MacCallum (2013) also highlight the importance of education, since, as tourism is a service industry, an elevated level of education results in a positive impact on overall visitor experience. OECD (2023) make a compelling case for an increase in visitor attractiveness with a higher share of foreign students because they can also play a role in strengthening the tourism industry because, in addition to being tourists themselves (when they stay in a location away from home for less than 12 months at a time), students continue to be active online (such as social media) and make various posts of where they are at, resulting in a sort of unconscious promotion of that destination. Furthermore, the city and area where the students are studying are regularly visited by friends and family.

Penultimately, the government sub-dimension didn't prove to be too key but there was a standout indicator: share of the tourism sector in government expenditure. WEF (2022) disclose that the prioritization of tourism sector by the government can be essential due to factors such

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as providing the necessary funds to evolve the sector and being able to directly market a destination. Funding and investment from governments represents a certain level of dedication in improving and developing destination competitiveness (Dupeyras and MacCallum 2013).

Finally, indicators from the demographic sub-dimension weren't the most influential in the various frameworks studied (a mere 9 measurements were used), with the total population being the most recurrent indicator.

Environment

The environmental dimension established itself as the third most influential one (with approximately 13.9% of all indicators), interestingly ahead of economic attractiveness which makes sense now more than ever as a growing number of travellers are actively looking for sustainable and environmentally friendly travel options, which is pushing the sector to evolve and serve these consumers. (OECD 2023). It is composed of two sub-dimensions: a more general environmental sub-dimension and natural capital.

Table IV – Indicators from the Environment dimension

Dimension	Sub-dimension	Total	Indicator	#
Environment	Environment	40	Air pollution (average level in µg/m³)	6
			Access to improved water sources	4
			Annual average temperature (°C)	3
			Share of renewables in electricity production (%)	2
			Improved sanitation facilities	2
			Water pollution	2
			Particulate matter (2.5) concentration	2
	Natural Capital	22	Share of protected areas (%)	5
			Green coverage rate of built-up areas in each city (%)	2
			Number of parks	2
Number of beaches awarded with blue flag in relation with the total number of beaches available in the destination			2	
Total		62		

IV - Own elaboration

Starting off with the environment sub-dimension ([Table IV](#)), the indicators used here, for the most part, are tied with sustainability measures and pollution/waste, with a few exceptions such as the annual average temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$). The two primarily used indicators were air pollution (average level in $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and access to improved water sources. Euromonitor underline

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the potential risks of ESG (environmental, social and governance) problems like pollution which can lead to decreased destination reputation and attractiveness (Yasmeen, Vladykin, and Popova 2021). WEF (2022) equally dedicate a whole pillar for sustainability and environmental issues and really emphasize that the value of protecting the environment for, not only assuring a desirable destination right now, but also protecting the future attractiveness of a destination cannot be “overstated”. They additionally justify the usage of indicators such as the use of renewable energy and investment in green infrastructure to further understand how a nation's readiness, openness, and willingness to face climate change, a serious long-term danger that the tourism industry is dealing with. Even though the population's consciousness of environmental problems has intensified over the last few years, Gooroochurn and Sugiyarto (2005) also pointed out the relevance in establishing a great quality environment “in light of the increasing number of environmentally conscious tourists” all the way back in 2005.

One particular measurement stood out in the natural capital sub-dimension: Share of protected areas (%). The protection and promotion of such areas allows destinations businesses have the opportunity to distinguish themselves in an increasingly crowded market by showcasing their environmental and sustainable credentials which, instead of attracting mass tourism for quicker return and growth, can consist of prioritizing visitors who value natural and cultural experiences (OECD 2023). Dupeyras and MacCallum (2013) in like manner accentuate the value in protecting natural capital as destinations can gain competitive advantages by providing unique experiences with these resources. Furthermore, WEF (2022) support the importance of natural resources by justifying that destinations with natural capital are “better positioned to attract tourists.”.

Economic Attractiveness

Finally, the last dimension with only about 11.2% of all indicators is economic attractiveness. This dimension is comprised of following sub-dimensions: Economy, Business

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Environment, Labour Market, Openness, Innovation and Entrepreneurship, Land and Housing. The sub-dimension with the most influence is, as expected, the economic scope (Table V). Only two indicators were repeated, with GDP per capita being the most noteworthy measurement. Euromonitor explain that this type of indicator provides insights on the degree of development of the city and the stability of its economy to assist the growth of tourism (Yasmeen, Vladykin, and Popova 2021).

Table V – Indicators from the Economic Attractiveness dimension

Dimension	Sub-dimension	Total	Indicator	#
Economic Attractiveness	Economy	18	GDP per capita	4
			Disposable income per capita	2
	Business Environment	13	FDI and technology transfer	2
	Labour Market	12	Employment rate	4
	Openness	7	Number of regional trade agreements in force	2
			Openness of bilateral air services agreements	2
Total		50		

V - Own Elaboration

The subsequent sub-dimension is business environment where no indicator really distinguishes itself (only FDI and technology transfer was repeated, demonstrating a diverse usage of indicators). WEF (2022) reference that empirical research has demonstrated significant associations between economic expansion and variables like property rights preservation and the effectiveness of the legal system which would, in turn, also help prosper the tourism sector. They also mention the importance of measuring financial accessibility for small and medium-sized enterprises since this type of business dominates the tourism sector.

Next came the labour market sub-dimension. The most recurrent indicator used was employment rate. OECD (2023) give some importance to this measure and explain that the sector can attract talent include raising skill levels, enhancing credentials, supporting training programmes, and developing creative recruiting strategies. By doing this, the sector can increase the quality of service offered and, therefore, achieve a higher competitiveness and visitor attractiveness.

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Finally, the last relevant sub-dimension is openness. The only two repeated indicators were the number of regional trade agreements in force and the openness of bilateral air services agreements. WEF (2022) justify the use of these indicators as, firstly, it can reflect the degree to which it is feasible to offer world-class tourism services and also the availability of air connections.

It is worth noting that three additional sub-dimensions (innovation and entrepreneurship, land, and housing) were omitted in [Table V](#) as very few indicators in these areas were collected and zero indicators were repeated (all three sub-dimensions can be observed in [Appendix I](#)).

Overview

[Table VI](#) summarizes all the indicators where at least one-third of sources used them (i.e. any indicator utilized 5 or more times).

Table VI – Indicators with at least five repetitions

Dimension	Indicator	#
Visitor Appeal	Number of UNESCO World Heritage Sites	8
	Visa requirements	7
	Number of enterprises of accommodation, catering and similar	6
	Expenditure of international tourists	6
	Number of museums	6
	Number of tourist accommodation beds/rooms	5
	Purchasing power parity	5
	International tourist arrivals	5
Environment	Air pollution (average level in $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	6
	Share of protected areas (%)	5
Social	Share of households with access to internet (%)	5
	Crime rate	5
	Share of the tourism sector in government expenditure	5

VI - Own Elaboration

2.5. Conclusions and Future Research

The list of indicators presented previously ([Table VI](#)) is good representation of what should be considered generally when evaluating the attractiveness of a destination. However, it shouldn't be taken by face value for many reasons.

The first one being that the economical dimension isn't represented. Even though it was found to be the least influential, it should still be considered for the reasons that were put

forward in the indicator analysis.

Secondly, this list doesn't consider the varied importance given to certain dimensions relative to others. For instance, Euromonitor (Yasmeen, Vladykin, and Popova 2021), Čibinskienė and Snieškienė (2015) and Soares, Muñoz, and Alarcón-Urbistondo (2018) attribute different weights (meaning some dimensions are more important than others) to different pillars. The need of using weighted coefficients can also come from the varied demand and necessity of each destination and business owner. An example of this is the implementation of a technologically advanced hotel. It would make sense for the owner to want to maximize the benefits when choosing a destination and therefore, using an index for smart tourism like the one made by Chung et al. (2021) can help the owner's specific needs.

Another example can be using a conference tourism competitiveness framework (Welthagen, Slabbert, and Du Plessis 2022) for a remote worker focused hotel. With tourism being a pretty dynamic industry, the addition of relevant indicators to current trends and situations to the general indicators (Table VI) can be valuable. Euromonitor (Yasmeen, Vladykin, and Popova 2021) include three indicators that evaluates a destination's COVID-19 situation for their index in 2021.

In conclusion, the paper offers a thorough understanding of the multifaceted character of destination appeal. The Social, Environmental, and Economic components all make a substantial contribution to the overall evaluation, with Visitor Appeal clearly standing out as the most important one. The study recognises the need for a nuanced approach that considers the unique necessities and desires of various locations and enterprises. The range of indicators highlights the complexity of evaluating destination attractiveness.

All things considered, the study offers a strong basis for further investigation and highlights the need of a comprehensive and flexible method for assessing destination attractiveness in the dynamic context of the tourist sector.

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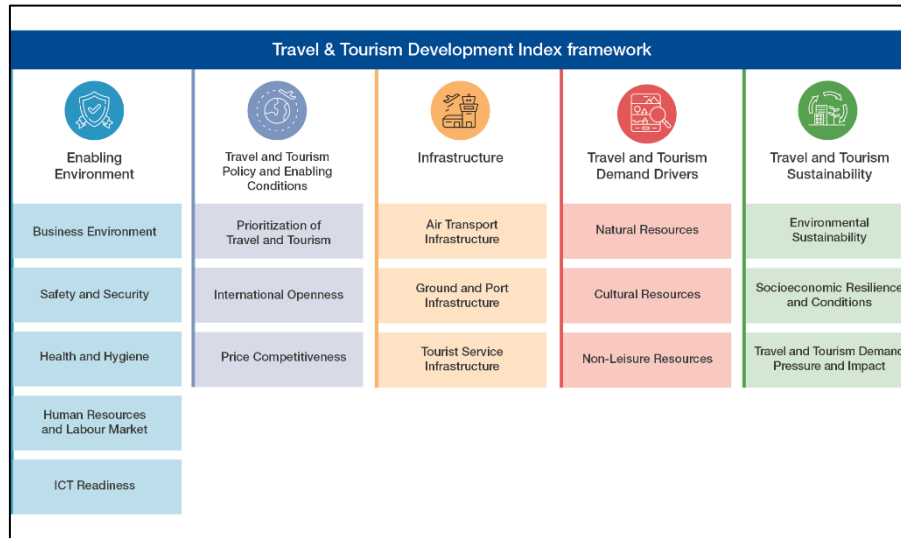
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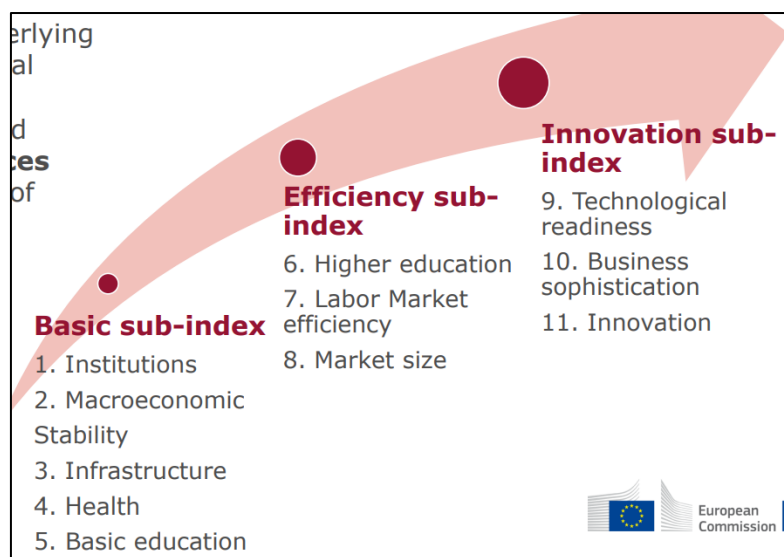
4. Appendix

A. 5 pillars of the T&TDI framework



A - WEF (2022)

B. The EU Regional Competitiveness Index pillars



B - EC (2023)

C. Database of all the indexes and performance indicators of each city

LISBON											
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Indexes											
T&TDI (Country)	-	5.01	-	4.64	-	4.74	-	4.9	-	4.8	-
European Rank	-	13 ^e	-	9 ^e	-	8 ^e	-	8 ^e	-	9 ^e	-
RCI 2.0 (Regional NUTS II)	-	-	-	-	101.7	-	-	100.2	-	-	110.0
European Rank	-	-	-	-	111 ^e	-	-	109 ^e	-	-	68 ^e
Tourism Performance											
Arrivals	2,949,579	3,086,589	3,824,011	4,166,183	4,567,931	5,218,386	5,510,934	5,980,014	1,519,280	2,162,615	5,556,154
Growth of Arrivals	-	4.44%	19.28%	8.21%	8.79%	12.46%	5.31%	7.84%	-293.61%	29.75%	61.08%
Overnights	6,789,166	7,237,915	9,008,523	9,999,851	11,066,130	12,553,476	13,184,470	13,985,262	3,481,886	5,138,469	13,334,237
ALOS	2.30	2.34	2.36	2.40	2.42	2.41	2.39	2.34	2.29	2.38	2.40
ADR	€ 85.0	€ 84.0	€ 85.0	€ 91.0	€ 98.0	€ 103.0	€ 111.8	€ 111.0	€ 87.5	€ 101.2	€ 130.8
Occupancy	63.4%	65.0%	71.0%	75.9%	76.0%	79.5%	78.2%	78.0%	23.2%	29.1%	68.0%
RevPAR	€ 53.9	€ 54.6	€ 60.4	€ 69.1	€ 74.5	€ 81.9	€ 87.4	€ 86.5	€ 20.3	€ 29.5	€ 89.0

PORTO											
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Indexes											
T&TDI (Country)	-	5.01	-	4.64	-	4.74	-	4.9	-	4.8	-
European Rank	-	13 ^e	-	9 ^e	-	8 ^e	-	8 ^e	-	9 ^e	-
RCI 2.0 (Regional NUTS II)	-	-	-	-	75.8	-	-	78	-	-	92.1
European Rank	-	-	-	-	164 ^e	-	-	173 ^e	-	-	135 ^e
Tourism Performance											
Arrivals	952,185	1,047,747	1,294,066	1,459,060	1,638,128	1,876,720	1,996,461	2,245,291	619,644	913,883	2,267,125
Growth of Arrivals	-	9.12%	19.03%	11.31%	10.93%	12.71%	6.00%	11.08%	-262.35%	32.20%	59.69%
Overnights	1,815,157	2,012,153	2,548,591	2,879,833	3,300,011	3,782,858	4,091,975	4,587,237	1,243,952	1,874,637	4,819,168
ALOS	1.91	1.92	1.97	1.97	2.01	2.02	2.05	2.04	2.01	2.05	2.13
ADR	€ 62.0	€ 63.0	€ 64.0	€ 72.0	€ 79.0	€ 92.0	€ 101.0	€ 106.0	€ 78.6	-	€ 105.3
Occupancy	55%	60.0%	66.2%	73.1%	77.5%	78.4%	76.7%	77.9%	24.7%	30.3%	66.2%
RevPAR	€ 34.1	€ 37.8	€ 42.4	€ 52.6	€ 61.2	€ 72.1	€ 77.5	€ 82.6	€ 19.4	-	€ 69.7

BARCELONA											
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Indexes											
T&TDI (Country)	-	5.38	-	5.31	-	5.43	-	5.2	-	5.2	-
European Rank	-	4 ^e	-	1 ^e	-	1 ^e	-	3 ^e	-	1 ^e	-
RCI 2.0 (Regional NUTS II)	-	-	-	-	96.9	-	-	93.3	-	-	100.8
European Rank	-	-	-	-	117 ^e	-	-	131 ^e	-	-	108 ^e
Tourism Performance											
Arrivals	9,855,388	9,866,483	10,352,993	10,751,829	11,709,408	12,066,363	12,279,527	12,811,488	3,007,241	5,151,486	11,271,883
Growth of Arrivals	-	0.11%	4.70%	3.71%	8.18%	2.96%	1.74%	4.15%	-326.02%	41.62%	54.30%
Overnights	26,422,738	26,879,566	27,896,499	29,156,950	31,117,341	32,197,097	32,089,093	33,452,948	6,724,605	12,906,011	30,250,195
ALOS	2.68	2.72	2.69	2.71	2.66	2.67	2.61	2.61	2.24	2.51	2.68
ADR	€ 108.6	€ 109.3	€ 109.6	€ 117.6	€ 120.8	€ 128.2	€ 125.5	€ 134.2	€ 97.3	€ 95.4	€ 142.3
Occupancy	72.1%	73.0%	73.6%	77.5%	79.4%	79.2%	78.8%	81.0%	41.4%	50.6%	76.7%
RevPAR	€ 78.3	€ 79.8	€ 80.7	€ 91.0	€ 95.9	€ 101.5	€ 98.9	€ 108.9	€ 40.4	€ 48.3	€ 109.0

	MADRID										
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Indexes											
T&TDI (Country)	-	5.38	-	5.31	-	5.43	-	5.2	-	5.2	-
European Rank	-	4 ^e	-	1 ^e	-	1 ^e	-	3 ^e	-	1 ^e	-
RCI 2.0 (Regional NUTS II)	-	-	-	-	118.3	-	-	114.5	-	-	118.6
European Rank	-	-	-	-	69 ^e	-	-	62 ^e	-	-	36 ^e
Tourism Performance											
Arrivals	9,833,343	9,200,748	10,283,427	11,162,386	11,489,311	12,066,592	12,436,260	12,684,312	3,586,687	6,265,506	11,060,399
Growth of Arrivals	-	-6.88%	10.53%	7.87%	2.85%	4.78%	2.97%	1.96%	-253.65%	42.76%	43.35%
Overnights	18,625,877	17,776,728	19,855,705	21,695,127	22,236,492	24,004,619	24,533,802	25,655,626	7,431,827	12,622,936	22,205,378
ALOS	1.89	1.93	1.93	1.94	1.94	1.99	1.97	2.02	2.07	2.01	2.01
ADR	€ 83.5	€ 79.4	€ 79.2	€ 83.1	€ 86.8	€ 95.8	€ 95.7	€ 103.7	€ 82.0	€ 87.3	€ 118.6
Occupancy	63.4%	60.7%	66.8%	71.8%	72.9%	75.6%	76.8%	77.9%	43.6%	47.0%	66.9%
RevPAR	€ 52.9	€ 48.2	€ 52.9	€ 59.7	€ 63.3	€ 72.4	€ 73.5	€ 80.8	€ 35.9	€ 41.0	€ 79.2

	AMSTERDAM										
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Indexes											
T&TDI (Country)	-	5.14	-	4.67	-	4.64	-	4.9	-	4.9	-
European Rank	-	8 ^e	-	8 ^e	-	9 ^e	-	9 ^e	-	8 ^e	-
RCI 2.0 (Regional NUTS II)	-	-	-	-	143.0	-	-	140.3	-	-	140.6
European Rank	-	-	-	-	9 ^e	-	-	5 ^e	-	-	4 ^e
Tourism Performance											
Arrivals	5,738,000	6,024,000	6,671,000	6,826,000	7,270,000	8,260,000	8,577,000	9,209,000	2,959,000	2,887,000	6,989,000
Growth of Arrivals	-	4.75%	9.70%	2.27%	6.11%	11.99%	3.70%	6.86%	-211.22%	-2.49%	58.69%
Overnights	10,563,000	11,262,000	12,538,000	12,899,000	13,983,000	15,858,000	16,673,000	18,375,000	5,802,000	5,775,000	15,779,000
ALOS	1.84	1.87	1.88	1.89	1.92	1.92	1.94	2.00	1.96	2.00	2.26
ADR	€ 109.0	€ 109.0	€ 114.0	€ 124.0	€ 132.0	€ 138.0	€ 150.0	€ 135.0	€ 96.0	€ 108.0	€ 164.0
Occupancy	75.0%	76.0%	79.0%	81.0%	82.0%	84.0%	84.0%	84.0%	26.0%	31.0%	70.0%
RevPAR	€ 81.8	€ 82.8	€ 90.1	€ 100.4	€ 108.2	€ 115.9	€ 126.0	€ 113.4	€ 25.0	€ 33.5	€ 114.8

	VIENNA										
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Indexes											
T&TDI (Country)	-	5.39	-	4.82	-	4.86	-	4.9	-	4.9	-
European Rank	-	3 ^e	-	7 ^e	-	7 ^e	-	6 ^e	-	7 ^e	-
RCI 2.0 (Regional NUTS II)	-	-	-	-	123.1	-	-	125.8	-	-	118.9
European Rank	-	-	-	-	51 ^e	-	-	25 ^e	-	-	33 ^e
Tourism Performance											
Arrivals	5,604,522	5,836,669	6,210,888	6,589,031	6,883,512	7,099,233	7,539,810	7,926,768	2,007,420	2,076,729	5,597,133
Growth of Arrivals	-	3.98%	6.03%	5.74%	4.28%	3.04%	5.84%	4.88%	-294.87%	3.34%	62.90%
Overnights	12,262,828	12,719,289	13,524,266	14,328,261	14,962,438	15,512,730	16,483,497	17,604,573	4,590,272	4,996,746	13,204,666
ALOS	2.19	2.18	2.18	2.17	2.17	2.19	2.19	2.22	2.29	2.41	2.36
ADR	-	€ 70.6	€ 69.2	€ 79.8	€ 75.4	€ 80.2	€ 86.8	€ 92.4	€ 79.4	€ 96.5	€ 109.2
Occupancy	72.7%	74.5%	77.5%	72.3%	74.4%	75.6%	77.8%	80.2%	28.7%	31.0%	58.7%
RevPAR	-	€ 52.6	€ 53.6	€ 57.7	€ 56.1	€ 60.6	€ 67.5	€ 74.1	€ 22.8	€ 29.9	€ 64.1

	PARIS										
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Indexes											
T&TDI (Country)	-	5.31	-	5.24	-	5.32	-	5.1	-	5.1	-
European Rank	-	6 ^e	-	2 ^e	-	2 ^e	-	4 ^e	-	2 ^e	-
RCI 2.0 (Regional NUTS II)	-	-	-	-	145.1	-	-	143.7	-	-	142.0
European Rank	-	-	-	-	5 ^e	-	-	2 ^e	-	-	3 ^e
Tourism Performance											
Arrivals	15,481,000	15,593,000	15,704,000	15,208,000	14,577,000	16,220,000	16,869,000	17,045,000	-	-	15,860,000
Growth of Arrivals	-	0.72%	0.71%	-3.26%	-4.33%	10.13%	3.85%	1.03%	-	-	-
Overnights	36,742,000	36,499,000	36,514,000	34,649,000	31,743,000	35,698,000	37,771,000	38,022,000	10,955,000	15,350,000	37,663,000
ALOS	2.37	2.34	2.33	2.28	2.18	2.20	2.24	2.23	-	-	2.37
ADR	€ 252.0	€ 252.0	€ 245.0	€ 239.0	€ 225.0	€ 231.0	€ 236.0	€ 241.0	€ 96.3	€ 92.6	€ 287.1
Occupancy	79.5%	78.9%	79.3%	75.1%	69.9%	76.4%	79.6%	78.1%	30.1%	53.7%	75.0%
RevPAR	€ 200.3	€ 198.8	€ 194.3	€ 179.5	€ 157.3	€ 176.5	€ 187.9	€ 188.2	€ 29.0	€ 49.7	€ 215.3

	PRAGUE										
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Indexes											
T&TDI (Country)	-	4.78	-	4.22	-	4.22	-	4.5	-	4.5	-
European Rank	-	22 ^e	-	21 ^e	-	22 ^e	-	17 ^e	-	17 ^e	-
RCI 2.0 (Regional NUTS II)	-	-	-	-	110.6	-	-	117.1	-	-	114.3
European Rank	-	-	-	-	86 ^e	-	-	50 ^e	-	-	46 ^e
Tourism Performance											
Arrivals	5,726,454	5,899,630	6,096,015	6,605,776	7,127,558	7,652,761	7,892,184	8,044,324	2,182,443	2,354,720	5,984,803
Growth of Arrivals	-	2.94%	3.22%	7.72%	7.32%	6.86%	3.03%	1.89%	-268.59%	7.32%	60.66%
Overnights	14,443,143	14,654,282	14,750,287	15,917,265	16,796,384	18,055,838	18,249,084	18,479,653	4,903,295	5,257,254	13,398,104
ALOS	2.52	2.48	2.42	2.41	2.36	2.36	2.31	2.30	2.25	2.23	2.24
ADR	€ 85.0	€ 81.9	€ 77.9	€ 95.5	€ 94.2	€ 100.9	€ 108.2	€ 105.4	€ 40.1	-	€ 104.7
Occupancy	57.9%	59.8%	64.6%	61.8%	65.1%	69.5%	69.2%	70.2%	27.4%	26.9%	51.6%
RevPAR	€ 49.2	€ 49.0	€ 50.3	€ 59.0	€ 61.3	€ 70.1	€ 74.9	€ 74.0	€ 11.0	-	€ 54.0

	ROME										
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Indexes											
T&TDI (Country)	-	4.90	-	4.98	-	4.99	-	4.9	-	4.9	-
European Rank	-	18 ^e	-	6 ^e	-	5 ^e	-	7 ^e	-	6 ^e	-
RCI 2.0 (Regional NUTS II)	-	-	-	-	92.2	-	-	94.0	-	-	91.4
European Rank	-	-	-	-	122 ^e	-	-	129 ^e	-	-	136 ^e
Tourism Performance											
Arrivals	9,720,505	10,232,985	10,813,231	11,298,298	11,536,239	12,403,488	12,783,861	13,036,638	2,508,943	2,800,044	9,666,238
Growth of Arrivals	-	5.01%	5.37%	4.29%	2.06%	6.99%	2.98%	1.94%	-419.61%	10.40%	71.03%
Overnights	22,962,129	24,160,505	25,377,967	26,420,620	26,935,666	29,293,952	30,144,950	30,682,988	5,741,989	5,505,511	21,552,631
ALOS	2.36	2.36	2.35	2.34	2.33	2.36	2.36	2.35	2.29	1.97	2.23
ADR	€ 140.0	€ 142.0	€ 144.1	€ 152.4	€ 151.2	€ 148.6	€ 150.2	€ 153.8	€ 118.4	€ 149.2	€ 195.3
Occupancy	66.0%	67.0%	69.2%	68.4%	69.3%	70.1%	71.8%	71.8%	20.0%	31.0%	67.5%
RevPAR	€ 92.4	€ 95.1	€ 99.7	€ 104.2	€ 104.8	€ 104.2	€ 107.8	€ 110.4	€ 23.7	€ 46.3	€ 131.8

VENICE											
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Indexes											
T&TDI (Country)	-	4.90	-	4.98	-	4.99	-	4.9	-	4.9	-
European Rank	-	18 ^e	-	6 ^e	-	5 ^e	-	7 ^e	-	6 ^e	-
RCI 2.0 (Regional NUTS II)	-	-	-	-	88.9	-	-	90.4	-	-	89.6
European Rank	-	-	-	-	131 ^e	-	-	135 ^e	-	-	146 ^e
Tourism Performance											
Arrivals	2,485,000	2,533,000	2,599,000	2,777,000	2,896,000	3,156,000	3,325,000	3,515,000	923,000	1,513,000	3,180,440
Growth of Arrivals	-	1.89%	2.54%	6.41%	4.11%	8.24%	5.08%	5.41%	-280.82%	39.00%	52.43%
Overnights	6,221,821	6,401,826	6,425,269	6,814,317	7,045,613	7,862,292	8,213,116	8,817,623	2,534,368	4,142,444	7,978,355
ALOS	2.50	2.53	2.47	2.45	2.43	2.49	2.47	2.51	2.75	2.74	2.51
ADR	-	-	€ 304.7	€ 342.8	€ 335.7	€ 346.6	€ 327.1	€ 347.3	€ 264.0	€ 319.5	€ 441.1
Occupancy	-	-	67.8%	68.0%	66.4%	71.1%	66.2%	65.2%	25.0%	31.0%	62.6%
RevPAR	-	-	€ 206.6	€ 233.1	€ 222.9	€ 246.4	€ 216.5	€ 226.4	€ 66.0	€ 99.0	€ 276.1

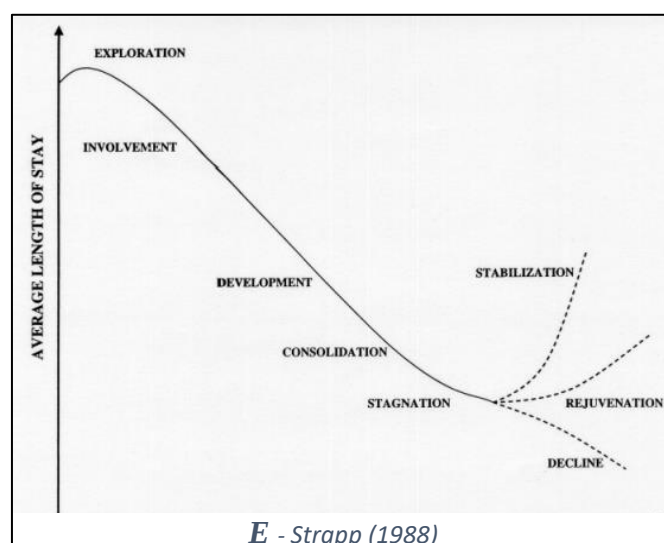
C - Own elaboration

D. Average ALOS and number of overnights (2012-2019)

European Cities	ALOS		European Cities	Overnights	
1. Porto	2.00		1. Porto	3,314,665	
2. Lisbon	2.38	DEVELOPMENT	2. Lisbon	11,005,090	DEVELOPMENT
3. Amsterdam	1.92	CONSOLIDATION	3. Amsterdam	14,512,571	CONSOLIDATION
4. Venice	2.48		4. Venice	7,368,579	
5. Vienna	2.19		5. Vienna	15,019,293	
6. Prague	2.38		6. Prague	16,700,399	
7. Rome	2.35		7. Rome	27,573,807	
8. Barcelona	2.67		8. Barcelona	30,398,499	
9. Madrid	1.96		9. Madrid	22,251,157	
10. Paris	2.26	NEAR STAGNATION	10. Paris	35,842,286	NEAR STAGNATION

D – Own elaboration

E. ALOS as the TALC progresses



F. Average Occupancy (2012-2019)

European Cities	Occupancy	
1. Porto	70.60%	DEVELOPMENT
2. Lisbon	73.38%	
3. Amsterdam	80.63%	CONSOLIDATION
4. Venice	67.45%	
5. Vienna	75.63%	
6. Prague	64.76%	
7. Rome	69.20%	
8. Barcelona	76.83%	
9. Madrid	70.74%	
10. Paris	77.10%	NEAR STAGNATION

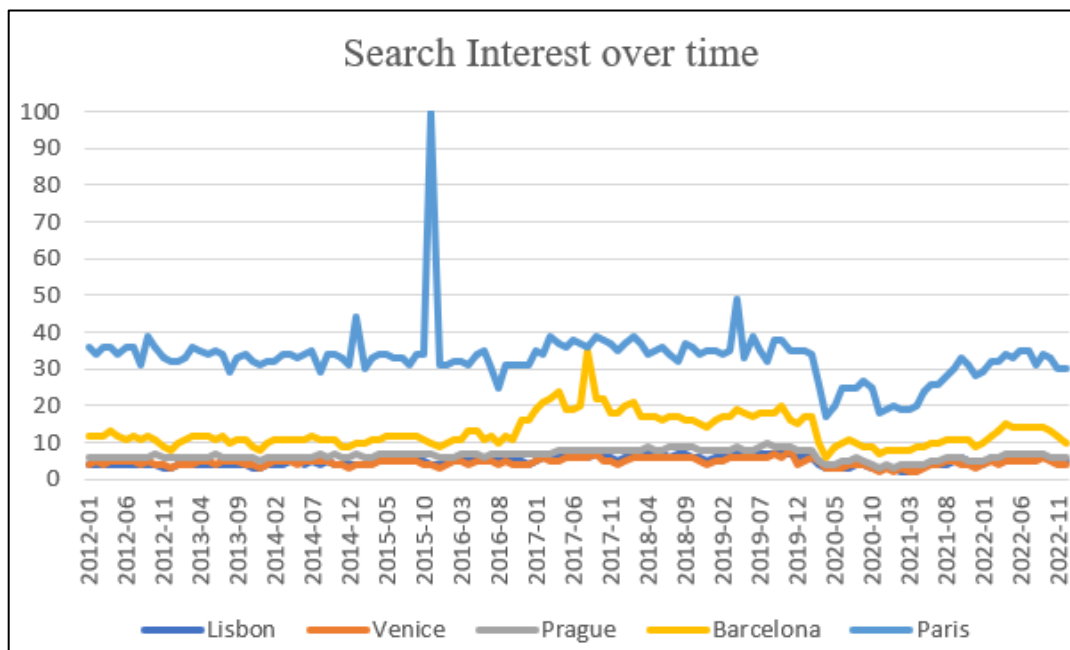
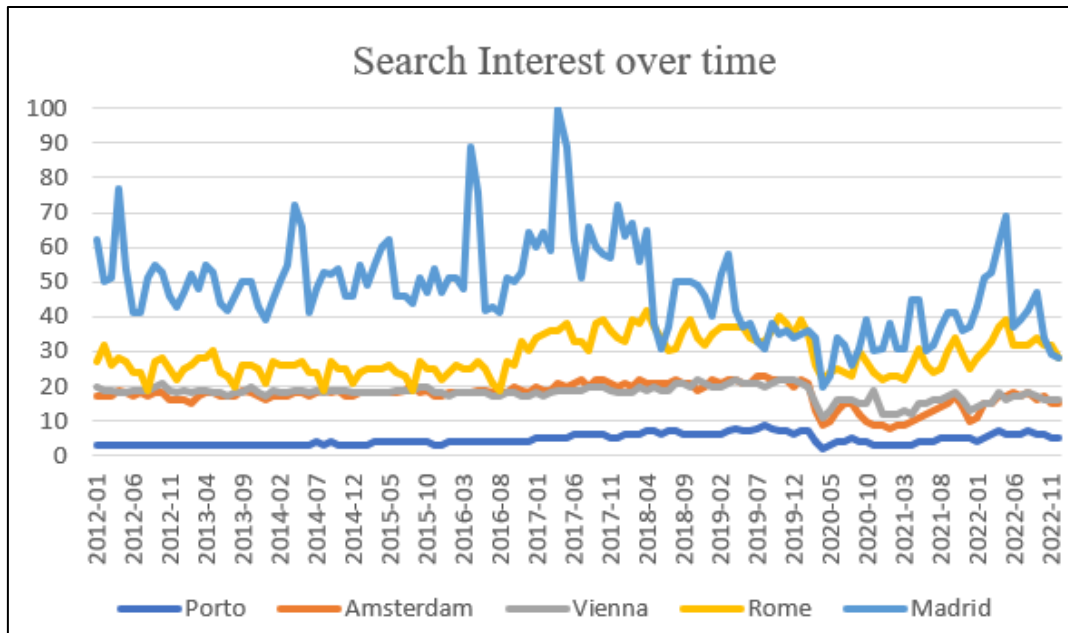
F- Own elaboration

G. Average ADR and RevPAR (2012-2019)

European Cities	ADR		European Cities	RevPAR	
1. Porto	€ 79.9	DEVELOPMENT	1. Porto	€ 57.5	DEVELOPMENT
2. Lisbon	€ 96.1		2. Lisbon	€ 71.0	
3. Amsterdam	€ 126.4	CONSOLIDATION	3. Amsterdam	€ 102.3	CONSOLIDATION
4. Venice	€ 334.0		4. Venice	€ 225.3	
5. Vienna	€ 79.2		5. Vienna	€ 60.3	
6. Prague	€ 93.6		6. Prague	€ 61.0	
7. Rome	€ 147.8		7. Rome	€ 102.3	
8. Barcelona	€ 119.2		8. Barcelona	€ 91.9	
9. Madrid	€ 88.4		9. Madrid	€ 63.0	
10. Paris	€ 240.1	NEAR STAGNATION	10. Paris	€ 185.3	NEAR STAGNATION

G – Own elaboration

H. Google Trends search interest over time (2012-2022)



H - Google (2023)

I. Extracted Indicators from all sources divided in dimensions and sub-dimensions

Dimension	Sub-dimension	Total	Indicator	#
	Tourism Supply/Demand	67	Number of enterprises of accommodation, catering and similar	6
			Expenditure of international tourists	6
			International tourist arrivals	5
			Number of tourist accommodation beds/rooms	5
			Average Length of stay	4
			Number of nights spent in tourist accommodation	4
			Tourism contribution to GDP	4
			Tourism density	3
			Total domestic tourism revenue of each city	3
			Seasonality Index	2
			Share of overnight stays by foreign tourists	2
			Accommodation Occupancy rate	2
			Number of Tour operators	2
			Number of international tourist departures	
			Number of international hotel chains	
			Number of travel companies	
			Number of overnight stays for 1,000 inhabitants	
			Tourism participation indicator	
			Tourism impact indicator	
			Attitude of the local population towards foreign visitors	
			Assessment of environment, restaurants and beaches	
			Short-term rental listing density	
			Number of travel agencies	
			Domestic trips per capita	
			Average Spend per domestic trip	
			Number of domestic tourists received	
			Accommodation conditions of tourist star-rated hotels in each city	
			Total overnight stays from all destinations less the number of overnight stays of the top three source destinations	
			Ratio between the growth rate of the demand (overnight stays) and supply (bed place capacity) over successive periods of 3 years	
			Hotel rooms density	
			Exports of tourism services	
			Labour productivity in tourism services	
	Entertainment and Infrastructure	42	Retail and recreation	4
			Number of car rentals	3
			Culinary heritage	2
			Total number of world-famous music festivals	2
			Sports Clubs Index	2
			Number of amusement/theme parks	2
			Number of zoos	2
			Total number of international sport events	
			Number of golf clubs	
			Total number of world-famous opera houses	
			Total number of international film festivals	
			Number of large sports stadiums	
			Number of performances per thousand people	
			Cultural and entertainment tourism Digital Demand	
			Places to shop	
			Number of shopping malls	
			Number of foodservice outlets	
			Tax free shopping	

Visitor Appeal			Number of tennis clubs	
			Number of food and beverage establishments	
			Quality of town and city centres	
			Number of international fairs and exhibitions	
			Night life	
			Number of concert halls	
			Campings	
			Bike trails	
			Number of holes (offer) in golf courses for 10,000 inhabitants	
			Reviews of the top city attractions on social media platforms	
			Bike rent/repair	
			Rent of water amusement equipment	
			Non-leisure tourism Digital Demand	
			Number of hiking trails	
	Cultural Capital	31	Number of UNESCO World Heritage Sites	8
			Number of museums	6
			Number of art facilities	3
			Share of employment in culture and creative industries	3
			Number of tourist attractions per thousand people	2
			Number of libraries	
			Number of edited books	
			Number of UNESCO Creative Cities	
			A measure of a country's stock of natural assets	
			Events in open spaces of the city	
			Oral and intangible cultural heritage	
			Variety of cultural sights	
			Adequate protection for tangible and intangible cultural heritage	
			Concentration of interest in cultural and nature attractions	
	Pricing	19	Purchasing power parity	5
			Accommodation prices	4
			Fuel prices	2
			Taxi prices	
			Prices for airplane tickets	
			Big Mac Index	
			Mobile/internet tariffs	
			Seasonal Price Gap	
			Ticket taxes, airport charges	
			Price index hotels-restaurants-pubs	
			Short-term rental price	
	Acessibility	11	Visa requirements	7
			Distance ratio between the compared countries and the values for other countries	
			Tourism openness	
			Ratio of the distance to the number of international tourist arrivals in compared states	
	Tourism Information	9	Number of neighboring states	
			Visitor satisfaction	2
			Comprehensiveness of T&T data	
			Sustainability of TT	
			T&T capital investment	
			Timeliness of T&T data	
			Geographically dispersed tourism	
			Availability of tourism information	
			City popularity on Google trends	

Economic Attractiveness	Economy	18	GDP per capita	4
			Disposable income per capita	2
			Households (%) with a Disposable Income Over US\$35,000	
			Gross value-added per worker	
			Economic diversity of employment by 10 economic sectors	
			The ratio of tertiary industry to total GDP in each city (%)	
			General public budget expenditure in each city	
			Consumer expenditure on hotels and catering	
			Consumer expenditure on transport	
			Consumer expenditure on leisure and recreation	
			Regulatory policy	
			Monetary policy	
			Fiscal Policy	
			Economic growth	
	Business Environment	13	FDI and technology transfer	2
			Property rights	
			Venture capital availability	
			Extent of business internet use	
			Firm level of technology absorption	
			Ethical behaviour of firms	
			Intensity of local competition	
			Efficiency of legal framework to settling disputes & actions	
			Ease of complying to tax system	
			SME access to finance	
			Corruption Perceptions Index	
			Doing Business Index	
	Labour Market	12	Employment rate	4
			Unemployment rate	
			Youth employment rate	
			Employment rate of immigrants compared to the native population as a difference (%)	
			Hiring and firing practices	
			Ease of finding skilled employees in local labour market	
			Flexible working arrangements	
			Labour productivity in transport, storage and communications	
			Labour productivity in hotels and restaurants	
	Openness	7	Number of regional trade agreements in force	2
			Openness of bilateral air services agreements	2
			Degree of financial openness	
			Possibilities of currency exchange	
			Taxes on international trade	
	Innovation and Entrepreneurship	5	R&D total personnel	
			Capacity for innovation	
			PCT patent applications	
			Birth rate of employer enterprises	
			Global Innovation Index	
	Land	4	Built-up area (% of total land area)	
			Evolution of land prices (%)	
			Land prices (euro per hectare)	
			Total change in of land cover converted to artificial surfaces (%)	
	Housing	3	Housing expenses as a share of households disposable income (%)	
			Share of population without enough money for housing (%)	
			Share of population satisfied with affordability of housing (%)	
			Air pollution (average level in µg/m³)	6

Environment	Environment	40	Access to improved water sources	4
			Annual average temperature (°C)	3
			Share of renewables in electricity production (%)	2
			Improved sanitation facilities	2
			Water pollution	2
			Particulate matter (2.5) concentration	2
			Ratification of treaties	
			Domestic garbage removal volume	
			The proportion of days in which the air quality of each city reaches and is better than the second level (%)	
			Share of municipal waste recycled (%)	
			Percentage of territory not occupied by the man-made landscape	
			Hours of sunlight	
			Greenhouse gas emissions produced by the transport industry (tonnes of CO2 equivalent per capita)	
			Strictness of environmental regulations	
			Global Climate Risk Index	
			Greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions per capita	
			Investment in green energy and infrastructure	
			Share of the population satisfied with efforts to preserve the environment (%)	
			Mean temperature growth	
			Baseline water stress	
			Red list index	
			Wastewater treatment	
			Clean Ocean Water	
			Number of environmental treaty ratifications	
			Oversight of production impact on the environment and nature	
	Natural Capital	22	Share of protected areas (%)	5
			Green coverage rate of built-up areas in each city (%)	2
			Number of parks	2
			Number of beaches awarded with blue flag in relation with the total number of beaches available in the destination	2
			Per capita park green area (m2)	
			Tree cover rate (% of total area)	
			Quality of natural environment	
			Natural tourism Digital Demand	
			Number of terrestrial and freshwater ecoregions	
			Forest cover loss	
			number of botanical gardens	
			Evolution of the surface area of tree cover 2004-2019 (%)	
			Water bodies, adapted for recreation and tourism	
			Mineral resources	
			Adequate protection for nature	
			Number of airline operators	3
			Quality of aviation infrastructure	3
			Road density	3
			Share of individuals satisfied with the quality of public transport (%)	2
			Quality of railway infrastructure	2
			Quality of roads	2
			Adequate access to public transport	2
			The actual road area in each city	2
			Average distance from the cities of the region to the nearest international airport	

Social	Transportation	34	Number of cruises	
			Number of airports	
			Number of airport passengers	
			Quality of domestic transportation	
			Daily number of passenger flights accessible within 90 minutes by car	
			Port authorities	
			Population that can be reached by road (within 90 minutes) per 100 nearby inhabitants (within 120km radius)	
			Available seat kilometres	
			Road index	
			Port infrastructure quality	
			Airport connectivity	
			Population that can be reached by rail (within 90 minutes) per 100 nearby inhabitants (within 120km radius)	
			Total public transport passenger traffic by city	
	Digitalisation	25	Railroad density	
			Share of households with access to internet (%)	5
			Broadband internet subscribers	2
			Possession of mobile telephone	2
			Ratio of the number of people with access to television sets	
			Proportion of enterprises with ICT activities	
			Quality of electricity supply	
			Facebook Social Connectivity Index	
			Information & Communication Technologies Index	
			Number of internet searches	
			Percentage of households with personal computers	
			Average download speed from a fixed device (national value=100)	
			Mobile broadband subscribers	
			3G mobile network coverage	
			Use of digital platform for providing financial services	
			Use of digital platforms for providing transportation and shipping	
			Use of digital platform for providing hotels, restaurants and leisure activities services	
	Safety and Security	23	Power losses	
			Presence of global cities	
			Share of fibre optic coverage of buildings (%)	
			Crime rate	5
			Number of intentional homicides per 100,000 population	3
			Share of the population that feel safe walking alone at night (%)	2
			Global terrorism index	2
			Political instability and absence of violence index	2
			Reliability of police services	2
			Number of police officers	
			Business costs of crime and violence	
			Risk and safety	
			Organized violence, deaths	
			Road injury accidents	
			Safety of tourists	
			External security	
			Physian density	4
			Number of hospital beds	3
			Share of the population satisfied with the availability or quality of healthcare (%)	2
			Proximity to maternity and obstetric hospital services (km)	

	Health	20	Drug-related deaths	
			Total COVID-19 cases per capita in the country	
			Deaths from COVID-19 per capita in the country	
			COVID-19 vaccination in the country (%)	
			Proximity to hospital cardiology services (km)	
			Healthcare costs	
			Accessibility of healthcare services	
			Communicable disease incidence	
			Number of pharmacies	
			Viral disease outbreaks	
	Education	16	Share of the population with tertiary education (%)	4
			Number of universities in the World's top ranking	3
			Share of international students in post-secondary student population (%)	
			Quality of scientific institutions	
			Education index	
			Proximity to primary education establishments (km)	
			Proximity to secondary education institutions (km)	
			Mean years of schooling	
			Secondary education enrolment rate	
			Extent of staff training	
			Education system's ability to meet needs	
	Social Cohesion	16	Poverty rate	2
			Equal workforce opportunities	
			Gender Inequality Index	
			Cost of living	
			Corruption perceptions index	
			Social protection basic coverage and spending	
			Human development index	
			Voter turnout in general elections	
			Public trust in politicians	
			Workers' rights	
			Ratio (per 1,000 people) of the number of people with access to published newspapers	
			Willingness to delegate authority	
			Reliance on professional management	
			Share of population satisfied with the opportunities to meet people and make friends in the city or area where they live (%)	
	Government	12	Satisfaction with life as a whole	
			Share of the tourism sector in government expenditure	5
			Priority given to the tourism industry	2
			Efficiency of marketing and branding to attract tourists	2
			Quality of Government Index	
			Burden of government regulation	
	Demographic	9	Government ensuring policy stability	
			Total population	4
			Population density	2
			Life expectancy	
			Number of foreign citizens per thousand people	
			Share of population 15-64 in total population	

I - Own elaboration