



Gender and work in rural tourism: Exploring stereotypes and women's emotions

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Sincerely,
The Editors of *Tourism Geographies*

Gender and work in rural tourism: Exploring stereotypes and women's emotions

The study of emotions and their role in ordering social life has been a fruitful feminist contribution to cultural and social studies. Since the 2000s, tourism researchers have turned their attention to emotions, however **in particular niches, such as rural tourism, there is limited exploration of the intersection of emotions and gender stereotypes.** To address this gap, we rely on Ahmed's framework on emotions as a powerful tool to investigate gender roles, stereotypes and tourism productive and spatial relations in rural contexts. The analysis also draws from the theoretical contributions on socio-cultural spaces, embodied emotions, affective practices and gendered work in the subfields of feminist geography and gender and tourism scholarship. Semi-structured interviews were conducted, **from 2015 to 2018**, with 49 Mexican women and analysed through qualitative content analysis, using inductive and deductive approaches. In addition, non-participant observation, document review, and field notes enriched and complemented the interview data. The findings highlight how emotions mediate women's lived experiences of gendered rural tourism work. Affective or emotional responses illustrate women's strategies to cope with or resist productive and spatial limitations produced by traditional gender roles and stereotypes. The potential of emotional responses to contest social norms has proved useful for some women to open new paths to surpass their relatively weaker positions in rural societies. Concluding thoughts focus on the contradictory messages experienced by women and tensions generated in both, the family and the community. As a result, women's emotions are used as a tool to negotiate inequalities. We also highlight the importance of gender mainstreaming strategies to contest traditional gender roles in rural tourism contexts.

Keywords: rural tourism, tourism work, gender stereotypes, women's emotions, Mexico, Latin America.

Introduction

The “emotional turn” in human geography has highlighted the importance of emotions in the ways individuals experience and interpret the world in their quotidian lives (Bondi et al., 2007). Although some scholars have examined how tourism development contributes to shape the gendered and ethnic identities of Latin American women with some links to their emotions (Baab, 2012; Little, 2008; Wilson & Ypeij, 2012); an explicit analysis of the affective dimensions of tourism processes is lacking. Following recent calls to acknowledge the role of emotions in embodied tourism encounters and in tourism work (e.g. Buda et al., 2014; Hall, 2018; Picard, 2012; Tucker 2007, 2009; Veijola, 2009), we seek to conduct an examination of women’s emotions towards gendered work in rural tourism contexts and the implications of gender stereotypes in generating spatial divisions. The contribution of this study is to examine emotions as a form of cultural politics or world making (Ahmed 2014), through which the affective practises of women may challenge traditional gender roles and stereotypes or inhabit social norms differently to overcome productive and spatial restrictions in a specific sociocultural context (rural tourism in Mexico).

Rural tourism is a growing and changing sub-sector of travel and tourism, closely related to natural, social and community values, as well as to rusticity and authenticity (Hernández et al., 2005; Little, 2008; Pérez-Ramírez et al., 2012; Sandoval-Quintero et al., 2017). **Mexican** scholars have highlighted **rural women’s** incorporation as **a result of** public policy strategy to foster social change (Hernández et al., 2005; Pérez-Ramírez et al., 2012; Rodríguez & Acevedo, 2015), while promoting the conservation of natural resources (Martínez Corona, 2003; Soarez et al., 2005; Suárez-Gutiérrez et al., 2016).¹

¹ According to official data, 93.5% of rural women in Mexico lack access to education, health, other social services, adequate facilities and obtain 25% less income than rural men

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3 Similar to other regions of the world, rural tourism in Mexico is heavily
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5 grounded on the rural idyll, with traditional social norms playing an important role in
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7 attracting tourists (Jiménez-Esquinas, 2017; Baylina et al., 2016; Browne, 2011; Little
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9 & Austin, 1996; Serra & Ferré, 2006). A tension emerges between the work
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11 opportunities that rural tourism provides to local women and the gendered roles that
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13 women are expected to perform, as well as the spaces where they perform this work (i.e.
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15 often domestic spaces versus public tourism spaces).. Scholars have examined the ways
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17 in which rural tourism can contribute to produce changes in gender norms mainly by
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19 generating work opportunities for women (Lenao & Basupi, 2016; Smritee & Brijesh,
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21 2017). However, the literature has also shown that the economic changes produced by
22
23 tourism development are not always accompanied by broader socio-cultural
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25 transformations (Kimbu & Ngoasong, 2016; Tran & Walter, 2014; Vizcaino-Suárez,
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27 2018). Due to these tensions, even though rural women tend to appreciate the positive
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29 aspects of tourism work, the nature of such work and the prevalent gender expectations
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31 and stereotypes generate emotions with different outcomes at the individual and the
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33 social level (Ratten & Dana, 2017; Tran & Walter, 2014; Tucker, 2007). In line with
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35 tourism geographers and sociologists, who have called to acknowledge feelings and
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37 emotions in tourism research (see Cohen & Cohen, 2019; Picard, 2012), this paper
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39 conducts a qualitative examination of women's affective responses to traditional gender
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41 roles and stereotypes in rural tourism work, and to broader productive and spatial
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43 restrictions.
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51 As Latin American scholars conducting research in Mexico, we are interested in
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53 analyzing women's participation in tourism production from a gender perspective. To
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57 (CONEVAL, 2017). Rural women also bear the responsibility for family care and well-being.
58 Rural societies uphold deeply rooted values in Mexico and gender inequalities persist in both
59 mestizo and indigenous societies (INMUJERES, 2017; Vásquez-García & Vargas-Vásquez,
60 2018).

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3 problematize the affective practises embodied by women working in rural tourism, we
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5 pay close attention to the challenges and opportunities they face. Thus, two significant
6
7 questions guide the present study: a) what are the implications of traditional gender
8
9 roles and stereotypes for (Mexican) women who work in rural tourism? And given that
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11 emotions move us (Ahmed, 2014; Anderson, 2009; Bondi et al., 2007), b) what are
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13 women's emotional responses to gender stereotypes and broader productive and spatial
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15 restrictions? We seek to examine these questions through a qualitative study based on
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17 semi-structured interviews with 49 Mexican women who work in rural tourism. The
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19 aims of this paper are two-fold: first, it seeks to contribute to the literature on gender,
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21 emotions and tourism work, through an examination of traditional gender roles and
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23 stereotypes in rural tourism and the exploration of women's emotional responses to
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25 gendered work and spatial restrictions. Second, the paper advances a framework that
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27 seeks to improve women's participation, based on the lived experiences of Mexican
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29 women.
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38 **Literature Review**

39 *Feminist understandings of emotions*

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43 Feminist theory has significantly contributed to social studies through the recognition of
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45 experience and subjectivity in the examination of gender issues, paying particular
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47 attention to the role of emotions in cultural values and beliefs, and in the construction of
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49 social relations and hierarchies (Dilley & Scraton, 2010; Waitt & Clifton, 2013;
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51 Wetherell, 2015; Wilson & Ypeij, 2012). In line with the transdisciplinary "affective
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53 turn" in cultural and social studies, recent feminist scholarship on emotions has focused
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55 on exploring the critical links between affect, emotion and power relations based on
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57 gender, sexuality, race and class (e.g. Ahmed, 2014; Cvetkovich, 2003; Hemmings,
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3 2005; Ngai, 2005; Waitt & Clifton, 2013; Wetherell, 2015). Similarly, feminist
4
5 geographers have produced a body of work that looks at the impacts of emotions in the
6
7 gendered socio-spatial spheres (Bondi et al., 2007; Browne, 2011). A common aspect of
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9 these studies is the examination of how emotions are negotiated in the public sphere
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11 (including the workplace), while being experienced through the body (Browne, 2011;
12
13 Gorton, 2007). Feminist scholarship has also shed light on the social control of
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15 emotions (Lutz, 1996), while advancing the conceptualisation of emotions as a site of
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17 resistance to gendered norms that generate geographies of inequality and exclusion
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19 (Bondi et al., 2007; Browne, 2011; Hall, 2018; Waitt & Clifton, 2013; Wilson & Little,
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21 2008).

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26 Ahmed's (2014) work is particularly relevant for our analysis. The author adopts
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28 a multidisciplinary approach, drawing heavily from sociocultural theories rather than
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30 advancing a psychological explanation, to understand the way emotions interrelate with
31
32 notions of culture and power. She focuses on how emotions shape people's affective
33
34 practices in their quotidian life (Wetherell, 2015). In Ahmed's view, "[e]motions shape
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36 the very surfaces of bodies, which take shape through the repetition of actions over
37
38 time, as well as through orientations towards and away from others" (2014, p.4). In this
39
40 sense, emotions create boundaries between the inside and the outside, and contribute to
41
42 establish differences amidst the individual and the social. Emotions move subjects and
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44 can "stick" them together, but they always involve particular readings of the world one
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46 inhabits (Ahmed, 2004, 2014). Thus, emotions, such as anger, fear, shame, joy or hope,
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48 can be construed as a form of cultural politics or world making, which interweaves the
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50 personal and the public. For example, anger can be a response to the pain produced by
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52 violence or to the injustice of racism, but it can also involve creativity and the capacity
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54 to imagine a different world (Ahmed, 2009). Fear can be structural and mediated as
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3 opposed to an immediate bodily response to danger (Ahmed, 2003; Wilson & Little,
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5 2008). The feeling of shame, embarrassment or guilt may emerge from the experience
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7 of dispossession or degradation and involves the reshaping of bodily and social spaces;
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9 while hope can be a decisive element to bring about social change (Ahmed, 2014).
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14 ***Gender and the affective practices in tourism***

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16
17 In concordance with some of Ahmed's theoretical proposals, feminist geographers have
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19 drawn attention to the impact of gender norms and stereotypes on women's affective
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21 practices and the complex and often unequal ways in which socio-cultural spaces are
22
23 produced, interpreted and experienced (e.g. Bondi et al., 2007; Hopkins, 2009; Sharp,
24
25 2009). These "emotional geographies" have contributed to opening new interpretations
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27 in the study of gender and emotions in tourism (see Cohen & Cohen, 2019;
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29 d'Hauterres, 2015; Frazer & Waitt, 2016; Hall, 2018; Moyle et al., 2019; Picard, 2012;
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31 Tucker, 2009, 2016; Wilson & Little, 2008). For example, drawing from Ahmed's
32
33 work on emotions, Buda et al. (2014) examined the notion of embodied emotionality or
34
35 how emotions play a crucial role in the ways in which touring bodies interact with other
36
37 subjects (i.e. hosts) and places in the context of dark tourism. By examining the
38
39 embodied feelings and emotions of tourists and tourist guides, the authors shed light on
40
41 how tourist experiences are socially constructed and shaped by prevailing social values.
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43 We use a similar premise in this paper when examining the rural idyll and women's
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45 affective practices.
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53 Another recent work that draws from Ahmed's framework is Frazer and Waitt's
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55 (2016) on the sensual–emotional–affectual dimensions of volunteering. The authors
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57 conceptualise the pain experienced by volunteer tourists: "as a distancing response that
58
59 not only creates social and spatial borders between 'selves' and 'others', but also
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3 assigns meaning through the act” (p. 180). Through pain, volunteer tourists either repeat
4
5 asymmetrical power relations or evoke an affective ethics of hope overcoming dominant
6
7 power structures. The analysis highlights the ambivalence of emotions and their
8
9 importance in the study of relational and spatial practices in tourism.
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12 As illustrated in the previous examples, tourism scholarship has looked at the
13
14 intertwined connections of affects (emotions and feelings) in tourism experiences and
15
16 encounters, without necessarily distinguishing the gendered dimensions of affects.
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18 However, some gender and tourism scholars have sought to address this gap. Within the
19
20 scholarship of women’s experiences in tourism production, the work of Tucker (2007,
21
22 2009) has paid particular attention to the role of emotions. In her ethnographic studies in
23
24 Göreme, Turkey, the author highlights the gender differences in the types of tourism
25
26 entrepreneurial activities that local men and women have had access to, as well as the
27
28 different levels of exposure to embodied encounters with tourists. According to local
29
30 social norms, it is shameful for Göreme women to move around in public spaces due to
31
32 the potential contact with strange men. In that sense, Tucker (2007) points to the need
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34 for Göreme women to ‘undo’ the feeling of shame in order for them to work
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36 comfortably in tourism spaces.
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42 Johnston’s work (2001, 2007) also identifies the role of pride/shame in the
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44 construction of lesbian tourism spaces. While exploring the performative practices of a
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46 woman’s drumming group in Pride parades, Johnston is able to identify spaces of pride
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48 (i.e. welcoming spaces where fun and excitement are allowed) and shame (linked to
49
50 Othering, the marginal body and heteronormality). In order to overcome shame
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52 participants employed humour, exaggerated femininities and masculinities, hid their
53
54 personal identities and defied a tourist space that could be experienced as hurtful and
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56 shaming. Johnston’s theorization of pride/shame has led to more comprehensive
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3 interpretations of affective performance by emphasizing the dynamics of emotions in
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5 the construction of space.
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8 In looking at mountaineering, some authors have explored women's emotions in
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10 outdoor activities (Doran, 2016; Frohlick, 2006; Hall, 2018). Hall (2018) has relied on
11
12 Ahmed's (2014) work to gain insights of emotions and to explore the affective
13
14 dimensions of risk/fear. According to the author, women's weaker gender position and
15
16 gender norms promote a sense of insecurity and fear of violence among them, which
17
18 directly impacts their use of adventure tourism spaces. While analysing the emotional
19
20 responses to risk/fear in a masculinized environment, Hall's findings endow risk with
21
22 sensations of achievement and well-being. Her discussion of the "sentient and
23
24 emotional body" can be linked to some of the embodiment processes examined in
25
26 Pritchard et al.'s book (2007). While focusing on the embodiment of two emotions (fear
27
28 and achievement), Hall (2018) opens new interpretations of emotional geographies by
29
30 legitimising alternative identities for women in gendered tourism spaces.
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36 In another recent example, Jiménez-Esquinas (2017) interprets Abu-Lughod and
37
38 Ahmed's work to examine pride and resistance among Galician women producing
39
40 bobbin lace. Her narrative exhibits feelings and emotions faced by tourism scholars, a
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42 strand that has been addressed by Pocock (2015) and Bakas (2017) underpinning the
43
44 affective turn in tourism studies. The main contribution of this work is the analysis of
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46 affective ambivalence as a series of fluxes generated by craftswomen who embrace but
47
48 also react to gender stereotypes through their tourist performances.
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52 The examination of gender stereotypes in rural tourism has been central to
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54 Mexican scholars (Hernández-Bello et al., 2003). Even though this line of research has
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56 not explicitly focused on the analysis of affects (emotions and feelings), some studies
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58 acknowledge an affective ambivalence in the strategies adopted by Mexican rural
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3 women as they try to reconcile their work in tourism with sociocultural restrictions in
4 the use of tourism spaces (see Pérez-Ramírez et al., 2012; Rodríguez & Acevedo, 2015;
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8 Suárez-Gutiérrez et al., 2016).
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10 Mexican rural women have been defined as highly grounded in the traditional
11 social reproductive gender role of caretakers. The *mamá mexicana* (Mexican mother) is
12 expected to devote herself to the family. This ideal of rural woman, emphasized through
13 the rural idyll, is encapsulated in the archetype of *la doña*, which is a relevant
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Likewise, it has been appropriated by actress María Félix (*la Doña*, with capital letter to
emphasize her importance) to craftily construct the notion of a strong woman (Ocasio,
2010). However, our use of the concept of *la doña* is closer to León-Portilla's (1993)
archetype of a rural woman, depicted as a hard worker who supports her often extended
family, both economically and emotionally. Her identity is grounded in a maternal role
(*mamá mexicana*) that defines her emotions as always centred on others, while hiding or
ignoring her own emotional needs.

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11 social reproductive gender role of caretakers. The *mamá mexicana* (Mexican mother) is
12 expected to devote herself to the family. This ideal of rural woman, emphasized through
13 the rural idyll, is encapsulated in the archetype of *la doña*, which is a relevant
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This review aimed to show how the scholarship on gender and emotions in
tourism has proposed novel perspectives to broaden our understanding of tourism
processes. Some key insights from the literature point to the way affective practices
emerge as a response to local gender dynamics, and how the acceptance of negotiation
fluxes that women engage with through tourism processes have the scope to promote
new identities. In such a process, women can translate these changes (e.g. new identities

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3 and ways of relating to others) to their socio-spatial context, where their marginal body
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5 can become more visible.
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10 **Method**

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12 The study employed a qualitative design in which Mexican women's work experiences
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14 were situated within the wider sociocultural context. Semi-structured interviews were
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16 conducted over four periods of fieldwork in several rural destinations in Mexico,
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18 spanning 16 months. The first period was from February to September 2015; the second
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20 one, from May to October 2016; the third, from September to November 2017; and the
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22 last one, from June to July 2018. Interviews allowed to explore the diversity of rural
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24 women's realities and focus on issues that were of particular concern to their lives
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26 (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006). Through this qualitative design, we attempted to co-
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28 produce situated knowledge grounded on the participants' experiences. In terms of
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30 positionality, we consider ourselves as insiders based on nationality (Mexican) and
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32 language (native Spanish speakers), but outsiders in terms of the cultural position within
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34 the areas of study (rural areas), and with sub-identities (Giwa, 2015) as mestiza,
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36 university-educated, middle-class, urban women.
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43 The study reports the findings from 49 interviews with Mexican women who
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45 work in rural tourism. Research participants were identified during four different stages
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47 of fieldwork in the states of Baja California (8), Sonora (4), Querétaro (5), Mexico (18),
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49 Oaxaca (4) and Veracruz (10), and employing purposeful sampling, which consists on
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51 "selecting information-rich cases strategically and purposefully" (Patton, 2002, p. 243).
52
53 Snowball sampling was employed to contact additional participants who were referred
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55 to the authors by previous informants; interviews lasted 90 minutes on average. The
56
57 majority of the interviews were conducted face-to-face (39). In addition, following the
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3 advantages and innovative uses of ICT in qualitative research (Janghorban et al., 2014;
4 Krouwel et al., 2019; Lo Iacono et al., 2016; Longhurst, 2017; Tavakoli & Mura, 2015),
5 we conducted some video-interviews (through diverse software that enables
6 conversation), which were also transcribed (10). Participants were between 18-65 years
7 old and worked in the following tourism and travel services: food and accommodation
8 (12), handicrafts and foodstuff (29), and guiding services (8). Some of the participants
9 were micro business owners (15), others worked in the family business (12), in a private
10 company (10) or a community-based enterprise (12).

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21 Qualitative content analysis was employed for the systematic examination of the
22 interview data, using deductive and inductive approaches to coding. The deductive
23 approach was deemed appropriate to re-examine the prevalence of gender stereotypes
24 and emotions in rural tourism. Thus, initial codes, categories and themes were drawn
25 from the review of Mexican gender and tourism scholarship (see Figure 1).

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Figure 1. Gender stereotypes in Mexican rural tourism

Source: Authors.

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An inductive approach was employed to draw codes, categories and themes from the interview data to learn about participant's lived experiences (Camprubi & Coromina, 2016; Neuendorf, 2011) and emotional responses to the cultural stereotypes and gendered work. The data analysis process included both manifest and latent content analysis (Graneheim et al., 2017). During the manifest content analysis phase, we classified the visible and surface content of text; whereas in the latent content analysis, we coded the underlying meaning of the text, which requires a degree of researcher

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3 interpretation. Overall, the analysis process entailed categorizing and finding themes
4 from key categories (i.e. gender stereotypes and women's affective/emotional
5 responses). In addition, non-participant observation, document review, and field notes
6 enriched and complemented the interview data. Some strategies employed to avoid
7 researchers' bias over the course of analysis and interpretation included: referring back
8 to the conceptual framework, triangulating data (i.e. contrasting the interview data with
9 the researcher observations and notes taken during the fieldwork), showing field notes
10 to colleagues, and keeping research questions firmly in mind (Miles & Huberman,
11 1994). Ethical guidelines were followed to ensure that all participants understood the
12 research objectives and the treatment that would be given to verbatim transcription of
13 interview data. Pseudonyms were employed in lieu of participants' names and some
14 demographic details were excluded in order to ensure anonymity and confidentiality.
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34 **Findings**

35 *Emotional responses to gendered rural tourism work*

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39 In general, tourism services and related productive activities (food, accommodation,
40 handicraft production and guiding services) were positively valued by participants as a
41 source of income despite their seasonal or irregular nature, because women thought this
42 type of work was more attractive than other traditional economic activities available.
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50 This is consistent with the findings in other developing regions (e.g. Boonabaana, 2014;
51 Tran & Walter, 2014) and in the Latin American context (e.g. Martinez-Corona, 2003;
52 Rodríguez & Acevedo, 2015).
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Even if the economic benefit generated by rural tourism is limited and their
burden is increased, participants saw tourism as an opportunity to improve their lives

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3 (Hortensia, 45, married with 2 daughters, cooker, Las Margaritas, 2016; Susana, 32,
4 married with 1 son, artisan, San Quintín, 2017; Teresa, 36, unmarried, ecotourist leader,
5 Montepío, 2016). Sometimes they recognised the tensions produced by tourism work
6 and experienced ambivalent fluxes which were negotiated or not (Jiménez-Esquinas,
7 2017; Johnston, 2007).

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15 In some cases, women's participation in tourism work generated a sense of
16 injustice and powerlessness. This is illustrated in the following account:

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19 "At the beginning my husband told me that if I chose to work in tourism I must not
20 neglect my family...I felt stressed all time and also angry and sad too, this is also his
21 family not only mine, but I didn't quit... it was not easy... and eventually he changed a
22 little bit and I feel proud of what I have achieved" (Marta, 42, married with 2 sons, rural
23 gite owner, Montepío, 2016).

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30 As tensions emerged, participants' struggles reflected an ambivalence when
31 confronting the *status quo*. For example, the experience of shame, alongside with
32 embarrassment and shyness, was commonly referred to in participants' accounts. Some
33 interviewees recognised that rural communities tend to underestimate women's
34 capacities to interact with strangers:

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41 "we were very shy, we didn't like to talk with strangers... we were not raised that way,
42 here it is the man who talks...it was difficult... we were very hesitant but now... now it
43 is different when tourists come we don't stop talking" (Olga, 40, divorced with 1 son
44 and 2 daughters, ecotourism project leader, Roca Partida, 2017).

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50 An important number of rural women who worked in tourism reported to
51 struggle during the first years of their participation (e.g. Adriana, 25, unmarried, artisan,
52 El Carrizal, 2016; Juana, doll maker, 50, married with 4 sons and 1 daughter, artisan,
53 Santiago Mexquititlán, 2016; Sara, 43, re-married with 2 daughters, ecotourism partner,
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2
3 Bernal, 2017), but eventually used their work in tourism to gain self-confidence and
4
5 overcome what was socially sanctioned as inappropriate activities/spaces for women.
6

7
8 In particular, participants who performed masculinised activities reported a
9
10 constant comparison with male peers or the need to demonstrate that women could
11
12 accomplish as much as men or could perform even better: “you feel tired of always
13
14 having to prove yourself... or show that you are better than men, sometimes it is
15
16 exhausting...” (Laura, 34, single, adventure tourist guide, Jalcomulco, 2016). They also
17
18 had to deal with the stereotype that “women do not know the *monte* (the hills or
19
20 outdoors)” and that “their place is in the kitchen” (Patricia, 45, single with 1 daughter,
21
22 B&B employee, Landa de Matamoros, 2016). So, women who wanted to access higher
23
24 paying jobs in rural tourism such as tourist guides, faced this additional burden to prove
25
26 that they were as capable as their male peers (Lucía, 20, single, ecotourist guide, Ruiz
27
28 Cortinez, 2016; Manuela, 30, unmarried, adventure tourist guide, Jalcomulco, 2017).
29
30 There is a reputational issue in rural Mexico regarding women who wander around the
31
32 town interacting with men who are not from their communities, similar to what Tucker
33
34 (2007) found in Turkey. This is exemplified in the following account: “Some people
35
36 think that a woman will lose her good reputation if they talk to male tourists that she ...
37
38 may be looking for a man, it’s frustrating I know, but I like what I do” (Patricia, op.
39
40 cit.). In these cases, the feeling of shame can serve to maintain women’s segregation in
41
42 specific rural tourism activities.
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49 The lack of recognition for women’s work or the disregard for their
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51 contributions is also reported by those engaged in other activities rather than guiding:
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53 “It is sad but sometimes I feel like my family is not recognising my work, the
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55 importance it has to me and to the rest of the community” (Margarita, 33, married with
56
57 2 sons, artisan, La Bocana, 2015). Participants also expressed disappointment when
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3 family members or members of the wider community disregarded their entrepreneurial
4 efforts: “Some people consider my effort as a secondary one, they minimise the hard
5 work of being an entrepreneur.... ‘it is a hobby’, they say, ‘it is not serious’, ‘her
6 business is tiny’ ...” (Lidia, 30, married, rural gite partner, Bernal, 2016).
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12 Women felt unwarranted pressure to quit their activities when dealing with
13 malicious gossip, which is used as a mechanism to limit women’s mobilities in Mexican
14 rural societies:
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19 I need to go to meetings, to talk to clients, to go out of the community, some people
20 gossip and my husband was jealous, I told him to trust me...but some women quit or
21 change because the husband forbid them to get out of their house or the community
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24
25 (Ana María, 37 years old, divorced, souvenir shop owner from Bernal, 2017).
26

27
28 The disregard for their contributions and work triggered mixed affective responses from
29 women (e.g. anger, sadness or disappointment), while malicious gossip had
30 repercussions on women’s self-esteem and even caused some women to abandon their
31 productive activities in tourism. In a clear recognition of their gender roles, participants
32 frequently expressed feeling burnout or emotional and physical exhaustion, due to
33 bearing the responsibility for care and domestic work in their households, in addition to
34 the work they perform in the family business, private enterprise or community-based
35 tourism venture (Adriana, *op. cit.*; Lucía, *op. cit.*; Margarita, *op. cit.*).
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47 Other women’s emotions towards their work emerged from a sense of
48 accomplishment; from receiving recognition for their work (from family, other
49 members of the community and visitors); and a sense of enjoyment or even passion
50 (love) towards the activities they perform. Even though some degree of enjoyment
51 derived from their work in rural tourism was experienced by most of the participants,
52 the sense of passion was more evident among women who perform creative work in
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3 tourism (e.g. handicraft production or gastronomy), as demonstrated in the following
4
5 account:

6
7 Ah, on a personal level, I love it. It changed us all, it changed our lives because, come
8
9 on, making handicraft pottery opens another world, right? Apart from the fact that we
10
11 make a living out of this, we entered into a very special world. I think that knowing a
12
13 lot of people of all types and social classes, I believe that one's work speaks for itself,
14
15 but it did change our lives ... I love my work. (Ana, 50, married with 2 daughters,
16
17 potter, Metepec, 2016).
18
19

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21 Other emotions as happiness and joy were also experienced by participants as a
22
23 consequence of their work. Some women found in rural tourism the necessary spaces to
24
25 expand their networks to gain support:
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28 “So, you come here [to the workshop] and you interact with other *compañeras*, and you
29
30 always have fun and you even finish the craft without noticing it. It is more pleasant
31
32 than if I stay alone at home. The other day somebody turned on the radio and we ended
33
34 up dancing” (Julia, 37, married with 1 son, artisan, Ojoxapan, 2016).
35
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37
38 In general, the social interactions with culturally aware or responsible tourists
39
40 were also considered pleasant:

41
42 “When dinner is over, tourists stay at the *comedor* chatting with us or also when I am
43
44 cooking, they ask me about the food, the town, my life.... we talk about many things;
45
46 they tell me things too... all very interesting. I like to learn and have someone to talk
47
48 to” (Romira, 53, married with 1 son, cook, Benito Juárez, 2015).
49
50

51 Through transgressing traditional gender norms and roles, rural women have
52
53 opened opportunities for change (Alba, 31, divorced with 1 son, tourist guide, Las
54
55 Margaritas, 2015; Olga, op. cit.). Despite the fact that research participants did not see
56
57 themselves as agents of change, it is important to recognise their quotidian acts of
58
59 negotiation and the potential impact these acts can have not only in their own lives but
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1
2
3 in the lives of other women, as well as the diversity of emotions that they have
4
5 experienced or embodied in different ways (Hall, 2018; Wilson & Little, 2008).
6

7
8 Feminist and gender scholars have called for the development of alternative
9
10 gender roles in the context of rural tourism (Linehan & Walsh, 1999; Martínez-Corona,
11
12 2003; Rodríguez & Acevedo, 2015). Some of the research participants also reflected on
13
14 the need to transform traditional gender roles, as illustrated in the following account:
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16
17 “some people consider that women cannot be a rural tourist guide because they lack the
18
19 strength or skills, but we are proving otherwise and our local guides feel very proud of
20
21 it” (Marisa, 26, single, tourist guide, Jalcomulco, 2018). In this context, women
22
23 experienced a range of affective or emotional responses due to the social pressure to
24
25 conform to traditional gender roles and the prevalent gender stereotypes in tourism
26
27 work (Jiménez-Esquinas, 2017). These findings are consistent with other studies that
28
29 have explored the links between gender and tourism work in rural contexts (Hernández
30
31 et al., 2005; Ratten & Dana, 2017; Suárez-Gutiérrez et al., 2016; Tran & Walter, 2014).
32
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35
36 One of the most common stereotypes that emerged from the literature and was
37
38 confirmed in the interviews was that “women are not interested in tourism”.

39
40 Participants’ accounts illustrate how women were frequently left out of the community
41
42 conversations around rural tourism initiatives:
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44
45 In this community the invitation to participate in tourism was given at the *ejido*
46
47 [communal] meeting and since it is considered as a space for men, women were not
48
49 invited - ‘it is not for women’ - they were saying (Rocío, 38, single with 1 son and 2
50
51 daughters, rural gite partner, Ruiz Cortínez, 2015).
52

53
54 Contrary to what the stereotype claims, women were not indifferent to the
55
56 organization of tourism activities in their communities; in fact, they expressed anger or
57
58 disappointment at not having been invited to these initial planning meetings (Lorena, 32
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2
3 years old, single with 1 daughter, tourist guide from Las Margaritas, 2016; Olga, op.
4
5 cit.).

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7
8 Another common stereotype is that “women are not good at business” and these
9
10 extends to the notions that “women are not interested in training” or “they do not like to
11
12 make decisions” (Rocío, op. cit.; Alba, op. cit., Ana, op. cit.), which are experienced as
13
14 limitations and injustices (Ahmed, 2009). Most participants were well aware of these
15
16 gender stereotypes and reflected on how they have overcome their emotions by gaining
17
18 access to activities and spaces traditionally assigned to men: “Through rural tourism we
19
20 have been able to access places where only men used to participate, like the *Ejido*
21
22 Assembly. I felt nervous and proud when I explained our recent project that involved
23
24 the whole community in front of the Assembly members and others” (Alba, op. cit.).

25
26
27 A way in which women have been able to contest gender stereotypes is through
28
29 the continuous interaction with people from outside the community (visitors and
30
31 tourists) even if this is discouraged by local sociocultural norms (Tucker, 2007). The
32
33 following account illustrates this: “People from outside the community recognise our
34
35 work and I like to see how they appreciate our work... you can do many things you
36
37 weren't aware” (Juana, op. cit.).

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42 Participants also reflected that their work in rural tourism was as valuable as the
43
44 work performed by their male peers, but they also recognized some gendered
45
46 constraints. Similar to what was reported by Johnston (2007) or Hall (2018),
47
48 participants embodied more than one emotion in their performance of gendered tourism
49
50 rural work. Some of them abandoned tourism activities, but others were able to
51
52 negotiate the gender norms that underestimated them (Hall, 2018).

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56 As stated before, feminist and tourist scholars have emphasized the role of
57
58 emotions in power relations as a site of resistance to gender norms (Hall, 2018);
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3 Jiménez-Esquinas, 2017; Tucker, 2007; Wilson & Little, 2008). Our findings show that
4
5 some women have taken advantage of tourism to negotiate gender norms and have
6
7 experienced this improvement with a sense of pride as illustrated in the following
8
9 account: “I try to educate both my daughters and son not to maintain stereotypes”
10
11 (Amalia, 50, married, embroiderer, Sontecomapan, 2015). Other women have used
12
13 tourism to gain visibility and recognition in their communities: “...we have been able to
14
15 get access to places were only men used to participate like the *Ejido* Assembly” (Olivia,
16
17 33, married with 1 daughter and 1 son, rural gite partner, Sontecomapan, 2015). We
18
19 want to emphasize that the lack of family or wider community support makes the
20
21 negotiation of gender roles even more challenging for participants: “some women quit
22
23 or change because the husbands forbid them to get out of their house or the
24
25 community.... I feel sad for them” (Sonia, 29, married with 1 daughter, artisan
26
27 jewellery, Jalpan de Serra, 2015). However, as stated by Martínez-Corona (2003) and
28
29 Vizcaino-Suárez (2018), women’s negotiations of gender roles to advance equality are a
30
31 long-term project that leads to incremental changes over time, but these changes are not
32
33 exempt from social backlash.
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40 Likewise, women involved in tourism experience ambivalent fluxes (Jiménez-
41
42 Esquinas, 2017; Johnston, 2007). In this study, women’s affective and emotional
43
44 responses were strongly intertwined with the productive and spatial restrictions
45
46 established by gender roles (Wilson & Little, 2008). Tourism opened new possibilities
47
48 and generated environments for women to embody emotions and transgress traditional
49
50 gender norms in rural Mexico. However, the path is not straightforward, because
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52 women who negotiate established social norms are often disqualified and their emotions
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54 mistreated through public scolding and ridicule (see Ahmed, 2014).
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Discussion: women's emotions and gendered work in Mexican rural tourism

In this study, emotions emerged in response to the social pressure to comply with social norms and these affective or emotional responses generated ambivalent fluxes (Jimenez-Esquinas, 2017). The emotional dimensions of gendered rural tourism work are influenced by complex processes and they have significant impacts on Mexican rural women's use of day-to-day spaces.

Our analysis identified some core affective or emotional responses by women in relation to their work in tourism. Shame was one of the most relevant emotions, and we consider it important because it is frequently employed by communities to restrict the use of public rural environments in Mexico. Shame is related to insecurity with a twofold meaning: a lack of self-confidence, but also a type of fear to outsiders. Similar to the experiences of Göreme women in Turkey (Tucker, 2007), Mexican participants had also begun to 'undo' the emotion of shame, slowly overcoming the sociocultural norms that attach shame to women's interaction with strangers (mainly male tourists or other male stakeholders, such as consultants, researchers, suppliers or trainers), to potentially work more comfortably in tourism environments. Furthermore, some of the women in our study used their emotions to negotiate gender stereotypes in a similar fashion to the participants in Johnston's (2007) study, who embodied affective performances to overcome their shame and transform it into pride. For example, Ana and Olga's initial shame or embarrassment of working in tourism led way to a feeling of entitlement to use public tourist spaces and other spaces in the community (like the Ejido Assembly), which generated happiness and joy.

Another finding we want to highlight is the role of emotions as a form of social control that defines the performance of tourism work. Some of the most relevant constraints rural women face take the form of gender stereotypes that interact with

1
2
3 affective or emotional responses such as shame. The shame experienced by participants
4
5 exposes a social mechanism to control not only the spaces where women move, but also
6
7 the activities they can perform. Shame combined with local social norms are embodied
8
9 by rural women and have an impact on their self-esteem, by: a) making them feel not
10
11 capable of working with tourist/visitors; and b) having to avoid gossip that will damage
12
13 their reputation. In this case, the affective performances promoted by the involvement in
14
15 rural tourism can foster negotiations that allow women to gain self-confidence and a
16
17 sense of accomplishment.
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21 Responses linked to anger, disappointment or sadness also resulted from the
22
23 prevalence of gender stereotypes, as women experienced the constraints of gendered
24
25 jobs or gendered spaces in tourism work. This situation was more evident in the case of
26
27 young women who became interested in activities traditionally ascribed to men. This
28
29 was experienced by Marisa and Laura, tourist guides who have had to carve their place
30
31 in the masculinised niche of adventure tourism; and also by Ana María, who faced a
32
33 masculinised environment as entrepreneur. However, at the same time, emotions such
34
35 as pride, accomplishment or joy are also reported by interviewees due to their
36
37 participation in tourism, thus emphasizing the ambivalent fluxes that can confront
38
39 women in tourism (Jiménez-Esquinas, 2017). Among our participants, these emotions
40
41 were described as evidence of improvement in women's lives and employed to justify
42
43 demands for further advancement. These ambivalent fluxes must not be oversimplified
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45 because according to our respondents, their involvement in rural tourism has not been
46
47 free from contradictions or struggle.
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53 A relevant example of these contradictions refers to the burden of care and
54
55 emotional work, which continues to fall mainly on women. The traditional *mamá*
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57 *mexicana* and *la doña* are strong social constructions in rural Mexico and continue to be
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3 entrenched in rural tourism. Thus, strategies to improve women's participation in rural
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5 tourism and overcome gender stereotypes and embedded emotions, require a
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7 recognition of the value of care and emotional work, which turns out to be a core
8
9 function of the maintenance of social life and a relevant factor of culture and power
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11 (Ahmed, 2004). In our view, this is the first step in reorganizing the division of labour
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13 in contexts where care and emotional work are both very important and very time
14
15 consuming, such as the rural contexts we have examined. The sense of inequity is well
16
17 founded in anger as an emotion generated by a lack of equitable arrangements in the
18
19 division of labour, but a sense of achievement also emerges when women are able to
20
21 overcome these inequities. In general, negotiation of care and emotional work generates
22
23 affective ambivalences that can be experienced as an exhausting and controversial
24
25 process: women can love their relatives but feel angry when their workload (in and
26
27 outside of the house) increases.
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33 The review of the literature and our findings also show that tourism has the
34
35 potential to promote changes in gender stereotypes when correctly addressed. In our
36
37 study, Mexican women recognised the role of rural tourism in opening spaces to
38
39 negotiate gender stereotypes, but also as an activity that may reproduce or reinforce
40
41 them. As noted by Ahmed (2014), emotions reflect how social forms (such as traditional
42
43 gender norms) are ingrained and difficult to transform because of repetition. In our
44
45 opinion, even if rural tourism is a modern activity, the rural idyll and the quest for
46
47 authenticity tends to reinforce gender stereotypes that devalue women's work.
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50
51 Therefore, we propose a framework to improve women's participation in rural tourism,
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53 accounting for their affective/emotional responses (see Figure 2).
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59 [Insert figure 2 here]
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3 Figure 2. Framework for improving women's participation in rural tourism and
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5 overcoming gendered work.
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8 Source: Authors.
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13 The core of our proposal draws from Ahmed's notion of emotions as a source of
14 movement and takes into account posterior work of emotions centred in tourism and
15 gender studies. In that regard we have also considered the ambivalent fluxes (Jiménez-
16 Esquinas, 2017), embodiment emotions (Hall, 2018), as well as Johnston's (2001, 2007)
17 political dimension of emotions that interweave the personal and the public spheres of
18 life.
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27 As mestiza, middle-class, urban and university-educated Mexican women, we
28 would like to highlight the relevance of avoiding gender stereotypes in rural tourism.
29 However, not all the research participants construed the disparities that we examined as
30 gender inequalities. This was especially evident when economic and monetary benefits
31 were involved and trumped other sociocultural considerations. Following Ahmed
32 (2014), emotions allow people to: "feel their way" and "the effects of 'not following'
33 the scripts can be multiple" (p. 146) and may lead to social conflict. For women to
34 negotiate gender roles effectively they must improve both their economic and socio-
35 cultural standing, otherwise they will avoid any negotiation and maintain the *status quo*.
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48 As stated by Ahmed (2004, p. 121) "the circulation of signs of affect shapes the
49 materialization of collective bodies", *las mujeres*, women who work in rural tourism in
50 Mexico conform Ahmed's affective economy that materialised through an economic
51 activity heavily centred in care work. *La doña*, a rural woman whose identity is primary
52 restricted to the kitchen and the house, takes advantage of the skills that she has
53 developed, which previously were demanded by the family in the domestic realm, and
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3 now are also offered to tourists in the public sphere.
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6 7 **Conclusions**

8
9 The study of emotions has become a fertile area to promote critical tourism and gender
10 studies. Some of the concepts highlighted by scholars, such as affective performance
11 (Johnston, 2001, 2007), affective dimensions (Hall, 2018), ambivalent fluxes (Jiménez-
12 Esquinas, 2017), and the embodiment of emotions (Ahmed, 2014; Tucker, 2007; Wilson
13 & Little, 2008) have provided a useful framework to explore rural women's emotional
14 responses to gendered tourism work. Since Mexican rural tourism can be anchored in
15 local social norms and the rural idyll, participants in the study received contradictory
16 messages and tensions emerged in the negotiation of new gender roles. From the point
17 of view of participants, the possibility of gaining access to economic benefits was a
18 strong motivation to participate in tourism; however, the availability of gendered
19 occupations and reinforcement of gender stereotypes made some women question the
20 transformational power of tourism work, leading to the emergence of ambivalent fluxes.
21 Participation in rural tourism allowed participants to experience an affective
22 performance, both in public and private spaces, where their emotions became a
23 mechanism to negotiate gender roles.
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43 Even though in general Mexican women appreciate the role of rural tourism in
44 their lives, the implications of performing tourism work tended to go beyond the realm
45 of the individual experience, and contradictions and tensions arose in the family and
46 wider community spheres. As this experience shows, women cannot be left alone in the
47 process of negotiating gender stereotypes and the need for wider social recognition and
48 appreciation of the value of care and emotional work was identified. To contest the
49 power of repetition and the "stickiness" of social norms (Ahmed, 2014), it is crucial that
50 all rural stakeholders are involved and incorporate gender mainstreaming strategies to
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3 improve women's participation in tourism. Enterprises also must work on introducing
4 gender protocols to prevent occupational segregation in tourism work or the gendered
5 use of tourism spaces. Scholars could also contribute to examining the gender
6 dimensions of tourism work in rural contexts, monitor social change and share best
7 practice. A relevant limitation of this research was focusing on binary gender identities
8 and not considering other gender identities that tend to be rendered invisible in rural
9 tourism studies. Furthermore, we suggest that the study of gender, work and emotions is
10 expanded in the Latin American context and other emerging regions to explore affective
11 practises and their implication in rural spaces.
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7 **Women are not interested in tourism**

8 Women are not good at business
9 Women are not interested in training
10 Women do not like to make decisions
11 Women do not know how to deal with tourists
12 Women always criticize other women
13 Women prefer to stay at home and take care of their families
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16 **Production of folk arts**

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18 Women can hurt themselves if they carve wooden handicrafts
19 Women cannot do the physically demanding tasks of pottery production
20 Painting and decorating pottery handicrafts is for women
21 Knitting handicrafts is for women
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39 **Provision of food and accommodation & production of foodstuffs**

40 Women feel safer while working closer to town
41 Women like to work at the *comedor* (restaurant) or hostel
Women do not have the skills to provide services for tourists
Women do not like to interact with tourists
A woman's place is in the kitchen

Provision of tour guiding services

Women do not know the *monte* (the hills, the outdoors)
Women do not know how to handle animals
Women do not like trekking
Women are not strong
Women do not like to take risks
Women's reputation is endangered if they work with male tourists

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