

The paradox of global capitalism in crisis and global popular free mobilisation: The merger of the tourist and the temporary resident

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Abstract: Instability is inherent in global capitalism, impacting all countries, particularly those directly reliant on this economic framework. The USA shapes tourism metrics in dependent nations and influences inbound tourism spending. Using logarithmic models and power tests, the study delineated four dynamic fields (Cn) supporting the thesis of the fusion of tourism and temporary residency. This study demonstrates that tourism and migration correlate with political, economic, and social instability, as evidenced by high statistical correlations. Variance increases during instability, leading to more residency petitions per tourist entry. This pattern is repeated during three major crises: the 2008–2009 financial crisis, the 2011–2013 conflicts in the Middle East and Africa, and the 2016–2017 regional political turmoil and Venezuelan migration. Economic classification tests confirm the association between instability, armed conflict, and heightened tourism and residency tendencies. Tourism income rises steadily, and residency averages increase, especially during periods of regional instability. The study highlights the tight link between tourism and migration with political, economic, and social instability. The statistical analysis reveals significant correlations, showing higher residency pressure during unstable periods. The applied tests confirm that countries in turmoil exhibit heightened tourism and migration tendencies.

Keywords: tourism; crisis; migration; capitalism; logarithmic model, world-system

1. Introduction

Hypermobility in migration is not constrained to less economically developed nations, nor is it a phenomenon that strictly adheres to internal conditions; rather, it is a power dynamic that curtails national autonomies and, consequently, unfettered mobility (Freire-Chaglla and Sanmartín-Rojas, 2021). Regional internal instability and global crises are intrinsically linked to diverse forms of human mobility, which are driven by multifarious motivations (Williams and Hall, 2002). In 2019, it was estimated that there were 272 million international migrants worldwide (constituting 3.5% of the global population); approximately 164 million were labour migrants; 25.9 million were refugees; 41.3 million were internally displaced, and 3.9 million were stateless individuals (International Organization for Migration, 2020).

The other aspect of human mobility is tourism, understood as the movement of people away from their habitual place of residence (Sancho et al., 2008). The travel motivations of tourists differ from the travel motivations of residents (Christin, 2018, p. 71). According to the World Tourism Organization, in 2023, there were 1.3 billion

international tourist arrivals globally, representing 90% of the tourist volume observed prior to the pandemic (UNWTO, 2024).

The demarcation between migration and tourism is increasingly blurred amidst escalating global instability. Investigating migration through the lens of tourism reveals the multifaceted nature of human mobilisation, underscoring that it cannot be confined solely to considerations of employment, cost-benefit analyses, and market information. This is manifested in flow asymmetries that are not encapsulated by traditional econometric models (Santana-Gallego and Paniagua, 2022).

A holistic view of human mobility recognises the volatility of source countries, often due to armed conflicts, economic shocks, adverse climatic conditions, and political instability (Hopkins, 2021; Işık et al., 2017). Additionally, the rigidity of global migration policies (van Haren and Masferrer, 2019) encourages a shift towards tourism, particularly in countries serving as migration corridors. This includes nations like Mexico and Ecuador in the Americas; Morocco and Sudan in Africa; and Turkey, Greece, Spain, and Italy, which are notably affected by the extended conflict in the Middle East.

Theoretical explorations into the shift from migration to tourism transcend mere labour-related (Salazar, 2022) or economic analyses concerning national stability, as seen in migration and tourism statistics (Dragičević et al., 2019). Indeed, human mobility is not solely dependent on the development level of origin countries; instability is a key factor prompting individuals to transition towards tourist status.

Building on the previous arguments, we posit that global crises serve as catalysts for tourists to become temporary migrants, irrespective of their affiliation with geostrategic economic regions, thus blurring the traditional lines between tourism and migration. Consequently, this study aims to address the following inquiries: How does the stability of origin nations influence migration patterns, regardless of their development level? Furthermore, how does the tightening of border controls expedite the shift from tourist to migrant?

In this context, exploring the relationship between capitalism and economic crises offers profound insights into human mobility across space and time. This study examines Ecuador as a case study by analysing official entry data from 2007 to 2018, differentiating between residents and tourists. Furthermore, the countries of origin were geopolitically categorized to identify specific inclinations towards tourism and residency. In this context, exploring the relationship between capitalism and economic crises offers profound insights into human mobility across space and time. This study examines Ecuador as a case study by analysing official entry data from 2007 to 2018, differentiating between residents and tourists. Furthermore, the countries of origin were geopolitically categorized to identify specific inclinations towards tourism and residency.

2. Review of literature

2.1. Migration and tourism

Immanuel Wallerstein's World-System Theory (2005) offers a comprehensive framework for understanding the dynamics of global capitalism and their influence on migration and tourism patterns. This theory highlights the structural inequalities

between core and peripheral countries, which fuel migration from less developed nations in the Global South to more affluent ones in the Global North. Individuals are driven by the search for better economic opportunities, spurred by the scarcity of resources and limited prospects in their home countries (Fratsea, 2019). This movement is further complicated by the globalisation of conflict, which has necessitated adjustments to Wallerstein's initial theory (Mantz, 2021; Rodríguez, 2023).

Critiques by scholars such as Prebisch, Gunder-Frank, Dobb and Braudel, particularly as regards the United States' hegemony, enrich this discussion by underscoring the world-economy's reliance on a complex division of labour, as well as on the exchange of labour, capital, and goods among diverse political entities. This system, deeply rooted in capitalism, requires the coexistence of multiple states to neutralize opposition to capitalist agendas, thereby highlighting the importance of monopolies and advanced monopolistic industries in propelling the global economy. Consequently, powerful states often assert dominance over weaker ones, sometimes using military force, to integrate them into the world-system, with the ultimate goal being not the empowerment of the state itself but the continuous accumulation of capital, which is often achieved by relocating production to lower-wage regions to cut costs and maximize profits.

Conversely, tourism generally moves from North to South, with individuals from developed countries pursuing exotic or affordable destinations in less developed nations. Often, they do not acknowledge that this possibility stems from the same global inequalities that fuel migration in the reverse direction. This interaction strengthens the dominance of core countries, and it maintains an imbalanced relationship in which northern nations gain from both human capital and tourism flows, while southern countries experience a drain of talent and resources (Salazar, 2022).

Presently, migration data and forecasts represent a significant source of global uncertainty. In some instances, these are managed without due technical precision, leading to the most tangible evidence being the absence of standards and the poor quality of existing records (Aral, 2020). The current demographic shift is marked by slower population growth in developed countries, contrasted with consistent increases in less developed nations (Frątczak, 2016). Furthermore, with declining fertility rates and rising mortality rates worldwide, there is a critical need for long-term projections to comprehend the evolving global demographic landscape (Abel, 2018; Aral, 2020; Lee, 2011).

It is challenging to predict trends and characteristics subject to constantly evolving factors, such as wars, inadequate infrastructure, public health, social benefits, economic hardship, political instability, climate change, and, more recently, the COVID-19 pandemic (Aral, 2020; Gössling et al., 2020; Işık et al., 2019). Additionally, the social, economic, and political dimensions intrinsic to migration levels complicate the identification of the variables that are essential for analysing and forecasting this complex phenomenon (Bijak, 2010). Demographic elements also play a fundamental role in migration (Lutz et al., 2004).

Despite the significance of mobility in global economic dynamics, theoretical resistance exists against integrating tourism into the analysis of migration and considering its socio-political and economic aspects. However, patterns of human

movement have diversified significantly since the 21st century. Recognising the intricate links between traditional migration and tourist mobility is crucial to circumvent value judgments that foster racism, xenophobia, discrimination, and intolerance.

Migrants constitute a relatively minor fraction of the global population (3.5%) (International Organization for Migration, 2020). In recent years, the growth rate of international migrants has outpaced that of the world's population. In 2019, international remittances reached 689 billion dollars globally (International Organization for Migration, 2020). The 2020 figure of 281 million individuals residing in countries other than their own marks an increase of 128 million from 1990, and it more than triples the count from 1970 (International Organization for Migration, 2022). Socially, global migration has led to increasingly restrictive regulations by host countries, reflecting widespread movements that are not limited to more developed nations. In 2019, Europe saw 123,663 illegal entries, with Italy, Cyprus, Malta, Greece, and Spain as primary destinations, predominantly from Africa and the Middle East (UNHCR, 2020).

In 2018, international tourism generated \$1,462 billion from 1,407 million tourist arrivals, reflecting a 6% increase on the previous year (UNWTO, 2020). Europe accounted for 51% of these arrivals, generating roughly \$800 million in revenue. By 2023, the number of international tourists (overnight visitors) had surged to approximately 1286 million worldwide, a 34% increase from 2022; this indicates that international tourism had regained 88% of its pre-pandemic levels due to strong pent-up demand. Europe and Africa led the recovery, achieving 94% and 96% of their pre-pandemic figures, respectively, followed by the Americas at 90%. For their part, Asia and the Pacific reported a more gradual recovery, reaching 65% of pre-pandemic levels by early 2023 (UNWTO, 2024).

Global migration is intertwined with the crises of the capitalist system, reflecting the independence and interdependence of states. Countries receiving migrants, primarily from less developed to more developed nations, have devised various strategies to manage this migration. However, it is argued that migration is not necessarily a pursuit of better life prospects but rather a reaction to the instability inherent in the capitalist economy (Freire-Chaglla and Sanmartín-Rojas, 2021). Furthermore, globalisation policies facilitating the free movement of people and capital have strengthened the connection between migration and tourism, effectively blending the two phenomena (Lanquar, 2007; Williams and Hall, 2000). Tourism, regarded as a temporary respite from daily life (Huete and Mantecón, 2010), is often entangled with migration (Christin, 2018a, 2018b). This interrelation necessitates a re-evaluation of national migration and tourism policies, affecting the integration or fragmentation of communities (International Organization for Migration, 2019; Pedreño, 2009; Williams, 2019).

Given the intensification of mobility processes during globalisation, tourism has become increasingly varied and complex; this fact has complicated its identification and quantification at a macro level. Consequently, international tourism statistics frequently face criticism for their failure to accurately capture this social aspect of geographical movement (Lanquar, 2007; Smith, 2004). For example, an individual may enter a country on a visa classified for tourism but, following an extended stay,

the challenge arises in defining their status—as a tourist or an immigrant—based on the criteria of the host country (Lanquar, 2007).

In Mediterranean European countries, two distinct migration patterns emerge: northern migrants often start as tourists seeking a change of environment and decide to stay (Christin, 2018); for their part, southern migrants use tourist visas to enter and then opt to reside permanently, aiming to enhance their quality of life (Lanquar, 2007). Van Haren and Masferrer (2021) critique the efficacy of migration policies through their study on Mexico-Canada migration, noting a significant decrease in travel and refugee applications between 2009 and 2016, a period during which a travel visa was mandated. Despite this, the population of Mexican migrants increased. The imposition of visa requirements saw a reduction in tourists and asylum seekers from Mexico, whereas the number of new permanent residents, along with temporary workers and students, surged, especially as regards temporary arrivals (Van Haren and Masferrer, 2019). A parallel situation is observed in South America, where cities with relative lower living costs welcome American migrants—predominantly retirees and benefit from their frequent visits and high income (Hayes, 2018). In contrast, Venezuelan migrants seek economic stability by entering countries with refugee and/or tourist status (Edwards et al., 2023; García et al., 2017; Yuctor and Espinoza, 2018). Consequently, distinguishing between tourism and migration becomes challenging for the host states when compiling statistics.

The importance of accurate tourism statistics becomes evident when considering their impact on economic policies, domestic, and foreign investments. However, these figures are often distorted due to the inclusion of refugees and labour immigrants, mistaken for tourists due to global instability (Freire-Chaglla and Sanmartín-Rojas, 2021). Such unreliable information has influenced policy since the 1990s. The UNWTO report (2011) highlighted a dramatic increase in tourist arrivals from 1995 to 2010: 161% in Africa, 149% in Asia/Pacific, and 340% in the Middle East (Singh, 2012). This surge puzzled researchers, as the remarkable movement of people seemed inconsistent with the economic challenges of these regions, suggesting that tourism growth alone does not fully explain this trend. The importance of accurate tourism statistics becomes evident when considering their impact on economic policies, domestic, and foreign investments. However, these figures are often distorted due to the inclusion of refugees and labour immigrants, mistaken for tourists due to global instability (Freire-Chaglla and Sanmartín-Rojas, 2021). The UNWTO report (2011) highlighted a dramatic increase in tourist arrivals from 1995 to 2010: 161% in Africa, 149% in Asia/Pacific, and 340% in the Middle East (Singh, 2012). This surge puzzled researchers, as the remarkable movement of people seemed inconsistent with the economic challenges of these regions, suggesting that tourism growth alone does not fully explain this trend.

Therefore, a thorough assessment and cross-verification of the information provided by UNWTO is required, as the sole perspective of tourism may not adequately account for the observed phenomenon. Furthermore, accurately identifying the intentions of individuals who declare tourist status but seek permanent residency is crucial for accessing associated benefits.

2.2. Tourism in scenarios of the global economic and migratory crisis

Mobility represents a crucial issue for supranational governance, extending beyond the realms of migration and labour mobility in the contemporary economy (de Haas, 2011). Indeed, the statistics of host countries do not often clearly delineate the distinction between travelling for tourism and migrating under extreme conditions, such as violence, which forces or compels millions to relocate (Williams and Hall, 2000).

Mobility encompasses multiple dimensions: migration, which involves a change in living conditions; professional relocation, associated with employment; and tourism, related to leisure (Christin, 2018). Overlooking these distinctions severely restricts the discourse on contemporary human mobility globally. Thus, by adopting a fresh perspective that differentiates between voluntary and involuntary travel, the choice of destination and travel preferences become critical components of the management challenges faced by Nation-States in terms of international relations and sector-specific data.

Furthermore, global mobility is driven by geopolitical instability, tourism, and employment opportunities (Freire-Chaglla and Sanmartín-Rojas, 2021), thus encompassing broad geo-economic and strategic concerns. This wider perspective allows for an understanding of people's movement across borders; it reveals significant shifts in border entry management, and it acknowledges the challenges in obtaining accurate national data.

Hence, it's crucial to factor in internal and regional instability alongside global economic crises. The impact of global economic downturns on tourist destination choices is significant. Additionally, the effect of regional instability, particularly in countries near conflict zones, on the rise in tourist numbers warrants attention. These factors suggest that tourism acts as a catalyst, condition, and promoter of residency in the destination country, with resident status often emerging from movements initially classified as tourism. The interplay between immigration and tourism is inherent to global instability. Therefore, analyses of inbound tourism should be complemented by studies on immigration and the demographic characteristics of the source countries.

Amid the global structural crisis of capitalism (Robinson, 2013) and ensuing widespread unpredictability, countries faced instability from 2007 to 2018 due to conflicts, state drug trafficking battles, and government upheavals. This instability affected nations like Mexico, Guatemala, and Afghanistan, and also impacted stateless groups in places like Palestine and Syria, alongside the reconfiguration of European nations post the dissolution of entities like the Soviet Union. Amid the global structural crisis of capitalism (Robinson, 2013) and the ensuing widespread unpredictability, countries faced instability from 2007 to 2018 due to extraterritorial conflicts, state drug trafficking disputes, and government upheavals. This instability affected nations like Mexico, Guatemala, and Afghanistan; it also impacted stateless groups in places like Palestine and Syria, alongside the reconfiguration of European nations after the dissolution of entities like the Soviet Union.

Developing regions in Asia, South America, and Africa have seen their economies influenced by foreign investment and export agreements (Freire-Chaglla and Sanmartín-Rojas, 2021), while G7 nations have emerged as economic leaders,

shaping the international agenda despite the non-binding nature of their summit decisions (Unión Europea, 2019).

Global crises disrupt the market, affecting nations' autonomy and their ability to meet their populations' basic needs (Bernácer, 2018). This leads to increased migration as people seek better living and working conditions. Tourism, interestingly, remains a focus even in national crises, raising questions about its impact on the economies of conflict-affected destinations.

This study investigates the dynamics of tourism and migration from 2007 to 2018, analysing the motives behind residency changes in Ecuador due to tourism, through correspondence tests and regression analysis, challenging the notion that tourism necessarily improves the financial standing of host nations amidst instability.

2.3. Verifying territorial context

The structural crises of the capitalist world (Robinson, 2018) significantly impact dependent peripheral nations (Amin, 2006). Despite not being directly adjacent, these countries experience dynamic tourism and migration flows due to their economic ties. This interdependence, driven by factors such as macroeconomic imbalances, reduced public spending, limited business development for job creation, unmet basic needs, the discrediting and overthrow of legitimate governments, and intense conflicts over global trade in strategic raw materials, facilitates people's movement in an unstable environment (Freire-Chaglla and Sanmartín-Rojas, 2021).

Ecuador exhibits the characteristics of both a source and destination for migrants, serving as a refuge for individuals from neighboring nations and residents from the U.S. It relies heavily on trade and tourism with the United States, as well as on the international trade of oil and mineral resources. Consequently, Ecuador is recognized as a primary refuge and transit country in Latin America (Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores Comercio e Integración, 2007). This status is further supported by its constitutional policy on the free movement of people (Asamblea Nacional Constituyente, 2008).

Over the past 18 years, a range of external and internal factors has influenced Ecuador's stability in various domains. Pertinent to this study, the Ecuadorian tourism sector has experienced fluctuations in inbound tourism (Serrano et al., 2018). From 2007 to 2018, there has been a notable increase in the convergence of residency and tourism in Ecuador, with residency often masquerading as tourism. This trend is driven by regional conflicts in Latin America and Ecuador's relative national stability and high-quality public services, which attract individuals from North America (**Figure 1**).

Ecuadorian authorities (INEC, Ministry of the Interior, and Ministry of Tourism) reported 1.54 million non-resident foreigners in 2015, encompassing visitors for tourism, business, events, and studies (INEC, 2018). The counting method was revised in 2017, recategorising tourism under "others," which led to a reported decrease to 1.6 million entries. By 2018, registrations of Venezuelan residents reached 944,866 (Pichincha, 2019; Yuctor and Espinoza, 2018), highlighting the blurred lines between migration and tourism. Accurately separating these two is crucial, with voluntary registration as non-immigrants necessary for inclusion in tourism statistics.

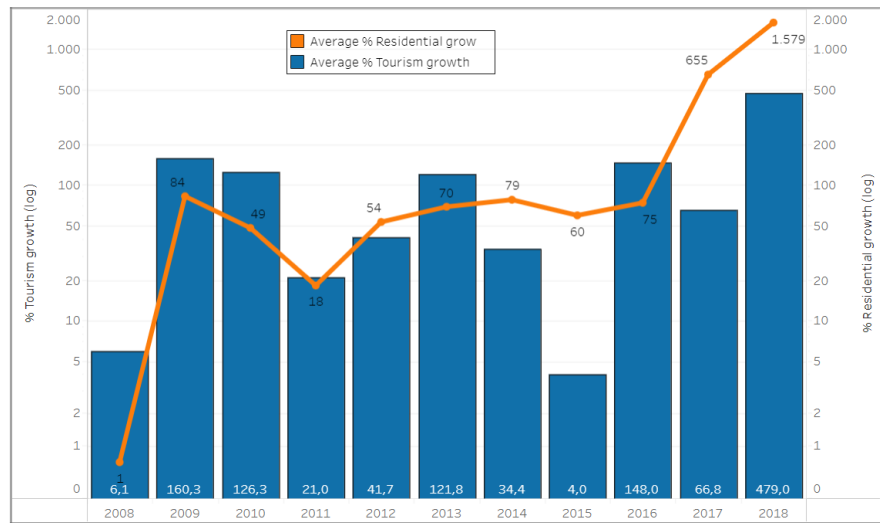


Figure 1. Comparative percentage growth of tourists and foreign residents in Ecuador.

3. Methodology

Figures from Ecuadorian public databases of international entries and exits were analysed from 1999 to 2018 (INEC, 2019). However, it has to be noted that there was a change in the nomenclature for nationality registration in 2007, and it was impossible to reconstruct it; therefore, the validated data of the historical series ranged from 2007 to 2018. The research variables were concentrated on the entry related to tourism (T) and residence (R) with temporary non-immigrant stay. For tourism, the data were consolidated between people who registered their entry to the country for tourism purposes, as well as for business, events, and studies. These records were validated only for those whose country of habitual residence was not Ecuador. Two thousand four hundred seventy-two records corresponding to 22.3 million people mobilised to Ecuador were used as a demonstration scenario.

During the time frame of the study, four distinct periods, marked by specific phenomena, were identified.

The first period was linked to the crisis resulting from the U.S. mortgage instability between 2008 and 2010 (Brent-Ritchie et al., 2010).

The second period was related to the increase in oil prices between 2011 and 2013 (Marchenko and Shapoval, 2019; Mohaddes and Pesaran, 2017), which raised the price of imports from consuming countries, with sufficient benefits for oil-exporting countries such as Ecuador.

The third period, between 2014 and 2016 (CEPAL, 2017; FMI, 2018; 2019), was characterised by a fragile global economic stability in the GDP figures of first-world countries.

Finally, a period of social instability and global migration affected Ecuador and the region between 2017 and 2019. During these years, there was a radical hardening of foreign policy, such as the closed-door agreement from Mexico and Panama, which was reached by the U.S. administration of Donald Trump.

For the characterisation of T and R, four equations were formulated that coincide with the scenarios described in the logarithmic model:

$$\ln R_{ik} = b_{ik} \ln T_{ik} + a_{ik} \quad (1)$$

where R is the residence of people as non-immigrants; T is receptive tourism; a is a constant that indicates the minimum entries from inbound tourism; i is a period of analysis; and k is the country of origin.

The model was derived from the above function to explain R for a country on the basis of a historical trend in inbound tourism.

Each period i corresponds to an average of the analysis cycle \underline{R}_i and \underline{T}_i with partial samples. Each country k per analysis period i has a certain propensity towards residence or tourism as measured by:

$$\omega_{ik} = \frac{R - (aT^b)}{T} \quad (2)$$

where ω is the general propensity of the model based on the historical trend shown by the quantitative variables R and T . The value ω adopts values less than or greater than zero, representing the propensity to T if it is less than zero or the propensity to R if it is greater than zero. Then, theoretically, $\omega \neq 0$.

The dimension ω is a measurement whose limits determine the propensity for which T or R takes on meaning when $\omega < 0$ or when $\omega > 0$.

Then, the volumes of ω without standardisation and compared with the averages of the \underline{R}_i and \underline{T}_i periods graduate the depth and impact of R_i and T_i . For the purposes of this study, these graduations are called *fields*: 0 for T_i and $+\infty$ for R_i . Thus, the difference between the data T_i and \underline{T}_i yields C_{Ti} , and the difference between the data R_i and \underline{R}_i yields C_{Ri} .

With the simultaneous calculation of C_{Ti} and C_{Ri} complementary dimensions are obtained, where:

$$C_i = (C_{Ti}; C_{Ri}) \quad (3)$$

The empirical analysis allowed to perfect C_i , which adopted four very defined behaviours; therefore, C_i was transformed into C_{ni} , where n varies from 1 to 4. The variability condition of (3) acquires four behaviours described as:

$$C_{1i} = (C_{Ti} > \underline{T}_i; C_{Ri} > \underline{R}_i) \quad (4)$$

$$C_{2i} = (C_{Ti} < \underline{T}_i; C_{Ri} > \underline{R}_i) \quad (5)$$

$$C_{3i} = (C_{Ti} < \underline{T}_i; C_{Ri} < \underline{R}_i) \quad (6)$$

$$C_{2i} = (C_{Ti} > \underline{T}_i; C_{Ri} < \underline{R}_i) \quad (7)$$

The dimension C_i -field-acquires a generalised and complementary variability to the behaviour of T_i and R_i . The behaviour that k (source country) acquires is generalisable to the behaviour of the host country and the period i in question; it is complementary because it is assumed that migrants have a choice between residing in the country of destination or only carrying out tourist activities with an assured return to their country of habitual residence.

The fields C_i acquire a significant meaning. From this dimension, it is possible to predict the behaviour that a country receiving migratory movements would have with the citizens of the countries of habitual residence.

Two research hypotheses were proposed to test the complementary model of residence and tourism:

- H_0 : The entry figures for tourism and residence are not related to each other or to global phenomena of economic crisis and migratory instability because their numbers have a gradual and positive growth.
- H_1 : The entry figures for tourism and residence are complementary and unstable, affected by generalised global crises and migration crises.

Consequently, to analyse the impacts of the complementary figures described above, countries were classified into two major groups: countries with influence on the global crisis and countries with no such influence. Blocks were constructed for these groups on the basis of their position and role in multilateral organisations (OECD, 2013). This role derives from global economic and political agreements (Freire-Chaglla and Sanmartín-Rojas, 2021), the United Nations Declaration on Refugees (UNHCR, 2019), membership to the UN Security Council (United Nations, 2019), and from geopolitical positions on financing and investment protection (SRI, 2017) (Figures 2 and 3).

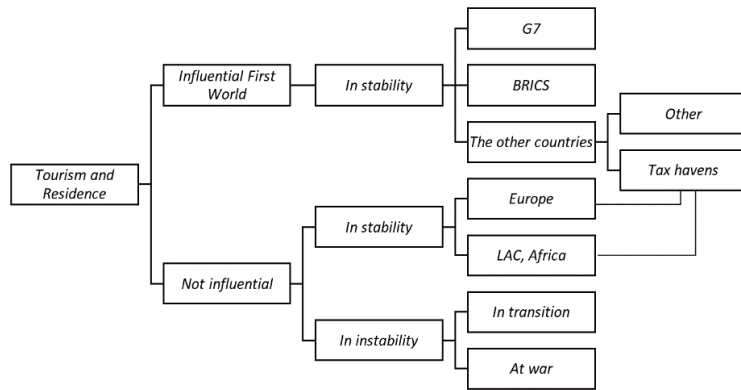


Figure 2. Grouping of countries by their impact on the capitalism global crisis.

Note: Adapted from Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (2011); from SRI (2017); from Freire-Chaglla and Sanmartín-Rojas (2021); from UN Security Council (2019); UNHCR (2019).

In addition, statistical tests were conducted using the study model to determine the validity of the research hypotheses; then, a specific empirical application that considered normality, heteroscedasticity, multicollinearity, and statistical power measurement was used; this allowed the comparison between the results of the forecasting equation and those derived from the empirical data. In addition, the state of stability or instability was determined through a study of variances using the ANOVA model of partial samples.

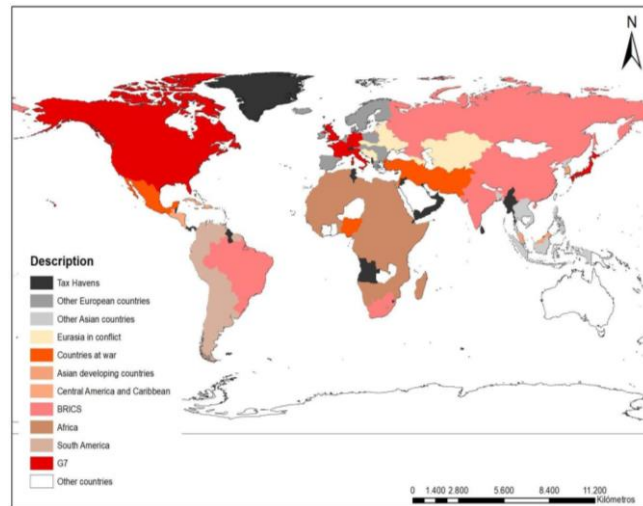


Figure 3. Geopolitical groupings of countries according to their impact on the global context

Note: Adapted from Ferro Núñez and Castaño Ferro (2017); and Praj (2015).

4. Findings

To validate Function (1), the researchers used the tourism and migration scenario of temporary non-immigrant stay in Ecuador. The model was subjected to reliability tests whose data corresponded to non-parametric and non-normal measurements.

Despite the relatively low levels of correlation with i , it is inferred that the variables T and R have a high impact according to the measurement period (Erdfelder et al., 2009; Faul et al., 2007). It was evident that the time factor impacted the tourism entry figures; consequently, H_0 was discarded. The values acquired by $p H_i$ from medium to high (Erdfelder et al., 2009; Faul et al., 2007) affected the variables of people’s entry in the country. Therefore, the time factor—measured over the periods—was characterised by alterations that the world economic order caused to the tourism figures and a trend of instability in geopolitical and migratory matters (Table 1). The impacts between T and R were more intense so that the demand for residence accompanied each movement of tourists.

Table 1. Model test results.

	Basic feature	i	T	R
i (period)	Rho Spearman		0.134*	0.263*
	p Hi		0.366	0.513
	Sig.		0.000	0.000
	1- β		1.000	1.000
	Valor crítico mín.		0.074	0.075
	Valor crítico máx.		0.074	0.075
	N		2471	2471
	T (tourism)	Rho Spearman	0.134*	
	p Hi	0.366		0.949
	Sig.	0.000		0.000
	1- β	1.000		1.000

Table 1. (Continued).

	Basic feature	<i>i</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>R</i>
	Valor crítico mín.	0.074		0.075
	Valor crítico máx.	0.074		0.075
	N	2471		2472
R (residence)	Rho Spearman	0.263*	0.900*	
	p Hi	0.513	0.949	
	Sig.	0.001	0.000	
	1-β	1.000	1.000	
	Valor crítico mín.	0.062	0.075	
	Valor crítico máx.	0.062	0.075	
	N	2471	2472	

Note: *Significant correlation at 0.01 bilateral level. *p Hi* = effect size of 0.3 medium or 0.5 large; *1-β* = statistical power to accept H_1 as it approaches 1; *Sig.* = bilateral significance to 0.01.

For each *i* period, specific models were corresponded and then represented with a general model of the migratory movements. The periods 2008–2010 and 2017–2018 revealed the lowest proportion of errors interpreted by the model, with a Standard Error of the Mean (SEM) of 0.48 and 0.31, respectively. In contrast, the general model reached an SEM of 0.44, while the other periods, with a value between 0.6 and 0.8, were relatively higher. This evidence suggested a specific study of variances. However, the relationship between the variables was significantly high, as measured by their coefficient of determination (R_2), which ranged from 0.88 to 0.96.

The *p*-value of both the intercept and the coefficient reached a 0.0001 level except in 2017–2018, when, for every person who entered the country because of tourism, another person entered for residence or sought a temporary resident position. Contrastively, the position of economic stability of Ecuador, described by the period 2011–2013 and characterised by a high national oil income, showed that only 1 in 10 people applied for temporary residence (**Table 2**).

Table 2. Coefficients and means of the model for the analysis of Tourism and Temporary Residence.

Period	Model calculations		Regression equation		Average T	Average R
	Coefficient	Intercept	Coefficient	Exponent		
2008–2010	0.902	-1.326	0.266	0.902	7578.40	1519.38
2011–2013	0.946	-1.777	0.169	0.946	15,724.09	2300.04
2014–2016	0.972	-1.491	0.225	0.972	20,529.57	3694.52
2017–2018	1.002	-0.099	0.906	1.002	19,209.38	17,459.84
General	0.980	-0.848	0.428	0.980	63,306.70	24,572.07

Note: *T* represents data for tourism and *R* for non-immigrant residents.

Furthermore, it is assumed that the unusual migratory stampede (2017–2018) unleashed by Venezuelan citizens reached overwhelming figures, higher than the entry of people in the period of the global financial crisis in 2008. The minimum average number of people entering the country as residents by 2017 was 232,000. This figure was drastically reduced by the joint action of the South American countries to stop the

massive irregular immigrant residence; in fact, there were barely 16,000 entries by 2018.

However, and conditioned to a drastic change in the regulation of migratory movements from Venezuela, together with its internal instability, a significant political and social instability situation in the region ensued. Although the entry figures of people were lower than those caused by the global crisis of 2008–2010, both in terms of the model coefficient and the exponent of T , the 2017–2018 period is a cycle of mass population movement in South America; it is significantly different from previous periods and gave rise to unusual hopes that tourism recovery was a permanent fact.

Sudden changes in the number of people entering a country brought about significant changes in temporary residence migration movements. Therefore, the model was tested for variance and ANOVA, which strengthened the postulation that global or regional instability prompted entries to certain types of countries.

The most remarkable changes in the T and R variables occurred in periods of regional upheaval so that instability assumes specific behaviours depending on the period. Between 2008 and 2010, the variance of T increased proportionately to R in May (**Figure 4**); between 2011 and 2013, the variance was proportional for both T and R in a smaller dimension than before; between 2017 and 2018, the variance was almost zero for T and very significant for R . This period revealed the highest variance of the study years. In addition, the tourism rate showed a variance above the trend line measured by the quadratic mean and whose significance reached 0.088, which would imply an erratic behaviour among the groups of countries that arrived in Ecuador. This phenomenon did not occur with the residence rate, although the higher variance is more consistent with the flows between the proposed periods, making residence between the different countries predictable.

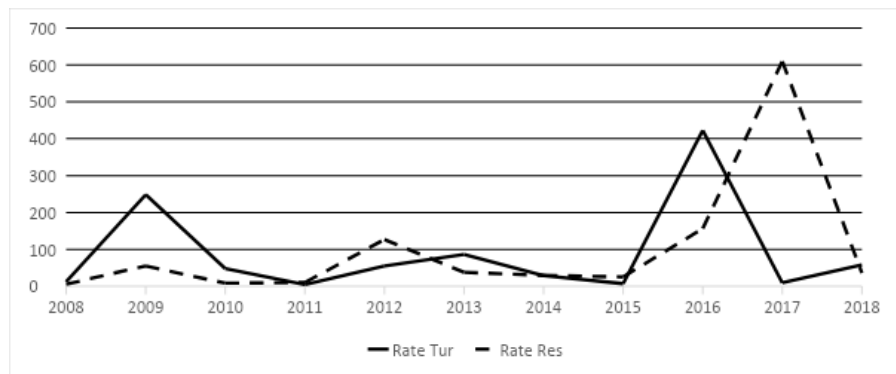


Figure 4. Analysis of variance of T and R between periods.

Furthermore, in the worldwide analysis of countries by economic and geopolitical groups for forecasting T and R , function (3) was used to identify the behaviour of the figures of migratory mobilisation. The propensity (2) and its limits were calculated using the model (1) in the function of the fields (3), with the overall model average and the periods serving as a reference.

The propensity for tourism acquired negative values whose limits fluctuated between -0.9109 and -0.0030 ; in contrast, residence acquired values between 0.0085 and 7.0941 (**Table 3**).

As a result of applying the fields in the general model, ten countries were found to have a high propensity for tourism in *the* C_1 field; of these, Colombia and the United Kingdom stand out as typical countries that send tourism to Ecuador. At the same time, other countries in the same field were identified as having propensities close to zero. It was deduced that *the* C_1 field was prone to T, as it was very intense in R.

At C_3 , the permanent presence of 240 countries was detected, with an extensive range in ω values, but well below the model average. Throughout the study period, the behavioural analysis revealed a very low prevalence of people using the T modality and high demand for R. Thus, countries classified in this category were those that did not prefer Ecuador as a destination, that originated on other continents, or that were territorially reduced despite the absence of a history of migratory stay.

At C_4 , ten countries were identified and characterised by high tourism demand and persistence among the best clients of Ecuador for inbound tourism.

As for the fields prone to R at C_2 , nine countries stand out, mainly Italy, China, Cuba, and Panama, whose main characteristic was the stay of tourists which later led to the request of temporary residence. These countries had acquired particular importance in the international relations of Ecuador, both for their investments and their free mobility agreements up until before 2017. After that year, the international immigration strategy of the region changed. Therefore, it is assumed that these countries had a unique behaviour in response to the migration situation (**Table 3**).

Table 3. Measurement of fields for tourism and residential propensity.

	Propensity to T			Propensity to R			
	C1	C3	C4	C1	C2	C3	C4
Minimum per field	-0.136	-0.911	-0.103	0.009	0.322	0.009	0.017
Maximum per field	-0.012	-0.003	-0.009	1.509	2.559	7.094	0.054
Model lower limit	-0.911	-	-	0.009	-	-	-
Model upper limit	-0.003	-	-	7.094	-	-	-
Number of countries involved	10	240	10	16	9	199	3

Furthermore, tourism and residence behaviour were associated in the study of propensity linked to economic regions in the world and using model data and calculated fields. Each region had a propensity for R and T simultaneously; the difference was in the intensity with which the propensity volume was manifested. Countries from the G7 showed high propensities for tourism and lower propensities for residence, as described in C4. Nevertheless, African countries also showed an essential tendency of their population to choose Ecuador as their tourist destination. Since they were at C3, their incidence in the total figures was extremely low.

On the other hand, analysing C2, Central American, Caribbean, and Asian countries constituted the most prominent residence trends. Cuban, Filipino, and Indonesian citizens changed their tourist status for non-immigrant residents. Certainly,

Ecuador has become a transit country for irregular migration to North American countries.

Derived from R propensity calculations, the countries from ‘Other European Countries’ and ‘Tax Havens’ reached very high propensity levels: 0.53 and 1.5, respectively; it could be inferred that countries with a certain level of purchasing power look at Ecuador as preferred for their non-immigrant residents; this is evidenced by the tendency of the propensity which moves towards zero. The above facts do not represent a decline in tourism. Instead, the permanent stay of these populations has been accompanied by a demand for residence as immigrants.

In short, the regions with the most remarkable propensity to reside in Ecuador came from areas of instability, unlike countries that are rich and/or have high tourism rates—G7 and other European countries, which had average volumes of propensity to reside. Both C1 and C4 fields have influenced the number of tourists stays. Consequently, the countries that move growing masses of people with a tendency to reside are located in C1 and C2 fields (Figure 5).

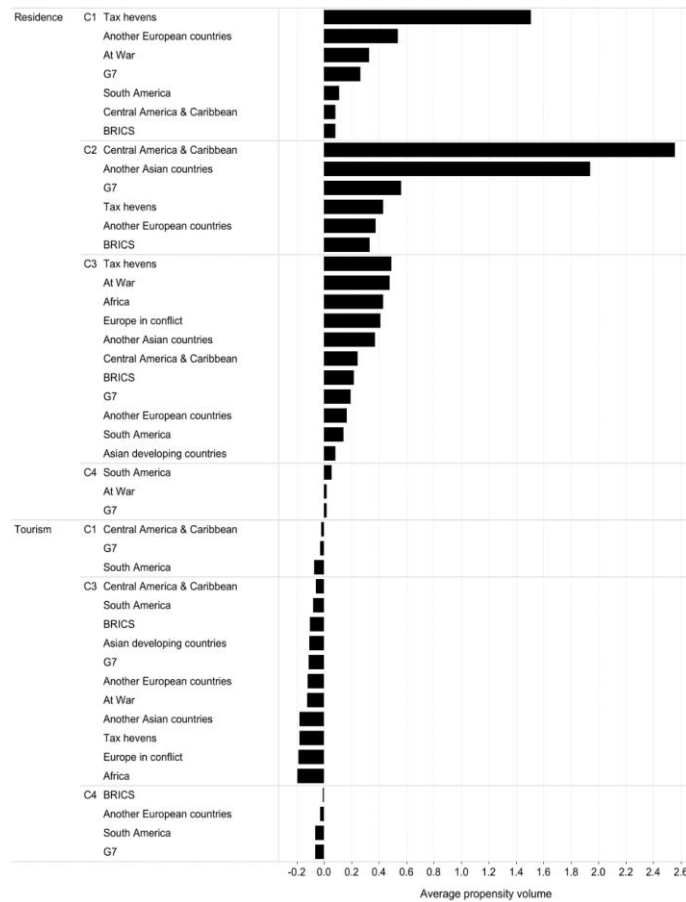


Figure 5. R&T propensity behaviour by economic region.

Note: The propensity for tourism has a negative variation and is represented by a maximum volume of – 0.19.

The propensity levels by economic groups showed that the C3 field had more propensity towards tourism; these data were concentrated in African countries, European countries in conflict, tax havens, and other European countries. However, the volume of people did not sufficiently impact the national figures. This can be

attributed to the growing trend of tourist arrivals in these countries. The comparison of these results with those obtained individually per country contradicts the trends; this may be due to the initial motivation of these countries to find new tourist attractions.

In contrast to the previous result, the propensity for non-immigrant residence confirmed the trend by country; C1 and C2 fields concentrated on countries seeking refuge, temporary residence, or permanent residence. These groups corresponded to tax havens (Panama) and Central American countries (Cuba). permanent residence. These groups corresponded to tax havens (Panama) and Central American countries (Cuba).

In each studied period, it was possible to detect the high residence propensity of citizens from the Andean sub-region, such as Peru, Colombia, and Venezuela.

To summarise, tourism figures in Ecuador have suffered alterations due to the entry of non-immigrant residents from the United States, Spain, Italy, Netherlands, China, Cuba, Philippines, Mexico, Panama, Chile, Brazil, Cuba, and Costa Rica; this has caused the deterioration of national tourist figures to contribute to the growth of the Ecuadorian tourism industry (**Table 4** and **Figure 6**).

Table 4. Propensity to tourism and residence, by country and period.

Period	Field	Scenario	Residence propensity	Propensity for tourism
2008–2010	C1	>T ₁ ; R ₁	Spain, United States, Italy, Brazil, Cuba, Chile, Venezuela	Germany, France, Canada, United Kingdom, Netherlands, Colombia, Peru
	C2	<T ₂ ; >R ₂	China	-
	C3	<T ₃ ; <R ₃		The rest of the countries
	C4	>T ₄ ; <R ₄	-	Switzerland
2010–2013	C1	>T ₁ ; >R ₁	Spain, United States, Italy, Netherlands, Panama, Cuba, Mexico	Germany, France, United Kingdom, Chile, Venezuela, Peru, Colombia
	C2	<T ₂ ; >R ₂	Philippines, China, Costa Rica, India, Ukraine	-
	C3	<T ₃ ; <R ₃		The rest of the countries
	C4	>T ₄ ; <R ₄	-	Haití, Suiza
2014–2016	C1	>T ₁ ; >R ₁	Spain, Netherlands, Italy, China, Philippines, Cuba, Mexico, Panama, Peru, Colombia	United States, Canada, United Kingdom, France, Germany, Brazil, Chile, Argentina, Venezuela
	C2	<T ₂ ; >R ₂	India, Russia, El Salvador, Ukraine	-
	C3	<T ₃ ; <R ₃		The rest of the countries
	C4	>T ₄ ; <R ₄	-	Haiti, Switzerland
2017–2018	C1	>T ₁ ; >R ₁	United States, Spain, Italy, Netherlands, Peru, Venezuela, Chile, Mexico, Brazil	Germany, Canada, United Kingdom, France, Colombia, Peru
	C2	<T ₂ ; >R ₂	Cuba	Costa Rica
	C3	<T ₃ ; <R ₃		The rest of the countries
	C4	>T ₄ ; <R ₄	-	
GENERAL	C1	>T ₁ ; >R ₁	United States, Spain, Italy, Netherlands, China, Cuba, Mexico, Panama, Peru, Chile, Brazil	Germany, Canada, United Kingdom, France, Colombia, Argentina
	C2	<T ₂ ; >R ₂	Cuba, Costa Rica	-
	C3	<T ₃ ; <R ₃		The rest of the countries
	C4	>T ₄ ; <R ₄	-	Switzerland

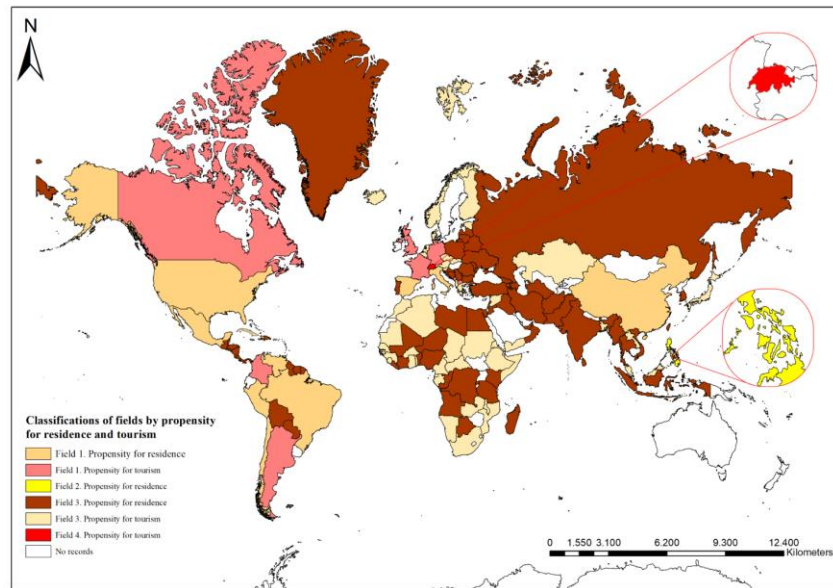


Figure 6. The geographical location of the propensity for tourism and residence.

5. Discussion

The study reveals a close connection between tourism (T) and migration (R) during periods of political, economic, and social instability in the countries of origin. It suggests that both phenomena are linked to a disruption or attempted disruption in the global order. There is a high statistical potency in the correlation between periods of instability and residency (R), with a significant coefficient of 0.513. Furthermore, the correlation between tourism (T) and residency (R) is remarkably high, evidenced by a statistical coefficient of 0.949.

Variance significantly increases during periods of instability, translating into altered entry patterns. For every individual entering as a tourist, another seeks residency. In contrast, during relatively stable periods, residency pressure considerably diminishes to a ratio of 1 in 10 individuals. This phenomenon becomes significant at crucial moments within the examined period, particularly during the years 2008–2009, marked by a global financial crisis; between 2011–2013, characterized by escalating conflicts in the Middle East and Africa and significant increases in oil prices; and throughout 2016–2017, a time of regional political tensions and massive migration from Venezuela.

Classification tests by economic groups confirm that countries with high instability and armed conflicts exhibit high propensities for both tourism and migratory residency. Additionally, average incomes derived from tourism (T) show an ascending trend. Conversely, the means corresponding to migratory residency (R), while also increasing, register particularly high values in periods of regional instability (Table 2).

The results corroborate the hypothesis that the dynamics of tourism and migration are susceptible to the repercussions of global and political crises, primarily due to the instability these crises engender. This suggests that the reasons behind migratory movements extend beyond mere employment reasons and are significantly influenced by a broader spectrum of political and economic instability on a global scale.

Global instability is intrinsically linked to the world-system dynamics proposed by Wallerstein, where hegemony emerges as a direct consequence of economic efficiency. According to Wallerstein (2005, pp. 84–85), this pursuit of efficiency manifests in the eagerness to identify territories with economically accessible labour and the anxiety to control costs, as well as strategic raw materials, often culminating in the implementation of military measures. Thus, instability is not an accident but an inherent feature of the system (Wallerstein, 2005, pp. 106–107). Chase-Dunn and Lawrence (2010) have critiqued Wallerstein’s theory for its heavy emphasis on economic structures while overlooking the significance of culture, politics, and military power. In contrast, our study employs a range of explanatory variables to address this multifaceted phenomenon (Aral, 2020; Bijak, 2010; Gössling et al., 2020; Işık et al., 2019; Lutz et al., 2004). Or as Işık (2019) describes, the economic and non-economic factors contributing to uncertainty. Not only does Wallerstein articulate this panorama of instability, but Robinson (2014) also complements this view, underscoring the inherent necessity in the globalized world—an alternative theory—along with the expansion of military complexes to secure natural resources, markets, and strategic influence. Although the perspectives of both authors present different interpretation pathways and do not necessarily converge, they both significantly contribute to understanding how the imposition of military force becomes a crucial component in maintaining hegemony within a global economic structure. This analysis suggests that, despite their differences, Wallerstein’s and Robinson’s theories can be considered complementary in explaining power dynamics in the context of economic globalization. Not only does Wallerstein articulate this panorama of instability, but Robinson (2014) also complements this view, underscoring the inherent necessity in the globalized world—an alternative theory—along with the expansion of military complexes to secure natural resources, markets, and strategic influence. Although the perspectives of both authors present different interpretation pathways and do not necessarily converge, they both significantly contribute to understanding how the imposition of military force becomes a crucial component in maintaining hegemony within a global economic structure. This analysis suggests that, despite their differences, Wallerstein’s and Robinson’s theories can be considered complementary in explaining power dynamics in the context of economic globalization.

Consequently, instability, inherent to the capitalist system, fosters the acceleration of migration and its various forms, including temporary residency. Thus, mass migrations emerge as a direct consequence of the consolidation process of the world-system.

It is essential to understand the role of tourism within a globalizing framework and how it thrives on conditions of stability, promoting an interchange of individuals between nations, regardless of their development level. Such interaction is facilitated, according to the touristic quadrants mentioned in this work (**Table 4** and **Figure 6**), provided it is not hindered by restrictive migratory regulations.

Analysing the stability of a tourist destination through news reveals that tourism depends on a peaceful environment and is influenced by countries’ foreign policies. This setting allows distinguishing the intentions of travellers, whether they are tourists or migrants. The arrival of people from unstable areas modifies the perception of their travel intentions, blurring the lines between tourism and migration. Thus, instability

in the country of origin transforms the nature of their travels, from touristic to migratory, either temporarily or permanently, which is driving discriminatory practices based on the immigration policies of receiving countries.

A limitation of the research was the inability to directly contrast the effects of migration policy with the incidence of discriminatory practices in the destination country, especially in contexts of instability.

The interaction between instability and the flows of tourism and migration highlights the intricate nature of these movements in the contemporary landscape. By closely examining the elements affecting both migration and tourism, a robust platform is established for the development of comprehensive policies that effectively address the challenges posed by global instability.

6. Conclusions

The findings of this research support the hypothesis that tourism and migration figures are significantly affected by global and political crises, reflecting a close relationship with periods of instability in the countries of origin. Migration can no longer be considered solely as a labour phenomenon (de Haas, 2011) but is influenced by a broader context of global instability.

The high correlation between instability and movements of tourism and migration underscores the complexity of these phenomena today. Furthermore, it is observed that the pressure for migratory residency increases during periods of instability, suggesting a greater propensity towards permanent migration in times of crisis.

Classification tests by economic groups support the notion that countries with high instability and armed conflicts show higher propensities for both tourism and migratory residency. Additionally, the increase in average tourism income, especially during periods of regional instability, is highlighted.

Regarding the identified paradoxes, our research highlights how capitalist globalisation, a phenomenon that, by its nature, should facilitate the free movement of individuals, paradoxically engenders instabilities that transform tourists into temporary migrants. This transformation underscores the inherent contradictions within the system itself.

Furthermore, mobility policies reveal paradoxes in the context of migration and tourism. On one hand, tourism is actively promoted for economic growth; on the other, immigration policies are tightened, creating an inherent conflict between touristic openness and border closure. This dichotomy not only unveils inconsistencies in political responses but also reaffirms the positions of scholars who contend that tourism can inadvertently act as a conduit for migration, particularly in contexts of economic crisis or political instability.

Another significant paradox arises from the asymmetrical relationship between developed and developing countries in the realm of tourism and migration. While developed countries often benefit from both the influx of tourists and migrants, less developed nations grapple with the challenges of brain drain and resource depletion (Salazar, 2022). In this context, global and regional crises, influenced by global capitalism, compel individuals to migrate in search of safety and better economic opportunities. This phenomenon challenges the traditional notion of tourism as a

leisure activity, as economic crises transform tourists into temporary migrants, thereby further blurring the lines between tourism and migration. This situation reveals how economic and global policies differentially influence migration and tourism patterns, with deeper repercussions for the economy and society of developing countries.

This study offers a detailed view of the interaction between global instability, tourism, and migration, providing a solid foundation for better understanding migratory patterns in crisis contexts. These findings have significant implications for the design of policies and strategies addressing the challenges arising from global instability in relation to tourism and migration movements.

Based on a comprehensive analysis of countries and regions, this study identified a generalized pattern that elucidated the trends examined by Cn. Field C1 delineates nations with a foundational level of income, both for tourism and residency, indicative of their high inclination. These countries exhibit significant entry income statistics in terms of visitors to specific destinations. In contrast, Field C2 characterizes countries with a strong inclination towards temporary residency, albeit with lower tourism levels. These nations typically experience prolonged stays. Field C3 corresponds to countries with minimal propensity, resulting in limited impact on tourism and extended stays. Finally, Field C4 pertains to countries where citizens are disinclined to reside permanently but visit solely for tourism purposes, contributing minimally to national statistics despite their favorable tourist profile.

Group-based economic classification tests support the notion that countries with high instability and armed conflicts exhibit greater tendencies towards both tourism and migratory residency. Additionally, there is a notable increase in tourism income averages, particularly during periods of regional instability.

This study complements the theoretical developments of the world-system, illustrating the inherent nature of population movements in response to global instability and the weakening of U.S. hegemony. Additionally, it delineates the role of the United States in fostering inbound tourism and its determinative influence on the commercial dependence of the country under investigation.

In summary, this study provides a detailed insight into the interaction among global instability, tourism, and migration, furnishing a robust foundation for better comprehending migratory patterns in crisis contexts. These findings carry significant implications for policymaking and strategy development aimed at addressing challenges stemming from global instability concerning tourism and migration movements.

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