

## SLOW VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN IN THE MEXICAN HOSPITALITY SECTOR

### *VIOLÊNCIA LENTA CONTRA AS MULHERES NO SETOR DE HOTELARIA MEXICANO*

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#### **Abstract**

The main objective of this research is to visualize different scenarios of violence against women working in the Mexican hospitality sector. On the theoretical side, this paper delves into a gender-based approach to slow violence that hinders access to the sector's social sustainability. Methodologically, secondary data was analyzed using economic censuses from 2003 to 2018. The sample included all 32 states of the Mexican Republic. Based on the collected data, descriptive and inferential statistical tools were used to present an overview of the main tourism-related variables and a map identifying tourist regions with varying scenarios of violence against women. The results show that women working in the hospitality sector are exposed to various forms of slow violence, both within the industry and in the surrounding environment.

**Keywords:** Gender. Mexico. Violence. Tourism. Social Sustainability.

#### **Resumo**

*O principal objetivo desta pesquisa é visualizar diferentes cenários de violência contra mulheres que trabalham no setor de hotelaria mexicano. Teoricamente, este artigo aprofunda uma abordagem de gênero para a violência lenta que dificulta o acesso à sustentabilidade social do setor. Metodologicamente, foram analisados dados secundários utilizando censos econômicos de 2003 a 2018. A amostra incluiu todos os 32 estados da República Mexicana. Com base nos dados coletados, foram utilizadas ferramentas estatísticas descritivas e inferenciais para apresentar uma visão geral das principais variáveis relacionadas ao turismo e um mapa que identifica regiões turísticas com diferentes cenários de violência contra mulheres. Os resultados mostram que as mulheres que trabalham no setor de hotelaria estão expostas a diversas formas de violência lenta, tanto dentro do setor quanto no ambiente externo.*

**Palavras-chave:** Gênero. México. Violência. Turismo; Sustentabilidade Social.



## 1 INTRODUCTION

The concept of slow violence has been used to make visible and analyze forms of harm that are not usually at the forefront of academic and public awareness (Nixon, 2011). This type of violence resembles a "soft knife" because, although it is not a sudden blow, its impact is constant and wearing. It can stem from structural inequalities, systematic discrimination, or social exclusion, affecting the dignity and well-being of individuals, especially the most vulnerable (O'Lear, 2021).

In general, violence against women and girls has been described as the shadow pandemic of our time. Slow violence represents a threat to sustainability, particularly to social sustainability. Slow violence affects women and men differently (Pain and Cahill, 2022; Fedock and Murray, 2024). Women particularly endure countless daily struggles, from basic subsistence and bureaucratic barriers to neighborhood crime and drug-related issues (Eger, 2021).

The invisibility of slow violence is shaped not only by its gradual nature but also by broader gender epistemologies that prioritize speed, intensity, and spectacle. Violence is not detached from its origins solely by time, but also by gendered, racial, and colonial roots. A feminist analysis helps address how slow violence operates along gender lines (Christian and Dowler, 2019).

From a feminist perspective, Hyndman (2015) conducts a critical geopolitical analysis of perception and victimhood in the aftermath of the September 11 attacks in the U.S., showing that visibility was granted to men's experiences, overlooking the impact on women. Similarly, Cahill et al. (2019) highlight processes of slow violence that affect undocumented female students through aggression and exclusion in educational settings. Another study emphasizes how the food choices of Black individuals result in slow death through diabetes, hypertension, and other conditions, revealing emotional violence in Black women's dietary patterns (Jones, 2019).

In the workplace, Tagle (2019) explores the geographic aspects of racial injustice and violence, such as displacement, incarceration, toxic waste dumping, and labor exploitation. His findings show how disposable zones and landscapes are configured both spatially and temporally. Brickell (2024) highlighted the slow violence of over-indebtedness affecting textile workers and farmers during the COVID-19 pandemic, with

a disproportionate impact on women. Innes et al. (2024) also documented sexual violence experienced by women migrating in search of job opportunities.

Tourism is a significant source of employment for women, who represent over 60% of the global workforce in the hospitality industry (WTTC, 2021). It offers them independent income, family-supporting roles, and greater mobility (Tran and Walter, 2014). While tourism does not necessarily create the conditions for violence, it often contributes to reinforcing inequality rather than reducing it (Devine and Ojeda, 2017; Eger, 2021).

Andrews (2009) found that in tourist destinations, masculinity excludes women from the public sphere, with tourism practices reinforcing notions of women as sexual objects confined to the domestic sphere. The same author also identified symbolic, subtle, and invisible violence that reinforces structural power relations and male dominance over women (Andrews, 2014).

Women working in the hospitality sector face a recognized "glass ceiling" that prevents them from accessing higher-level positions, even when they possess the necessary skills (Sigüenza-Poveda, 2011; Masadeh and Alhammad, 2020). Additionally, they are often hired for exhausting shifts with minimal pay (Cerezo and Lara de Vicente, 2005; Díaz-Carrión and Kido-Cruz, 2017), and in some cases, they may even be victims of femicide (Aragón-Falomir, 2022).

Balbuena-Vázquez and López-López (2023) investigated labor precariousness in the Riviera Maya (Quintana Roo, Mexico), focusing on the experiences of hotel housekeepers in this tourist region. Their study compares labor conditions in the Riviera Maya with those in Costa del Sol, Spain, highlighting the vulnerability of these workers, who face low wages and unstable employment.

Although studies are pointing to various forms of slow violence against women working in tourism, there is still a lack of theoretical advancements to understand this type of violence from a gender perspective. Furthermore, there is a need for tools that can identify the spatial dimensions of violence to make it visible within specific temporal and spatial contexts (Nixon, 2011). This research explores the hidden forms of slow violence underlying the growth of female employment in the Mexican hospitality sector. Secondary data was used to create maps and scenarios of violence across Mexican territory.

This study contributes to revealing how slow violence operates from a gender perspective by developing theoretical insights and, at the empirical level, tracing how it manifests in specific regions. It brings visibility to risks and threats often considered banal or routine, despite their emotional, physical, and economic impact on women. The results of this research are valuable for generating action within companies, informing public policy, and raising awareness in society at large to promote better work environments and safer living spaces.

## **2 TOURISM AND FEMININE WORK**

When people think of violence, it is usually physical violence that comes to mind—something involving a subject, an object, and an action. However, harm can also be inflicted when the subject, the object, or both are not immediately involved. There is both manifest and latent violence, the latter not visible at a given moment but with a high likelihood of emerging in the future (Galtung, 1969). Žižek (2008) distinguishes between subjective and objective violence. The former refers to violence that is present but not perceived as such, while the latter involves violence perpetrated by a specific actor. Subjective violence often remains invisible and normalized, yet it is intimately connected to individual acts of violence.

Nixon (2011), for his part, differentiates between fast and slow violence. The former manifests as an immediate event or action in time, explosive and spectacular in space, with sensational and instant visibility. It bursts forth in such a way that it is inevitably considered active, in contrast to the apparent passivity of slow violence. Slow violence, by contrast, occurs gradually and out of sight. It is a violence of delayed destruction that is dispersed across time and space—a wear-and-tear violence that is typically not recognized as violence at all. It is violence embedded in social structures and may be associated with visible and physical wars and conflicts in the form of the absence of a safe home, neighborhood, or community (O’Lear, 2021).

Fast violence has an immediate impact and demands active public attention, becoming an issue of immediate concern (Nixon, 2011). Slow violence, on the other hand, is categorized as passive, routine, and banal, to the point that it becomes extremely difficult to identify or hold accountable the actors responsible for its production. In contrast, changes that arise slowly are almost inevitably perceived as trivial, as gradual

change becomes routine and often goes unnoticed or seems insignificant (Christian and Dowler, 2019).

Slow violence can result in physical and mental harm, undermining health, confidence, and individual capacity. These conditions give rise to unequal opportunities for personal development and well-being (O’Lear, 2021). According to Christian and Dowler (2019), slow violence can be seen as intertwined with broader ideological processes, such as the intersection of gender with other identities like race, class, and sexual orientation.

According to Nixon (2011) and O’Lear (2021), the main characteristics of slow violence are: (1) Dispersion across time and space; (2) Disproportionate effects on vulnerable, dispossessed, and marginalized populations; and (3) Difficulty in making it visible.

(a) Dispersion across time and space

The temporal records of slow violence are often unspectacular or wearing, acting silently and cumulatively. For example, radiation, lead poisoning, and other forms of toxic exposure infiltrate the body and manifest at varying rates (Nixon, 2011; O’Lear, 2021).

In the context of women's labor, long-term processes of erosion can be observed, including gender-based disadvantages such as discrimination, the assignment of care-related tasks to women, and low compensation for long and exhausting workdays. The precarious conditions of female labor can be seen as the result of patriarchal and colonial processes whose current expressions permeate the labor sphere over time.

Most women in the hospitality sector have been assigned to physically demanding, stressful, poorly paid, and even degrading tasks. Thus, even when hotel staff is composed mostly of women, men are the ones who make decisions, while women are confined to operational roles (Hoel and Einarsen, 2003; Díaz-Carrión and Kido-Cruz, 2017).

This sector also maintains a persistent gender wage gap in favor of men (Martínez-Sidón and Morones-Carrillo, 2021). According to Muñoz-Bullón (2009), male workers in Spain earn, on average, 6.7% more per month than their female counterparts. This disparity is attributed to the types of contracts and qualifications required for different roles, where managerial positions are typically assigned to men and service roles to women. In Mexico, jobs requiring less professional and academic experience are

predominantly held by women, often temporarily, and in many cases, women are employed as outsourced personnel (Cerezo and Lara de Vicente, 2005).

Sigüenza-Poveda (2011) highlights the existence of a “glass ceiling” for women in the hospitality sector, a term referring to invisible barriers that prevent highly qualified women from reaching higher levels of responsibility. Moreover, family responsibilities play a significant role in the positions women can access in this sector, with 80% of women employed in tourism having children and 53% being heads of household (Martínez-Sidón and Morones-Carrillo, 2021).

b) Effect on vulnerable populations

Slow violence disproportionately harms dispossessed individuals, with those lacking resources being the primary victims of this type of violence (Nixon, 2011). These communities live in the shadow of industrial factories, in marginalized neighborhoods next to landfills, in remote rural areas, and in many other places ignored by wealthier and better-connected populations (Eger, 2021).

Chant (2002) argues that the biased terms and positions through which women enter the tourism workforce shape the emancipatory potential of their employment. Women are overrepresented in occupations and workplaces with lower average wages (Carvalho et al., 2014) and experience a high prevalence of sexual harassment (Ariza-Montes et al., 2017). These gender disparities reveal various forms of subordination and vulnerability, facilitating and legitimizing gender-based violence.

The precarious conditions faced by women who enter the hospitality sector from a disadvantaged position make them especially vulnerable to labor exploitation, hazardous working conditions, discrimination, sexual harassment, prostitution, and even slavery and human trafficking (Martínez-Quintana and Martínez-Gayo, 2020).

c) Difficulty in making slow violence visible

Nixon (2011) argues that one of the greatest challenges in addressing slow violence is its representation. Since its effects are gradual and often invisible, capturing public attention and generating immediate responses is difficult. For this reason, it is crucial to develop narratives, images, and symbols that can convey the magnitude of this violence, making it more tangible and comprehensible.

Skotnicki (2019) highlights these as cultural and framing challenges faced by those concerned with wear-and-tear suffering and slow-evolving harm. Similarly, Eger

(2021) emphasizes that slow violence is difficult to see, presenting representational—especially visual—challenges for those attempting to mobilize action around these issues.

To visualize slow violence, it must be situated in both time and space. Nixon (2011) notes that slow violence manifests on multiple spatial scales, from the cellular to the transnational. That is, its effects can be observed in both the biological damage caused by pollution or exposure to toxic substances, and in the global dynamics of exploitation and environmental degradation that affect entire communities.

Pain and Cahill (2022) argue that slow violence does not occur in a vacuum; it is deeply rooted in historical and geographical contexts that shape and enable it. In this sense, processes of disposability and dispossession impact not only individuals but also specific places, generating long-lasting effects on entire communities.

In this regard, a gender perspective is fundamental to analyzing violence within its historical and geographical context. It provides a clear positionality and theoretical grounding that guides the analysis toward concrete tools for making violence visible. This approach not only helps identify how violence affects different groups in differentiated ways but also offers strategies to render it visible in specific times and spaces.

The labor precarity experienced by women in the hospitality sector can be geographically located in particular regions. The geographic analysis of slow violence has evolved toward approaches that aim to represent these processes in engaged ways, to visualize their effects, and strengthen resistance. Social cartography and other spatial methodologies have been used to illustrate how violence is inscribed in specific territories, affecting both communities and ecosystems (Pain, 2019).

Beyond gender inequality within the industry, conditions of insecurity and violence also permeate workplace environments, influenced by factors such as migration in border areas, risks associated with drug trafficking, and the economic stagnation of formerly successful tourist enclaves (Torres-Oregón and Estrada-Rodríguez, 2021).

### **3 MATERIALS AND METHODS**

To obtain an initial general overview of the slow violence that permeates the hospitality sector, and particularly affects women, quantitative tools from descriptive statistics were used. Descriptive statistics is the branch of statistics that guides how to clearly and simply summarize research data. Measures of central tendency, such as the

mean, and measures of dispersion, such as range, were calculated to describe the variability of the data. The results can be presented in written form, charts, tables, or figures (Rendón-Macías et al., 2016).

Data collection was carried out using information from Mexico's National Institute of Statistics, Geography, and Informatics (INEGI), the Automated Census Information System (SAIC), and the Economic Censuses from 2003, 2008, 2013, and 2018. The sample included all 32 federal entities of the Mexican Republic.

The variables considered include total paid personnel; production, sales, and service staff; administrative, accounting, and management personnel; owners, family members, and other unpaid workers; personnel hired and provided by another legal entity; personnel working on commission or fees without a fixed salary; total investment (in millions of pesos); and gross total production (in millions of pesos).

Based on statistical data, tourist regions with different labor conditions were identified. These regions present forms of slow violence that are difficult to make visible but undermine the workplace environment and even threaten the integrity of women. An inferential statistics exercise was also conducted, through comparisons between observed characteristics (Seoane et al., 2007).

Statistical information was complemented with findings from other research to build a more comprehensive picture of the slow violence experienced by women in the tourism industry. This process allowed the creation of a map that illustrates four scenarios, making it possible to spatially represent the diverse working conditions faced by women.

## **4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

### **4.1 Statistical overview of tourism in Mexico**

The number of lodging establishments in Mexico increased from 12,977 in 2003 to 24,865 in 2018. Over the past 15 years, the number of organizations dedicated to temporary accommodation in the country has doubled, representing a 52.18% increase (Table 1).

**Table 1**

*Number of economic units providing temporary accommodation services in Mexico, 2003 to 2018.*

<b>Year</b>	<b>Establishments providing temporary accommodation services</b>
<b>2003</b>	12,977
<b>2008</b>	19,703
<b>2013</b>	23,332
<b>2018</b>	24,865

Source: Own elaboration based on data from INEGI (2003, 2008, 2013, and 2018).

The growth of the hospitality sector is labor-intensive. An increase has been observed in the percentage of female workers, rising from 45% in 2003 to 47% in 2018 (Table 2).

**Table 2**

*Employed personnel in economic units providing temporary accommodation services in Mexico, 2003 to 2018.*

<b>Year</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Men</b>	<b>Women</b>	<b>% Men</b>	<b>% Women</b>
<b>2003</b>	242,464	133,029	109,435	55%	45%
<b>2008</b>	327,781	173,654	154,127	53%	47%
<b>2013</b>	363,528	192,128	171,400	53%	47%
<b>2018</b>	498,727	265,324	233,403	53%	47%

Source: Own elaboration based on data from INEGI (2003, 2008, 2013, and 2018).

Ten states of the Mexican Republic (State of Mexico, Guanajuato, Veracruz de Ignacio de la Llave, Sinaloa, Jalisco, Nayarit, Guerrero, Mexico City, Baja California Sur, and Quintana Roo) account for 67% of total employed female personnel, 73% of male personnel, 70% of total personnel, and 44% of the establishments providing temporary accommodation services (Table 3).

**Table 3***States with the highest number of employed female personnel in lodging services, 2018.*

State	Economic Units	Total employed personnel	Total employed male personnel	Total employed female personnel
<b>National total</b>	24865	498727	265324	233403
<b>State of Mexico</b>	1173	12058	5107	6951
<b>Guanajuato</b>	1013	13397	5978	7419
<b>Veracruz de Ignacio de la Llave</b>	1988	18933	8548	10385
<b>Sinaloa</b>	531	14187	6888	7299
<b>Jalisco</b>	1721	35048	18079	16969
<b>Nayarit</b>	764	19590	10244	9346
<b>Guerrero</b>	1099	23990	12935	11055
<b>Mexico City</b>	945	43879	24459	19420
<b>Baja California Sur</b>	427	39310	23566	15744
<b>Quintana Roo</b>	1234	128147	77120	51027
<b>The sum of the ten selected states</b>	<b>10895</b>	<b>348539</b>	<b>192924</b>	<b>155615</b>
<b>Percentage relative to the national total</b>	44%	70%	73%	67%

Source: Own elaboration based on data from INEGI, 2018.

At the national level, only 51% of the total employed personnel are classified as paid workers. This may be because many individuals working in hotels are owners or family members, and therefore do not have formal employment contracts, fixed income, or social security benefits.

Regarding the distribution of paid personnel by sex, the ten selected states account for 58% of all paid female personnel, 68% of paid male personnel, and 61% of the total paid workforce (Table 4).

**Table 4***Employed and paid personnel in selected states, 2018.*

State	Total paid personnel	Paid male personnel	Paid female personnel	% Paid male personnel	% Paid female personnel
<b>00 National total</b>	256521	127043	129478	50%	50%
<b>15 State of Mexico</b>	7925	3060	4865	39%	61%
<b>11 Guanajuato</b>	10025	4301	5724	43%	57%
<b>30 Veracruz de Ignacio de la Llave</b>	11736	4780	6956	41%	59%
<b>25 Sinaloa</b>	8756	3996	4760	46%	54%

<b>14 Jalisco</b>	18809	8778	10031	47%	53%
<b>18 Nayarit</b>	5043	2261	2782	45%	55%
<b>12 Guerrero</b>	11469	6184	5285	54%	46%
<b>09 Mexico City</b>	23788	12583	11205	53%	47%
<b>03 Baja California Sur</b>	14040	8134	5906	58%	42%
<b>23 Quintana Roo</b>	44741	26590	18151	59%	41%
<b>The sum of the ten selected states</b>	156332	80667	75665		
<b>Percentage relative to the national total</b>	61%	63%	58%		

Source: Own elaboration based on data from INEGI, 2018.

Total employed personnel is composed of: production, sales, and service staff; administrative, accounting, and management personnel; owners, family members, and other unpaid workers; personnel hired and provided by another legal entity; and personnel working on a fee or commission basis without a fixed salary. Table 5 presents the distribution of these different components of employed personnel at the national level in 2018. A general parity in percentages can be observed, except in the category of personnel working on commission or fees, where male participation is notably higher. In this regard, men, having income based on fees, may be better able to manage their time and take advantage of other opportunities.

**Table 5**

*Components of employed personnel, 2018.*

<b>Category</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Men</b>	<b>Women</b>	<b>% Men</b>	<b>% Women</b>
<b>Employed personnel</b>	498727	265324	233403	53%	47%
<b>Production, sales, and service staff</b>	220866	109494	111372	50%	50%
<b>Administrative, accounting, and management personnel</b>	35655	17549	18106	49%	51%
<b>Owners, family members, and other unpaid workers</b>	24008	12540	11468	52%	48%
<b>Personnel hired and provided by another legal entity (total)</b>	213520	122307	91213	57%	43%
<b>Personnel working on a fee or commission basis without a fixed salary (total)</b>	4678	3434	1244	73%	27%

Source: Own elaboration based on data from INEGI, 2018.

Human resources are considered a vital asset for the survival and growth of the hospitality sector. Table 6 shows the relationship between female employment, investment, and production in hotel businesses. In 2018, a very strong positive correlation

of (.947) was observed with 99% confidence between total employed personnel and total investment, indicating that the participation of paid female staff across different areas of the organization is closely linked to capital allocation. A considerable positive correlation of (.829) was also found between paid female personnel and total investment, in terms of increased assets, inputs, and products experienced by economic units during the reference year.

The performance of women in the hospitality sector shows a very strong correlation (0.986) with gross production, in terms of the value of all goods and services produced or marketed by the economic unit as a result of its business activities. These results highlight the benefits of women's work for organizational competitiveness. Paid female personnel also show a considerable positive correlation with both total investment (0.829) and gross production (0.897). Female staff in production, sales, and service roles also demonstrated strong correlations with total investment (0.812) and gross production (0.883), as did administrative, accounting, and management female staff (0.894 with total investment and 0.950 with gross production).

On the other hand, female personnel working on a commission or fee basis without a fixed salary showed a low correlation with these variables (0.387 with total investment and 0.526 with gross production) (Table 6).

**Table 6**

*Correlations.*

Variable	Total employed female personnel	Paid female personnel	Female production, sales, and service staff	Female administrative, accounting, and management personnel	Female owners, family members, and other unpaid workers	Female personnel working on a fee or commission basis without a fixed salary
Total investment (millions of pesos)	.947**	.829**	.812**	.894**	.007	.387*
Total gross production (millions of pesos)	.986**	.897**	.883**	.950**	.003	.526**

\*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Own elaboration based on data from INEGI, 2018.

## 4.2 Map of scenarios of women's work in Mexico

Based on the information obtained, a map is presented showing four scenarios of women's work in the hotel sector in Mexico (Figure 1):

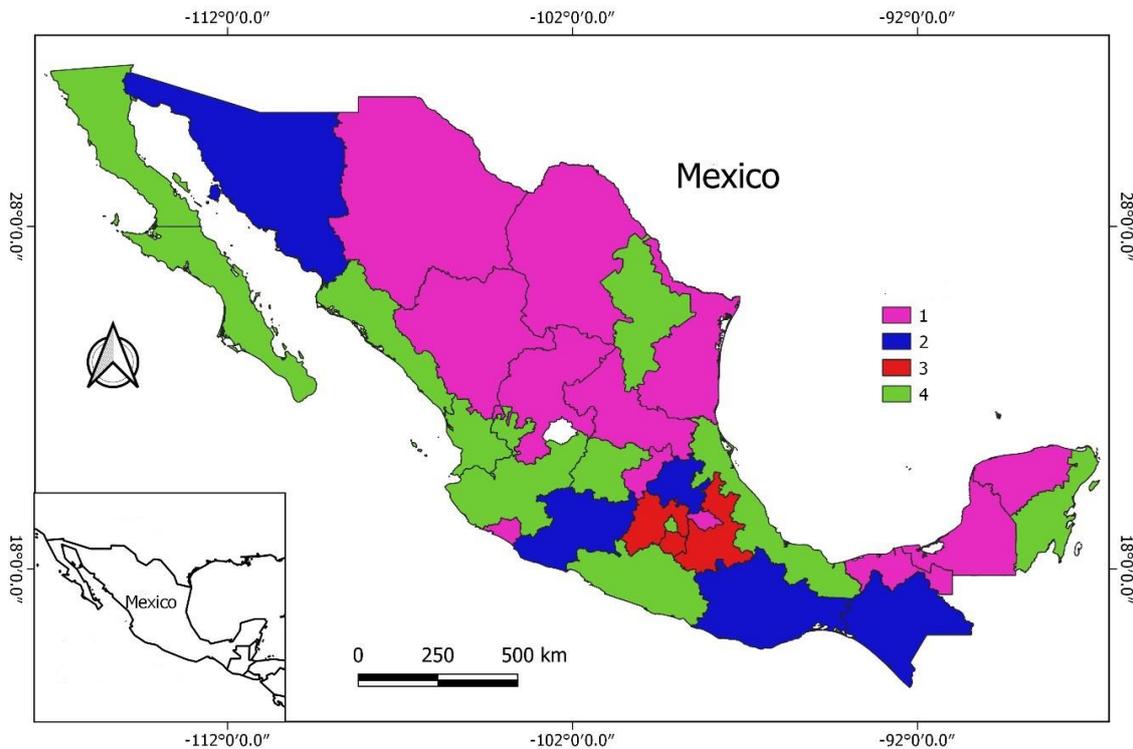
Scenario 1. This group does not rank among the top ten in any of the aspects considered in this study. At the national level, these states show low competitiveness in terms of female employment and their levels of production and investment in the hotel sector. It includes twelve states: Campeche, Coahuila, Colima, Chihuahua, Durango, Tabasco, Querétaro, San Luis Potosí, Tamaulipas, Tlaxcala, Yucatán, and Zacatecas.

Scenario 2. This group consists of states that do not stand out in the top ten for either investment or production, nor in terms of employed or remunerated female staff. They only stand out in terms of female owners and/or women without fixed remuneration. The data suggest that this group sustains hotel businesses through unpaid labor and the capital assets of the women who own them, without these efforts translating into better pay or economic growth for their establishments. It includes five states: Chiapas, Hidalgo, Michoacán, Oaxaca, and Sonora.

Scenario 3. These states stand out in terms of employed female personnel but do not excel in investment or production. It is possible that in the future, the integration of women in the workforce may yield better positioning compared to other Mexican states. This group consists of three states: the State of Mexico, Morelos, and Puebla.

Scenario 4. These states excel in production and/or investment, and they also stand out in terms of the number of women owners, family workers, and other unpaid female workers, and/or personnel hired and provided by another legal entity, and/or women working on commission or fees without a fixed salary. This group is made up of eleven states: Baja California, Baja California Sur, Mexico City, Guanajuato, Guerrero, Jalisco, Nayarit, Nuevo León, Veracruz, Sinaloa, and Quintana Roo.

A special case is the state of Aguascalientes, which stands out for its levels of investment, but not in any aspect related to women. For this reason, it has not been included in any group.

**Figure 1***Map of Scenarios of Women's Work in the Hotel Sector.*

Source: Own elaboration.

The results show that women make up a large base of employees in the Mexican hotel sector, with progress observed in their working conditions, including better pay, greater participation in administrative and managerial roles, and more permanent contracts within organizations. Additionally, a positive and significant relationship was found between female employment, total investment, and gross capital formation in hotels in Mexico. This confirms women's positive and important contribution to the Mexican economy.

It is also evident that not all states in the Mexican Republic experience the same conditions, with four distinct scenarios identified across the country.

The first scenario includes states that do not stand out in terms of the number of women employed in the hotel sector. However, some of these states—such as San Luis Potosí, Coahuila, and Durango—do show high percentages of female employment. This may be due to the presence of small and less competitive businesses located in border regions, which places the women working in these hospitality units in vulnerable situations.

The second scenario includes states such as Chiapas, Oaxaca, Sonora, Michoacán, and Hidalgo. These states stand out for the high percentage of female owners and/or women without fixed remuneration. In addition to challenges within the hotel sector, these regions also face external threats. De la Torre and Navarrete-Escobedo (2018) note that drug trafficking has taken hold in major beach destinations such as Huatulco and the mountain regions of Michoacán and Oaxaca, as well as Guerrero (Torres-Oregón and Estrada-Rodríguez, 2021). Moreover, these states have a significant indigenous population, and mechanisms of oppression often affect the women entering the hotel sector.

The third scenario includes three central states: the State of Mexico, Morelos, and Puebla. These states stand out for the number of employed women, but not in terms of production or investment. These destinations may be stagnant and require a new strategy focused on tourism development.

Finally, the fourth scenario includes states along the Riviera Maya, the Riviera Nayarit, Baja California, and Baja California Sur. These destinations have made significant investments in tourism. The inclusion of women, along with strong performance in terms of production and investment, may be attributed to the influx of international tourists and the presence of foreign-owned hospitality businesses.

This study is constrained by the availability of reliable national-level data, which necessitated the use of aggregated secondary information. While this approach provides an important first step in documenting the gendered dimensions of slow violence within the tourism sector, it also limits the depth of analysis. Future research should build on these initial findings by incorporating hotel-level data that would allow for more granular insights into employment conditions and gender disparities. Additionally, qualitative methods such as interviews and surveys with workers and managers could enrich the understanding of lived experiences and institutional practices. Although such data collection was beyond the scope of the present paper, it remains a valuable path for subsequent inquiry and can contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the intersections between tourism, gender, and slow violence.

## 5 CONCLUSIONS

Slow violence against women is a silent cancer that is difficult to detect and threatens sustainability in the hotel sector, particularly social sustainability. This study has advanced in understanding this type of violence from a gender-based perspective. On the empirical side, tools such as descriptive statistics and mapping have been employed to emphasize two key dimensions in visualizing slow violence: time and space.

The implications of this research underscore the need to address the various forms of slow violence experienced by women in the hotel sector. First, from a social justice standpoint, and considering the intersections of gender, race, and coloniality, women have been—and continue to be—subject to deprivation and marginalization, which make them especially vulnerable to slow violence.

Second, the findings highlight the importance of caring for female hotel workers as part of companies' corporate social responsibility. While women are acknowledged for their qualities in providing hospitality services and contributing to the competitiveness of both organizations and tourist destinations, very few actions have been taken to address their needs and ensure their safety. The fear of commuting to work due to insecurity or drug trafficking, along with the uncertainty surrounding migratory zones, among other issues, creates a constant state of stress and potential physical harm.

One area of action involves public policy. It is necessary to implement actions at the state level and in coalition with destinations that share similar characteristics. Ensuring the personal safety of female workers, particularly those working in migratory zones and in areas where criminal groups are active—is a top priority.

Corporate policies must also be developed to allow women to balance household and hotel responsibilities. This would encourage women to remain in their jobs, enable them to rise to decision-making positions, and support strategic actions to strengthen regions where tourism is not generating tangible benefits for female hotel owners and workers.

These changes would not only improve the work environment for women but also generate positive impacts on organizational competitiveness and contribute to a higher level of sustainability. This study used secondary data to provide quantitative insights; future research could apply qualitative methods to better understand the lived experiences of female workers.

### Conflicts of Interest Declaration

All authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

### Informed Consent Declaration

This study complies with the Declaration of Helsinki and was performed according to ethics committee approval

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### **Authors' Contribution**

Both authors contributed equally to the development of this article.

### **Data availability**

All datasets relevant to this study's findings are fully available within the article.

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