Journal of Tourism

An International Research Journal on Travel and Tourism

Centre for Mountain Tourism and Hospitality Studies (CMTHS)

HNB Garhwal Central University, Srinagar Garhwal, India

Editorial

It gives me immense pleasure to bring out the Special issue of the Journal of Tourism. The tourism industry is becoming increasingly competition- oriented. All the tourist's destinations are addressing tourist' needs, their level of satisfaction and their expectations from the tourism industry. Moreover, the stakeholders also realize their responsibilities towards society at large. This special issue of Journal of Tourism focuses on these topics of Destination Re-Imaging and Branding by Sustainable, Responsible & Community Based Tourism. The issue focuses on wide range of subjects of relevance and importance. **"Innovation Research in Tourism Business: A Review from Two Decades of Studies"** by Ishwar Khatri (NTNU, Norway) reviewed twenty publications from two decades of studies (1997-2017) across the countries and conclusion is made on the innovations in tourism business today. The study is relevant to the sustainability of tourism industry. The paper "**A Study on Environmental Orientation among Tourists Visiting Kashmir Valley"** by Iqbal Ahmad Bhat brings out the issues of sustainability and management of tourist destinations in the Valley of Kashmir. "**Guerrilla Trail: A Tourism Product in the Maoist Rebel's Footsteps"** by Surendra Rana and Chiranjibi Bhandari from Nepal draws the reader's attention towards the initiatives and efforts taken by the Government of Nepal, Nepal Tourism Board and local people in making Guerrilla Trail as a tourism product in Nepal. The next paper titled **"Website Based Satisfaction in Tourism and Hospitality Sector: An Importance-Performance Analysis in National Capital Region (NCR) of India"** by Lakhvinder Singh and Dinesh Dhankhar is a study on the satisfaction of tourists towards websites of selected tourism and hospitality firms in National Capital Region of India. **"Sustainable Developmental Implications of Community Based Tourism Initiatives in Himachal: An Empirical Study"** by S.P. Bansal, Purva Kansal and Sandeep Waila discussed the existing literature on community-based tourism. The paper also focuses on different dimensons of community-based tourism from the perception of the community. Samik Ray contributed a paper on **"Changes in the Role of Local or Host Community in Destination Imaging"** It outlined how and why the local community is vital to destination imaging. The last   paper titled "**Promoting Gender Sensitivity and Environment Protection through Sustainable Tourism Development: A Review** by Priyakrushna Mohanty*,* Anu Chandran, Nilamadhab Swain revealed the attractive relationship that can be sketched in a cyclic format between tourism development, gender, and environment.

I hope and believe that this issue covering multifarious aspects of tourism and destination branding will prove to be an informative and stimulating experience for the readers. I wish an enriching and enlightening reading experience to the readers.

Anukrati Sharma, Ph.D.
Guest Editor & Associate Professor
Faculty of Commerce and Management
University of Kota, Rajasthan, India

Contents

Innovation Research in Tourism Business: A Review from Two Decades of Studies

ISHWAR KHATRI

Norwegian University of Science and Technology, Norway

Abstract

Tourism business is contributing the national economy of individual countries by the inflows of foreign currency; meanwhile, there is a big competition within the industry, and many destinations are competing with each others to attract the visitors. So, the need for innovations in tourism is in place; thus, gaining increasing attention in tourism literature and research. This paper aims to examine the literatures regarding tourism innovation, specifically the status and trends of innovation in tourism business. Twenty publications from two decades of studies (1997-2017) across the countries are reviewed, and concluded the innovation in tourism business today. The findings can be implied for the growth and productivity of tourism business, and setting policies for tourism innovation. This study is also significant from the perspective of sustainability of the tourism industry.

INTRODUCTION

Innovation is essentially related to the growth of output and productivity. The development of new technologies facilitates the generation of new ideas. Innovation in tourism thus refers to the new ideas, new services, and products targeted to fulfill the needs or desires of tourists or visitors at the same time increasing the competitiveness of the tourism firms. Since there is competition prevalent in the tourism industry as well, adapting the industry's offerings to best match the changing tourism patterns with new marketing strategies is at the central of gaining success in the marketplace.

Innovation is an intensely studied phenomenon in the tourism field, a relatively new area of interest a fact proven by researches that first appeared in the late 80's and intensified in the 2000's when researchers and entrepreneurs started to notice the importance of innovation in tourism (Andrea, 2012). It has repeatedly been claimed that rigid innovation research has been applied to tourism to only a limited extent and empirical tests of the phenomenon have been modest (Hjalager, 2002; Sundbo, Orfila-Sintes, & Sørensen, 2007).

This paper tries to review the last two decades of innovation researches undertaken in the field of tourism business, present findings and finally summarize it. Specifically, two questions are addressed: 1. what is the present status of innovation in tourism business? 2. How is the trend of innovation in tourism business?

Literature Review

This section accounts all the literature linked to two things: innovation and tourism innovation. The literature extends from definition and types of innovation to demand & supply side factors influencing tourism innovation and areas of innovation strategies in tourism. Thus, the literature review is written to have an understanding of the scope of innovation and provide an insight to the forces and innovative strategies shaping the tourism business.

What is Innovation?

Innovation word was first used by economist and J. A. Schumpeter (1934). He defined it from an economic perspective. Schumpeter included product and process innovations. Similarly, Peter Drucker defined it from an entrepreneurial perspective derived from Schumpeter's definition. The word service innovation was first introduced by Richard Barras in 1986. In his approach, he started with the service characteristics and also proposed a theoretical model of process innovation in services based on the idea of the reverse product cycle (Barras, 1986). A comprehensive definition by OECD (2005) covers the manufacturing as well as the service sector, incorporates four types of innovations: product, process, organizational and marketing innovations. In an another perspective, Hjalager (2002) distinguished four types of innovation: regular innovations (raising productivity, incremental raise of quality etc), revolutionary innovations (diffusion of new technology, new methods etc), niche innovations (new market alliances, new ways) and architectural innovations (redefine physical or legal structure, create new events etc). Similarly, Carvalho (2008)

explained two components of innovation, namely, technological innovation and non-technological innovation. Technological innovation depends on technology, especially ICT whereas non-technological innovation, dependent on the intangible human resources, organizational structure and factors can add value to customer service (marketing, distribution channels etc.).

Innovation in Tourism Business:

Innovation is the successful commercialization of new ideas. It can cover all processes in the development of tourism destinations (Lesjak, Miha, et al., 2013). New forms of tourism are emerging in the place of traditional tourism, including more innovative, specialized, "greener", customized and experience-oriented forms. Moreover, the expansion of tourism demand, as well as demographic changes (e.g. ageing populations), accelerate the segmentation of tourism products and the creation of new types of tourism products. A main area of change and innovation in tourism concerns the use of information and communication technologies (ICT). The diffusion of ICT in the tourism industry enables consumers to interact directly with tourism providers. For the industry, this might lead to a reduction of transaction costs, leading to a process of disintermediation. Major basic innovations, e.g. in transportation, have also largely influenced the growth of the tourism industry (OECD, 2004).

Australia was the first destination to build an international brand image, when the Australian tourism council launched "Brand Australia" in 1996. Tourism.australia.com stated, all Australian tourism council's marketing activities are driven by

understanding and insight into the markets and consumers targeted. Key activities include the Visiting Journalist Program, direct marketing, online marketing via Australia.com, celebrity endorsements, consumer and trade promotions, Aussie Specialist Program and trade events. Australia's tourism marketing focused to partnership marketing and recently tourism ambassador program, flexible advertising campaigns and internet website are the effective means of communication.

Sandybayev (2016), has presented in his research, five areas of innovation in the tourism sector:

- introduction of new tourist routes, release of a new tourism or restaurant product, providing new hotel services;
- the use of new techniques and technologies;
- use of new tourist resources;
- application of new techniques and methods of organization of the business process;
- opening of new direction and new markets.

Demand-side Factors for Innovation:

Demand factor influences the market for tourism business by creating the need for the development of new tourism products or services. Poon (1993) stated one of the significant changes in the travel marketplace comes from tourists themselves. They increasingly seek tailor-made experiences. Today, the economics of tourism allows suppliers to deal more effectively with the increasing complexity and diversity of consumer requirements. New technologies allow for flexible and segmented vacations, which are cost-competitive with mass, standardized holidays.

The study of Bertelli et al. (2013) stated

increasing competition in tourism in Europe, changes in consumer behavior, strengthening the currency of euro have shortened the average length of stay. It has also reduced the growth in visitors to Switzerland. To develop tourism, it was necessary to look for innovative solutions. The tourism destinations in Switzerland started to introduce innovations into products, but mainly through restructuring.

In today's saturated markets customers look for "experiences" rather than destination specific products. It will, therefore, become increasingly important to use innovation and product development to create rewarding tourism experiences rather than isolated components. Experience-based holiday proposals will become the main motive for the holiday decision (Bartaletti, 1998).

Supply-side Factors for Innovation:

Supply factor leads to the creation of new products, services, and markets. Here, the suppliers create and supply the new tourism offerings. For instance, coastal destinations have a high competition because of similar nature of offerings. So they need to develop and position their destinations in an innovative way. Some coastal destination like Lisbon in Portugal has commercialized the innovative ideas to succeed. Completo, F. & Gustavo, N. (2013) stated all the water sports events ha increased the prestige of the tourism of Lisbon. They represent a significant contribution to the tourist promotion of the city and help develop the local economic fabric and stimulate the creation of new tourism products in the sector. The growth of water sports tourism activities has fostered the increase of offer and supply of water sports activities and thus leading to the growth of clubs and

enthusiasts, in a snowball effect that brings more events to Lisbon and increases tourist demand.

Similarly, a well-told story, linked to an area or a tourist attraction, can represent great value for those involved in promoting tourism. The use of storytelling in the sector has in many cases contributed to a large increase in interest and visitors, boosting the economy and providing tourists with more meaningful experience at. A project, through storytelling as well as destination development, can structure a narrative that can be used for a regional advantage (Finnsson, 2011).

Innovation Strategies with ICT:

The tourism industry has always been very proactive regarding the adoption of new technologies (e.g., global distribution systems). Recent advances in telecommunications, networking, databases, data processing, and electronic marketing provide many new opportunities for tourism business and are significantly impacting on traditional tourism business models. The use of information and communications technology (ICT) adds value to tourism services and products and supports the development of industry networks and clusters. ICT covers the whole tourism value chain (e.g., information on destinations, accommodation, transportation, package tours, and services) and displays the actual process and availability of such services. The wide adoption of ICT in the tourism industry is transforming the role played by tourism actors such as travel agents, tour operators, conference organizers, booking agents, etc. On the one hand, ICT systems provide detailed, up-to-date information on the availability and prices of products and

contribute to increasing sales volume and profits. On the other hand, broad use of the Internet facilitates the direct communication between producers (e.g., hoteliers, air carriers) and consumers, putting into question the role to be played by some travel intermediaries. The application of ICT in the tourism industry inevitably leads to a process of disintermediation and contributes to industry restructuring and innovation (OECD, 2004).

Information Technology, and the Internet and World Wide Web, in particular, are going to transform the role of travel agents, and doubtless sharply reduce the size of the travel agent industry, unless this industry can identify a new bundle of services that can be provided to potential travelers. Any household with access to the Internet and therefore access to Google now have immediate access to detailed information about almost any conceivable location on the earth's surface as a possible candidate for a visit. nicketing for airplane travel can also be arranged on the Internet, which also provides invaluable information about the various prices of airplane tickets. In fact, an American research company (Forrester) has recently calculated that travel is now the largest online business in the world. The Internet is obviously transforming the tourism business in many ways, and easy access to information is growing rapidly in each of the separate components of the industry, and making it increasingly competitive (Rosenberg, 2006).

Bertazzon et al. (1997) stated, at its core, the tourism industry "sells" images of the geography of different parts of the world. If tourism marketing is to be effective in achieving the expectations of both tourism marketers and their clients, an

understanding of the geography of the places that people wish to visit or to market must be a fundamental component of the marketing system. With the creation of geographic information system (GIS), the task of incorporating meaningful geographical dimensions and data into marketing efforts has become more feasible. The development of GIS and other electronic communications technology such as the world wide web and the internet highlights the potential to develop much more appropriately targeted marketing tools and techniques.

Recently there is heightening use of online marketing which is transforming the tourism business. Many forms of online marketing including search engine, email marketing, online advertising, digital marketing, social media, etc. are being the major drivers of innovation in tourism business and marketing.

Tourism as an "Experience" Strategy:

Given the intangibility of tourism products, the tourist may be uncertain about the quality of the services provided. Despite or because of this intangibility, tourism products can be enhanced in value by adding sensations (design, fragrance, light, color, emotional attachment). Such product changes can only enhance the emotional value of the "tourism experience" (Weiermair, 2006).

Grech (2006) stated rather than promote Malta as a destination we need to promote it as an experience. This implies that the value provided to the visitor derives from the experience and not just from the services consumed. Promoting Malta as experience has, therefore, become an essential part of the branding process, giving Malta a distinct feature and

differentiating it from all other products.

The Relationship, Networks, and Clusters in Innovation:

Considering the relationship marketing strategies of a tourism company, it will particularly deal with attracting and encouraging customers, conveying useful information and appropriate product and services for optimizing and identifying customers' desires and recording their behaviors during their shopping for identifying future trends in the industry. Using relationship marketing strategies, they will not only improve quality, customer satisfaction, and profit but also cause the development of tourism sector and its increase income (Avcikurt et al., 2016).

Toader et al. (2013) stated networks and clusters are seen by many experts as innovative approaches in the development of tourism sector. The network concept can be defined as patterned relationships among individuals, groups, and organizations (Dubini and Aldrich, 1991). The cooperation inside of a network is a voluntary arrangement between two or more firms that involves durable exchange, sharing, or co-development of new products and technologies (Groen, 2005). "Business clusters" is defined as a geographical group of interconnected companies and associated institutions in a particular field linked by commonalities and complementarities (Porter, 1998). Tourism network structures within a destination tend to exist only based on complementary product, e.g., activities, accommodation, transport, and food, whereby clients are referred from one organization to another to provide a comprehensive tourist experience (Greffe, 1994). Toader et al. (2013) further wrote

"The tourism networks are formed from SMEs providing complementary products and services: tour operators, travel agencies, accommodation units, transportation companies and leisure and entertainment units. Due to their initiatives, the cluster and networks are a good example of innovative tourism activities, especially of product innovation. The way the cluster and network are organized can be considered an example of organizational innovation."

Methodology

The study of innovation in tourism business was based upon the reviews of a number of articles and research papers. Articles related to the innovation research in tourism were searched. Databases like google scholar, sciencedirect, sage, etc were used to find the resources where keywords: "innovation in tourism" was searched. Additionally, "innovation" "tourism" combined with AND or OR. The findings gave numbers of articles related to tourism innovation research. However, only twenty publications related to innovative ideas and strategies in tourism business were selected.

Results & Findings

From the literature review study, many categories, forms and ideas of innovations are identified. The study will contribute to answer two research questions regarding status and trends of innovation in tourism business. In the table below, twenty research studies and their authors, date of literature publication, research method and findings are presented:

Author/Date	Research Objectives	Methods	Findings
Iplik, F.N. et al. (2014)	To measure the level of strategic innovation of hotel firms, and to reveal the obstacles to strategic innovation activities.	Questionnaire	Establishing an innovation department is another significant attempt to activate the innovation capacity of hotel firms. The cost of the innovation and qualifications of the staff are two important impeding factors which reduce the innovation activities of hotels.
Nezakati et al. (2015)	To the understanding of knowledge sharing in social media in the tourism sector.	Literature review	Information technology is highly effective in supporting knowledge dissemination, communication, and collaboration in tourism and travel industry. Moreover, the significant role of social media in pre-trip travel planning and decision making was reviewed. It was also revealed that social media act as an important tool in tacit knowledge sharing.
Nagy, Katalin, and Piskoti, Istvan (2016)	To investigate reasons, present situation of the route and its attractions, and the possible tools – mainly of destination management – to make the route function again.	Secondary search and questionnaire	Route-based tourism product development is known worldwide and can be particularly advantageous for less developed areas, which are less familiar in the tourism market. By mixing the phenomena of tourism, the economy, innovation and social difficulties, certain types of tourism routes can be tools for social innovations.

Weiermair, K. (2004)	Which are success factors for innovation in tourism?	Interview	Most successful innovations were new forms of distribution (online booking), agent relationships and reduced costs of product delivery. Co-operative marketing and other forms of strategic alliances were also mentioned. Niche marketing (special interest groups) together with small product changes should also be taken into consideration.
Oklobdzija, Sonja (2015)	To present the roles of events in contemporary tourism and to define their origins, classification, tourist value, impacts, and outcomes.	Literature review	The more recognizable events the destination has, the more it is attractive for the tourists. The key of their success lies in support of the accommodation facilities of an appropriate standard, high level of cooperation between tourist agencies, the availability of specific information about events and follow-up activities, and most importantly, proper marketing activities.
OECD (2012)	To examine policy environment for green innovation, green business models and drivers and barriers to green innovation in tourism.	Case studies	Non-technological innovation will play an increasingly important role in the transition to a green economy. Examples include the introduction of environmental management systems and new business models, changes to marketing and organizational methods, and also innovation in social and institutional structures.
Liu, Claire (2013)	To examine innovation in SMEs in tourism of New Zealand.	Case study	Before 1999, New Zealand as a country was marketed with multiple images for multiple markets. From July 1999, the 100% Pure New Zealand campaign was developed with a strong and simple statement that embodies New Zealand characteristics as a people, a country, and an experience.
Hjalager, Anne-Mette (1997)	To interpret within the framework of a typology of innovations the behavior of the agents in tourism and leisure services.	Literature review	The following types of innovation can be distinguished: product innovations, classical process innovations, process innovations in information handling, management innovations and institutional innovations. The article concludes that innovations are predominantly launched as part of defensive strategies by the tourism industry.
Boycheva, Christina (2017)	To identify the types of innovation in tourism and the main areas where they could be applied while searching for possibilities to increase the competitiveness of	Literature review	The Bulgarian tourism development should be based mainly on the technological innovations in the field of product development, process management, internal or external organizational relationships. All the efforts to encourage innovation development should be focused on Bulgaria's outstanding cultural attractions and monuments, on sports and entertainment events, as well as

			conferences, fairs, and exhibitions because they also play an important role in sustainable tourism development.
Marakova, Vanda & Medvedova, Miroslava (2016)	To define the categories of innovation including process, marketing, institutional, management, product and service innovations, as well as the knowledge applied to innovations in tourism.	Literature review	It is appropriate that innovation policy was also oriented to the target groups that are of interest to other sectoral policies (e.g., small and medium size enterprises). The territorial dimension is also important; it would be appropriate to examine how policies influence the dynamics of organizational innovations in the sector (for example clusters) and to help build innovation systems.
Aldebert et al. (2011)	To apprehend an d capture the evolution of innovative activities in the tourism industry through the empirical analysis of annual Tourism@ events.	Case study	Over the years, technologies have evolved towards mobile and web 2.0 applications, which points out the importance of end customers. Services dedicated to the preparation of transactions are dominating, but there is a striking increase in services dedicated to the period of the travel, which is coupled with the spread of mobile or RFID technologies. Innovation follows the same pattern, going from market innovation to applications.
Inter-American development nt bank (2014)	To present innovation strategies, poli cies, cases, challenges, and trends to be useful for a broad audience: national and subnational level tourism, innovation, industry and competitiveness authorities, and private tourism sector locally based	Case study	ICT has changed and continues to change the nature of contemporary tourism. Its major adoption in all parts of the industry is transforming tourism into an information and knowledge intensive sector, valid in a globalized economy.
Stipanovic, Christian & Rudan, Elena (2014)	To explore the current condition and the possible development perspectives of creative tourism in the tourist destination of Kvarner.	Case study/surve y/scenario analysis	Through creative programs, workshops, educational and recreational programs, authentic gastronomy, heritage and events, Kvarner can develop into a creative destination.

Camison, Cesar & Monfort-Mir, V.M. (2012)	To offer a diagnosis of the "state of the issue" regarding the measurement of innovation in the tourism industry at the company level.	Literature review	Tourism companies are less technically innovative than manufacturing and other services companies, and that they perform mainly incremental innovations based on previously available knowledge within the organization, allowing imitators and adapters to prevail over the genuine innovators.
Decelle, Xavier (2004)	To study the conceptual and dynamic approach to innovation in tourism.	Literature review	In contrast to the radical innovations vital to growth in manufacturing sectors, innovations in services and tourism were secondary and capital-scarce, and for this reason they were excluded from the scope of government interest and action. It is interesting to note that the discourse changed with the emergence of new ICTs, which have been especially influential in the realm of tourism.
Stamboulis & Skayannis (2003)	Two core questions emerge: a) how can culture, knowledge, and innovations foster new tourism? b) how might this be related to new technology?	Literature review	Tourism is undergoing significant change and facing a new challenge- that call for new perspectives. At least two dimensions of the change can be identified: new forms of tourism, characterized by the tendency to depart from the mass tourism, and the diffusion of information and communication technologies, with a pervasive effect on the creation, production, and consumption of the tourist product. Innovative attempts gain new strategic value when viewed from a perspective that values experience as an important new attribute.
Nybakk, Erlend et al. (2008)	To determine if networking is positively related to innovativeness and if innovativeness is positively related to performance in the nature-based tourism industry in Norway.	Email survey	Results indicate that there is a positive connection between networking and innovativeness, and between innovativeness and performance. A qualitative case example illustrates the interaction among actors and the resulting impacts on the innovation process.

Carvalho, Luisa & Costa, Teresa (2011)	To address a general question: how to explain innovation in the tourism sector.	Case study	a) the implementation of a Hotel Integrated Management System could be classified as a radical innovation; b) the implementation of a Hotel Integrated Management System contributes mainly to organizational innovation; c) the firms use sustainability as a strategy for innovation and differentiation from the competition.
Pegler, Bob (2004)	To examine the current challenges and barriers faced by the Australian tourism industry and attempt to reveal its innovative approach to cope with these recent challenges and barriers.	Case study	Measures which include a new strategic direction, flexible advertising campaigns and proactive application of the Internet for tourism promotion, will improve the environment of the Australian tourism industry.
Genc, R. & Genc, E. A. (2017)	To explore the relationship between innovation types and their application in the tourism industry within the market structure.	Literature review	Market-oriented innovations are essential in the tourism sector since they increase the existing capacity of the tourism market, take part in the survival of tourism, are useful for overcoming negative effects and play a key role in opening up saturated markets. Considering the competitive nature of global markets, touristic destinations which are involved in more innovative developments will be more likely to be preferred by tourists, since demands of tourists are even more varied when compared to past years.

Discussion and Conclusion

Route based tourism product development, important role of events, new positioning of New Zealand, niche marketing together with small product changes, market-oriented innovations (Nagy & Piskoti, 2016; Genc, R. & Genc, E. A., 2017; Oklobdzija, 2015; Liu, C., 2013; Weiermair, 2004) etc. as described in the articles reviewed showed an importance of "product or market development innovation". Similarly, use of co-operative

marketing and other forms of strategic alliances, positive connection between networking and innovativeness, ICT for clustering and working together and globalization & creation of a critical mass (Weiermair, 2004; Nybakk et al., 2008; Inter-American development bank, 2004) etc. showed the role of "networks and relationships" in tourism business innovations. Some other articles focused on "process innovation" such as the introduction of environmental management systems and new business models, technological innovations development in Bulgarian tourism industy, innovation policy oriented to the target groups, creative programs for Kvarner's creative development, the implementation of a hotel integrated management system (OECD, 2012; Boycheva, 2017; Marakova & Medvedova, 2016; Stipanovic & Rudan, 2014; Carvalho & Costa, 2011). Studies such as, significant role of social media in travel planning and tacit knowledge sharing, evolution towards mobile and web 2.0 applications and spread of RFID, ICT's transforming of tourism into an information and knowledge intensive sector, proactive application of the internet for Australian tourism promotion, diffusion of information and communication technologies with a pervasive effect on the creation, production and consumption of the tourist product (Nezakati et al., 2015; Aldebert et al., 2011; Inter-American development bank, 2014; Pegler, 2004; Stamboulis & Skayannis, 2003) all gave emphasis on the valuable role of "ICT in innovations" in tourism business.

The study shows that technologies have evolved towards mobile and web 2.0 applications which are going from market innovation to applications. Consumer websites are playing a major role in all PR and marketing activities to reach a large number of consumers around the globe. The significant role of social media in pre-trip travel planning, decision making and also sharing tacit knowledge is increasing. The adoption of ICT is also offering tools for clustering and working together and for globalization and creation of a critical mass. However, tourism innovations need a favorable internal and external environment which can facilitate to adopt new ideas & technologies and network & collaborate with other stakeholders in the tourism sector. So, the study finds that together with the new programmes and policies, ICT based innovation could be an effective and innovative strategy for tourism business firms.

This study includes some limitations such as situational or contextual factors since it covers only last two decades of studies. Similarly, only literatures published in English articles or books were considered. The main implication of this study is the emphasis on the role of ICTs and innovation policies in tourism industry for deriving innovations in tourism businesses.

Since the innovation in tourism were studied to a limited extent, this review study is significant to research such earlier studies and specifically examine the status and trends of innovation in the tourism business. In general, tourism innovation is driven by competition since there is a need for sustainable competitiveness of the tourism firms. Such competitiveness in tourism business can be derived from products or services innovation, process innovation, organizational innovation, and marketing innovation; however, such nature of innovations in tourism are generally in incremental in nature. The use of ICTs and adoption of innovation policies could be the driving force for innovations in the tourism business. More future researches are needed to explore specific innovation ideas and their outcomes regarding sustainability of business further.

References

Aldebert, B. et al. (2011). Innovation in the tourism industry: The case of Tourism@. *Tourism Management.* Vol. 32, 1204-1213.

Andrea, N. (2012). A review of tourism and hospitality innovation research. *Annals of the Faculty of Economics* 1 (2), 364-370.

Avcikurt, Cevdet et al. (2016). Global issues and trends in tourism. *St. Kliment Ohridski University Press*: Sofia.

Barras, R. (1986). Towards a theory of innovation in services. *Research Policy* 15, 161-173.

Bartaletti, F. (1998). Tourismus im Alpenraum, *Praxis Geographie*, 28/2, 22-25.

Beritelli, P. et al. (2013). The new frontiers of destination management: Applying variable geometry as a function-based approach. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol. 53, 4, 403-417.

Bertazzon, S. et al. (1997). GIS applications in tourism marketing: current uses, an experimental application, and prospects. *The Haworth Press*: Alberta.

Boycheva, Christina. (2017). Innovation and competitiveness in the context of the Bulgarian tourism industry. *Economics Alternatives*, 1, pp 137-148.

Camison, Cesar & Monfort-Mir, V.M. (2012). Measuring innovation in tourism from the Schumpeterian and the dynamic-capabilities perspectives. *Tourism Management*, 33, 776-789.

Carvalho, L. (2008), Innovation and Entrepreneurship: A model to service sector, unpublised Ph.D. Thesis, Evora University, June 2008, Portugal.

Carvalho, Luisa & Costa, Teresa. (2011). Tourism innovation- A literature review complemented by case study research. *Book of Proceedings* Vol. 1- international conference on tourism & management studies. Algarve.

Complete, F. & Gustavo, N. (2013). *Lisbon as a Nautical events destination: A new leisure and tourism attraction*. IMCD.

Decelle, Xavier (2004). *A conceptual and dynamic approach to innovation in tourism*. OECD, Paris.

Dubini, P., and H. Aldrich. (1991). "Personal and extended networks are central to the entrepreneurial process." *Journal of Business Venturing,* 6: 305-313.

Finnsson, P. T. (2011). Holistic stories drive tourism businesses forward. *Innovation in nordic tourism.* Nordic innovation centre: Oslo.

Genc, R. & Genc, E. A. (2017). Market-oriented innovations in tourism. *Research in Hospitality Management*. Vol. 7 (1). 51-57.

Grech, J. C. (2006). Malta: A permanent process of innovation in tourism. *Innovation and Growth in Tourism*: OECD publishing.

Greffe, X. (1994). Is rural tourism a lever for economic and social development? In B. Bramwell & B. Lane (Eds.), Rural tourism and sustainable rural development, 22-40. *Clevedon*: Channel View Publications.

Groen, A.J. (2005). Knowledge-intensive entrepreneurship in networks: towards a multi-level/multidimensional approach, *Journal of Enterprising Culture*, 13(1), 69-88.

Hjalager, A. M. (1997). Innovation patterns in sustainable tourism an analytical typology. *Tourism Management*, 18(1), 35-41.

Hjalager, A. M. (2002). Repairing innovation defectiveness in tourism. *Tourism Management*, 23, 465-474.

Inter-American Development Bank. (2014). *Improving competitiveness in the Caribbean tourism sector through ICT-based innovations*. IDB.

Iplik, F. N. et al. (2014). Strategic innovation: An empirical study on hotel firms operating in Antalya region. *Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 2 (1), 16-29.

Lesjak, Miha et al. (2013). IMCD. *University of Primorska Press*: Slovenia

Liu, Claire (2013). *Innovation in SMEs in tourism: The New Zealand experience.* PATA tourism forum.

Marakova, Vanda & Medvedova, Miroslava. (2016). Innovation in tourism destinations. *Forum Scientiae Oeconomia,* 4 (1).

Nagy, Katalin & Piskoti, Istvan. (2016).

Route-based tourism product development as a tool for social innovation: History valley in the cserehat region. *Club of Economics in Miskole's TMP*, Vol. 12, 75-86.

Nezakati, Hossein et al. (2015). Review of social media potential on knowledge sharing and collaboration in tourism industry. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 172, 120-125.

Nybakk, Erlend et al. (2008). Networking, innovation, and performance in norwegian nature-based tourism. *Journal of Forest Products Business Research*. Vol. 5, article 4.

OECD (2004). *OECD conference on innovation and growth in tourism*, 18-19 September 2003. Lugano, Switzerland.

OECD (2005). *Oslo Manual*: guidelines for collecting and interpreting innovation data. OECD, Paris.

OECD (2012). Green innovation in tourism services. *OECD tourism papers,* Paris.

Oklobdzija, Sonja (2015). The role of events in tourism development. *Biz Info Journal*, 6 (2), 83-97.

Pegler, Bob. (2004). Innovation in the field of market communication and marketing: The Australian initiative. *Innovation and Growth in Tourism:* OECD publishing.

Poon, A. (1993). *Tourism, technology, and competitive strategies.* Cab Intern., Wallingford.

Porter, M. E. (1998). Clusters and the new economics of competition. *Harvard Business Review*, 76(6), 77-90.

Rosenberg, N. (2006). Innovation and economic growth. *Innovation and Growth in Tourism*: OECD publishing.

Sandybayev, A. (2016). Strategic Innovation in Tourism. A Conceptual and Review Approach. *International Journal of Research in Tourism and Hospitality,* 2(4) 2431-2455.

Schumpeter, J. (1934). The Theory Of Economic Development, *Harvard University Press*, USA.

Stamboulis, Y. & Skayannis, P. (2003). Innovation strategies and technology for experience-based tourism. *Tourism Management*, 24, 35-43.

Stipanovic, Christian & Rudan, Elena. (2014). Development concept and strategy for creative tourism of the kvarner destination. *Tourism and Hospitality Industry 2014. Congress proceedings.*

Sundbo, J., Orfila-Sintes, F., & Sørensen, F. (2007). The innovative behaviour of tourism firms comparative studies of Denmark and Spain. *Research Policy,* 36(1), 88-106.

Toader et al. (2013). Networks, clusters, and innovation in Romanian tourism. *Conference of the international journal of arts & science:* 6(2), 81-89.

Weiermair, K. (2006). Product improvement or innovation: what is the key to success in tourism, *Innovation and Growth in Tourism.* OECD, Paris, 53-69.

Weiermair, K. (2004). Product improvement or innovation: What is the key to success in tourism?. OECD, Paris.

BRIEF PROFILE OF THE AUTHOR

Ishwar Khatri is studying 'International Business and Marketing' degree at Norwegian University of Science and Technology (NTNU), Norway. He also holds the Master of Business Administration (MBA) degree from Pokhara University, Nepal. His research interests are international business, marketing, micro-finance, tourism, and leadership & culture. The author can be contacted by email *at khatry69@gmail.com*

A Study on Environmental Orientation among Tourists Visiting Kashmir Valley

IQBAL AHMAD BHAT

Assistant Professor, Department of Travel, Tourism and Hospitality Management Khallikote University Berhampur, Odisha.

Abstract

For the promotion and development of sustainable tourism in destination area, it is imperative to have responsible visitors with pro-environmental orientation. The Valley of Kashmir is bestowed with bountiful natural resources and rich biodiversity. Tourists visit Kashmir Valley for its natural and scenic beauty. Most of the tourist places in Kashmir Valley are ecologically sensitive and vulnerable to impacts of uncontrolled tourist movement. Under such circumstances, it becomes important to understand the critical minimum knowledge of tourists about the environment for the sustainable tourism development. The present study is based on New Ecological Paradigm Scale developed by Riley Dunlap and his colleagues, and is a measure of endorsement of a 'pro-ecological worldview'. It is a survey based metric designed to measure the environmental concern of tourists visiting Kashmir Valley. The survey construct consists of fifteen statements wherein respondents were asked to show their agreement or disagreement measured on five point Likert scale. The agreement to eight odd statements in the construct shows the respondents' endorsement to pro-ecological paradigm while as endorsement to seven even statements reflects dominant social paradigm (DSP). The findings of the present study revealed that tourists in general showed their endorsement to the pro-ecological worldview while measuring the average mean score on five point Likert scale. But differences in opinion were found while measuring the endorsement on the basis of socio-demographic variables. The study which is a first of its kind in the concerned area is of valuable importance for both academicians as well as stakeholders. It is expected that the present study will help in addressing the issues of sustainability and management of tourist destinations in the Valley of Kashmir.

INTRODUCTION

There has been a tremendous growth in tourism post-World War II era. According to the estimates of United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), the international tourist numbers have seen an increase of 7% to reach 1.3billion in 2017 (UNWTO, 2018). The development of tourism at the individual destinations might be experiencing fluctuations due to various factors associated therein. But the overall global pattern since the post-war era has seen an uninterrupted growth of tourism. During 1960s the unparalleled growth of tourist movement from more developed countries to less developed ones saw a big surge in tourism development. The growth of tourism in developing countries witnessed a new transition which gave rise to tourism dependency or the international 'pleasure periphery' (Turner & Ash, 1975). According to Jafari (1989, 2001), the growth of tourism since post-war era can be better understood through the sequential appearance of the advocacy, cautionary, adaptancy, and knowledge-based perspectives. The pro-tourism advocates in the early 1950s and 1960s labeled tourism as a benign tool for the economically impoverished developing countries. Different theories and arguments were built in support of tourism being the harbinger of world peace and cross-cultural relationships (D'Amore, 1988). The role of tourism as an incentive in the preservation of destinations environmental and heritage resources was highly appreciated by the propounders of advocacy platform. But several factors in the late 1960s and early 1970s saw the emergence of dependency theories, wherein the negative impacts of mass growth of tourism became the focal point of discussion. It was argued that tourism was a means through which the developed regions have been exploiting the less developed nations (Hills and Lundgren, 1977; Britton, 1982). Scholars like Finney and

Watson (1975); and Harrigan (1974) had gone to the extent of labelling tourism as a new form sugar, and master-slave relationship.

It was during this time that the environmental movements started gaining prominence which saw the emergence of new tourism paradigm. According to (Knill, 1991), a green paradigm of tourism emerged that challenged the more exploitative and anthropocentric dominant social paradigm. This, inturn, gave rise to the concept of sustainability and sustainable tourism development. The decision makers and policy framing authorities became more aware ofthe ill impacts of mass tourism and started searching for alternative tourism planning, and managerial options. The notion of sustainability and sustainable tourism development gave rise to new forms of tourism as an alternative to ill impacts of mass tourism. The acceptance of the term sustainable tourism has been widely acknowledged in the present times. The broad concepts associated with sustainable tourism include ecotourism; appropriate tourism; responsible tourism; nature tourism; rural tourism; and many other forms (Weaver, 1998; Lane, 1991).

However, the basic argument which needs to be debated is to what extent the visiting tourist population has awareness about the basic environmental ethics while visiting any destination. This requires an in-depth study approach about the environmental concerns of tourists visiting a destination, in order to follow the practices of sustainability and sustainable tourism. According to (Arcury, 1990), increased knowledge about the environment is assumed to change environmental attitudes, and both environmental knowledge and attitudes are assumed to influence environmental policy. The present study is based on the argument that visiting tourist population to any destination of environmental fragility should have critical minimum awareness about the basics of environment. The study takes into account different socio-economic and demographic variables of visiting tourists to understand their knowledge about the environmental orientation about a destination being visited. The study uses the widely accepted New Environmental Paradigm Scale developed by Riley Dunlop and his colleagues for the measurement of environmental orientation of tourists visiting the Valley of Kashmir.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

There are numerous studies in the academic literature on tourism which assertthat environmental attitude is a predicator of ecologically responsible behaviour (Kaiser, Wolfing, & Fuhrer, 1999; Singh, 2001; Davis, Green, & Reed, 2008; Lee, 2008). The concept of attitude is a measure of people's behaviour to respond either favourably or unfavourably towards a particular issue. The earlier studies in the field of environment and landscape management have tried to measure the human behaviour on the basis of human value and aesthetic orientation dimensions (Homer & Kahle, 1988; Rokeach, 1973; Fulton et al., 1996). Similarly, the relationship between the three domains of human psychology (cognitive, affective and conative) as the predicament of environmental behaviour have been empirically verified (Cottrell,2003). The studies of (Cheng & Monroe, 2012; Halpenny, 2010; Vaske & Kobrin, 2001) suggest that it is the people's attachment towards the environment which develops a pro-environmental attitude and sense of responsibility in them. The earlier attempts in the direction of environmental value orientation have been that of Dunlap and Van Liere (1978), Dunlap et al. (1992) by developing the Environmental Paradigm Scale known as New Ecological Paradigm Scale (NEP). This is an instrument which tries to measure the pro environmental

orientation of visitors and is widely accepted tool in tourism and sustainability studies.

There have been numerous studies showcasing the importance of environment and inherent human belief. According to Thompson and Barton (1994), two approaches towards the study of the environment are: ecocentric and anthropocentric. In case of ecocentric approach, humans' value nature and its preservation for its intrinsic values while as in case of anthropocentrism, humans value nature for their own needs. The study of Guagnano, Dietz, and Stern (1994)has suggested one more approach that of 'egocentrism' which is based on personal goal maximization. Stokols (1990) tries to bring a balance between human endeavours and ecology by visualizing the spirituality and instrumentalism as the main dimensions of the environmental drive. The problems of environmental concerns are more rooted in human behaviour and the socio-cultural values which shape their attitude (Skogen, 1999). For example, environmental behaviour is depended on personal and situational variables and the way in which these interact (Corraliza, & Berenguer, 2000).

The NEP scale as the measure of human belief towards ecology has fifteen constructs which focus on ecocentric belief as a change from the Dominant Social Paradigm (DSP) or anthropocentrism. The scale has been widely used both from the general public perspective as well as specific sectors and members of special interest group (Edgell & Nowell, 1989; Pierce et al.1992). Among the other studies are those of Caron, 1989) Noe & Snow, 1989, 1990; Gooch (1995); Furman (1998); and Pierce et al. (1987)which show the wide acceptance of NEP scale across the different cultures. All these studies show the continuity to what Dunlap had already published in his Washington study of 1978.

Dunlap and his colleagues assert that the NEP scale has various strengths and inherent consistency which make it more reliable globally. The fact is not mere speculation as the study of Weigel & Weigel, (1978) has found the validity of NEP more demanding due to its pro-environmental orientation. The endorsement to NEP as compared to DSP has been more endorsed due to the fact of changing world view especially after the environmental concerns of the 1970s. Studies in case of outdoor recreational activities using NEP as a measure of environmental attitude have shown different results. For example; Uysal et al. (1994) while examining the visitor attitude towards the environment and their socio-demographic characteristics that trip behaviour and site specific preferences are more important as compared to other variables. In other cases, the environmental attitude has been used as the major tool for market segmentation, wherein NEP and socio-demographic characteristics of ecotourists or nature-based tourists were examined (Formica and Uysal 2002; Zografos and Allcroff 2007). In certain cases, it has been found that NEP and environmental attitude are negatively related while as in other cases relation was positive (Wearing et al., 2002; Wurzinger and Johansson, 2006; Khan, 2004; Kim, Borges, and Chon 2006). The More positive relationship between NEP and socio-demographic dimensions has been the case of site-specific preferences and motivational behaviours.

With an increase in the number of tourists to a destination of the ecologically sensitive environment, the severity of negative impacts increases manifold (Newsome, & Moore, 2002). The unplanned growth of tourism has damaged the natural and socio-cultural environments of many destinations (Domet, 1991; Frueh, 1986; Hall, & Lew, 1998; Singh, 1989). These negative effects have led to the growing concern for the

conservation of natural resources, human well-being, and the long-term economic viability of communities (Akis, Peristianis, & Warner, 1996; Butler, & Boyd, 2000; Cater, 1993; Haralambopoulos, & Pizam, 1996; Healy, 1994; Mowforth, & Munt, 1998; Place, 1995; Richard, & Hall, 2000). The destinations quality decreases substantially when the number of visitors is beyond the critical limits of carrying capacity (Weaver, & Lawton, 2004).The negative impacts of mass tourism include an increase in the land use resources, alteration in landscape, pollution (air, land, water, and noise), irresponsible human behaviour towards a destination, change in aesthetics, and more importantly trampling of biodiversity.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

The present study is based on the Valley of Kashmir which is known across the globe as 'paradise on earth'. Tourism is synonymous with the development as well as an important tool for the promotion of peace in the Valley of Kashmir. Tourists since time immemorial have been visiting the Valley and its remotest places like Amarnath, Gangabal, and Gulmarg. There has been more thrust on the positive side of tourism development in the Valley with no or little attention towards its ill effects. The prospective visitors to the Valley of Kashmir, in general, have been the mass tourists in the peak tourism season. This is always a welcome step knowing the fact that tourism brings more economic development and engages the local population in earning their livelihood. But the flip side of this development has been the serious negative impacts on major tourist destinations like Sonamarg, Gulmarg, Pahalgam, and Dal Lake. For, example:Gulmarg initially had one commercially established hotel during the post-independence era but it now boasts of many all season state of art facilities for tourists. Due to the mushrooming growth of

infrastructure development, the density of forest cover in and around Gulmarg has considerably reduced (Greater Kashmir, 2017).The present study addresses the negative side of the tourism development, and tries to find out the concerns of visitors and studies their behaviour on the basis of different socio-demographic variables. The main thrust of such a concern is to promote more sustainable tourism practices in the Valley of Kashmir.

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The present study is based on the aim to promote sustainable tourism practices at a destination based on responsible visitor behaviour. The study has the following objectives:

1. To analyse profile the tourists visiting the Valley of Kashmir.
2. To evaluate the environmental orientation of tourists visiting the Valley of Kashmir.

METHODOLOGY ADOPTED

Research design: The present study follows the sequential explanatory research design under mixed research methods. The research derives its subjectivity through a descriptive path while going deep into the study area and its prospects for sustainable tourism development. According to Creswell (2009), mixed methodology involves the use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches in tandem in order to make it stronger rather than following a single method. The use of inductive and deductive approaches in the present study helped to build a relationship between conceptualization and analytical findings. Inductive method is used to explore the available information on resources and connote the theoretical background while thedeductive method is used in statistical analysis.

Scale development: According to Finn (2000), in leisure and tourism surveys the measurement of attitudes and opinions is of importance and therefore require answers

on some rating scale. It was found that the most common scale used in tourism studies is five-point Likert scales wherein respondents are supposed to show their agreement or disagreement with a statement concerning a particular object. Semantic differentials and Likert scales tend to be fine enough to differentiate between responses and coarse enough to enable respondents to place themselves (Moser & Kalton, 1989). As present study drew on previous studies wherein researchers used the Likert type scale, therefore, it was found suitable to incorporate the same scale keeping in view the nature of the study.

Instrumentation: The important step in the present study was to develop the data collection instrument (questionnaire) which should be flawless and logical. The questionnaire for the present study was prepared keeping in view the area of study and similar works conducted before based on the review of literature. The studies of Bagri & et al (2009), Pereira (2011) were found useful in constructing the questionnaire. The first section of the questionnaire is based on the socio-economic and demographic information. The second section uses the New Ecological Paradigm Scale (NEP) to measure the responses of visitors on a five-point Likert scale. The NEP scale has been extensively used in the context of social research to measure general environmental attitudes (Hawcroft & Milfont, 2010; Mair, 2011; Kim et al., 2006). The studies of (Bostrom, Barke, Turaga, & O'Connor, 2006; Dolnicar, 2010; Dunlap, Van Liere, Mertig, & Jones, 2000) have shown that NEP has considerable validity in the socio-cultural domain. There are two distinct dimensions in the NEP scale in which seven even- numbered items if agreed by the respondents, show their anthropocentric behaviour. On the other hand eight odd-numbered items if agreed by the respondents, show their pro-environmental

or ecocentric behaviour. The data has been collected at major tourist destinations in the Valley of Kashmir keeping in view the flow of tourists and proximity factors.

Sampling: The study uses convenient sampling for data collection keeping in consideration the ease of access and ongoing political issues in the valley of Kashmir. A total of 500 questionnaires were distributed among the tourists at the places of visiting destinations. The number of filled in questionnaires received were 487 and were found useful for final analysis.

Sample size: The sample size for the present study was determined with the help of extensive literature survey. While choosing sample size, the first target in selecting sample size is the definition of target population (Albaum & Smith, 2005). The present study has a target population of tourists visiting valley of Kashmir. Next approach was to find out the accurate sample size. While reviewing different studies, it was found that a sample size of large quantity would be suitable to gather the requisite information. For example, Yacob (2011) had used a sample size of 298 tourists to study their perception and opinion about ecotourism in Malaysia. Scholars have different opinions about the sample size, for example; Kline (2005) views sample size fewer than 100 'small' and greater than 200 as 'large'. The present study follows the pattern of Perera (2011) who conducted a study on marketing forest-based ecotourism in Sri Lanka wherein he had used a sample size of 540 which was 15 times as the number of observed variables. Therefore, taking into consideration the similarity of the research issue in the present study, a sample size of 500 was considered suitable for both tourist as well as the local community to derive the information.

Hypothesis: On the basis of the review of literature and tourism development pattern

in the valley of Kashmir, following hypothesis was formulated.

H0: Environmental orientation of tourists' is different on the basis of their nationality and education.

Statistical tool used: Primary data and the hypothesis testing have been performed with the help of descriptive statistics. The socio-economic and demographic information have been presented with the help of frequency distribution. The NEP analysis and the resultant hypothesis have been tested with the help of t-test and ANOVA taking into account mean and standard deviation or simple frequency distribution.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The first part of the study dealt with profiling of tourists based on demographics and socio-economic information. The following table provides the results of profiling of tourists:

Table no 1: Tourist profiling (N=487)

SNO	Demographic variables	Category of respondents	Frequency	Percentage
1	Nationality	Indian	222	45.6
		Foreign	265	54.4
2	Gender	Male	276	56.7
		Female	211	43.3
3	Marital status	Married	255	52.4
		Un-married	232	47.6
4	Age	Up to 30	179	36.8
		31-50	253	52.0
		>50	55	11.2
5	Education	Secondary	37	7.6
		Graduation	137	28.1
		Post-graduation	242	49.7
		Others	71	14.6
6	Occupation	Government	177	36.3
		Private	132	27.1
		Business	79	16.2
		Others	99	20.4
7	Monthly income	<30000	90	18.5
		30000-50000	266	54.6
		>50000	131	26.9

The above table gives the information of tourists about the socio-economic and demographic variables. The demographic profile of the respondents consists of variables including nationality, gender, marital status, age, education, occupation, and income. The major outcome of such profiling gives an idea about the type of tourists visiting a place. It is clearly visible from the above table that valley of Kashmir attracts younger generation of tourists as 52% were in the age group of 31-50 and 36.8% were in the age group of up to 30 years. Similarly, the analysis shows that well qualified tourists are visiting the valley of Kashmir, as 49.7% of them are in the post-graduation group of education. In case of income category, it is found that high income group of people visit valley of Kashmir. Therefore, it can be concluded from the socio-economic and demographic information of tourists that upper market

segment has been visiting the valley of Kashmir.

The second part of the study dealt with the environmental orientation of tourists to know their level of understanding about the concept based on NEP. The responses given on fifteen items of NEP scale were measured on a five-point Likert scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The results based on frequency distribution are given as under:

Table no 2:Frequency distribution of environmental orientation of tourists

items	SA	A	N	DA	SDA
1.We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support	248 (50.9)	114 (23.4)	83 (17.0)	13 (2.8)	29 (5.9)
2.Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs	79 (16.2)	77 (15.8)	07 (1.4)	137 (28.1)	187 (38.5)
3.When humans interfere with nature, it often produces disastrous consequences	373 (76.7)	99 (20.3)	07 (1.4)	05 (1.0)	03 (0.6)
4.Humans ingenuity will ensure that we do not make the earth unliveable	121 (24.8)	140 (28.7)	143 (29.4)	33 (6.8)	50 (10.3)
5.Humans are severely abusing the earth	215 (44.2)	158 (32.4)	19 (3.9)	59 (12.1)	36 (7.4)
6.The earth has plenty of natural resources if we just learn to how to develop them	228 (46.8)	109 (22.4)	16 (3.3)	20 (4.1)	114 (23.4)
7.Plants and animals have as much right as humans to exist	308 (63.3)	139 (28.5)	22 (4.5)	18 (3.7)	00 (0.0)
8.The balance of nature is strong enough to cope with the impacts of modern industrial nations	64 (13.1)	38 (7.8)	46 (9.4)	132 (27.1)	207 (42.6)
9.Despite our special abilities, humans are still subject to the laws of nature	237 (48.6)	180 (37.0)	32 (6.6)	16 (3.3)	22 (4.5)
10.The so called 'ecological crisis' facing human kind has been greatly exaggerated	50 (10.3)	82 (16.8)	98 (20.1)	64 (13.1)	193 (39.7)
11.The earth is like a space ship with very limited room and resources	147 (30.2)	142 (29.1)	42 (8.6)	122 (25.1)	34 (7.0)
12.Humans were meant to rule over the rest of the nature	23 (4.7)	43 (8.8)	24 (4.9)	123 (25.3)	274 (56.3)
13.The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset	176 (36.1)	131 (26.9)	74 (15.2)	70 (14.4)	36 (7.4)
14.Humans will eventually learn enough about how nature works to be able to control it	37 (7.6)	107 (22.0)	78 (16.0)	80 (16.4)	185 (38.0)
15.If things continue on their present course, we will soon experience a major environmental catastrophe	196 (60.8)	143 (29.4)	42 (8.6)	05 (1.0)	01 (0.2)

where, SA= strongly agree, A= agree, N= neither agree nor disagree, DA= disagree & SDA= strongly disagree

The above table presents the frequency distribution of tourists regarding the environmental orientation. The results of frequency distribution show that majority of the tourists either strongly agree or agree on the eight statements concerning new ecological paradigm (NEP). These statements are: We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support (1), When humans interfere with nature, it often produces disastrous consequences (3), Humans are severely abusing the earth (5), Plants and animals have as much right as humans to exist (7), Despite our special abilities, humans are still subject to the laws of nature (9), The earth is like a space ship with very limited room and resources (11), The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset (13), If things continue on their present course, we will soon experience a major environmental catastrophe (15). It can be concluded from the frequency distribution that majority of the respondents showed agreement to the eight odd statements of NEP and disagreement to the seven statements of DSP. Therefore, it connotes the positive approach towards the environmental world view as proposed by Dunlap and confirmed from other studies (Corral-Verdugo, & Armendariz, 2000; Dunlap et al., 2000; Kim et al., 2006). Similar results were shown in another research work (Bechtel et al., 1997; Liu, Ouyang, & Miao, 2010) while measuring the endorsement of different tourism stakeholders on NEP scale.

HYPOTHESIS TESTING

Two independent variables as nationality and education were taken as the testing variables to find out the difference in opinion of respondents about their understanding of environmental orientation.

Table no 3: Group statistics with t-test

Scale	Nationality				
	Indian	Foreign	Statistical test		
	Mean, ±SD	Mean, ±SD	t	df	p
Item No1	4.01, 1.28	4.19, 1.02	1.726	485	.085
Item No2	1.93, 1.25	2.85, 1.61	6.978	485	.000
Item No3	4.76, .49	4.67, .69	1.621	485	.106
Item No4	4.06, .79	3.05, 1.33	9.975	485	.000
Item No5	3.76, 1.42	4.09, 1.13	2.822	485	.005
Item No6	4.57, .74	2.88, 1.78	13.244	485	.000
Item No7	4.59, .69	4.45, .79	1.950	485	.052
Item No8	2.37, 1.37	2.09, 1.43	2.162	485	.031
Item No9	4.45, .77	4.03, 1.17	4.562	485	.000
Item No10	2.88, 1.27	2.09, 1.44	6.372	485	.000
Item No11	3.10, 1.36	3.84, 1.22	6.323	485	.000
Item No12	1.86, 1.19	1.75, 1.14	1.040	485	.299
Item No13	3.60, 1.28	3.78, 1.29	1.584	485	.114
Item No14	2.76, 1.37	2.18, 1.35	4.486	485	.000
Item No15	4.52, .75	4.48, .69	.655	485	.513

where P is significant at 0.05

The above table provides the descriptive statistics showing mean value and standard deviation of Indian and Foreign tourists on the fifteen items of environmental orientation scale. The results of statistical t-test show that there is no significant difference in the opinion of tourists about the item numbers 1, 3, 7, 12, 13 and 15 regarding their nationality. Except item no.12, all the items constitute an endorsement of tourists to the new ecological paradigm. In case of remaining nine items, 2,4,5,6,8,9,10,11 and 14 the result of t-test shows that there is a significant difference in the opinion of tourists about the environmental paradigm scale regarding their nationality. It can further be concluded that out of the nine items, three odd numbered (5,9 and 11) form the endorsement to new ecological paradigm while as rest of the items (2,4,6,8,10 and 14) form the endorsement to the dominant social paradigm.

From the analysis of environmental paradigm scale according to the nationality of tourists, it can be concluded that tourists do not follow the same endorsement for the dominant social paradigm. In most of the statements related to the dominant social paradigm, tourists show the difference in their opinion or approach towards the environment. But in case of new ecological paradigm, tourists show no difference in opinion about certain statements and difference in case of certain statements.

Table no 4: Descriptive statistics with one way ANOVA

Items	Education	No	Mean	±SD	Min	Max	F	p	sig. pairs
1	Secondary	37	3.76	1.37	1	5	2.679	.056	
	Graduation	137	4.28	.962	1	5			
	P. Graduation	242	4.10	1.07	1	5			
	Others	71	3.96	1.52	1	5			
	Total	487	4.11	1.15	1	5			
2	Secondary	37	2.11	1.25	1	5	2.336	.073	
	Graduation	137	2.64	1.63	1	5			
	P. Graduation	242	2.45	1.53	1	5			
	Others	71	2.14	1.36	1	5			
	Total	487	2.43	1.52	1	5			
3	Secondary	37	4.92	.28	4	5	2.251	.082	
	Graduation	137	4.66	.75	1	5			
	P. Graduation	242	4.69	.59	2	5			
	Others	71	4.79	.48	3	5			
	Total	487	4.71	.61	1	5			
4	Secondary	37	4.68	.63	2	5	16.389	.000	1 VS 2,3,4 3 VS 4
	Graduation	137	3.50	1.27	1	5			
	P. Graduation	242	3.27	1.28	1	5			
	Others	71	3.73	.76	2	5			
	Total	487	3.51	1.23	1	5			

5	Secondary	37	4.24	1.22	1	5			
	Graduation	137	4.12	1.09	1	5			
	P. Graduation	242	3.92	1.24	1	5	4.676	.003	4 VS 1,2,3
	Others	71	3.49	1.63	1	5			
	Total	487	3.94	1.28	1	5			
6	Secondary	37	4.22	1.36	1	5			1 VS 2,3
	Graduation	137	3.33	1.74	1	5			
	P. Graduation	242	3.45	1.69	1	5	14.758	.000	2 VS 4
	Others	71	4.66	.608	3	5			3 VS
	Total	487	3.65	1.63	1	5			4
7	Secondary	37	4.57	.89	2	5			
	Graduation	137	4.36	.73	2	5			4 VS 2,3
	P. Graduation	242	4.52	.78	2	5	5.023	.002	
	Others	71	4.77	.54	2	5			
	Total	487	4.51	.75	2	5			
8	Secondary	37	2.92	1.56	1	5			
	Graduation	137	2.00	1.43	1	5			
	P. Graduation	242	2.24	1.39	1	5	4.282	.005	1 VS 2,3,4
	Others	71	2.21	1.25	1	5			
	Total	487	2.22	1.41	1	5			
9	Secondary	37	4.59	.56	3	5			
	Graduation	137	4.23	.99	1	5			
	P. Graduation	242	4.14	1.08	1	5	2.222	.085	
	Others	71	4.27	1.07	1	5			
	Total	487	4.22	1.03	1	5			
10	Secondary	37	2.54	1.69	1	5			
	Graduation	137	2.32	1.56	1	5			
	P. Graduation	242	2.42	1.32	1	5	1.509	.211	
	Others	71	2.75	1.28	1	5			
	Total	487	2.45	1.42	1	5			
11	Secondary	37	3.51	1.43	1	5			
	Graduation	137	3.65	1.27	1	5			
	P. Graduation	242	3.52	1.34	1	5	1.935	.123	
	Others	71	3.18	1.38	1	5			
	Total	487	3.51	1.34	1	5			
12	Secondary	37	1.97	1.31	1	5			
	Graduation	137	1.74	1.16	1	5			
	P. Graduation	242	1.84	1.19	1	5	.642	.588	
	Others	71	1.70	1.02	1	4			
	Total	487	1.80	1.15	1	5			
13	Secondary	37	3.62	1.35	1	5			
	Graduation	137	3.75	1.31	1	5			
	P. Graduation	242	3.66	1.29	1	5	.270	.847	
	Others	71	3.77	1.24	1	5			
	Total	487	3.70	1.29	1	5			

14	Secondary	37	2.76	1.45	1	5			
	Graduation	137	2.59	1.44	1	5			
	P. Graduation	242	2.43	1.36	1	5	2.927	.033	2 VS 4
	Others	71	2.07	1.26	1	5			
	Total	487	2.45	1.39	1	5			
15	Secondary	37	4.68	.58	3	5			
	Graduation	137	4.39	.78	1	5			
	P. Graduation	242	4.50	.71	2	5	2.427	.065	
	Others	71	4.61	.67	2	5			
	Total	487	4.49	.72	1	5			

where 1=secondary education, 2=Graduation, 3=Post Graduation, 4=others

The above table shows the descriptive statistics with a mean and standard deviation of respondents on the fifteen items of ecological paradigm scale. The results of descriptive statistics show that in case of item numbers, 1, 2 & 3, the average mean score of respondents as per their qualification levels either equals or is near to the total mean score value. For example in case of item no.1, 'we are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support' the total mean value is 4.11 and category wise mean value also falls in the same range as per the different qualification levels of the respondents. Similarly, in case of statement no.2 'humans have right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs' mean falls in the category of disagreement, but the respondents show consistency as per the different qualification levels. The consistency of results in the case of these three statements is further proven with the help of statistical test of one-way ANOVA. It is inferred from the statistical test that there is no difference in the opinion of visitors about the above three statements of ecological paradigm scale according to the different educational qualifications.

In the case of statements 4,5,6,7,8 and 14, there is a difference in the average mean value of respondents qualifications with that of the average mean score value. In certain cases, the difference is more while as in certain cases it is high. For example, in case of item no.4, the total mean value of

3.51 corresponds to a neutral opinion of the respondents but respondents with educational qualification of secondary level show their agreement to this statement as their mean touches 4.68. Therefore, the difference in the mean score shows respondents differ in their opinions. The actual difference in opinion is proven with the help of statistical test (ANOVA) which shows that there is a significant difference in the opinion of respondents about the ecological paradigm scale as per the different educational qualifications.

Further, the result of *post-hoc* test confirms the difference in groups of different educational qualifications of the respondents. It is inferred from the post-hoc analysis that the difference in case of item no.4 is between respondents with secondary level of educational qualification and all the remaining types and post graduate respondents with those having educational qualification others. Similarly, in case of item no 5 the difference is in the pairs with secondary level of educational qualification with remaining three types. The difference in case of item no.6 revealed by post-hoc analysis was found in case of respondents having educational qualification secondary with graduates and post-graduates, as well as others, having similar differences with the same group. While in case of item no.8 the difference was between others and graduates and post-graduates (respondents with educational qualifications). Finally the difference is noticed in case of item no.14

which shows the respondents with educational qualification others differ in their opinion with respondents having secondary and graduation level of educational qualification.

The descriptive statistics in case of statements 9, 10, 11, 12, 13 and 15 show consistency in the total mean score of respondents with the average mean. For example, in case of item no. 9, the total mean is 4.22 which mean agreement and the average mean also falls in the similar range, hence showing the similar opinion of respondents with different qualifications to the statement. Similar results are noticed in case of rest of the statements, for example, item no.12 has total mean 1.8 which means disagreement and the average mean is also found in the same opinion as per the respondents' qualification levels. It can be concluded that in all these statements there is a consistency in the respondents' opinion about the items as per their qualifications revealed by the mean value.

Further, the result of one-way ANOVA revealed that there is no difference in the opinion of respondents about the statements 9, 10, 11, 12, 13 and 15 as per the different educational qualifications.

Therefore, it can be concluded from the above analysis that out of the fifteen statements of the new ecological paradigm scale, a significant difference was noticed in the opinion of respondents in case of item no. 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8. Out of these five items, two (5 & 7) belong to new environmental paradigm (NEP) and three (4, 6 & 8) are from dominant social paradigm (DSP). In remaining statements (2,3,9,10,11,12,13,and15) there is no difference in the opinion of respondents as per their qualification levels. The opinion of respondents is either positive or neutral in case of new ecological paradigm and negative or neutral in case of dominant social paradigm. It can be said that respondents show consistency in their opinion about the different dimensions of ecological paradigm scale in the majority of the statements.

Hypothesis testing summary

The dimension for hypothesis 'environmental orientation of tourists differs' using t-test and ANOVA on testing variables nationality and education is not rejected on the basis of statistical analysis.

CONCLUSION

Human beings have been profoundly using the earth and its resources without taking into account the negative impacts that have been generated. The worldwide disasters like nuclear accidents, depletion of resources, environmental deterioration and global warming have become burning issues. The effects of ecological consequences due to tourism started gaining prominence during the 1960s and 1970s (Pearce, 1985), with a growing realization that tourism industry can either moderately alter the destination or completely transform it into adverse conditions. The issues of environmental deterioration due to tourism gained prominence and received a tremendous boost during the mid-1970s from the efforts of prominent scholars like Budowski (1976), Krippendorf (1987) and Cohen (1978). For example, Krippendorf (1982) says that resources are the raw material for tourism which if not utilized in a proper way will lose its value. The reports of United Nations Human Environment Conference of 1972, the World Conservation Strategy of 1980, the Report of Brundtland Commission (1980) and Manila Declaration on World Tourism in 1980 were some of the pioneering efforts to address the issues of tourism and environmental concerns across the length and breadth of the globe.

There have been several approaches to study the ecological concerns of tourists visiting a natural destination, one such being the New Environmental Paradigm

(NEP), developed by Dunlap and Van Liere (1978). According to Kostova et al. (2011), the environmental social paradigm is the best used method to study the approach of humans towards different developmental activities they are engaged in. The scale has great importance when it comes to measuring the human-environment relationships at different levels and has the great value to measure the environmental concerns of people (Beck & Grande, 2010; Kostova et al., 2011). The scale has been successfully used for the last 30 years by scholars from fields like Psychology, Political Sciences and Geography, and is generally acknowledged as a reliable multi-item scale for environmental attitudes (Dunlap, 2008; Filby, 2015; Kostova et al., 2011, Lee & Moscardo, 2005; Luck, 2010; Ogunbode, 2013). According to Dunlap et al. (2000), the scale has extensive utilization in recreational, tourism and outdoor studies.

The analysis of environmental orientation in the present study revealed that tourists, in general, endorse the pro-ecological concern while calculating the score on five-point Likert scale. The results were found in accordance with the criteria laid by Dunlap (2000) that in the scale of 15 items representing NEP; the disagreement to seven even-numbered items indicates pro-ecological worldview (agreement to eight odd-numbered items). But similar results were not found while measuring the endorsements of domestic and foreign tourists separately, as there are varying opinions regarding the dominant social paradigm and ecological paradigm of the scale. This confirms to the earlier study conducted by Bagri & et al. (2009) in the similar environs (Himalayas) which had shown that there is a difference in opinion among the pilgrims, adventure tourists and leisure tourists about the environmental orientation. The findings are further consistent with similar results from the study of Lundmark (2007) and it is inferred that most future (ecotourists) would have a high level of environmental awareness which is consistent with the earlier studies conducted by (Thompson, 2013; Lee & Moscardo, 2005).

Therefore, it can be concluded that in general respondents showed their endorsement to the new ecological paradigm but from the perspective of their nationality and educational status, there was a difference in opinion. Hence the proposed hunch that there is no significant difference in the opinion of respondents about the environmental orientation from the perspective of nationality and education is rejected.

The paper concludes that positive environmental orientation is important for the destination life cycle and sustainable tourism practices. The study in the area which is tag lined as the 'paradise on earth' has a plethora of issues ranging from tourism policy and planning, socio-political, and environmental due to lack of proper tourism planning. Under such circumstances, tourism not only serves as the major tool for peace building measures but also for socio-economic development. The study addresses the issues of mass tourism and its negative impacts and passes a message that high ended responsible tourist market should be made the focus of diversifying the tourism potential of the Valley of Kashmir. This would not only make tourism more community centric but will also ease the pressure on existing tourist destinations which otherwise are on the verge of reaching thresh-hold level.

REFERENCES

Akis, S., Peristianis, N., & Warner, J. (1996). Residents' attitudes to tourism development: The case of Cyprus. *Tourism Management, 17*(7), 481-494.

Albaum, G.S., & Smith, S.M. (2005). *Fundamentals of marketing Research*. SAGE Publications, Inc.

Arcury, T.A. (1990). Environmental attitude and environmental knowledge. *Human Organization, 49*(4), 300-304.

Bagri, S.C., & et al. (2009). Environmental orientation and ecotourism awareness among pilgrims, adventure tourists, and leisure tourists. *Tourism Preliminary Communication,57(1), 55-68.*

Bechtel, R., Corral, V., & Pinheiro, J. (1997). The structure of environmental beliefs in students from three American countries: USA, Mexico and Brazil. *In Paper presented at the 26th international congress of psychology, July 1997, Sau Paulo, Brazil.*

Beck, U., & Grande, E. (2010). Varieties of second modernity: the cosmopolitan turn in social and political theory and research. *The British Journal of Sociology, 61 (3), 409-443.*

Bostrom, A., Barke, R., Turaga, et al. (2006). Environmental concerns and the new environmental paradigm in Bulgaria. *Journal of Environmental Education, 37(3), 25-40.*

Britton, S. (1982). The Political economy of Tourism in the Third World. *Annals of Tourism Research, 9 (3), 331-358.*

Budowski, G. (1976). Tourism and environmental conservation: conflict, coexistence, or symbiosis. *Environmental conservation,* 3(1), 27-31.

Butler, R.W., & Boyd, S. (2000). *Tourism and National Parks.* Sussex: John Wiley.

Caron, J.A. (1989). Environmental perspectives of Blacks: Acceptance of the new environmental paradigm. *Journal of Environmental Education, 20, 21-26.*

Cater, E. A. (1993). Ecotourism in the third world: Problems for sustainable tourism development. *Tourism Management, 14(2), 85-89.*

Cheng, J. C. H., & Monroe, M. C. (2012). Connection to nature. *Environment and Behaviour, 44(1), 31-49.*

Cohen, E. (1978). The impacts of tourism on the physical environment, *Annals of Tourism Research, 5(2), 215-237.*

Corraliza, J. A., & Berenguer, J. (2000). Environmental values, beliefs, and actions. *Environment and Behaviour, 32(6), 832-848.*

Corral-Verdugo, V., & Armendáriz, L. I. (2000). The "New environmental paradigm"in a Mexican community. *Journal of Environmental Education, 31(3), 25-31.*

Cottrell, S. P. (2003). Influence of socio-demographics and environmental attitudes on general responsible environmental behaviour among recreational boaters. *Environment and Behaviour,35(3), 347-375.*

Creswell, J.W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches*. New Delhi: SAGE Publications.

Davis, J. L., Green, J. D., & Reed, A. (2009). Interdependence with the environment: commitment, interconnectedness, and environmental behaviour. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 29(2), 173-180.*

Dolnicar, S. (2010). Identifying tourists with smaller environmental footprints. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 18(6), 717-734.*

Domet, R. (1991). The Alps are dying. *World Press Review, 38* (March), 54-55.

Dunlap, R. E., Van Liere, K., Mertig, A., &

Jones, R. E. (2000). Measuring endorsement of the New Ecological Paradigm: a revised NEP scale. *Journal of Social Issues, 56, 425-442.*

Dunlap, R.E., & Van liere, K. D. (1978). The 'New Environment Paradigm': A Proposed Measuring Instrument and Preliminary Results. *Journal of environmental Education*, *9, 10-19*

Dunlap, R.E., Van Liere, et al. (1992). Measuring endorsement of an ecological worldview: a revised NEP-scale. In: *Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the Rural Sociological Society.* Pennsylvania State University.

Dunlap, Riley E. (2008). The new environmental paradigm scale: From marginality to worldwide use. *Journal of EnvironmentalEducation, 40 (1), 318.*

Edgell, M.C.R., & Nowell, D. E. (1989). The new environmental paradigm scale: Wildlife and environmental beliefs in British Columbia. *Society and Natural Resources, 2, 285-296.*

Filby, N.E., Stockin, K.A., et al. (2015). Social science as a vehicle to improve dolphin-swim tour operation compliance? *Marine Policy, 51, 40-47.*

Finn, M., et al. (2000). *Tourism and leisure research methods: data collection, analysis and interpretation.* UK: Pearson Education, p17.

Finney, B. and Watson, K. (Eds.) (1975). *A New Kind of Sugar: Tourism in the Pacific.* Honolulu: EastWest Centre**.**

Formica, S., and M. Uysal. (2002). "Segmentation of Travelers Based on Environmental Attitudes." *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing, 9 (34): 35-49.*

Frueh, S. (1986). *Problems in a tropical paradise: The impact of international tourism on Cancun, Mexico.* Unpublished Master Thesis, University of South Carolina.

Fulton, D.C., Manfredo, M.J& et al. (1996).

Wildlife value orientations: a conceptual and measurement approach. *Human. Dimension. Wildlife 1, 24-47.*

Furman, A. (1998). A note on environmental concern in a developing country: Results from an Istanbul survey. *Environment and Behaviour, 30, 520-534.*

Gooch, G.D., (1995). Environmental beliefs and attitudes in Sweden and Baltic States. *Environment and Behaviour, 27, 513-539.*

Guagnano, G. A., Dietz, T., & Stern, P. C. (1994). Willingness to Pay: A Test of the Contribution Model. *Psychological Science*, *5, 411-415.*

Hall, C, M., & Lew, A. A. (1998). *Sustainable Tourism: A Geographical Perspective.* Essex: Addison Wesley Longman.

Halpenny, E. A. (2010). Pro-environmental behaviours and park visitors: the effect of place attachment. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 30(4), 409-421.*

Haralambopoulos, N., & Pizam, A. (1996). Perceived impacts of tourism: The case of Samos. *Annals of Tourism Research, 23(3), 503-526.*

Harrigan, N. (1974). The legacy of Caribbean history and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 2, 13-25.*

Hawcroft, L. J., & Milfont, T. L. (2010). The use (and abuse) of the new environmental paradigm scale over the last 30 years: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 30(2), 143-158.*

Healy, R. G. (1994). Tourist merchandise' as a means of generating local benefits from ecotourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 2*(3), *137-151.*

Hills, T. and Lundgren, J. (1977). The impact of tourism in the Caribbean: a methodological study. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *4, 248-267.*

Homer, P.M., Kahle, L.R., (1988). A structural equation test of the valueattitudebehavior hierarchy. *J. Person. Social Psychology. 54, 638-646.*

IUCN. (2007, November 20). *World Conservation Strategy: 1980.* Retrieved on April 15, 2018, from http://www.culturalecology.info/cons_hist/WorldConservationStrategy.1980

Jafari, J. (1989). An English language literature review. In *Tourism as a Factor of Change: A Sociocultural Study* (J. Bystrzanowski, Ed.) pp. 17-60, Centre for Research and Documentation in Social Sciences.

Jafari, J. (2001). The Scientification of tourism. In *Hosts and Guests Revisited: Tourism Issues of the 21st Century* (V.L. Smith and M. Brent, Eds) pp. 28-41.

Kaiser, F. G., Wolfi ng, S., & Fuhrer, U. (1999). Environmental attitude and ecological behavior. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 19(1), 1-19.*

Kashmir, G. (2017, March 8). *www.greaterkashmir.com.* Retrieved February 20, 2018, from http://www.greaterkashmir.com/news/opinion/kashmir-tourism-and-environment/243136.

Khan, M. (2004). "An Examination of the Service Quality Expectations of the Ecotourists in Relation to Their Environmental Attitude, Behaviour, Travel Motivation, and Value Dimension." *ASEANJournal on Hospitality and Tourism, 3 (2): 163-184.*

Kim, H., Borges, M. C., & Chon, J. (2006). Impacts of environmental values on tourism motivation: the case of FICA, Brazil. *Tourism Management, 27(5), 957- 967.*

Kim, H., M. C. Borges, and J. Chon. (2006). "Impacts of Environmental Values on Tourism Motivation: The Case of FICA, Brazil." *Tourism*

Management, 27 (5): 957-967.

Kline, R. B. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modelling (2nd Ed.).* New York: Guilford Press.

Knill, G. (1991). Towards the green paradigm. *South African Geographical Journal, 73, 52-59.*

Kostova, Z., Vladimirova, E., & et al. (2011). The environmental concern of nine-grade students from a secondary professional school, *Bulgarian Journal of Science and Education Policy, 5 (1), 178-218.*

Krippendorf, J. (1987). *The Holiday Makers: Understanding the Impact of Leisure and Travel.* Butterworth-Heinemann

Lane, B. (1991). Sustainable tourism: A new concept for the interpreter. *Interpretation Journal, 49, 24.*

Lee, E. B. (2008). Environmental attitudes and information sources among African American college students. *Journal of Environmental Education, 40(1), 29-42.*

Lee, W.H., Moscardo, G. (2005). Understanding the Impact of Ecotourism Resort Experiences on Tourists' Environmental Attitudes and Behavioural Intentions. *Journal of sustainable tourism, 13 (6).546-565.*

Liu, J., Ouyang, Z., & Miao, H. (2010). Environmental attitudes of stakeholders and their perceptions regarding protected area-community conflicts: a case study in China. *Journal of Environmental Management, 91(11), 2254-2262.*

Luck, M. (2010). The "New Environmental Paradigm": Is the scale of Dunlap and Van Liere applicable in a tourism context? *Tourism Geographies, 5 (2), 228-240.*

Lundmark, C. (2007). The new ecological paradigm revisited: anchoring the NEP scale in environmental ethics. *Environmental Education Research, 13 (3), 329-347.*

Mair, J. (2011). Exploring air travellers' voluntary carbon-offsetting behaviour. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 19(2), 215-230.*

Moser, C., & Kalton, G. (1979). *Survey methods in social investigation* (2nd Ed.). Aldershot: Gower.

Mowforth, A., & Munt, I. (1998). *Tourism and Sustainability: New Tourism in the Third World.* UK: Routledge.

Newsome, D., S. A. Moore, and R. K. Dowling. (2002). *Natural Area Tourism: Ecology, Impacts and Management.* Sydney, Australia:Channel View.

Noe, P.F., & Snow, R. (1989-90). Hispanic cultural influence on environmental concern. *Journal of Environmental Education, 21, 27-34.*

Ogunbode, C. A. (2013). The NEP scale: measuring ecological attitudes/worldviews in an African context. *Environment, Development and Sustainability*, 15 (6), 1477-1494.

Pearce, D.G. (1985). Tourism and environmental research: a review. *International Journal of Environmental Studies*, 25, 247-255.

Perera Polwattage, K. (2011). *Marketing forest based ecotourism in Sri Lanka: Predicting the ecotourism behaviour and defining the market segment through behavioural approach.* Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Louisiana State University.

Pierce, J.C., Loverich, J.R., et al. (1987). Environmental belief systems among Japanese and American elites and publics. *Political Behaviour, 9, 139-159.*

Place, S. E. (1995). Ecotourism for sustainable development: oxymoron or plausible strategy? *Geo- Journal, 35*(2), 161-174.

Richard, G., & Hall, D. (2000). *Tourism and Sustainable Community development.* New York: Routledge.

Rokeach, M., (1973). *The Nature of Human Values.* New York: Free Press.

Singh, S. (2001). Indian tourism: policy, performance and pitfalls. In *Tourism and the Less Developed World: Issues and Case Studies* (D. Harrison, ed.) pp. 137-149, CABI Publishing.

Singh, S.C. (ed.) (1989). *Impact of Tourism on Mountain Environment.* India: Research India Publications, New Delhi.

Skogen, K. (1999). Another look at culture and nature: How culture patterns influence environmental orientation among Norwegian youth. *Acta Sociologica, 42(3), 223-239.*

Stokols, D. (1990). Instrumental and spiritual views of people-environment relations. *American Psychologist, 45, 641-646.*

Thompson, S. C. G., & Barton, M. A. (1994). Ecocentric and anthropocentric attitudes toward the environment. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 14(2), 149-157.*

Thomson, J. (2013), *New Ecological Paradigm Survey 2008: Analysis of the NEP results*, Waikato Regional Council Technical Report 2013/11. New Zealand.

United Nations, S. (1972). *Declaration of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment.* Stockholm: United Nations.

UNWTO. (n.d.). *Manila Declaration on World Tourism* [PDF]. Hungary: IPV.

Uysal, M., C. Jurowski, Poe, F. P., & et al. (1994). Environmental attitudes by trip and visitor characteristics. *Tourism Management, 15(4),284-94.*

Vaske, J. J., & Kobrin, K. C. (2001). Place attachment and environmentally responsible behaviour *Journal of Environmental Education, 32(4), 16-21.*

Wearing, S., S. Cynn, J. & et al. (2002). "Converting Environmental Concern into Ecotourism Purchases: A

Qualitative Evaluation of International Backpackers in Australia." *Journal of Ecotourism, 1 (23): 133-148.*

Weaver, D. (1998). *Ecotourism in the Less Developed World*. CABI International.

Weaver, D. B., & Lawton L. J. (2002). Overnight eco-tourist market segmentation in the Gold Coast hinterland of Australia. *Journal of Travel Research, 40(3), 270-281.*

Weigel, R.H., & Weigel, J. (1978). Environmental concern: The development of a measure. *Environment and Behaviour, 10, 3-15.*

World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2018). Tourism can and should lead Sustainable development, retrieved from http://media.unwto.org/press-release/2018-03-06/tourism-can-and-should-lead-sustainable-development-unwto-secretary-gener in April 2018.

Wurzinger, S., and M. Johansson. (2006). Environmental Concern and Knowledge of Ecotourism among Three Groups of Swedish Tourists. *Journal of Travel Research*, 45: 217-226.

Yacob, M.R., & et al. (2011). Tourists perception and opinion towards ecotourism development and management in Redang Island Marine Parks, Malaysia. *International Business Research, 4(1), 62-73.*

Zografos, C., and D. Allcroff. (2007). "The Environmental Values of Potential Ecotourists: A Segmentation Study." *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 15 (1): 44-66.*

BRIEF PROFILE OF THE AUTHOR

Iqbal Ahmad Bhat is Assistant Professor at Department of Travel, Tourism and Hospitality Mangaement at Khallikote University Berhampur, Odisha. He has completed Ph.D in Tourism Management with specialization in ecotourism from Banaras Hindu University. His research interests lie in the domain of tourism and sustainability, ecotourism, pilgrimage tourism, and rural tourism. iqbal.bhat41@gmail.com

Guerrilla Trail: A tourism product in the Maoist rebel's footsteps

SURENDRA RANA*
CHIRANJIBI BHANDARI**

*Freelance Travel Writer, Kathmandu
**Assistant Professor at Department of Conflict, Peace and Development Studies, Tribhuwan University

Abstract

The impact of war on tourism is envisaged negative whereby several sectors that are directly and indirectly associated with tourism suffers great losses. The experience of a decade-long (1996 to 2006) Maoist conflict in Nepal had similar impacts on the country's tourism industry. However, six years after the end of war in 2012, the government of Nepal explored and recognized 'Guerrilla trail' as a unique trekking route passing through the districts of Rolpa, Rukum, Baglung and Myagdi in mid-western and western Nepal aiming to retrace the footsteps of the guerrilla, commonly walked during the Maoist conflict. Since the very beginning, this trail is visualized as a quite essential journey for academicians and researchers to learn and experience how Maoist guerrillas had hiked and fought in such hilly terrain. In other ways, it is considered as a possible gateway to link the local communities with outside world and means to improve their socio-economic conditions.

Being a tourism product, it offers a wonderful blend of natural beauty, cultural heritage and people's war history along with several hills and valleys, varied landscapes, ancient ruins, mountains, rivers, hot springs, waterfalls with ancient cultures of different ethnic groups along with densely-populated ethnic Magar villages along with different Nepalese communities living with harmony for years. In this context, this article provides a clear description of the guerrilla trail by documenting all the initiatives and efforts were taken by the government of Nepal and concerned stakeholders including Nepal Tourism Board. Also, this article discusses opportunities and challenges associated with guerrilla trail.

INTRODUCTION

Nepal, a Himalayan country sandwiched between India and China, experienced a "decade-long armed conflict (1996-2006)." The CPN-Maoist initiated civil war in February 1996 after the then government of Nepal failed to address forty points demands, which were related to nationality to people's democracy to livelihood (Thapa and Sijapati, 2003). The decade-long conflict changed not only social and political structure of Nepali nation-state but also left long-term impacts on socio-economy of Nepal including tourism industry at large.

"Nepal has eight of the world's 14 highest mountains above 8000 meters." Eight cultural heritage and two natural heritage sites recognized by UNESCO belong to Nepal. Also, the land is popular as the birthplace of Gautam Buddha, promoter of peace in the world. In addition to mountains and peaks, rich cultural heritage and the friendly hospitality of the people are additional assets for tourist attractions. These combinations of various elements have made Nepal as one of the popular tourist destinations in the world.

In the period of conflict (1996-2006), the decline in tourist arrivals in the years (2000, 2001, 2002, and 2005) were observed which affected tourism businesses in many ways (GoN, 2015[1]). Based on Nepal Tourism Board's record and department of Immigration, 753003 tourists visited Nepal and nation earned Rs. 58.52 billion in foreign exchange from the tourism industry in the fiscal year of 2016 and 940,218 tourists visited in 2017. Further NTB forecasted around 25 % tourists increase is expected in the year of 2019.

Despite the wide range of concerns; social, political, economic and cultural issues associated with Maoist conflict in Nepal, Guerrilla Trail- as a tourism product was explored and recognized by all tourism stakeholders of Nepal. It is a combination of the history of people's war and natural beauty in the Himalayan country. It is considered as a wonderful

blend of natural beauty, cultural heritage and people's war history (Bhadgaunle, 2013). The scenic hills and valleys, eye-thrilling landscapes, ancient ruins, mountains, rivers, hot springs, waterfalls with centuries-old cultures of different ethnic groups, clusters of Magar villages along with different Nepalese communities living with harmony for years symbolize the beauty of Guerrilla trek *(Rana, 2017)*. It offers trekkers into the history of Maoist post-conflict region, culture and natural beauty. In this context, this article probes on the guerrilla trek, outlines its route, discusses its opportunities and challenges associated as a tourism product.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourism is the fastest and largest growing industry in the world. UNWTO report 1 billion tourists have already traveled around the world by 2015. Both developed and developing world realizes its significance and accepts tourism as the major economic source to earn foreign exchanges and generate employment. Tourism being a green industry, it is beneficial for all stakeholders: governments that earn taxes, tourism operators who get business, and local communities who get employment and income. According to world tourism and travel council (economic impact 2017), the total contribution of Travel & Tourism to employment (including wider effects from investment, the supply chain and induced. By 2027, Travel & Tourism is forecast to support 1,325,000 jobs (7.1% of total employment), an increase of 2.9% pa over the period. The United Nations has designated 2017 as the International Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development. As one of the world's largest economic sectors, Travel & Tourism creates jobs, drives exports, and generates prosperity across the world. The International Year provides an enormous opportunity to showcase further the tremendous economic, social, cultural, environmental, and heritage

value that the sector can bring to the country. As per UNWTO, tourism is an activity of the people to destinations outside their regular work and residence[2].

Tourism and Peace

Tourism and peace are interconnected and interdependent each other. Tourism is not only the beneficiary of peace but also a vital force for the absence of war and sustainable peace. Creating peace through tourism is an important means to create peace in the world. The United Nations Conference on Environment and Development on 14 June 1992 and Amman Declaration on 'Peace through Tourism' adopted at the Global Summit Peace through tourism on 11 November 2000 also focused on peace and tourism (Kunwar, 2010). In 1963, John F. Kennedy realized that tourism is a way of achieving world peace. He considers tourism as the vital force to learn a different culture, understand customs and to appreciate the qualities of individuals of each nation (Litvin, 1998). Likewise, Louis D'Amore (1998) conceptualized that tourism as an integral part in world diplomacy by "spreading information about the personalities, beliefs, aspirating perspectives, cultures and politics of the citizens of one country to the citizens of another, 'providing' the opportunity for individuals to gain first-hand knowledge of the larger world".

Some different dimensions of political instability can be identified within international tourism; wars, civil wars, coups, terrorism, riots and political and social unrest and strikes. War tourism is commonly categorized as dark tourism (Kunwar, 2010). Peace is the primary condition for the success of tourism activities. Conflict and war zones do not fall into tourist destinations wish list. Diplomatic missions of respective countries usually put travel alerts and strongly discourage their citizens from visiting such disturbed nations and area. Studies show

that war tourists are only war journalists who report on war events and those countries that face conflicts sharply declined in tourists' arrival.

Tourism: War and Peace

War tourism is a concept of tourism in war-torn societies, which is commonly practiced in Vietnam, France, United Kingdom, Belgium, Sri Lanka and other countries. Countries like France, Belgium, United Kingdom and Vietnam are filled with cemeteries and memorials are visited by tourists to commemorate millions of lives during two world wars[3]. Mostly tourists aspire to spend their holidays in safe and peaceful places. Civil unrest and violence negatively impact on tourism destinations. However, there are some opinions that war positively affects tourism in the long-term (Weaver, 2000). Linking the war history with touristic activities in peace situation, Kugelmass (1996) argues that people aspiring to overcome through a painful and formative past, trekking in former war sites can be cathartic experiences, which involves fluctuating and performative engagements with memory.

A number of countries; Vietnam, Germany, Cambodia, South America and of late Sri Lanka are utilizing war reminiscences as a product of tourism in a post-conflict situation. Visiting sites associated with the Vietnam War has emerged as a vibrant part of Vietnam's tourist industry, and crowds of foreign tourists can be found at several sites that are dedicated to commemorating the war. War sites in Vietnam appeared as most attractive part of a tourism destination. To commemorate the war, crowds of foreign tourists can be found at several sites (Keyes, 2012).

Schwenkel (2004) clearly discussed on diversification of knowledge, memory, and meaning at former battlefields and other social spaces about American war in Vietnam. A prime strategy of economic growth in Vietnam is tourism, where war icons are recycled and reproduced in a transnational memory for the sake of prosperity and development. As an attraction sites examples; war icons have been recycled, reproduced, and consumed in Vietnam. The commoditization of sites, objects, and imaginaries associated with the war has contributed to economic activities and peace in distinct ways.

In third world countries, there is a positive relationship between tourism earnings and economic growth (Sequeria and Nunes, 2008). Nepal has also undergone and experienced ten-year conflict. The country being comprised of large portion mostly with hilly terrain and remote villages; tourism could be one of the most viable options for socio-economic growth and development. Over the past two decades, the number of scholarly works has increased significantly in the areas of conflict, peace and tourism sector. A clear trend on scholarly work on tourism was noticed during and after the conflict.

In conflict period, everyday news were reported on conflict issue, and its impact on tourism and different aspects of human life were widely covered by national and international media. As an impact of the conflicts; frequent shutdown, strikes, closure of schools, infrastructure vandalizing, and decrease in the number of tourist arrival also negatively hit in GDP of the country. In the aftermath of the conflict, academic contribution in the areas of tourism in relations with conflict, peace and economic development has been discussed and written extensively. Mostly, researches have been focused mostly on negative impacts of war on tourism.

Similarly, tourism statistics of Nepal shows that tourists' arrival in Nepal during ten years (1996-2006) conflicts either remained constant or declined. However, from the insurgents' side, tourism was not disturbed

any point of time in Nepal. There is a common assumption that tourism is only successful in peaceful conditions. The role of tourism in conflict prevention, conflict settlement or post-conflict peacebuilding through 'peace through tourism' has been discussed in various studies[4]. The human cost and destruction of infrastructure, escalation of violence and deteriorating security situation in the conflict resulted in the closure of industries under the Maoist threat, decrease in remittance from abroad and mass migration from the conflict areas to other safer parts of the country and beyond[5].

An ex-guerrilla commander and people's army chief[6] said that Maoist party never had a policy of attacking tourists even during the insurgency period, though he confessed donation were raised voluntarily to support people's war. There were few cases of tourists complains about donation raised by the rebels during their trekking in remote regions. But throughout the conflict period in Nepal no cases of direct tourist casualty were reported. Nevertheless they faced a hard time due to a political disturbance with irregular transport services due to frequent strikes called by the rebels. After Maoist laid down their arms in 2006, peace restored gradually in Nepal, and the statistics show tourism industry rebounded with increases in tourist arrival (which is shown in the table below).

Table- I Tourist Arrivals in Nepal

Year	Tourist Arrivals	Year	Tourist Arrivals
1995	363995	2006	383926
1996	393613	2007	526705
1997	421857	2008	500277
1998	463684	2009	509956
1999	491504	2010	602867
2000	463646	2011	736215
2001	361237	2012	803092
2002	275468	2013	797616
2003	338132	2014	790118
2004	385297	2015	538970
2005	375398		

Source: Department of Immigration (Nepal Tourism Statistics, 2015)

METHODOLOGY

This article is written based on the information obtained from both primary and secondary sources. Primary information were gathered from around selected 20 informants interviews[7] with tourism stakeholders from Nepal Tourism Board, trekking operators, political parties leaders from the guerrilla trail areas, among which some names are not disclosed in order to protect their identity One of the co-authors and his own experiences during re-exploration of guerrilla trail since 2011 and his subsequent trekking activities and visits with national and international researchers and media persons are also utilized in the report[8]. Secondary sources of information were collected from articles, travel writings and other published sources of information both available in print and online portals.

HISTORY OF GUERRILLA TRAIL

After the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement on 21st November 2006 between CPN (Maoist) and Seven Party Alliances, Maoists entered into mainstream politics. With subsequent exploration and

research over three years concerning tourism feasibility in a post-conflict area, "The Guerrilla Trail" was launched in 2012, as a new trekking destination in Nepal. One of the individuals, Prabesh Roka Magar[9], says "initially a group of people (including researcher, journalist, and authorities from NTB) visited Rolpa and Rukum district and shortly provided an itinerary for trekking in the region in 2009. Later year, the trail was revisited and re-explored by Surendra Rana; a tourism researcher along with Alonzo Lyons, a guidebook author, visited the region with the help of local guides and community. In between, few Maoist leaders frequently talked about the prospect of war tourism in Nepal. As a result of continuous exploration and field visits from 2009-2012 detail guide book and comprehensive trekking, Map was published[10].

The name of the trail was coined in Rujhikhola by the explorer team[11]. Former Prime Minister and Supreme Commander of the CPN (Maoist) Puspa Kamal Dahal inaugurated Guidebook and Map in October 2012 in a ceremony organized by Nepal Tourism Board. Speaking at the program, he said that trail as the living history of people war, rich cultures and natural beauties. His statement itself was enlarge the scope of war tourism in Nepal. He stated "Guerrilla Trek has the potential of becoming a war tourism product like in Vietnam, Russia, and China. As war tourism has been promoted worldwide for economic benefit, Nepal's Guerrilla Trek also holds the potential to grab the world's attention"[12]. Then, the product was internationally promoted as a new destination for trekkers and widely covered by national and international media[13].

Trekking in Nepal and Guerrilla Trail

Nepal is popular tourist destination mainly for trekking activities, peak climbing, adventure tourism, cultural destination, and rafting. There are more than two dozen of trekking destinations including world famous trekking destination like Annapurna Regions, Everest region, Kanchenjunga, Dhaulagiri, Makalu and several other areas ranging from a week to several weeks long. The great Himalayan trail is a network of different trekking trails though mid-hill and high Himalayas, probably the longest trekking trail starting from East to West Nepal that takes for over three-month duration (Rana, 2017).

Photograph 1 : A beautiful Magar Village in Rolpa district (en route of Guerilla Trail), Photo source : Surendra Rana

The Guerrilla Trail starts from Beni bazaar, an ancient town in the bank of Kali Gandaki River[14]. It takes 2-3 weeks trekking journey passing through several remote villages, peaceful people and their unspoiled, unique lifestyles and culture. It passes through Darbang, Dharapani, Muna, Lamium, Takam, then steep ascending walk of 3-4 hours through dense rhododendron forest of Moreni finally reaching Jaljala pass (3415m).Wide range of snow-clad Dhaulagiri ranges-Dhaulagiri (I, II, III, IV), Putha, Gurja, Dogari, Churen, Mt. Sisne etc. are witnessed close view from Jaljala. Then the flat land of Dhorpatan followed in the midst of juniper and pine forest, along with the bank of Uttarganga River. There are two major routes explored. The shorter route traverses the flatland, an easy trail westward along the Dhorpatan valley towards Chhentung, Nisheldhor, Taka, Lukum, Thabang, Jelbang and Sulichaur. The trail follows Uttar Ganga River as it reaches Rukum, later merged with Sano Bheri. There are villages of Upallo sera, Tallo sera and Taka in nearby distances. New road and jeep tracks are being opened to connect Dhorpatan via Sera. Until now the motorable road is already connected to Sera via Kyubang to Kankri that meets Mid hill highway. The trail diverge south with steep 3-4 hour climb to reach Tila pass (3100m) then descend to Lukum a beautiful village of Rukum (Lyons, 2012).

Map 1 : Route of Guerilla Trail, Source: " The Guerrilla Trek (aka, The Shangri-La Trek)" by Alonzo Lyons (2012) Kathmandu: Himalayan Map House

The trail passes through the high passes of (3000 m) followed by descending trail reaches the most important village of Thabang, Rolpa district. Situated at 1975m, Thabang is beautiful Magar village with a minority of Dalit settlement. Nearly 3 hours steep will reach Jaljala (3100m). Few hours downhill trek reaches Sulkabang then to Jelbang village. Alternatively, the trail from the temple at Jaljala can be hiked towards Dharmashala, then climb down to Okhreni pass, Majiang, and Jelbang village. There is an option of ascending 6-7 hours till Sulichaur, a popular town of north-eastern

Rolpa. The small town has shops, hotels, and restaurants. Also, Jeep service of 3-4 is available from Jelbang to Sulichaur (Rana, 2017).

While the longer route takes north towards Phalgune dhuri (4000m) then passes through upper remote part of Rukum including Thankur, Jharlung, Pelma, Maikot, Hukam , Archalgaon, Chargaon , Sisne, Chhipkhola , Melgairi, Syarpu lake to Musikot. These villages are mostly inhabited by Magar communities, with Dalit and Chhetri as minorities. The other part of Chargaon, Pokhara and Syarpu has mostly Chettri and Brahman communities' settlement.

People, Culture, Landscape, and History

This section of the trail has tourism components like people, culture, and history, which are the major attraction for trekkers. Guerrilla trail passes through different villages that are largely inhabited by ethnic Magar communities. Although other communities like Chhetri, Brahman, Thakali, and Dalit are found living in Myagdi , Baglung and lower part of Rolpa and Rukum districts. Mostly northeast Rukum and Rolpa are home to ethnic magar communities with a minority of Dalit. These communities live in the closely-knit settlement. They have rich cultural and traditions lifestyles. Villages like Maikot, Hukam, Taka, Sera, Kankri, Mahatgaon, Lukum, Thabang, Jelbang are villages which are densely populated by Magar communities.

The overall region of the trail itself has the great significance of people's war history. Some of the places are specifically described as follows. Lukum is densely Magar populated an ancient village with around 250 households. The place is famous for Bhume dance and Jhankri (Shamanism). Basic local lodges and homestays are available for lodging and food.

Bhume is the biggest festival of the region which falls (mid-June) just before monsoon season begins. During the festival, people gather to meet friends and family from far and wide. It is celebrated by performing special rituals by offering sacrifices to god praying for better agricultural yield and good health and protect from natural calamities. Men, women, and children continue dancing, singing and merrymaking for a week-long. Other common festivals like Dashain, Tihar, Maghe shakrati are also celebrated in the region. Popular dances of the region include Tappa, Dhange, Mayur, Singaru , Nacharu, etc.

Dhorpatan[15] is the only hunting reserve of the nation where hunting activities is permitted by government of Nepal. The reserve is rich in biodiversity including plants like fir, pine, birch, rhododendron, hemlock, oak, juniper and spruce. Wild animals including blue sheep, pheasant, partridge, snow leopard ghoral, sparrow, Himalayan Thar, Himalayan Black bear, barking deer, wild boar which are abundantly found in the region. Endangered animals like musk Deer, Wolf, Red Panda, Cheer Pheasant and Daphne are frequently spotted in the trail[16]. Syarpu is beautiful lake situated at 1300 m height in Rukum district. There are villages alongside the lake. It is now popular as boating and fishing for domestic tourists. There is a homestay facility near Syarpu lake. Few distance east of the lake, Bafikot village lies which was first local autonomous government formed by Maoist during the conflict. Jaljala the hilltop of Rolpa is consider as a symbol of religious importance where hundreds of devotees from nearby districts visit to offer sacrifices every year. At the hilltop there are temples, streams and caves. Snow-clad mountains are observed in the north when the weather is clear. The hilltop is endowed with rich flora and fauna. An hour hike towards Dharmashala (3400m) is situated Martyr's

monument constructed as war memorial. Khara massacre is unforgettable incident occurred in 2000. Bir Bhan Oli local resident remembered, 66 local houses were burnt down by police and 15 people died in the incident. Later in 2002 fierce battle took place between government forces and guerrillas two times. Thabang had a long 60 years of history rising against the Kathmandu rulers and was also birth place of Maoist movement in early 1990[17]. It is known as rebel village due to several elections in the past were boycotted[18]. The place was a strategic location for meeting and planning center place of Maoist during the war. The village has homestays, clinic, schools and police post.

Photograph 2: A guerilla walking in route of guerrilla trail, photo source: Surendra Rana

Jelbang, a Magar village is also known as Martyr village. Former VDC suffered heavily during the conflict resulting loss of 72 people's life, the highest numbers in the country reported during the conflict. Home stay is available for accommodation and food. There is two communes at Jaljala commune at Ranchibang and Chhipkhola ,

Rukum. Collective lifestyles were practiced in a commune during the conflict. Now a homestay is provided in the commune for the travelers. Several other places which has both historical and cultural importance are Chunbang, Mahatgaon, Gam, Ghartigaon, Mirul, Rangsi and others areas of Rolpa and Rukum can be visited and included as customize packages.

Accessibility

Regarding accessibility of route, there is direct bus service from Kathmandu to Beni via Pokhara. There are regular services from Kathmandu to Pokhara and road transport from Pokhara to Beni. Direct bus services are available to Sulichaur to Kathmandu via Pyuthan. Flight service from Nepalgunj is also available to Kathmandu. While taking the upper route to Muskikot town, regular buses and mini-buses are available to Kathmandu and onwards. There is also irregular flight service to Kathmandu from Musikot. There are direct Jeep and Bus service available to Libang and Dang via Ghartigaon.

Opportunities

Nepal Tourism Policy 2009 realizes tourism sector as an important vehicle for social and economic development. The newly appointed tourism minister[19] in his 100 days action plan prioritized development of guerilla trail (Prasain, 2018). Guerrilla trek as a product offers adventurous trekking package and new experiment of learning

Photograph: 3, Trekkers visiting guerrilla trail, photo Source: Prakash Roka Magar

culture and history for trekkers from Nepal and overseas. Despite being a newly explored trail, it has basic aspects of tourism elements like attractions; natural beauty, culture, lifestyles, history, accessibility: transportation,accommodation: local homestay, lodges, and hospitality. Alongside natural environment, scenic beauty, cultural components as well as the history of a decade-long Maoist insurgency are the additional attraction of trail.

For the researchers and academic crowd, the trail is expected as a great learning platform, which not only offer scenic beauty and cultural diversity, testimonies of people those who were the real force behind the movement, survivors, observers and victims of a decade-long conflict help to get the authentic knowledge of war and peace in post-Maoist heartland. Highlighting the strength and beauty of trail, Lyons (2012) says, "plenty of sunshine for the remoteness of Rukum and Rolpa that was quelled into a seething pot of war once upon a time." He further opined that communities, passing by the route, i.e. Khara, Khawla, Jhimkhani, Jibang, Khabang, Bafikot, Kunakhet, Pipal, Rukumkot, Maring, Kakri and Taksara stand witnesses to the war and retain the scars of a decade of fighting[20]. In a similar tone, Sudhan Subedi[21] expressed the trail as an open museum and great opportunity for

Photograph: 4, Trekkers visiting guerrilla trail, photo Source: Prakash Roka Magar

tourism activities. He said that as a product of war guerrilla trail is clear message to the world about the history of war and restoration of peace in Nepal. Further, he sees the possibility of local economic activities through tourism in post-war region. The trail as tourism product is considered as an effective tool to boost the economy of local community people and Nepal government is committed and prioritized to uplift the lifestyle of poor, marginalized and disadvantaged group of people. Also, this trail has historical importance for future generation, to learn and understand Maoist conflict in Nepal.

Symbolically, monuments and memorial parks in the name of martyrs established in few places like Khara, Rukumkot, Kakri and ownership and preservation of meeting and shelter place of Chunbang. Storytelling- in every places along the trail, people can share the stories of conflict, and their experiences provide the unique learning platform to the people. The trail provides unique opportunity to meet and share how the community people are coping the post-conflict situation and promoting the peace and maintain social cohesion and harmony among each other. This is rarely unique example for other war-torn societies throughout the world.

Perceptions towards Guerrilla Trail

The trail was widely covered by media, scholarly articles are rarely written. The author, "The Guerrilla trek", Lyons (2012) opined that trail as *"an area of immense peace, beauty and hospitality that is open, ready and willing to host tourists."* He further writes trekking through this area will provide the tourism wealth to lower income people in war-torn areas in secluded, majestic and overlooked regions. Similarly, Sue Watt, a travel writer from telegraph, UK had trekked the trail in May 2013 for two weeks with her husband and remarked the real beauty of the trail as "for

all its beauty, it's those people, their spirit and their rare blend of strength and gentleness, who made the guerrilla trail so special" (Watt, 2013)."Nepalese Guerrilla trail takes tourists through scenes of civil war cited the quote of former Prime Minister Prachanda and Supreme Commander of CPN-Maoist "memorials are built in any country after major revolutions and guerrilla trail is a memorial of war we have fought"[22](Guardian, 2012). Surendra Rana envisioned that the trek as beneficial for marginalized communities from which most of the guerrillas were recruited at the initial stage of war. He said that, "People in the area might have felt isolated from the state and as a result they took part in the civil war. Trekkers and trekking can help them engage with the global community (Guardian, 2012)." Most travellers who visited the area expressed their unique experiences they got while travelling through the land. Ches Thurber[23], an academician, expressed that the heartland of Maoist conflict is extremely beautiful with people's war history and diversity of agricultural land of wheat, maize, rice, potatoes, mountain views and amazing people.

Advantages of the trail for local community

One of the possible advantages of the guerrilla trail is the creation of job to the local community in the post-conflict region. Tourism creates local employment like tour guides, hotel and restaurant workforce, transport services, and homestay owners. Tourism activities become a supporting medium to local homestay, lodges, and sales of vegetables, souvenirs, and local handicrafts products. Similarly, additional revenue that comes into a community eventually benefits the local council or governments. The income generated and taxes allow development of public projects. Local infrastructure like lodges, hotel, new roads being built, parks developed, and

sanitation and public spaces improved due to the tourists' movement. Better transport, accommodation, communication, and facilities bring in more visitors bringing money to residents will help to support the socio-economic development. Without good infrastructure, the flow of goods and services is impossible. In addition to revenue, tourism also brings cultural reward. It can be a source of pride for local communities by allowing them to study and look their history and cultural heritage and develop their own community identity. This helps the residents to maintain their traditions and culture. It revives dance, culture, and tradition conserving many local heritage sites from destruction, providing tourists a wonderful insight into the local lifestyles and customs. Hence, tourism helps to preserve history and culture of the region that are at risk of being vanished.

Ganesh Man Pun[24], opined that Guerrilla trail itself is a history of the Maoist war in Nepal, which not only helpful to preserve the Maoist reminiscences but also equally instrumental for educating future generation on political change and war history in Nepal. Further, the trail is considered as a noble tourism product that may attract war and peace researcher, history and political science scholar and students, and special interest tourists which will be helpful to uplift people life in the post-conflict region. Further, it is believed guerrilla trail can also be a special interest for both former guerrilla and communities, who were involved, participated and affected most in the conflict. As a local witness, Ramsur Budha Magar[25], said that trail is beneficial for both trekkers and local communities, where local people can narrate the war history, share their experiences of past days and host tourist which can directly benefit the local communities. Likewise, Rujhidhan Ghartimagar, a teacher and social worker of Lukum resident, says the 6-7 group of tourist trekked through the region. Due to

lack of proper trail information, trekkers are often heard of missing the route. According to one of the local school teacher, there is also lack of tourism awareness among the local communities. Also, the concern authorities from Nepal government are not aware of the new tourism product.

Challenges

Guerrilla trail is considered distinctive tourism product in comparison with other destinations available in Nepal. Linking with the history of war, i.e. footsteps of guerrilla and with other attractions like people, culture, mountains, etc. the product was highly publicized by national and international media. After a decade of conflict ending in Nepal, the area remains as war hangover; some people feel as insecure and geographically isolated region cautioning visitor to travel in the area. In general, mostly tourist visits the places, where violence is absence or peace and security of tourists prevails.

Also, the guerrilla trail should be owned by stakeholders and be an easy word in everyday people conversation among local communities, tour operators and authorities. Lack of tourism awareness, trained trekking guides to explain the war history, people cultures and war incidents itself is the great challenges. Also, a comprehensive approach for trail development is required. So far, government and local efforts are undertaken some tourism development.

According to sources, there are plan to build war memorial and museum. Although war memorial statues, park, information boards on war events are constructed in few places and trail marking are made, more work need to be done. A master plan and systematic approach is required, and as of now, the community has not fully perceived ownership nor did stakeholders take serious initiative for its development[26].

Despite wider publicity in the country and worldwide, a clear data management system has yet to be establish and only a few groups of trekkers are found regularly visiting the trek yearly for research and holiday[27]. Similarly, Mahabir Pun[28], a social entrepreneur, in his interview with Nagarik National Daily[29], says as skepticism exists among people about the conflict, but it can be promoted as a fresh and virgin trail. To meet basic tourist standard, tourism experts from NTB and travel entrepreneurs suggested for the improvement of home-stay facilities and in addition training on food and beverages, sanitation and hospitality are essential to provide to the local communities.

CONCLUSION

Guerrilla trail as tourism product is considered as a fresh perspective on engaging communities in tourism activities, thereby addressing the causes of conflict and help in maintaining peace, harmony, and coexistence among people. The concept of war tourism is described as "thanotology. According to Dr. Phillip Stone[30] "*dark tourism can enlighten an understanding of how contemporary societies deal with and represent their significant dead*", which is a great way of understanding life and living of people in post-war region, which may directly contradict with the notion of common understanding of tourism. However, the authors of this article believes that the concept of war tourism in Nepal is a debatable and vague subject which needs further researches and in no way intend to promote wars. But war reminiscences of Maoist conflict shelters taken by guerrillas, museums, training spots, monuments, bunkers, meeting halls and important sites can be an element of tourists' attractions. These sites are likely to be disappeared in future, and highly required to preserve and protect for future generation. These historical sites are not only tourists' attractions but a past history to learn and a true message to mankind how human civilization suffers from wars.

The war heritage and peace product of tourism, include within itself the cultural diversities of various ethnic, indigenous, and social groups inhabiting different altitudes, and it manifests in various forms: music and dance; art and craft; folklores and folktales; languages and literature; philosophy and religion; festivals and celebrations; and foods and drinks, which also can be an attraction of tourism product. Regarding the prospect of the trail, the systematic analysis suggests that guerilla trail has more opportunities rather than challenges associated with it.

Therefore, with wide range of economic development strategies, for the people from conflict heartland, promotion and preservation of guerrilla trail is one of the available options for communities in war-torn region, which is considered as an alternative way to engage local people and communities with outside world to initiate local business start-up, employment generation and income generation. Despite a widely publicized and promoted tourism product, guerilla trail has not been receiving a number of tourists as expected. Adequate infrastructures and clear ownership by local communities is also a concern.

The discussion also indicates that continuous efforts of trail promotion and infrastructures developments from tourism stakeholders and ownership of local communities are preconditions for its sustainability and develop guerrilla as one of the viable tourism product of the country. Although the government of Nepal and other tourism stakeholders acknowledged its importance, there is uncertainty about its future sustainability. Moreover, guerilla trail is perceived as quite challenging since Maoist party came into peaceful politics, CPN (Maoist) Party split into various groups, and now the mainstream group is in the merging process with CPN-UML. This has led uncertainty and raised a question about the future of guerilla trek among the community people. As concluding, the government of Nepal and tourism stakeholders should ensure their dedicated effort to establish this trail as the memory of war and peace. If the product is developed and promoted in systematic planning, it will help to attract number of tourists from domestic and foreign countries including its closest neighbors; India and China. Most importantly, the tourists visiting the area will also help in engaging the local communities in tourism activities and help to build a friendly relationship with outside world. By and large, it will further facilitate in building better understanding, sustainability of peace and enhancing the local economy.

END NOTES

1. Withdrawals of international flight connections by foreign airlines were factors in the decrease in tourist arrivals.

2. www.unwto.org

3. warhistoryonline.com/instant-articles/10-biggest-allied-war-cemeteries-europe.htm

4. Alluri, 2009; Leong, 2008; Richter 1997, 1999; Richter and Waugh 1986; Satani, 2004; Strong-Cvetich, 2007

5. Haribansa Jha's article on Economic Cost of Maoist conflict explains that the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of the country declined from 4.8 percent to 2.8 percent in between 2001 and 2005 and the country witnessed significant lost in private-sector investment from 15.4% in 1996 to 12.6 % in 2004. The government expenditure in the same period declined from 9 percent to 6 percent. The expenditure of the state on security sector almost doubled from 1.6 percent of GDP to 3 percent in between 2001 and 2004.

6. Currently serving as second tenure of vice president of Nepal

7. Interview with Mr. Ganesh Man Pun,

Mr. Ramsur Budha Magar, Mr. Prabesh Roka Magar, Mr.Jagat Gharti Magar

8. Surendra Rana, one of the co-authors of this article engaged extensively in the regions during exploration and promotion of trail for over 5 years since 2011.

9. Prabesh Rokamagar, former cadre and social worker from Thabang, Rolpa Mr. Jitendra Bhattarai and Sudhan Joshi from Nepal Tourism Board, Raj Kumar Thapa, managing director at A1 Himalayan excursion.

10. The trail exploration process was carried out in various phases and a wide number of organizations and stakeholders involved in the process. Some of the leading organizations contributed are;; Nepal Tourism Board, District Development Committee, Rukum, Trekking Agencies Association of Nepal along with Changing Nepal, Sisne Martyr Foundation, Dynamic Youth Society Rukum and local and national leaders of the CPN (Maoist).

11. According to Jitendra Bhattarai, the name of Guerrilla trek was coined by an explorer team.

12. www.bbc.com/news/world-asia-19815779

13. Kathmandu Post, Republica, Himalayan Times, Kantipur, Gorkhapatra, AFP, BBC,CNN, The Guardian and others newspapers

14. It is a gateway to Muktinath , Upper Mustang, Jomsom, Dhaulagiri trekking destination. The town was attacked by thousands of Maoist guerrilla in March 2004. As per source, the battle of Beni is considered as one of the biggest battle during the decade long conflict.(Kathmandupost, Khadka, Ghanashyam, 2015, Beni remembers devastated attack)

15. Dhorpatan is a pasture land covering an area of 1,325 km2 that lies in district of Rukum, Rolpa and Baglung district at an altitude ranging from 2,850m to 5,500m.

16. Information collected from Dhorpatan hunting reserve office and Guerrilla trek guidebook

17. Nepali Times, March 28, 2016

18. 1958, 1990, 1991, 1994, 1956, 2013 A.D.

19. Rabindra Adhikari, Minister of Culture, Tourism and Civil Aviation, Nepal

20. http://kathmandupost.ekantipur.com/ printedition/news/2012-10-02/guerrilla-trek-set-to-promote-war-tourism.html

21. Nepal Tourism Board Official and academician

22. Ishwar Rauniyar. The Guardian (www.theguardian.com/world/2012/oct/0 5/Nepalese-guerilla-trail-civil-war) on 5th October, 2012.

23. A PhD scholar from Fletcher School at Tuft University, USA, who visited Nepal (including Rolpa and Rukum)during his research on Mao and Gandhi : Strategies of Violence and Nonviolence in Revolutionary Movements, a PHD thesis work in 2014

24. Past guerrilla commander, and former CA member and one of the Maoist leaders

25. Bhume Rural Municipality chief, east Rukum district and former guerrilla commander and commissioner at Maoist Army Combatants

26. Limited budget is allocated by government of Nepal through Tourism Board and Member of Parliament electoral constituency area development fund for trail development and infrastructure.

27. Proper data keeping system is missing; the information is gathered based on the formal conversation with tourism operators and local communities.

28. Magsaysay award winner of 2007

29. Nagarik National Daily held on June 29, 2013

30. thesun.co.uk: what is dark tourism? Travelers visiting war zones and disasters areas

REFERENCES

Bhadgaunle, Amrit (2013). Jaljalama Ashako Kiran. *Nagarik Daily Edition,* 17th August, Kathmandu

Bhattarai, Jitendra (2011). Guerilla Trek on Nepal's Maoist Trails. *Republica National Daily*, 14 January, Kathmandu

D'Amroe, Louis (1998). Tourism The World Peace Industry. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol- 27 (summer), PP 35-40. Department of Comparative Sociology

Kennedy, John F. (1963). *The Saturday Review*, January 5, United States

Keyes, Mark (2012). *War Tourism: Shaping Memory and Perception in Post-War Vietnam. Summer Research, Paper 164.*

Kugelmass, Jack (1996). Missions to the Past: Poland in Contemporary Jewish Thought and Deed. In *Tense Past: Cultural Essays in Trauma and Memory,* Paul Antze and Michael Lambek, (eds.) PP. 199-214. New York: Rutledge.

Kunwar, Ramesh Raj (2010). *Tourist and Tourism*: Science and Industry Interface. Kathmandu: Modern Printing Press

Litvin, Stephen W. (1998). Tourism: The World Peace Industry? *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol 37 (1), 63-66

Lyons, Alonzo (2012). *The Guerrilla Trek* (aka, the Shangri-La Trek). Kathmandu: Himalayan Map House

Prasain, Sangam (2018). Tour-Min Issues 100-day plan to revitalize tourism. *The Kathmandu Post* (30 March).

Rana, Surendra (2017). Guerrilla Trail: Trekking in the Post Conflict Region, *Yatra (in-flight Magazine)* (May Issue). Kathmandu: Buddha Air

Schwenkel, Christina (2004). *Iconographies of War: The Transnational Politics of Memory and Visuality in Contemporary Vietnam*. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Department of Anthropology, Tribhuwan University

Sequeira, Tiago Neves, and Paulo Maças Nunes.,(2008). Does Tourism Influence Economic Growth? A dynamic panel data approach." Applied Economics. Vol. 40, pp. 243-141.

Thapa, Dipak and Sijapati, Bandita (2003). *A Kingdom Under Seize*. Zed Books: London

Watt, Sue (2013). Trekking in Nepal: Guerillas in our Midst. Telegraph (29 May, 2013).

BRIEF PROFILE OF THE AUTHORS

Surendra Rana is a graduate in tourism studies, and working in tourism field for the last five years. He has extensively involved in exploration and promotion of new trekking trails and tourism destinations in Nepal. He was an important team member in exploring and researching some trails; Guerrilla trek, Dhaulagiri Sanctuary trek and Mundum Trek. He has been cited by travel authors, national and international newspapers.

Chiranjibi Bhandari is an assistant professor at Department of Conflict, Peace, and Development Studies, Tribhuwan University. Prior to this, he served as a training coordinator of the Combatants to Peacemakers program supported by USAID Nepal. Chiranjibi also contributed at Secretariat of Special Committee for Supervision, Integration and Rehabilitation of Maoist Army Combatants from 2011 to 2013. Mr. Bhandari was a fellow at the Asia Pacific Center for Security Studies, USA, from where he completed a Comprehensive Crisis Management Course in 2013, and attended Humanitarian Response and the Post Conflict Reconstruction Course at Brown University in 2015. In 2016, he participated in the Civil Resistance and Non-violent Conflict program in the Fletcher Summer Institute of Tufts University. He was awarded research fellowships from International Alert (2011),Center for Nepal and South Asia, and Hiroshima Partnership for Peace building and Conflict Transformation from Hiroshima University Japan (2012). He was also a fellow with the Alliance for Social Dialogue Policy Research (2012).
Email id: cbhandari1986@gmail.com

Website Based Satisfaction In Tourism And Hospitality Sector: An Importance-performance Analysis In National Capital Region (NCR) Of India

LAKHVINDER SINGH

Department of Tourism Management, Pt. C.L.S. Govt. P.G. College, Karnal

DINESH DHANKHAR

Department of Tourism & Hotel Management, Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra

Abstract

Information and Communication Technology has been extensively used by modern day tourism and hotel companies in order to achieve success in their business through maximizing customer satisfaction index. It is essential to provide tourism services at a faster speed on low cost without any discrepancy as tourist in contemporary world become rational. Therefore, the present study extended to study the satisfaction of tourists towards websites of selected tourism and hospitality firms in national capital region of India. The study was largely based on primary data collected from 374 respondents through self-structured questionnaire by adopting simple random sampling technique. The collected data was analysed by using suitable statistical tools. The finding of the study indicated variation in customer satisfaction towards different dimensions of the websites. The finding of the study suggested suitable measures to increase the customer experience with websites of tourism and hospitality firms in order to bring maximum tourists to the study area along with satisfactory experience.

INTRODUCTION

Information & Communication Technology denotes application of computer software, hardware and telecommunication devices to manipulate, store, protect, convert send and receive the information (Olifer & Olifer, 2006). It has brought large usage among tourism and hospitality enterprises in past few years because numbers of travellers now map their itineraries over the internet including their 'stay bookings', 'travel insurance', 'tickets' (air, rail & road transportation), travel guide and other linked services. It has increased the contributions made by web portals in tourism and hospitality sector in India through information & communication technology (ICT) based systems to offer better and advanced services (Grandson & Pearson, 2004; Barnes & Hinton, 2007). This paradigm shift resulted in extended use of online booking portals over offline booing mode.

Table I: Recent Travel Trends

Product	On line booking (%)	Off line booking (%)
Hotel Accommodation	67	33
Domestic Flight	63	37
Travel Guide	53	47
Holiday Packages	53	47
Rail Ticket	27	73
Mice	27	73
Domestic Bus	50	50
Rental Taxi/ Cab	40	60

(Source: e-Travel Marketing India-2015, Octane Research)

Website and online portals contributed towards the establishment of a 'one stop shop' for all the journey requirements of a tourist. The contributions made by major e-hospitality portals as cited at E-Travel Marketing India indicated high usage of web portals for online booking as compared to offline booking methods. This technology has simplified for the firms to collect, manipulate, share and data storage at error free, exact and faster rate (Ansah, Kontoh & Balnkson, 2012). Moreover sharing of travel experiences on these portals also create word of mouth marketing along with increased tourist traffic in competitive tourism market.

Therefore, in order to survive and grow in the industry, firms require focusing on the improving customer satisfaction and retention through information & communication technology (ICT) usage. Researchers comprehend that tourism business through websites not only empowers travellers to purchase or look for their 'made to order' tourism services, but also assist suppliers in administration, budding and dispensing their products within short span of time and throughout the globe by availing the efficient tools (Buhalis & Law, 2008).Number of hotels and tourist firms have already developed their websites and portals to provide information to the customers in order to promote their products and services globally in a time effective and cost reducing manner (Gratzer & Winiwarter, 2003). This emerging trend forced tourism and hospitality firms to provide accurate and suitable information content on their websites as tourist consider these website and online portals as important factors for selection of firms to book travel products & services.

The quality assessment of information availability on the tourism and hospitality firms' websites, presence of specific dimensions, grouping of the information are considered as important part of web contents (Chung & Law, 2003; Vrana & Zafiropolous, 2004). The display of contact details such as mobile number, e-mail, etc., forms the important website dimension for customer satisfaction. However, Davidson and Burgess (2006) explained that various hurdles in using websites and portals for service quality improvements were lack of knowledge, lack of time, cost and difficulty in finding of professional advisors, lack of formal planning and lack of understanding the benefits of service quality, as businesses were not alert about measurement metrics on impact on profitability of their business. Thus, the measurement of website has become growing issues in tourism and hospitality research as it the first step towards developing and delivering an attractive online presence, which is likely to have the maximum impact on Web users. Consumers' web experience also depends upon the quality of the website (Zeithaml, Parasuraman & Malhotra, 2002; Zeithaml, 2002). In this study, website of tourism and hospitality firms has been visualised as a broader term for customer experience.

Therefore, putting forward the rationale for this study, the assessment of various dimensions of website is needed for transformation of the organization that resulted in service quality improvement and customer satisfaction. Thus the present study aimed to find out the satisfaction of the tourists towards websites of tourism and hospitality firms in national capital region of India.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In the field of online business, a website stays open all the time and can be accessed by potential customers at their leisure time. It welcomes customers from all over the world without physical and geographical barriers on faster speed and cheaper cost. Hence, the implementation of online booking in tourism and hospitably industry

through websites is essential to enhance customer relationship management (Law & Leung, 2000).

Starkov (2002) was among the few early researchers who promulgated using website as means communication with the customers. Since, internet usage has been growing rapidly, it is vital to identify how potential customers perceive firms' websites, because such information may give an indication of how a hotel's profitability can be improved. Yelkur and DaCosta (2001) argued that hotel website effectively enhance awareness, visibility, creating a clear image and platform in promoting and positioning hotel products to the customers. Heung (2003) observed and stated that an effective website of a hospitality firms results in increase of number of reservations, customer loyalty and a good return on investment (ROI), thus providing maximum customer satisfaction.

Ip, Leung and Law (2010)'s study concerned website dimension of inviting customers to register and identify their interests from which hotel managers can create personalized services and products and increase customer satisfaction. Such personalization dimension increases the customers' emotional involvement often enlightening their opinions about it as well as the service provider. Baloglu and Pekcan (2006) claimed that to use the internet to its fullest potential, hotel companies should continuously redesign their websites for ease and convenience and upgrade their web technology to make them more personalized for customers.

Legoherel, Fischer-Lokou and Gueguen. (2002) added another dimension to website presence by ruling that the design, content, and management of website should also be taken into consideration for successful e-marketing. Liu, Arnett and Litecky (2000) identified some key design factors such as information quality, service quality, playfulness, system design quality, and system use. Performance attributes such as the usability of language, layout & graphics, information architecture, user interface and navigation were cited by Yeung and Law (2004) as important dimension for satisfaction of customer. Putting up street maps on the websites has been another consideration. The potential guests would like to have pictures of the hotel facilities, rooms and other features such as location etc. Basic access and contact about information, such as address, telephone number, e-mail, local transportation or the nearest train/airport station should also be mentioned on the website. A multilingual site would be necessary for international visitors.

Travellers expect websites to be interactive and secure. They are looking for reduced waiting time during browsing, which implies good page loading speed and navigation efficiency. The traveller appreciates finding value added services on the website such as direct and contextualized access to other websites (i.e. Google maps) that are enabled through the mash-up technology (Payne, 2005). Jeong, Oh and Gregoire (2003) examined customer perception of hotel websites and concluded that colour combinations, ease of use, navigation, quality, information completeness, accuracy, and currency were crucial factors influencing the customers purchase decision.

Consumers' viewpoint about dimension of hotel websites from e-marketing purposes has been studies by Dholakia (2000). Author suggested that first of all the reservation transaction should be easy accessible and clearly displayed. Information regarding room rates, availability, and policy should be presented on the website. Potential customers should be enabled to make online reservations easily and must be educated about cancellation policies of the hotel. Law and

Bai (2008) considered functionality is connected with the supply of efficient and sufficient information about the services and products, such as reservation information, customer information or surrounding area information.

Modern hospitality consumers also want payment functions and reservations on the website, preferring to complete all of their business with the company on the website from information search to buying. Travellers or customers expect websites to be informative, interactive, and attractive (Chu, 2001). Rong, Li and Law (2009) identified the different attributes of information importance in the hotel website as hotel facilities information, reservation information and contact information. Jahng, Jain and Ramamurthy (2000) asserted over five major categories of website design like, page loading speed, business content, navigation efficiency, security, and marketing/customer focus.

As with the developments in the field of e-marketing, tourism and hospitality firms are now abundantly conscious of the benefits that Internet offers for the promotion of their business through website. Websites not only create relationships with customers, rather they help in creating a company brand, help in customer retention and encourage in repeat visits of the existing customer. So, in order to remain competitive, the tourism and hospitality firms endeavouring to attach "value" to their offers on websites. Lu and Zhang (2002) also suggested to regularly monitor the website dimension for improving customer satisfaction. The presentation and satisfaction with the website information is a major determinant of e-customers' intention to purchase online (Jeong, Oh & Gregoire, 2003). Therefore, the present study concentrated on measurement of customer satisfaction through analysis of tourism and hospitality firms' website.

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The objective of the study is to study the effectiveness of website towards tourists' satisfaction in selected tourism and hospitality firms in national capital region.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The present study was confined to National Capital Region (NCR) India which covers Delhi, Faridabad, Gurgaon and Noida area. The choice of NCR was attributable to concentration/richness of the area in terms of number of tourism and hospitality firms, nearness to IGI (Indira Gandhi International Airport), development of the area as a tourism and hospitality business hub.

The present study approached to different tourism and hospitality firms including travel agencies, tour operators, hotels, guide & escort agencies providers and local carriers. The list of hotels and travel and tourism firms was taken from the official website of ministry of tourism, India to contact their customers to record the experience of the tourists with their websites.

To examine the objective of present research, the data was collected through self-structured questionnaire. The structured questionnaire was designed and validated for the customers using the e-marketing tools. The period of data collection started in September 2016 to August 2017. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for quantitative analysis regarding experience of consumers/travellers/ tourists regarding experience with website of tourism and hospitality firms. Customers were selected either from the database of the selected tourism and hotels and had consented with them to be available for any research study through e-mail, or had been staying in the property at the time of conduct of this study. From the 540 questionnaires that were circulated, 374 were usable/returned, with a total response rate of 74.8%.

The questionnaire is divided into two parts. The first part of the questionnaire concerned the background information of each respondent. In the second phase of questionnaire, questions regarding the importance of websites dimensions were enquired about selected firms on five point scale from most important (5) to not at all important (1). In continuation to this, respondents were also asked about the actual performance of the important websites dimensions on five point scale from very good (5) to very bad (1).

The study adopted importance-performance analysis to find the out the gap between importance of website dimension and their actual performance of the website dimension of selected firms.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESEARCH FINDINGS

Profile of Consumer Respondents

Out of 374 respondents, 185 were women, which is 49.47 percent and 189 were men, which is 50.53 percent. The percentage of male and female respondents was almost equal (approximately 50%). Respondents in the age group of less than 20 and above 60 were almost equal to 11 percent meaning they were less represented. All age groups make quite a good representation in each age group. The groups being so much represented indicates that they are the ones

familiar with the internet in their daily routine life, as majority of them started to use it. As regards the occupations, most of the respondents were employed. Students were also included. Twenty five percent retired persons were also part of the sample. Data signifies that a lot many travellers these days, whether, young or old, student or self-employed or retired, resorted to using internet in their choice of destination selection, hotel selection. The country of the respondents was also checked-in. The respondents specified over country of residence and nationality in the questionnaire. In total, the respondents belonged to 11 different nationalities. Although 61.76% of the respondents were from India, rest of the respondents were from foreign countries including developed and developing countries.

Tourism Website Evaluation

The content analysis assessment of the usefulness of the information on tourism websites and other hospitality firms has been compared and presented in the study. Author at very first stage was apprehensive about the differences in information content of a hotel and tourist organization, hence it was thought appropriate that it is better to compare the website attributes of the two and hence assess the importance of website content along various dimensions. The

Table II: Importance and Performance Scores of Websites by Item

Website Dimensions	Hotels website Analysis		Tourism website Analysis	
	Importance	Performance	Importance	Performance
Information Dimension				
Information of accommodation	4.60	2.69	4.47	2.60
Information of attraction	4.73	2.19	4.43	3.49
Calendar of events	4.12	2.52	4.44	2.20
Information of entertainment	4.59	2.15	4.26	2.35
Directions and Maps	4.40	2.49	4.15	2.49
Information of Restaurant	4.23	2.60	3.87	3.20
Travel and Tour packages	3.83	3.49	3.53	2.11
Information of Transportation	4.33	2.35	3.63	1.69
Information on shopping	3.69	2.20	3.93	3.20
Travel instructions	3.08	2.35	2.90	1.69
Information of local weather	3.70	1.85	2.73	3.36

Facilities Dimension				
Features Photos	4.12	3.49	4.08	3.20
Previous guest history	4.59	2.20	3.93	2.11
Ambience	4.40	2.35	3.14	2.35
Room Facilities Available	4.23	2.27	3.46	1.69
Location Maps	4.12	1.62	2.90	1.85
Restaurant pictures	3.62	2.20	3.44	3.66
Frequent Guest Programs	3.08	2.11	4.08	2.27
Meeting Facilities Available	3.11	2.35	3.93	1.62
Employment Openings	3.70	1.69	3.14	2.20
Reservation Dimension				
Room Rates	3.62	2.11	3.93	2.49
Check rates & availability	3.08	2.35	3.14	2.60
Online/Real-time Reservation	3.11	1.69	3.46	3.49
Reservation Policies	3.70	1.85	2.90	2.20
View or Cancel Reservation	3.70	3.66	3.44	2.35
Secure Payment System	3.74	2.35	2.13	1.62
Check-in/Check-out Time	3.62	1.69	3.93	2.20
Special Request Forms	3.08	1.85	3.14	3.20
Payment Options	3.11	3.66	3.46	2.49
Contact Dimension				
E-mail Address	3.08	2.11	2.73	2.60
Telephone Number	3.11	2.35	2.13	3.49
Postal Address	3.69	1.69	3.93	2.20
Fax Number	3.74	1.85	3.14	2.35
Online Forum	3.62	3.66	2.73	2.49
Feedback Form	3.08	3.20	2.13	3.20
Contact Person	3.70	2.35	3.14	2.35
Communication Dimension	4.06	3.66	3.08	2.11
Contact information (phone, email, mailing address, etc.)	4.64	2.27	4.30	4.56
Capabilities of brochure request	4.06	2.52	4.29	4.66
Destination image message (slogan, logo, etc.)	4.12	2.27	3.67	4.69
Versions of Multiple Languages	3.78	3.85	2.70	3.89
Email bulletin	2.47	2.85	3.62	2.27
Surveys	2.88	3.53	1.44	4.69
FAQ (Frequently asked questions)	4.29	2.35	1.33	4.66
Transaction Dimension				
Online booking	4.46	4.66	2.53	4.22
Events tickets	4.15	4.69	2.08	4.66
Attraction tickets	4.24	4.66	1.94	4.69
Shopping carts	3.50	4.66	1.25	4.66
Web seal certification	3.54	3.48	0.73	4.66

Relationship Dimension				
Confidentiality policy	4.36	2.85	4.38	2.85
Discounts and Deals	4.71	3.70	3.50	2.70
Customisation	3.98	4.52	3.20	3.36
Opportunities of cross selling	3.50	4.66	2.82	3.53
Incentive programs/contests	3.57	4.15	2.11	2.35
Programs of Customer loyalty	3.72	4.77	1.94	4.09
Technical merit Dimension				
Unbroken Website Links	4.08	4.64	4.55	2.85
Website Loading Time	4.60	4.06	4.40	3.70
Active Navigation Tools	4.72	4.12	4.35	4.52
Visual form	4.57	3.78	4.16	4.66
Web pages design	4.70	3.17	3.87	2.85
Sites map	4.10	4.64	3.44	3.70
Home Button on All Pages	4.64	3.78	3.70	3.66
Hyperlinks to Websites of Local Attractions & amenities	4.06	2.47	3.69	3.20
Visual Appearance Dimension				
Clear and Legible Text	4.64	3.78	4.12	3.66
Adequate Contrast Between Background and Text	4.06	2.47	3.78	3.20
Use of the Colours	4.12	3.17	2.47	2.11
Adequate Use of the Space on Home Page	3.78	4.64	3.17	3.66
Personalization Dimension				
Multiple Languages web page	4.64	3.66	3.50	3.78
Translation Services	4.06	3.20	3.57	2.47
Interactivity of Trip Organiser	4.12	2.11	3.72	3.17
Opportunity to Send e-postcard	3.78	2.35	3.50	4.64
Sign Up for the Visitors	2.47	3.66	3.57	4.64
Social Networking Websites link	3.17	3.20	3.72	3.78

From the above analysis, shaded cells in the above table depict where the performance was found to be more than importance (expectations), hence the attributes of satisfaction for the consumers. For all the items in these dimensions, the rankings for importance were constantly higher comparative to the performance scores, representing a gap amongst the importance and actual performance. The variance in communication dimensions and transactions was most noticeable in hotel and tourism firms' websites. Tourism websites were comparative better than hotel websites in on-line bookings, event tickets, attraction tickets, shopping carts and web seal certification. So, actions are to be taken by hotels to advance the performances of these functions. Websites specifically scored poorly against performance in the information dimension. Even the attributes such shopping information and event calendar were poorly rated by the consumers. An evaluation of the websites by the consumers indicated that applications regarding the transaction dimension only

were extensively organised by tourism & hospitality firms. The outcomes showed firms' are efficiently implement and achieve information technology to favours the actions which are sophisticated.

As regards the technical merit dimension, hotel websites recorded poor security measures of websites. Visual forms and site From the above analysis, shaded cells in the above table depict where the performance was found to be more than importance (expectations), hence the attributes of satisfaction for the consumers. For all the items in these dimensions, the rankings for importance were constantly higher comparative to the performance scores, representing a gap amongst the importance and actual performance. The variance in communication dimensions and transactions was most noticeable in hotel and tourism firms' websites. Tourism websites were comparative better than hotel websites in on-line bookings, event tickets, attraction tickets, shopping carts and web seal certification. So, actions are to be taken by hotels to advance the performances of these functions. Websites specifically scored poorly against performance in the information dimension. Even the attributes such shopping information and event calendar were poorly rated by the consumers.

An evaluation of the websites by the consumers indicated that applications regarding the transaction dimension only were extensively organised by tourism & hospitality firms. The outcomes showed firms' are efficiently implement and achieve information technology to favours the actions which are sophisticated.

As regards the technical merit dimension, hotel websites recorded poor security measures of websites. Visual forms and site maps were better reported in tourism websites. The above explained features in fact, are crucial to build trust amongst the

hotel customers. Most vital factors affecting the e-marketing tactics were the hotel's website interactivity with customers. Effective navigation tool was the most important attributes followed by hyperlinks linking to websites of local attractions, meeting points, and restaurants specific to cultural background and country of the traveller. The importance of home button on all pages, unbroken links, and site map, load time and search engine also cannot be undermined. Customers felt that visual manifestation enhances the portal's interactivity. Text must be clear and legible. There is a need of adequate contrast between text and background.

The importance of photos of hotel features was pretty high. Other significant dimensions that improved the website interactivity were previous guest history, frequent guest program, availability of room facilities, hotel location maps, and snaps of hotel ambience, restaurant snaps, meeting facilities and space for employment opportunities. Another sub-dimension of website reservation items showing the Room Rates, Real-time Reservation, Reservation Policies, Viewing or Cancelation of Reservation, Toll free Reservation Phone Number, Secure Payment System, Check-in/Check-out Time, and Payment Options was significant to customers and increased the website interactivity considerably. Also, the Contact Information attribute of the website generated highest interactivity. The other items in the sub-dimension were providing e-mail Address, Feedback Form, a range of day/night Telephone Numbers and Online Forum. Why e-mail address did not have highest mean score (despite minimal standard deviation) is beyond the imagination in the era of information technology.

Overall, an evaluation of the websites of hospitality firms revealed that each content wise websites were having more of

weaknesses and lesser of strengths. Customers cited that website interactivity becomes pleasure if have control over site visiting experiences, one should be capable to find what he is concerned in seeing, navigation must easy and search option must be available. Moreover, websites inspiring visitors to talk back, and web site which handled input and queries very quickly and provide the information wanted without any delay were more likely to have higher interactivity.

CONCLUSION

Website based tourism and hospitality business in a developing countries like India helps to get closer to their customers and also to maintain utility website/s. Tourism and hospitality firms can attain their marketing objectives successfully by content management of their websites and planning for every aspect of e-marketing. The present study examined the importance and performance of tourism and hospitality firms' websites in national capital region of India.

The content assessment regarding tourism and hospitality firms' websites bring this to notice that, on many of the website dimension/attributes, the performance was found to be more than expectations, hence depicting the perceived satisfaction for the consumers. The variance in communication dimensions and transactions was most noticeable in hotel and tourism firms' websites. Tourism websites were comparative better than hotel websites in

response to both of these dimension. So, actions need to be taken by hotels to advance the performances of these functions. Websites specifically scored poorly against performance in the information dimension which indicated firms' failure to efficiently implement the information technology. As regards the technical merit dimension of the websites, hotel websites recorded poor performance as compared to tourism firms' website. In response to facility dimension, importance of all items/features was pretty high as compared to actual performance. Other significant dimensions that improved the website interactivity was noted as facilities information dimension and website reservation dimension. Overall the outcomes point out to reservation information as the aspect growing the website interactivity for the consumers.

Conclusively on the basis of analysis outcomes, it can be said that an updated website nowadays is a very important part in the research for information when organising a trip. Moreover, web-content with high quality should be designed that focuses on the needs of customer. Some measures must be taken to provide complete managerial support for website quality improvement. This research can work as seed for future researches for measuring the impact of e-marketing applications on profitability of the tourism and hospitality firms and comparative studies in this field.

REFERENCES

Ansah, A.K., Kontoh, M. & Balnkson, V.S. (2012). The Use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) in Front Office Operations of Chain Hotels in Ghana, *International Journal of Advanced Computer Science and Applications*, 3(3)3, 72-77.

Barnes, D. & Hinton, M. (2007).Searching for e-business performance measurement

system, *The Electronic Journal of Information System*, 10(1): 134-142.

Buhalis, D. & Law, R. (2008). Progress in information technology and tourism management: 20 years on and 10 years after the Internet, *Tourism Management*, 29, 609 - 623.

Chu, R. (2001). What online Hong Kong travellers look for on airline/travel Websites?,*International Journal of*

Hospitality Management, 20 (1), 95-100.

Chung, T. & Law, R. (2003). Developing a performance indicator for hotel Websites, International Journal of Hospitality Management, 22, 119-125.

Davidson, A.P. & Burgess S. (2006). *E-commerce in tourism: Use of web sites by small, regional and urban enterprises*, Cooperation Research Centre, Australia.

Dholakia, R., Miao, Z., Dholakia, N., & Fortin, D. (2000). Interactivity and revisits to websites: a theoretical framework. *RITIM Working Paper*.

Grandson, E.E. & Pearson,J.M.(2004). Electronic commerce adoption: An empirical study of small and medium US business, *Information and Management*, 18(4), 145-169.

Gratzer, M. & Winiwarter, W. (2003). The Role of the Internet in the SME hotel sector in Austria. In G. Goos, J. Hartmanis & J. Van Leeuwen (Eds.), *Web and Communication Technologies and Internet-related Issues,* 28-39, Springer: Berlin.

Heung, V. C. S. (2003). Internet usage by international travellers: reasons and barriers,International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 15(7), 370-378.

Ip, C., Qi, S., Leung, R. & Law, R.(2010). Hotel website performance evaluation: A fuzzy analytic hierarchy process approach. *Proceedings of International Conference on E-Business and E-government (ICEE 2010)*. Guangzhou, China.

Jahng, J.J., Jain, H. & Ramamurthy, K. (2000). Effective design of electronic commerce environment: a proposed theory of congruence and an illustration, *IEEE Transactions on Systems, Man, and Cybernetics - Part A: Systems and Humans,* 30(4), 456-71.

Jeong, M., Oh, H., & Gregoire, M. (2003). Conceptualizing Web site quality and its consequences in the lodging industry, *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 22(2), 161-175.

Law, R., & Bai, B. (2008). How do the preferences of online buyers and browsers differ on the design and content of travel websites?,*International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 20 (4), 388-400.

Law, R., & Leung, R. (2000). A study of airlines' online reservation services on the internet, *Journal of Travel Research*, 39, 202-211.

Legoherel, P., Fischer-Lokou, J., & Gueguen, N. (2002). Selling tourism on the internet: analysis of the balance of power between seller and consumer during information exchange and negotiation, *Journal of Tourism and Leisure Marketing*, 9 (3), 49-63.

Liu, C., Arnett, K.P. & Litecky, C. (2000).Design quality of web sites for electronic commerce: *Fortune* 1000 webmaster's evaluations,*Electronic Markets*, 120-129.

Lu, Z., Lu, J., & Zhang, C.(2002). Website Development and Evaluation in the Chinese Tourism Industry, *Special Issue of Network and Communications on the Internet Development in Asia*, 16(3-4), 191-208

Olifer, N. & Olifer, V. (2006). *Computer Networks, Principles, Technologies and Protocol for Network Design*: John Wiley and Sons Ltd., England.

Octane Private Limited, Delhi, India (2016).). 2015 *Annual Report on E-Travel Marketing India: A Path to Purchase*. Retrieved from http://octane research.in/ research/e-travel-marketing-india/.

Payne, A. (2005). *Handbook of CRM, Achieving Excellence in Customer Management. Oxford*: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Rong, J., Li, G. & Law, R.(2009). *A contrast analysis of online hotel web service purchasers and browsers, International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(3), 466-478

Starkov, M. (2002). *Brand Erosion or How Not to Market Your Hotel on the Web*, Retrieved from: http://hospitalitynet. org/news/Market_Reports/ Max_Stakov_-

_Hospitality on 27th February 2018.

Vrana, V. & Zafiropolous C. (2004).Tourism Agents' Attitudes on Internet Adoption: An Analysis form Greece, *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 18(7), 601-608.

Yelkur, R. & DaCosta, M.M.N. (2001). Differential pricing and segmentation on the internet: the case of Hotels, *Management Decision*, 39 (5), 252-261.

Zeithaml, V. A., Parasuraman, A. & Malhotra, A. (2002). Service Quality Delivery through Web Sites: A Critical Review of Extant Knowledge,*Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 30(4), 362-375.

Zeithaml, V.A. (2002). Service excellence in electronic channels, *Managing Service Quality*, 12(3), 135-138.

BRIEF PROFILE OF THE AUTHORS

Lakhvinder Singh is the corresponding author and working as Assistant Professor of Tourism in Pt. C. L. S. Govt. P. G. College, Karnal (Haryana). He holds Ph.D Degree in Tourism Management with UGC-NET qualification in Tourism Administration & Management. He also completed his master and bachelor degree in Tourism Management. He has three years of teaching experience and has more than 30 research publications in his credit. He is in the Editorial/Advisory Board of different Journals of International and National repute. His areas of interest include tourist behaviour, tourism marketing, tourism impact, culture & religious tourism, e-tourism and ICT in tourism.   lakhvindersingh.kuk@gmail.com.

Dinesh Dhankhar holds the position of Assistant Professor in Department of Tourism & Hotel Management, Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra with doctoral degree in the subject with UGC-NET-JRF qualification. He has seven years of teaching experience and published a couple of research papers in journals of national and international repute. He is an active member of Indian Hospitality Congress and Indian Commerce Association. His areas of interest are ICT in tourism and hospitality management, tourism marketing, research methodology, transport management and event management.   dd.dhankhar@gmail.com.

Sustainable Developmental Implications Of Community Based Tourism Initiatives In Himachal: An Empirical Study.

SP BANSAL*, PURVA KANSAL**, SANDEEP WALIA***

*Himachal Technical University, Hamirpur & Professor of Tourism Management, IVS, MTA, Himachal Pradesh University, Shimla
**University Business School, Panjab University, Chandigarh,
***University Institute of Tourism & Hospitality Management, Chandigarh University, Mohali, Punjab, India

Abstract

Developmental implications of community based tourism have been researched quite exhaustively in the past. However, these implications have been started from the perspective of the Government or in investor. There is a paucity of studies from the perspective of the community members. Review of literature indicated that there were few studies internationally which started the developmental implications of community based tourism initiatives from the perspective of the community members. However, there were hardly any study which targeted developmental implications of community based tourism initiatives in India or in Himachal State.

It was to meet this objective that the current study was undertaken in Himachal State. The data were collected from three community based tourism initiatives located in Paragpur, Sangla and Naggar. The data were collected with the help of a structured non-disguised questionnaire constructed on the basis of review of literature. The data were collected from 300 respondents across the three destinations. The results of the study would contribute to the existing literature on community based tourism and also help the policymakers to understand the different dimension's and aspects of community based tourism.

INTRODUCTION

Tourism as a Socio-economic phenomenon has evolved into one of the fastest and largest growing industries in the world.The contribution of tourism towards development of a community and towards strengthening and empowering of the local communities has been a question of research for past decade.. Working on these lines some researchers and practitioners advocated the ability of tourism to fully empower people (Sofield, T. H., 2003); while others have established that engaging local population in tourism development helps in building stronger and more resilient communities (Ruiz-Ballesteros, E., 2011). Tourism as a service sector helps people to develop a variety of skills and with its cross cutting impact on various sectors like agriculture, construction and handicrafts and it creates millions of business and employment opportunities (Murphy, P. E., 2013). Tourism can help in developing positive change in communities around the world by protecting the environment and promoting gender empowerment as it has the capacity to lift people from poverty thereby providing enormous opportunities for the employment (Fisher, R., 2005). There can be no real tourism development if it damages the values and culture of host communities, or if the socio economic benefits generated by tourism do not trickle down to the community level (Ashley, C., & Roe, D., 2001). It is because of these reasons that Tourism has been tagged as great social tool reducing inequalities and helping communities to progress especially the branch of tourism referred to as community based tourism (CBT).

The concept of Community based tourism gained momentum in mid nineteen ninety's based on the simple notion that healthy communities are the basis for successful tourism industry. Tourism is often seen as a tool for community to pursue development without losing their identity sidewise

generating income and employment opportunities and thus promoting local development in rural and neglected areas and also fighting to stop migration to the cities (Dovey, K., 2009). CBT aimed to create a more sustainable tourism industry, focusing on the host community in terms of planning and maintaining tourism development(Jamal & Getz, 1995). Analyzing the benefits of CBT, Blank in his work concluded that local control of tourism was a winwin situation for most communities(Blank,1989).Communities' equal participation improved local governance while protecting existing and natural tourism assets including tangible and intangible cultural heritage and natural tourism resources which helped in promoting and protecting community pride and identity (Posey, D. A., &Dutfield, G., 1996).

However, our analysis of the secondary data across multiple data bases indicated that though researchers had worked on Community based tourism for more than a decade, the topic was relatively under explored in context of India and especially Himachal Pradesh. Though the Government has initiated multiple CBT initiatives in Himachal yet hardly any empirical research work could be found on the projects and their developmental impact and relationship. Some reports were found to talk about developmental issues however these were Government published reports from the investor stakeholder perspective. The community perspective had not been explored. It was within this backdrop that the current research was undertaken to study the developmental implications of the CBT in Himachal Pradesh.

The paper is structured in four parts. The paper starts by reviewing the literature to build the theoretical base for the conceptual model. The second part proposes the hypothesis. The paper then discusses the research methodology and results of the study.

Theory Building.

The current study was planned as an empirical study in order to test the developmental implications of CBT in Himachal Pradesh. An initial review of literature indicated that there the variables which influenced the developmental aspects of Community Based Tourism Initiative (CBTI) could be broadly clustered into three categories i.e. perceptions of the community regarding CBTI, benefits of CBTI and perceived costs of CBTI. Therefore it was decided to study the impact of perceptions, benefits and costs on two broad developmental aspects of CBTI i.e. economic and overall contribution of CBTI.

General perception of Community regarding CBTI:

Perception represents the process by which meaning is attributed to an object; event or person encountered in the environment (Reisinger, Y., &Mavondo, F. 2005). Hargie and his colleagues defined perceptions as the impressions people form of one another and how interpretations are made concerning the behaviour of others(Hargie, O.et_al, 1994). It is based on the observations people make about intentions, attitudes, emotions, feelings, ideas, abilities, purposes, traits, thoughts, perceptions, memories events that are inside the person and strictly psychological. By way of summary, it appears that the definitions by Reisinger and Stewart focus on perceptions as a process whereas the definition by Hargie focuses on perception as the result the manifestation of impressions.

This dimension was taken for the present study after taking in account the previous studies by various researchers. Muzirambi, and his colleagues in their research provided a conceptual framework of community- based nature conservation and tourism (Muzirambi, J. M., &Mearns, K. F.

2015). Their study discussed some important and guiding factors related to community based tourism, i.e. land rights of local communities in and around protected areas; community-based wildlife management in close relationship with community-based ecotourism; and benefit-sharing and social development issues. Nevertheless, issues that regard the strengthening of communities through tourism participation are still increasingly important and require further research and analysis (Simmons, D. G. 1994; Joppe, M. 1996; Pearce, D. G. 1992; Ashley, C., Boyd, C., & Goodwin, H. 2000; Scheyvens, R. 2002; Macleod, D. V. 2004. Ashley, C., & Mitchell, J. 2009, Muckosy 2008; and Simpson, M. C. 2008. Therefore, this dimension's included with variables regarding general opinion of the community about CBTI. It was felt that the local communities' perceptions of tourism impacts were crucial since they affected the communities participation in the projects. Therefore for the current study it can be argued that there would be a positive relationship between the perception of CBTI and economic contribution and overall development of a community.

Proposition: positive relationship between the perception of CBTI and economic contribution and overall development of a community

Past research indicated that CBIT perception included the communities perception about the strength and growth of the rural economies (Goodwin &Santilli, 2009; and Harwood, 2010), emphasizes the local participation (Armstrong, 2012; and Mohd. Nor &Kayat, 2010), empowers the local community (Armstrong, 2012; and Harwood, 2010), creates markets and manages by local community (Armstrong, 2012; Dunn, S. 2007; Goodwin & Santilli, 2009; and Harwood, 2010), sustainability (Armstrong, 2012; Harwood, 2010; and Mohd. Nor, 2009), and reduces poverty

(Zapata, Hall, Lindo &Vanderschaeghe, 2011). Community's sense of ownership, feeling of responsibility and practical involvement and decision making have been advocated by various researchers (Simpson, M.C.2008; Boyd, S. W., & Singh, S. 2003; Campbell, L. M. 1999; Agenda, M. 1999; Olsen, 1997; Page, S. J., & Dowling, R. K. 2002; Ross, S., & Wall, G. 1999; Zhao, W., & Ritchie, J. B. 2007. Leballo, M. 2000, have advocated that community-based tourism empowers local communities, improves local skills, brings about a sense of ownership by local community members and can lead to development in a locality.It was based on these dimension's highlighted in the review of literature that this case regarding perception of CBTI was framed.

Benefits of CBTI:

For sustainable tourism, the resident community of a tourist destination is the most important stakeholder (Muhanna, E. 2007). Researchers have argued that community participation must give a sense of ownership and responsibility for tourism to the community as a means of ensuring the retention of economic benefits and minimizing of negative socio-cultural impact (Ying,T., & Zhou,Y. 2007).

Gursov and these cliques in this study concluded that the host community support was affected by the level of community concern, eco centric values, utilization of tourism resource base and perceived cost and benefits of tourism development (Gursoy, D., Jurowski, C., &Uysal, M. 2002). However, the potential social benefits can only be possessed by a transparent and community-oriented approach, which understands the local image and views tourism as a local resource (Murphy, P. E. (2013). CBT is characterised as tourism effort which is controlled by the community(Trejos, B., & Chiang, L. H. N. 2009) it can be argued that community will be the one receiving

majority of the potential benefits. Many researchers have tried to establish this argument in this study an indicated that if a community perceives to receive a majority of the benefits they tend to support the activities more positive (Ekeh, P. P. 1974;AP, J. 1992; King, B., Pizam, A., &Milman, A. 1993; Getz, D. 1994; Hernandez, S. A., Cohen, J., & Garcia, H. L. 1996; Williams, J., & Lawson, R. 2001; Andereck, K. L., Valentine, K. M., Knopf, R. C., & Vogt, C. A. 2005). Extending the above researches it can be argued that if the community perceives to get a majority of benefits from the CBTI, they would naturally tend to support the activities wholeheartedly leading to better performance of the Scheme. As a resultant the perception of benefits of CBT will influence the performance of CBT in both economic and overall developmental terms.

Proposition: there is a positive relationship between the benefits of CBTI and economic contribution and overall development of a community

Community participation in decision-making entails democratization of the decision-making process, and can lead to improvement of the quality of life for rural residents (Gao, S., Huang, S., & Huang, Y. 2009): Mearns, K. 2003) stated that community-based tourism ensures local control of activities and increased benefits being realized by locals. Therefore, items related to these dimensions were added in this cluster.

Cost of CBTI:

Tourism has both positive and negative impacts on a community. Tourism develops an area but also brings traffic congestion, increase in crime rate as well as increase in cost of living. Eshliki and Kaboudi conducted a study to analyze the community's participation in tourism development program and evaluted the degree to which their overall life quality is affected by tourism (Eshliki, S. A.,

&Kaboudi, M. 2012). Several other studies also concluded that the cost of community based tourism initiatives were actually incurred by the community and (in most cases) the community lacked the control of tourism and therefore, such communities suffered a lot (Buccus, I., Hemson, D., Hicks, J., & Piper, L. 2008); Manyara, G., & Jones, E. 2007).Traditionally, such a system prevented the growth of sustainable tourism and reduced the potential for tourism. Therefore researchers have concluded through research and case studies that without community control, projects eventually failed upon withdrawal of the implementers as the community lacked competence required to run such initiatives (Manyara, G., & Jones, E. 2007; Shunnaq, M., Schwab, W. A., & Reid, M. F. 2008).

This has prompted a lot of researchers to study the stakes of the local community in CBTI. King and his colleagues in their study proposed that residents of communities, dependent on tourism, could differentiate between its economic benefits and social costs (King, R., Warnes, A., & Patterson, G. 2000). In view of this, it can be argued that because the communities can differentiate between the economic and social costs of the tourism initiatives, they can also understand the impact of the impact of such costs on their respective communities.

Proposition: There is relationship between the cost of CBTI and economic contribution and overall development of a community

Community Based Tourism Initiative is helpful for sustainable growth and development of a community. Based on the review of literature and theory development, following conceptual model is proposed.
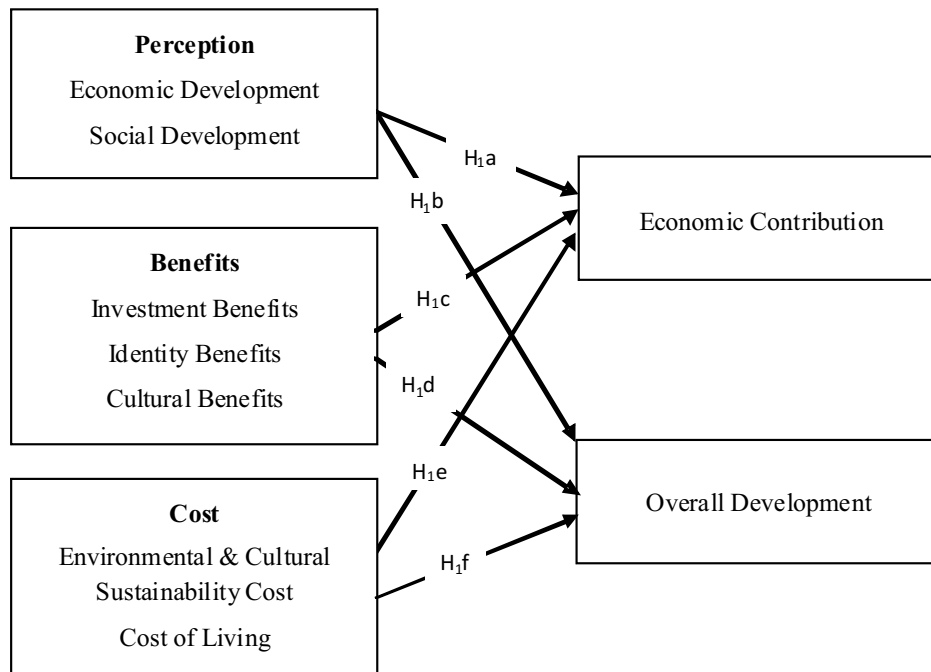
Conceptual Model

The objective of the study was to study the relationship between general perception, benefits and cost of CBTI with economic

contribution and overall development. Figure 1 outlines the conceptual model.

H1: There is a significant relationship

between perception and economic contribution of CBTI.

H2: There is a significant relationship

between benefits and economic contribution of CBTI.

H3: There is a significant relationship between cost and economic contribution of CBTI.

H4: There is a significant relationship between perception and overall development of CBTI.

H5: There is a significant relationship between perception and overall development of CBTI.

H6: There is a significant relationship between perception and overall development of CBTI.

Research methodology

The present study is descriptive undertaken to find empirical evidence to test the

developmental implications of CBT in Himachal Pradesh.

The unit of data collection for the current study were the community members of different communities where CBT had been initiated by the Himachal Pradesh government. In order to collect data from the unit of data collection, an attempt was made to understand different CBT initiatives across Himachal Pradesh. As there were multiple initiators being undertaken by the government it was decided to divide the margin for these into three clusters namely Upper Himachal, Middle Himachal and Lower Himachal. One CBTI location was chosen from each cluster and data were collected through the Sarpanch (head of the community).
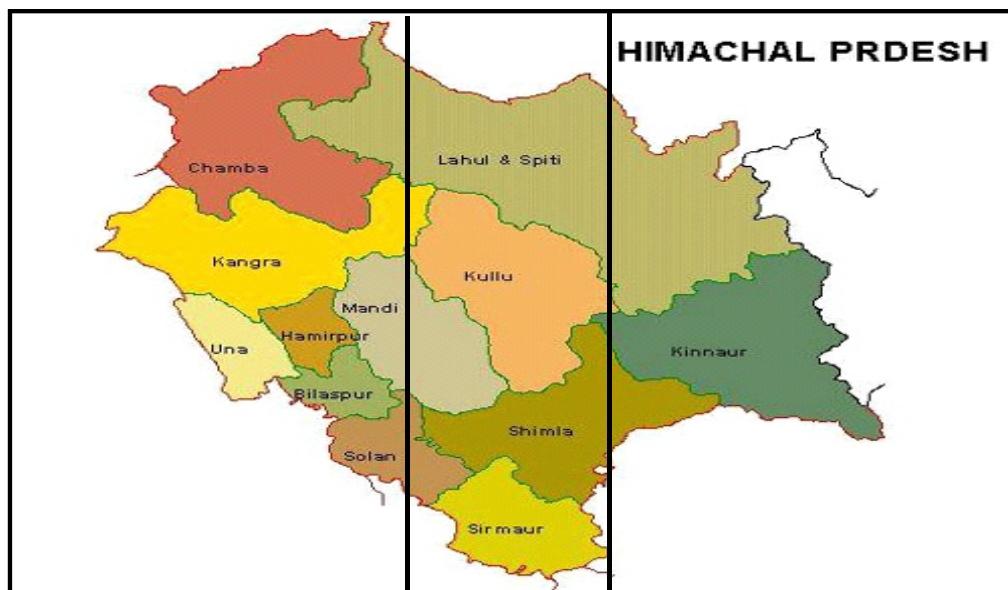
ꙅ*The map indicates the division of Himachal Pradesh into three clusters: Upper Himachal, Middle Himachal & Lower Himachal.*

There were 536 households in Sangla, 511 households in Paragpur and 506 households in Naggar. The data were collected with the help of a structured non disguised questionnaire with help of systematic sampling. Therefore in case of Sangla, sampling fraction was

Samplig Fraction=

n/N=100/536=1/5.36 (i.e.1 in 5)

While in Paragpur, sampling fraction was

Samplig Fraction=

n/N=100/511=1/5.11 (i.e.1 in 5)

In Naggar, sampling fraction was

Samplig Fraction=

n/N=100/506=1/5.06 (i.e.1 in 5)

While collecting data, every fifth household was approached in order to fill out a structured questionnaire in the identified three communities.

The questionnaire was self-constructed and had 3 sections measuring perception, benefits and costs of CBTI. Based on the review of literature the items included in perception dimension were related to out migration, community pride and social cohesion, economic dependency, safety and security, preserving local ecosystem, and local participation in decision making etc. The dimension related to community benefits included items related to creation of job opportunities, cultural shows/festivals standard of living, pride and sense of self identity for residents, public utilities etc. The dimension of cost included items related to cost of living, natural environment, pollution, impacts on local culture and identity etc. There were 16 items for perception dimension, 18 items for benefits and 8 items for costs related to CBTI. The questionnaire also contained questions related to economic contribution and overall development of the surveyed communities in perception of the community members (respondents).

The data were analysed using descriptive statistics and hypothesis were tested using correlation and regression analysis in SPSS 20.

Descriptive Socio Demographic Analysis

The sample consisted of 300 respondents including 229 males and 71 females.

Among the total sample size of 300, 100 respondents were from Sangla, 100 from Paragpur and 100 were from Naggar. The results of the demographic profile indicated that the sample was skewed towards males. The results further indicated that out of total 300 respondents, 109 respondents were in the age group of less than 30, 117 respondents were between the age group of 30-45 years, 65 respondents were between the age group of 45-60 years and only 09 respondents were above 60 years of age. An analysis of the educational profile of the respondents indicated that 56 respondents were below matriculate, 128 respondents were matriculate, 88 respondents were graduate, 22 respondents were post graduate and 06 respondents were above post-graduation. The results indicated that across the three locations, only 2.0% respondents had post-graduation degree. A qualitative analysis indicated that most of the well educated population had moved to nearby towns in search of better job opportunities. The results indicated that in terms of occupational activities, 33 respondents were associated with public sector or governmental employee's, 76 respondents were working with the private sector, 61 respondents were businessmen or Entrepreneurs, while only 64 respondents were community tourism entrepreneurs. The results indicated that 49.7% of the respondents were not involved directly in CBTI while more than 50.3% were involved with CBTI. The results indicated that not a huge segment of the respondents was dependent upon community based tourism indicating that the sample was adequate for the study.

Data Analysis

In order to test the six proposed hypothesis, correlation analysis was undertaken done across perception, benefits and cost dimensions of Community Based Tourism development in terms of eonomic contribution and overall development.

In order to understand the dimensions of CBTI more precisely, 3 different exploratory factor analysis were undertaken for each one of the three independent variables. The results of factor analysis for perception indicated that the perception variable could be reduced to two dimensions i.e. Factor-1 named as Economic Development and Factor-2 Social Development. A factor analysis for benefits variable indicated that there was a three-factor solution for benefits and these were named as Investment benefits, Identity benefits and Cultural benefits. Similarly, the variable of costs was reduced to two-factor solution i.e. Environmental & Cultural sustainability Cost and Cost of Living.

In order to test the six, Correlation analysis was undertaken with the help of SPSS 21. The results of the correlation analysis of the three main factors of CBTI economic contribution, it is indicated that there was a significant relationship was found between Perception, Benefits and of Cost. An indepth analysis was done for dependent variable across the dimensions of perception (economic development and social development), benefits (investment, identity and cultural benefits) and costs (environmental and cultural sustainability costs and cost of living).

Correlation analysis of Perception, Benefits cost dimensions Across Economic Contri bution and Overall development.								
		Economic Development (Factor-1)	Social Development (Factor-2)	Investment Benefits (Factor-3)	Identity Benefits (Factor-4)	Cultural Benefits (Factor-5)	Environmental & Cultural Sustainability Cost (Factor-6)	Cost of Living (Factor-7)
Economic Contribution	Pearson Correlation	.380**	.297**	.398**	.436**	.351**	.101**	.131**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.017	.023
Overall Development	Pearson Correlation	.394**	.289**	.380**	.382**	.369**	.096**	.157**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.049	.006

It was found that all the two dimensions of Perception of Community towards CBTI i.e. economic development and social development were positively and significantly correlated with economic contribution and overall development of the community at 99% confidence index. The results also indicated that three dimensions of benefits i.e. investment, identity and cultural benefits were significantly and positively correlated with economic contribution and overall development of the community at 99% confidence index. Similarly, an analysis of the last dimension of CBTI i.e. costs, indicated that both the dimensions of costs of CBTI (environmental and cultural sustainability and cost of living) were significantly and positively correlated with economic contribution and overall development of the community at 99% confidence index (table).

The results of the correlation analysis indicated that there was a positive and significant relationship between the seven factors i.e. economic contribution, social development, investment benefits, identity benefits, cultural benefits, environmental and cultural sustainability cost and cost of living with economic contribution and overall development. It seems that there was a positive and significant relationship.

However correlation analysis did not show the strength of the relationship.

The regression results indicated that 47.8% variance in the data set was explained by the resulting regression model. As per std. 50% or above variance is considered good. However in the service industry 30% variance can be taken into consideration. Therefore the model was considered.

$Y1 = \beta0 + \beta1X1 + \beta2X2 + \ldots \beta n \beta n$

$Y2 = \beta0 + \beta1X1 + \beta2X2 + \ldots \beta n \beta n$

In the present study seven factors in the regression equation were

X1= Economic Development, X2= social Development, X3= Investment Benefits, X4= Identity Benefits, X5= Cultural Benefits, X6= Environmental & Cultural Sustainability Cost, X7= Cost of Living, Y1= Economic Contribution and Y2 = Overall Development

Based on p values out of 7 independent variables, only 2 values were p<.05 and therefore treated as significant variables i.e. investment benefits and identity benefits. The results indicated that other things like constant 1 unit change in investment benefits will lead to 0.383 units increase in economic contribution of CBTI in perception of the respondents. Similarly 1 unit change in identity benefits will lead to 0.519 units increase in economic contribution of CBTI in perception of the

respondents as projected in the following table I.

Table I : Results for regression analysis across economic contribution and economic development

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
Economic Contribution	(Constant)	**2.732**	.622		4.394	.000
	Economic Development	.318	.209	.133	1.516	.131
	Social development	.025	.171	.010	.145	.885
	Investment benefits	**.383**	.157	.186	2.440	**.015**
	Identity benefits	**.519**	.179	.238	2.903	**.004**
	Cultural benefits	.002	.180	.001	.013	.990
	Environment and Cultural Sustainability Cost	.134	.091	.084	1.465	.144
	Cost of Living	-.159	.109	-.091	-1.450	.148

Similarly, a regression analysis of the seven variables across overall development indicated that across seven factors for Dependent Variable Development, the strength of the model was 45.3% i.e. the resulting predictive model explained 45.3% of the variance in the Dependent Variable. The model was significant at (p <.05, F=10.760) (table: II).

Table II : Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
Overall Development	(Constant)	2.003	.285		7.034	.000
	Economic Development	**.195**	.096	.181	2.035	**.043**
	Social development	.006	.079	.006	.081	.935
	Investment benefits	**.169**	.072	.181	2.346	**.020**
	Identity benefits	.096	.082	.097	1.166	.244
	Cultural benefits	.067	.082	.069	.814	.416
	Environment and Cultural Sustainability Cost	.056	.042	.078	1.333	.184
	Cost of Living	-.035	.050	-.045	-.701	.484

The results of the regression analysis indicated that based on p values out of seven independent variables, only 2 values were p<.05 and therefore were assumed significant variables. i.e. economic development and investment benefits.

The results indicated that the constant 1 unit change in economic development may will lead to .195 units increase in overall development of CBTI in perception of the respondents. Similarly 1 unit change in investment benefits will lead to 0.169 units increase in overall development of CBTI in perception of the respondents.

Based on correlation analysis all the six hypothesis were supported i.e. there was a

significant relationship between the three dimensions of CBTI i.e. perception, cost and benefits and economic contribution and overall development. The results of the study indicated that in the perception of the consumers, CBTI contributed to economic contribution as well as overall development of the region through all the three dimensions of CBTI. However, regression analysis indicated that all the sub dimensions of the three variables i.e. perception, cost and benefit were not equally important in terms of CBTI. In view of these policymakers and practitioners should be more careful when making policies concerning to CBTI.

Conclusion

The current study was an attempt to understand the relationship between three main dimensions of CBTI i.e. perception, cost and benefit across to dependent variables of the Himachal State economy i.e. economic contribution and overall development. The study was an attempt to understand this relationship between the dependent and independent variable across Sangla, Paragpur and Naggar. The data were collected from 300 respondents and six hypotheses were tested. The correlation and regression analysis support all six hypothesis were supported yet not all the dimensions of the three variables were significant.

Out of all there variables and seven sub dimensions, only Investment and Identity benefits sub dimensions were relevant and identity benefits was a more important variable than investment benefits as a single unit change in identity benefits dimension led to 0.519 units change in economic development. Thus to promote CBTI, State Government should invest in identity benefits related strategies, as well as to organize important cultural shows/festivals to popularize cultural tourism products.

Similarly, out of seven sub dimensions, only economic development and investment benefits sub dimensions were significant. Out of these two significant variables, economic development was more relevant variable as one unit change in economic development led to 0.195 units change in overall development. In view of this Government should invest in economic development related strategies and policy makers should think upon issues related to check out migration on creating new markets for the local products, developing skill, knowledge & aptitude of local people, improving safety and security, improving public utility, preserving local ecosystem, and ensuring local participation in decision making.

The present study contributes to the extant literature of CBTI. It further helps practitioners and researchers to develop a perspective of CBTI in Himachal Pradesh. The current study was an attempt to understand the use and relevance of CBIT in perspective of Himachal Pradesh. No attempt was made to do cross regional comparative analysis. Thus the present study could be explored as future area of research.

References:

Andereck, K. L., Valentine, K. M., Knopf, R. C., & Vogt, C. A. (2005).Residents' perceptions of community tourism impacts. *Annals of tourism research*, *32*(4), 1056-1076.

Ap, J. (1992). Residents' perceptions on tourism impacts. *Annals of tourism Research*, *19*(4), 665-690.

Armstrong, R. (2012). An analysis of the conditions for success of community based tourism enterprises. *ICRT Occasional Paper*, (OP21), 1-52.

Ashley, C., & Mitchell, J. (2009). *Tourism and poverty reduction: Pathways to prosperity*. Taylor & Francis.

Ashley, C., & Roe, D. (2001). *Pro-poor tourism strategies: Making tourism work for the poor: A review of experience* (No. 1). Iied.

Buccus, I., Hemson, D., Hicks, J., & Piper, L. (2008).Community development and engagement with local governance in South Africa. *Community Development Journal*, *43*(3), 297-311.

Campbell, L. M. (1999). Ecotourism in rural developing communities. *Annals of tourism research*, *26*(3), 534-553.

Dovey, K. (2009). *Becoming places: urbanism/architecture/identity/power*.Routledge.

Dunn, S. (2007). *Toward empowerment: Women and community-based tourism in Thailand*. University of Oregon.

Ekeh, P. P. (1974). *Social exchange theory: The two traditions*. Harvard Univ Press.

Eshliki, S. A., & Kaboudi, M. (2012). Community perception of tourism impacts and their participation in tourism planning: a case study of Ramsar, Iran. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *36*, 333-341.

Fisher, R. (2005). *Poverty and conservation: Landscapes, people and power* (No. 2). IUCN.

Gao, S., Huang, S., & Huang, Y. (2009). Rural tourism development in China. *International journal of tourism research*, *11*(5), 439-450.

Getz, D. (1994). Residents' attitudes towards tourism: A longitudinal study in Spey Valley, Scotland. *Tourism management*, *15*(4), 247-258.

Goodwin, H., &Santilli, R. (2009). Community-based tourism: A success. *ICRT Occasional paper*, *11*(1), 37.

Gursoy, D., Jurowski, C., &Uysal, M. (2002). Resident attitudes: A structural modeling approach. *Annals of tourism research*, *29*(1), 79-105.

Hargie, O., Saunders, C., & Dickson, D. (1994). *Social skills in interpersonal communication*.Psychology Press.

Harwood, S. (2010). Planning for community based tourism in a remote location. *Sustainability*, *2*(7), 1909-1923.

Hernandez, S. A., Cohen, J., & Garcia, H. L. (1996).Residents' attitudes towards an instant resort enclave. *Annals of tourism research*, *23*(4), 755-779.

Jamal, T. B., & Getz, D. (1995).Collaboration theory and community tourism planning. *Annals of tourism research*, *22*(1), 186-204.

Joppe, M. (1996). Sustainable community tourism development revisited. *Tourism Management*, *17*(7), 475-479.

Kibicho, W. (2008). Community-based tourism: A factor-cluster segmentation approach. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *16*(2), 211-231.

King, B., Pizam, A., &Milman, A. (1993). Social impacts of tourism: Host perceptions. *Annals of tourism Research*, *20*(4), 650-665.

Leballo, M. (2000).The study of best practice in Community-Based Tourism initiatives (CBTI) in South Africa. *Unpublished paper, Land and Agricultural policy Centre,* Johannesburg.

Macleod, D. V. (2004). *Tourism, globalisation, and cultural change: An island community perspective* Vol. 2. Channel View Publications.

Manyara, G., & Jones, E. (2007). Community-based tourism enterprises development in Kenya: An exploration of their potential as avenues of poverty reduction. *Journal of sustainable tourism*, *15*(6), 628-644.

McKercher, B., &Ho, P. S. (2006). Assessing the tourism potential of smaller cultural and heritage attractions. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *14*(5), 473-488.

Mearns, K. (2003). Community-based tourism: the key to empowering the Sankuyo community in Botswana.

Africa Insight, *33*(1/2), 29-32.

Muhanna, E. (2007). The contribution of sustainable tourism development in poverty alleviation of local communities

BRIEF PROFILE OF THE AUTHORS

S.P. Bansal is presently serving as Vice Chancellor Himachal Technical University, Hamirpur & holds the Chair of Professor in Tourism Management,IVS, MTA, Himachal Pradesh University, Shimla, India. Email: spbansal_mtahpu@rediffmail.com

Purva Kansal is working as Associate Professor in University Business School at Panjab University, Chandigarh. Email: purvakansal@pu.ac.in

Sandeep Kumar Walia is the corresponding author currently working as Associate Professor & Head of Department in University Institute of Tourism & Hospitality Management at Chandigarh University, Mohali, Punjab, India. Email: sndp.walia551@gmail.com

Changes in the Role of Local or Host Community in Destination Imaging

SAMIK RAY

RLG Govt. of India, Department of Tourism
Editor of Tourism Theory and Practice

Abstract

Tourism in post industrial society passes through three distinct phases, viz., mass tourism, alternative tourism, and contemporary practices in the socio-technological reality state. As tourism is predominantly an intangible experience for the tourists and travellers, the end service or services at the visiting destinations are quite important. The locals are the hosts of those services. They are authentic spokespersons, interpreters and providers of both tangible and intangible services, and attractions including lifestyle of visiting place. Their role in destination imaging is crucial and imperative. It is true in all periods and phases of tourism history. The roles of local community in this regard are stratified based on nature of host's involvement in tourism. Shifts in their role towards destination imaging and transformation of tourism practices in the post industrial state are striking and functional. In the 21st century the role of local community in destination imaging becomes too crucial when people begin to live in the world of neo socio- technological reality. Neo-reality within tourism is marked by mobility across, virtual or real, time and space; shift from collective gaze to individual gaze; predominance of visits undertaken for authentic experience over mere visits to attractions; ascendency of lifestyle experience paradigm; wide growth of communication through web dependent social media or personal digital means.

The present paper will trace how and why the local community is crucial to destination imaging and map out the possible qualitative changes in their role towards imaging and shifts in the nature of stratified involvement of locals in image formation, occurred within host milieu of the post industrial tourism practices.

INTRODUCTION

Destination image plays a significant role in shaping the pre-travel purchase decision, pulling the tourists, destination positioning (Kotler, P., Haider, D. H., & Rein, I.1993), and tourism marketing etc. Tourism is a service product by the people, for the people and to the people as it is prepared and produced by the local-host community and offered to guests or tourists' community for consumption and experience. Tourism thereby depends upon interaction between two human communities (Hall and Richards, 2000), hosts and tourists. Hosts are locals, have a significant contribution towards destination imaging (Chon, 1990) though apparently products or services are developed upon destination's natural and cultural attractions. Effect of local community involvement in destination imaging begins from pre purchase stage and continues perpetually till post consumption experience sharing stage. Numerous studies have already been undertaken to discuss the images of destinations, but effort to examine the role of local community in destination imaging did not received much attention yet.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Although destination image study is fairly a new development, hundreds of researches were published on this area by now. Among the early studies the works of Reynolds (1965), Anderssen, and Colberg (1973), Matejka (1973), Mayo (1973), Ahmed (1996), Baloglu (1997), and Baloglu and Brinberg (1997) are worth to mention. In fact the volume of researches done in this field clearly calls attention to the importance of destination image. Predominance of quantitative technique over qualitative is apparent (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991 and 2003). Steve Pike (2002) while reviewing the researches on destination image stated that factor analysis, t-tests, cluster analysis, perceptual mapping,

and analysis of importance-performance and means techniques were used largely in data analysis. Among qualitative studies Pritchard and Walkup (2000) made significant contribution. Most of the studies on destination imaging pay much attention to the consumer-traveller or visitors' perception (Ferrario, 1979; Wee etal. 1985; Phelps, 1986; Embacher and Buttle, 1989; Gartner and Shen, 1992; Baloglu, 1997; Chaudhary, 2000) and insights or views of travel trade people (Ritchie and Zins, 1978; Illum and Schaefer, 1995) including destination marketers (Illum and Schaefer, 1995; Bramwell and Rawding, 1996). Case specific researches were done mostly on destinations of developed world. Studies in Indian context are barely found. Work of Chaudhary (2000) is one of the few in this regard. Effect of visitation in image construction (Ferrario, 1979; Wee etal 1985; Phelps,1986), segmentation and image building (Driscoll and Lawson, 1990; Mazanec, 1997), affective analysis of destination image (Baloglu and Brinberg, 1997; Young, 1999), image formation (Gunn 1972; Echtner and Ritchie, 1991 & 2003; Gartner, 1993; Alhemoud and Armstrong, 1996; Bramwell and Rawding, 1996; Selby and Morgan, 1996; Court and Lupton, 1997; MacKay and Fesenmaier, 1997; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Murphy, 1999; Young, 1999), destination image in positioning (Ahmed 1991;Pike and Ryan, 2004), typology of image forms and forming agent(Gartner 1989 & 1993; Echtner and Ritchie, 1991 & 2003; Milman and Pizam, 1995; Bramwell and Rawding, 1996; MacKay and Fesenmaier, 1997; Court and Lupton, 1997; Lubbe, 1998; Chen and Kerstetter, 1999; Human, 1999; Young, 1999; Chen and Hsu, 2000; MacKay and Fesenmaier, 2000; Day, Skidmore, and Koller, 2002; Iwashita, 2003) receive much prominence in destination imaging researches. In psychology, environmental planning, marketing and geography (Lynch, 1960; Downs & Stea, 1977; Saarinen, 1976; Ashworth & Goodal, 1988), study of destination image receives attention too.

DESTINATION IMAGING

Destination image is a mental construct (Reynolds, 1965) either located in mind of people who want to know, reveal, and understand it for somewhat reason or created for portrayal of destination attributes. Motives of comprehending image could be just a curiosity, urge to visit the destination, thirst for knowledge, and an impulse to do business using destination as a commodity. Motives for creation could be promotion, marketing, selling the destination as commodity or a demand for it developed within potential market or among curious and interested. Its construction is a psychological process based on cues in the form of information and impression (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991 and 2003) stimuli collected from widely diverse and various sources of imaging. Image is thus formed by the act of imaging. Destination imaging has two ends: receiver, within the mind of whom destination image is to be formed, and creator-sender, who plays the role of creator-transmitter or image formation agent.

In tourism, destination imaging is an ongoing dynamic process of creation or formation of ideas, feelings, thoughts, experiences, facts, values, information, and impression about a destination. In the mind of potential tourists or visitors it begins with cognition or mental process of acquiring information about destination and understanding destination. For tour companies from tourist generating destinations it begins with destination selection for outbound tourism but process would be the same. This is the beginning of destination image formation at receivers' end. At creator-sender end it begins with creation or portrayal of destination image and then transfer or transmission of created

image as inputs to the mind of infinite numbers of receivers. Inputs spread or transmitted from creators to n- number receivers, and once received, it could again be transferred to other receivers. At pre visit or selection state image is formed out of external and secondary inputs received in the form of pull or external stimuli (Dann, 1977; Kotler, 1982), thereby created images are absolutely secondary (Phelps, 1986). Cognition process of acquiring information and impressions towards destination imaging and image formation continues in the mind of visitor- receivers during visitation too. Inputs come through senses of visitor, what they see, feel, and understand during visit, and also from impressions, ideas, views, and information transmitted by the locals. Images obtained are primary (Phelps, 1986) which may contradict or corroborate the secondary image. Thus evaluation and assessment of the image created or formed at earlier state is possible during visitation. Outcome would be authentic imaging of destinations' attribute if it is not otherwise conditioned to immediate socio- psychological or physical settings of interactions with locals and preconceive notion or complex socio-psychological attribute that visitors possess by virtue of their socio-economic association. Imaging process continues even after the visitation when the visitors resume acquiring new and contemporary information and impressions from external sources and share their experiences of visit or image that was formed as a sum of destination image perception at pre- visit and visitation state. At this state they play the role of both receiver and sender. The process could be continued n- period of time.

Tourist Destination imaging agents: local community role

Destination imaging inputs are pull or external stimuli (Dann, 1977; Kotler, 1982), created by a group called creator-sender,

usually known as destination imaging agent (Alhemoud and Armstrong, 1996; Bramwell and Rawding, 1996; Court and Lupton, 1997; Gartner, 1993; Gunn, 1972; Murphy, 1999; Selby and Morgan, 1996; Young, 1999). They generate and transfer or transmit the inputs to the curious and potential visitors, thus to tourist generating markets. Imaging inputs generated by the agents play like catalyst and primarily prompt an urge of travelling or using destination as a commodity and shape pre purchase decisions including selection of destination and travelling there. Even after purchase and selection the roles of agents continue with similar multitude and importance as imaging process becomes operative in three broad stages: selection or pre-visit, visitation, and post sale or post visit states. So it is an area of substantial investigation.

Information and impression stimuli all through the process come from diverse agents. Involvement with tourism or residential status is not prerequisite for playing role of agents. They could be stranger or might be the local to the destination. They may involve in tourism or may work elsewhere other than tourism sectors and connected to potential visitors as friend, relative, family, colleague, peer group. Gartner (1993) divides the agents into following groups Overt Induced I and II, Covert Induced I and II, Autonomous, Solicited and Unsolicited Organic type. Other researchers also follow almost similar kind of typological divides. None of those researches pay much attention on locals or supply or destination-side (Tasci & Gartner, 2007) agents' role in destination imaging though they have important contributions towards formation of both primary and secondary image (Phelps, 1986) while becoming operative at all the stages of tourist destination imaging. In this context a theoretical framework of divide among agents in terms of their geo-cultural

association and resident status is quite crucial. Primarily a broad divide is thus possible between strangers and locals (fig.1).

Strangers

Contrary to locals the concept of strangers could be described as a community who are neither bearer of local cultural traditions and heritage nor resident of the destination, thereby is stranger in all respect. Visitors or tourist are definitely strangers. By the above described concept professionals, entrepreneurs, and activists involved in tourism of tourist generating destinations and principal tour companies of a federal country like India are stranger too but their role in shaping travel decisions and tourism business deals including promotional activities is significant. In destination imaging they play the role of both receiver and generator-sender. Usually information and impression about destination are received from supply side on demand and during familiarization trip while interacting with the hosts and through personal primary experiences. While portraying destination image for target market they transform the received fact into touristic fact by shaping, editing, and modifying to suit the vested intention of doing business using destination as commodity. Reporters, journalists, columnists, celebrity spokespersons, bloggers, users of social media, and travel writers who are non-native, non-resident, and not even acquainted with indigenous culture and heritage, are certainly stranger. Destination image would be secondary if it is created out of information and impression inputs, generated by those strangers. Strangers' role in destination imaging is confined largely with various decisions making at pre purchase or pre packaging state as at visitation state imaging depends on personal experience and impression inputs about destination from supply side.

At the post visit state previous visitors, though stranger to the destination, involve in destination imaging activities, consciously or without knowing the fact of their participation in it. Techniques are word of mouth publicity and sharing of visitation experience in the form of writing in print media or talks in audio-visual media, and by uploading or posting photos, information, and comments in social media. Sometimes they involved in dynamic interactions over their visiting experiences with peer communicators in virtual space or with family, friends, colleagues, and neighbours in a real world setting within a known socio-spatial periphery of their residence or work, either at an arm length or across the table conversation. Sharing experience of visits after return is an age old practice. When people become techno-savvy, web based media are used frequently for such experience sharing. Accordingly it is found that more than 70% of the users' generated contents in social media are related to vacation or business travel (Kimberlee 2015). If sharing of visitation experience or travel related reports and writings is requested by any tourism organization having a definite vested interest in imaging, the sharing cannot be independent, unconditional, and free from vested concern of promotion and selling a destination as tourism product. When sharing or writing is independent of any pressure or obligation, portrayal would be more objective. Subjective imaging also appears frequently as consumption experience is predominantly intangible and heterogenic, dependent of variables like visitors' class, education, work, travel experience in terms of temporality and immediate psycho-physical settings of consumption. Writings, irrespective of types and subject matter, become subjective when it is influenced by certain pre-conceive notions, ideological prejudices and self socio-economic or political context that a writer posses.

Supply or destination-side agents

Precisely supply or destination-side agents consist of diverse groups of locals, usually residents of the destination, inheritor and traditionally bearer of the destination's cultural contents including heritage attribute. In the age of global mobility a sizeable existence of non-resident locals and non-local residents can be traced. (fig.1)

Non-resident locals

Role of non-resident locals in destination imaging is vital at pre-purchase state since their geo-cultural root is linked with destination like local native residents. Information and impression produced and conveyed by non-resident locals regarding their homeland are reliable on average as their geo-cultural acquaintance with destination is on a par with local residents and they do not have any kind of vested tourism business interest. Spatial difference between the place where they do live now and their homeland bars them to play a role in formation of primary image about destination. Actually non-resident status limits their function within the secondary image formation activity. Overrated or exaggerated and underrated portrayal is possible when magnification or minimization cognitive distortion syndrome prevails in non-resident locals' mind.

Non-local resident

Among the residents, non-locals or non-natives, though culturally stranger, observe socio-cultural life of locals ardently. It is possible because they have opportunity to observe it from a close proximity for a considerable period of time by virtue of their resident status within local socio-cultural milieu. It is definitely longer than any other culturally stranger group. Thus an objective or unbiased portrayal of destination image by them is fairly possible if they do not live as closed resident group. Sometimes it would be more objective,

authentic and reliable than natives who are habitual observer and bearer of local culture. Often an objective portrayal of destination for natives is quite difficult unless they are either expert in the subjects that contain destination image contents or keen observer. Accordingly their role in destination imaging at visitation state is vital, thus to primary image formation. Chances of biased and subjective portrayal by non-local residents cannot be denied as sometimes their observation involves either inferiority complex in relation to native culture or superiority feeling about their own culture.

Local residents

A destination always requires local residents' involvement in developing a destination as touristic place; towards its promotion, for preparation and sell of tourism demand led products and services; to make arrangement of all sorts of services, facilities, and amenities that a visitor usually needs or demands. Indeed locals' involvement in this regard varies widely, spread through all three major stages of imaging, and contributes, directly or indirectly, towards destination imaging. Their inputs are considered to be authentic as they are the provider, bearer, genuine spokesperson, and interpreters of both tangible and intangible services, attractions, traditions, heritage and cultural contents of the destination. However a macro divide within locals based on the nature of their involvement would be useful. Primarily divide among directly involved in tourism, indirectly associated to tourism, no apparent association with tourism at destination level would be quite likely as its existence is already perceptible. (fig.1)

Locals no association with tourism

Locals who do not have any apparent link to tourism like reporters, journalists, columnist of local news agencies; bloggers of any blog other than tourism; social

media users; and people who neither socially nor economically benefited from tourism etc produce, convey, and transmit a large amount and varied types of information while dealing local issues. A collective effect of all those information is clearly evident in destination image formation. Effects, whether positive or negative and permanent or temporary, are valuable as transmitters at least do not have any liability to suit the vested tourism interests. Information could be subjective or objective in relation to context where it could be used or the issue that it deals with. When it becomes subjective; personal or some sort of vested interest opinion, interpretation, emotions and judgment become dominant; often considered as ill-suited to overall destination image formation. On the contrary objective information is impersonal, factual, free from any kind of vested interest based interpretation, thus apposite to destination imaging. When reporter, journalist, columnist, blogger, social media users, and commoners work at organizations other than tourism, portrayal of destination's image usually becomes unbiased as their circle of interests is not conditional to vested concern options of tourism and purpose-goal is not linked directly to the tourism destination imaging. Hence their writings, reports, posting, texting indirectly affect destination imaging.

Locals involved indirectly in tourism

Publishers and printers of tourism related documents, employees of Public works and revenue departments, local artisans, suppliers of different materials to various tourism enterprises, and many more similar professionals are associated to tourism indirectly as their activities do not connected directly to tourism. Sometimes they work for tourism but on demand. Tourism's share in the total volume of consumption of their product and services is fairly low and insignificant. Probably this

factor makes them ignorant about destination imaging. Among them few like local artisans have little but direct bearing on destination image formation if products made by them are sold to the visitors, directly or through middlemen. The quality attributes of local art and craft certainly contribute to image differentiation.

Locals involved directly in tourism

Agents from supply or destination side, directly involved in travel and tourism, have a common objective or purpose-goal for destination imaging at all three stages. It is certainly promotion and marketing a destination as tourism product; in turn sell it, make business or earn livelihood. Procedures or techniques taken by them for imaging at pre-purchase or promotion and marketing state vary widely. Predominantly it is blatant advertisement through different traditional media and recently developed social media. Across the table interactions or texting, messaging, and uploading related photos or videos in different social and personal digital media are found common in communicating information or impression about destination image and products to the targeted consumers. Travel writing or reporting and travel talk show by celebrity in audio-visual media, both sponsored and independent, are also used to convey destination image. A difference in purpose-goal in this respect is clearly evident. While sponsored writings and talks are keen in commoditising a destination for tourism business, independents like to convey the common fact.

Second stage of image formation is visitation state where image is characterised by both tangible and intangible attributes and acquired by visitors based on knowledge obtained through self senses or came from locals in frequent interactions with them during visitation. Cognition at visitation state involves experiencing, evaluation and assessment. Visitors get

opportunity to experience the destination image, evaluate and assess the image that they acquired during pre-visit state from secondary sources. Tour companies of tourist generating destination usually go for familiarization visit to have a direct experience of destination to be sold in the tourist market, evaluate and assess the information about destination acquired from secondary sources at selection state. Such visitation is crucial for packaging, sale, and marketing. Destination experiences and its images are structured or shaped based on information, ideas, impressions supplied by primary destination imaging agents or sources. Thus visitors' experience at the destination and formation of destination's image in their mind, whether satisfactory or dissatisfactory and modified or as per expectation, largely depends on the portrayal of destination by those primary agents who are normally the locals from supply-side. Cognition process of acquiring knowledge of destination image in this state may be viewed as the sum of experiences acquired through self senses and information, impression, ideas received from primary agents while visitation. The most reliable and effective primary agents for destination imaging at visitation state are those who have opportunity of frequent and periodic customer contacts and interactions.

A divide within the periphery of direct involvement based on periodicity, frequency, and total temporal length of customer contact and interaction becomes crucial and logical then. Divides are frequent, infrequent, and isolated (fig.1). The series is hierarchical. Tour guides and managers, trip leaders, arrival-departure transfer staffs, housekeeping personnel, concierge and front desk employees of all tourist establishments including tourist accommodation and restaurants, tourist vehicle drivers and attendants, employees of tourist information centres etc are only a

few among many who have opportunity of frequent and periodic customer contacts and interactions. Tourism entrepreneurs, local cultural performers, planning people, travel writers, chefs, advertisers, celebrity spokesperson have lesser chances of customer contact and interactions than the opportunities that locals of frequent category have. Isolated category performs support service; does not have direct contacts and interactions with the customers. Support service staffs of all tourism establishments like accounts, maintenance, kitchen services etc. belong to this category.

Actually interaction with entire lot of residents within short span of visit is neither feasible nor viable; rather it is possible and logical only with a little group of locals. Among thousands or millions of local residents a group of locals, who have opportunity of frequent and periodic contacts and interactions with visitors at visitation state, came to be the only known to visitors. It becomes possible by virtue of their job position and its nature or due to their frequent, periodic, and repeat presence throughout visits at different in person interactive sessions. Above all interaction continues through a language known to visitors. Language of communication makes the interaction easier and understanding better. On the contrary inability to speak in local language bars the visitors to interact and then to know the larger local mass. Hence visitors consider those frequent faces as spokesperson or representative of destination, visitation experience is mostly done through their eyes, and their information and interpretation inputs make visitors' understanding about destination better. At visitation visitors spend most time with accompanying tour managers or leaders and tour escorts and second highest time spend normally be with the tour guides. Logically visitors' interactions mostly occur with them. Thus images,

visitors take back, formed and shaped by those managers and guides etc.

Reliability of information, ideas, and impressions is important for authentic cognition at any stage of imaging. People commonly believe that when it comes from agents belong to local community are genuine, valid, accurate, and near to the fact. Belief does not corroborate the fact of actual happenings always as besides authentic information induced, overrated, exaggerated information do exist. Indeed information about destination are largely reconstructed when it is distributed, received or requested from local imaging agents involved directly in tourism like advertisers, destination promoters, tour companies, bloggers work for blogs linked to destination, and any other tourist business at the destination. For the most part, reconstruction is done at the will of those agents to suit their vested business interest. Overtly their aim is to increase tourist arrival at the destination while covertly it is ensuring multiplication of profit out of tourist business. Local tourism business establishment sponsored travel reports, stories, experience writings; celebrity appearance at audio-visual media etc produce a vast amount of information that directly or indirectly play significant role in destination image formation. Actually all those information by and large are reconstructed too. Intention of reconstruction is to serve the vested business interests of the sponsors. It leads to unrealistic, overrated, exaggerated, and pseudo portrayal of destination image. Information and impression conferred by the tour guides, managers, and leaders could be objective or subjective but seldom be inauthentic as generation-transmission and consumption-corroboration-evaluation of information occur simultaneously.

As resident and inheritor as well as bearer of cultural and heritage contents or attribute of the destination local community has a crucial role in destination imaging. Their involvements in this respect are quite diverse in nature, magnitude, function, volume, and quality. Considering all those variables a typological divide is postulated and described already. This typological divide is given below in a chart form (fig.1).

Figure 1 Destination Imaging Agents
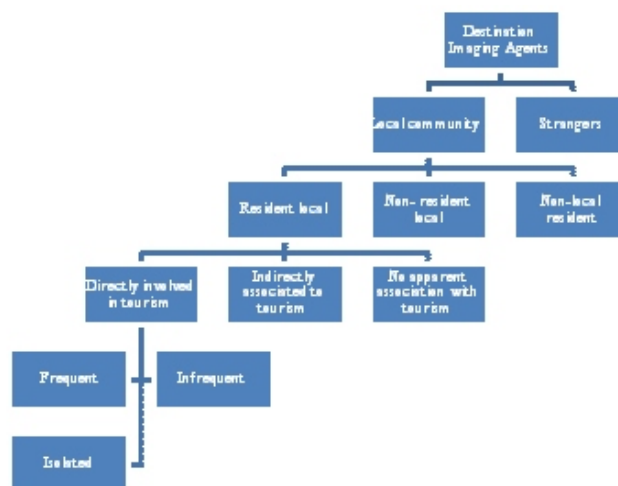
Destination imaging by local community in post- industrial state

The concept of destination imaging and its agent was non-existent in pre industrial and industrial state though travelling and making tour were perceptible. Accordingly destination image formation within self or for the known people of traveller did exist. Sources of destination image formation were autonomous, solicited and unsolicited type. Autonomous sources were generally independently produced printed or written travel reports, diaries, articles and travelogues; thus well documented. On the other hand information received, whether solicited or unsolicited, about a destination at official meetings; unofficial gatherings of family, friends, neighbours, and in any place where the topic of conversation focuses on a specific destination played crucial role in image formation too. Technique is commonly known as word of mouth publicity. Information received from those sources supposedly had no vested interest of tourism business and profit progression, thereby chances of being unbiased is logically high. Imaging became subjective too as visitation is predominantly intangible and heterogenic, dependent of immediate social as well as psycho-physical settings of visit, and visitors' pre-conceive notions or ideological prejudices, developed upon their habitual socio-economic or political context.

Mass tourism state

When an entirely new economy emerged out of tourism in the early post-industrial state, a large scale commoditisation of destination image at the mass tourism's behest came to be apparent. Destination imaging then became volume of demand and product driven, subjective to entrepreneurs' expectation about the norms of experience on holiday. Thus it prompts reconstruction and reproduction of destination image towards commoditisation. Constant image tailoring within the tourism milieu was prevalent mainly at marketing, promotion, and visitation state, done by persons and organisations involved directly to tourism. Gross distortion of destination attribute and denial of live reality inputs in imaging at pre-purchase and visitation state, turned the tourists' experience either into bubble feel or ghetto (Krippendorf 2002). Eventually it blurred distinction between authentic and reconstructed counterfeit image. Groups involved directly to tourism and having frequent and infrequent interaction opportunity with visitors play major role in reconstruction or restructuring the image.

According to the nature of their involvement in reconstruction two stratified groups could be located: tourees and middleman. Tourees do the image modification to meet either tourists' demand or profit progression need of the industry. Middlemen mediate the interaction with tourists by manipulating image contents for economic gain in mass tourism demand context (Van den Berghe and Keyes 1984, Van den Berghe 1992). Tourees and middlemen took up the position of vanguard, tinkered with emotion, images, attributive content of the place where they do live. It gave them the power to modify the imaging contents at the will of mass tourism entrepreneurs. Sponsored travel writers and reporters; accompanying tour managers, guides, escorts, leaders; concierge people, cultural show performers and many more play the role of either touree or middleman and sometimes both. Thus new images, new identities were manufactured. Indignation created among some within and outside the hosts too. History then began anew (Ray 2017).

Alternatives' state

Indignation against the staged authenticity or reconstructed image initiated alternative tourism in various forms. Without initiating a counter movement, alternatives promote commoditisation and reconstruction of destination image but in a defensive manner, restricted scale, within a limited

operational area. By restriction alternatives promote elitists tourism to make similar volume of profit that was made in mass practices. Elite tourists are normally aware of their exotic differences with hosts and their economic and cultural hegemony and superiority over hosts. Hence destination image is reconstructed for promotion-marketing and at visitation state to suit elitist ego, tastes, and choices. Tourees and middlemen were active as self styled authentic dealer-broker-interpreter of destination image. Interaction between tourists and native is generally brokered and controlled by them, becomes restricted within certain area. Middlemen take the role of mediator occupying a crucial space where industrialised modernity meets the authentic exotic native or ethnic community. Subsequently destination imaging through visitors' senses becomes restricted, thereby absolutely dependent on tourees and middlemen. Destination image formation thereby becomes either partial or driven by varied vested interests as mentioned.

Neo socio-technological reality state

At neo reality state, increased practices of sharing information-impressions about a destination and individual travel experiences in digital or social media unfold reliable image and crude reality of destination, authenticated through uploaded and shared contents of live realities. Both pseudo or "hyperreal" (Baudrillard 1981) imaging and restricted or pseudo experience on holiday comes into conflict with the truth of holiday experiences shared in social media. Regular and frequent access to those contents accelerates longing for authentic imaging and live reality experience, in the way the natives perceive, among the new generation tourists and thus to making their perception of destination and its image better.

Approaches to destination imaging developed within mass and alternative practices lost its contextual relevance and eventually become insignificant too in this state. It leads to the gradual shift in the paradigm of imaging. The shift becomes apparent in desire of presenting destination in authentic and meaningful manner. Majority of local tourism entrepreneurs and destination managers set a new trend in marketing and promotional activities emphasizing authentic portrayal of destination image while marketing and promoting a destination. Comprehending neo socio-technological reality destination promoters create different space within their websites for uploading and sharing photos, information, and comments of the live travel experience of their clients. Rapid increase in clients' participation in it assists the tourism entrepreneurs to understand the SWOT position of destination imaging quickly, influences future tourist market to generate an authentic image before visiting the destination, and makes the choice and selection of destination to be visited in an authentic and faster way. Specifically previous visitors play a pivotal role in image formation and modifying the purchase decision of future tourists, and subsequently in promoting a destination. Hence marketing and promotion become more authentic, cost effective, and faster than that of conventional one, existed in pre-digital era. Destination imaging by previous tourists thus begin to be prioritized in promotion and marketing which eventually put a halt to the practice of imagining, experiencing, and gazing a destination holidays at the will of third party from supply side or through the eyes of tourees or middlemen. All those initiatives together made a shift within the imaging paradigm at marketing, promotion, and practice stage. It is a shift from product or producer orientation to tourist orientation and producer or provider control promotion to social media users' opinion dependent promotion.

Distinction between deliberately manufactured or reconstructed image and authentic traditional versions of it began to disappear, effort of imitating traditionally accepted image becomes restricted, and original or natural versions eventually replace the pseudo versions or manufactured myth. It makes tourees and middlemen irrelevant or out of context. A shift from mediator or modifier to coordinator or manager of authentic imaging and experience arrangements for tourists on holiday travel is quite coherent to the new context. Thus concept, technique, practice of destination imaging developed within mass and alternative tourism context, is redefined.

CONCLUSION

Role of local community in destination imaging throughout travel history never becomes insignificant or trivial but initiative to change imaging concept and practice by them in response to the neo socio-technological reality and challenges is the most striking and functional. Despite its immense importance, local community's role did not receive much attention in researches on destination imaging.

Image formation about travelled destinations in the mind of travellers and known people to the traveller is an age old tradition though practices involved in it and its concept changed through the ages. A conceptual frame of destination imaging has emerged only in the post industrial era at the behest of organised mass tourism while practices prevailed since early days without the conceptual knowledge. Local community's involvement in destination imaging is imperative by virtue of the host status. Visitors make their destination experience and form an image of destination mainly through the eyes of locals or out of information and impression transmitted by locals to visitors at visitation. It is relevant all through tourism history. Major shift in this regard became

apparent only in post industrial state when the locals' involvement as supply side service provider in organised tourism business sector happen to be the most requisite by default. Destination imaging is then marked by shift from unorganised and casual imaging to vested interest driven and organized imaging activity, emergence of a hierarchically stratified specialised professionals' group to serve the cause of vested interest of mass and alternative tourism in imaging activity, transformation of unpolished unmodified imaging contents to reconstructed and modified one, substitution of traditionally reliable impression by pseudo and restructured impression, mediator group controlled interaction between visitor and natives at visitation state, bubble image formation, and eventual disappearing of distinction between traditionally accepted authentic image and its reconstructed pseudo version, increased dependency on touree and middlemen for image formation during visit, and deliberately manufactured image.

Increased practices of sharing individual travel experiences along with information as well as impressions about a destination in digital or social media led to the most striking changes in the destination imaging practices. Changes began out of conflict between the truth or live realities of destination, surfaced overtly when shared in social media, and the hyperreal or pseudo image developed deliberately at the behest of mass and alternative practice.

Frequent access to live reality contents related to travel in different social media accelerates redefinition process of destination imaging thus to gradual shift in the paradigm of imaging. The shifts are apparent in the development of desire of portrayal and presentation of destination image in meaningful manner in terms of authenticity among majority of supply-side entrepreneurs; in longing for authentic comprehension of image among new

generation tourists; in portraying more objective impression than that of subjective; in using diverse social and digital media frequently for imaging as it is faster, cost effective and authenticated by contents like photos or videos of live realities; in giving importance of opinions from previous tourists imaging, in emphasizing on tourist orientation instead of product or producer orientation while do imaging and on social media users' opinion dependent promotion. Hence destination imaging approaches in terms of concept, technique, practice, developed within mass and alternative practices lost its contextual relevance and begin to redefined.

REFERENCES

Ahmed, Z. U. (1991). The influence of the components of a state's tourist image on product positioning strategy. *Tourism Management,* December, 331-340.

Ahmed, Z. U. (1996). The need for the identification of the constituents of a destination's tourist image: A promotion segmentation perspective. *Journal of Professional Services Marketing,* 14 (1), 37-60.

Alhemoud, A., and Armstrong, E. (1996). Image of tourism attractions in Kuwait. *Journal of Travel Research*, 34 (Spring), 76-80.

Anderssen, P., and R. T. Colberg (1973). Multivariate Analysis in Travel Research: A Tool for Travel Package Design and Market Segmentation. In The Fourth Annual Conference Proceedings of TTRA. Sun Valley, ID: Travel and Tourism Research Association, pp. 225-238.

Ashworth, G., & Goodall, B. (1988). Tourism images: Marketing considerations. In B.Goodall & G. Ashworth(Eds.), *Marketing in the Tourism Industry.* London: Croom Helm.

Baloglu,S.(1997).The relationship between destination images and sociodemographic and trip characteristics of international travellers. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* 3(3), 221-233.

Baloglu, S., & Brinberg, D. (1997). Affective images of tourism destinations. *Journal of Travel Research.* (Spring), 11-15.

Baloglu, S., & McCleary, K. W. (1999). A model of destination image. *Annals of Tourism Research.* 26(4), 868-897.

Baudrillard J. (1981). *Simulacres et Simulation*, pub. Éditions Galilée, *Simulacra and Simulation* (The English translation) by Sheila Glaser, 1994, University of Michigan Press (I draw here on Baudrillard's essay) '*Simulacra and Simulations*' reprinted in abridged form in Peter Brooker (ed.) (1992) *Modernism/Postmodernism.* London, Longman.

Bramwell,B. & Rawding, L. (1996). Tourism marketing images of industrial cities. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 23(1), 201-221.

Chaudhary, M. (2000). India's image as a tourist destination a perspective of foreign tourists. *Tourism Management,* 21, 293-297.

Chen, P. J., and D. L. Kerstetter (1999). International Students' Image of Rural Pennsylvania as a Travel Destination. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37 (February), 256-266.

Chen, J. S., and C. H. C. Hsu (2000). Measurement of Korean Tourists' Perceived Images of Overseas Destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38 (May), 411-416.

Chon, K. (1990). The role of destination image in tourism: a review and discussion. *The Tourist Review,* 45 (2), 2-9.

Court, B., R. A. Lupton (1997). Customer Portfolio Development: Modeling

Destination Adapters, Inactives, and Rejecters." *Journal of Travel Research,* 36 (1), 35-43.

Dann, G. (1977). Anomie, Ego-enhancement and Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 4(4),184-194.

Day, J., Skidmore, S., and Koller, T. (2002). Image Selection in Destination Positioning: A New Approach. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 8 (2), 177-186.

Downs, R.M., & Stea, D. (1977). *Maps in minds-Reflections on cognitive mapping.* New York: Harper & Row.

Driscoll, A., and Lawson, R. (1990). New Zealand's position as a destination for New Zealanders: A multidimensional scaling approach. *New Zealand Journal of Business,* 12, 105-118.

Echtner, C. M., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1991). The meaning and measurement of destination image. *The Journal of Tourism Studies,* 2 (2), 2-12.

Echtner, C. M., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (2003).The meaning and measurement of destination image. Reprint of original article published(1991). The meaning and measurement of destination image. *The Journal of Tourism Studies,*2 (2), 2-12. *The Journal of Tourism Studies,*14 (1), 37-48.Retrieved on 06th April, 2018 from *https://www.jcu.edu.au/__data /assets/pdf_file/0006/122487/jcudev_012 328.pdf*

Embacher, J., & Buttle, F. (1989). A repertory grid analysis of Austria's image as a summer vacation destination. *Journal of Travel Research,*(Winter), 3-7.

Ferrario, F. F. (1979). The evaluation of tourist resources: an applied methodology. *Journal of Travel Research,* (Winter),18-22.

Gartner, W. (1989). Tourism Image: Attribute Measurement of State Tourism Products Using Multidimensional Scaling Techniques. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(2), 16-20.

Gartner, W. C., & Shen, J. (1992). The impact of Tiananmen Square on China's tourism image. *Journal of Travel Research,* (Spring),47-52.

Gartner, W. (1993). Image Formation Process. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 2(2/3):191215. Retrieved on 4th april, 2018, from *https://www.researchgate.net/...Gartner2 /...Image_Formation_Process/.../Image-Forma*

Gunn, C. (1972). *Vacationscape: Designing Tourist Regions.* Texas, Austin: Bureau of Business Research, University of Texas.

Hall, Derek. & Richards, Greg. (2000). The community: a sustainable concept in tourism development?. In Hall Derek & Richards Greg(Eds.), *Tourism and Sustainable community Development* (pp.1-5).New York: Rutledge.

Human, B. (1999). Kodachrome Icons: Photography, Place and the Theft of Identity. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 11(2/3), 80-84.

Illum, S., & Schaefer, A. (1995). Destination attributes: Perspectives of tour operators and destination marketers. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* 4 (4), 1-14.

Iwashita, C. (2003). Media Construction of Britain as a Destination for Japanese Tourists: Social Constructionism and Tourism. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 4(4), 3-31.

Kimberlee, Morrison. (August 7, 2015). Social media and Travel Go Hand in Hand (Infoggraphic). *Adweek [Online].* Retrieved on August 10, 2017 from *www.adweek.com/digital/social-media-and-travel-go-hand-in-hand-infographic/*

Kotler, P. (1982). *Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations.* New Jersey, Engle wood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Kotler,P., Haider,D.H.,& Rein, I. (1993).

Marketing places. New York: The Free Press.

Krippendorf, J. (2002). *The Holiday Makers: Understanding the Impact of Leisure Travel*. Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann.

Lubbe, B. (1998). Primary Image as a Dimension of Destination Image: An Empirical Assessment. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 7(4), 21-43.

Lynch, K. (1960). *The image of the city*. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press.

MacKay, K. J., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (1997). Pictorial element of destination in image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(3), 537-565.

MacKay, K. J., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2000). An Exploration of Cross-Cultural Destination Image Assessment. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(4), 417-423.

Mayo, E. J. (1973). Regional images and regional travel behaviour. *The Travel Research Association Fourth Annual Conference Proceedings*. Sun Valley, Idaho.

Matejka, J. K. (1973). Critical factors in vacation area selection. *Arkansas Business and Economic Review*, 6, 17-19.

Mazanec, J. A. (1997). Satisfaction tracking for city tourists. In Mazanec, J. A. (Ed), *International City Tourism*. London: Pinter.

Milman, A., & Pizam, A. (1995). The role of awareness and familiarity with a destination: The Central Florida case. *Journal of Travel Research*, 33 (3), 21-27.

Murphy, L. (1999). Australia's image as a holiday destination perceptions of Backpacker visitors. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 8(3), 21- 45.

Phelps, A. (1986). Holiday destination image - the problem of assessment. *Tourism Management*, (September), 168-180.

Pike, Steven D. (2002). Destination Image Analysis: A Review of 142 Papers from 1973-2000.*Tourism Management*, 23(5), 541-549. Accessed from http://eprints.qut.edu.au in March 2018

Pike, S., & Ryan, C. (2004). Destination positioning analysis through a comparison of cognitive, affective and conative perceptions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42(4), 333-342. Retrieved on 5th April, 2018 from QUT Digital Repository: http://eprints.qut.edu.au/

Pritchard, M. P., & Walkup, K. W. (2000). A qualitative approach to destination assessment: the case of Western Australia. *31st Annual TTRA Conference Proceedings*. Travel & Tourism Research Association.

Ray, S. (2017). Approaches towards Ethno-cultural Contents of the hosts and Socially Responsible Tourism. *Tourism: Theory and Practice*, 15(1 &2), 28-58.

Reynolds, W.H. (1965). The role of the consumer in image building. *California Management Review*, (Spring), 69-76.

Ritchie, J. R. B., & Zins, M. (1978). Culture as determinant of the attractiveness of a tourism region. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 5(2), 252-267.

Saarinen, T.F. (1976). *Environmental planning and perception and behavior*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Selby, M., & Morgan, N. J. (1996). Reconstruing place image: A case study of its role in destination market research. *Tourism Managemen*, 17 (4), 287-294.

Tasci, Asli D. A. & Gartner William C. (2007).Destination Image and Its Functional Relationships. *Journal of Travel Research*, 45(4), 413-425.

Van den Berghe Pierre L. (1992). Tourism and the Ethnic division of Labor. *Annals of Tourism Research*,19, 234-249.

Van den Berghe, P. and Keyes, C.(1984).Introduction:Tourism and

Recreated ethnicity. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 11, 343-352.

Wee, C. H., Hakam, A. N., & Ong, E. (1985). Temporal and regional differences in image of a tourist destination: implications for promoters of tourism. *Service Industries Journal,* 5, 104-114.

Young, M. (1999). The relationship between tourist motivations and the interpretation of place meanings. *Tourism Geographies,* 1(4), 387-405.

BRIEF PROFILE OF THE AUTHOR

Samik Ray is associated with RLG Govt. of India, Department of Tourism as well as he is Editor of 'Tourism Theory and Practice'. Prior to this he was also associated with MPTI (Kolkata), and WTCC School of Trade and Commerce. samikray@rediffmail.com

Promoting Gender Sensitivity and Environment Protection through Sustainable Tourism Development: A Review

PRIYAKRUSHNA MOHANTY & ANU CHANDRAN
Department of Tourism Studies, School of Management, Pondicherry University, Puducherry, India

NILMADHAB SWAIN
Department of Philosophy, School of Humanities, Pondicherry University, Puducherry, India

Abstract

Over the past few decades, the concerns relating to the social and environmental impacts of tourism has intensified significantly giving birth to an array of path breaking forms of tourism such as community based tourism, ecotourism, rural tourism and sustainable tourism. Notwithstanding the divergence in the operational definitions associated with these types, gender equality and environmental sustainability are the common underpinning aspects across the genres. It is estimated that 60-70% of the jobs generated by tourism are taken up by women highlighting the potential of tourism to promote gender equity. Further, there is huge consensus across the various disciplines regarding the relations between gender and environment, which in contemporary research dialect is referred to as *"Ecofeminism"*. Finally, environment is one of the most important resources for tourism development because tourism depends on environment for a lot of resources required for its development. In this backdrop, the current work attempts to unveil the endearing relationship that can be sketched in a cyclic format between tourism development, gender and environment. Throughout the academia, these relations have been mostly studied in isolation, yet integrative studies combining all these three spheres are scarce. This paper strives to bridge the above said gap in the existing literature and contextualize theoretical constructs by assimilating the leads from reviewing academic works, journals, periodicals and archives of media reports. The extent to which the linkages between the above mentioned factors can complement sustainable development ventures are examined in the work.

INTRODUCTION

Ever since its formal reorganization as an industry having substantial potential for economic and social upliftment in the post world war II era (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997), the tourism industry has grown from strength to strength to become one of the largest industries in the world and to stage a sustained pattern of growth (UNWTO, 2016). In 2015, tourism industry contributed a total of 9.8% (US $7.2 trillion) to the world GDP along with providing 9.5% (284 million) of the global jobs which is equivalent to 1 in every 11 jobs across the globe. Further, the growth rate of international travel and tourism industry (2.8%) has not only outpaced the growth rates of its counterparts like manufacturing and retailing industry but also the global GDP (WTTC, 2016). All of the above said figures have made the industry to be considered as one of the biggest drivers of the economy (Rogerson & Lemon, 2002) and a prominent tool for global prosperity, modernization and globalization (William, 1998).

After the World War II, there was a serious need for economic revival and hence industries were developed with primary focus on economic aspects only (Willis, 2005). As a result, the initial phases of tourism industry development saw a sudden increase in the number of group tours (e.g. group tours by Thomas Cook) especially in the mass working class of people (Towner, 1995).

In the late 1970s, there was a rising consensus among the people that economic development alone was not enough for development and social as well as environmental developments are also the integral parts of development (Willis, 2005). Gender inequality was at its peak at that time owing to the male dominated phase of industrialization. Women were confined to the boundaries of the home and were neither allowed to participate in the activities that

earned livelihood for the family nor were their opinions considered while making decisions relating to household. These problems worried many and provided inspiration for academicians like Diana Pearce (1978), who authored the article titled 'The Feminization of Poverty: Women' that highlighted the presence of more acute poverty among women in comparison to men.

Consequently, all the industries were instructed to advocate gender equity and a lot has changed since then. In this regard, tourism industry has emerged as one of the front runner industries for promoting gender equality and environmental protection. Though, there is presence of many opposing views in this context, majority of the papers advocate the above said fact. It is estimated that 60-70% of the employment generated by hotel, catering and tourism industry are taken up by women (ILO, 2008). Also, tourism is one of the few industries that have shown remarkable potential for environment protection by providing significant incentives and fillip both economically and culturally (Robinson, 1972 & Butler, 1991).

Similarly, due to industrial revolution, there were severe negative impacts on environment and the world faced never heard problems like global warming and ozone layer depletion (Donella et al., 1972). It was then when the various stakeholders like organizations, Government and private agencies, NGOs and academicians started to talk about environmental economics, justice and ethics etc (Seneca, 1974).

One interesting area in the environmental protection discipline is Ecofeminism which opines that women share a special connection with nature by the virtue of their regular interaction with nature and these connections should not be ignored in any case (Shiva, 2016). Since its recognisation as a formal term in 1970, the concept of ecofeminism has focused on the specific

and increasing attention given by women on the aspect of environmental protection (Gaard, 2010). Therefore, there is a clear relation existing between women empowerment and environmental protection (Shiva, Mies and Salleh, 2014).

Finally, there was emergence of various form or types of tourism like Rural Tourism (Chow, 1980), Community based tourism (Dernoi, 1988), Farm tourism (Dernoi, 1983 & Frater, 1983) and Ecotourism (Ceballos, 1987 & Boo, 1990). All these kinds of tourism not only went an extra mile to ensure the principle of sustainability but also described the importance of nature in the process of tourism development (Eber, 1992).

Though academic works involving tourism development, gender equality and environment protection are not new to the tourism scholarship; yet integrative works associating the three aspects are exiguous. This paper strives to bridge the above said gap in the existing literature and contextualize theoretical constructs by assimilating the leads from reviewing academic works, journals, periodicals and archives of media reports. Systematic exposition points to the intrinsic capabilities of tourism as a solution for problems with respect to gender inequality and environmental decoration prevailing especially in underdeveloped and developing regions.

Keeping all the above mentioned factors in mind, the current work attempts to unveil the endearing relationship between the three aspects that can be sketched in a cyclic relation format. The current work channelizes the reviews and opinions relating to the three aspects towards bigger aspect sustainability (of tourism industry). Thus, it highlights that, sustainable tourism stands at the centre of the cyclic relation i.e. to sustain, tourism industry has to take necessary steps towards ensuring gender equity which will lead to further protection

of environmental resources since women share a close relationship with nature and finally the protected environment can act as resources for further tourism development. Ensuring all these factors will lead towards promoting sustainable tourism development.

Study Objectives

The paper has been designed as a conceptual study with a multifaceted review mechanism. One of the primary aims of this paper is highlight the academic and intellectual outlook hovering over the nexus of gender issues, tourism and environmental discourse. The work assimilates the leads from the concerns raised by various practitioners, academicians, agencies and institutions to ensure the aspect of sustainability. It tries to bring out a working framework from the theories and academic conjectures that underscore the basic aspect of sustainability and links them with the overall agenda of this paper.

Research Methodology

The paper adapts a conceptual research framework with desk based review approach. Most of its sections are qualitative in nature as it tries to verify an existing relation through the commentaries, views, opinions and suggestions of various notable authors and scholars across the tourism, gender and environment discourse. Articles in the referred journals were taken as the base of the paper as they are believed to be the best form of academic communication (Creswell, 2009; Xiao & Smith, 2006). The articles were retrieved by searching keywords in the major search engines like Google scholar, EBSCO and JSTOR following which Content Analysis was exercised to outline the different critical views associated with the concepts. Then the views were channelized in a structured format to build constructive arguments for the paper. Finally, concluding remarks were provided by the author backed by the reviews done.

Tourism and Gender- A Reportage

Ensuring equality among genders and putting an end to all forms of discrimination against women the fundamentals of human right and the core values of UN (Bunch, 1990). Even though, equality among genders means empowerment of both men and women, majority of the academic works project women empowerment as a synonym of gender equality (Ferguson, 2010).

Tourism, being a leisure and recreation industry involves a lot of human elements and relations; so, it has a significant influence on gender issues and vice-versa (Swain, 1995). From a general perspective both the genders get affected by tourism equally (Swain & Smith, 1989). However, tourism industry is often considered as one of those industries that has shown ample of potential for solving gender related issues (inequalities) and provide them economical, political and social empowerment especially in the developing regions of the world where the upward mobility is very difficult (UNWTO, 2011). The UN, (2011) acknowledged the same when it quoted tourism industry as "vehicle for gender equality and women empowerment. United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) has endorsed the goal of women empowerment in more than one occasions and it had celebrated the 2005 World Tourism Day under the broader theme called 'Tourism Opens Doors for Women'. Taleb Rifai, the then Secretary of UNWTO had stated that "Tourism sector can do more to step it up on gender equality" (UNWTO, 2015).

Tourism is a front runner industry in the aspect of job generation, contributing 3.6% and 9.5% to the global direct and total (direct+ indirect+ induced) employment (WTTC, 2016). It is estimated that, women take up 60-70% of those jobs generated by tourism (ILO, 2008). Further, the jobs generated by tourism industry are mostly

part time jobs or jobs that are done on shift basis. This gives women better chance for participation thanks to the volumes of leisure hours that are left out after doing the household works (Women1st, 2010). Tourism generally generated the jobs like guiding, accommodation and food arrangements and making souvenirs that can be performed by women better than men (Lama, 2000). As discussed above, women have a better understanding of the nature and hence, ventures like ecotourism or rural tourism which has greater linkages with nature can be better handled by women (Scheyvens, 2000). The Millenium Development Goals (MDGs) formulated by the UN asserts gender equality and women empowerment as its third goal and undoubtedly, the above narrations point to the fact that tourism is one of the industries to look for in the future.

The concept of Ecofeminism- A Critique

In terms of patriarchal system, women are considered to be more closely associated with nature than males which bring out a special place (in comparison to male) for women in understanding and shaping the human and non human nature (King, 1989). There is huge consensus across the various disciplines regarding the relations between gender and environment, which in contemporary research dialect is referred to as "Ecofeminism" (Diamond & Orenstein, 1990). Mary Mellor, (1997) defines Ecofeminism as

"…a movement that sees a connection between the exploitation and degradation of the natural world and the subordination and oppression of women. It emerged in the mid-1970s alongside second-wave feminism and the green movement. Ecofeminism brings together elements of the feminist and green movements, while at the same time offering a challenge to both. It takes from the green movement a concern about the impact of human activities on the non-human world and from feminism the view of humanity as gendered in ways that subordinate, exploit and oppress women."

An in-depth investigation into the Ecofeminism realm will reveal four major commonalities. (1) There exists a great link between the oppression and domination of women and the domination and exploitation of environment (nature) (2) Women are assumed to have better understanding and connection with nature (3) As the suppression of women and the exploitation of women have occurred simultaneously, women are believed to have higher stake in dealing the environmental problem and (4) Both the movements relating to women and environment aims for a nonhierarchical and egalitarian relationship (Agarwal, 1992).

There is ample of empirical evidences that speak for the involvement of women in protecting the environment (Kirk, 2014). One of the best examples in this regard is the Green Belt Movement (1977) which was an initiative of Wangari Maathai, who with the help of rural Kenyan women took steps to wipeout deforestation, promote plantation, stop erosion of soil, generate income and restore traditional cooking fuel (Maathai, 2004). Another exemplary work in the Indian context is the Chipko Movement of Rajsthan (1973). In this movement or andolan, 84 villagers commanded by a female named Amrita Devi risked their life to protect the trees that were ordered by the king (Maharaja) to be felled (Singh, Mohanka, & Sah, 2007). Women also played a major role in protesting against a series of hydroelectric dam on the Narmada river Valley at Gujurat (Routledge, 2003). Similarly, the movement led US activist group called Women Strike for Peace is marked as the biggest national peace protest of the 20th Century (Swerdlow, 1993) in which almost 50,000 women headed by Dagmar Wilson walked across 60 cities of US to protest against nuclear war (Swerdlow, 1982). The works of eminent Indian scholar Vandana

Shiva on the concepts of alter-globalization (Bakker, 2007) and green movements (Shiva, 1991) only reflects the concern that a woman has for nature.

If women are put in the driver seat while deciding environmental related affairs, then it may empower their voice and provide a platform to share their knowledge on nature that may act as a guideline for Governments in making sure the minimal affects of natural disaster (Plan UK, 2011) and assuring sustainability (Mitchell, Tanner & Lussier, 2007). All the above cases and narrations justifies that gender and environment has a strong connection and in order to achieve environmental protection, gender issues must be solved and vice-versa.

The Dynamics of Tourism vis-à-vis Environmental Protection Mechanism

The relationship between tourism and environment is a complex affaire. While some activities of tourism have the potential to act towards the protection and conservation of environment, many of them can contribute adversely if not planned properly. Unlike mass tourism, which is considered as a threat to the natural environment; moderate and equitable forms of tourism is believed to have beneficial effects for both the natural and man-made environment (Cohen, 1978). This section of this article speaks about the latter types of tourism. Not withstanding the above mentioned argument, it is an undenied fact that the natural resources and environment are the quintessential elements of tourism development. The environment and natural resources of a place (in whichever form or designation) plays a handful role in carrying out the tourism activities and in many cases, shaping the elements of the tourism process e.g. tourist behavior (Farrel & Runyan, 1991). It means there is a symbiotic relationship existing between tourism and environment and hence, their development must be such that both benefit from each other (Budowski, 1976).

Over the years, many developing countries like Fiji, Kenya, and South Africa etc. have realized that the key to their economic development lies with using the tourism industry as an "export" industry. These countries having abundant natural sceneries and wild life can promote tourism to earn foreign exchange that can alleviate them from poverty scenarios and the environment gets protected in the name of economy (Mascarenhas, 1971). Zierer (1952) reinforces this view when he wrote that "A notable characteristic of the tourist industry and recreation industry is that it does not-- or should not--lead to the destruction of natural resources". Myers (1972) exemplifies the case of Eastern Africa where National Parks were established to generate foreign exchange when the countries were under a great social and economic pressure and thus, tourism industry acted as a conservation mechanism for wild life (Pollock, 1971). Also, a share of the income generated from tourism can be invested in the maintenance and expansion of the natural and manmade resources (Waters, 1966). Further, according to Cohen (1978), globalization, privatization and urbanization are creating a great threat to the physical environment. Tourism industry has comparatively lower negative impacts on environment and hence, can be considered as a better option over other industries. Also, there is an increase in the number of evidences that tourism promotes the conservation and protection related activities through the help organizations like World Bank, UNESCO and UNWTO (Wall & Mathieson, 2006).

The ventures of Tourism for Environmental Protection and Empowerment of Women an Annotative Analysis (Interpretive Analysis)

The gender and environment concerns in tourism aren't very old. Even then, these concerns are becoming the buzz word of

the industry. This can be depicted by the surge in the number of academic works, authors, journals and mentions in the policy making documents. Also, the concept of sustainability is gaining popularity more than ever and gender equality and environment protection are the key indicators of it. Therefore, in order to achieve sustainable status, tourism establishments must work towards the fulfillment of these two criteria. The previous three sections threw limelight on the intrinsic relations between tourism, gender and environment taking two at a time. The aim of this section is to discuss the integrated coexisting relationship among the three concepts. As stated earlier, the three has a strong linkage among them that can be sketched in a triangular format.

To start with, let's take the relationship between tourism and gender. Estimates and statistics provided by various multinational developmental organizations like ILO, UN, UN Women and World Bank suggest that tourism is a fertile industry where a major chunk of employment is taken up by women and in return, women who are considered as more hospitable and better service provider (in case of accommodation and F&B) have a competitive advantage over men.

Next, gender and environment relationship getting is acknowledged more often in the contemporary literature. The relationship, christened as "Ecofeminism" argues that in the dominant ideology of patriarchy,

women have been ill-treated and nature (often called as mother) has also been exploited simultaneously. This provides women a better understanding of the needs of the environment and hence, voices of the women must be taken into consideration while formulating policies. Moreover, women are much more dependent upon nature for their survival and any alteration in nature (e.g. any natural disaster) makes a larger impact on women than men.

Last, but the most critical link is that of between environment and tourism. Since the early 1970s, there have been many voices raised to analyze the impacts of tourism on nature. It was observed that mass tourism (considered as the crux of tourism industry) has many negative impacts on physical environment. These voices gave rise to different kinds of tourism under the umbrella term of sustainable tourism. Ecotourism, farm tourism, rural tourism and community based tourism were the torch bearers of sustainable forms of tourism. Across all these types of tourism, environment stands at the centre of agenda as all of these tourism forms are dependent on 'environment' for its development. Tourism industry has a greater dependence upon natural resources as many developing and underdeveloped nations that lack basic elements for survival can encash their unspoiled nature in the form of tourism product (of course in a equitable way).

Combining the mentioned linkages, a
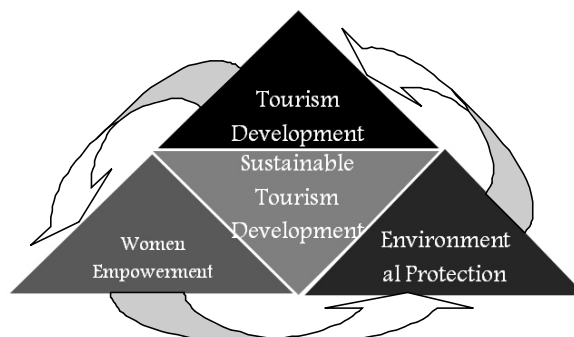
framework has been proposed that summarizes the relationship between the three factors in a cyclic process. It states that balanced and alternative tourism development can add to the empowerment of women. The empowered women can act towards preservation and conservation of natural resources and based on those natural resources tourism industry may flourish. At heart of the framework lies sustainable tourism development. These linkages may seem very vague at this point, yet if done in an equitable way this triangle can be a boon for the social and environmental aspect especially in the developing and underdeveloped nation prospect.

Conclusion

This work initiates by untailored review of articles and major works in the field of women empowerment, environment protection and tourism development. Then, it moves to highlight the associations between the concepts taking two at a time and finally concludes by drawing a triangular relationship among the three areas. Though, this relationship cycle is untested, yet the authors believe that it will have a great implication in deciding the course of tourism in future. This model is open to discussions and criticism that will further refine it.

References

Agarwal, B. (1992). The gender and environment debate: lessons from India. *Feminist studies*, *18*(1), 119-158.

Bakker, K. (2007). The "commons" versus the "commodity": Alter-globalization, anti- privatization and the human right to water in the global south. *Antipode*, 39 (3), 430-455.

Belisle, F. J., & Hoy, D. R. (1980). The perceived impact of tourism by residents a case study in Santa Marta, Colombia. *Annals of tourism research*, *7*(1), 83-101.

Boo, E. (1990). *Ecotourism*. Washington, D.C: World Wildlife Fund.

Budowski, G. (1976). Tourism and environmental conservation: conflict, coexistence, or symbiosis?. *Environmental conservation*, *3*(01), 27-31.

Bunch, C. (1990). Women's rights as human rights: Toward a re-vision of human rights. *Human Rights Quarterly*, *12*(4), 486-498.

Butler, R. W. (1974). The social implications of tourist developments. *Annals of tourism research*, *2*(2), 100-111.

Butler, R. W. (1991). Tourism, environment, and sustainable development. *Environmental conservation*, *18*(03), 201-209.

Ceballos, L. H. (1987). The future of ecotourism. *Mexico Journal*, *1*(987), 1.

Chow, W. T. (1980). Integrating tourism with rural development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *7*(4), 584-607.

Cohen, E. (1978). The impact of tourism on the physical environment. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *5*(2), 215-237.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dernoi, L. A. (1983). Farm tourism in Europe. *Tourism management*, *4*(3), 155-166.

Dernoi, L. A. (1988). Alternative or community-based tourism. In *Global Conference: Tourism. A vital force for peace. Montreal: The Conference. International Institute for Peace through Tourism*.

Donella, H., Meadows, D. L., Randers, J., & Behrens III, W. W. (1972). The limits to growth. *New York: Universe*.

Eber, S. (1992). *Beyond the green horizon*. Weyside Park, Godalming, Surrey

[U.K.]: World Wide Fund for Nature.

Farrell, B. H., & Runyan, D. (1991). Ecology and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *18*(1), 26-40.

Frater, J. M. (1983). Farm tourism in England: Planning, funding, promotion and some lessons from Europe. *Tourism Management*, *4*(3), 167-179.

Gaard, G. (2010). *Ecofeminism*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.

ILO. (2008*). Hotels, catering and tourism Gender*. Retrieved June 22, 2016, from http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_dialogue/---sector/documents/briefingnote/wcms_162188.pdf.

K Willis, (2005) *Theories and Practices of Development*, London: Routledge.

King, Y. (1989). The ecology of feminism and the feminism of ecology. *Healing the wounds: The promise of ecofeminism*, *19*.

Kirk, R. (2014). *Gender equality and environmental sustainability - Friends of the Earth* (pp. 1-2). Retrieved August 24, 2017, from https://www.foe.co.uk/sites/default/files/downloads/gender-equality-environmental-sustainability-22099.pdf

Lama, W. B. (2000). Community-based tourism for conservation and women's development. *Tourism and development in mountain regions*, 221-238. Publised

Lickorish, L. J., & Jenkins, C. L. (1997). *An Introduction to Tourism*. Linacre House, Jordan Hill.

Maathai, W. (2004). *The Green Belt Movement: Sharing the approach and the experience*. Lantern Books.

Mascarenhas, O. C. (1971). Tourism in East Africa: a Bibliographical essay. *Current Bibliography on African Affairs*, *4*(5), 315-326.

Mellor, M. (1997). *Feminism and Ecology: An Introduction*. NYU Press.

Mitchell, T., Tanner, T., Lussier, K., Burton, A., Khamis, M., & Ross, S. (2007). *We know what we need: South Asian women speak out on climate change adaptation*. ActionAid International.

Myers, N. (1972). National parks in savannah Africa. *Science*, *178*(4067), 1255-1263.

Pearce, D. (1978). The Feminization of Poverty: Women. *Work*.

Pizam, A. (1978). Tourism's impacts: The social costs to the destination community as perceived by its residents. *Journal of travel research*, *16*(4), 8-12.

Plan UK,. (2011). *Weathering the Storm: Adolescent Girls and Climate Change* (pp. 1-8). Retrieved February 21, 2017, from http://www.ungei.org/files/weather TheStorm.pdf.

Pollock, N. C. (1971). Serengeti. *Geography*, *56*(2), 145-147.

Robinson, G. W. S. (1972). The recreation geography of South Asia. *Geographical Review*, 561-572.

Rogerson, C. M., & Lemon, A. (2002). Tourism-a new economic driver for South Africa. *Geography and economy in South Africa and its neighbours*, 95-110.

Routledge, P. (2003). Voices of the dammed: discursive resistance amidst erasure in the Narmada Valley, India. *Political Geography*, *22*(3), 243-270.

Scheyvens, R. (2000). Promoting women's empowerment through involvement in ecotourism: Experiences from the Third World. *Journal of sustainable tourism*, *8*(3), 232-249.

Seneca, J. J., & Taussig, M. K. (1974). Environmental economics.

Shiva, V. (1991). The violence of the green revolution. *Third World Agriculture, Ecology and Politics. Londres & Nueva York: Zed Books Ltd*, *20*.

Shiva, V. (2016). *Staying alive*. Berkeley, California: North Atlantic Books.

Shiva, V., Mies, M. and Salleh, A. (2014). *Ecofeminism*. London: Zed Books.

Singh, J., Mohanka, R., & Sah, R. (2007). *Forest environment and biodiversity* (p. 157). India: Daya Publishing House.

Singh, K. K. (1972). Women Empowerment in Relation to the National Policy for the Empowerment of Women. *The New Noah*, 19.

Swain, M. (1995). Gender in tourism. *Annals Of Tourism Research*, *22*(2), 247-266.

Swain, M. B., & Smith, V. L. (1989). Gender roles in indigenous tourism: Kuna Mola, Kuna Yola, and cultural survival. *Hosts and guests. The anthropology of tourism.*, (Ed. 2), 83-104.

Swerdlow, A. (1982). Ladies' Day at the Capitol: Women Strike for Peace versus HUAC. *Feminist Studies*, *8*(3), 493-520.

Swerdlow, A. (1993). *Women strike for peace: Traditional motherhood and radical politics in the 1960s*. University of Chicago Press.

Towner, J. (1995). What is tourism's history?. *Tourism management*, *16*(5), 339-343.

UN. (2011). *Tourism a vehicle for gender equality and women's empowerment, UN reports | Regional Programme for Europe*. *Europe.unwto.org*. Retrieved September 19, 2016, from http://europe.unwto.org/news/2011-03-11/tourism-vehicle-gender-equality-and-women-s-empowerment-un-reports

UNWTO. (2011). *Global Report on Women in Tourism 2010* (p. VII). Berlin. Retrieved September 25, 2016, from http://www2.unwto.org/sites/all/pdf/folleto_globarl_report.pdf.

UNWTO. (2015). *International Women's Day: Tourism sector can do more to step it up on gender equality*. Retrieved January 12, 2017, from http://media.unwto.org/press-release/2015-03-08/international-women-s-day-tourism-sector-can-do-more-step-it-gender-equalit.

UNWTO. (2016). *Tourism Highlights 2016 Edition* (pp. 2-3). Retrieved March 25, 2017 from http://www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284418145

Waters, S. R. (1966). The American Tourist. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, *368*(1), 109-118.

Williams, S. (1998). *Tourism geography*. Psychology Press.

Women1st. (2010). *The case for change: Women working in hospitality, leisure, travel and tourism* (p. 4). Retrieved April 13, 2015, from http://www.women1st.co.uk/system/assets/files/000/000/004/original/Women_1st_Case_For_Change_Executive_Summary_November_2010.pdf?1342707875.

WTTC. (2016). *Travel and Tourism World Economic Impact 2016* (p. 1). Retrieved April 12, 2017, from http://www.wttc.org/-/media/files/reports/economic-impact-research/wttc-global-travel--tourism-economic-impact-update_july-2016_encrypted.pdf

Xiao, H. & Smith, S. (2006a). The making of tourism research: Insights from a social sciences journal. Annals of Tourism Research, 3(2), 490-507.

Zierer, C. M. (1952). Tourism and Recreation in the West. *Geographical Review*, *42*(3), 462-481.

BRIEF PROFILE OF THE AUTHORS

Priyakrushna Mohanty is the corresponding author. He is an U.G.C. Junior Research Fellow at the Department of Tourism Studies, Pondicherry University. He is an awardee of the prestigious Travel Corporation (India) Gold Medal for his outstanding performance in Master's Degree in Tourism Studies from Pondicherry University. He has served the Indian Railway Catering and Tourism Corporation Ltd. for one and the half year following which he was recruited as a Guest Faculty in the Dept. of Tourism Studies, Pondicherry University. pkmohanty90@gmail.com

Anu Chandran, Assistant Professor in the Department of Tourism Studies, Pondicherry University has fifteen years of teaching experience and two years of administrative experience as Divisional Tourism Officer of Andhra Pradesh Tourism Department. He was awarded Ph.D. in Management Studies from the Institute of Management in Kerala (IMK), University of Kerala. anoos_ind@yahoo.co.in

Nilamadhab Swain is a Doctoral candidate in the Department of Philosophy, Pondicherry University and holds a M.Phil. Degree from the same department. His research interest lies in the area of environmental ethics and animal rights. nilamadhabswain@gmail.com

Call For Papers

Special Issue The Journal Of Tourism: An International Research Journal On Travel & Tourism, December 2018
"Use Of Alternative Tourism Types In Destination Marketing"

Anukrati Sharma,University of Kota, Department of Commerce and Management, INDIA, dr.anukratisharma@gmail.com
Bekir Bora Dedeolu, Nevehir HBV University, Tourism Faculty, TURKEY
b.bora.dedeoglu@nevsehir.edu.tr

Aim of the special issue

One of the most important factors in determining the competitive advantage of destinations is to be able to offer different and attractive products. Today, however, destinations can offer products with similar characteristics to potential tourists. Accordingly, in addition to keeping the competitive advantage, destinations must also produce different products and services in terms of sustainability. At this point, it will be appropriate to focus on alternative tourism types. Alternative tourism types will be able to make efficient use of the resources that the destination has and also enable the tourists to experience different experiences. According to this special issue, the contributions of alternative tourism types to destination marketing will be discussedand solution proposals will be presented.

The theme and related issues

While not limited to the following topics, we encourage scholars to focus on:

- Tourists' attitudes towards alternative tourism types
- Tourists' evaluation towards alternative tourism types
- Attitudes of businesses towards alternative tourism types
- Assessing the economic contribution of alternative tourism types
- The role of alternative tourism in the attitudes of the local people towards tourists
- The role of alternative tourism types in pricing strategy
- Evaluation of alternative tourism types regarding sustainable tourism
- Alternative Tourism Opportunities and Challenges
- The emergence of Community-Based Tourism
- Alternative Tourism Tapping the Potential of Untapped/Unexplored Destinations
- Re-imagining of less Popular destinations through Alternative Tourism
- Alternative Tourism connection with Emotions and Experiences
- The contribution of alternative tourism in terms of mature destination
- Evaluation of applicability of alternative tourism types in terms of destination
- Comparison of alternative tourism types

The special issue editors encourage a range of methodological approaches, including but not limited to: textual analysis;surveys and interviews; mixed approaches; and case study.

Submission Notes and Timeline

Submitted papers should not have been previously published nor be currently under consideration for publication elsewhere.

Abstracts Submissions: 1st July 2018

Abstracts (up to 600 words) can be submitted directly to the guest editors via email (email to dr.anukratisharma@gmail.com; b.bora.dedeoglu@nevsehir.edu.tr)

Abstract Decisions: 15st July 2018

FULL Paper Submissions: 15st September 2018

Revisions and Decisions: 15th November 2018

Publication: December 2018

Formatting and Publication

- Manuscripts should be typed in Times New Roman 12 point (or 10 point for tables), single-spaced, and justified to the left margin. One-inch margins should be used.

- Headings should be in bold. Main headings should include an introduction, literature review, methodology, results, discussion, and references. Main headings should be centered on the page and subheadings placed at the left margin in italics.

- Six keywords should be provided to reflect the subject matter.

- References should be in APA 6th edition.

- Submissions should be accompanied by a title page with the title, keywords, author/s names and affiliations.

- Manuscript should be in English. Poorly written submissions will not be reviewed.

- Papers that do not meet the stipulated formatting requirements, or are not adequately revised, will not necessarily be published in the journal.

- Full articles having any graphics (figures or photographs) should be supplied in .tiff or .jpeg format.

- The journal strongly emphasizes the originality of research work and plagiarism is strictly discouraged.

- The journal has the condition for publication that manuscripts submitted to this journal should not have been already published or simultaneously submitted for publication elsewhere.

- Research papers will undergo blind review by two reviewers.

- The contributors should ensure that they are not infringing copyright.

- Please note that initial acceptance of the manuscript does not guarantee publication. In case of the copyright issues the paper may be dropped at any stage with notification to the author/s.

- The Journal also requires transfers of copyright or exclusive rights from the authors. However, this does not in any way restrict the use of article by the author for their own use.

ABOUT THE GUEST EDITORS

Dr. Anukrati Sharma is currently Associate Professor in the Department of Commerce and Management, University of Kota, Kota Rajasthan, India.Her doctorate is in Tourism Marketing from the University of Rajasthan,and she completed her dissertation research on the topic of Tourism in Rajasthan Progress &Prospects.She has two postgraduate degrees specialties-one in International Business (Masters of International Business) and another in Business Administration (Masters of Commerce). Her core subjects are Tourism, Strategic Management, and International Business Management.In the year 2015, she got a Research Award Fellowship by UGC, New Delhi on the topic of Analysis of the Status of Tourism in Hadoti and Shekhawati Region/Circuit (Rajasthan): Opportunities, Challenges,and Future Prospectus.

She has written ten books on different subjects.She hadtwo edited books one is titled Tourism Opportunities and Ventures,and another is Maximizing Business Performance and Efficiency through Intelligent Systems, under IGI Global. Currently she is working on her book on Tourism Development & Destination Branding through Content Marketing Strategies and Social Media under Apple Academic Press USA, Sustainable Destination Branding and Marketing: Strategies for Tourism Development under CABI, U.K. Tourism Events in Asia under Routledge and Information and Communication Technologies in Travel, Tourism and

Hospitality Industry: An Extensive Outlook under Cambridge Scholars Publishing, U.K.

She is serving as the Editorial Board Member of 26 reputed National and International Journals besides nominated as Reviewer of 17 Journals of National and International repute. She has attended and presented 51 papers in International and National Conferences and is a member of 17 Professional Bodies. She has been invitedfor many talks/lectures/ panel discussions by different Universities like University of Colombo, Sri Lanka,Nepal,Aligarh Muslim University and other   Universities within India.

Bekir Bora Dedeoǧlu earned his master degree from Tourism and Hospitality Management Department at Mustafa Kemal University in 2012 and a Ph.D. degree from in the Tourism Management Department at Akdeniz University in 2016. Bekir Bora DEDEOǦLU, at present, is an AssistantProfessor at the Department of Tourism Guiding at Nevsehir HBV University. His research interests include tourism marketing, social media marketing, destination marketing, destination branding, tourist behavior, and hospitality marketing.

He is author of articles in journals such as Journal of Destination Marketing and Management, International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, International Journal of Hospitality Management,Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management and Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research. He has also served as reviewer for top tourism and hospitality journals such as Tourism Management, Tourism Management Perspectives, International Journal of Hospitality Management, Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, Total Quality Management & Business Excellence, Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, etc.

JOURNAL OF TOURISM
An International Research Journal in Travel and Tourism
SUBSCRIPTION ORDER FORM

☐ Institution ☐ Individual

Name and Designation [   ]

Organization [   ]

Postal Address [   ]

Mobile No. [   ]

E-mail [   ]

Enclosed a Cashiers Cheque/DD number [   ]

date [   ] for Rs./US$ [   ] drawn on [   ]

Towards subscription for the Journal of Tourism for one year.

Signature and Seal:

Name

Date

Email: inquiries with regard to hard copy subscriptions may be made to jothnbgu@gmail.com

Journal of Tourism

Centre for Mountain Tourism and Hospitality Studies (CMTHS)

HNB Garhwal University (A Central University)
Srinagar-Garhwal, Uttarakhand
Tel Fax-00-91-1370-267100
e-mail: jothnbgu@gmail.com
website- www.jothnbgu.in

Visit Journal of Tourism online at www.jothnbgu.in