

Vol. 12, No. 2, August, 2022

Bi-Annual

ISSN No. 2278-8379

# TOURISM INNOVATIONS

An International Journal of Indian Tourism and Hospitality Congress (ITHC)

## Chief Editors

**Prof. S. P. Bansal**

*Vice Chancellor*

*Central University of Himachal Pradesh,  
Dharamshala, Himachal Pradesh*

**Dr. Sandeep Kulshrestha**

*Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel  
Management, (IITTM)*



**Indian Tourism and Hospitality Congress**  
[www.tourismcongress.wordpress.com](http://www.tourismcongress.wordpress.com)

Tourism Innovations: An International Journal of Indian Tourism and Hospitality Congress (ITHC)

**Copyright : Indian Tourism and Hospitality Congress (ITHC)**

*Reproduction in whole or in part, in any form without written permission is prohibited.*

ISSN : 2278-8379

VOLUME : 12

NUMBER : 2

**Publication Schedule:**

Twice a year : August-December

***Disclaimer:***

The views expressed in the articles are those of the contributors and not necessarily to the editorial board and publisher. Authors are themselves responsible for any kind of Plagiarism found in their articles and any related issue.

*Claims and court cases only allowed within the jurisdiction of HP, India*

Published by: Bharti Publications in Association with Indian Tourism and Hospitality Congress (ITHC)

All Correspondence Should be Address to :

Managing Editor

Tourism Innovations

Bharti Publications

4819/24, 3rd Floor, Mathur Lane

Ansari Road, Daryaganj, New Delhi-110002

Ph: 011-2324-7537, 011-46172797

Email: journal.itc@gmail.com, bhartipublications@gmail.com

## Editor's Note

Dear Readers,

It is with great pleasure that we present the August 2022 issue of the Tourism Innovation Journal. In this volume, we continue to explore the diverse and dynamic world of tourism research, shedding light on the latest trends, insights, and developments in the field.

Tourism is an ever-evolving industry that plays a pivotal role in the global economy. As we navigate through the challenges and opportunities of the 21st century, it is essential to stay informed about the latest research findings that inform policy, management, and sustainable practices in the tourism sector.

In this issue, you will find a collection of articles that delve into various aspects of tourism, from comparison of motivation, governmental policies, niche tourism segments, destination management and sustainable development to the impact of technology on traveler behavior. Our esteemed authors have contributed their expertise to provide you with valuable insights and empirical evidence that can be applied to real-world scenarios.

We would like to extend our gratitude to the authors who submitted their work for consideration, the diligent reviewers who provided constructive feedback, and our dedicated editorial team who worked tirelessly to bring this issue to fruition.

We encourage you to explore the articles in this issue and engage with the ideas presented within. As always, we welcome your feedback and contributions to the ongoing discourse in tourism research. The global tourism industry faced unprecedented challenges in the wake of the COVID-19 pandemic. Lockdowns, travel restrictions, and safety concerns brought tourism to a standstill. However, as the world emerges from the pandemic, signs of recovery are becoming increasingly apparent. The tourism sector has showcased remarkable resilience and adaptability. Businesses, destinations, and travelers quickly adjusted to new health and safety protocols, promoting a sense of confidence and trust among tourists.

Thank you for your continued support of the Tourism Innovation Journal. We hope you find this issue inspiring and informative, and we look forward to your continued readership.

*Chief Editors*

Prof. S.P. Bansal

Dr. Sandeep Kulshrestha



**TOURISM INNOVATIONS**  
**An International Journal of**  
**Indian Tourism and Hospitality Congress (ITHC)**

Vol. 12, No. 2, August, 2022

---

## Contents

---

*Editor's Note*

*iii*

### Research Papers

- |    |   |       |
|----|---|-------|
| 1. | <b>A Comparative Study of The Motivational Factors to Participate in Corporate Social Responsibility Activities Between Indian Origin and Foreign Origin Hotels</b> | 1-10  |
|    | <i>Sandeep Malik &amp; Vivek</i>  |       |
| 2. | <b>Measures Taken By Government for The Growth of Medical Tourism In India</b>  | 11-16 |
|    | <i>Anil Kumar Singh &amp; Arun Singh Thakur</i>   |       |
| 3. | <b>Does Resident Welcoming Nature Affect Resident Attitude Towards Tourism Development?</b>   | 17-27 |
|    | <i>Mukhtar Bin Farooq Ibni Ali, Reyaz A. Qureshi &amp; Danish Mehraj</i>  |       |
| 4. | <b>Seismic Risk Analysis of Tourism Destinations Which are Prone to Earthquakes: A Study of Dharamshala City of Himachal Pradesh, India</b>                         | 28-36 |
|    | <i>Pooja Rajput, Amit Katoch &amp; Ajay Singh Katoch</i>  |       |
| 5. | <b>Tourism in Kashmir, Victim to Political Instability: A Comparative Analysis of Kashmir and Jammu Division</b>  | 37-42 |
|    | <i>Mehraj Ud Din Wani, Zubair Ahmad Dada, Shamim Ahmad Shah &amp; Shakir Ahmad Wani</i>   |       |
| 6. | <b>Prospects for 'Green Jobs' Through Community Based Tourism in State of Arunachal Pradesh, India</b>  | 43-47 |
|    | <i>Pijush Kumar Dutta</i>   |       |
| 7. | <b>Exploring Sustainable Slow Tourism in Punjab: Fusing Culture and Nature for a Greener Tomorrow</b>   | 48-54 |
|    | <i>Harpreet Singh, Mandeep Kaur &amp; Raj Kumar</i>   |       |
| 8. | <b>Enriching Adventure: Exploring Sustainable Outdoor Recreation and Nature-Centric Tourism</b>   | 55-62 |
|    | <i>Anil Kumar &amp; Surender Thakur</i>   |       |



# A Comparative Study of The Motivational Factors to Participate in Corporate Social Responsibility Activities Between Indian Origin and Foreign Origin Hotels

Sandeep Malik & Vivek

## Abstract

The present paper is an attempt to compare the motivational factors to participate in Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) activities between Indian and foreign origin hotels. For this purpose, a non-probability sampling technique was used for the selection of hotels as respondents for the study. Out of 86 hotels, 52 hotels were foreign origin and 34 were of Indian origin. Primary data was collected through a structured and pre-tested 5 point Likert-type scale questionnaire containing 29 statements regarding motivational factors for participation of hotels in CSR activities. The results show that foreign origin companies are more motivated to reduce running costs as compared to Indian origin companies. It was suggested that hotels should also focus on the visibility of CSR activities to its stakeholders. Visibility of these activities to media and society can easily substantiate the claims of hotels which can promote more contribution to CSR.

**Keywords:** Corporate Social Responsibility, Hotel Industry, Welfare.

## Introduction

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) was first used in Barnard's book "Functions of Managers" published by Harvard University Press, Cambridge in 1938. Later, other writers used CSR in different forms." CSR analyzes the cultural, legal, political, social and physical facets of the world" has been evolving in recent times and has created an ethical edifice for various factors to be accountable for their corporate responsibility and their subsequent effect on the global climate in which they function and work. CSR is a 'corporate slogan' that extends spiritual baptism to get the various overlapping and opposing desires in accordance with the economic structure. CSR applies to companies taking responsibility, and making an influence on culture.CSR has gradually become a significant criterion for assessing the overall productivity of organizations. This will offer advantages in terms of improved risk control, cost reduction, access to resources, stronger client engagement, efficient human resource management and improve innovative efficiency.

To date, not a single definition of CSR is universally accepted but there are many definitions given by various researchers from time to time to elaborate CSR concepts

(Dahlsrud, 2006). Some definitions were able to explain the concept of CSR up to a certain level but none of these was able to explain CSR completely. Due to the unavailability of exact definitions, many prestigious institutions changed the definitions from time to time and explained the same definitions twice and thrice a year in different aspects (Sarkar & Sarkar 2015). This ambiguity has affected the motivation of hotels to participate in CSR activities so the study aims at comprising the motivational factors of Indian Foreign origin hotels.

## CSR in India

The term CSR is in the infant stage as compared to the concept of CSR. The term CSR emerged in the second half of both centuries especially in western countries and later on it became common worldwide. With industrialization in Europe, CSR in modern format emerged in favor of factory labor conditions with industrialization, while responsible corporations had already been in business centuries before, the word CSR was officially used in 1953 by American economist Howard Bowen in his work on company social responsibility. Bowen, however, is also regarded as the father of CSR.

Sandeep Malik  
Vivek

Associate Professor  
Assistant Professor, Institute of Hotel and Tourism Management, Maharshi Dayanand University, Rohtak

In India, the concept of CSR starts with the Aryans. In Mahabharata & Rigved there are a lot of examples that show the rich are serving society on different levels. In Arthashastra Kautilya highlights the value of ethics while conducting business. Religion also played a major role in promoting CSR. In the Muslim era, there was a tax called 'Zakat' in which the rich must share fix part of his earnings with the poor. The Hindu merchant provided alms to temples and night shelters for the poor class. The Hindu practiced 'Dharamshala' where the seller's production was paid for charity. In the same fashion, Sikh followed 'Daashaant' till 1850 wealthy businessmen shared their riches with society temples & other religious institutions. In 1900, there were some families like Tata, Birla, Modis, Bajaj, and Godrej also promoted this concept with the help of setting up charitable foundations.

National movements also promote this concept widely; Mohan Das Karamchand Gandhi emphasized a lot on this concept. CSR was motivated by the advent of public sector companies in 1960-80 to ensure the right distribution of income. In 1991, under liberalization privatization globalization the massive industrial development made it easier for companies to make a greater contribution to CSR (Shah 2011).

In India, CSR practices are popular for decades (Uvais & Cholasseri, 2013). The number of the education societies, charitable hospital institutes, and social institutes is running prior independence with the help of business corporate and societies (Chopra & Marriya, 2013). In India, traditionally, CSR is considered a philanthropic activity (Sabharwal & Narula, 2015). In 2001, Tata Energy Research Institute (TERI) and categorized CSR stages in chronological *i.e.* Ethical model (1930-1950 Truest), statistical model (1950-1970 Socialist), liberal model (1970-1990 Charitable), and model for stakeholders (1990-present) (Sabharwal & Narula, 2015). Now in, India CSR is mandatory for all registered corporations in India under "The Companies Act 2013" (Malik & Vivek, 2018), as companies qualifying the criteria have to invest 2 percent of their net profit on CSR. Food Safety and Standards Authority of India (FSSAI) has also issued guidelines under the heading Safe and Nutritious Food (SNF) for voluntary participation by various stakeholders (FSSAI, 2017).

### **Hotel Industry in India**

Today, the hospitality industry is in the main stay of the economics of many countries, this is also true in the case of India since it is classified as an industry (ICSI, 2018). This industry provides a lot of employment opportunities both directly and indirectly in establishments like hotels, restaurants, transportation, tour operator, tour guides, and escorts. This industry is one of the highest revenue and employment generating industries. The total contribution to the world's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is 8.9 trillion USD *i.e.* 10.3 percent of the world's

GDP and 330 million jobs directly in 2019, 1 in 10 jobs around the world, (WTTC 2020). At the same time, the total contribution of the Travel & Tourism industry in the GDP of India is 194 billion USD *i.e.* 6.8 percent of India's GDP and 39,822,000 jobs (8.0 percent of India's total jobs) provided by the Travel & Tourism Industry (WTTC, India, 2020). Hotels are the main component of this industry. Today, the Indian hotel sector is a rich and fast-growing industry. The main product of this sector is to provide accommodation and food to guests. The total number of approved hotels by the HRACC is 1961 with 102490 rooms (MOT, Tourism statics, 2019).

### **CSR in the hospitality industry**

In Hotel Industry, CSR was first globally implemented in 1990 by International Hotel Corporations. Since 1992, the hospitality industry has been focusing on environmental-related practices, usage of technology, and energy conservation (Holcomb, Upchurch, and Okumus, 2007). Many Hotel chains at the international level have accommodated various CSR measurements in their business actions (European Cities Marketing, 2011) taking into account the harmful impacts of the industry on society, the environment, and the economy. Thus, the industry is keen to minimize these negative impacts (Hailu & Nigatu 2015). The CSR concept is widely accepted globally for various concerns *i.e.* brand image, marketing, sustainability, ethically, employee's satisfaction, community participation, competitive environment and government instruction.

### **Review of Literature**

Rashid and Ibrahim (2002) concluded that the "most influential factor determining the attitude toward social responsibility was family upbringing moreover there are some other factors *i.e.* traditional beliefs and customs, and common practices in the industry". Saiia, Carroll, and Buchholtz (2003) found that "managers believe their forms are increasingly strategic in their philanthropic activities". These results also reinforce the idea that corporate philanthropy has developed to suit a more full marketplace. Heal (2005) described that a CSR program can be a profitable aspect of corporate strategy, including risk management and sustaining long-term profitability relationships. Qu (2007) discovered that the most powerful CSR indicator followed by government regulations was corporation orientation. In addition, it was found that the ownership system had little impact. Gautam and Singh (2010) propounded that CSR is a comprehensive business strategy arising from performance consideration and stakeholder pressures. Kabir (2011) revealed that the hotel industry of Swaziland used CSR as a positive image creator among people and the areas of CSR were energy-saving, community involvement issues, fair business practices, environmental protection products and safety and human resources. Batra (2013) highlighted the prime

feature of the ITC e-chouyal CSR project and found that for the upliftment of rural farmers this e-chouyal project was playing a significant role in the field of CSR. Kumar and Sharma (2014) observed that all individual hotels and chain hotels were ready to adopt CSR in their achievements because of need of time, government laws, local authority pressure, host population etc. Jogdand, Sawant and Ragde (2015) revealed that, in Mumbai, five star hotels managers have positive attitude for CSR and CSR activities focusing on sustaining the environment. Kumar and Tulasi (2016) found that CSR was an important form for the hotel industry. Hotels used CSR to create a positive image of industry among their guests. Chaudhary (2017) found that there is no significant effect of interaction between gender and CSR on employee's engagement at work. However, they found that the firms' involvement in CSR activities influencing the employees. Mohammed and Rasid (2018) concluded that CSR activities positively influence customer satisfaction, with brand image mediating the relationship. Dawar and Singh (2019) highlighted that stakeholder involvement, supporting responsible leadership, the priority of the board towards CSR, and integration of CSR into corporate policy improved the organizations' ability to tackle social issues and enhance the competitive atmosphere for the organizations. Malik and Vivek (2020) described that CRS is a significant and vital program in which organizations should take part, however more cautious consideration should be given to better execution of the CSR activities.

### Objective

The study aims at comparing the motivational factors to participate in CSR activities between Indian origin and foreign origin hotels.

**Table no. 2 Descriptive Statistics of CSR Practices of National Hotels**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
To follow government norms/rules	34	1	5	4.50	1.108	1.227
To gain tax benefits	34	1	5	3.76	1.156	1.337
To avoid penalties by the government	34	1	5	3.62	1.393	1.940
To improve brand image	34	1	5	4.38	0.985	0.971
To accomplish organization mission and vision commitment	34	1	5	4.24	0.955	0.913
To reduce running cost	34	1	5	3.94	1.205	1.451
For risk management	34	1	5	3.68	1.199	1.438
To enhance profit in business	34	1	5	4.06	1.205	1.451
To be the trendsetter	34	1	5	4.03	1.193	1.423
For achieving marketing advantage	34	1	5	4.09	1.190	1.416
For a sustainable approach	34	1	5	4.21	1.038	1.078
Our competitors are practicing CSR	34	1	5	4.09	1.111	1.234
To give back to society	34	1	5	4.21	1.008	1.017

### Methodology

The non-probability sampling technique was used for the selection of hotels as respondents for the study. A total of 120 hotels of 17 hotel chains were approached for the study. Primary data was collected through a structured and pre-tested 5 point Likert-type scale questionnaire. The researcher received 100 filled-in responses from hotels; out of which 86 were useable. Out of 86 hotels, 52 hotels related to foreign origin and 34 were of Indian origin. Secondary data was collected from the national portal of CSR, MCA, and MOT, GOI, etc.; journals, periodicals; circulars; reports, magazines, websites of the hospitality industry were used for the study. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the characteristics of the data and ANOVA was used to compare the responses from two groups.

### Data Analysis

The data analysis begins with the descriptive analysis of the nature of the companies, presented in Table no 1. A majority of companies i.e. 60.5 percent were international whereas 39.5 percent of respondents were Indian origin companies.

**Table 1 Nature of Company**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	National	34	39.5	39.5	39.5
	Multinational	52	60.5	60.5	100.0
	Total	86	100.0	100.0	

An evalutaion of CSR practices of Indian origin hotels, Table no. 2, depicted that the hotels were participating in these activities as they are abiding by the governement norms or rules.

For philanthropic purposes	34	1	5	3.91	1.026	1.053
To retain traditional values	34	1	5	3.79	1.149	1.320
For smooth integration of the organization into its host Community	34	1	5	3.85	1.048	1.099
To boost guest loyalty	34	2	5	4.26	.963	.928
Our guests prefer us because of our CSR activities	34	1	5	3.76	1.232	1.519
Guests are ready to pay more as CSR activities increase the cost of products/services	34	1	5	3.76	1.327	1.761
Our guests boycott products/ services which do not comply with CSR	34	1	5	3.53	1.354	1.832
CSR helps us in attracting the best brains in the industry	34	1	5	3.79	1.175	1.381
To improve employee motivation	34	1	5	4.12	1.274	1.622
To improve employee job satisfaction enhance increase productivity	34	1	5	4.06	1.127	1.269
To use it as an employee retention tool	34	1	5	3.79	1.250	1.562
Our employees voluntarily engage in CSR activities of the firm	34	1	5	4.00	1.044	1.091
Shareholders or owners favor CSR contribution	34	2	5	3.82	.968	.938
Shareholders or owners are ready to give a part of their income for CSR activities	34	1	5	3.94	1.153	1.330
Shareholders or owners consider CSR as a part of a long-term strategy	34	1	5	3.82	.999	.998
Shareholders or owners are inspired by some person or event to favor CSR	34	1	5	4.09	1.026	1.053
Valid N (listwise)	34					

The answer has highest mean score 4.50. Whereas, the perception of hoteliers that their guests will boycott their products/services if they do not comply with CSR has the least mean score i.e. 3.53.

The analysis of CSR practices of multinational hotels reveals that the hotels are taking part in CSR activities because of the legal boundations, as the variable has the highest mean score i.e. 4.52, as shown in Table no. 3. This

is in line with the Indian origin hotels. The motivation

**Table no. 3 Descriptive Statistics of CSR practices of Multinational Hotels**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
To follow government norms/rules	52	1	5	4.52	1.075	1.156
To gain tax benefits	52	1	5	3.65	1.399	1.956
To avoid penalties by the government	52	1	5	3.19	1.509	2.276
To improve brand image	52	1	5	4.31	1.058	1.119
To accomplish organization mission and vision commitment	52	1	5	4.29	1.054	1.111
To reduce running cost	52	1	5	3.79	1.333	1.778
For risk management	52	1	5	3.63	1.372	1.883
To enhance profit in business	52	1	5	3.83	1.491	2.224

To be the trendsetter	52	1	5	3.73	1.345	1.808
For achieving marketing advantage	52	1	5	3.75	1.281	1.642
For a sustainable approach	52	1	5	3.88	1.231	1.516
Our competitors are practicing CSR	52	1	5	3.73	1.300	1.691
To give back to society	52	1	5	3.98	1.306	1.706
For philanthropic purposes	52	1	5	3.88	1.199	1.437
To retain traditional values	52	1	5	3.98	1.244	1.549
For smooth integration of the organization into its host Community	52	1	5	4.17	.944	.891
To boost guest loyalty	52	1	5	3.96	1.298	1.685
Our guests prefer us because of our CSR activities	52	1	5	3.71	1.391	1.935
Guests are ready to pay more as CSR activities increase the cost of products/services	52	1	5	3.42	1.433	2.053
Our guests boycott products/ services which do not comply with CSR	52	1	5	3.50	1.379	1.902
CSR helps us in attracting the best brains in the industry	52	1	5	3.79	1.273	1.621
To improve employee motivation	52	1	5	3.94	1.349	1.820
To improve employee job satisfaction enhance increase productivity	52	1	5	3.88	1.323	1.751
To use it as an employee retention tool	52	1	5	3.96	1.283	1.646
Our employees voluntarily engage in CSR activities of the firm	52	1	5	3.98	1.244	1.549
Shareholders or owners favor CSR contribution	52	1	5	3.88	1.215	1.477
Shareholders or owners are ready to give a part of their income for CSR activities	52	1	5	3.90	1.317	1.736
Shareholders or owners consider CSR as a part of a long-term strategy	52	1	5	3.96	1.137	1.293
Shareholders or owners are inspired by some person or event to favor CSR	52	1	5	3.63	1.253	1.570
Valid N (listwise)	52					

of avoiding government penalties is rated least by the International hotels with a mean score of 3.19.

One sample *t* test was performed, separately, on both samples i.e. Indian hotels and foreign origin hotels to

find out whether the motivation practices performed by the hotels are

**Table no. 4. One-Sample t Test of CSR practices of Indian hotels**

	Test Value = 0					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
To follow government norms/rules	23.685	33	.000	4.500	4.11	4.89
To gain tax benefits	18.985	33	.000	3.765	3.36	4.17
To avoid penalties by the government	15.144	33	.000	3.618	3.13	4.10
To improve brand image	25.938	33	.000	4.382	4.04	4.73
To accomplish organization mission and vision commitment	25.851	33	.000	4.235	3.90	4.57
To reduce running cost	19.078	33	.000	3.941	3.52	4.36
For risk management	17.879	33	.000	3.676	3.26	4.09
To enhance profit in business	19.648	33	.000	4.059	3.64	4.48
To be the trendsetter	19.694	33	.000	4.029	3.61	4.45
For achieving marketing advantage	20.031	33	.000	4.088	3.67	4.50
For a sustainable approach	23.625	33	.000	4.206	3.84	4.57
Our competitors are practicing CSR	21.456	33	.000	4.088	3.70	4.48
To give back to society	24.319	33	.000	4.206	3.85	4.56
For philanthropic purposes	22.232	33	.000	3.912	3.55	4.27
To retain traditional values	19.256	33	.000	3.794	3.39	4.19
For smooth integration of the organization into its host Community	21.431	33	.000	3.853	3.49	4.22
To boost guest loyalty	25.817	33	.000	4.265	3.93	4.60
Our guests prefer us because of our CSR activities	17.813	33	.000	3.765	3.33	4.19
Guests are ready to pay more as CSR activities increase the cost of products/services	16.541	33	.000	3.765	3.30	4.23
Our guests boycott products/ services which do not comply with CSR	15.203	33	.000	3.529	3.06	4.00
CSR helps us in attracting the best brains in the industry	18.829	33	.000	3.794	3.38	4.20
To improve employee motivation	18.852	33	.000	4.118	3.67	4.56
To improve employee job satisfaction enhance increase productivity	21.008	33	.000	4.059	3.67	4.45
To use it as an employee retention tool	17.699	33	.000	3.794	3.36	4.23
Our employees voluntarily engage in CSR activities of the firm	22.331	33	.000	4.000	3.64	4.36
Shareholders or owners favor CSR contribution	23.025	33	.000	3.824	3.49	4.16
Shareholders or owners are ready to give a part of their income for CSR activities	19.929	33	.000	3.941	3.54	4.34
Shareholders or owners consider CSR as a part of a long-term strategy	22.315	33	.000	3.824	3.47	4.17
Shareholders or owners are inspired by some person or event to favor CSR	23.235	33	.000	4.088	3.73	4.45

**Table no. 5. One-Sample *t* Test of CSR practices of Multinational hotels**

	Test Value = 0					
	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Sig. (2-tailed)</b>	<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</b>	
					<b>Lower</b>	<b>Upper</b>
To follow government norms/rules	30.304	51	.000	4.519	4.22	4.82
To gain tax benefits	18.838	51	.000	3.654	3.26	4.04
To avoid penalties by the government	15.259	51	.000	3.192	2.77	3.61
To improve brand image	29.363	51	.000	4.308	4.01	4.60
To accomplish organization mission and vision commitment	29.336	51	.000	4.288	3.99	4.58
To reduce running cost	20.489	51	.000	3.788	3.42	4.16
For risk management	19.098	51	.000	3.635	3.25	4.02
To enhance profit in business	18.503	51	.000	3.827	3.41	4.24
To be the trendsetter	20.005	51	.000	3.731	3.36	4.11
For achieving marketing advantage	21.102	51	.000	3.750	3.39	4.11
For a sustainable approach	22.752	51	.000	3.885	3.54	4.23
Our competitors are practicing CSR	20.690	51	.000	3.731	3.37	4.09
To give back to society	21.981	51	.000	3.981	3.62	4.34
For philanthropic purposes	23.365	51	.000	3.885	3.55	4.22
To retain traditional values	23.067	51	.000	3.981	3.63	4.33
For smooth integration of the organization into its host Community	31.880	51	.000	4.173	3.91	4.44
To boost guest loyalty	22.009	51	.000	3.962	3.60	4.32
Our guests prefer us because of our CSR activities	19.242	51	.000	3.712	3.32	4.10
Guests are ready to pay more as CSR activities increase the cost of products/services	17.228	51	.000	3.423	3.02	3.82
Our guests boycott products/ services which do not comply with CSR	18.301	51	.000	3.500	3.12	3.88
CSR helps us in attracting the best brains in the industry	21.457	51	.000	3.788	3.43	4.14
To improve employee motivation	21.072	51	.000	3.942	3.57	4.32
To improve employee job satisfaction enhance increase productivity	21.169	51	.000	3.885	3.52	4.25
To use it as an employee retention tool	22.269	51	.000	3.962	3.60	4.32
Our employees voluntarily engage in CSR activities of the firm	23.067	51	.000	3.981	3.63	4.33
Shareholders or owners favor CSR contribution	23.052	51	.000	3.885	3.55	4.22
Shareholders or owners are ready to give a part of their income for CSR activities	21.368	51	.000	3.904	3.54	4.27
Shareholders or owners consider CSR as a part of a long-term strategy	25.126	51	.000	3.962	3.65	4.28
Shareholders or owners are inspired by some person or event to favor CSR	20.919	51	.000	3.635	3.29	3.98

statistically significant or not. Results are presented in Table no. 4 and 5. An evaluation of results can lead

to conclusion that all the motivational variables are statistically significant as all the values of p are 0.000, in case of both types of hotels i.e. Indian and foreign origin. It is evident from the descriptive statistic tables presented

in Table no. 2, and 3 and then t-test tables 4 and 5 that there are difference in the motivational factors affecting the CSR practices in the studied two categories of hotels.

**Table no. 6 Comparison of Motivational factors to participate in CSR activities between Indian origin and foreign companies**

Statements	Country	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	't' test
To follow government norms/rules	Indian origin	52	4.42	1.177	0.938 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	4.65	0.917	
To gain tax benefits	Indian origin	52	3.65	1.327	0.384 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	3.76	1.281	
To avoid penalties by the government	Indian origin	52	3.35	1.440	0.111 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	3.38	1.538	
To improve brand image	Indian origin	52	4.21	1.073	1.415 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	4.53	0.929	
To accomplish organization mission and vision Commitment	Indian origin	52	4.12	0.983	1.746 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	4.50	1.022	
To reduce running cost	Indian origin	52	3.62	1.331	2.137*
	Foreign origin	34	4.21	1.122	
For risk management	Indian origin	52	3.58	1.273	0.653 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	3.76	1.350	
To enhance profit in business	Indian origin	52	3.88	1.367	0.280 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	3.97	1.425	
To be the trendsetter	Indian origin	52	3.88	1.215	0.317 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	3.79	1.409	
For achieving marketing advantage	Indian origin	52	3.77	1.308	1.051 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	4.06	1.153	
For a sustainable approach	Indian origin	52	4.12	1.078	1.023 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	3.85	1.282	
Our competitors are practicing CSR	Indian origin	52	3.87	1.221	0.062 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	3.88	1.274	
To give back to society	Indian origin	52	4.00	1.172	0.667 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	4.18	1.242	
For philanthropic purposes	Indian origin	52	3.75	1.100	1.489 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	4.12	1.149	
To retain traditional values	Indian origin	52	3.75	1.250	1.506 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	4.15	1.105	
For smooth integration of the organization into its host Community	Indian origin	52	3.92	0.987	1.434 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	4.24	0.987	

To boost guest loyalty	Indian origin	52	3.94	1.259	1.358 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	4.29	1.031	
Our guests prefer us because of our CSR activities	Indian origin	52	3.62	1.360	1.016 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	3.91	1.264	
Guests are ready to pay more as CSR activities increase the cost of products/services	Indian origin	52	3.54	1.393	0.161 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	3.59	1.417	
Our guests boycott products/ services which do not comply with CSR	Indian origin	52	3.48	1.421	0.259 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	3.56	1.284	
CSR helps us in attracting the best brains in the industry	Indian origin	52	3.67	1.279	1.100 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	3.97	1.141	
To improve employee motivation	Indian origin	52	3.98	1.350	0.268 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	4.06	1.278	
To improve employee job satisfaction enhance increase productivity	Indian origin	52	3.92	1.234	0.279 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	4.00	1.279	
To use it as an employee retention tool	Indian origin	52	3.88	1.263	0.097 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	3.91	1.288	
Our employees voluntarily engage in CSR activities of the firm	Indian origin	52	3.98	1.146	0.075 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	4.00	1.206	
Shareholders or owners favor CSR contribution	Indian origin	52	3.83	1.150	0.342 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	3.91	1.083	
Shareholders or owners are ready to give a part of their income for CSR activities	Indian origin	52	3.87	1.253	0.487 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	4.00	1.255	
Shareholders or owners consider CSR as a part of a long-term strategy	Indian origin	52	3.77	1.078	1.472 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	4.12	1.066	
Shareholders or owners are inspired by some person or event to favor CSR	Indian origin	52	3.79	1.126	0.246 <sup>NS</sup>
	Foreign origin	34	3.85	1.282	

NS = Not significant; \* = Significant at 0.05 level

However, to check whether these differences in two categories are statistically significant or not, one way ANOVA was conducted. The results are presented in Table no. 6; which shows that there are significant difference only in case of one the motivation i.e. *to reduce running cost* where p value is less than 0.05.

## Discussion and Conclusion

Indian hotels or hotel chains have also favored more all the other identified motivational variables were found to more important forces for foreign origin hotels or hotel chains than their Indian counterparts. However, the difference between practices of Indian and foreign

origin hotels was significant only in the case of 'top reduce running cost which means that hotels operated by Indian or foreign hotels are driven by almost similar motivational forces for carrying out CSR activities except in case of use of CSR as a tool to reduce running cost where foreign origin hotels have a significant edge over Indian hotels. These findings support the outcome of earlier researches conducted by Cheung, Welford, and Hills (2009); Sharma and Mishra (2018); and Wong and Kim (2020). Although the research has its own limitations in the form of sampling design. However, the findings will add in the existing literature available on the topic and will pave way for future research in Indian context.

#### Reference

1. Batra, A. (2013). Sustainability of corporate social responsibility in India (A study of ITC's initiative 'e-choupal'). *Asian Journal of Research in Banking and Finance*, 3(8), 21-37.
2. Chaudhary, R. (2017). Corporate social responsibility and employee engagement: can CSR help in redressing the engagement gap?. *Social Responsibility Journal*, 13(2), 323-338.
3. Chopra, A., & Marriya, S. (2013). Corporate social responsibility and education in India. *Issues and Ideas in Education*, 1(1), 13-22.
4. Dahlsrud, A. (2008). How corporate social responsibility is defined: an analysis of 37 definitions. *Corporate social responsibility and environmental management*, 15(1), 1-13.
5. Dawar, G., & Singh, S. (2019). How Can Small and Medium Enterprises Effectively Implement Corporate Social Responsibility?: An Indian Perspective. *Global Business Review*, 1-29, 0972150919865086.
6. Gautam, R., & Singh, A. (2010). Corporate social responsibility practices in India: A study of top 500 companies. *Global Business and Management Research: An International Journal*, 2(1), 41-56.
7. Heal, G. (2005). Corporate social responsibility: An economic and financial framework. *The Geneva papers on risk and insurance-Issues and practice*, 30(3), 387-409. DOI: 10.2139/ssrn.642762
8. Jogdand, B., Sawant, M., & Ragde, R. (2015). Ethics and Corporate Social Responsibility in Hotel Industry: A Study of Attitudes and Perceptions of Managers. *Tourism Inclusive Growth & Sustainable Development*, (January), 593-606.
9. Kabir, M. H. (2011). Corporate social responsibility by Swaziland hotel industry. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 25, 73-79. doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.10.529.
10. Kulshreshtha, S., Yadav, C. S., Gautam, P., & Rajanna, M. (2016) *Introduction to hospitality management student handbook*, CBSE, New Delhi, India.
11. Kumar, A., & Tulasi, M. R. S. (2016). Corporate Social Responsibility : A Study On Hotel Industry, *International Education & Research Journal*, 27-29.
12. Kumar, R., & Sharma, S. (2014). Corporate Social Responsibility-A study on hotel industry. *Asian Journal of Multidisciplinary Studies*, 2(4), 25-32.
13. Lakhawat, P., Suresh, P., & Bhaia, S. (2014). *Introduction to tourism and hotel industry*, CBSE, New Delhi, India.
14. Malik, S. & Vivek (2018). Corporate Social Responsibility: A Tool For Women Empowerment In Hospitality Sector. *International Journal Of Research And Analytical Reviews* 5(4), 48-52.
15. Malik, S. & Vivek (2020). Corporate Social Responsibility in the Indian Hotel Industry. *Wesleyan Journal of Research*, 12 (11), 13-17.
16. Mohammed, A., & Rashid, B. (2018). A conceptual model of corporate social responsibility dimensions, brand image, and customer satisfaction in Malaysian hotel industry. *Kasetsart Journal of social sciences*, 39(2), 358-364.
17. Ninemeier, J. D., & Perdue, J. (2008). *Discovering hospitality and tourism: The world's greatest industry*. Pearson Prentice Hall.
18. Qu, R. (2007). Corporate social responsibility in China. *Chinese Management Studies*, 1(3), 198-207.
19. Rashid, Z., & Ibrahim, S. (2002). Executive and management attitudes towards corporate social responsibility in Malaysia. *Corporate Governance: The international journal of business in society*, 2(4), 10-16.
20. Sabharwal, D., & Narula, S. (2015). Corporate social responsibility in India-introspection. *Journal of Mass Communication & Journalism*, 5, 270.
21. Saiia, D. H., Carroll, A. B., & Buchholtz, A. K. (2003). Philanthropy as strategy: When corporate charity "begins at home". *Business & Society*, 42(2), 169-201.
22. Sarkar, J., & Sarkar, S. (2015). Corporate social responsibility in India—An effort to bridge the welfare gap. *Review of Market Integration*, 7(1), 1-36.
23. Shah, S. (2011). Corporate Social Responsibility at Wipro Ltd.-A Case Study. *Prabandhan: Indian Journal of Management*, 4(8), 3-10.
24. Sharma, S., & Tomar, A. (2013). Corporate Social Responsibility and Sustainable Development. *Journal of Indian Research*, 1(4), 112-114. doi.org/10.1002/pa.230
25. Sufi, T. (2015). Indian Hotel Industry: Past, Present and Future. *Journal of Hotel Management (Online)*, March 2015.
26. Uvais, M., & Hafeefa Cholasseri (2013). Corporate Social Responsibility: Dimensions and Challenges In India. *International Journal of Engineering Science Invention* 2(3), 27-32.

#### Web

1. <https://wttc.org/Research/Economic-Impact>
2. [https://www.icsi.edu/media/webmodules/publications/CS\\_CorporateSaviour\\_HotelIndustry.pdf](https://www.icsi.edu/media/webmodules/publications/CS_CorporateSaviour_HotelIndustry.pdf)

## Measures Taken By Government for The Growth of Medical Tourism In India

Anil Kumar Singh & Arun Singh Thakur

### Abstract

*Abstract: -This article focusses on the scope and importance of medical tourism in India and measures taken by central and state government to promote medical tourism. Qualitative method is applied in this article and secondary data is used to gather information. Research shows India has potential to grow as the cost of treatment is low as compared to other countries and the sectors in which India can focus to attract tourists. The medical services in India that attract international tourists predominantly include dental and eye care treatment, orthopedics and trauma, cardiac care including surgery, urology, neurosurgery, plastic and cosmetic surgery, laparoscopic surgery, gastroenterology, kidney transplant and knee/hip surgeries.*

**Keywords:** Wellness Tourism, Yunani, Naturopathy, Ayurveda

### Introduction

Medical tourism can be broadly defined as provision of „cost effective“ private medical care in collaboration with the tourism industry for patients needing surgical and other forms of specialized treatment. This process is being facilitated by the corporate sector involved in medical care as well as the tourism industry - both private and public. In many developing countries it is being actively promoted by the government's official policy. India's National Health Policy for example, says: "To capitalize on the comparative cost advantage enjoyed by domestic health facilities in the secondary and tertiary sector, the policy will encourage the supply of services to patients of foreign origin on payment. The rendering of such services on payment in foreign exchange will be treated as deemed exports and will be made eligible for all fiscal incentives extended to export earnings". The formulation draws from recommendations that the corporate sector has been making in India and specifically from the "Policy Framework for Reforms in Health Care", drafted by the prime minister's Advisory Council on Trade and Industry, headed by Mukesh Ambani and Kumaramangalam Birla.

### Objective

- ★ To know the scope and importance of medical tourism in India.
- ★ To highlight the growth of medical tourism in India.
- ★ To describe the measures taken by Central and State government.

Historically India has been a regional healthcare hub for neighboring countries such as Afghanistan, Pakistan, Nepal, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Maldives and the Middle-East. India has a strong background for developing a unique medical treatment which had been patronized by the kings and merchants and others during the historical periods. Ancient Indian literatures like Upanishads, Bahamians and others strongly advocated the supremacy of medical treatment and medicines used were prepared mostly using herbs and shrubs collected from nature. This wonderful country is a treasure trove of health, as it had been for thousands of years. India's history in medicine dates back to the Atharva Veda – the first Indian text dealing with medicine. India's medical history is truly awe-inspiring with its traditional treatment therapies such as the Ayurveda and Yunani, which have been passed down through hundreds of generations. Historical accounts as narrated by different foreign travelers

---

**Anil Kumar Singh** Assistant Professor, Tourism Management, Faculty of Arts, BHU  
**Arun Singh Thakur** Assistant Professor, UIHTM, Panjab University, Chandigarh

disclosed that free medical treatment was offered to the foreign patient. Such facility was also provided to the courtiers, Brahmins, and needy people at free of cost. During early mid-Mughal period Delhi was emerged as a well-known centre for conclaves of physicians and surgeons. Traditionally some unique treatment methods was developed starting from Ayurveda, Yoga, Unani, Siddha and Homeopathy (AYUSH) in our country. Such system has been evolved through an evolutionary phases. India was one of the first Asian countries to recognize the export potential from medical tourism. Since 2002, after the Confederation of Indian Industry (CII) produced a study on medical tourism in collaboration with McKinsey management consultants, the Indian Government has strongly supported the development of the sector. This support included the improvement of important airport infrastructure and the marketing of Indian medical treatment abroad. Between 2009 and 2011, the number of medical tourists seeking treatment in India increased by 30%. Based on past growth, the number of medical tourists going to India is estimated to grow to nearly half a million annually by 2015.

### **Scope**

India's major attraction is "value for money", the low cost for medical procedures, the availability of mostly USA trained physicians and state-of-the-art technology due to the emergence of several private players in the hospital industry. Mattoo and Rathindran (2006) cite India as the biggest nationality block of foreign medical students in the United States. Many Indians who have practiced for years in the United States have returned home, attracted partly by the improved income prospects from the growth in Indian medical tourism. Now, the Medical Tourism in India has further expanded in its scope. Medical Tourism is regarded much as clinical, whereas Wellness Tourism encompasses both spiritual and clinical needs of the tourists to keep them in a right frame of health and mind. There is a great potential to further expand the Wellness Tourism framework in India. The Naturopathy, Yoga and Meditation can be promoted as tourism products. Besides India, there are several Asian destinations like Singapore, Malaysia and Thailand that are offering medical care facilities and promoting medical tourism. India excels among them for the following reasons:-

- ★ State of the Art medical facilities
- ★ Reputed healthcare professionals
- ★ Quality nursing facilities
- ★ No waiting time for availing the medical services

### **Importance**

Medical tourists in India tend to go for surgical treatments, especially cardiac procedures, orthopedic procedures, neurological and spinal surgery, as well as cosmetic surgery. Dental treatment is another popular service availed of by medical tourists in India. For wellness tourism, key attraction is the alternative medication such as ayurvedic spa. India is also focusing on the advancements of cord blood bank facilities as cord blood promises to become a critical input for many surgical treatments. Cord blood is the blood that remains in the umbilical cord after a baby is born and is a rich source of stem cells. The development of cord blood banks is expected to be a major boost for India's medical tourism.

### **Prospects of Growth**

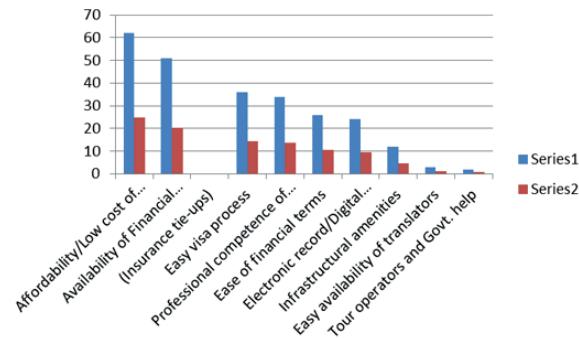
India, naturally endowed with a rich cultural heritage, tourism potential and reputation for age-old medicines and therapies such as Ayurveda, Unani, homeopathy, naturopathy and yoga is a heaven for wellness tourism. However, in terms of market share the country enjoys a meager part of the global wellness market which evidently points at the under utilization of the potential and wellness quotient that India treasures. Fortunately, with regard to medical tourism, India has been successful to a large extent in positioning itself as a viable destination for cost-effective and qualitative advanced healthcare. However, one must not forget the keenness and speed with which countries such as South Africa, China, Malaysia, Thailand and Indonesia are accentuating their medical facilities and strategizing rapidly to garner larger market shares and revenues. Therefore, it is pertinent for India to rethink the marketing plans on medical and wellness tourism in terms of the services offered in the country. What is also crucial is how the country is positioned to the world as a unique destination. India's main target markets are the developed countries, especially the United Kingdom and the United States. Patients from neighboring South Asian countries such as Pakistan, Bangladesh and China also visit India for treatment. Having identified the growing potential of medical and wellness segments, several medical tourism companies / facilitators promising end-to-end medical tourism services have sprung up across the country. Inarguably, medical tourism is an economic tool for a nation like India to boost its economy through direct benefits such as increase in revenue, employment opportunities, investments in tourism avenues, etc. and indirect benefits that include spillover effects leading to growth in other industries. Though the benefits may apparently be micro-faced, the ripple effect is capable of touching innumerable spheres in the economy, namely, rise in living standards of people associated with tourism,

need for education, demand for related educational courses, growth ancillary industries and so on.

For these 135 patients mentioned earlier who travelled to some other country prior to coming to India, a comparative perception of India versus those countries in terms of overall medical tourism experience was done. It was seen that most of the patients rated services in India as better than the prior country.

**Table. Primary Reasons for choosing INDIA**

Primary Reasons for choosing INDIA	Number	Percentage
Affordability/Low cost of services	62	24.8
Availability of Financial provisions (Insurance tie-ups)	51	20.4
Easy visa process	36	14.4
Professional competence of Staff	34	13.6
Ease of financial terms	26	10.4
Electronic record/Digital health	24	9.6
Infrastructural amenities	12	4.8
Easy availability of translators	3	1.2
Tour operators and Govt. help	2	0.8



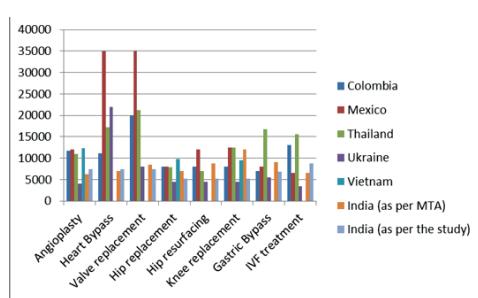
#### Comparative analysis of the costs internationally

A comparison of the cost of procedures for various modalities in India versus that in other medical tourism destinations was done. It was seen that the cost incurred in the study was lower than that stated internationally for most procedures other than cardiac procedures. The highly localised nature of the study, being restricted to only one region can be a possible explanation for the observed discrepancies in the procedure costs. It can also be seen that the average cost of procedures in India have fared competitively compared to other medical tourism destinations across the world.

**Table. Comparative Analysis of the Costs Internationally**

Treatment expenses (In USDs)	Colombia	Mexico	Thailand	Ukraine	Vietnam	India (as per MTA)	India (as per the study)
Angioplasty	11700	12000	10938	4000	12290	6200	7384
Heart Bypass	11200	35000	17188	22000		7000	7384
Valve replacement	20000	35000	21188	8000		8500	7384
Hip replacement	8000	8000	7813	4500	9860	7000	5145
Hip resurfacing	8000	12000	7000	4500		8800	5145
Knee replacement	8000	12500	12500	4500	9490	12000	5145
Gastric Bypass	7000	8000	16800	5500		9000	6900
IVF treatment	13000	6500	15625	3500		6500	8775

\*-Medical tourism association USA <https://www.medicaltourism.com/compare-prices>



#### Advantages of Visiting India for Medical Treatment

- ★ Internationally accredited medical facilities using the latest technologies
- ★ Highly qualified Physicians/Surgeons and hospital support staff
- ★ Significant cost savings compared to domestic private healthcare
- ★ Medical treatment costs in India are lower by at least 60-80% when compared to similar procedures in North America and the UK
- ★ No Wait Lists

- ❖ Fluent English speaking staff
- ❖ Options for private room, translator, private chef, dedicated staff during your stay and many other tailor-made services
- ❖ Can easily be combined with a holiday/business trip

### Need of Improvement

There is an utter need of improvement in ensuring world-class services to medical tourists in India. It needs to travel a long mile to harness the opportunities available and equip itself to address the strategic challenges that include:-

- ❖ Poor brand perception of India.
- ❖ Shortage of qualified workforce.

### SWOT analysis

Strengths	Weaknesses
1. Economy in cost. 2. Qualified doctors with brand name. 3. International recognized Brand name hospitals. 4. Good services during procedural stage. 5. Online Consistency 6. Availability of all kinds of medical treatments. 7. Less waiting time for treatment 8. Good infrastructure with technologies and facilities. 9. Hygiene and cleanliness in the hospitals.	1. Arrangements of interpreters 2. Problems in obtaining visa. 3. Non-availability of financial support 4. Lags in discharge instructions. 5. Lags in follow ups and monitoring. 6. Behaviour of tour operating staff 7. Differential pricing policies. 8. Inadequate lodging arrangements 9. Corruption
Opportunities	Threats
1. Increasing demand due to high cost of medical treatments in other nations. 2. Increased demand due to no or less waiting time for the treatments 3. Increased demand due to non-availability of very good medical facilities in the neighbouring countries. 4. India is rated among the top 3 nations in Asia and Delhi falls among five top destinations for medical tourism in India. 5. Patients from around the globe.	1. Lack of international accreditation 2. Visa hurdles 3. Lack of financial support 4. Competition from South East Asian nations like Thailand and Singapore. 5. Non-availability of good translators and interpreters. 6. Infrastructure not impressive 7. Corruption 8. Security threats

### Promotional Measures Taken by the Central Government

To promote growth in the Indian medical travel industry, the Central government has plans to improve health infrastructure. The National accreditation Board for Hospitals and Healthcare Providers (NABH) does its own accreditation of hospitals to guarantee service quality and has so far accredited several of the hospital members. It is currently in the process of increasing the number of hospitals, clinics and clinical laboratories in urban as well as rural parts of the country. Incentives and tax holidays are being offered to hospitals and dispensaries providing health travel facilities. The Indian medical travel and healthcare sector offers plenty of opportunities for businessmen, medical equipment manufacturers, healthcare service providers, and tourist agencies and the government is encouraging them to invest in therapeutic and preventive health services so as to increase medical travel to India. The overseas offices of India's Ministry of Tourism market medical tourism by stocking up and disseminating information's about Indian hospitals for potential foreign patients. They advertise the sector's expertise in cardiac surgery, oncology treatment, orthopedic and joint replacement, holistic healthcare in hospitals that they promote as centers of excellence. The government also provides special M-visas for patients and their companions that have longer durations of stay (usually one year) than ordinary tourist visas. The government improved airport infrastructure to smoothen the arrival and departure of medical tourists. It has championed a public-private sector partnership (PPP) model at both central and state level to improve healthcare infrastructure to provide efficient services and innovative delivery models.

### Promotional Initiatives of State Tourism Boards

At the state level, several initiatives are taken by the industry in association with the state governments.

#### Kerala

Since 1990s, Kerala Tourism Development Corporation (KTDC) is promoting health tourism to cater to the requirements of the visitors. Tie-up with various Government and Private Ayurveda Centers has also increased the quality of treatment provided to the visitors.

#### Karnataka

This state is in the process of setting up of a Bangalore International Health City Corporation, offering patients with a wide variety of healthcare products and treatments. The Government of Karnataka is also in the process of leveraging the state's IT prowess to tap business in the healthcare outsourcing services. IT skills would help enhance Karnataka's position in associated services to the growing healthcare sector such as medical billing, disease coding, forms processing and claims settlement.

It is also bidding high on Telemedicine, a concept by which patients can be treated even when the doctor is geographically placed in a different area.

### **Maharashtra**

In Maharashtra, the Infrastructure Development and Support of Maharashtra (MIDAS) has granted the tourism activity with an industry status, with the objective of granting all the benefits and incentives that are given to other industries. This Act would also empower the Maharashtra Tourism Development Corporation (MTDC) as a special planning authority, to procure and provide land available at various tourism estates without needing approval from the Maharashtra Industrial Development Corporation (MIDC). The industry in association with the state government has set up a Medical Tourism Council of Maharashtra (MTCM).

### **Gujarat**

This is one of the few states which has announced a separate policy for medical tourism, with the objective of creating integrated medical tourism circuits based on the location of specialty hospitals, heritage and culture. In addition, Gujarat is in the process of setting up a Healthcare Tourism Council in association with the healthcare and tourism industry.

### **West Bengal**

Kolkata is, slowly but surely, regaining its rightful place in the healthcare firmament in not just India but this part of the world. Several latest healthcare facilities have been set up by the private sector even as the State Government has been proactive in encouraging public private partnerships (PPP) in this sector.

In the last few years, West Bengal has zeroed in on its strategy for the healthcare sector. A health policy has been formulated towards this end. Among other things, the policy focuses on the importance of PPP in healthcare and its delivery mechanism. Reforms have been initiated to ensure that the poor have access to quality healthcare. The PPP model pursued by the State Government does not involve only the private sector but also non-government organizations and community-based organizations. In the last 10-15 years, several new healthcare facilities have come up in the city. They include hospitals such as Kothari, Peerless, Ruby, Wockhardt, AMRI, Rabindranath Tagore International Institute of Cardiac Sciences, and so on. These have augmented the city's healthcare offerings in addition to older institutions such as The Calcutta Medical Research Institute, Belle Vue Clinic, Woodlands Nursing Home, and so on.

Another area where a lot was found wanting was diagnostic facilities. An attempt to bridge the crucial gap between the growing need for diagnostic facilities and outlets engaged in the same was first made on December 1988 with the setting up of the Medinova Diagnostic

Services. Says Mr. RupakBarua, Chief Operating Officer, and the Calcutta Medical Research & Research Centre: "The healthcare sector in Kolkata did not grow because body corporates were disinclined to invest in the sector. Things have changed now and the healthcare segment is among the fastest-growing industry segments in India. As such, the corporate sector is keen to partake in the growth opportunities that exist in the healthcare segment today". According to him, in the last few years, many NRI doctors, paramedics and nursing staff have come back to their roots in Kolkata.

### **Challenges**

There are several issues which are hindering factors for the growth of medical tourism in our country, they are:-

- ★ No strong government support/initiative to promote medical tourism.
- ★ Lack of proper insurance policies for this sector.
- ★ Lack of uniform pricing policies across hospitals.
- ★ Customer's perception as an unhygienic country.
- ★ Lack of international accreditation- a major inhibitor.
- ★ Strong competition from countries like Thailand, Malaysia and Singapore.
- ★ Under-investment in health infrastructure.
- ★ Middlemen with little or no knowledge and training to manage patients are playing havoc.
- ★ Low coordination between various players in the industry like airline operators, hotels and hospitals.

### **Conclusion**

India is attracting an ever increasing number of tourists predominantly from the Middle East, Iran, Pakistan, Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Turkey, Europe and the USA. The states that are fast emerging as India's best medical tourism centers are Telengana, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra and New Delhi. The medical services in India that attract international tourists predominantly include dental and eye care treatment, orthopedics and trauma, cardiac care including surgery, urology, neurosurgery, plastic and cosmetic surgery, laparoscopic surgery, gastroenterology, kidney transplant and knee/hip surgeries.

The alternative medicine services available in India namely Unani, Ayurveda, homeopathy, naturopathy and wellness services including yoga and meditation are increasingly becoming popular among foreign patients as non-surgical treatments for various ailments.

Kerala for Ayurveda and Kairali massage, Uttarakhand for Yoga and meditation, Goa for holistic living, Rajasthan for spas and heritage living, are some of the world-renowned places in India for alternative medicine.

Furthermore, the country is also renowned for its unique travel experiences on an emotional, intellectual and

spiritual level. Thus, the key competitive advantages of India in medical tourism arise from the following:-

- ❖ Doctors and nurses with work experience from USA and Europe.
- ❖ Strong reputation in advanced healthcare segments.
- ❖ English fluency of the medical team.
- ❖ Top-of-the-line medical and diagnostic equipment from international conglomerates across many hospitals in India.
- ❖ Indian nurses among the best in the world.
- ❖ World-class yet affordable treatment.
- ❖ Diversity of tourist destinations available in the country.

## References

1. Connell John, medical tourism : Sea, sun, sand and surgery, *Tourism management*, 27(6), December 2006, 1093-1100.
2. Hirschman A.O, the strategy of Economic development, new heaven yale University press 1958.
3. Whittaker, Pleasure and pain: Medical Travel in Asia, *Global public health* 3(3), 2008, 271-290.
4. Amit Sen Gupta, Medical tourism in India : Winners and losers, *Indian Journal of medical ethics*, 5(1), 2008, 4-5
5. Reddy, Sunita, and ImranaQadeer. "Medical tourism in India: Progress or predicament." *Economic and Political Weekly* 45(20), 2010, 69-75.
6. Business standard Article dt 2 nd Dec 2010.
7. Lunt, Neil, and Percivil Carrera. "Medical tourism: assessing the evidence on treatment abroad." *Maturitas* 66.1, (2010), 27-32.
8. Trivedi, M. "Medical Tourism in India." (2013). Philica article 387.
9. Laing, Jennifer, and Betty Weiler. "Mind, body and spirit: Health and wellness tourism in Asia." *Asian tourism: Growth and change*, 2008, 379-389.
10. De Arellano, Annette B. Ramirez. "Patients without borders: the emergence of medical tourism." *International Journal of Health Services*, 37.1, 2007, 193-198.
11. Heung, Vincent CS, DenizKucukusta, and Haiyan Song. "A conceptual model of medical tourism: Implications for future research." *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 27.3, 2010, 236-251.
12. Hudson, Simon, and Xiang Li. "Domestic medical tourism: A neglected dimension of medical tourism research." *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 21.3, 2012, 227-246.
13. CII-McKinsey (2002): "Health Care in India: The Road Ahead", CII, McKinsey and Company and Indian Healthcare Federation, New Delhi.
14. Mishra, Rajendra, and Kumar Shailesh. "Making Indian Healthcare Market a Global Medical Tourism Destination." *IOSR Journal of Business and Management*, 2.4, 2012.

# Does Resident Welcoming Nature affect Resident Attitude Towards Tourism Development?

Mukhtar Bin Farooq Ibni Ali, Reyaz A. Qureshi & Danish Mehraj

## Abstract

This study seeks to explain how resident's degree of welcoming nature influences and impacts residents perceptions of tourism and attitude towards its development. The concepts used in model creation are derived from Durkheim's Emotional Solidarity theory and Social Exchange Theory. Using a structural equation modeling approach, this research attempted to study residents welcoming nature as an antecedent of their attitude and perceived positive and negative impacts of tourism. To test the proposed model, the data was collected at three prominent destinations of the study region using a questionnaire survey. A total of 322 responses were collected using a convenience sampling method. The finding of the study report that welcoming nature of residents significantly predicted and influenced resident's perceptions about tourism impacts and also their attitude regarding tourism development.

**Keywords:** Residents' attitude, Residents' Welcoming nature, Tourism impacts.

## 1. Introduction

Tourism is a dynamic industry that contributes significantly to global economic progress (Goodwin, 2007; Zhao & Ritchie, 2007; Zhao, 2009; Porter et al., 2015, Charag et al., 2019, Zhuang et al., 2019; Pavlic et al., 2020). Tourism development is generally viewed as a means to review local economies. This industry has established itself as an important driver of economic growth, globally contributing 10.4 percent to the GDP and generating employment for 313 million people in 2017 (WTTC, 2018a; WTTC, 2018b). It has resulted in concrete advantages such as enhanced business and employment, higher levels of income, enhanced living experiences, better facilities and amenities, and the protection and development of local cultural (Latip et al., 2018; Saqib et al., 2019; Hammad et al., 2017 & Charag et al., 2019). On the other hand, as tourism industry starts to flourish in an area, a number of associated negative impacts might pose a severe threat. Numerous authors believe that tourism has both favourable as well as unfavorable impact on the communities (Pavlic et al., 2020; Alrwajfah et al., 2019). As such increased tourism degrades the natural habitat, promotes crime and drug use, and also creates

traffic mess in certain location (Giannoni, 2009; Tosun 2002; Latkova and Vogt, 2012 & Alrwajfah et al., 2019).

Based on the theory of social exchange (SET), scholars have been working upon sustainable tourism development models with the aims to study the impacts tourism it has on the local residents (e.g. Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015). According to SET, the monetary benefits sought from tourism as an industry are the major motivations for residents to enhance their degree of support for tourism growth (Ap, 1992). This framework helps to understand how various aspects of tourism are inter-related and how residents attitudes towards tourism are formed (Choi and Murray, 2010).

Despite the potential of SET to provide a model for understanding the interactions between communities and tourism, its findings have been inconsistent (Woosnam and Norman, 2009). Andereck et al., (2005) noted that the theory may not be an adequate tool for understanding the responses of local residents to tourism. Critics of the social exchange theory claim that it does not consider the impact residents' relationships with tourists have on their attitude regarding tourism development.

---

**Mukhtar Bin Farooq Ibni Ali** Doctoral Fellow, Department of Tourism, Hospitality & Leisure Studies, University of Kashmir

**Reyaz A. Qureshi** Department of Tourism, Hospitality & Leisure Studies, University of Kashmir  
**Danish Mehraj** Assistant Professor © Department of Management Studies North Campus, University of Kashmir

Likewise, the studies on residents' attitudes mostly focused on individual residents' perceptions of tourism, while disregarding the emotive link amongst locals and visitors (Woosnam 2012). Though few studies have tried to fill this gap (Tse and Tung, 2022; Tosun et al., 2020; Zaman and Aktan, 2021), it still needs more attention and research to be sufficient. The lack of comprehensive literature on these factors has raised concerns about the potential impact of this industry on the local population. To address this issue, the scientific discourse should expand its scope of study to include studies on the various aspects of the welcoming nature of residents and the tourism impacts on their communities. (Xiong et al., 2021; Zaman and Aktan, 2021; Wang and Zhang, 2020).

However, the topic is receiving a lot of attention in the developed countries (Ribero et al. 2015; Tosun et al., 2020; Zaman and Aktan, 2021; Tse and Tung, 2022). This research area has gone unnoticed in developing country like India in general and Kashmir in particular. Besides the available literature suggests an absence of empirical studies studying the impact of the resident-tourist relationship on residents pro or anti- tourism attitudes in Kashmir. The outcomes of this study will be used to apprise the policymakers in the region about the various policies and programs that they should implement to ensure sustainable tourism development.

It is also imperative to mention that almost 50% - 60% of the population of Kashmir Valley is associated with the tourism industry (Bhat & Majumdar, 2021). So, studying the reactions of local residents to tourism is in the best interests of all stakeholders in order to ensure sustainable development.

## **2. Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses Development**

### **2.1 Residents pro tourism development attitude**

To sustain tourism-driven economies, residents must be willing partners in the tourism development process. The efficiency of the tourism policy and planning vis a viz tourism development, marketing and operationalization of current and impending programmes, the resident's perception of and their attitudes towards tourism impacts is considered to have a significant impact (Ap, 1992). Resident involvement and support for an activity like tourism is a direct function of cost and benefits associated with it. (Perić, Durkin and Wise, 2016).

According to Kuvan and Akan (2005), it is well acknowledged that the costs and benefits of tourism are very deterministic as far as their pro or anti tourism attitude is concerned. In a study to examine the attitude of locals towards the protected areas, Nastran (2015) discovered that the positive effects of tourism on the local communities can improve their attitudes toward biodiversity conservation. Researchers have not only explored the correlation between tourism impacts

and community satisfaction but between perceived impacts and resident support as well (Peng, Chen, and Wang, 2016). Basically, the host community's attitude toward tourism as the number of tourists increases in the destination community ranges from satisfaction to apathy, resentment, and hate. (Adeli, 2012). Community perception regarding tourism industry can vary depending on the reaction of the local people to such an activity and that could include satisfaction, indifference, resentment, and hostility (Adeli, 2012). For instance, they can be satisfied with the number of visitors to their area or they can be hostile towards the industry. The study conducted by Lee (2013) on the potential impacts of tourism found that the costs associated with tourism development and support provided by the local communities are negatively linked and the welfares brought by tourism development and support provided by the local communities are positively linked. Although tourism can be successfully developed but it can also be difficult to achieve a balanced budget and a sustainable development due to the various challenges that it has to face. Some of these include the need to provide the right incentives and the failure to reach the social optimum (Winkler, 2010).

SET is a widely used framework in tourism research (Ward & Berino, 2011; Coulson et al., 2014) to scan the attitudes of residents toward the development of tourism. While studying residents' reactions to tourism development it has made a significant contribution (Gursoy, Chi, & Dyer, 2009). Social Exchange theory has been employed by a variety of authors to investigate resident's reaction toward tourism development. These include Long, Allen, and Perdue (1990), whose work is considered as one of the most prominent studies in the field (e.g. Ap & Crompton, 1993; McGehee & Andereck, 2004). This theory seeks to explain how people transact and exchange their resources with a community (Ap, 1992). As per this theory, poor nations tend to tradeoff their inconveniences on account of tourism activities for the economic gains they seek to gain out of it. For tourism industry to thrive within a community it is imperative for it to have a favourable and supportive opinion from the residents (Alegre & Cladera, 2009). Hence, it is important to study, evaluate and access how residents' think about tourism and its impacts on their community on a continuous basis. (Allen, Long, Perdue & Kieselbach, 1988).

### **2.2 Welcoming nature of residents**

Previous research on residents' attitudes has mostly focused on how each individual resident feels about tourism. It hasn't taken into account how residents and tourists feel about each other (Woosnam, 2012). Wearing and Wearing (2001) suggest that emotional interaction between locals and tourists within a community forms the very base of tourism as a phenomenon, as theorized by Durkheim. Taking inspiration from Durkheim's theory,

locals and tourists can form an emotional bond amongst themselves. This is because the locals interact, share their beliefs and behaviors with the tourists. Based on what Durkheim wrote in 1915, it is believed that the degree to which a community or residents of a community interact and share their beliefs and behaviors with tourists, it can predict their emotional solidarity with each other. Though in previous research it is mostly figured as a dependent variable (McChesney and Bengston, 1988), its exogenous behaviour was also recognized lately (Hasani et al., 2016).

It was in 2009 when Woosnam, Norman, and Ying took Durkheim's ideas about emotional solidarity and ended up moving them from a religious context to a touristic one. To be precise, apart from the construct named interaction, the constructs sacred beliefs and ritualistic behaviour was changed to shared beliefs and shared behavior respectively (Woosnam, Norman, and Ying, 2009). In order to understand the feelings residents have for the visitors Woosnam and Norman (2010) established a conceptual framework to explain the host guest relationship taking theory of emotional solidarity into consideration. According to Woosnam (2012), the resident's level of support for tourism is influenced by the resident's degree of welcoming nature towards the tourists.

The concept of emotional solidarity can be used to examine the various relationships between tourists and residents. It can help identify the factors that contribute to the development of an emotional connection between the host and the guest (Woosnam, Aleshinloye, & Maruyama, 2016, p. 2). Emotional solidarity is, at its most basic, the feeling of oneness that ties people together and makes them feel like "we" instead of "me against you." (Jacobs & Allen, 2005).

Among the constructs of emotional solidarity scale i.e. welcoming nature, emotional closeness and sympathetic understanding, only the construct welcoming nature was used to predict resident's perception of tourism and attitude towards tourism development. The justification for employing only this factor is that welcoming nature has constantly explained high variance in previous works (Woosnam & Aleshinloye, 2013; Woosnam, 2011a; 2011b; 2012) and it describes an all-encompassing form of solidarity (Woosnam et al., 2016). Accordingly, this study hypothesizes that:

- H1: A significant relationship exists between residents welcoming nature and their attitude towards tourism development.
- H2: A significant relationship exists between residents welcoming nature and their perception of positive impacts of tourism.
- H3: A significant relationship exists between residents welcoming nature and their perception of negative impacts of tourism.

### **2.3 Residents' perception of impacts of tourism and their attitude towards tourism development.**

Tourism development involves a complicated web of interconnections, which may have both beneficial, known as positive and adverse, known as negative impact on the surrounding community. Both categories of these impacts are together referred to as "tourism impacts." (Huei-Wen and Huei-Fu, 2016). As far as the literature pertaining to tourism is concerned, 'tourism impact' as a term has received significant attention. As provided by Liu and Var (1986) tourism development is generally appreciated for its associated economic benefits and criticized as it also has negative sociocultural and environmental impacts. Economic factors include perceived benefits at individual and community level that results in more income and improved living standards (Millman & Pizam, 1988); more job opportunities (Rothman, 1978); and higher tax revenues (Brougham & Butler, 1981).

Numerous positive tourism impacts have been identified to exist as the tourism development takes place in a community. These include the establishment of new infrastructures, the enhancement of the local identity, preservations of cultural and the appreciation of historical and natural resources (Andereck and Nyaupane, 2011). The other sectors of economy that ensure sustainable development e.g agriculture is also influenced by tourism (Shin, Kim and Son, 2017). According to Jago (2012), tourism as an industry can provide numerous benefits. These include increased domestic and foreign currency earnings, the establishment of new businesses, multiplier effect and the increased employment opportunities. It can also lead to advancements in education and healthcare (Brunt and Courtney, 1999). The tourism industry is expected to contribute to the protection of various environmental and cultural identities by providing a steady source of revenue (Weaver, 2009). It also creates jobs in the local communities that are located around protected areas (Adeleke, 2015).

Regrettably, tourism as an industry can also adversely impact local communities in several ways. Some of these include overpopulation of public spaces and infrastructures, increasing prices of accommodations, disruption of their traditional lifestyle, overuse of resources, use of illicit substances, and the environmental degradation (Almeida, Peláez, Balbuena and Cortés, 2016). The type and degree of impact on a destination vary by location, setting, visitor type, and activity. Some of the perceived negative impacts that residents can experience include the disruption of local life (Schofield, 2011) and pollution (Stylidis et al., 2014). It can also lead to higher prices for goods and services (Tovar and Lockwood, 2008).

Various empirical studies suggest that hosts tend to support tourism if its positive impacts outweigh the costs

or negative impacts (Vareiro, Remaldo, and Ribeiro, 2013). The negative impacts that have been identified include the displacement of traditional communities, the breaking up of family structures, prostitution, and racial tensions (Zamani-Farahani and Musa, 2012). Studies investigating adverse, ill or undesirable impacts of tourism are found to have surfaced very late in tourism research (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). Perceived sociological and environmental concerns include impact on recreational opportunities (Ross, 1992); increased crime (Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996); loss of historic value (Liu, Sheldon & Var, 1987); increased traffic (Tyrell & Spaulding, 1984); and the natural environment (Johnson, Snepenger & Akis, 1994). Impact studies frequently place a greater emphasis on the financial gains while disregarding the social consequences. (Goodman, 1994). In light of the preceding discussion, the proposed hypothesis are given as under:

- H4: A significant positive relationship exists between perceived positive impacts of tourism and resident attitude towards tourism development.
- H5: A significant negative relationship exists between perceived negative impacts of tourism and resident attitude towards tourism development.

### 3. Methods

#### 3.1 Research instrument

Questionnaire survey method of data collection was utilised to meet the research objectives. The items for the constructs i.e. residents welcoming nature (4 items), perceived positive and negative tourism impacts (8 items each) and resident attitude towards tourism development (5 items) were adapted from the previous studies. The scales for the constructs welcoming nature and attitude towards tourism were adapted from Hasani et al., (2016). Items for constructs perceived positive and negative impacts of tourism were adapted from Eusébio et al., (2018). Items for the constructs were also modified to meet the research context. On a 5-point Likert-type scale, responses ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Various demographic variables were employed in the analysis to acquire an overview of the sample demographic characteristics.

#### 3.2 Selection of Study site and sampling technique

Residents of age 18 years or above belonging to three famous destinations i.e. Gulmarg, Pehalgam and Srinagar constituted the sampling frame for this study. Being the most prominent tourist places in relation to tourist footfall and the diversity of the visiting tourists, both domestic and international, Judgment sampling was used to select these destinations. For the purpose a data collection, questionnaires were used and convenience sampling approach was followed. According to Hoelter

(1983), a critical sample size of 200 samples is acceptable when employing the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) approach. In order to conduct factor analysis, an item to respondent ratio of 5 or 10 respondents per parameter is suggested by Kline (2011). In line with these recommendations, the researcher arrived at a total of 322 usable questionnaires, after treating outliers, at the end of the data collection process. The collected data was subjected to normality test using skewness and kurtosis and corresponding values were found to be in the acceptable range of  $\pm 2$ .

## 4. Results

### 4.1 Sample characteristics

Demographic analysis reveals that 67.7% of respondents were males and 32.3% were females. The proportion of respondents falling in the age group 18- 29 years were 57.8% (N=320), 30-39 years were 24.4% (N=320), 40-49 years were 17.2% (N=320) and only a few (0.6%) were 50-59 years of age (N=320). As far as educational qualification is concerned 59.3% were having a post graduate degree. All the respondents were Muslims. By occupation 43.8% of the respondents were students, 27% were having a job, 16.1% were unemployed and 13% were self-employed. The respondents were found reluctant to disclose their monthly income with only 221 responses when asked about it and most of the respondents (58.4%, N=221) were having a monthly income of Rs 20,000 to 40,000.

### 4.2 Factor analysis

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was utilized to evaluate the model. Following a systematic approach, the data was subjected to exploratory (EFA) and confirmatory (CFA) factor analysis. It started with EFA to gauge the latent constructs of the model. EFA is also well considered to purify scales measuring the specific constructs within a given model based on communality values, loadings, inter item correlations and reliability of scales. Subsequently, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed, and the model was evaluated for its convergent validity, discriminant validity and reliability.

#### 4.2.1 Exploratory factor analysis.

To conduct exploratory factor analysis, using IBM SPSS, principal component method of extraction with varimax rotation was used. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test of sample adequacy value of .860 surpassed the minimum threshold of 0.5 signifying that the data is fit for conducting EFA. Similarly, the Bartlett's test of Sphericity values for the four latent variables was significant as well. The items in the questionnaire with cross loadings (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006) and communalities below .5 were removed. As a result two items from positive impacts ("tourism increases cultural event offerings" (PI4), "tourism increases opportunities

for recreation" (PI8)) and two items from negative impacts ("tourism increases prostitution in my area" (NI6), "tourism increases theft and vandalism in my region" (NI7)) and one item from the attitude towards tourism ("The presence of tourists in my community

is interesting" (AT5)) was dropped. Thus, a total of 5 items were dropped from the questionnaire. In order to guarantee the construct reliabilities, the reliability coefficients exceeded the cut off value of 0.70, shown in the table 1.

**Table 1 Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis**

Attributes	Factor Loadings	Communalities	Chronbach Alpha	VE
Factor 1: Welcoming Nature (WC)				
"I am proud to have tourists in my region". (WC1).	.757	.684		
"I feel the community benefits from having tourists in my region" (WC2).	.781	.681		
"I appreciate tourists for the contribution they make to the local economy of my region" (WC3).	.816	.758	.862	7.921%
"I treat tourists fairly in my region" (WC4).	.803	.748		
Factor 2: Positive Impacts (PI)				
"Tourism improves the image of my region" (PI1).	.799	.665		
"Tourism increases employment opportunities in my region" (PI2).	.853	.751		
"Tourism helps in promotion of local traditions" (PI3).	.803	.656		
"Tourism improves infrastructure and public services like roads etc". (PI5).	.735	.582		
"Tourism contributes to the growth of local businesses (restaurants, hotels, shops, etc.)" (PI6).	.827	.732	.893	19.531%
"Tourism increases of quality life" (PI7).	.767	.624		
Factor 3: Negative Impacts (NI)				
"Tourism increases criminality in my region" (NI1).	.866	.775		
"Tourism disturbs the peace in the region" (NI2).	.686	.576		
"Tourism leads to increase in sexually transmitted diseases in my region" (NI3).	.818	.674		
"Tourism increases stress level in locals" (NI4).	.834	.786		
"Tourism increases drug consumption in my region" (NI5).	.805	.665	.896	33.079%
"Tourism damages natural environment in my region" (NI8).	.742	.599		
Factor 4: Attitude Towards Tourism Development (AT)				
"Having tourists in the area/community is a good idea" (AT1).	.822	.790		
"Improving tourism activity in the area/community is a wise idea" (AT2).	.824	.769		
"I like the idea of having more tourists in the area/community" (AT3).	.785	.729	.895	9.575%
"Having tourists in this area/community is pleasant" (AT4).	.832	.778		

#### 4.2.3 Confirmatory factor analysis.

As advised by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), SEM follows a logical sequence to first test the measurement model and then the structural model. As a result, CFA was employed to evaluate the proposed measurement

model with four variables including one dependent and three independent variables. The measurement quality of the model was accessed using multiple fit indices. Chi-square as measure of overall model fit was used. As chi-square is affected by sample size Brown (2015), several

other model fit indices were selected as suggested by Hair et al., (2006). These fit indices include goodness of fit, Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). The results of the model produced acceptable values for the fit indices yielding adequate model fit with chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) value = 489.444,  $\chi^2/df = 2.984$ , GFI = .871, AGFI = .835, TLI = .902, CFI = .916, RMSEA = .079 and SRMR = .0485.

Composite reliability, convergent and discriminant validity was used to evaluate the reliability and validity of the measurement model as given in Table 3. To confirm the reliability of the constructs, composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) values should be equal to or above the threshold values of 0.70 and 0.50, respectively. As shown in the table 3 CR scores ranged from .877 to .897 and AVE scores ranged from .587 to

.653, well above the suggested threshold values. These findings confirm that the model is reliable.

As far as convergent validity is concerned factor loadings, AVE, and CR scores were taken into consideration. The results were in line with the Hair et al. (2010) criteria i.e. all the dimensions had loadings greater than 0.50 (shown in table 4), the AVE values exceeded 0.50, and that CR values were greater than 0.70 (as shown in Table 3). These results show that convergent validity was demonstrated.

Discriminant validity assesses the degree of distinctiveness of the constructs employed in the measurement model (Hair et al., 2014). It is done by comparing the square root of AVE for each dimension with the inter construct correlations. After doing so no issues related to discriminant validity were reported as can be seen in table 3. Off-diagonal values less than that of diagonal values also confirm discriminant validity in question as suggested by Fornell and Lacker (1981).

**Table 2 Measurement Model Results.**

Attributes	Factor Loadings	Composite Reliability	AVE
Factor 1: Welcoming Nature (WC)			
"I am proud to have tourists in my region' (WC1).	.77		
"I feel the community benefits from having tourists in my region" (WC2).	.75		
"I appreciate tourists for the contribution they make to the local economy of my region" (WC3).	.85	0.877	0.641
"I treat tourists fairly in my region" (WC4).	.83		
Factor 2: Positive Impacts (PI)			
"Tourism improves the image of my region" (PI1).	.77		
"Tourism increases employment opportunities in my region" (PI2).	.83		
"Tourism helps in promotion of local traditions" (PI3).	.74		
"Tourism improves infrastructure and public services like roads etc". (PI5).	.70		
"Tourism contributes to the growth of local businesses (restaurants, hotels, shops, etc.)" (PI6).	.83		
"Tourism increases of quality life" (PI7).	.74		
Factor 3: Negative Impacts (NI)			
"Tourism increases criminality in my region" (NI1).	.82		
"Tourism disturbs the peace in the region" (NI2).	.71		
"Tourism leads to increase in sexually transmitted diseases in my region" (NI3).	.74		
"Tourism increases stress level in locals" (NI4).	.89		
"Tourism increases drug consumption in my region" (NI5).	.74		
"Tourism damages natural environment in my region" (NI8).	.69		
Factor 4: Attitude Towards Tourism Development (ATD)			

"Having tourists in the area/community is a good idea" (AT1).	.82	0.882	0.653
"Improving tourism activity in the area/community is a wise idea" (AT2).	.82		
"I like the idea of having more tourists in the area/community" (AT3).	.78		
"Having tourists in this area/community is pleasant" (AT4).	.83		

**Table 3 Correlations and average variance extracted.**

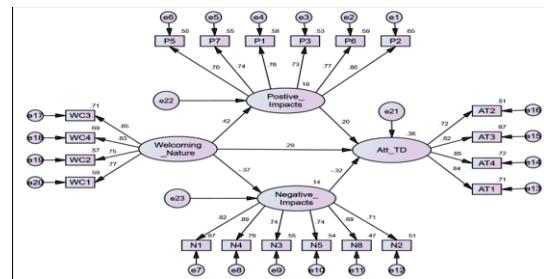
	AVE	ATD	NI	PI	WC
Attitude (ATD)	0.653	0.808a			
Negative Impacts (NI)	0.587	-0.447	0.766		
Positive Impacts (PI)	0.594	0.274	-0.042	0.771	
Welcoming Nature (WC)	0.641	0.493	-0.375	0.417	0.801

<sup>a</sup> values in bold represent square roots of each AVE; off-diagonal elements are construct correlations.

### 4.3 Structural Model and Hypotheses Testing

To test the proposed hypothesis Structural Equation Modelling Technique was used. The results of the structural model exhibited that the model fit the data well with chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) value = 493.908,  $\chi^2/df = 2.993$ , GFI=.870, AGFI=.835, TLI=.902, CFI=.915, RMSEA=.079 and

SRMR = .0556. These indices values suggest acceptability of the structural model and ensures that it fits well with the data. The structural model is presented in Figure 1. To proceed further with hypotheses testing standardized path coefficients, and t values (shown in table 4) were analyzed and all the proposed hypotheses were supported. As can be seen, resident welcoming nature was found to influence resident attitude towards tourism development significantly at a 95% confidence level.



positive and negative impacts of tourism were both supported. Our results are supplemented by the work of Ribeiro et al (2017) who also found that residents welcoming nature positively and negatively impacts resident perception towards positive and negative tourism impacts respectively. Similar findings were reported by Su, Long, Wall, & Jin, (2016) who found that the residents with more extensive contact with visitors were found to have a favourable opinion towards tourism. Wang & Pfister (2008) depicted that the residents least welcoming of tourists would be apt to recognize and perceive more costs than benefits of tourism resulting in a less favourable attitude towards tourism. Hence the finding of this study supplant the previous works conducted in this area of tourism research.

Hypotheses 4 & 5, which propose a significant relationship between tourism impacts and attitude were also supported. The perception of positive of impacts and the costs accompanying tourism development were found to have favourable and undesirable effects on resident attitudes respectively. Ko and Stewart (2002) purport that both types of impacts i.e. positive and negative can be used to predict attitudes that residents have towards tourism development. The findings of this research are analogous the previous studies piloted on this subject by the authors like Vargas-Sánchez et al. (2009) and Wang et al., (2014).

## 6. Implications

Many useful implications sprout out of this work for the tourism stakeholders. The findings of this study imply and emphasize that residents feelings towards tourists strongly influence their perception of tourism impacts and as well as their attitude towards tourism development. Conflict of any kind or resident hostility with the tourist could significantly dent the impending and existing tourism developmental programmes. Hence it is inevitable for the tourism planners and policy makers to make concerted efforts to nourish the resident tourist relationship with one another and try to keep a balance between the benefits and costs of tourism. It also suggests that residents pro or anti tourism attitudes depends on what they tend to seek from it and what do they actually receive. If they feel that it is generating more adverse impacts on their communities than benefits, they would probably be more inclined to form a less favourable attitude towards tourism development. As Gursoy et al., (2010) purport it is difficult to ensure sustainability and success of tourism in a community unless and until locals feel that it is appropriate for them in terms of its impacts. Thus to optimize local perception of tourism impacts and attitude towards tourism development, formal events and informal gatherings could also prove to be an effective strategy to address local people's issues that arise on account of the tourist activity taking place in an area (Woosnam (2012).

## 7. References

1. Adeleke, B. O. (2015). Assessment of residents' attitude towards ecotourism in KwaZulu-Natal protected areas. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*.
2. Adeli, S. (2012). The host society's attitude towards tourism and its consequences in a historical living texture. *Journal of Fine Arts*, 17(4), 81-94.
3. Alegre, J., & Cladera, M. (2009). Analysing the effect of satisfaction and previous visits on tourist intentions to return. *European Journal of Marketing*.
4. Allen, L. R., Long, P. T., Perdue, R. R., & Kieselbach, S. (1988). The impact of tourism development on residents' perceptions of community life. *Journal of travel research*, 27(1), 16-21.
5. Almeida-García, F., Peláez-Fernández, M. Á., Balbuena-Vazquez, A., & Cortés-Macias, R. (2016). Residents' perceptions of tourism development in Benalmádena (Spain). *Tourism Management*, 54, 259-274.
6. Alrwajfah, M. M., Almeida-García, F., & Cortés-Macías, R. (2019). Residents' perceptions and satisfaction toward tourism development: A case study of Petra Region, Jordan. *Sustainability*, 11(7), 1907.
7. Andereck, K. L., & Nyaupane, G. P. (2011). Exploring the nature of tourism and quality of life perceptions among residents. *Journal of Travel research*, 50(3), 248-260.
8. 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.
9. Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological bulletin*, 103(3), 411.
10. Ap, J. (1992). Residents' perceptions on tourism impacts. *Annals of tourism Research*, 19(4), 665-690.
11. Ap, J., & Crompton, J. L. (1993). Residents' strategies for responding to tourism impacts. *Journal of Travel Research*, 32(1), 47-50.
12. Aramberri, J. (2001). The host should get lost: Paradigms in the tourism theory. *Annals of Tourism research*, 28(3), 738-761.
13. 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.
14. Bhat, A. A., & Majumdar, K. (2021). Structural equation modeling of residents' attitudes and tourism development: a SET based-study of the Kashmir region in India. *International Journal of Social Economics*.
15. Blank, U. (1989). Community tourism industry imperative: the necessity, the opportunities, its potential. *Community tourism industry imperative: the necessity, the opportunities, its potential*.
16. Braun, E., Kavaratzis, M., & Zenker, S. (2013). My city-my brand: the different roles of residents in place branding. *Journal of place management and development*.

17. Brida, J. G., Disegna, M., & Osti, L. (2011). Residents' perceptions of tourism impacts and attitudes towards tourism policies in a small mountain community. *Benchmarking: An International Journal, Forthcoming*.
18. Brougham, J. E., & Butler, R. W. (1981). A segmentation analysis of resident attitudes to the social impact of tourism. *Annals of tourism research, 8*(4), 569-590.
19. Brown, T. A. (2015). *Confirmatory factor analysis for applied research*. Guilford publications.
20. Brunt, P., & Courtney, P. (1999). Host perceptions of sociocultural impacts. *Annals of tourism Research, 26*(3), 493-515.
21. Charag, A. H., Fazili, A. I., & Bashir, I. (2020). Residents' perception towards tourism impacts in Kashmir. *International Journal of Tourism Cities*.
22. Choi, H. C., & Murray, I. (2010). Resident attitudes toward sustainable community tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 18*(4), 575-594.
23. Cooke, K. (1982). Guidelines for socially appropriate tourism development in British Columbia. *Journal of travel research, 21*(1), 22-28.
24. Coulson, A. B., MacLaren, A. C., McKenzie, S., & O'Gorman, K. D. (2014). Hospitality codes and social exchange theory: The Pashtunwali and tourism in Afghanistan. *Tourism Management, 45*, 134-141.
25. Council, J. M. I. (2012). The Value of Business Events.
26. Eusébio, C., Vieira, A. L., & Lima, S. (2018). Place attachment, host-tourist interactions, and residents' attitudes towards tourism development: The case of Boa Vista Island in Cape Verde. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 26*(6), 890-909.
27. Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of marketing research, 18*(1), 39-50.
28. Giannoni, S. (2009). Tourism, growth and residents' welfare with pollution. *Tourism and Hospitality Research, 9*(1), 50-60.
29. Goodman, R. (1994). *Legalized gambling as a strategy for economic development*. United States Gambling Study.
30. Goodwin, H. (2007). Measuring and reporting the impact of tourism on poverty. In *Developments in tourism research* (pp. 79-92). Routledge.
31. Gursoy, D., Chi, C. G., & Dyer, P. (2009). An examination of locals' attitudes. *Annals of Tourism Research, 36*(4), 723-726.
32. Gursoy, D., Chi, C. G., & Dyer, P. (2010). Locals' attitudes toward mass and alternative tourism: The case of Sunshine Coast, Australia. *Journal of travel research, 49*(3), 381-394.
33. Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Babin, B. J., & Black, W. C. (2010). Multivariate data analysis: A global perspective (Vol. 7).
34. Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J., Anderson, R.E., & Tatham, R.L. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis* (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
35. Hair, J.F., W.C. Black, B.J. Babin, and R.E. Anderson. 2014. *Multivariate Data Analysis*: Pearson New International Edition. 7 ed: Pearson Education, Limited.
36. Hammad, N., Ahmad, S. Z., & Papastathopoulos, A. (2017). Residents' perceptions of the impact of tourism in Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*.
37. Haralambopoulos, N., & Pizam, A. (1996). Perceived impacts of tourism: The case of Samos. *Annals of tourism Research, 23*(3), 503-526.
38. Harrill, R., & Potts, T. D. (2003). Tourism planning in historic districts: Attitudes toward tourism development in Charleston. *Journal of the American Planning Association, 69*(3), 233-244.
39. Hasani, A., Moghavvemi, S., & Hamzah, A. (2016). The impact of emotional solidarity on residents' attitude and tourism development. *PloS one, 11*(6), e0157624.
40. Hoelter, J. W. (1983). The analysis of covariance structures: Goodness-of-fit indices. *Sociological Methods & Research, 11*(3), 325-344.
41. Jacobs, S., & Allen, R. T. (2005). *Emotion, reason and tradition: essays on the social, political and economic thought of Michael Polanyi*. Ashgate.
42. Johnson, J. D., Snepenger, D. J., & Akis, S. (1994). Residents' perceptions of tourism development. *Annals of tourism research, 21*(3), 629-642.
43. Kline, R. B. (2011). Principles and practice of structural equation modeling (3. Baskı). New York, NY: Guilford, 14, 1497-1513.
44. Ko, D. W., & Stewart, W. P. (2002). A structural equation model of residents' attitudes for tourism development. *Tourism management, 23*(5), 521-530.
45. Kumar, J., & Hussain, K. (2014). Evaluating tourism's economic effects: Comparison of different approaches. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 144*, 360-365.
46. Kuvan, Y., & Akan, P. (2005). Residents' attitudes toward general and forest-related impacts of tourism: the case of Belek, Antalya. *Tourism management, 26*(5), 691-706.
47. Lankford, S. V., & Howard, D. R. (1994). Developing a tourism impact attitude scale. *Annals of tourism research, 21*(1), 121-139.
48. Latip, N. A., Rasoolimanesh, S. M., Jaafar, M., Marzuki, A., & Umar, M. U. (2018). Indigenous residents' perceptions towards tourism development: a case of Sabah, Malaysia. *Journal of Place Management and Development*.
49. Látková, P., & Vogt, C. A. (2012). Residents' attitudes toward existing and future tourism development in rural communities. *Journal of travel research, 51*(1), 50-67.
50. Lee, T. H. (2013). Influence analysis of community resident support for sustainable tourism development. *Tourism management, 34*, 37-46.
51. Leiper, N. (1990). Tourism systems: an interdisciplinary perspective. Palmerston North, New Zealand: Department of Management Systems, Business Studies Faculty.
52. Lepp, A. (2007). Residents' attitudes towards tourism in Bigodi village, Uganda. *Tourism management, 28*(3), 876-885.

53. Lin, H. W., & Lu, H. F. (2016). Valuing residents' perceptions of sport tourism development in Taiwan's North Coast and Guanyinshan National Scenic Area. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 21(4), 398-424.
54. Liu, J. C., & Var, T. (1986). Resident attitudes toward tourism impacts in Hawaii. *Annals of tourism research*, 13(2), 193-214.
55. Liu, J. C., Sheldon, P., & Var, T. (1987). A cross-national approach to determining resident perceptions to of the impact of tourism on the environment. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 14(1), 17-37.
56. Long, P. T., Perdue, R. R., & Allen, L. (1990). Rural resident tourism perceptions and attitudes by community level of tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(3), 3.
57. Mangen, D. J., Bengtson, V. L., & Landry Jr, P. H. (1988). *Measurement of intergenerational relations*. Sage Publications, Inc.
58. Mathieson, A., & Wall, G. (1982). *Tourism, economic, physical and social impacts*. Longman.
59. McGehee, N. G., & Andereck, K. L. (2004). Factors predicting rural residents' support of tourism. *Journal of travel research*, 43(2), 131-140.
60. Milman, A., & Pizam, A. (1988). Social impacts of tourism on central Florida. *Annals of tourism research*, 15(2), 191-204.
61. Murphy, P. E. (1985). Tourism: A community approach. New York: Methuen. *National Parks Today (1991): Green Guide for Tourism*, 31, 224-238.
62. Nastran, M. (2015). Why does nobody ask us? Impacts on local perception of a protected area in designation, Slovenia. *Land Use Policy*, 46, 38-49.
63. Nepal, S. K. (2008). Residents' attitudes to tourism in central British Columbia, Canada. *Tourism Geographies*, 10(1), 42-65.
64. Park, D. B., Lee, K. W., Choi, H. S., & Yoon, Y. (2012). Factors influencing social capital in rural tourism communities in South Korea. *Tourism management*, 33(6), 1511-1520.
65. Pavlić, I., Portolan, A., & Puh, B. (2020). Segmenting local residents by perceptions of tourism impacts in an urban World Heritage Site: The case of Dubrovnik. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, 15(4), 398-409.
66. Peng, J., Chen, X., & Wang, J. (2016). Applying relative deprivation theory to study the attitudes of host community residents towards tourism: the case study of the Zhangjiang National Park, China. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 19(7), 734-754.
67. Perić, M., Đurkin, J., & Wise, N. (2016). Leveraging small-scale sport events: Challenges of organising, delivering and managing sustainable outcomes in rural communities, the case of Gorski Kotar, Croatia. *Sustainability*, 8(12), 1337.
68. Porter, B. A., Orams, M. B., & Lück, M. (2015). Surf-riding tourism in coastal fishing communities: A comparative case study of two projects from the Philippines. *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 116, 169-176.
69. Rasoolimanesh, S. M., Jaafar, M., Kock, N., & Ramayah, T. (2015). A revised framework of social exchange theory to investigate the factors influencing residents' perceptions. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 16, 335-345.
70. Ribeiro, M. A., Pinto, P., Silva, J. A., & Woosnam, K. M. (2017). Residents' attitudes and the adoption of pro-tourism behaviours: The case of developing island countries. *Tourism Management*, 61, 523-537.
71. Ross, G. F. (1992). Resident perceptions of the impact of tourism on an Australian city. *Journal of travel research*, 30(3), 13-17.
72. Rothman, R. A. (1978). Residents and transients: community reaction to seasonal visitors. *Journal of travel research*, 16(3), 8-13.
73. Schofield, P. (2011). City resident attitudes to proposed tourism development and its impacts on the community. *International journal of tourism research*, 13(3), 218-233.
74. Sharpley, R. (2014). Host perceptions of tourism: A review of the research. *Tourism Management*, 42, 37-49.
75. Shin, H. J., Kim, H. N., & Son, J. Y. (2017). Measuring the economic impact of rural tourism membership on local economy: A Korean case study. *Sustainability*, 9(4), 639.
76. Sirakaya-Turk, E., Ekinci, Y., & Kaya, A. G. (2008). An examination of the validity of SUS-TAS in cross-cultures. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(4), 414-421.
77. Smith, M. D., & Krannich, R. S. (1998). Tourism dependence and resident attitudes. *Annals of tourism research*, 25(4), 783-802.
78. Styliidis, D., Biran, A., Sit, J., & Szivas, E. M. (2014). Residents' support for tourism development: The role of residents' place image and perceived tourism impacts. *Tourism management*, 45, 260-274.
79. Su, M. M., Long, Y., Wall, G., & Jin, M. (2016). Tourist-community interactions in ethnic tourism: Tuva villages, Kanas Scenic Area, China. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, 14(1), 1-26.
80. Tosun, C. (2002). Host perceptions of impacts: A comparative tourism study. *Annals of tourism research*, 29(1), 231-253.
81. Tovar, C., & Lockwood, M. (2008). Social impacts of tourism: An Australian regional case study. *International journal of tourism research*, 10(4), 365-378.
82. Tyrrell, T. J., & Spaulding, L. A. (1984). A survey of attitudes toward tourism growth in Rhode Island. *Hospitality Education and Research Journal*, 8(2), 22-33.
83. us Saqib, N., Yaqub, A., Amin, G., Khan, I., Ajab, H., Zeb, I., & Ahmad, D. (2019). The impact of tourism on local communities and their environment in Gilgit Baltistan, Pakistan: a local community perspective. *Environmental & Socio-economic Studies*, 7(3), 24-37.
84. Vareiro, L. M. D. C., Remoaldo, P. C., & Cadima Ribeiro, J. A. (2013). Residents' perceptions of tourism impacts in Guimarães (Portugal): a cluster analysis. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 16(6), 535-551.
85. Vargas-Sánchez, A., Plaza-Mejía, M. D. L. Á., & Porras-Bueno, N. (2009). Understanding residents' attitudes toward the development of industrial tourism in a former mining community. *Journal of Travel Research*, 47(3), 373-387.

86. Wang, X., Zhen, F., Zhang, J., & Wu, X. (2014). Exploring factors influencing residents' satisfaction with tourism development in poverty-stricken areas: A case study of five poor villages in China. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 19(5), 517-537.
87. Wang, Y., & Pfister, R. E. (2008). Residents' attitudes toward tourism and perceived personal benefits in a rural community. *Journal of Travel Research*, 47(1), 84-93.
88. Ward, C., & Berno, T. (2011). Beyond social exchange theory: Attitudes toward tourists. *Annals of tourism research*, 38(4), 1556-1569.
89. Wearing, S., & Wearing, B. (2001). Conceptualizing the selves of tourism. *Leisure studies*, 20(2), 143-159.
90. Weaver, D. B. (2009). Reflections on Sustainable Tourism and Paradigm Change. In *Sustainable tourism futures* (pp. 53-60). Routledge.
91. Winkler, R. (2011). Why do ICDPs fail?: The relationship between agriculture, hunting and ecotourism in wildlife conservation. *Resource and Energy Economics*, 33(1), 55-78.
92. Woosnam, K. M. (2011). Comparing residents' and tourists' emotional solidarity with one another: An extension of Durkheim's model. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(6), 615-626.
93. Woosnam, K. M. (2011). Testing a model of Durkheim's theory of emotional solidarity among residents of a tourism community. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(5), 546-558.
94. Woosnam, K. M. (2012). Using emotional solidarity to explain residents' attitudes about tourism and tourism development. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(3), 315-327.
95. Woosnam, K. M., & Aleshinloye, K. D. (2013). Can tourists experience emotional solidarity with residents? Testing Durkheim's model from a new perspective. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(4), 494-505.
96. Woosnam, K. M., & Norman, W. C. (2010). Measuring residents' emotional solidarity with tourists: Scale development of Durkheim's theoretical constructs. *Journal of Travel Research*, 49(3), 365-380.
97. Woosnam, K. M., Aleshinloye, K. D., & Maruyama, N. (2016). Solidarity at the Osun Osogbo Sacred Grove—A UNESCO world heritage site. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 13(3), 274-291.
98. Woosnam, K. M., Dudensing, R. M., & Walker, J. R. (2015). How does emotional solidarity factor into visitor spending among birders in the Lower Rio Grande Valley of Texas?. *Journal of Travel Research*, 54(5), 645-658.
99. Woosnam, K. M., Norman, W. C., & Ying, T. (2009). Exploring the theoretical framework of emotional solidarity between residents and tourists. *Journal of Travel Research*, 48(2), 245-258.
100. WTTC (2018a). *Travel and Tourism Economic Impact 2018 South East Asia*, World Travel and Tourism Council, London.
101. WTTC (2018b). *Travel and Tourism: Economic Impact 2018: World*, World Travel and Tourism Council, London.
102. Young, C. A., Corsun, D. L., & Baloglu, S. (2007). A taxonomy of hosts visiting friends and relatives. *Annals of tourism research*, 34(2), 497-516.
103. Zamani-Farahani, H., & Musa, G. (2012). The relationship between Islamic religiosity and residents' perceptions of socio-cultural impacts of tourism in Iran: Case studies of Sare'in and Masoleh. *Tourism management*, 33(4), 802-814.
104. Zhao, W. (2009). The nature and roles of small tourism businesses in poverty alleviation: Evidence from Guangxi, China. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 14(2), 169-182.
105. Zhao, W., & Ritchie, J. B. (2007). Tourism and poverty alleviation: An integrative research framework. *Current issues in Tourism*, 10(2-3), 119-143.
106. Zhuang, X., Yao, Y., & Li, J. (2019). Sociocultural impacts of tourism on residents of world cultural heritage sites in China. *Sustainability*, 11(3), 840.

## Seismic Risk Analysis of Tourism Destinations Which are Prone to Earthquakes: A Study of Dharamshala City of Himachal Pradesh, India

Pooja Rajput, Amit Katoch & Ajay Singh Katoch

### Abstract

Natural hazards cause phenomenal loss to mankind by bringing destruction of life and property. It creates a serious impact on the lives of people by affecting not only their livelihood, but disrupting both the infrastructure and superstructure at a place or a tourism destination. Thus, it's important to consider these hazards while developing the Tourism destinations in India. According to National Disaster Management Authority and BMTPC, 59% of India's land area is vulnerable to earthquakes. And, country's escalating population and wide unscientific construction such as residential, multistoried buildings, malls, supermarkets, airports, hotels, factory, and warehouses also increases the vulnerability of Indian population to the seismic risks by multiplying the effect of earthquakes. The study highlights the significance of seismic risk analysis in developing tourism destinations like Dharamshala, which falls in seismic zone V, which are highly vulnerable to earthquakes.

**Keywords:** Earthquakes, seismic hazard analysis, Tourism destination, Dharamshala.

### Introduction

Natural hazards such as earthquakes, hurricanes, floods, landslides, volcanic eruptions, droughts are inevitable and rarely out of news as it can strike anywhere and anytime. This can also bring out the most excellent of human nature and show the most horrible side of mankind. Approximately, 75% of the world's population and half of the least developed countries are exposed to extreme events such as earthquakes, flooding and cyclones ([www.fsnnetwork.org](http://www.fsnnetwork.org), 2006). The impact of these natural disasters and possible mitigation strategies has become lively during the last decade due to an increase in the occurrence of natural hazards (Lazzaroni and Bergeijk, 2013; Rajput, 2014; Rajput et al. 2015). However, the population and infrastructure at a place is an important variable in determining the sign and level of disaster. Most of the natural hazards are unavoidable but their understanding of how and where they occur can be helpful to develop effective strategies to reduce their effect. The effect of these natural hazards can be mitigated and their transformation into natural calamities can be

avoided by their proper understanding, careful planning and taking into account vulnerability of the place.

Earthquakes are one of such disasters that cause great loss to life and property. During such events, the seismic waves get modulated by surface geology and show complex heterogeneity in three dimension. The unplanned and haphazard constructions in the tectonically active region are responsible for loss of lives, property and also affect the livelihood of the people as it is said that "Earthquake does not kill people it is the building that kills" (Hough and Jones, 2002). Ongoing crustal deformation due to the onward movement of the Indian plate against the Eurasian plate is well reflected by the occurrence of small, moderate and major earthquakes in India. The origin and rise of Himalayas has enhanced the seismicity in the region which can be seen by the occurrence of four great/ major earthquakes i.e. June 12, 1897 Shillong earthquake (8.1 Mw), April 4, 1905 Kangra earthquake (7.8 Mw), January 15, 1934 Bihar earthquake (8.3 Mw) and August 15, 1950 Assam earthquake (8.7 Mw) (Bilham, 2004; Gahalaut, 2008; Rajput, 2014; Rajput et al. 2015). Apart from it, several moderate and minor earthquakes

Pooja Rajput	Head of Geology Department, Government Degree College, Dharamshala, Kangra, Himachal Pradesh
Amit Katoch	Head of Travel & Tourism Department, Government Degree College, Dharamshala, Kangra, Himachal Pradesh
Ajay Singh Katoch	Department of Commerce, Government Degree College, Dharamshala, Kangra, Himachal Pradesh

have occurred all along the great Himalayan arc.

The study area Dharamshala, winter capital of Himachal Pradesh is a famous tourist destination known for its natural and cultural attributes. It has undergone huge developments such as mushrooming of residential complexes due to increase in its population. Also, the increased tourist flows to the place has also resulted in escalating growth of Hotels, restaurants and commercial buildings. Apart from being a hub to tourists, it is also an important administrative centre. It has several government buildings such as court complex, Deputy Commissioner Office, SP office, BSNL buildings, Bachat-Bhavan, MC Building, Sports authority of India hostels & sports complex, residential complexes, government college buildings, HP board education buildings, All India Radio buildings, Government schools, buildings of Central University of Himachal Pradesh etc. The famous HPCA Stadium (Fig. 8) is also located in Dharamshala. Apart from it the recent ropeway infrastructure and several hotels one to five star are too located in Dharamshala. But, surely Dharamshala as a tourist destination and otherwise requires a serious planning in terms of construction from the angle of geology and tectonics. And, requires studies on *Seismic Hazard Analysis (SHA)*, *Seismic risk Analysis* and *seismic microzonation* which calculate value of Peak Ground Acceleration (PGA). PGA is the maximum ground acceleration that occurs during earthquake shaking at a place resulting in damage.

### Seismic Hazard Analysis

Seismic Hazard Analysis (SHA) explains “*the potential for dangerous earthquake-related natural phenomena such as ground shaking, fault rupture or soil liquefaction*”. It helps us to calculate strong-motion parameters at micro and macro levels at a location for the purpose of earthquake resistant design or seismic safety assessment (Gupta, 2002). SHA is further of two types: *Probabilistic Seismic Hazard Analysis (PSHA)* and *Deterministic Seismic Hazard Analysis (DSHA)* as shown in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 respectively.

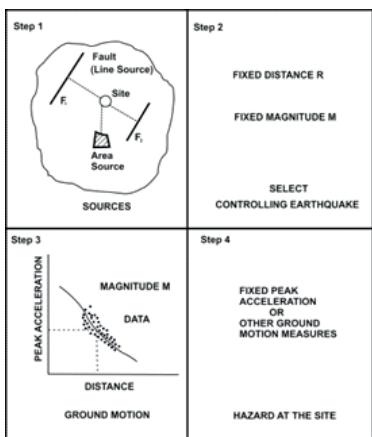


Figure 1 Steps in Deterministic Seismic Hazard Analysis (DSHA)

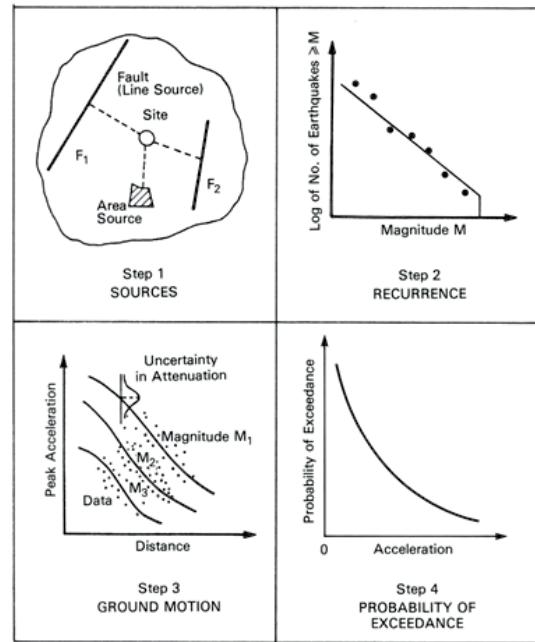


Figure 2 Basic steps of probabilistic seismic hazard analysis (after Reiter, 1990) and taken from Conor McKernon (2003)

The DSHA identifies the most strongest or maximum credible earthquake a place can get based on a source, while PSHA considers all potential sources of earthquake shaking collectively (FEMA). Both these types of seismic hazard analysis have a role in Seismic Hazard and Risk Analysis. Generally, PSHA approach is followed for seismic design level, retrofit design, insurance/reinsurance or long term recovery at regional level and involve quantitative aspects of decision. The DSHA approach is taken in case of training and plans for emergency response, post earthquake recovery and long term recovery at local/ regional level (McGuire, 1995). The main emphasis is on risk reduction or loss mitigation i.e. design or retrofit level, disaster planning, recovery, insurance and system layout.

### Seismic Risk Analysis:

Seismic risk analysis “*evaluates the probability of occurrence of losses (human, social, economic) associated with the seismic hazards*” (FEMA). It is very different from hazard analysis. As seismic hazard analysis just tells us about earthquakes or earthshaking, while risk is related to structural or building collapse and loss it will bring to society, people and property. And, According to USGS, the factors that establish seismic risk is “*the level of seismic hazard, exposure to the hazard, and how much susceptible that population & property is to hazard*”. The earthquakes occur without giving any caution and can affect large areas leading to immense destruction to people, structures and natural landscapes. According to Emergency Events Database (EM-DAT) which was launched by Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters (CRED)- “Earthquakes correspond to 15% of natural hazards and cause

maximum human (78%) and economic losses (45%). Also, more than 50% of world population is sitting next to active faults where earthquake disasters can happen any time. According to Bilham (2009), 65% of world's cities are subject to seismic shaking and vulnerable to seismic risk.

### **Seismic microzonation:**

Seismic microzonation provides "valuable information with regard to Shear wave velocity ( $V_s$ ), which help us to understand the soil conditions, beneath a structure" (Rajput, 2016). As, the soil conditions may intensify or ease certain spectral accelerations, which eventually help in estimation of earthquake induced forces which effect infrastructure and Suprastructure of a place (Thomann & Chowdhury, 2004). The prediction of seismic hazards cannot be done exactly. Therefore, it is important to plan disaster mitigation and management strategies which will reduce the effects caused by earthquakes at both micro and macro levels. At macro level, country can be divided into broad seismic zones as defined by Bureau of Indian standards. At micro level, each broad zone can be further divided into smaller zones depending on seismicity, tectonics, geology, soil profile, topography, site response etc. And, at micro levels the cities or urban centres are given more preference depending on high seismic risk owing to the presence of high population density and manmade structures (Rajput, 2016). The classification at both micro & macro levels leads to recognition and demarcation of active faults in present deformation zones for source characterization. According to Rajput (2016) seismic zonation at macro or regional level does not consider local & secondary effects caused by earthquakes. Hence, it cannot contribute significantly in terms of realistic application for land use planning, hazard mitigation and engineering at local or site level. Hence, here seismic hazard studies at micro level provide an effective and suitable answer for urban planning.

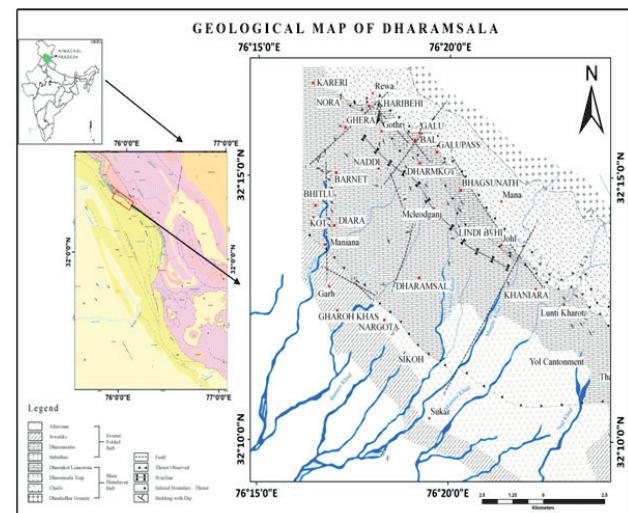
According to Sheriff (1982) "Microzonation is process that includes amalgamation of geologic, seismological and geotechnical aspects into land use planning (on economic, social and political aspects) so that architects and engineers can design structures which are less vulnerable to damage due to earthquake". Microzonation helps in designing new structures or avoiding remedial measures for existing structures (residential or commercial) by providing comprehensive guidelines based on detailed study of a region indicating soil type, soil thickness and rock exposures and guiding future course of action suitable for various regions. In simple words, microzonation helps in understanding of a region (geology, seismology and tectonics) and provides suitable designs for structure (construction and engineering) which are less susceptible to damage during seismic events.

Seismic site characterization and appraisal of site during earthquake is an important step in seismic microzonation. It helps in assessment of ground shaking intensity and

amplification. In order to categorize and assess a probable hazard, site characterization benefits by providing the information related to soil index and the engineering structures it would support. It involves investigation in laboratory and site; compilation, interpretation of data and to prepare seismic maps to assess a potential hazard. The methods used in site characterization can be invasive and non-invasive. These geotechnical site characterizations involve a number of methods such as standard penetration test, cone penetration test, Multichannel Analysis of Surface Wave method (MASW), H/V spectral ratio and Micro tremor array recording and other numerical methods. From all of these methods, MASW and standard penetration test are most extensively used for site characterization.

### **Geology, Tectonics and Seismicity of Dharamshala**

Dharamshala is located on foothills of Himalayas and covering an area of 122 sq. Km. It is positioned on the southern slopes of Dhauladhar range (Middle Himalayas) and a very famous tourist destination. It is located on the old moraine deposits having near vertical incline Orography (Wadia, 1919). The city is broadly divisible into two parts: the shoe shaped



**Figure 3 Location and geological map Dharamshala**

Dharamshala ridge and the valley on both flanks of the ridge. The ridge comprises glaciated sediments whereas valleys are filled with fan sediments. The city exhibits complex geology and tectonics with the presence of different inverted lithological features and the incidence of thrust and faults as shown in Fig 3. The Dharamshala Group, Dharamkot limestone, Subathu Group, Alluvium and Siwalik Group are the main geological formations of this region. Tectonically, the study area falls in two main tectonic belts i.e. the Frontal Folded Belt and the Main Himalayan Belt. The Frontal Folded Belt comprises Tertiary rock and falls south of MBT (Main Boundary Thrust), whereas the Main Himalayan Belt comprises

lesser and great Himalayan rock and falls north of MBT. The Dharamshala region is sandwiched in between the Drini Thrust in the south and the Chail Thrust to the north with number of splay fault/Thrust. These are named as the Shali Thrust, the Panjal Thrust and the MBT lying in between the Chail Thrust and the Drini Thrust. The development of different thrusts and faults in the region has caused intense shearing of rock (especially Dharamsala Group) and lead to the development of a large number of transverse features which have displaced Drini Thrust or MBT at a number of places (Mahajan, 1991). The presence of longitudinal and transverse thrust/ Faults have accumulated lot of strain energy which has led to seismic activity in the region. The study area had experienced a number of moderate earthquakes (1968, 1978, and 1986 Dharamshala earthquake), apart from the famous 1905 Kangra earthquake in which approximately 20,000 people lost their lives. During 1905 Kangra earthquake and later from 1986 Dharamshala earthquake, the city have observed lot of damage but in isolated pockets. Also, Dharamshala city of the study area is marked by the presence of ridges (comprising glaciated sediment) and valleys (comprising alluvial fan sediment) which are centres of site amplification.

Dharamshala town is thickly populated with a population of 30,764 (Thakur and Gill, 2013). Dharamshala Tehsil is 1, 36,536 populated (Department of economics and statistics, Himachal Pradesh, Shimla 2012-13) while the population of Kangra District is 15, 07,223. Majority of population in the study area are Hindus while minority groups present are Buddhist, Jains, Sikhs and Muslim. Dharamshala is also seat for Tibetan government in exile and has a Tibetan population of 13,701. Due to its touristic nature it receives floating or visiting population of 1, 61,234 (Census 2011), which is major concern during earthquake disaster related to post disaster management problem.

### **Infrastructure and Construction Pattern in Dharamshala**

The construction and infrastructure development in Dharamshala is going at a phenomenal pace. But surely the local geology, seismicity and tectonics of the place seems ignored seeing the construction pattern in the smart city Dharamshala. The upper Dharamshala comprises the shoe shaped ridge which is further divided into Naddi (Fig. 7), Dharamkot, Bhagsunag, Mcleodganj, Forthsythganj, Kotwali bazaar etc. In all these areas, the buildings of Hotels are multi-storied and no emphasis has been to Geotectonic of the place (Fig. 4, Fig. 5, Fig 6 and Fig. 7). Though, the emphasis should be given on structures which can withstand collapse and should redistribute seismic forces that travel through it and all parts of building move as a unit (Building Materials and Technology Promotion Council, BMTPC). But, if you see buildings in upper Dharamshala, many of these aspects

are ignored. Even, majority of buildings in all bazaars are multistoried; without spaces between them and even the water tanks on their roofs are not attached to the buildings. And, even a moderate to high seismic event can bring great damage to life and property at these places. Also, the areas have become concrete jungles ignoring the local ecology and vernacular architecture of the place.



**Figure 4 Structures in the Dharamkot area in Dharamshala, Himachal Pradesh, India**

(Source: [www.holidify.com](http://www.holidify.com))

In lower Dharamshala areas (Fig. 10) like Shamnagar, Ramnagar, Sukoh, Barol, Dari, Kand, Khaniyara, Sidhpur, Sidhbari etc. have deposits of soft sediments deposited from the mountains over the years. And, scenario is not much different from upper Dharamshala. Many buildings in this area lack diaphragms, braced frames, seismic resistant designs and no new technologies such as energy dissipating devices, base isolation etc have been used. These soft sediments causes increase shaking as much as 2 to 6 times as compared to rock (Lorant, 2016). It has been rightly said that earthquakes do not kill people, but badly built houses is responsible for it (Agrawal and Shah, 2001). As, a general trend, it has been seen that when people built their houses, they just depend on Architects and Masons. And, no professional help is sort from Engineers and Geologist.



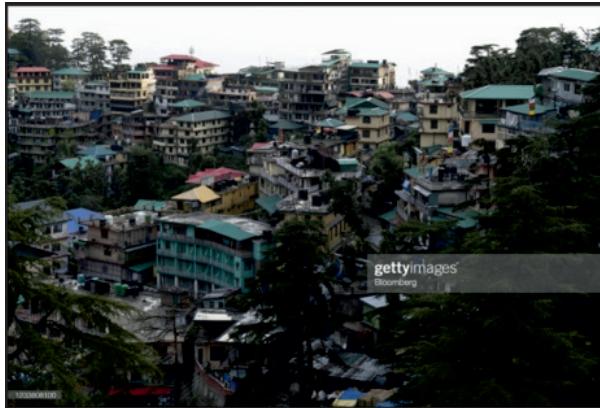
**Figure 5 View of Mcleodganj area in Dharamshala, from Dharamshala Cantt.**

(Source: <https://indianexpress.com/> & Instagram)

This results in construction of poor structures, which are vulnerable for the people living in it. A very simple rule of earthquake resistant buildings is that they should behave as boxes and should have resistant & horizontal structures called diaphragms to allow the horizontal forces at each storey to distribute into the vertical resisting structures. Also, the connections of the vertical frames should be designed to carry storey forces

The vertical load resisting structure may comprise a main or 'primary' system designed to carry the total earthquake effects, and a 'secondary' structure which is designed to carry only gravity loads. The physical reality of the frame must reflect this distinction; the contribution to lateral stiffness and resistance of the secondary structure should not exceed 15% of that of the primary structure (Dowrick, 1988; Earthquake Resistant Steel Structures-ArcelorMittal, 2015). Furthermore, the members of the secondary structure and their connections must be able to accommodate the displacements of the primary structure responding to an earthquake, whilst remaining capable of carrying the gravity loading (Uriz, 2005; Earthquake Resistant Steel Structures-ArcelorMittal, 2015).

Throughout, the city in new constructed multistoried buildings (particularly in Hotels Malls etc), it has been seen that though there has been enough involvement of steel to make structures and emphasis given to pillar construction (Fig. 6). But, the weight of the buildings is increased due to excessive use of steel and by construction of more storeys one above each other without taking account of local factors of geology.



**Figure 6** Buildings in the Mcleodganj area in Dharamshala, Himachal Pradesh, India

(Source: © 2021 Bloomberg Finance LP)

The various abnormalities seen in buildings in Dharamshala or commercial are:

1. Pillar construction done, but in many commercial buildings soft storey ground floors are there. In simple words, it means that walls that are present in upper floors are omitted in ground floors and substituted by columns. During earthquakes, the

columns get damaged due to cyclic displacements between the moving earth part and upper part of building (Bachmann, 2003).

2. Many structures especially homes has masonry pillars made of bricks and without use of steel (Fig. 7). These pillars are non-flexible and their rigidity cause destruction of these masonry pillars during earthquake (Bachmann, 2003).



**Figure 7** Hotel Buildings in the Naddi area in Dharamshala, Himachal Pradesh, India

(source: <https://www.readytotrip.com/>)

1. The recycled steel is also used by residents which are non -branded and their low ductility results in instability of structures. As, ductility is the degree to which a material or structure can undergo large deformations without failing.
2. New technologies such as Base Isolation, vibration control devices, pendulum power and innovative material to lessen the shockwaves magnitude & help to decrease pressure have not been implemented. People are not aware about these technologies.
3. There is no division of zones according to type of geology or tectonics in the Dharamshala city. And, usually the architect design gets passed by Town planning and the rejection is never on the basis of location, geology or tectonics of the place.
4. There are no modal structural designs of buildings for all areas of city depending on geology, tectonics or topography of place.
5. The buildings in kotwali bazaar Mcleodganj bazaar and other bazaars are very dense, in



**Figure 8** HPCA Stadium in Dharamshala, Himachal Pradesh, India

(Source: HPCA)



**Figure 9** Aerial view of Buildings in kotwali bazaar in Dharamshala.

(Source: <https://www.ndtv.com/india-news/dharamsala-mcleod-ganj-rope-way-project-gets-green-nod-1647397>



**Figure 10** Aerial view of Buildings in kotwali bazaar in Dharamshala.

(Source: File:Dharamshala\_03.jpg-Amit Phulera)

which many buildings are also very old. But, no geotectonic study carried out to suggest certain changes in building, if any or what would be the impact, if the earthquake to the level of 1905 strikes it.

1. "New and alternative building materials, and technologies for building construction such as, reinforced masonry, confined masonry building construction and masonry wall construction using rat-trap bond should be implemented" (Provision of National Building Code, 2016).
2. The buildings in the city have water tanks on their tops which are not fixed to buildings and their free fall can cause serious injury to the people.
3. The emphasis while constructing buildings is only on pillar construction and no importance given to having hard bedrock, distribution of forces in building during earthquake, seismic structural configuration, lateral stiffness, lateral strength and ductility.
4. No importance of retrofitting in the old buildings or building with no seismic configuration in city has been given.

5. A large number of areas in the city have turned into concrete jungles and other are waiting to be turned into concrete jungles. The concepts like sustainability, carrying capacity, green energy are just jargons and their implementation requires serious consideration.
6. In the construction of buildings in many locations in the city, very heavy structures with excessive use of steel have been built in order to make them seismic resistant, but ultimately this is increasing the load on building as well as pressure on the land area.
7. The culture of constructing high and big houses have developed in the city involving great costs in the name of necessity and requirement. Also, the role of town planning in spreading awareness of creating small, compact and seismic resistant structures involving green technologies for residential as well as commercial purpose is not there.
8. No lessons have been taken from the 1905 Kangra earthquake or Sikkim earthquake (2011) or recent Nepal earthquake (2015), when we see the construction pattern in the city. No awareness programs launched by government or local administration to combat the ill effects of earthquakes. A lot of information available in disaster mitigation plans with regard to earthquakes, but ground scenario remains the same.

### Seismic Risk Analysis of Dharamshala

A large number of earthquakes have occurred in the world, India and the study region and it has been seen that the local soil amplification and site effects have played a significant role in seismic risk analysis (Rajput, 2014; Rajput et al. 2015). The studies related to seismic microzonation (ground motion amplification) reveal a lot about soil profile, wave propagation, form of slopes and liquefaction failures. And, thus contribute to the knowledge base and ultimately in mitigation and disaster management of the earthquakes. A large number of studies by the various researchers in the earthquake regions have also shown the impact of site amplification on soft sediments.

In India, the issue of seismic hazard was first addressed in 1956, when the first seismic hazard map was prepared (Tandon, 1956) on the basis of earthquake distribution and tectonics. Since then, many versions of seismic zonation maps of India have been prepared. The latest seismic zonation map was the one modified, after 1993 Latur Earthquake having four zones from Zone V (expected intensity X-XI) to zone II (Expected intensity III-IV). The major part of northwest Himalaya comes under the seismic source zone-V. The first probabilistic seismic hazard map of north-western Himalaya was released by Khattri et al., (1984) in units of g, for 10% probability of exceedance in 50 years with PGA value for the Kangra region as 0.7g.

Later under Global Seismic Hazard Analysis Programme (GSHAP), Bhatia *et al.* (1999) calculated the peak ground acceleration for the Himalayan region and gave the value as 0.35 g to 0.40 g for Kangra region. The recent seismic hazard map released by Mahajan *et al.* (2010) depicts three major zones of high seismic potential surrounding the Kashmir, Kangra and Chamoli regions with PGA value of 0.7g, 0.5g and 0.45g respectively with 10% probability of exceedance in 50 years. The variation in the peak ground acceleration value is due to the use of the region specific attenuation relation. The present results are more realistic as others have used one attenuation relation for whole of the region. However, there is no seismic hazard map based on the deterministic approach for the Kangra region. It has been forecasted that with the increased population, the damage potential for the Kangra region has to increase. According to Arya (1990), if the 1905 Kangra earthquake (Ms 7.8) reoccurs with same magnitude and in the same region, then there would be a loss of 80,000 lives even if the earthquake occurs during the daytime. This forecasted figure can be verified to an extent with the causality figure (86,000) of the 2005 Muzaffarabad earthquake of magnitude 7.6 Mw in the neighbourhood region, where the physiography and infrastructure build on the surface match with the Kangra region. The four time increase in the number of fatalities of the 2005 Muzaffarabad earthquake, when compared to the 1905 earthquake is mainly due to the manifold increase in population and "haphazard" construction of the dwellings and infrastructures without giving any consideration to the seismic hazard.

Further, in order to improve our understanding of the seismic hazard and site amplification in any region. It is equally important to understand the shear modulus of soil column with depth above the bed rock. The natural frequency of any soil column is dependent on the shear wave velocity and density of the material involved. Earthquake engineers also deliberate on understanding the variability of soil properties, while designing any structure (Infrastructure and Suprastructure) and while computing the site-specific ground motions.

National Disaster Management Authority (NDMA) has also become aware of the seismic hazards occurring in the India. Keeping this objective it has portrayed probable earthquake scenario in north western states by duplicating 1905 Kangra Earthquake (Sinha *et al.*, 2012). The simulation 'Possible effects of a major earthquake in Kangra region of Himachal Pradesh' by Prof A. S. Arya in 1992 showed an affected area of 7900 sq Km with total destruction of 1, 45,000 houses and partial destruction of 2, 68,000 houses and loss of lives ranging from 88,999 to 3, 44,000. The hypothetical Scenario by NDMA used the Boore and Atkinson, (2008) GMPE on MBT at depth of 15 km, with epicentre near Sundernagar (Mandi) of Himachal Pradesh and the results obtained were catastrophic. A large number of earthquakes IX were

obtained and MBT fault rupturing of 200 km starting from middle of Kangra to Mandi, Bilaspur and Solan were experienced (Sinha *et al.*, 2012). It also includes other states like Haryana, Punjab and Chandigarh with intensities varying from VIII-X. Seismic Hazard Analysis has helped a great deal in providing better estimation of seismic hazard. Various scientists have tried to estimate expected ground motion due to future earthquakes. This clearly suggests the vulnerability of the study area i.e. Dharamshala and Kangra region as a whole and suggests mitigation, preparedness, response and recovery for effective disaster management.

## Discussion and Conclusion

The study area Dharamshala has a complex tectonics (owing to its proximity with MBT and MCT) and the seismicity (correlated with a number of earthquakes in the past such as 1905 Kangra earthquake, 1968 Dharamshala earthquake, 1978 Dharamshala earthquake and 1986 Dharamshala earthquake) of the area. It also suggests that the region requires site amplification studies including the seismic hazard analysis. It has been established that the amplification of ground motion is highly dependent on geology, topography and geotechnical condition of the affected place, as soil layer experiences multi directional cyclic stresses; they are subjected to deformation due to change in stress, strain and strength properties of soil layers. So, whenever a place experiences an earthquake then the site response depends on the thickness of soil, soil properties and shear wave velocity. Since, the study area falls in the frontal part of Himalaya which is predominantly marked by thick alluvial fan sediments and lot of populations on these sediments, which may amplify during strong excitation. On the other hand, the study area falls near the major tectonic features and have suffered major disaster in 1905 so the area could have near source effect from the seismic sources present near the study area.

The city of Dharamshala and adjoining areas have a dense population and have undergone high infrastructural developments. This underlines the need of seismic risk awareness, risk assessment, emergency preparedness and risk resilience attributed to the tectonic activity and seismic history of the place. Also, the region comes in seismic zone V, which is the most active seismic zone. The construction pattern of the buildings in the study area ignores the building code in seismic zone V as laid down by Bureau of Indian Standards (BIS, 2002). The area is also prone to landslide activity and a large number of landslides have been noticed and reported along the MBT near and in the study area. This clearly suggests that the area is tectonically very much disturbed and underlines the need for an effective disaster management plan for Dharamshala. The increase in population, dense residential construction, rises in government buildings and mobile touristic population in and

around Dharamshala stresses the importance of disaster mitigation plan of the area. It further necessitates public awareness, compulsory legislations, land use zoning, constructing resistant structures, retrofitting of existing structures, preparation and implementation of seismic hazard maps and seismic microzonation for public safety (Rajput, 2014).

The five individuals (i.e. Geologist, Architect, Engineer, experienced contractor & knowledgeable Labour force) and the four concepts (i.e. seismic structural configuration, lateral stiffness, lateral strength and ductility) are very much important while constructing seismic resistant structures (Murty, Goswami, Vijayanarayanan, & Mehta, 2013). Furthermore, if we want to make earthquake building earthquake proof, we need to have a flexible & stable foundation, ductile & flexible steel, counteract forces with damping, structural & non-structural components of building needs to be connected to enable release of inertial forces, select & design appropriate structural systems (i.e. wood or timber frame, reinforced masonry walls, reinforced concrete walls, eccentrically braced steel frame etc) reinforce the building structures and use earthquake resistant materials.

## References

1. (2003). *Are earthquakes really on the increase?* Geological Survey, U.S. Department of Interior. Colorado: National Earthquake Information Centre. Retrieved March 4, 2014 , from Earthquake Map of the World credit:UNEP/USGS GTOPO30
2. Agrawal, D. P., & Shah, M. (2001, February 21). Earthquake Resistant Structures of Himalayas.
3. Arya, A. S. (1992). Possible effects of a major earthquake in Kangra region of Himachal Pradesh. *Current Science*, 62(1&2), 251-256.
4. Arya, A. S. (1990). Damage scenario of a hypothetical 8.0 magnitude earthquake in Kangra region of Himachal Pradesh. *Bull Seis. Soc Am*, 27(3), 121-132.
5. Bachmann, H. (2003). Seismic Conceptual Design of Buildings - Basic principles for engineers, architects, building owners and authorities. Federal Department of Foreign Affairs (DFA) & Federal Department of the Environment, Transport, Energy and Communications (DETEC).
6. Bhatia, S. C., Kumar, R. M., & Gupta, H. K. (1999). A probabilistic seismic hazard map of India and adjoining regions. *Ann Geofis*, 42(6), 1153-1164.
7. Bilham, R. (2004). Earthquakes in India and the Himalaya: tectonics, geodesy and history. *Ann.*
8. BIS (2002). IS 1893-2002 (Part 1): Indian Standard Criteria for Earthquake Resistant Design of Structures, Part 1-General Provisions and Buildings, Bureau of Indian Standards, New Delhi. Retrieved from BIS (2002). IS 1893-2002 (Part 1): Indian Standard Criteria for Earthquake Resistant Design of Structures, Part 1-General Provisions and Buildings, Bureau of Indian Standards, New Delhi.: [www.bis.org.in](http://www.bis.org.in)
9. Boore, D. M., & Atkinson, G. M. (2008). Ground-Motion Prediction Equations for the Average Horizontal Component of PGA, PGV, and 5%-Damped PSA at Spectral Periods between 0.01 s and 10.0 s. *Earthquake Spectra*, 24(1), 99-138.
10. Dowrick, D. J. (1988). Earthquake resistant design.
11. Earthquake Resistant Steel Structures. (2015, March 18). Retrieved August 21, 2022, from <https://constructalia.arcelormittal.com/>: [https://constructalia.arcelormittal.com/files/Earthquake\\_EN--30417e866429d8b43c667cbab068084c.pdf](https://constructalia.arcelormittal.com/files/Earthquake_EN--30417e866429d8b43c667cbab068084c.pdf)
12. Gahalaut, V. K. (2008). Major and Great Earthquakes and Seismic Gaps in the Himalayan Arc. *An invited review paper, Geological Society of India*, 66, 373-394.
13. Gupta, I. D. (2002). THE STATE OF THE ART IN SEISMIC HAZARD ANALYSIS. *ISET Journal of Earthquake Technology*, 39 (4), 311-346.
14. Idriss, I. M., & Sun, J. I. (1992). *User's Manual for SHAKE91, Center for Geotechnical Modeling, Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of California, Davis, California, USA*.
15. Khattri, K. N. (1987). Great earthquakes,seismicity gaps and potential for earthquakes along the Himalayan plate boundary. *Tectonophysics*, 38, 79-92.
16. Lazzaroni, S., & Bergeijk, P. V. (2013). Natural Disasters impact, factors of resilience and development: A meta-Analysis of the macroeconomic Literature. *ISS*, 554(Working paper Series/General Series), 1-38.
17. Mahajan, A. K., Mihailov, V., & Dojcinovski, D. (2002). A Preliminary Probabilistic seismic hazard assessment of the northwest Himalaya. *12 SEE Conference on Earthquake Engineering*, 16(18), 277-286.
18. Mahajan, A. K., Thakur, V. C., Sharma, M. L., & Chauhan, M. (2010 ). Probabilistic seismic hazard map of NW Himalaya. *Natural Hazards*, 53, 443-457.
19. Murty, C. R., Goswami, R., Vijayanarayanan, A. R., & Mehta, V. K. (2013, May 31). Some Concepts in Earthquake Behaviour of Buildings. Gujarat State Disaster Management Authority.
20. Rajput, P. (2014). Integrating geological Concerns over Tourism Development: A Case study of Dharamshala, Kangra, Himachal Pradesh (India). In R. K. Gupta, P. Gautam, & A. S. Thakur, *Exploring Tourism and Hospitality Industry: Issues and Strategies* (pp. 15-30). Delhi: Neha Publishers and Distributors.
21. Rajput, P., Rawat, G. S., & Mahajan, A. K. (2015). An Analysis of Seismic Risk from a Tourism Perspective in Himalayas. *Tourism Innovations:An International Journal of Indian Tourism and Hospitality Congress (ITHC)* , 4 (1), 156-171.
22. Tandon, A. N. (1956). Zones of India liable to earthquake damage. *Ind Journal Meteorol Geophys*, 10, 137-146.
23. Thomann, T. G., & Chowdhury, K. (2004). Shear Wave Velocity and its effect on Seismic Design Forces and Liquefaction Assessment. Fifth International Conference on Case Histories in Geotechnical Engineering, April 13-17, 2004. New York.

24. Uriz, P. (2005). Towards earthquake resistant design of concentrically braced steel structures. Berkeley: University of California.
25. Tandon, A. N. (1956). Zones of India liable to earthquake damage. *Ind JournaI Meteorol Geophys*, 10, 137-146.
26. Khattri, K. N., Rogers, A. M., Perkins, D. M., & Algermissen, S. T. (1984). A seismic hazard map of India and adjacent areas. *Tectonophysics*, 108, 93-134.
27. Sinha, S., Ghosh, S. K., Kuma, R., Islam, R., & Sangode, S. J. (2008). Role of Tectono-Climatic Factors in the Neogene Himalayan Foreland Sediments: Petrology and Geochemical Approach, Kangra Sub-basin. *Jour. Geol. Soc. India*, 71, 787-807
28. Mahajan, A. K., Thakur, V. C., Sharma, M. L., & Chauhan, M. (2010 ). Probabilistic seismic hazard map of NW Himalaya. *Natural Hazards*, 53, 443-457.
29. Bhatia, S. C., Kumar, R. M., & Gupta, H. K. (1999). A probabilistic seismic hazard map of India and adjoining regions. *Ann Geofis*, 42(6), 1153-1164.
30. DDMA. (2012). *District Disaster Management Authority (DDMA) Kangra*. Government of India- UNDP DISASTER RISK REDUCTION (DRR) Programme(2009-12).
31. Wadia, D. N. (1919). *Geology of India: For Students*. Macmillan,117.
32. Mahajan, A. K. (1991). *Seismotectonic Activity of the Dharamshala-Palampur Area in Relation to Neotectonics*. Ph.D Thesis, Panjab University, Centre of Advanced Study in Geology, Chandigarh.
33. Thakur, V. C. (2013). Active tectonics of Himalayan Frontal System. *International Journal of Earth Sciences (Geologische Rundschau)*, 102, 1791-1810.
34. Tandon, A. N. (1956). Zones of India liable to earthquake damage. *Ind JournaI Meteorol Geophys*, 10, 137-146.
35. Lazzaroni, S., & Bergeijk, P. V. (2013). Natural Disasters impact, factors of resilience and development: A meta-Analysis of the macroeconomic Literature. *ISS*, 554(Working paper Series/General Series), 1-38.
36. Lorant, G. (2016, October 11). Retrieved August 08, 2022, from Whole building design guide: <https://www.wbdg.org/resources/seismic-design-principles>
37. McGuire, R. K. (1995). Probabilistic seismic hazard analysis and design earthquakes: Closing the loop. *Bull. Seismol. Soc. Am.*, 85(5), 1275-1284.
38. Reiter, L. (1990). *Earthquake Hazard Analysis: Issues and Insights*. New York, U.S.A.: Columbia University Press.
39. Rajput, P. (2014). Integrating geological Concerns over Tourism Development: A Case study of Dharamshala, Kangra, Himachal Pradesh (India). In R. K. Gupta, P. Gautam, & A. S. Thakur, *Exploring Tourism and Hospitality Industry: Issues and Strategies* (pp. 15-30). Delhi: Neha Publishers and Distributors.
40. Rajput, P. (2016). *Evaluation of Seismic Hazard Potential of 1905 meizoseismal zone and seismic microzonation of Dharamshala town using surface and sub surface investigation*. Phd Thesis, Hemavati Nandan Bahuguna Garhwal University, Department of Geology.
41. [www.fsnnetwork.org](http://www.fsnnetwork.org). (2006). Retrieved November 26, 2015, from Food Security and Nutrition Network: [http://www.preventionweb.net/files/2067\\_VL108502.pdf](http://www.preventionweb.net/files/2067_VL108502.pdf)

## Tourism in Kashmir, Victim to Political Instability: A Comparative Analysis of Kashmir and Jammu Division

Mehraj Ud Din Wani, Zubair Ahmad Dada, Shamim Ahmad Shah & Shakir Ahmad Wani

### Abstract

*Tourism in Jammu and Kashmir is the second-largest industry contributing to the economy, but it is now the victim of the rising political upheaval in the state. The present paper intends to analyze the blow of political shakiness on the growth of tourism in Kashmir. It also identifies variations in tourist flow and rising turmoil over time. The findings reveal that prolonged political turbulence has seriously threatened the region's tourism business. It has halted overall economic growth in general and diminished employment prospects in particular. The paper concludes that to ensure political stability, the government must pay due attention to marketing and planning programs, which in turn can lead to the development of the tourism industry. The study suggests that to maintain political stability, the government must pay close attention to rising unemployment issues, which can contribute to the growth of the tourism business. The Kashmir valley, blessed with tranquil natural beauty and abundant natural resources, has enormous potential for creating new jobs and promoting economic development.*

**Keywords:** Tourism, Political instability, Jammu and Kashmir, Economy.

### Introduction

The growth of the tourism business creates jobs and foreign exchange money, which are hence linked to economic growth (Edgell, 1999). International visitor arrivals have risen from 25 million in 1950 to 1.5 billion in 2019 (WTO, 2020). According to preliminary figures, 1.62 crore (1.61 crore local and 57,920 foreign) tourists visited Jammu and Kashmir in 2019 and 2.79 million visited Ladakh. Last year, around 1.72 crore tourists visited Jammu and Kashmir, including 1.70 crore domestic and 1.39 lakh overseas visitors.

Tourism is a major industry in Jammu and Kashmir, contributing to the state's GDP, and earning foreign cash. Kashmir has been rightly termed as "The Paradise on Earth" because of its magnificent and breath-taking beauty around the world. In his "Rajatarangini," Kalhana claims that Kailasa is the finest of three worlds: the Himalayas are the best portion of Kailasa, and Kashmir is the best part of the Himalayas. The multiplier effect of

tourism should be viewed as a major industry that boosts the economy in general (Elliott 1997). Tourism, terrorism, and political unrest are inextricably linked (Lea, 1996). Jammu and Kashmir has two important truths: First, it is one of the most beautiful states in Northern India, making tourism an important economic activity for the state; and second, it borders Pakistan, China, and Afghanistan, making political instability or turmoil an important issue for the state. Jammu and Kashmir's tourism industry is in a condition of common hysteria and decline, caught in the vortex of 1990s instability and ongoing political turmoil. Because of an increase in military and terrorist incidents in the 1990s, the tourism industry in Kashmir experienced its worst decade ever.

The Kashmir conflict has cost the lives of an estimated 40,000 to 80,000 people and displaced an additional 400,000 (Medhurst, 2002). The ferocity of the 2016 protests, which included fierce clashes between stone-throwing protestors and police and paramilitaries, equalled and

---

**Mehraj Ud Din Wani** Research Scholars, Department of Geography & Disaster Management, University of Kashmir  
**Zubair Ahmad Dada** Assistant Professor, Tourism Management, University of Kashmir  
**Shamim Ahmad Shah** Professor, Department of Geography & Disaster Management, University of Kashmir  
**Shakir Ahmad Wani** Research Scholars, Department of Geography & Disaster Management, University of Kashmir

sometimes exceeded the mass demonstrations seen in 1989 (Mohanty, 2018). The Kashmiri people are confronted with numerous issues, including a deteriorating economy that is contributing to unemployment.

### Political Instability

Political instability is conceived as a complex term having diverse meanings and interpretations (Gupta, 1990). International tourism can be affected by a variety of political instability factors, including civil and international conflicts, coups, terrorism, riots, etc (Lea, 1996). Local ventures and investments are also diverted to non-developmental expenses rather than helpful areas due to political instability (Habib and Fatima, 2017).

### Political Instability and Tourism

Political instability and the growth of the tourism industry are intricately intertwined. It is not simply political parties and elections that are connected with politics and tourism (Hall, 1996). There is only a small amount of research that looks into the link between political unrest and tourism. Tourism may be utilized as a political weapon by some governments against others (Sonmez, 1998). In the absence of peace, tourism is not always unsuccessful, demonstrating the industry's adaptability (Salazar, 2006).

### Tourism and Peace

Peace is an ethereal quality that is complex to measure. When employed passively, it means no war, no terrorism, and no random violence (Salazar, 2006). Tourism is an important part of the world's development and promotion of peace (Premodh, 2015). Travel, according to Mahatma Gandhi, is "The Language of Peace." Gandhiji saw the necessity of winning independence via nonviolence and travelled throughout India to foster a sense of personal connection among the people, ultimately succeeded in establishing freedom through peace. In Kashmir, tourism serves as a factor for peace and security between India and Pakistan (Premodh, 2015).

### Tourism and Travel Advisories

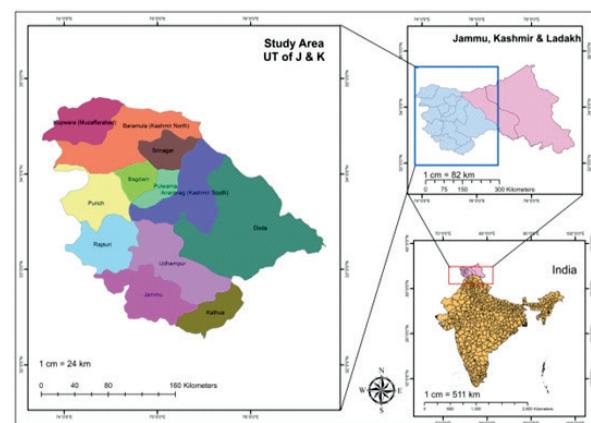
Following the outbreak of armed insurrection in the Valley, Germany was the first to issue a travel warning. Similarly, countries such as New Zealand and Australia had recommended their residents to stay away from Kashmir. Political instability thwarts national and international investments, resulting in the embezzlement of immense natural resources for which Jammu & Kashmir is famous (Habib & Fatima, 2017).

The focus of the current study will be on three main areas. The first part is to find out how political unrest has affected the growth of the tourism business in the Kashmir Valley. The second part is to ascertain changes in the tourist trend in Kashmir and compare it to the Jammu region. The third part is to unearth impediments

and suggest feasible recommendations for the growth and revival of the tourism business.

### Study Area

The Union Territory (UT) of Jammu and Kashmir is located in the Indian subcontinent's northernmost region. It is bounded to the east by the Indian union territory of Ladakh, to the northwest by the Pakistani-administered section of Kashmir, and the west by Pakistan. In the south, it is bounded by the states of Punjab and Himachal Pradesh. The Union Territory of Jammu and Kashmir is one of India's largest Union Territories, covering an area of 42,241 square kilometres and housing a population of over one crore people.



**Fig. 1 Study Area**

**Source:** Authors, created in GIS

### Literature Review

One of the most well-known and well-established tourist destinations of the Indian Territory is Jammu and Kashmir. The Kashmir Valley, nestled in the Himalayan foothills, is home to a plethora of internationally renowned tourist attractions. For several years, the opulent green vacationer hotels and resorts in Gulmarg, Yousmarg, Pahalgam, Kokernag, and the magnificent dales of Sonamarg have remained attractions. Tourism and the hotel business are integral to the valley's customs, culture, and, more importantly, economics. Jammu, on the other hand, is known as the "Land of Temples," in addition to scenic beauty, hill climbs, picnic sites, and lakes, it attracts a huge number of pilgrim tourists. The Mata Vaishno Devi Shrine, one of the most important locations in the Jammu region, has attracted a large number of explorers and travellers. Alternative tourist destinations include Shiv Khorai, Mansar Lake, Sukhrala Mata, and Shahdra Sharief, as well as Bhaderwah, Rajouri, and Poonch.

Tourism has been playing a vital role in developing the economy of Jammu and Kashmir right from the date of its inception in the state. Because tourism has no gestation period, it is possibly the only industry that pays dividends

right away (Farooq et al, 2013). Visitors are less likely to go to places that are unstable or prone to serious conflict, despite the number of charming places there may be (Alluri, 2009), in the event of conflict, political upheaval, terrorism, human rights breaches, or serious criminal activity (Sonmez, 1998). Political instability and militancy are the primary causes of decreasing tourist visitation in Kashmir (Shah, 2012). As a result, tourism is particularly susceptible to unrest and can only thrive in quiet environments (Pizam and Mansfeld, 2006; Tarlow, 2006). The political and military events in Kashmir have had a significant impact on the region's economy, particularly tourism. Political turmoil, riots, and wars can all lead to social unrest, riots, and wars, all of which can have a large detrimental influence on tourism (Sonmez 1998). There is a substantial body of knowledge on the impact of various forms of political shocks on the hospitality industry and tourism (Ivanow, 2016). From the political point of view, having stability and relations between states are essential in shaping the picture of visitor destinations in tourist-generating areas, as well as the genuine and apparent protection of tourists (Hall 1996). Political turbulence, civil unrest, and conflict can all heighten a destination's risk perception (Lepp, 2003). Political unrest causes unfavorable publicity, resulting in a drop in tourist arrivals that is unavoidable (Thapa, 2003). Tourism with the constant cycle of political unrest and bloodshed is difficult to reconcile (Richter and Waugh 1986).

## Methodology

The current analysis relies heavily on secondary data sources. The data has been collected from various journals, books, newspapers, research articles, etc. In addition to this, the annual reports presented to The Ministry of Home Affairs, India, and some data from the Directorate of Tourism, Govt. of Jammu & Kashmir were also taken under consideration.

## Discussion and Analysis

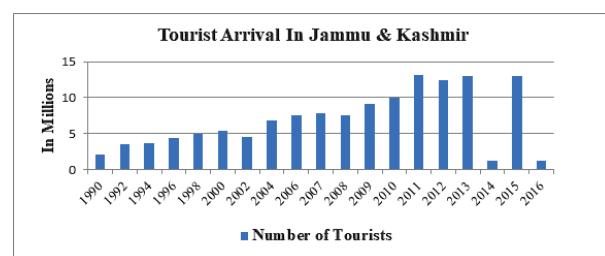
The Union Territory of Jammu and Kashmir's overall economic development has been aided by tourism. In the Kashmir region, there has been a constant climate of enmity and political upheaval since the beginning of the insurgency in 1989. The shock of the following disturbances to the tourism business has been even more damaging, with tourist arrivals in the valley falling from 557977 in 1989 to 8520 in 1995. Although tourism employs 257,000 people directly or indirectly, it has failed to achieve any social relevance in terms of employment. Table 1 presents a general view of the tourist arrivals to the erstwhile state of Jammu and Kashmir. It presents a clear picture of the tremendous increase in the number of tourists visiting the state, from 2.1 million in 1990 to a huge mark of 13.7 million in 2013.

**Table. 1 Tourist arrival to JK from 1989-2016**

Year	Number of Tourists	Year	Number of Tourists
1989	2987964	2003	5773176
1990	2191486	2004	6921715
1991	3182251	2005	7283826
1992	3608269	2006	7699028
1993	3447162	2007	7968025
1994	3770208	2008	7693674
1995	4118632	2009	9282961
1996	4482072	2010	10021288
1997	4546200	2011	13143124
1998	4903930	2012	12505924
1999	5013571	2013	13703249
2000	5412863	2014	1348919
2001	5268246	2015	13138098
2002	4578404	2016	12,99,112

**Source:** Department of Tourism, J&K

Since the start of the unrest in J&K in 1990, 14,054 civilians and 5294 members of the Security Force (SF) have died (up to December 2019). Terrorist violence decreased from 499 events in 2009 to 192 incidents in 2012. In comparison to 2011, the number of terrorist incidents decreased by 35.29 percent and the number of civilians and Security Forces (SFs) deaths decreased by 54.54 percent and 51.61 percent, respectively. In comparison to the same period in 2015, the number of terrorist events and security force fatalities in 2016 increased by 54.81 percent and 110.25 percent, respectively. Military events have surged dramatically from 170 in 2013 to 640 in 2018.



**Fig. 2 Graph shows tourist arrival in J & K**

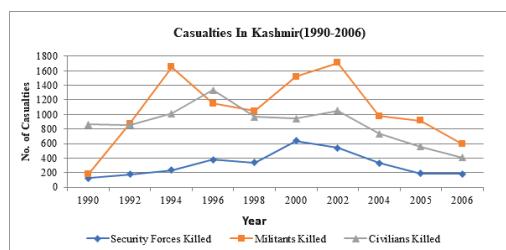
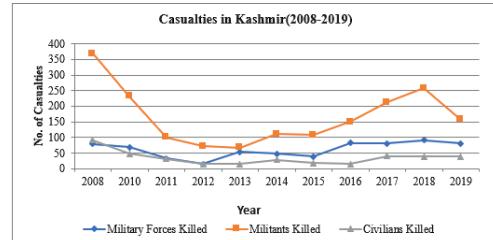
Table 2 shows an overall picture of the number of fatalities in the valley from 1990 to 2019. The Ministry of Home Affairs records show that J&K documented 614 terrorism-related occurrences in 2018, compared to 342 in 2017. This is the most incidences in a year since 2008, when 708 happened. In 2017, 264 stone-pelting events were reported from 30 tehsils, causing 24 deaths and 646 injuries. Street violence, which fuels terrorist attacks, has escalated in 2018, nearly 330 stone-pelting events were reported from 30 tehsils, killing 50 civilians and injuring over 936 others.

**Table. 2 Jammu and Kashmir; Casualties from 1990-2019**

Year	Security forces killed	Civilians killed	Militants Killed	Total Military Incidents
1990	123	862	183	3905
1992	177	859	873	4971
1994	236	1012	1651	4484
1996	376	1333	1149	4424
1998	339	967	1045	2940
2000	638	942	1520	3091
2002	539	1050	1707	4038
2004	330	733	976	2565
2005	189	557	917	1990
2006	182	410	591	1667
2008	79	91	369	708
2010	69	47	232	488
2011	33	31	100	340
2012	15	15	72	220
2013	53	15	67	170
2014	47	28	110	222
2015	39	17	108	208
2016	82	15	150	322
2017	80	40	213	342
2018	91	39	257	614
2019	80	39	157	594

Source: Ministry of Home Affairs, India, Annual Reports

Figure 3 and Figure 4 represent the fluctuations in causalities and total military incidents. From this graph, it is easy to see that militancy incidents were quite high in the years 1990 to 2003 because there was very little tourism taking place in Jammu and Kashmir, but with time, as militancy incidents decreased, there was an increasing trend in tourist arrivals in the state from 2004 to 2011.

**Fig. 3 Casualties in Kashmir****Fig. 4 Causalities in Kashmir****Table 3 Percentage Change in tourist flow**

Year	Military Incidents	Arrival of tourists in Kashmir	% Change	Arrival of tourists in Jammu	% Change
2009	499	601252	----	10347000	----
2010	488	736488	+22	11634015	+12
2011	340	1314470	+78	13485023	+15
2012	220	1311840	-0.2	14263021	+5.7
2013	170	1172008	-10	12433342	-12.8
2014	222	1164329	-0.6	10196225	-18
2015	208	927355	-20	12385261	+21
2016	322	1300080	+40	12283503	-0.8
2017	342	1228638	-5	13318109	+8
2018	614	830758	-32	16047912	+20
2019	594	565532	-31	15655845	-2

Source: Ministry of Home Affairs, India, Annual Report, 1989–2019

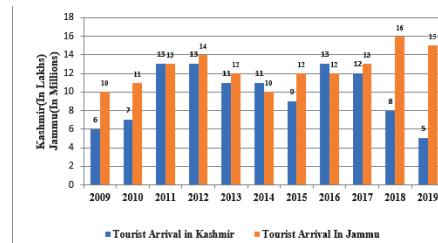
**Fig. 5 Comparison of tourist arrival between Kashmir & Jammu**

Table 2 shows that military incidents in the Kashmir valley were in a fluctuating state, but since 2003, incidents started decreasing rapidly, from 2565 in 2004, 708 in 2008, to a sharp decline of only 170 incidents in 2013. The tourist flow to the valley, on the other hand, also shows a distinct increasing and decreasing trend. It was continuously increasing from 6 lakh in 2009 to a more than twofold increase of 13 lakh in 2016 (Table 3). But again in 2016, over 793 stone-pelting events were reported from 39 tehsils, resulting in 92 civilian deaths and over 1,691 injuries. Since the July 8, 2016 killing of Hizb-ul-Mujahideen (HM)

'commander' Burhan Wani, J&K has seen an increase in street violence and stone-pelting. In light of the region's current political turmoil, civil war, and bloodshed, the industry has taken a significant hit.

The impact of the 2016 unrest on the tourism industry was seen in the upcoming years when the inflow of tourists decreased drastically from 13 lakh in 2016 to only 8 lakh in 2018. The table 3 shows that the inflow of tourists to the Jammu division is continuously increasing from 1 crore visitors in 2009 to more than 1.6 crores in 2018. When both the divisions are compared, the Kashmir valley has been the sole victim of the political turmoil that has been lasting here since 1990. The state's tourism has collapsed in the two decades that began in 1989. This was the period of increased insurgency. During this time, Kashmir metamorphosed-in terms of politics, speech, the nature of militancy, the extent of external intervention, and perceptions of possible solutions. In recent years, however, tourism in the state has improved. The tourism that stopped during the peak insurgency gradually improved. The state was visited by both domestic and international tourists. However, the numbers are far from sufficient. The investigation revealed that the covid-19 pandemic has had a significant impact on India's tourism and hotel industries. But it was also observed that the tourism industry is the only industry that can absorb the crippling effects of the pandemic's shock and revive itself immediately. So, if the tourism industry has resilience power that it can recover from such a fatal and devastating pandemic like Covid-19, why is it not possible for it to revitalise itself after the disturbances of political or armed conflicts in the valley? Successful tourist management brings huge economic benefits, including higher employment, improved per capita income, greater commercial transactions, a better balance of payments, and large generated earnings (Shah, 2012).

Some of the natural resources of the area include a wonderful climate, beautiful lakes, places for adventure, wildlife, abundant fish, natural and man-made parks such as Shalimar and Nishat, fauna and flora, alpine forests, natural waterfalls, and rivers. Kashmir's cultural assets include religious shrines, ancient monuments, festivals, cuisine, handicrafts, excellent woodwork, tapestries, textiles, and paper machines.

## Conclusion

Tourism is deeply ingrained in Jammu and Kashmir's culture and heritage. The tourism industry has a special role in our economy because it is one of the fastest growing areas. It creates a significant amount of foreign cash as well as jobs. This results in the construction of new infrastructure. Although there was a phenomenal growth in tourism development after the 1990s insurgency, episodic political shakiness has left its marks on the tourism industry. Political stability is a prerequisite for the tourism and economic development of any country.

Given this situation, the tourism business in Kashmir needs to be re-evaluated. This can best be realized in a stable economic and political environment. An uncertain political situation impinges not just on tourism, but also on all other sectors, leading to unemployment and halting economic growth. Because of the state's natural beauty and landscape, tourism is the sole viable sector. Some other impediments that have halted the development of tourism in Kashmir are poor accessibility and lack of infrastructure.

Political upheaval has been proven to have negatively damaged the tourism business in the last three decades. The question here is whether the business can recoil back to, or ahead of, its preceding height. To answer that question, it has to be taken into account first that tourism does not die, and its quality of resilience can contribute to a modern rejuvenation of the tourism business. Rich in nature and lovely scenery, its geography is surely rich and can please all kinds of tourists.

## Suggestions

So, what steps can countries take to revitalize their tourism industries in the aftermath of political unrest? When negative media coverage of a location is overdone, governments should curb it. The availability of funds for tourism infrastructure and marketing initiatives, as well as effective planning and coordination among many stakeholders, are all prerequisites for overhauling the tourism sector. There is a need to create mass awareness programmes among the people to prevent bad and conflict-prone characteristics of the valley. The media has a significant impact on Kashmir's tourism economy. The media's portrayal of Kashmir has exacerbated the region's already-existing unfavourable branding, making it a major obstacle for the tourism industry to overcome. To address international tourists' safety worries, it's proposed that the government raise safety and security standards while also paying closer attention to the media to help reduce negative publicity and its effect on the growth of the Kashmir tourism business. But it doesn't mean giving an inaccurate or complacent view of the system; it means accurately and transparently describing facts and stopping the current policy of huge censorship. It means assaulting foreign media that don't toe the government's line. It's unsustainable. A website related to tourism should be launched wherein the visited tourists can share their joyful and positive experiences of their visit. This can conceivably bring more tourists to the region by generating interest among them. In this age of IT and communication, social media like Facebook and YouTube can do wonders by providing the true situation of the area. So, to alter tourism from uni-seasonal to multi-seasonal demand, proper tourism marketing should be done including knowledge, skills, aptitudes, and numbers.

**References**

1. Alluri, R. M., (2009). "The Role of Tourism in Post-Conflict Peace building in Rwanda" Bern, Swiss peace.
2. Choudhury, R., & Mohanty, P. (2018). Strategic Use of Social Media in Tourism Marketing: A Comparative Analysis of Official Tourism Boards. *Atna Journal of Tourism Studies*, 13(2), 41-56.
3. Department of Tourism, Govt. of Jammu and Kashmir, India.
4. <http://www.jktourism.jk.gov.in>
5. Edgell, D.L, Sr (1999). Tourism Policy: The Next Millennium, Sagamore Publishing, Champaign, IL.
6. Elliott, J. (1997). Tourism: politics and public sector management, London: Routledge.
7. Farooq, A. S., Wani, A., & Mustafa, Z. (2013). Impact of Armed Conflict on Kashmir Tourism and Socio-Economic Profile of the People of J&K. *Excel International Journal of Multidisciplinary Management Studies*, 3(7), 1.
8. Gupta, D. (1990). The Economics of Political Instability: The Effect of Political Instability on Economic Growth. New York: Praeger.
9. Habib, U and U, Fatima (2017). Political Instability and Tourism in Jammu and Kashmir: A Comparative Analysis of Kashmir and Ladakh Region, International Journal of Trend in Research and Development, Volume 4(5), pp. 63-67.
10. Hall, C. M. (1996). Tourism and Politics: Policy, Power and Place. England: John Wiley & Son Ltd.
11. Ivanov, S., Idzhilova, K., & Webster, C. (2016). Impacts of the entry of the Autonomous Republic of Crimea into the Russian Federation on its tourism industry: An exploratory study. *Tourism Management*, 54, 162-169.
12. Lea, P. J. (1996). "Tourism, realpolitik and development in the South Pacific". In A. Pizam and. Y. Mansfeld (eds.) *Tourism, Crime and International Security Issues*. London: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
13. Lepp, A., and Gibson, H. (2003). 'Tourist roles, perceived risk and international tourism', *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol 30, No 3, pp 606-624.
14. Medhurst, M. J. (2002). Forging a Civil-Religious Construct for the 21st Century: Should Hart's "Contract" Be Renewed?. *Journal of Communication & Religion*, 25(1).
15. Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India, Annual Reports 1989-2019. <https://www.mha.gov.in/documents/annual-reports>
16. Mohanty, S. (2018). The New Wave of Mobilisation in Kashmir: Religious or Political?. *Social Change*, 48(1), 59-71.
17. Premodh, N. (2015). Tourism as a Powerful Tool for Peace and Dialogue. *ELK Asia Pacific Journals*.
18. Pizam, A., & Mansfeld, Y., (2006). "Tourism, Security, and Safety from Theory to Practice" Oxford: Elsevier.
19. Richter, L. K., & Waugh Jr, W. L. (1986). Terrorism and tourism as logical companions. *Tourism management*, 7(4), 230-238.
20. Salazar, N. B. (2006). Building a 'Culture of Peace' through Tourism: Reflexive and analytical notes and queries. *universitas humanistica*, (62), 319-336.
21. Shah, S. A. (2012). Tourism and lake sustainability: A case study of Dal Lake. *International Journal of Environmental Sciences*, 1(4), 230-234.
22. Sonmez, S.F., (1998). "Tourism, Terrorism and Political Instability" *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25, 2: 416 - 456.
23. Tarlow, P.E., (2006)," A Social Theory of Terrorism and Tourism" Oxford: Elsevier.
24. Thapa, B. (2003). Tourism in Nepal: Shangri-La's troubled times. Florida: University of Florida.
25. World Tourism Organization (2020). [https://www.wto.org/english/res\\_e/publications\\_e/anrep20\\_e.htm](https://www.wto.org/english/res_e/publications_e/anrep20_e.htm)

## Prospects for 'Green Jobs' Through Community Based Tourism in State of Arunachal Pradesh, India

Pijush Kumar Dutta

### Abstract

*State of Arunachal Pradesh, located in Himalaya Biodiversity Hotspot, is globally known for diverse ecosystems and rich biological diversity with nearly 80% of total area under diverse forest types. The state with more than 60% of total forest area, de facto, traditionally under control of local communities, there is need for more opportunities for promotion of green jobs in the state. In this paper, outcome of a project implemented in western part of Arunachal Pradesh where CBT was promoted as conservation incentive for the villagers by constituting village level institutional mechanism to mobilise them for conservation of natural resources under their customary administrative jurisdiction has been discussed to understand its prospects of expansion other parts of state. The model was designed to ensure equitable sharing of tourism benefits among villagers by maintaining minimum profit leakage.*

**Keywords:** Sustainable tourism; informal job; community conserved area;

### Introduction

Globally, growth-oriented development paradigm have failed to take into account concerns related to environmental destruction, social impact, human right violation and equity. The term 'green' has been traditionally described as something that has caring or moderate effect of the environment and by extension, green jobs, or green-collar jobs, are those connected to a sustainable economy and better environment (Llewellyn *et al.*, 2008). 'Green economy' was included as one of the two principal themes for 2012 UN Conference for Sustainable Development (Rio +20) and has now entered mainstream policy debates globally. UNEP (2011) defines a green economy as one that results in 'improved human well-being and social equity, while significantly reducing environmental risks and ecological scarcities'.

Tourism which is recognised as one of the world's largest industry is growing at the rate 6.6 per cent annually in last half century (Yoeman *et al.*, 2006). Often tourism is seen as a relatively eco-friendly alternative to other industries and has been identified as one of ten sectors to promote 'green economy' model of development (Kamp, 2012). Tourism is labour intensive sector and ne job in tourism generate 1.5 jobs elsewhere (WTO & ILO, 2014). However, globally

it has been found that tourism, which is often referred as mass tourism, cause serious ecological and sociological disturbances in destination sites. Therefore, globally now significant emphasis is on Alternate Tourism which according to Krippendorf (1982) ensure tourism policies which not only concentrate on economic and technical necessities but also give high importance to maintenance of environment and needs of local people. There are many definitions of specialized tourism activities – ecotourism, nature-based tourism, adventure tourism, cultural tourism and so on which vary with the markets for which they are being targeted (The Mountain Institute, 2000).

According to Goodwin (1996:288), 'Ecotourism is low impact nature tourism which contributes to the maintenance of species and habitats either directly through a contribution to conservation and/or indirectly by providing revenue to the local community sufficient for local people to value, and therefore protect, their wildlife heritage area as a source of income'. Ecotourism can significantly contribute in sustainable development of an area as it provide opportunity to local community to actively participate in decision making process, secure their economic and social benefits and help in preservation of natural world for now and for future generation (Fennell, 2015). With the increase in sense of

environment and social responsibility in tourism and to ensure sustainability, community based tourism (CBT) has been gaining popularity as part of strategies for conservation and development (The Mountain Institute, 2000). Adoption of good practices in community based tourism (CBT) contributes to all the three pillars of sustainability - social, environmental and economic benefits. CBT in general is managed and owned by the community and for the community.

State of Arunachal Pradesh, which is a part of Himalaya Biodiversity Hotspot, has 60% of total forest area under traditional control of diverse local indigenous communities. For the state, CBT can be very effective means to promote 'green job' as it is important to ensure socioeconomic development of the area without compromising equitable and inclusive sharing of benefit from natural resources of the state among present and future generation. In this paper, based on the mechanisms adopted and outcomes achieved in one of the ongoing CBT project in western part of state, prospect of extending similar initiative in other parts of the state to provide opportunities for green job for local communities for sustainable development of the state has been discussed. In term of employment, tourism has multiplier effect as it stimulate job creation in all related sectors both within and outside tourism destination sites (World Tourism Organisation and International Labour Organisation, 2014). Tourism generates direct and indirect employment opportunity both in the tourism destination site as well as site outside the tourism destination. CBT have been implemented in two sites in two western districts of Arunachal Pradesh, West Kameng and Tawang, as tool to provide conservation incentive to local villagers for conservation of diverse forest and wildlife found within the jurisdiction of villages. The mechanism adopted to promote CBT and outcome of the project are discussed in the paper to explore scope for extension of similar initiatives in other areas to ensure sustainable development of the state.

### **Community based tourism in western Arunachal Pradesh**

Tawang and West Kameng districts of Arunachal Pradesh, located in western part of state, have been identified by state government as one of potential site for promotion of tourism. The area harbors an extremely rich floral and faunal diversity comprising many endangered animals and plants (Srivastava and Dutta, 2010a and 2010b; Mishra *et al.*, 2004; Dutta *et al.*, 2013). However at present the area is also under severe pressure due to various anthropogenic activities like various infrastructure development activities, collection of medicinal plants, timber, grazing and forest fire (Dutta *et al.*, 2013; Dutta and Bhomia, 2007).

Community Based Tourism, as a conservation incentive for local villagers to mobilise them for their active participation in community based conservation of forest

and wildlife of the two districts, is being promoted by WWF-India, a NGO working for conservation of forest and wildlife in various part of India. First two phases of the project was implemented in two sites - Thembang village in West Kameng district and Zemithang in Tawang district in between 2007-2012 (Plate 1). In both the site villagers demarcated areas under their traditional jurisdiction as Community Conserved Area (CCA) and initiated necessary conservation measures with support from WWF-India (Dutta *et al.*, 2012). The mechanism for CBT was developed in consultation with local villagers and strategies to ensure sustainability and maximum benefit to local villagers were incorporated in the plan.



**Fig 1 Map of Project sites in West Kameng and Tawang districts of Arunachal Pradesh**

### **1. Village level institutional mechanism**

In consultation with local villagers and village Panchayat, village level Community Conserved Area Management Committees for respective sites were constituted - Thembang Bau CCA Management Committee in Thembang and Pangchen Lumpo Muchat CCA Management Committee in Zemithang. The role and the function of committee members and their office tenure have been decided in the village meeting. The village Panchayat, after finalisation, adopted a resolution and issued notification regarding creation of CCA and constitution of CCA Management Committee in both the sites. After consultation, By Laws of the committees were prepared and then the committees were registered under Society Registration Act. The main function of the committee that was decided in the village meeting is to execute and monitor the CCA Management Plan and coordinate the CBT activities in the village and ensure equitable sharing of benefits from livelihood activities among villagers.

Earlier it was observed that Travel Agents come with tourist and go for trekking in areas under the village jurisdiction without informing the villagers. In some cases it has been found that, if required, travel agents will engage some villagers known to them only for certain services. Majority of the villagers are neither informed nor

benefited from the visiting tourists. After the constitution of the CCA Management Committee, it has been made mandatory that all travel agents, operating in the area, must inform the committee first about visiting tourist and services required. The committee members will do all the arrangements and will engage villagers for various services on rotation basis for number of days tourist will be spending in village areas.

## 2. Strengthening of infrastructure and local capacity

After the villagers agreed to take up CBT activities, group of villagers from both the sites were taken to Gangtok and Yaksum at Sikkim on an exposure visit where they interacted with villagers running Home Stays and are working as Guide, porter and cook. They interacted with tour operators and villagers to get clear idea of how to manage CBT in their villages, quality of service that they will have to provide to the visitors, likely negative impact of tourism and how to avoid that.

After the exposure visit, in the village meeting with help of PRA exercise, trek route, camp sites, attractions and activities for tourist have been finalised. Villagers based on their existing skill and capacities were selected to provide various tourism services and also rates, with provision of revisions, for all the services have been finalised (Table 1). Mechanism for management of CBT, in consultation with local villagers was prepared, in which provisions were made to provide direct benefit to villagers and also to generate funds to develop the corpus of CCA Management Committee (Table 1). Onsite training workshops for the selected villagers were also organised where experts from Sikkim imparted training to them. Works to develop and improve existing infrastructure for CBT were taken up. From the project supports were extended to selected villagers to set up Home Stays (5 in Thembang and 4 in Lumbo Muchat, Zemithang) and Home Based Restaurant (2 in each site). In both the sites support for setting up Village Camp Sites were also provided. All the basic camping materials for trekking were also provided to respective committees.

**Table 1 Different earning opportunities from CBT**

Earning Opportunities for Villagers	Earning Opportunities for CCAMC
Home Stay Operator	1. Space provided for pitching tent brought by Tourist
Home Based Restaurant Operator	2. Camping materials taken from CCAMCs
Pack Animal provider	3. CCA Entry Fee
Guide	4. Camera Fee
Cook and Cook Helper	5. CCA Conservation Fee (15% for international tourist and 10% for domestic tourist of total cost of all the services being provided by villagers and CCAMCs)
Porter	
Camp Manager	
Performing Cultural Programmed	

## 3. Benefit sharing mechanism and sustainability

Community Based Tourism initiated through this project is proving to be most inclusive initiative, providing highest economic returns and providing strong incentives to the villagers to conserve CCAs. The mechanism that has been put in place in consultation with villagers has got provision for direct income by villagers and at same time generate corpus of the CCAMC (Table 1). Effort has been made to ensure that villagers are able to manage and coordinate CBT in their village at their own and one local boy, from each site, have been assigned with the responsibility to look after all the arrangement for visitors and 10% of earning by Home Stay operators and 30% of earning from Camp site of the committee is paid to him as honorarium. To ensure equal opportunity for all the selected villagers as per the rules adopted in the village, all the service provider for particular service are being engaged on rotation basis. Besides, pack animal owners are not allowed to provide more than 2 pack animals at a time, during his turn, and all the tourist staying in Home Stay have to go to Home Based Restaurants for lunch.

## 4. Outcome

Presently villagers of Lumbo and Muchat from Zemithang are managing approximately 98sq.km area as Pangchen Lumbo Muchat CCA and villagers of Thembang are managing 635sq.km area as Thembang Bapu CCA. They have imposed ban on commercial collection of forest resources and are now doing periodic patrolling and monitoring to stop hunting of any wildlife from the CCA areas. In between 2009 to 2012 average annual income of villagers from various CBT related activities they have been engaged in (Table 1) was Rs.2.5 lakh approximately and 70% of the villagers have been benefited from the ongoing CBT initiatives during this period of time. Earning from home stays, home based restaurants and cultural programs are directly going to women in the villages of project sites. The management committee had total saving of Rs.2.4 lakh in their corpus during the same period.

## 5. Challenges

As this is a service sector, tourist who pays for visiting these sites also has expectation of quality services from the villagers. However, as the target of the initiative is to ensure maximum benefit for villagers only, involvement of professional experts (cooking, guiding etc.) from outside are not allowed and as a result, at initial stage of intervention, it becomes challenging to ensure professional and high quality services to visiting tourist. Keeping this in mind, so far extensive marketing and promotion of CBT in these two sites have not been done intentionally. Tourists who have appreciation for the unique initiatives taken up by the villagers and are ready to encourage them have been only targeted. Besides, as CBT has been promoted as additional income opportunity, not

as alternate income opportunity for the villagers, many a times the timing of visiting tourist don't coincide with availability of villagers for extending required services.

Villages are not getting tourist directly as it needs strong networking out side village and also skill to manage. So they are highly dependent on travel agents who are bringing tourist to these villages for 1-5 days as a part of their 10-30 days overall tour package which includes many other sites. However, it has been observed that some of the travel agents are not cooperating with management committee which is mainly as now they need to share their income with the villagers and is mandatory for them to follow all the rules and regulation framed by the villagers.

### **Prospect of expansion**

The state of Arunachal Pradesh has high prospects for promotion of nature based and cultural tourism. Nearly 62% of the total geographical area of 83,743sq.km of state is under forest cover of which 80% is under dense forest category. The state accounts for 2.54% of the total geographical areas of India and is a custodian of more than 23.52% of the flowering plants reported from India (Hedge 2002). The state has more than 850 birds, 5000 flowering plants, and other wildlife like Tiger, Red Panda, etc. which are in high demand among bird watchers and wildlife tourists. The state also has diverse physiographic features and ecosystems which are ideal for promotion of adventure tourism. The cultural diversity of Arunachal Pradesh is also unique and of immense importance as the state is the home of 26 major tribes and 110 sub-tribes with a rich culture closely linked with nature.

Due to policy of non-interference followed by British regime and special Constitutional Provisions adopted after independence (Article 371H), of the total forest area of the Arunachal Pradesh, about 60 percent of the forest area having very high potential for nature based tourism are *de facto* traditionally owned by private individuals, clans, village councils, and other indigenous community institutions.

Arunachal Pradesh which is considered to be one of the economically backward state of country contributing only 0.13% of total India's GDP (Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, 2015), community based ecotourism can contribute significantly in economic development of the state without compromising its social and ecological security. Promoting CBT in the state as opposed to the conventional model of mass tourism will have many advantages for the state. It will help to conserve and promote the state's rich natural and cultural heritage, reduce negative impacts of mass tourism and will have lower infrastructure costs. CBT has potential to diversify and spread income generation to the village level, and will create a niche for Arunachal Pradesh globally and nationally as a centre for community-based ecotourism.

### **Discussion and Conclusion**

Globally there is increase in trend of tourist exploring new areas for visit and there has been decline in number of tourist visiting places conventionally known to top travel destination (Yeoman *et al.*, 2006). Remote and rural areas having high potential for promotion of nature based and cultural tourism, CBT is in forefront for promotion of sustainable development (Honey, 2008). From the analysis of the project, it has been found that considering the rich natural stock and high cultural diversity of the state, CBT can provide sustainable livelihood opportunity for the local communities. However, for this suitable policy level support is required.

In India based on Ecotourism Policy and Guidelines developed by the Indian Ministry of Tourism in 1998 followed by instruction from Ministry of Environment and Forest in June 2011, many state governments have framed ecotourism policies to facilitate tourism programmes in protected areas. Government action at both the national and local levels has enhanced ecotourism operations primarily in protected areas through Forest Department where attention has been given to conservation and development with the support of the local community. Unlike many of the ecotourism sites in India which are either within protected areas or in areas under the jurisdiction of the state Forest Departments, in Arunachal Pradesh a significant number of potential ecotourism sites are in areas where local indigenous communities have traditional ownership and user rights. Thus for the state it is important to have policy which gives more authority to local villagers for participation and management of tourism related activities. For community based tourism in areas outside protected area, government must adopt decentralised policy and should focus only on monitoring and providing technical and financial support to local villagers.

Presently in most of the cases ecotourism being promoted in India, it has been found that actual benefit from ecotourism related activities received by communities, settled in fringe areas of protect areas and other nature based tourism sites, are negligible compared to benefits gained by private hotel and resort owners and business houses. To ensure higher benefits for local communities, for the identified and approved Tourist Circuits there should be provision for 'Infrastructure Zonation' in polices to ensure direct benefit to community. Broadly there can be two categories of Infrastructure Zones -

Urban Centers where construction of Hotels, Lodges and Guest Houses managed by individual entrepreneurs or business groups or government will be allowed as per ecotourism guideline.

Villages in periphery of protected areas and having potential tourism attraction, where only community based tourism infrastructures to be managed by village level committee will be allowed as per ecotourism guideline.

From the project it has been also realised that CBT initiated by community, though contribute in promotion of green job for villagers and mobilise local community for conservation and preservation of environment, cannot be levelled as ecotourism from the beginning. It is because, for a community who are getting engaged in CBT for the first time, it may be discouraging or expecting too much from them to follow all necessary steps to maintain low carbon foot print of tourism, avoid use of any non-degradable items etc. However, with time all such more green rules and regulation can be incorporated. So it is advisable not promote CBT as community based 'ecotourism' in the initial stage.

In addition it is also important to have scope to take corrective measures in due course based on the learnings after the beginning of the implementation. It has been observed that in the beginning during the planning process, many villagers decide to choose certain services to get engaged without knowing about the actual effort that will be required to deliver that service. So they must be provided with opportunity after some time to make changes so that the quality of service is not compromised. For long term success of CBT in the state, it is important to have proper planning from very initial stage as in tourism once it get implemented in manner with little or no concern of social and ecological security, it become very difficult to take any corrective measure.

From the analysis of the mechanism developed and outcome obtained from the project, in Arunachal Pradesh, it is clear that CBT have very high potential for ensuring economic development of local communities and remote areas without compromising environmental security. As tourism is in the state is at very initial stage, the state government should put proper planning through suitable policy in place as urgently as possible.

## Reference

1. Dutta, P. K. & Bhomia, R. (2007). Initiatives for community-based forest fire management in western Arunachal Pradesh. In: (Eds.) R. Pai, A. J. Hiremath and Umakant. *Rethinking Forest Fires*, Proceedings of the National Workshop on Forest Fires, Nov 13 & 14, 2007, New Delhi.
2. Dutta, P. K., Dutta, B. K., Sundriyal, R. C. & Das, A. K. 2013. Diversity, representativeness and biotic pressure on plant species along alpine timberline of western Arunachal Pradesh in the Eastern Himalaya, India. *Current Science*, 105(5):pp.701-708.
3. Dutta, P. K., Wange, P & Dorjee, D. 2012. Community Based Tourism for Environmental Conservation: Experiences from Western Arunachal Landscape, India. In. K. G. Saxena, L. Liang, K. Tanaka and S. Takahashi (Ed.) *Land Management in Marginal Mountain Regions: Adaptation and Vulnerability to Global Change*, Bishen Singh Mahendra Pal Singh, Dehradun.pp.285-292.
4. Fennell, D. A. (2015). Ecotourism. (4<sup>th</sup> Edition). Routledge 711 Third Avenue, New York.
5. Goodwin, H. (1996). In pursuit of ecotourism, *Biodiversity and Conservation* 5 (3): pp.277 – 291.
6. Hegde, S. N. 2002. Arunachal Pradesh State Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan. SFRI, Itanagar, Arunachal Pradesh
7. Honey, M. (2008). Ecotourism and Sustainable development who owns paradise? Washington D.C.: Island Press
8. Kamp, C. (Ed.) (2012). Beyond Greening: Reflections on Tourism in the Rio-Process: Positioningpaper.13. EED Tourism Watch, Bonn, Germany
9. Krippendorff , J. (1982). Towards new tourism policies, *Tourism Management* 3: pp.135 – 148.
10. Llewellyn, A. B., Hendrix, J. P. & Golden, K. C. (2008). *Green Jobs*. Adams Media, Avon, U.S.A
11. Mishra, C., Datta, A. & Madhusudan, M. D. (2004). *The High altitude wildlife of western Arunachal Pradesh: a survey report*. CERC Technical Report No.8. Nature Conservation Foundation, International Snow Leopard Trust, and Wildlife Conservation Society (India Program), Mysore, India.
12. Srivastava, T & Dutta, P. K. (2010a). Snow partridge hopes for a safe home in Arunachal Pradesh. *Current Science*, 98(3):pp.1
13. Srivastava, T. & Dutta, P. K. (2010b). Western Arunachal Pradesh offering prime home to the endangered red panda. *Current Science*, 99(2):pp.155-156
14. The Mountain Institute, (2000) Community-Based Tourism for Conservation and Development: A Resource Kit, The Mountain Institute
15. UNEP (2011). *Towards a Green Economy: Pathways to Sustainable Development and Poverty Eradication*. www.unep.org/greenconomy
16. World Tourism Organization and International Labour Organization (2014). *Measuring Employment in the Tourism Industries - Guide with Best Practices*, UNWTO, Madrid.
17. Yeoman, I., Munro, C. & McMahon-Beattie , U. (2006). Tomorrow's: world, consumer and tourist, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 12 (2):pp.174 – 190.

# Exploring Sustainable Slow Tourism in Punjab: Fusing Culture and Nature for a Greener Tomorrow

Harpreet Singh, Mandeep Kaur & Raj Kumar

## Abstract

The concept of slow tourism, which is experiencing significant growth on a global scale, promotes a comprehensive and sustainable approach to travel, facilitating the establishment of meaningful connections between tourists and the places they visit. Punjab, renowned for its rich cultural legacy and unspoiled natural landscapes, presents an optimal setting for the implementation of slow tourism ideas. This study paper conducts a thorough investigation into the concept of slow tourism in Punjab, with the objective of evaluating its diverse potential, advantages, and obstacles.

This paper aims to uncover the significant role of sustainable tourism in preserving and protecting the cultural heritage and environmental assets of Punjab. This will be achieved through a comprehensive review of relevant literature, an in-depth analysis of pertinent case studies, and consideration of various perspectives from stakeholders. Through an exploration of the intricate relationship between slow tourism and the dynamic region in question, we shed light on potential avenues for improving the overall tourism encounter while simultaneously promoting genuine cultural engagement, ecological conservation, and community well-being. As we explore more of this transformative expedition, we discover the significance of slow tourism in Punjab – a voyage that embodies principles of sustainability, cultural conservation, and enhanced traveller engagement.

**Keywords:** Slow Tourism, Punjab, Sustainable Tourism, Cultural Preservation, Environmental Conservation, Local Engagement, Authentic Experiences, Holistic Travel, Stakeholder Perspectives, Cultural Heritage, Case Studies.

## 1. Introduction

Punjab, renowned for its cultural richness and deep religious significance, has historically attracted a significant number of tourists who are drawn to its solemn pilgrimages and lively festivals. Nevertheless, the recent changes in the region, characterised by swift urbanisation, commercialization, and the arrival of large numbers of tourists, have raised concerns about the preservation of its cultural and environmental assets. Within the ever-changing and fluid environment, the notion of slow tourism arises as a ray of optimism, presenting a potential alternative that aims to tackle the obstacles encountered by the region of Punjab. Throughout history, the region of Punjab has served as a significant hub for a multitude of cultures and has held great spiritual significance. The Golden Temple, renowned as the spiritual focal point of

Sikhism, serves as a symbol of the profound religious legacy of the region, drawing devotees and travellers from many parts of the globe. However, the continuous progression of urbanisation, unregulated commercial activities, and the overwhelming influx of mass tourism pose a significant risk to the preservation of the sacredness and genuineness that Punjab has historically been renowned for.

The concept of slow tourism, characterised by its steadfast dedication to preserving authenticity, promoting sustainability, and fostering deep connections with local culture and nature, has the potential to revitalise Punjab's tourism industry. This approach provides an opportunity to not only engage in tourism but also to really immerse oneself in a region and actively contribute to its conservation efforts. The concept of slow tourism

**Harpreet Singh**

Assistant Professor, Department of Hotel Management & Tourism, Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar

**Mandeep Kaur**

Professor, University School of Financial Studies, Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar

**Raj Kumar**

Assistant Professor, Department of Hotel Management & Tourism, Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar

encourages individuals to go on a voyage at a more leisurely tempo, facilitating a more profound engagement with the cultural fabric, historical significance, and unspoiled splendour of the local surroundings (Boovi et al., 2022).

The present study article examines the phenomenon of slow tourism in the region of Punjab with the objective of conducting a full assessment of its potential advantages and difficulties. This study aims to offer comprehensive insights into the potential of sustainable tourism in Punjab for cultural and environmental preservation. This will be achieved through a thorough analysis of current literature, examination of relevant case studies, and exploration of various stakeholder perspectives. By undertaking this endeavour, the aim is to enhance the overall tourism experience in the area and make a positive contribution to its long-term sustainability and economic success. As we commence this endeavour, let us explore the profound capacity for slow tourism in Punjab—a voyage that pays homage to customs, embraces ecological responsibility, and extends an invitation to all individuals to appreciate the authentic spirit of this extraordinary region.

## 2. Principles of Sustainable Tourism:



### 2.1. Sustainability

The fundamental principle of slow tourism revolves around a resolute dedication to conscientious travel methodologies, motivated by the pressing imperative to mitigate the detrimental effects of tourism on both the natural environment and indigenous cultures. The aforementioned dedication is manifested by concrete measures such as trash reduction, resource conservation, and the endorsement of environmentally sustainable transportation alternatives. This statement highlights the underlying principle that those who engage in travel hold an obligation to safeguard the locations they explore,

guaranteeing the enduring appeal of these sites for forthcoming cohorts. Chavdarov, A. V. (2020).

### 2.2. Local Engagement

The concept of slow tourism promotes a deep and significant bond between travellers and the local people they come across. The aforementioned association is founded upon the underlying principle that travel ought to facilitate a reciprocal cultural exchange, yielding advantages for both tourists and local inhabitants. Tourists are strongly encouraged to fully participate in local customs, traditions, and everyday routines, thereby promoting the development of mutual understanding and respect. The act of engaging in this activity not only serves to increase the genuineness of the travel encounter but also yields substantial economic advantages for individuals residing in the local area. This includes the provision of livelihood prospects and a vested interest in the progress of the tourism sector.

### 2.3. Authentic Experiences

Slow tourism places an emphasis on creating and facilitating authentic experiences. These experiences provide guests with the opportunity to extensively explore the intricate fabric of a particular location, fully engaging with its historical, cultural, and environmental aspects. This notion goes beyond the realm of superficial tourism and promotes a deeper engagement from travellers, urging them to delve beyond the surface-level attractions and establish authentic connections with the destinations they explore. Engaging in local festivals, acquiring traditional craftsmanship skills, and indulging in indigenous food are all examples of authentic experiences that offer a deep feeling of cultural enrichment and play a role in safeguarding cultural heritage.

### 2.4. Slower Pace

In the contemporary realm of tourism, characterised by rapidity, slow tourism advocates for an alternative strategy. It is recommended that travellers adopt a more relaxed approach, choosing to allocate longer durations to a limited number of destinations. The intentional deceleration facilitates a deeper comprehension of the indigenous culture and surrounding ecosystem. This phenomenon allows those engaged in travel to gain a heightened appreciation for the delicate subtleties of everyday existence, see the fluctuations that occur with the passing of seasons, and cultivate a more profound sense of attachment to the locations they explore. Through fully engaging with the cadence and dynamics of indigenous cultures, travellers are able to authentically comprehend and value the aesthetic allure and profound importance of their environs.

### 3. Cultural Preservation

#### 3.1. Historic Sites

The implementation of slow tourism projects includes a notable focus on the preservation and safeguarding of historical sites and monuments. Frequently, these locations have a delicate nature, characterised by exquisite architectural and artistic elements that are susceptible to erosion or harm due to the effects of extensive tourist activity. The concept of slow tourism encompasses a more conscientious approach towards visiting various destinations, emphasising the importance of regulating tourist numbers, preserving the integrity of the original structures, and providing educational opportunities to enhance understanding of the historical significance associated with these sites. By engaging in this practice, it guarantees the preservation of these irreplaceable artefacts of the past, serving as enduring evidence of history and enabling forthcoming cohorts to gain appreciation and knowledge from them.

#### 3.2. Cultural Festivals

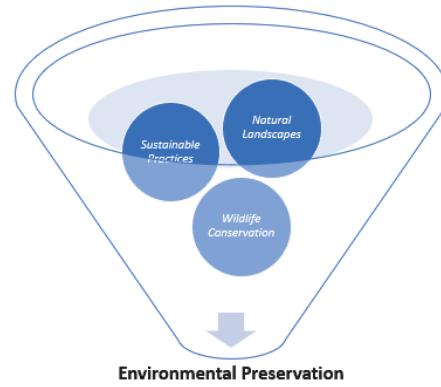
Slow tourism is a proactive advocate for the preservation and commemoration of traditional festivals, acknowledging their significance as integral elements of Punjab's cultural legacy. These festivals frequently showcase time-honoured rituals, musical performances, dances, and artistic expressions that embody the region's longstanding cultural customs. The concept of slow tourism promotes the active engagement of tourists in local events, facilitating cultural interchange and cultivating a heightened understanding and respect for indigenous traditions. The act of supporting and preserving these festivals serves the dual purpose of safeguarding cultural practices and invigorating local communities through the provision of economic possibilities for artisans, entertainers, and local businesses.

#### 3.3. Handicrafts and Cuisine

The implementation of slow tourism tactics emphasises the significance of local handicrafts and cuisine as essential components of a destination's cultural character. It is highly recommended for travellers to actively investigate and interact with the skilled artists and craftsmen responsible for producing exquisite and distinctive handcrafted merchandise. In addition to providing visitors with the chance to acquire genuine keepsakes, this practice also contributes to the economic well-being of local craftsmen, supporting the long-term viability of these traditional crafts. In a similar vein, the concept of slow tourism encourages the exploration and appreciation of local gastronomy, highlighting the importance of indulging in authentic indigenous delicacies crafted by proficient culinary professionals.

Through its endorsement of local culinary traditions, slow tourism plays a crucial role in fostering economic development within local communities, all the while safeguarding the authenticity of flavours and recipes that have been handed down through multiple generations.

### 4. Environmental Preservation



#### 4.1. Sustainable Practices

The concept of slow tourism places a strong emphasis on the adoption of sustainable practices across the entirety of the travel experience. This entails promoting the adoption of environmentally friendly means of transportation, such as public transportation or cycling, in order to mitigate the environmental impact associated with travel. The incorporation of waste reduction, recycling practices, and responsible waste disposal are fundamental elements within the framework of slow tourism. Moreover, patronising local businesses that uphold sustainable agriculture methods serves to safeguard the environment against the detrimental effects of toxic pesticides and overutilization of resources. The implementation of sustainable practices not only serves to save the environment but also plays a significant role in enhancing the general welfare of the destination.

#### 4.2. Natural Landscapes

The promotion of the conservation of Punjab's unspoiled natural environment is a primary focus of slow tourism policies, which place a high priority on safeguarding its rivers, forests, and distinctive agricultural landscapes. The concept of slow tourism promotes the cultivation of a deep appreciation among travellers for natural beauties while simultaneously emphasising the need to minimise any potential disruptions to their fragile ecosystems. It is strongly recommended that visitors exercise caution and demonstrate respect for the local plant and animal life while also adhering to established pathways and protected regions. Preservation initiatives serve the dual purpose of upholding the visual attractiveness of these landscapes and ensuring the protection of the region's biodiversity and ecological equilibrium.

### 4.3. Wildlife Conservation

The ideas of slow tourism promote the ethical practice of observing wildlife and the conservation of endangered animals within their native environments. Travellers are provided with education regarding ethical protocols when encountering wildlife, with a focus on the significance of maintaining a safe distance, refraining from interfering, and avoiding any disruption to the animals or their habitats. The promotion of responsible wildlife tourism is a significant aspect of slow tourism, as it plays a vital role in safeguarding the long-term survival of vulnerable species and the preservation of their natural habitats. This method enhances the ecological viability of the region while providing guests with the opportunity to appreciate the aesthetic and ecological value of its fauna.

## 5. Literature Review: Slow Tourism in Punjab

Slow tourism, characterised by its emphasis on sustainability, local engagement, and authentic experiences, has emerged as a compelling alternative to conventional mass tourism. This literature review explores key themes and research findings relevant to the implementation of slow tourism principles in Punjab, a region celebrated for its cultural heritage and natural beauty.

### 5.1 Sustainability

At the heart of slow tourism lies a commitment to responsible travel practices that minimise the adverse effects of tourism on the environment and local communities (Smith, 2020). Punjab's diverse ecosystems and cultural treasures underscore the importance of sustainable tourism practices. Research by Mohan (2019) emphasises the significance of sustainable practices in preserving Punjab's natural beauty, including its rivers, forests, and unique agricultural landscapes. These practices encompass the use of eco-friendly transportation, waste reduction, and support for sustainable agriculture, which align with slow tourism's core principles.

### 5.2 Local Engagement

Slow tourism actively promotes meaningful connections between tourists and local communities, resulting in cultural exchange and economic benefits for residents (Kumar, 2021). Punjab's warm and welcoming communities have the potential to thrive under a slow tourism model. Local engagement, when facilitated effectively, not only provides economic empowerment but also ensures that tourists respect and appreciate the cultural heritage of the region.

### 5.3 Authentic Experiences

Slow tourism prioritises immersive and authentic experiences, allowing travellers to deeply connect with a region's history, traditions, and natural beauty

(Brown, 2020). Punjab's rich cultural heritage and historical significance make it an ideal destination for such experiences. The preservation of authentic cultural experiences is critical to maintaining Punjab's unique identity and attracting travellers seeking more profound connections with the places they visit.

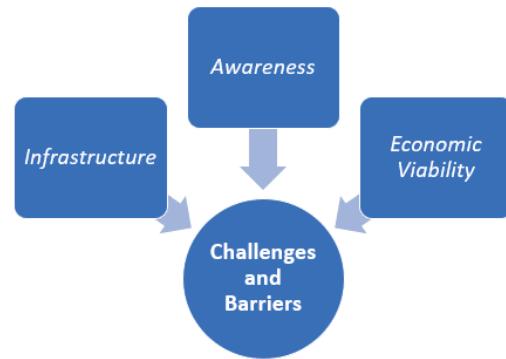
## 5.4 Challenges and Barriers

Several challenges must be addressed for the successful implementation of slow tourism in Punjab. Inadequate infrastructure, including transportation and accommodations, hinders the adoption of slow tourism practices (Sharma, 2018). Awareness campaigns are essential to educating both tourists and stakeholders about the benefits of slow tourism (Patel, 2019). Additionally, concerns about the economic viability of slow tourism must be addressed through incentives and marketing strategies (Kumar, 2021).

## 5.5 Stakeholder Perspectives

Local communities, the tourism industry, and government bodies are pivotal stakeholders in the slow tourism ecosystem in Punjab. Local communities aspire to economic empowerment and cultural preservation (Kumar, 2021). The tourism industry is exploring ways to align its practices with slow tourism principles to differentiate itself and ensure long-term economic stability (Sharma, 2018). Government initiatives, such as sustainable tourism policies, provide essential regulatory support and incentives for sustainable tourism development (Government of Punjab, 2022).

## 6. Challenges and Barriers



### 6.1 Infrastructure: The Foundation for Slow Tourism

Within this particular area, we shall explore a basic obstacle that hinders the successful execution of slow tourism activities, namely, insufficient infrastructure. The concept of slow tourism, which prioritises authenticity and sustainability, frequently necessitates investments in enhanced transit networks, lodgings, and visitor facilities. This case study investigates the current deficiencies in infrastructure that impede the smooth implementation of

slow tourism in Punjab. Additionally, the paper examines alternative strategies, such as collaborations between governmental entities and private enterprises, aimed at fostering the development of environmentally sustainable modes of transportation, enhancing lodging facilities, and improving amenities for visitors. By effectively tackling the existing infrastructure obstacles, the region of Punjab has the potential to cultivate an atmosphere conducive to sustainable tourism, thereby enhancing its attractiveness and accessibility to visitors, all the while safeguarding its cultural and environmental resources.

### **6.2. Awareness: Educating Tourists and Stakeholders**

This section emphasises the significant importance of awareness programmes targeting both tourists and stakeholders in the tourism industry. The success of slow tourism relies on the comprehension and collaboration of all stakeholders, as it presents numerous advantages such as the preservation of culture and the promotion of sustainable economic growth. This paper examines the significance of teaching tourists about the benefits of slow tourism, with an emphasis on promoting responsible travel behaviours and fostering a sense of appreciation for local cultures and landscapes. Concurrently, it emphasises the necessity of enhancing stakeholders' understanding, including tour operators, hoteliers, and local communities, in order to harmonise their actions with the tenets of slow tourism. Efficient awareness campaigns possess the capability to advance a collective perception of conscientious and enduring tourism in Punjab, consequently cultivating a conducive milieu for their execution.

### **6.3. Economic Viability: Ensuring Sustainability**

It is imperative to acknowledge and address the apprehensions pertaining to the economic viability of slow tourism practices in order to effectively surmount any potential obstacles. There may be scepticism surrounding the financial viability of slow tourism in comparison to mass tourism. This section provides an analysis of various motivations and approaches for showcasing the economic feasibility of slow tourism. This study examines the impact of government incentives, grants, and subsidies on the adoption of sustainable practices by firms. Furthermore, the paper explores the possibility of positioning slow tourism as a prestigious and valuable encounter, catering to individuals who are in search of genuine and life-altering expeditions. By presenting the enduring economic advantages and employment prospects engendered by slow tourism, this method has the potential to motivate stakeholders and entrepreneurs to adopt slow tourism practices, guaranteeing its sustainability and fostering Punjab's prosperity.

## **7. Stakeholder Perspectives**

### **7.1. Local Communities: Empowering the Heart of Punjab**

This section examines the significant viewpoints of local populations in Punjab concerning the implementation of slow tourism as a strategy to improve their livelihoods and save their cultural heritage. Our research methodology encompasses a comprehensive approach, incorporating in-depth interviews, surveys, and active involvement with the local community with the objective of gaining a profound understanding of their perspectives, goals, and apprehensions. Numerous small communities serve as essential figures in the slow tourism movement since they assume crucial functions in offering genuine experiences, lodging options, and cultural perspectives to tourists. Through an examination of several perspectives, we are able to discern the underlying motivations and expectations of these communities, thereby illuminating the potential of slow tourism to foster economic empowerment while also preserving their cultural legacy. In addition, we analyse the potential obstacles encountered by local communities and provide solutions to effectively mitigate them, thereby fostering the active participation of these people in the sustainable development of tourism in Punjab.

### **7.2. Tourism Industry: Navigating the Path to Sustainability**

This section provides a comprehensive analysis of the viewpoints and concerns held by important stakeholders in the tourist sector in Punjab. This study examines the perceptions of tour operators, hotels, and hospitality providers regarding the incorporation of slow tourism techniques into their operations. This is accomplished through the utilisation of interviews, surveys, and analyses of industry practices. The concept of slow tourism brings about a fundamental change, requiring adjustments in company models, marketing techniques, and service offerings. Gaining insight into the perspectives of these stakeholders is crucial in order to harmonise their commercial objectives with the tenets of slow tourism. This study aims to analyse the issues, opportunities, and strategies associated with the adoption of sustainable tourism practices. Specifically, we will emphasise the possible advantages that can be derived from such practices, including the capacity to differentiate oneself in a highly competitive market and achieve long-term economic stability.

### **7.3. Government Initiatives: Policies for Sustainable Tourism**

The pivotal role of government initiatives and regulations in developing the tourism landscape of Punjab is crucial, particularly in the promotion and

regulation of sustainable tourism practices, with a specific emphasis on the concepts of slow tourism. The initial step involves an analysis of the current legal framework and regulations that regulate the tourism industry, with a focus on elucidating their influence on sustainability and the implementation of slow tourism practices. In addition, we examine the many incentives provided by the government to promote sustainable tourism. These incentives include tax incentives, grants, and subsidies that assist enterprises in adhering to the principles of slow tourism. One crucial element of our analysis concerns the efficacy of governmental initiatives in promoting sustainable tourism, specifically within the framework of slow tourism. We evaluate the results and practical implications of these policies and efforts, aiming to measure their effectiveness. In this study, our primary objective is to assess the extent to which government policies align with the principles and objectives of slow tourism. We aim to identify areas of synergy and potential areas for improvement while emphasising the crucial role that government support plays in facilitating the smooth integration of slow tourism as a sustainable and culturally enriching approach within Punjab's dynamic tourism sector.

## Conclusion

The concept of slow tourism is gaining prominence in Punjab as a potential catalyst for preserving its abundant cultural legacy and pristine natural environment. This approach also offers the ability to provide sustainable economic advantages for local populations. The present study has provided insights into the significant capacity of slow tourism principles to reinvent the tourism sector in Punjab, thereby establishing a harmonious equilibrium among cultural preservation, environmental conservation, and economic advancement. Recognition of the potential benefits of slow tourism necessitates a complete understanding of the various complex difficulties that must be effectively addressed. The challenges of infrastructure development, stakeholder awareness, and economic sustainability necessitate focused endeavours and cooperative engagement. The establishment of infrastructure is necessary in order to support the smooth integration of slow tourist practices. Enhancements in transportation, housing, and visitor facilities have the potential to enhance the accessibility of slow tourism and boost the overall quality of the visitor experience. The successful implementation of slow tourism relies heavily on stakeholder awareness, which includes both tourists and industry players. Education and engagement activities play a crucial role in cultivating a collective comprehension of the advantages and obligations linked to this sustainable strategy.

The issue of economic feasibility, which has been highlighted by certain stakeholders, can be effectively tackled by implementing smart incentives, employing targeted marketing strategies, and showcasing the enduring economic advantages associated with slow tourism. By presenting the economic benefits associated with the conservation of cultural heritage and natural landscapes, it is possible to encourage stakeholders to adopt the concept of slow tourism. Collaboration among all stakeholders is essential for the successful implementation of a sustainable, culturally stimulating, and environmentally conscious tourism experience in Punjab. In order to properly implement and manage slow tourism practices, it is imperative for government entities, local communities, and the tourism sector to collaborate and work together in a cohesive manner.

In conclusion, this study article provides a thorough framework for further investigation and implementation of strategies aimed at realising the goals of slow tourism in the region of Punjab. The concept of slow tourism not only has the potential to safeguard the cultural and environmental assets of this exceptional region but also anticipates a future whereby tourism flourishes in alignment with the values and ambitions of the indigenous communities. This invitation encourages individuals to adopt a more profound and genuine approach to experiencing Punjab. This approach guarantees the preservation of cultural legacy, ecological sustainability, and shared prosperity for future generations.

## Bibliography

1. Smith, J. (2020). Slow tourism: A sustainable approach to travel. *Sustainable Tourism Journal*, 12(3), 45–58.
2. Patel, R. K. (2019). Cultural preservation through slow tourism: a case study of the Golden Temple in Amritsar. *Cultural Heritage and Tourism Journal*, 8(2), 67–82.
3. Kumar, A. (2021). The role of local communities in promoting slow tourism: perspectives from rural Punjab. *Community Development Quarterly*, 15(4), 102-119.
4. Sharma, S. (2018) Slow tourism and economic sustainability: insights from the hospitality industry in Punjab. *Journal of Sustainable Business and Tourism*, 5(1), 32–45.
5. Government of Punjab (2022) Sustainable Tourism Policy and Initiatives. Punjab Ministry of Tourism and Cultural Affairs Retrieved from [URL]
6. World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) (2017) Guidelines on Wildlife and Tourism: Enhancing the Benefits of Wildlife Tourism for Visitors and Host Communities. UNWTO Publication.
7. Brown, L. (2020). Slow Tourism: A Practical Guide to Travelling at a Slower Pace. Sustainable Travel Press.
8. Chavdarov, A. V. (2020). Special Issue No. 10, June 2020. *Journal > Special Issue > Special Issue No. 10, June 2020*

9. Jackson, H. (2019). Sustainable Tourism Development in Rural Punjab: A Case Study of Community-Based Tourism Initiatives *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 11(4), 321-336.
10. Kapoor, R. (2020). Slow Tourism and Cultural Preservation: Perspectives from Punjab's Heritage Villages *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, 18(3), 231-246.
11. Singh, G. (2018). Slow Tourism and the Potential for Sustainable Heritage Tourism in Punjab. *Tourism Management*, 24(2), 167-182.
12. Punjab Tourism Board (2022) Slow Tourism in Punjab: Strategies for Sustainable Development Retrieved from [URL]
13. Patel, S. K. (2017) Slow Tourism and Economic Viability: A Study of the Impact on Local Businesses in Punjab *Journal of Sustainable Development and Business*, 7(1), 55-70UNESCO. (2016). Cultural Preservation and Sustainable Tourism: A Guidebook for Practice UNESCO World Heritage Centre.
14. Mohan, R. (2019). Slow Tourism and Environmental Preservation: A Case Study of the Rupnagar Wildlife Sanctuary in Punjab *Environmental Conservation Journal*, 14(3), 245-260.
15. Punjab Department of Environment (2021) Environmental sustainability and slow tourism in Punjab Retrieved from [URL]

# Enriching Adventure: Exploring Sustainable Outdoor Recreation and Nature-Centric Tourism

Anil Kumar & Surender Thakur

## Abstract

*This research delves into the positive impacts of immersing oneself in outdoor activities and nature-based experiences, such as hiking and eco-tourism. These interactions not only enhance the well-being of individuals and communities but also contribute to environmental conservation. Our objective is to ensure equal opportunities for everyone to partake in these outdoor pursuits, considering the diverse cultural perspectives, access barriers, and varying attitudes towards nature and recreation. These outdoor engagements are part of a broader landscape, shaped by societal shifts in social dynamics, economics, and environmental concerns. Notably, climate change is altering the landscapes we cherish and explore. We aim to discover improved approaches to facilitate these outdoor adventures, enhance the management of natural spaces, and engage everyone in environmental stewardship. Through this compilation of articles, we aspire to deepen understanding of these crucial themes and cultivate a collective appreciation for the enriching experiences nature offers.*

**Keywords:** Outdoor activities, Nature-based experiences, Eco-tourism, Community engagement, Environmental conservation, Cultural perspectives, societal shifts

## 1. Introduction

More and more people realize that spending time outdoors and exploring nature is really good for us. It makes us healthier, helps us make friends, and lets us connect with our history and culture. It even brings in money that we can use to protect nature. Plus, it helps our local communities, lets us embrace our culture, and teaches us to take care of our environment (Frumkin, 2017). The good things we get from outdoor fun and nature trips show how being close to nature helps everyone—each person, our communities, and even society as a whole—be stronger and last longer. People now understand these benefits more than before, and we all agree that it's important for everyone to get these benefits fairly. This includes people who care a lot about certain topics like outdoor fun, as well as people who live in the same area. Also, the folks who make the rules and the people who benefit from them all think this fairness is really important. Making things fair is super important for helping the environment now and in the future. Because more and more people love going to natural places, the tourism business, city leaders, and groups that plan things are working to get more tourists to visit these

places. Trips to natural spots are becoming really popular and lots of parks and protected areas are now top spots for visitors. Tourism is a big help for a country's money and can also make money for protected places to help nature (Snyman, 2019).

Furthermore, outdoor recreation and nature-based tourism may provide an opportunity to improve ecological conditions where visitors are engaged in stewardship experiences (Schild, 2019). These contributions represent important aspects of sustainable recreation and tourism delivery (Bricker, 2010).

More people visiting natural areas quickly can cause problems for local communities. It can affect local buildings and services, cause competition for limited resources, and promote unwanted promotion of native products and customs. It may also bring in people from outside the area for work, businesses, and living. (Andereck, 2005). Problems can happen when local people who invest in tourism or are looking for jobs don't get the benefits they expected (Nelson, K.C.; Smith, 2011). Nature tourism can get more people to support protecting nature and wildlife. But, when lots of people visit for fun

and tourism, it can change nature and communities for a long time (Buckley, 2013). People in charge of resources want visitors to have a good time and also protect nature, culture, and make money (Eagle, 2014). Working closely with communities when planning these things can help, but there aren't always enough people and resources to do this fully (Selin, S, 2017). Sustainability science says tourism should help everyone - visitors, the industry, the environment, and local communities - considering the present and the future (UNWTO). It often needs teamwork and clever planning involving many groups to achieve this kind of sustainable tourism. Our lands, rivers, and seas are changing a lot, affecting how we use resources and do tourism (Becken, and Job, 2004). Doing tourism sustainably is extremely important now to help nature and communities stay strong. This book explores how to do tourism and outdoor activities in a way that helps nature and parks while making sure everyone benefits and stays resilient.

## 2. Literature Review

### 2.1. Upsides for People, Communities, and Society: Exploring the Positives

Participating in outdoor recreation and engaging in nature-based tourism offers substantial benefits to individuals, communities, and society, contributing positively to sustainability (Ballew and Omoto, 2018). Involvement in outdoor activities, active engagement in recreational pursuits, and visiting natural attractions provide valuable learning experiences about natural systems, fostering emotional connections to these places and leading to positive ripple effects (Cartwright and Mitten, 2017). These positive outcomes are critical for sustainability efforts, although they may vary based on the type of outdoor activity, prior experiences, and individual differences (Cartwright and Mitten, 2017).

Early exposure to nature-based experiences during childhood has been linked to environmentally friendly attitudes and behaviors in adulthood (Evans et al., 2018). However, research suggests that the specific outdoor activities engaged in during childhood can influence a child's pro-environmental behaviors (Collado, et al., 2015). For example, children in rural areas may spend more time outdoors than urban children, but if the outdoor time is focused on agricultural-related work, the effect on pro-environmental behaviors may be negative (Collado, et al., 2015).

Kil et al. discovered significant associations between environmental attitudes, motivations for recreation, outdoor experiences, and environmentally responsible behaviors in adult trail hikers. They suggest that managers of nature-based recreation should emphasize providing high-quality natural experiences and educational opportunities to encourage the development of pro-environmental attitudes and behaviors. Moreover,

recreational activities have a unique potential to establish deeper connections with outdoor spaces, encouraging conservation engagements such as restoration, stewardship, or volunteerism (Schild,, 2018). These studies emphasize the intricate relationships between time spent outdoors, the specific activities undertaken during outdoor experiences, and the desired outcomes for promoting sustainability.

Recent research underscores the various ways in which connecting with nature positively impacts both mental and physical health (Bratman, G.N.; Hamilton, J.P.; Daily, G.C., 2012). The bond with nature has been identified as a mediator between exposure to natural environments and mental health improvements, including enhanced positive emotions (Mayer, et al.,2009). Engaging with nature has also been linked to cognitive advantages, such as increased attention, concentration, impulse control, and working memory. Outdoor recreation and nature-based tourism, in a broader sense, offer experiences known for their positive health outcomes (Shin, et al.,2010).

Nature experiences can evoke an array of positive emotions like awe, happiness, joy, and contentment (Ballew and Omoto, 2018) while significantly reducing stress (Hansmann, et al., 2007). Notably, the association between experiencing awe and engaging in prosocial behaviors underscores how exposure to nature contributes to social and mental well-being, even in seemingly mundane experiences (Ballew and Omoto, 2018). Pretty et al. (2007) highlighted a strong connection between 'green exercise' and psychological well-being, demonstrating increased self-esteem and decreased mood disturbances in 10 case studies. Moreover, Hartig et al. (2007) found that Norwegian adults valued nature for psychological restoration, with this value promoting ecologically responsible behaviors. These benefits to individuals, coupled with a heightened sense of care for nature, underscore the interconnectedness of human and environmental sustainability.

On the physical health front, the potential benefits are equally significant. More opportunities for outdoor recreation may correlate with reduced healthcare spending (Rosenberger et al. 2005). For instance, Cleland et al. (2008) established a notable relationship between time spent outdoors, levels of moderate and vigorous physical activity, and body mass index in elementary school children. Encouraging children to spend more time outdoors directly contributes to enhanced physical health and a reduced likelihood of being overweight or obese. Furthermore, vigorous physical activity in forest and natural area visits is believed to support the immune system by reducing stress hormones, potentially aiding in cancer prevention (Ewert, and Chang, 2008). The growing understanding of nature's multifaceted benefits to human health has prompted discussions among land managers about maximizing health benefits, improving

access to protected areas, and ensuring equitable distribution of these benefits across society (Lemieux, et al. 2012). Increasingly, human health is being recognized as a critical aspect of sustainability (Derrien et al., 2019).

## 2.2. Understanding Diversity and Challenges in Outdoor Recreation

Ensuring Fair Opportunities, Cultural Differences in Desired Experiences, Obstacles to Outdoor Activities, and Varied Views on Nature and Recreation contribute to the complexity in providing outdoor recreational and nature-based tourism services (Ghimire, et al. 2014). Research in the United States indicates that the involvement in outdoor activities on national forest lands does not proportionately represent the ethnic and racial minority population (Flores et al., 2018). Similar trends have been noticed in European studies involving ethnic minorities (Gentin, S., 2011). Communities of color have exhibited different preferences regarding the level of development and types of activities compared to Caucasian visitors (Roberts et al. 2009). Whether these preferences change over time due to cultural shifts, identifying activities as part of one's culture, remains to be explored (Flores and Kuhn, 2018). Acculturation over generations may also influence outdoor recreation trends, preferences, socioeconomic status, residential status, and other factors. However, a comparison of two surveys on national recreation use in the US conducted a decade apart indicates that marginalized groups, including ethnic minorities, females, older adults, and rural residents, perceive increased barriers to outdoor participation (Ghimire et al. 2014). Research focusing on access to outdoor recreation and leisure opportunities shows variations based on ethnicity, emphasizing the need to identify obstacles (Jay et al. 2012).

## 2.3. Outdoor Recreation and Nature-Based Tourism in Socioecological System

The realm of outdoor recreation and nature-based tourism operates within a complex socioecological system, exhibiting intricate feedback mechanisms influenced by evolving social, economic, technological, and ecological dynamics (Bosak, et al. 2019). Global and regional economic shifts, coupled with transnational regulations, significantly impact trade, business expansion, infrastructure and utility advancements, financial investments, and labor accessibility. Moreover, these changes can influence visitor preferences regarding outdoor activities, often sculpted by media portrayals and evolving consumer trends, consequently altering visitation patterns, preferred outdoor pursuits, and social travel norms (Wood et al. 2013). For instance, the proliferation of certain destinations on social media may catch site managers off guard with an unexpected surge of visitors. Additionally, societal shifts in work and leisure

behaviors shape the amount of time visitors can allocate for exploring the outdoors, showcasing a trend towards increased day visitation and more accessible destinations within the United States (White et al. 2016). Furthermore, in many contexts, there has been a notable transition from independent travelers to guided nature-based tours, fundamentally altering how visitors perceive and interact with natural environments.

### 2.3.1. Innovations in Technology and Equipment *Changes in technology*

Innovations in technology and equipment have significantly expanded the array of experiential choices available to participants, concurrently introducing heightened complexity for service providers (Brooks et al. 2006). Ewert and Shultz (1999) presented a comprehensive model illustrating the specific technological impacts on backcountry recreation, which can be extended to the broader context of outdoor recreation. The model delineated five primary domains of technology's influence: access and transportation (e.g., all-terrain vehicles and mountain bikes), comfort (e.g., lighter and thinner materials for products), safety (e.g., stronger materials and aids, devices, or gear to enhance safety during activities), communication (e.g., smartphones and GPS), and information (e.g., the Internet). These technological advancements were recognized as promoting increased participation in backcountry recreation, encompassing both positive outcomes such as heightened awareness of recreational opportunities and job creation within the industry, and negative aspects like amplified environmental impacts and greater overcrowding.

Engaging with new and unfamiliar terrains, offering novel experiences, can evoke excitement and enhance perceived risks for both participants and service providers. Simultaneously, this engagement can serve as a gateway to enhance awareness and garner support for preserving wilderness areas (Watson et al. 2016). Chavez (2018) reported that youth participating in outdoor activity days favored technology-dependent activities like camera safaris and geocaching over non-technology-based activities such as etchings and nature scavenger hunts. Crawford et al. (2017) evaluated the use of mobile technology in engaging children with nature and found it to be equally effective compared to more traditional environmental education approaches, with the technology being rated as more enjoyable. Furthermore, Mackenzie et al. (2017) investigated the role of social media and web-based platforms as an alternative means to engage diverse urban youth from underrepresented groups. Their findings highlighted unique opportunities to involve a more diverse youth demographic that may not otherwise express interest in nature-based opportunities. Within the adult population, research by Schneider et

al. (2017) demonstrated that geocaching, an outdoor recreational activity reliant on a handheld Global Positioning System (GPS), stimulated physical activity, facilitated nature learning, induced relaxation, encouraged socialization, and promoted autonomy. However, there remains a necessity for further investigation into the advantages and disadvantages of integrating technology into outdoor recreation. Concerns have been raised about potential interference with the processes crucial for developing connections with nature (Greenwood et al. 2015). The contemporary digital age is marked by a shift toward virtual relationships with places, possibly facilitated through virtual reality experiences in natural settings (Misra, and Stokols, 2012). Recent studies have highlighted contrasting outcomes when comparing virtual nature exposure to in situ experiences, with the latter demonstrating a more significant impact on connectedness to nature and overall improved affect (Mayer et al. 2009). Despite these differences, virtual nature experiences offer opportunities for individuals who may be unable to participate directly in outdoor recreation or nature-based tourism. Future research should delve into the role of virtual nature experiences in motivating outdoor visitation, shaping visitor expectations of nature and the outdoor experience, and their potential association with pro-environmental behaviors or support for conservation efforts.

### **2.3.2. Environmental change and other Disruptions**

Globally, climate change and other disturbances are affecting the environment and outdoor activities, highlighting the need for planning and adapting for the long term (Askew et al. 2018). These changes are crucial to ensure sustainable tourism (Scott, 2011). Climate changes bring about floods, droughts, wildfires, higher temperatures, invasive species, and various risks (Pickering et al. 2010). These impacts negatively affect the benefits we get from outdoor activities and nature-based tourism (Evans et al. 2019). Particularly vulnerable communities face higher risks due to ongoing environmental changes (Winter et al. 2019).

While outdoor activities and nature-based tourism might overall increase due to climate change effects (Richardson et al. 2004), some areas may experience shifts in the type of activities or the main season for use (Askew et al. 2018). In places where tourism relies on biodiversity, changes in the number or location of species can significantly impact these destinations (Scott et al.). Different impacts can be seen based on location and ecosystem type, even within a larger region. For example, a study assessing climate change's impact on outdoor recreation in the Sierra Nevada's forest management units found varying effects in different zones (Winter et al. 2012). Changes in the timing of when people use these areas, like a longer warm season or a shorter cold-weather season, can be complex and affect recreation opportunities and

experiences in significant ways. For instance, while a longer warm-weather season might provide more recreation opportunities in some regions, it can impact the types of activities available, the quality of the experience, safety, and our connection to the place (Winter et al. 2012).

On a global scale, managing the increase or decrease in demand, effectively redistributing tourism, is essential for sustainable tourism planning (Winter et al. 2014). Climate change interacting with fire patterns can have mixed effects on access to recreation and tourism experiences, both in the short and long term (Winter et al. 2014). Losing important assets due to these changes can mean a prolonged loss of opportunities, and this impact can be more severe for communities already facing vulnerability (Winter et al. 2014).

### **2.3.3. Population Growth, Regional Shifts, and Socioeconomic Trends**

The dynamics of population growth and shifts in regional demographics, including urbanization, as well as socioeconomic trends like cultural shifts and alterations in consumption patterns, significantly influence the participants in outdoor recreation and nature-based tourism. These factors affect the kinds of opportunities sought, accessibility to nature, and the governance of outdoor services (Brooks et al., 2006). An upsurge in population is linked to heightened levels of recreational engagement, especially in areas adjacent to large urban centers (Brooks et al., 2006). This overall rise in usage poses challenges for service providers striving to provide high-quality recreational experiences, preserve habitats, and ensure visitor safety (Brooks et al., 2006). Inadequate management of high visitor volume can result in loss of biodiversity and disruptions in ecosystem functioning (Newsome et al., 2012).

Furthermore, heightened usage exerts pressure on recreational resources, potentially leading to perceptions of overcrowding, often diminishing enjoyment for certain visitors (Manning et al., 2017). Perceived overcrowding combines the individual's experience level with a negative assessment of that encounter (Vaske et al., 2008). Conflicts may arise when the presence or behavior of one group of visitors hampers the objectives of another (Kainzinger et al., 2015). These conflicts may manifest among various types of recreational visitors (e.g., hikers, mountain bikers, and equestrians), between motorized and non-motorized users, and among visitors with distinct social norms, group sizes, commercially guided groups, noise levels, and littering ethics. High levels of visitation can diminish the quality of the visitor experience for those seeking solitude or whose use of the natural area conflicts with that of others (Shin et al., 2010). For some visitors, overcrowding or user conflicts may lead to a reduction, displacement, or dispersal of visitor utilization (Schneider et al., 2015).

#### 2.4. Ensuring Sustainability under Dynamic Conditions

Given the ever-changing ecological and socioeconomic dynamics, determining what constitutes sustainable recreation and tourism can be quite intricate. The complexity in achieving sustainability in outdoor recreation and tourism suggests a necessity for varied approaches to delivering services, fostering a cultural shift among service providers and natural space managers, and introducing innovative strategies for inclusive governance and shared responsibility towards our natural and cultural heritage (Snyman and Bricker, 2019). As pressures on protected area borders increase due to visitation, benefit sharing becomes increasingly important, particularly for those residing in and around these areas (Snyman and Bricker, 2009). Benefit sharing encompasses both tangible and intangible outcomes. For instance, tangible benefits of outdoor recreation and tourism activities in communities surrounding protected areas include a demonstrated increase in support for improved infrastructure (e.g., health facilities, water, roads, sewage) and a greater diversity of employment opportunities (Snyman and Bricker, 2009). On the other hand, intangible benefits such as capacity building, skills development, and enhanced community-level decision-making exhibit significant social and human capital with enduring positive effects (Ahebwa et al., 2012). Ultimately, benefit sharing becomes an integral part of a dynamic socioecological system, where strategies and implementation goals must continuously adapt to address the ever-changing cultural, social, and ecological systems (Snyman and Bricker, 2009). Given the involvement of numerous and diverse stakeholders in tourism and outdoor recreation, those residing in and around protected areas can experience direct and indirect impacts, both positive and negative, due to visitation (Jones et al., 2018). The importance of inclusive processes that actively seek diverse perspectives and engagement in addressing recreation challenges has been highlighted (Brooks and Champ, 2006). These inclusive approaches encompass considerations of co-management models, inclusive institutional frameworks (Bagha et al., 2018), well-structured partnerships, and capacity building, especially for marginalized groups, in providing services and direct and indirect support for visitors (Lackey and Bricker, 2019). Involving the youth in these inclusive processes not only facilitates insights across different age groups but also contributes to building the confidence, engagement, and empowerment of the next generation of leaders (Evans, 2007), thereby enhancing longer-term contributions to sustainability.

#### 2.5. Sustainable Recreation and Tourism and Capacity Challenges

When aiming for sustainability, many emphasize what's known as the 'quadruple bottom line,' focusing

on the environment, society, economy, and governance (Alibašić, H, 2018). When assessing if outdoor recreation is sustainable, it's essential to consider the structures, processes, and institutions that support it, including how they are funded. Many destinations that rely on nature have seen a rise in people wanting to visit. This is due to more people, travel becoming more affordable, travel restrictions easing, and improvements in transportation and communication (Selin et. al, 2018). However, the agencies in charge of managing these destinations often face challenges related to budget and having enough staff. The limitations in funding and personnel make it tough to maintain and enhance recreation facilities, offer informative programs and signs for visitors, hire and keep well-trained staff for recreation and tourism, and provide them with science-based tools for planning and managing recreation and tourism (Selin et. al, 2018). Although the value of outdoor recreation and nature-based tourism is gaining recognition, this acknowledgment hasn't necessarily led to more support from agencies for managing recreation and tourism. To effectively manage protected areas and nature-based destinations, innovative financial strategies and funding mechanisms are necessary. Public agencies can enhance their ability to adapt by improving organizational performance through collaboration and partnerships (Seekamp et.al,2011). When agencies collaborate to achieve shared objectives, they can pool resources and expertise. Capacity-building strategies can be employed to concentrate agency efforts on essential programs, environments, and services, building resources from both top-level decision-making and grassroots initiatives (Crisp et.al, 2000).

### 3. Conclusions

A compelling body of empirical evidence is convincingly demonstrating to researchers, managers, and policymakers that outdoor recreation and nature-based tourism have the potential to significantly contribute to sustainable living, thriving families, resilient communities, robust economies, and effective conservation. Tourism has been acknowledged as a route to bolstering a community's resilience through education, skill enhancement, collaborative creation, and economic diversification (Lew et al., 2018). Utilizing a transdisciplinary approach to connect researchers and practitioners is vital for enhancing environmental sustainability in the long run (Clayton et al., 2013). More scholarly work is imperative, ranging from a global to local scale, to bolster the existing empirical foundation for investing in transformative outdoor recreation and nature-based tourism experiences, facilities, organizations, and policies. However, as underscored in this introductory discourse, the transition to sustainable outdoor recreation and tourism systems will be challenging (Selin, 2017). Governing bodies and institutions will need to undergo significant changes at all levels to align the potential and reality of sustainable

outdoor recreation and tourism systems (Winter et al., 2010).

In this introductory exposition, we have advocated that, to successfully transition towards sustainability, scholars and managers in the realm of outdoor recreation and nature-based tourism should collectively incorporate the theory, methodologies, and analytical tools of Sustainability Sciences (Knight et al., 2006). Sustainability Sciences constitute a problem-oriented, action-driven research field employing a diverse array of transdisciplinary, community-engaged, and participatory research methodologies. This discipline strives to harmonize science, policy, and action. In the domain of outdoor recreation and nature-based tourism, there is a critical need for more partnerships between science and management to enhance policy implementation, organizational learning, and agency adoption. Additionally, to fully realize the potential of sustainable outdoor recreation and nature-based tourism, scientists, policymakers, and managers must address the implementation crisis by effectively translating sustainability science and assessments into innovative management practices that manifest sustainability in tangible ways (Knight et al., 2006). While the number of peer-reviewed sustainability articles continues to rise, a significant gap persists between the publication of increasingly sophisticated analyses prioritizing diverse sustainability indicators and translation initiatives that drive real change on the ground. Recent evaluations concerning the impact of climate change on outdoor recreation hint at progress towards an enhanced model linking science and practice, where adaptation strategies and tactics are collaboratively developed by scientists, managers, recreation and tourism managers, opportunity providers, and pertinent stakeholders (Halofsky et al., 2011). However, time will unfold the full extent and influence of these endeavors in propelling sustainability.

## References

1. Ahebwa, W. M., Murindahabi, T., & Walters, G. (2012). Benefit-sharing mechanisms in community-based tourism: Building local partnerships in Uganda. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 20(3), 349-369.
2. Andereck, K. L. (2005). The Influence of Residents on Tourism Development. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(3), 248-258.
3. Askew, A. E., & Bowker, J. M. (2018). Climate change adaptation and outdoor recreation: Addressing the challenges of future visitor use in a warming world. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism*, 21, 43-53.
4. Ballew, M. T., & Omoto, A. M. (2018). The social psychology of environmental virtues. In M. T. Ballew & A. M. Omoto (Eds.), *The social psychology of living well* (pp. 231-251). Oxford University Press.
5. Becken, S., & Job, H. (2004). *Tourism and Water: Interactions and Impacts*. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
6. Bosak, K., & McCool, S. F. (2019). Social-ecological resilience and transformation in outdoor recreation planning and management. In B. D. Tindall, D. K. N. Yamamoto, D. N. Cole, & P. Monz (Eds.), *Wilderness Science: Foundations, Scope, and Integration* (pp. 157-172). Springer.
7. Bratman, G. N., Hamilton, J. P., & Daily, G. C. (2012). The impacts of nature experience on human cognitive function and mental health. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 1249(1), 118-136.
8. Bricker, K. (2010). *Sustainable Tourism: An Evolving Global Approach*. In *Global Sustainable Tourism: Current Trends and Future Possibilities* (pp. 1-20). Goodfellow Publishers Limited.
9. Brooks, J. J., & Champ, P. A. (2006). Technology and outdoor recreation. In P. A. Champ, B. S. Loomis, & R. F. Casey (Eds.), *Handbook on Contingent Valuation* (pp. 455-487). Edward Elgar Publishing.
10. Buckley, R. (2013). Sustainable Tourism: Research and Reality. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 40, 442-456.
11. Cartwright, K. S., & Mitten, D. (2017). Exploring the relationship between adventure recreation, environmental attitudes, and pro-environmental behavior. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation, Education, and Leadership*, 9(3), 284-296.
12. Chavez, D. J. (2018). Engaging Latino Urban Youth in Environmental Stewardship Through Digital Storytelling. *Journal of Youth Development*, 13(3), 194-206.
13. Cleland, V., Crawford, D., Baur, L. A., Hume, C., Timperio, A., Salmon, J., & Ball, K. (2008). A prospective examination of children's time spent outdoors, objectively measured physical activity and overweight. *International Journal of Obesity*, 32(11), 1685-1693.
14. Collado, S., Corraliza, J. A., Staats, H., & Ruiz, M. (2015). Effect of frequency and mode of contact with nature on children's self-reported ecological behaviors. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 41, 65-73.
15. Crawford, T. W., Poudyal, N. C., Grado, S. C., & West, C. D. (2017). Technology's influence on children's outdoor recreation. *Children, Youth and Environments*, 27(2), 105-126.
16. Crisp, P., Loomis, J., Lohr, S., & White, D. S. (2000). Economic benefits of public participation in the prevention of watershed contamination. *Journal of Agricultural and Resource Economics*, 25(1), 199-211.
17. Derrien, M. M., Cerveny, L. K., & Wolf, K. L. (2019). Urban nature experiences reduce stress in the context of daily life based on salivary biomarkers. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10, 722.
18. Eagle, L. (2014). *Sustainable Tourism: A Marketing Perspective*. Routledge.
19. Evans, G. W. (2019). The potential reversibility of fear in the context of nature-based recreation. *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening*, 40, 67-73.
20. Evans, G. W., Otto, S., & Kaiser, F. G. (2018). Childhood origins of young adult environmental behavior. *Psychological Science*, 29(5), 679-687.

21. Ewert, A., & Chang, Y. (2008). Levels of physical activity in US adults 60 years and older: Behavioral risk factor surveillance system, 2003. *Preventing Chronic Disease*, 5(1), A20.
22. Ewert, A., & Shultis, J. (1999). The effects of technological change on backcountry recreation. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 31(1), 17-33.
23. Flores, D., & Kuhn, C. (2018). Ethnic-racial socialization and the outdoor recreation experiences of Latino families. *Leisure Sciences*, 40(1), 1-19.
24. Flores, D., Falco, G., Roberts, N. S., & Valenzuela, F. P., III. (2018). Barriers to outdoor recreation and exploration for urban Latino families in the United States. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism*, 23, 17-28.
25. Frumkin, H. (2017). Nature Contact and Human Health: A Research Agenda. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, 125(7), 075001.
26. Gentin, S. (2011). Ethnic minority leisure: Resistance, negotiation and social change. *Leisure Studies*, 30(3), 309-326.
27. Ghimire, R., Green, G. T., Poudyal, N. C., & Cordell, H. K. (2014). Exploring the relationship between outdoor recreation and ethnicity in the United States: Implications for social equity and sustainability. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 22(6), 878-901.
28. Greenwood, D. A., & Hougham, R. J. (2015). Virtual reality and the built environment: Utilizing photogrammetry for virtual tours of the famous Wright home. *Journal of Virtual Worlds Research*, 8(1), 1-16.
29. Halofsky, J. E., Peterson, D. L., & O'Halloran, K. A. (2011). Adapting to climate change at Olympic National Forest and Olympic National Park. USDA Forest Service, Pacific Northwest Research Station.
30. Hansmann, R., Hug, S. M., & Seeland, K. (2007). Restoration and stress relief through physical activities in forests and parks. *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening*, 6(4), 213-225.
31. Hartig, T., Mang, M., & Evans, G. W. (1991). Restorative effects of natural environment experiences. *Environment and Behavior*, 23(1), 3-26.
32. Jay, M., Peters, K., Buijs, A. E., Gentin, S., Kloek, M. E., & O'Brien, L. (2012). Barriers to access and participation in recreational activities for children from minority ethnic backgrounds: A scoping review. *Children's Geographies*, 10(1), 71-88.
33. Jones, R., & Serna, A. (2018). The community development benefits of tourism: A case study of the east of England. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 8, 59-64.
34. Kainzinger, R., Arnberger, A., Schneider, I. E., & Hengl, T. (2015). Using fuzzy set qualitative comparative analysis to identify the conditions that create conflicts among recreational users. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 157, 234-243.
35. Knight, A. T., Cowling, R. M., Rouget, M., Balmford, A., Lombard, A. T., & Campbell, B. M. (2008). Knowing but not doing: Selecting priority conservation areas and the research-implementation gap. *Conservation Biology*, 22(3), 610-617.
36. Lackey, L. W., & Bricker, K. S. (2019). Wildlife tourism: An introduction. Channel View Publications.
37. Lemieux, C. J., Eagles, P. F., Slocombe, D. S., Doherty, S. T., Elliott, S. J., & Mock, S. E. (2012). Nature-based outdoor recreation trends and wilderness. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 30(2), 42-57.
38. Mackenzie, C. A., Hemingway, A., & Lonsdale, K. (2017). Using social media to engage children and youth with nature. *Cities and the Environment*, 10(1), 6.
39. Mayer, F. S., & McPherson Frantz, C. (2009). The connectedness to nature scale: A measure of individuals' feeling in community with nature. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 29(4), 502-513.
40. Misra, S., & Stokols, D. (2012). Psychological and health outcomes of perceived information overload. *Environment and Behavior*, 44(6), 737-759.
41. Nelson, K. C., & Smith, M. K. (2011). Planning for tourism: Ensuring community benefits. In *Tourism planning* (pp. 177-194). Channel View Publications.
42. Newsome, D., Moore, S. A., & Dowling, R. K. (2012). Natural area tourism: Ecology, impacts, and management. Channel View Publications.
43. Pickering, C. M., Castley, J. G., & Burtt, M. (2010). A comparison of hiking, mountain biking, and horse riding impacts on vegetation and soils in Australian and New Zealand parks. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 91(3), 551-562.
44. Pretty, J., Peacock, J., Hine, R., Sellens, M., South, N., & Griffin, M. (2007). Green exercise in the UK countryside: Effects on health and psychological well-being, and implications for policy and planning. *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management*, 50(2), 211-231.
45. Richardson, R. B., & Loomis, J. B. (2004). Adaptive recreation planning and climate change: A contingent visitation approach. *Ecological Economics*, 50(1-2), 83-99.
46. Roberts, N. S., Chavez, D. J., Lara, B. M., & Sheffield, E. A. (2009). Recreation behavior and place preferences among different ethnic groups. *Leisure Sciences*, 31(4), 327-343.
47. Rosenberger, R. S., Sneh, Y., Phipps, T. T., & Gurvitch, R. (2005). A spatial analysis of outdoor recreational opportunities and healthcare costs in the United States. *Health & Place*, 11(2), 147-153.
48. Schild, A. (2019). Ecological Stewardship: A Common Language for Understanding Human-Nature Connections in Outdoor Recreation and Nature-Based Tourism. *Sustainability*, 11(2), 516.
49. Schild, R. (2018). Outdoor recreation as a tool for environmental education and conservation: Connecting people to the outdoors. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation, Education, and Leadership*, 10(1), 68-82.
50. Schneider, I. E., Hammitt, W. E., & Houston, L. A. (2015). Effects of geocaching on physical activity among university students. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation, Education, and Leadership*, 7(1), 74-88.

51. Schneider, I. E., Hammitt, W. E., & Houston, L. A. (2017). Geocaching and its effects on physical activity, social interactions, and environmental learning. *Applied Environmental Education & Communication*, 16(4), 319-327.
52. Scott, D. (2011). Climate change vulnerability of the US Northeast winter recreation-tourism sector. *Mitigation and Adaptation Strategies for Global Change*, 16(4), 417-438.
53. Scott, D., Gössling, S., & Hall, C. M. I. (2012). *Tourism and water* (Vol. 1). Channel View Publications.
54. Seekamp, E., Cerveny, L., & Sutton, S. (2011). Collaborative capacity building through stakeholder engagement: An evaluation of the national estuary program. *Environmental Management*, 47(2), 213-227.
55. Selin, S. (2017). *Sustainable Tourism and Resilience: Adapting to Climate Change and Environmental Transformations*. Routledge.
56. Selin, S. W., Cerveny, L. K., & Knopf, R. C. (2018). The challenge of managing multiple and varied visitation pressures. In S. W. Selin, L. K. Cerveny, & R. C. Knopf (Eds.), *Nature-Based Tourism, Environment, and Land Management* (pp. 181-192). Springer.
57. Shin, W. S., Yeoun, P. S., Yoo, R. W., & Shin, C. S. (2010). Forest experience and psychological health benefits: The state of the art and future prospect in Korea. *Environmental Health and Preventive Medicine*, 15(1), 38-47.
58. Snyman, S. (2019). *Tourism and Water: Interactions and Impacts*. Channel View Publications.
59. UNWTO. (n.d.). *Sustainable Development of Tourism*. Retrieved from <https://www.unwto.org/sustainable-development-tourism>
60. Vaske, J. J., Donnelly, M. P., & Williams, D. R. (2001). Ethical standards of a journal of applied social science. *Journal of Applied Social Science*, 25(1), 1-9.
61. Watson, A. E., Cordell, H. K., & Manning, R. (2016). *Outdoor Recreation Trends and Futures: A Technical Document Supporting the Forest Service 2010 RPA Assessment*. USDA Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Research Station.
62. White, E. M., Bowker, J. M., Askew, A. E., & Langner, L. L. (2016). Nature-based outdoor recreation trends and wilderness. In A. Watson, J. Sproull, & T. Williams (Eds.), *Science and stewardship to protect and sustain wilderness values: Eighth World Wilderness Congress symposium* (pp. 80-87). USDA Forest Service Proceedings RMRS-P-64.
63. Winter, P. L., Long, J. W., & Lake, F. K. (2014). Effects of climate change on outdoor recreation and tourism with implications for the national forests and grasslands. USDA Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Research Station.
64. Winter, P. L., Olsen, D. D., & Schuster, R. M. (2010). Climate change adaptation strategies for land management and conservation in the southwest. USDA Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Research Station.
65. Winter, P. L., Padgett, P. E., Milburn, L. S., & Li, W. (2019). Modeling social vulnerability to climate change and variability in relation to recreation and tourism. *Environmental Science & Policy*, 95, 52-59.
66. Winter, P. L., Sánchez, J. J., & Olson, D. D. (2012). Assessing the impacts of climate change on outdoor recreation in forest management units in the Sierra Nevada. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 30(4), 54-69.
67. Wood, S. A., Guerry, A. D., Silver, J. M., & Lacayo, M. (2013). Using social media to quantify nature-based tourism and recreation. *Scientific Reports*, 3, 2976.