

**SUSTAINABLE ECOTOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN  
KUMAUN HIMALAYA: AN ACTION PLAN FOR  
COMMUNITY BASED ECO - TOURISM PROMOTION IN  
RAMNAGAR - CHOTI HALDWANI – NAINITAL –  
KILBURY- VINAYAK – KUNJAKHARAK**

**TO SUBMIT IN FULLFILLMENT OF DEGREE FOR DOCTOR OF  
PHILOSOPHY IN TOURISM**

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**A THESIS**

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*Of*

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

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## FOREWORD

**The United Nations has designated 2017 the International Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development. As one of the world's largest economic sectors, Travel & Tourism creates jobs, drives exports, and generates prosperity across the world. The International Year provides an enormous opportunity to further showcase the tremendous economic, social, cultural, environmental, and heritage value that the sector can bring. The right policy and investment decisions are only made with empirical evidence. For over 25 years, the World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC) has been providing this evidence, quantifying the economic and employment impact of Travel & Tourism. This year, the 2017 Annual Economic Reports cover 185 countries and 26 regions of the world, providing the necessary data on 2016 performance as well as unique 10-year forecasts on the sectors potential. Despite the ever-increasing and unpredictable shocks from terrorist attacks and political instability, to health pandemics and natural disasters, Travel & Tourism continued to show its resilience in 2016, contributing direct GDP growth of 3.1% and supporting 6 million net additional jobs in the sector. In total, Travel & Tourism generated US\$7.6 trillion (10.2% of global GDP) and 292 million jobs in 2016, equivalent to 1 in 10 jobs in the global economy. The sector accounted for 6.6% of total global exports and almost 30% of total global service exports. For the sixth successive year, growth in Travel & Tourism outpaced that of the global economy (2.5%). Additionally in 2016, direct Travel & Tourism GDP growth not only outperformed the economy-wide growth recorded in 116 of the 185 countries covered by the annual economic impact research (including in major Travel & Tourism economies such as Australia, Canada, China, India, Mexico and South Africa), but it also was stronger than the growth recorded in**

**the financial and business services, manufacturing, public services, retail and distribution, and transport sectors. The outlook for the Travel & Tourism sector in 2017 remains robust and will continue to be at the forefront of wealth and employment creation in the global economy, despite the emergence of a number of challenging headwinds. Direct Travel & Tourism GDP growth is expected to accelerate to 3.8%, up from 3.1% in 2016. As nations seem to be looking increasingly inward, putting in place barriers to trade and movement of people, the role of Travel & Tourism becomes even more significant, as an engine of economic development and as a vehicle for sharing cultures, creating peace, and building mutual understanding. Over the longer term, growth of the Travel & Tourism sector will continue to be strong so long as the investment and development takes place in an open and sustainable manner. Enacting pro-growth travel policies that share benefits more equitably can foster a talent and business environment necessary to enable Travel & Tourism to realize its potential. In doing so, not only can we expect the sector to support over 380 million jobs by 2027, but it will continue to grow its economic contribution, providing the rationale for the further protection of nature, habitats, and biodiversity. WTTC is proud to continue to provide the evidence base required in order to help both public and private bodies make the right decisions for the future growth of a sustainable Travel & Tourism sector.**

## INTRODUCTION

The new millennium has witnessed the continued growth of interest in how people spend their spare time, especially their leisure time and non-work time. Some commentators have gone as far as to suggest that it is leisure time – how we use it and its meaning to individuals and families – that defines our lives, as a focus for non-work activity. This reflects a growing interest in what people consume in these non-work periods, particularly those times that are dedicated to travel and holidays which are more concentrated periods of leisure time. This interest is becoming an international phenomenon known as ‘tourism’: the use of this leisure time to visit different places, destinations and localities which often (but not exclusively) features in the holidays and trips people takes part in. for example, in 2005 the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) estimated that travel and tourism as economic activities generated US\$ 6201 billion which is expected to grow to US\$ 10678.5 billion in 2015. This equates to a 4.6 per cent growth in the demand for travel and tourism per annum, which is far in excess of the scale and pace of growth in the economies of most countries. At a global scale, the economic effects of travel and tourism are estimated by WTTC to be responsible for 214000000 jobs: this is equivalent to 8.3 per cent of world employment. In 2005 tourism represented 10.4 per cent of total personal consumption, while it accounted for over 9 per cent of all global capital investment and 10 per cent of world GDP.

Therefore, the growing international significance of tourism can be explained in many ways. In an introductory text such as this, it

is important to stress at the outset the following types of factors and processes in order to illustrate the reasons why tourism assumes an important role not only in our lives but also globally:

- *Tourism is a discretionary activity* (people are not required to undertake it as a basic need to survive, unlike consuming food and water).
- *Tourism is of growing economic significance* at a global scale, with growth rates in excess of the rate of economic growth for many countries.
- *Many governments see tourism as offering new employment opportunities* in a growing sector that is focused on service industries and may assist in developing and modernizing the economy.
- *Tourism is increasingly becoming associated with quality of life issues* as it offers people the opportunity to take a break away from the complexities and stresses of everyday life and work – it provides the context for rest, relaxation and an opportunity to do something different in a new environment.
- *Tourism is becoming seen as a basic right in the developed, Westernized industrialized countries* and it is enshrined in emissions: likewise, few are willing to sacrifice an overseas destination for a less carbon consumptive and polluting domestic holiday. This assumes a more interesting dimension when one sees some sections of the tourism industry responding to consumer interest in green issues, by offering more ‘green’ and ‘sustainable’ holidays, recognizing a business opportunity. Critics have labeled this harnessing of green issues as one way of gaining a competitive edge without

a complete commitment to implementing sustainability principles in their business practices as 'greenwash'.

This reflects the facts that tourism in this respect is a phenomenon that is constantly evolving, developing and reformulating itself as a consumer activity. Tourism, as a consumer activity, is constantly being developed by the tourism industry and individual businesses, as marketing is used to develop new ideas, products and services and destinations. This is reflected in the international interest in developing niche products: holidays focused on specific interests and activities. Examples of niche products are nature – based or ecotourism excursions, such as nature watching in the Galapagos Islands, and wine – and food – based tourism. Both of these types of holiday are increasing in popularity, reflecting as they do people's interests and hobbies. Tourism appeals to the human imagination. As an activity it knows no bounds: it is global and it affects the environment it occurs in, the people who host it, the economies it seeks to benefit and the tourists who consume it as an experience, product and an element of their lives. With tourism having this all- embracing role, it is no surprise that many commentators, researchers and governments have agreed on the need to manage it as a process and activity, especially since it has the potential to snowball and grow out of proportion if it is not managed. Therein lies the basic proposition of tourism needs managing if it is to be successful and beneficial rather than a modern – day scourge.

Yet one of the fundamental problems in seeking to manage tourism is in trying to understand *what it is*: how it occurs, why it occurs where it does, the people and environments that are affected

by it and why it is a volatile activity that can cease as quickly as it can start. These types of question are what seek to address. It will also look at why tourism as a consumer activity is built on dreams, images and what people to do; this is notoriously difficult to understand as it involves entering the realms of psychology and the mind of the individual tourist. Furthermore, these psychological elements are bound up in the notions of enjoyment, feelings, emotions and seemingly intangible and unseen characteristics. The issue is further complicated by the way in which an individual's tastes and interests change throughout their life. In other words, being a tourist is based on the principle of non-work and enjoyment of one's free time in a different locality, and results in an experience, a treasured memory and something personal. Consequently, understanding what tourism is, how it operates, what it means to people and how it should be managed are key challenges for any locality in the new millennium with the global growth of tourism activity.

Tourism and its analysis has become a relatively recent field of study academics, researchers and commentators. Some of the very early text on tourism which are detailed in the further reading can be dated in the early 1970s although there are other examples of other reviews of tourism dating to the 1930s, 1940s and 1950s, with a second wave being produced in the 1980s and then a massive explosion in the late 1980s and 1990s as tourism education and training expanded worldwide. Since the 1990s, a wide range of more specialist and niche books have been published on particular aspects of tourism research. There are arrange of commonly recognized problems in studying tourism, a number of

which are important to the way in which we understand whether it is just about enjoyment and holiday taking:

- Tourism is a multidisciplinary subject which means that a wide range of other subjects, such as psychology, geography, economic, to name but a few, examine it and bring to it a range of ideas and methods of studying it. This means that there is no overarching academic agreement on how to approach the study of tourism – it really depends on how you are looking at tourism, and the perspective you adopt which determines the issues you are interested in studying.
- This had led to a lack of clarity and definition in how to study tourism, something that other researchers have defined as *reductionism*. What this means is that tourism is normally defined by reducing it (hence ‘reductionism’) to a simple range of activities or transactions (i.e. what types of holidays do people choose or How do people purchase those holidays) rather than focusing on the framework needed to give a wider perspective or overview of tourism as a dynamic and important subject.

These problems often compound the way people view tourism as a subject, emphasizing the holiday or enjoyment aspects of travelling (in one’s spare time or on business) as the defining features or reference point of tourism. To general public tourism is something everyone knows about – it is something many have engaged in and so have an opinion on what it is, its effects and widespread development.

Those involved in the study of tourism face similar situations within the institutions and organizations they work within, since

many academics and researchers have a broad awareness of tourism similar to that of the general public and so have prejudices and opinions about it as a subject. Therein lies one of the continual problems facing the student of tourism: anyone who is charged with the study of pleasure, enjoyment and the use of leisure time cannot be engaged in serious academic study – can they? Other researchers in science, the arts and humanities work in long-established disciplines and have generations of literature, knowledge and a tradition of studying serious problems in society such as disease control, homelessness and poverty; the negative aspects of life and their improvement. So tourism is not perceived a serious subject, as it does not address societal problems. In reality, the prejudices and attitudes are fundamentally flawed, outdated and ill informed in a society here the consumption of leisure and pleasure are now key elements in the quality of life of the population. One way of beginning to understand that tourism is more than holidays and enjoyment is to think about why tourism is so important in modern society (i.e. its social, cultural and economic significance) by looking at an important process which has led to the demand for it – the rise of the leisure society.

We can safely say today that, thanks to the boom in tourism in recent decades, never before in the history of humanity have the inhabitants of this planet travelled as much, or been as much engaged in the discovery of other cultures. So, what are we, as international organizations, and non-governmental organizations (NGOs), politicians, policy makers, practitioners and as ordinary citizens and tourists, doing with this tremendous opportunity to advance understanding among the inhabitants of the planet through encounters with others and their cultural and artistic expressions, monumental and living, past and

present? We believe that tourism, which brings individuals and human communities into contact, and through them cultures and civilizations, has an important role to play in facilitating dialogue among cultures. Tourism also has the capacity to assist the world's inhabitants to live better together and thereby contribute to the construction of peace in the minds of men and women, to paraphrase the Constitution of UNESCO. Cultural and natural heritage that attracts so many tourists, and is a resource for development, is, fortunately, distributed throughout the world, thus providing an additional opportunity for many non-industrialized countries. Raising awareness, educating and training the staff concerned, is essential in involving communities in the process of conserving and enhancing their heritage. It is the involvement of all that will enable the heritage of humanity to be better preserved, living conditions to be improved and poverty reduced. Preserving cultural and natural heritage, to bring it within reach of all, making cultures and civilizations better known, improving daily living conditions and reducing poverty, is what gives meaning to the sustainability of tourism development. However, these objectives depend upon the quality of the design and the implementation of tourism policies and activities - that is to say, their understanding of culture and their sustainability - which involves the participation of communities in the preservation and enhancement of cultural heritage in the long term. The negative impacts of tourism are, by no means, inevitable. Tourism can have positive and lasting effects on our cultural and natural heritage, on creativity and cultural diversity, and on the environment and balance of societies. We believe that the objectives set out above, of dialogue among cultures and development, may be reached if decision-makers and actors in tourism and culture, the societies hosting tourists and the tourists themselves, develop respectively, policies and attitudes resulting from an understanding of the complex relations between tourism and culture, in

the light of the conventions, declaration and texts of the United Nations adopted in the fields of culture and sustainable development.

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## **CHAPTER - I**

### **THE THEORITICAL AND CONCEPTUAL DESIGN OF THE STUDY**

"India is the cradle of human race, the birthplace of human speech, the mother of history, the grandmother of legend, and the great grandmother of tradition. Our most valuable and most astringent materials in the history of man are treasured up in India only! "

*Mark Twain.*

The beauty of nature lies in its variety which indeed is endless. So is the timeless desire in the human beings to appreciate the nature from the bottom of their heart. This is why since ancient times explorers, discoverers and travellers undertook adventurous journeys in spite of all difficulties they came across. The underlying idea of visiting new places to appreciate their beauty, in course of time, has given birth to a modern industry called tourism. It is the job of tourism industry to spot such places of beauty and interest and bring people and places physically closer to one another by providing every facility and comfort. Thus natural scenery, favourable weather and climate and cultural heritage are used for area development through promotion of tourism.

Those on the Nile and the Euphrates and a rival for the tag of 'cradle of civilization'.

## Historical Genesis

The Spice Route is one of history's greatest anomalies: shrouded in mystery, it existed long before anyone knew of its extent or configuration. Spices came from lands unseen, possibly uninhabitable, and almost by definition unattainable; that was what made them so desirable. Yet more livelihoods depended on this pungent traffic, more nations participated in it, more wars were fought for it, and more discoveries resulted from it than from any other global exchange. Epic in scope, marvelously detailed, laced with drama, *The Spice Route* spans three millennia and circles the world to chronicle the history of the spice trade. With the aid of ancient geographies, travelers' accounts, mariners' handbooks, and ships' logs, John Keay tells of ancient Egyptians who pioneered maritime trade to fetch the incense of Arabia, Graeco - Roman navigators who found their way to India for pepper and ginger, Columbus who sailed west for spices, de Gama, who sailed east for them, and Magellan, who sailed across the Pacific on the exact same quest. A veritable spice race evolved as the west viewed for control of the spice - producing islands, stripping them of their innocence and the spice trade of its mystique. This enthralling saga, progressing from the voyages of the ancients to the blue-water trade that came to prevail by the seventeenth century, transports us from the dawn of history to the ends of the earth.

During the golden age of exploration in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, when the intrepid travelers emerged from the jungles, deserts, and ice caps of the world's remotest locations, they were greeted by an awestruck public as though they had returned from the dead or other worlds. The Mammoth Book of Explorers recaptures the thrill of the unknown with first-hand accounts of expeditions across all seven continents. In Africa, there is Burton's search for the source of the Nile. In the Americas, Meriwether Lewis tells how he reunited Sacajawea with

her tribe, and Alexander Mackenzie recounts the first overland crossing of the continent by the Canadian fur trader in 1793. At the globe's top and bottom, Robert Peary and Ernest Shackleton race for the poles. In addition to such triumphs of human endurance, there are the tragedies of Livingstone's last days in Africa, William John Wills's lonely death in the Australian outback, and Robert Scott's tragic final expedition in Antarctica. To round out this Mammoth collection, noted author John Keay has also chosen twentieth-century explorers who have carried on the dauntless tradition, including Hiram Bingham's account of the discovery of Machu Picchu, Thesiger on Arabia's Empty Quarter, Edmund Hillary on scaling the summit of Everest, and Harry St. John Bridger Philby on traversing the desert alone.

The following overview of the scientific area(s) where landscape science(s) have developed a dialogue and interaction with the field of tourism will trace this relationship through an epistemological overview of the infusion of tourism-related issues into landscape geography and vice versa. Two larger periods in the recent history of geographical inquiry, corresponding to two distinct areas of geographical ontology and epistemology, may be identified here with regard to the description and interpretation of space/landscape in relation to leisure and tourism. The first overarching period – and epistemological approach – to landscape study gathers momentum through the quantitative revolution of the 1950s and 1960s. It finds application in a large body of work on tourism landscape analysis that is largely apolitical, informed more by economic concerns for landscape development. This body of work on the interrelationships of landscape and tourism constitutes the most extensive domain of landscape research in the field of tourism to date and continues to predominate in much of contemporary tourism research. The second period, and corresponding epistemological approaches, is formulated around more critical and radical perspectives

revolving around the historical and material processes of space and landscape production, reproduction, and consumption. At the start of this chronological period, humanistic methodologies, also prevalent in geographical inquiry at the time, were not much explicitly employed in the study of the tourism –landscape relationship (Relph 1976; Meinig 1979; Jackson 1984), and thus it will receive no further discussion in the following overview. More recently, the dialectical relationships of society-individual and structure - culture, built into the landscape, as illustrated by structuralist interpretations of tourism landscapes in the 1970s and 1980s, have been in a process of renegotiation through postmodern and poststructuralist epistemological approaches. In the course of the latter half of the twentieth century, geographical research thus shifted in scope and scale from the macro-analysis of symbolic landscapes of national scale to micro-analyses of townscape and resort landscapes (Hall and Page 1999: 12–13). Perspectives stressing the physical, material, and absolute nature of space more recently gave way to perspectives that emphasize its socio - cultural, symbolic, and relative nature. One outcome of this shift is that many of these newly emerging geographical perspectives on the landscape have served to illuminate aspects of leisure and tourism research but have never been explicitly framed as leisure and tourism studies (Aitchison, MacLeod, and Shaw 2000: 7). The same trend is overwhelmingly apparent in the contributions to these more recent landscape tourism geographies of other tourism-related fields. The main difference between these social science discourses on tourism landscapes and those of other tourism - related disciplines is that the change that has occurred in the latter during the past few years has been of a far lesser degree than the change in the former. This change has also been more quantitative than qualitative, as was the case in the social sciences. In the remainder of this section, a series of themes that have attracted the interest of landscape geographies of tourism or tourism landscape analysis will be displayed and indicative examples of

each of these themes will be provided. Without, obviously, intending to cover the entire field of tourism – landscape interrelationships, each of these themes represents a significant position in geographical discourses of leisure/tourism and culture, and as such will be discussed below.

As THEANO S. TERKENLI will become obvious, an exhaustive presentation of even the most significant work in these fields would be impossible in the context of this brief overview. Admittedly, the earliest geographical research on leisure and tourism landscapes, gaining momentum in the first half of the twentieth century, was purely concerned with the classification of scenic quality and land use (Aitchison, MacLeod, and Shaw 2000: 12). This preoccupation with landscape classification, assessment, and evaluation with the aid of land-use mapping and other quantitative methodologies adhering to positivist epistemologies, continues to inform a large portion of research in the area as conducted by various related academic disciplines. Such approaches to the landscape predominate in the environmental sciences, but are equally employed in the field of tourism geography by spatial analysts (Hall and Page 1999: 12 – 13; Garcia Perez 2002; Roovers, Hermy, and Gulinck 2002). The places the popularity of such landscape evaluation and measurement techniques in environmental studies and planning in a span of several decades, and especially the 1970s: Scores of studies appeared, with titles like “Eye Pupillary Measurement of Aesthetic Response to Forest Scenes” or “Modeling and Predicting Human Response to the Visual Recreation Environment”. Hoping to create tools for natural resource management and planning, from wilderness aesthetics to scenic roads design, many of these studies put enormous amounts of energy and spectacular number crunching into what are good examples of social science trivia. They reflect a period in tourist and leisure management when hard facts, models, and clear taxonomies were in demand. (1999: 83) Such work tended to appear in

scientific journals such as *Landscape Architecture*, *Landscape Planning*, the *Journal of Environmental Sciences*, the *Journal of Environmental Management*, *Landscape Ecology*, the *Journal of Coastal Conservation*, and the *Journal of Coastal Research*. Meanwhile, by the late 1930s and 1940s another quantitative approach to tourism landscape analysis had already gained ground, namely interest in the geography of seaside resorts, resort development, and coastal landscapes. This general interest aimed at tourism development and planning and focused on systematic geographical approaches to tourism landscape morphology through the employment of spatial analytical techniques. Resort morphology was recognized by tourism geographers and others as early as the 1930s, but not until the 1970s did detailed urban and economic analyses generate a considerable body of academic literature, today “a small but important research thread among planners and tourism geographers” (Meyer-Arendt, in Jafari 2000: 504–5). Concomitant to this development was the widespread employment of descriptive and predictive models in early recreation and tourism research within geography, a prevalent and ongoing trend in the geography of tourism to date (Pearce 1995). Aitchison, MacLeod, and Shaw point out that, “while leisure studies was embracing sociological concepts from Marxist, structuralist and humanist theory in the 1960s and 1970s, tourism studies and recreation research appeared to hold on to their more positivist paradigm” (2000: 12). They add that analyses of recreation and tourism continued to rely on quantitative methods to devise theories which mapped, modeled, coded, and classified recreation and tourism development, provision participation and impacts. Altogether, a number of models dealing with various aspects of the spatial structures of tourism, Emerged in the late 1960s, the 1970s, and the 1980s, most of which were developed independently of one another, with little or no recognition of, or attempt to build on, previous (Pearce 1995: 3, 14) or contemporary efforts. Consequently, this ongoing overall approach to

spatial schemata of tourism has yet to produce either a strong conceptual or a theoretical base for tourism research. Rather, it remains highly unsystematic and fragmented. Various types of models interpreting tourism development, tourism economics, and tourism psychology, as imprinted on the landscape, have thus been borrowed from or based on either geographical positivist and predictive models, such as those of Weber, Crystaller and Losch, Alonso, and including the gravity model and others, or sociological and anthropological conceptual tools and techniques. Themes under this umbrella of positivist modeling approaches to tourism and the landscape vary enormously: land-use change, planning, and management; landscape as a resource for urban, rural, regional, and national development; travel motives and tourist types; natural and cultural resource assessment for recreation and tourism; landscape impact analyses; tourism carrying capacity, etc. Journals exemplifying such work include *Tourism Management*, *Landscape and Urban Planning*, *Landscape Planning*, *Sustainable Tourism*, *Landscape Research*, *Tourism Geographies*, *Annals of Tourism Research*, and many others. Within this positivist paradigm, perhaps the most significant theme in tourism analysis emerging in tourism studies today becomes a series of perspectives revolving around sustainable development issues with applications in sustainable tourism development per se. Both interrelationships of tourism with broader sustainable development and sustainable tourism development itself appear to be closely connected to forms, functions, and symbolisms of landscapes of tourism, in an often normative approach. A third strand of tourism landscape research that spans both chronological periods in the development of ontological and epistemological research perspectives to landscapes of tourism during the second half of the twentieth century is the historical perspective/overview of landscape change through tourism. Although the historical perspective has always been present in tourism studies as an introductory overview of current issues, complete historical

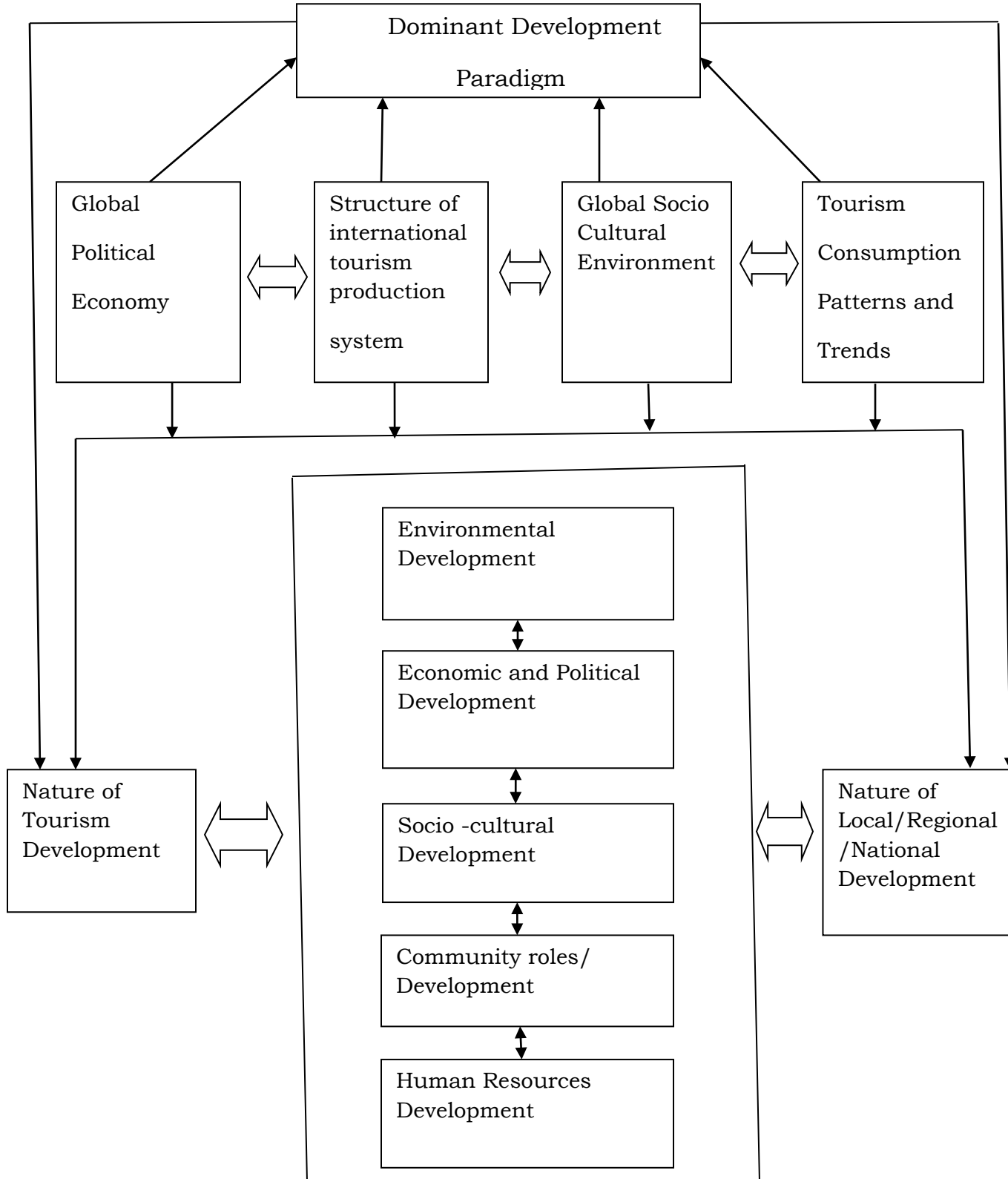
geographical perspectives on tourism have emerged only very recently (Towner 1996). These have tended to examine the relationships between tourism and the landscape historically - graphically, stressing the impact of changing motives and socioeconomic constraints of travel on the landscape (Towner 1996). More recently, their tendency has been toward an analysis of the social history and cultural underpinnings of this relationship from a more critical point of view (Lofgren 1999). Though the spatial patterns that arise from locational attributes of supply and demand have predominated as an organizational concept in this type of tourism landscape approach, the particular role of place has also been explored (Towner 1996: 5-6). This third strand of tourism landscape research is also represented by anthropological and sociological journals such as *Journeys: The International Journal of Travel and Travel Writing*, but also the *Annals of Tourism Research*, *Ecumene*, and other journals with a more general interest in tourism geography. Although a more critical shift to geographical research was already apparent in the 1960s, a Marxist and structuralist reorientation of landscape geography gained momentum only in the 1970s and 1980s. In this chronological context, cultural meanings were built into landscapes of the built environment and rural surroundings (Aitchison, MacLeod, and Shaw 2000: 15), illustrating dialectical relationships between structures and cultures, or society and the individual, with regard to landscapes of tourism. Although environmental issues have occasionally been raised, research on the relationship between tourism and the landscape appears rather scarce in the structuralist paradigm (Britton 1982, 1991; Shaw and Williams 1994; Porter and Sheppard 1998: 541), and, following contemporary trends in geography and the social sciences more generally, was soon superseded by postmodern, postcolonial, and poststructuralist approaches. Postmodern/poststructuralist social and cultural geographies of landscapes of tourism demonstrate how the latter act as sites and sights of social and cultural inclusion/exclusion and are

not fixed but are in a constant state of transition (Urry 1995). Such approaches to tourism landscapes acknowledge specific landscape contexts of transformation, rather than placing landscape in the context of an overall system of transformation. They include a wide variety of themes, such as landscape and place experiences and practices (Crang 1999), gender and identity formation (Kinnaird and Hall 1994), spectacle and performance (Hollinshead 1999), the gaze and surveillance (Urry 1990; Crang 1999; Hollinshead 1999), attraction and desire (Terkenli 2002), and the seduction of place (Cartier and Lew 2004). They call for the development of socio - cultural geographies of leisure and tourism, rather than of a more systematic science of geography of tourism. Two recently published books provide excellent illustrations of work within this paradigm. In *Leisure and Tourism Landscapes: Social and Cultural Geographies*, Aitchison, MacLeod, and Shaw (2000) identify a series of recent poststructuralist discourses on the spatiality of leisure and tourism landscapes, such as the role of gender in constructing and contesting leisure and tourism spaces, places, and landscapes; the place of ethnicity in the production and reproduction of urban landscapes; and interrelation between sexuality and spatiality in city landscapes. The other publication, *Leisure/Tourism Geographies: Practices and Geographical Knowledge*, is a collection of essays edited by David Crouch on the “fractured, multiple geographical knowledge . . . [that is] closer to our lived practice” (1999: 13). It considers leisure/tourism as an encounter that exists in place and landscape between people, people and space, people as socialized and embodied subjects, expectations, experience, and desire. *Contemporary Trends in Landscapes of Tourism and the Call for Theoretical Frameworks* The imprint and reflection on the landscape of contemporary forces of geographical transformation, including tourism and recreation, are invariably substantiated and articulated through changing landscape forms, practices, functions, and meanings indicative of a new cultural economy of space-time: a newly

emerging cultural renegotiation and reinterpretation of landscape patterns and relationships (Terkenli 2002). In the case of landscapes of tourism, these trends are manifest in the dissolution of geographical particularity and identity, in the increasing breakdown of previously existing barriers and boundaries (geographical, categorical, or substantial) and in the simultaneous fusion of all parts of the world and of the human lifeworld in one. This transformation, whereby old socio-spatial schemata are dismantled and new forms and processes created, is characterized by a growing dissociation of these new schemata from geographical location and distinct place characteristics. Furthermore, processes of this new cultural economy of space take on increasingly global dimensions, through the dissemination and communication of all of the above changes through images – though their manifestations vary over space, time, and social context (Pritchard and Morgan 2001: 169; Terkenli 2002). Such developments, central and conducive to the transformation of landscape for purposes of tourism, clearly pose problems for hegemonic and totalizing discourses so far accommodated by tourism studies, and call for new theoretical frameworks in tourism landscape research. The first major problem of such an endeavor is that no theoretical framework has existed for landscapes of tourism thus far. The need for the development of such a body of interdisciplinary theory and epistemology for the study of landscapes of/and tourism remains indispensable, pressing, and of primary significance in this broader field. In conclusion, much has been written and debated with regard to spatial forces and products of transformation through tourism as it relates to landscape. So far, however, this body of work lacks an adequate organizational framework of analysis, much more one that sufficiently addresses the spatial and social imprint of rapidly changing world geography of tourism on the landscape. The challenge, then, for the study of interrelationships of tourism and landscape, as this emerges from such a brief overview of the contribution of landscape geographies

to the study of tourism, is twofold. First, it lies in the rearticulation and reawareness of the place of landscape in the geography (ies) of tourism, at the same time as tourism and recreation need to gain a stronghold in various geographical as well as other social scientific discourses. This interdisciplinary dialogue and merging inevitably leads to the need to develop a theoretical framework for the study of landscapes and/of tourism out of disparate efforts and perspectives. While many such attempts from various sides have contributed to shedding light upon the interrelations between tourism and the landscape, these attempts have rarely been framed explicitly as tourism studies, much less as studies of landscapes of tourism. Second, this theory-building endeavor must be carried out while embracing the complexity of interrelationships between tourism and the landscape in the context of a newly emerging cultural economy of space informing new geographies of tourism. The latter indicate the need to study the ways in which space and landscape literally and metaphorically shape the experience of leisure and tourism, not only through the gaze, but also through multi-sensual sensitivity, materiality, embodiment, and expressive practice. Furthermore, they elicit future research into the ways in which contextualized, as well as overarching, leisure and tourism experiences inform and substantiate landscapes of tourism. The development of new types of landscapes with the advent of new forms of tourism catering to new social needs, cultural preferences, and economic contingencies has certainly been an ongoing practice since the appearance of the phenomenon of tourism. The novelty of such landscapes in the present age, however, lies instead in their nature, scale, and geographical characteristics, cutting across many of the more traditional typologies of tourist environments (Shaw and Williams 1994: 172–3). The segregation, for instance, of leisure from home life that modernization instilled becomes more and more tentative and irrelevant in the postmodern Western world. Practices that we understand by leisure/tourism today merge with other areas of life

(Harvey 1989; Crouch 1999: 2) in the society of spectacle where specific pleasures are not place-bound and objects of delight proliferate (Debord 1994). What ensues is a growing de - differentiation in space of leisure and tourism, shopping, work, culture, satisfaction of basic needs, comfort, play, familiarity, etc. Thus, in the context of this new cultural economy of space, a final major difficulty of our future task as outlined above becomes the increasing tendency for all landscapes to assume characteristics of landscapes of leisure and tourism, while the distinction between leisure and tourism is also becoming increasingly blurred.



**Fig.1.1. Model showing the relationship between tourism and development studies.**

**Theoretical and Conceptual Design of the study**

The complementary roles of theoretical and empirical treatments of sustainability may be seen in the extensive renewable resource literature. For example, the fisheries literature complements a substantial body of empirical work with a theoretical and empirical work with a theoretical literature illuminating the role of tradeoffs in optimal steady – state outcomes (e.g. Clark, 1990; Johnston and Sutinen, 1996). These formal mathematical models – assist in identifying tradeoffs associated with different resources trajectories and identifying implications for stakeholders groups (e.g. Dasgupta and Heal, 1974; Reed, 1984; Clarke and Reed, 1994). While such models as often based on general notions of social outcomes (e.g. net economic benefits) and abstract specifications of natural phenomenon (e.g. general mathematical specifications of growth functions and carrying capacity), such abstractions allow less - obscured focus on fundamental questions of interest.

The prior work of Johnston and Tyrell (2005) to illustrate a simple, dynamic model illustrating the interrelated behaviour and change of tourism – related economic and environmental conditions over time. A dynamic optimization model is developed for a region seeking to maximize sustainable benefits from tourism. Based on this model, we characterize and contrast fundamental notions of sustainable tourism from the perspectives of two key stakeholder groups: a profit – maximizing tourist industry and permanent residents of the tourist community or region. The model illustrates key findings relevant to the search for sustainable outcomes, and characterizes the potential conflicts, hazards and tradeoffs implicit in the choice among different sustainable (or non – sustainable) futures. Implications of the model are

then discussed with regard to patterns of tourism found in specific region (Mbaiwa, 2005). Through the contrast of the dynamic model and case - study evidence for this high - value tourist destination, we illustrate ways in which theoretical model can help characterize and explain current patterns of tourism, as well as divergence between visions of sustainable tourism among different stakeholders group.

## **Operational Definitions of Tourism Sustainability**

Formal analysis of sustainable tourism requires a functional definition of sustainability. The functional definition of sustainability applied here draws from renewable resources literature, and is related to the concept of carrying capacity in the tourism literature (Brown *et al.*, 1997; Swarbrooke, 1998). Environmentally sustainable tourism may be thought of as level of tourism that may be realized, based on a sustainable or steady - state environment. More specifically, we define an environmentally sustainable optimum as the maximum level of a desired outcome (e.g. economic profits, quality of life) that may be maintained in a steady - state solution, subject to constraints imposed by the environment. The goal of the analysis is to illustrate tradeoffs implications for policies that seek universally optimal solutions for all groups.

The Brundtland Report (Worlds Commission on Environment and Development, 1987) provides perhaps the most widely recognized definition of sustainable development: ‘. . . development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.’ This definition suggests relatively undisputed social goals, and an ability to agree on policies that create both winners and losers; one of the primary challenges of policy formation is determining appropriate means to balance the gains and losses of different groups (Just et al., 2004). There is a rarely perfect

agreement on those policies that are most appropriate for satisfying even the needs of the present, much less those that fulfill the complete Brundtland definitions.

In contrast, the functional definition of sustainability applied here makes clear that the concept of sustainable tourism is consistent with the wide variety of outcomes for a tourist destination. This can lead to controversy regarding the version of sustainable tourism imply that the concept of sustainable tourism alone does not convey sufficient information to define tourism policy. Operational definitions of tourism sustainability require details regarding what elements are to be used sustained, the level at which these elements should be sustained and the stakeholders groups whose benefits should be considered (Pezzey, 1997). For example, one may seek to sustain the number of visitors, the size or growth of industry profits, the quality of the tourist experience, the quality of life of local residents or some combination of these and other elements. It is unlikely that all may be sustained simultaneously.

Here, given the focus on environmentally sustainable tourism, primary emphasis is placed on maintaining a certain level of environmental quality, broadly defined, while secondary emphasis is placed on economic viability of the tourism industry. These emphases notwithstanding, environmentally sustainable tourism is impossible without both a sustainable environment and a viable tourism industry. Maintaining an appropriate and sustainable balance between benefits realized by the tourism industry and environmental quality, however, is complicated by the relationship between tourist visitors and environmental quality – while visitors are often attracted by the environmental attributes of tourist destinations, these visitors can in turn degrade the environment (Hillery et al., 2001; Briassoulis, 2002; Mbaiwa, 2005).

In addition to considering the potential sustainability of environmental quality and the viability of industry, a third element that must be addresses when considering sustainable policies is the social well-being of local residents – which may be either commensurate or in conflict with industry goals (Mason and Cheyne, 2000; Mbaiwa, 2005). While residents may benefit from tourism income, jobs and tax revenue (Haralambolous and Pizam, 1996), they react negatively towards such factors as tourism – related congestion, environmental degradation and noise, as well as exclusion from the use of natural resources or infrastructure officially or de facto reserved for visitors (Mason and Cheyne, 2000;Cohen, 2002; Kaynak and Marandu,2006). None the less, support of local residents may be critical to tourism sustainability, as conservation behaviour of residents may be necessary to sustaining the environmental resources that attract tourists.

While the difference between the objectives of industry, natives residents and other stakeholders are well – established (Cohen, 2002), the literature provides no formal definition or model that incorporates such differences into an operational concept of sustainable tourism (Swarbrooke, 1998; Collins, 1999). Indeed, one of the primary challenges of sustainable tourism is the large number of stakeholders involved, such that ‘it is not surprising that it is difficult to reach a consensus on what sustainable tourism means and how it can be achieved’ (Swarbrooke, 1998,p.16).

## **A Theoretical Model of Sustainable Tourism**

The optimization model that follows assists tourism planners in conceptualizing choices and trade implicit in various options for environmentally sustainable tourism, at a general level. For simplicity, the focus is on two stylized groups – **industry and residents** – although the presented models may be adapted easily to accommodate greater

numbers of stakeholder groups. The formal mathematical structure of the proposed model is analogous to that used in certain applications of optimal control theory to biological resources (Clark, 1990). Here, such models are adapted to address tourism in a stylized community, where the number of visitors depends, at least in part, on the quality of the local environment. The precise definition of a ‘community’ is not important – the area can be a village or an entire province. It is simply viewed as a group of people who have some collective decision – making authority. Within this community, assume that there are two groups with a primary interest in the existence and outcomes of tourism (although one may certainly developed a model in which more groups are considered) – local permanent residents and tourism industry planners. The benefits the two groups receive, however, may differ.

While theoretical dynamic optimization models in the renewable resources literature are often rich in potential solutions and policy implications (Crapper, 1976), they typically maintain a relatively high degree of abstraction to preserve generality and simplicity analysis (Casagrandi and Rinaldi, 2002). We continue in this tradition; the basic model is kept simple to maintain a focus on the primary dynamics of interest and implications for tourism. For example, we abstract from issues such as the substitutability of natural and man-made capital (Collins, 1999).

### **Environmental quality and tourism: a simple specification**

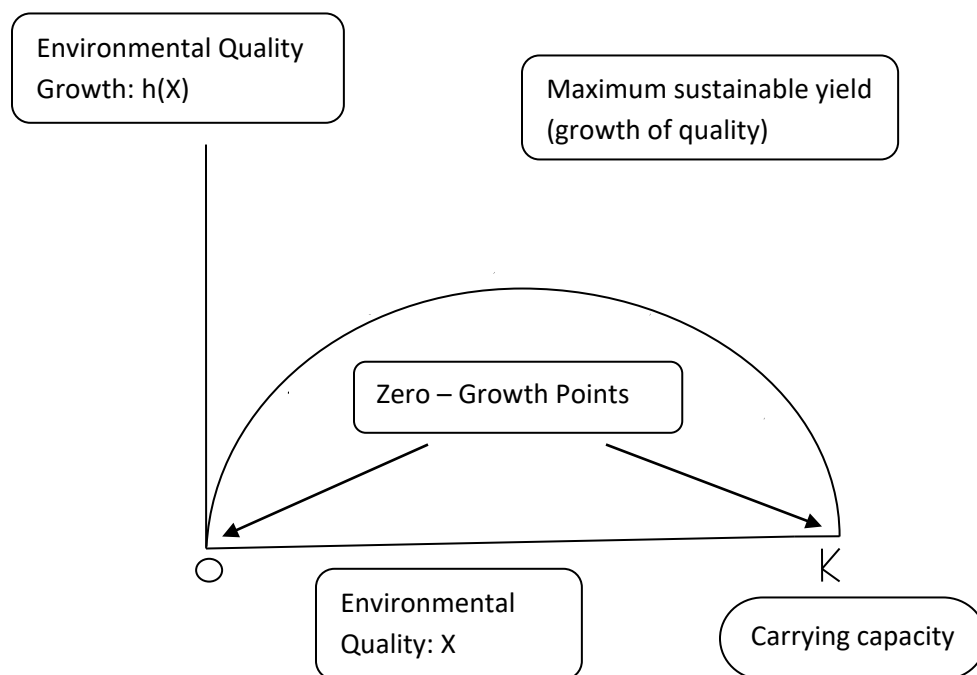
Renewable environmental resources such as fisheries and forest reproduce and grow, but are also subject to both natural mortality and human disturbance. If left undisturbed renewable resources are typically assumed to reach a maximum level where birth and growth exactly balance decay and death (Hartwick and Olewiler, 1986, pp. 247-250). This point, the natural capacity of the resources, sustainable (Clark,

1990). However, because the **carrying capacity** is only obtainable for the resources left undisturbed by human use, sustaining resources at the carrying capacity is generally not a viable option for tourism. Moreover, difficulties with characterizing sustainable tourism based on the concept of carrying capacity alone are well established (Lindberg et al., 1997).

Although most tourism depends on multiple attributes of bundle of environmental resources, we simplify the model by assuming that the condition of all renewable resources in the community may be appropriately measured by one composite index variable  $X$ , which we denote 'environmental quality'. This index consolidates the notions of resource quality and ecosystem productivity for all types of renewable resources into a single index. Also, for simplicity, we assume that all resources upon which tourism depends are renewable to some degree; non – renewable resources are not considered. Non- renewable resources in general do not support steady – state (Sustainable) Solutions, unless one allows for renewable resources once depletion is imminent, or substitution between natural and man – made capital (Hartwick and Olewiler, 1986). Hence, they are not addressed here. These simplifications allow us to emphasize the fundamental trade – off between visitors and environmental quality.

As a renewable resource, environmental quality gradually renews itself, or grows, in proportion to the underlying stock of the resource. The growth function – here specified using the simple function  $h(X)$  – implies that natural renewal or growth of environmental quality is a mathematical function of  $X$ . Within the renewable resource literature,  $h(X)$  is often assumed to follow a pattern similar to that shown in fig.26.1, based on a underlying logistic growth function (e.g. Hartwick and Olewiler, 1986, p. 250). That is, when environmental is highly degraded (i.e. small).

The natural improvement in quality,  $h(X)$ , will be relatively small. When environment quality is pristine (at its maximum level or carrying capacity  $K$ ) there can be no natural improvements; by definition  $h(K) = 0$ . Growth will be fastest at some point between 0 and  $K$ , peaking at a point of maximum sustainable yield. Higher levels of environmental quality ( $X$ ) attract tourist visitors. Visitors, however, also cause environmental quality to decline (Hillery *et al.*, 2001). In simple terms, each visitor consumes or degrades a small quality during their visit. If not replaced by sufficient natural growth, the result will be a smaller stock of environmental quality remaining in the future. From another perspective, when visitors disturb the resource,



**Growth (or renewal) of environmental quality at a tourist site: growth as a function of the stock of environmentally quality.**

Some or all of its will be applied to recovery from this disturbance.

The number of visitors per period (e.g. per day, week or year) is given by  $V$ . for simplicity, we assume that each visitor uses up a constant  $m$  units of environmental quality per period. That is,  $V$  visitors will results in a loss of  $mV$  index – units of environmental quality per period. The simplest mathematical case for analysis is the case in which  $m = 1$ , or in which each visitors causes 1 index –unit of degradation per period. Hence, for mathematical simplification, we scale the environmental quality index such that  $m = 1$ . The result is that  $V$  visitors will cause exactly  $V$  index- units of environmental quality to be lost, per period. While this simplification may be easily relaxed, doing so does not alter fundamental aspects of the model. The model also imposes an assumption of constant technology, such that the model is autonomous and fixed steady – state solutions exists. In reality, advances in technology over time (e.g. the addition of more advanced sewage treatment) might reduce the damage per visitor. The result would be that the optimal solution which change over time - a much more complex solution. The equation describing the total per – period change in environmental quality combines the negative influence of visitors ( $V$ ) and the positive influence of natural growth  $h(X)$ , such that:

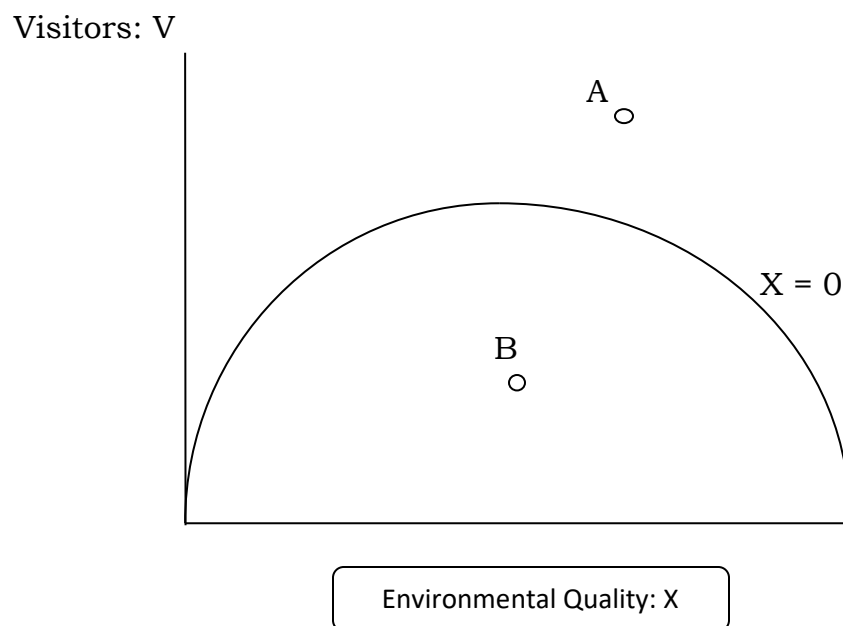
$$\dot{X} = h(X) - V \quad (1.1)$$

Where  $\dot{X}$  is the change in  $X$  during a time period. Formally, the dot (.) represents a partial derivative of  $X$  with respect to time. That is,  $\dot{X}$  indicates the change in environmental quality from period to period, which may be positive, negative or zero.

Sustainability of environmentally quality occurs where  $\dot{X} = 0$  (i.e. no change in environmental quality over time), and depends natural growth and visitor damage. At the natural carrying capacity  $K$ , environmental quality is sustainable only if there is no use by visitors. At a level  $X$  slightly less than this maximum, some growth could occur and some

visits could be made without changing quality. In the middle of the range of environmental quality where the natural rate of growth is highest. Sustainable environmental quality occurs where natural growth exactly offsets tourist related degradation, or where  $h(X) - V = 0$ . Based on this mathematical relationship, Fig. 1.3 illustrates all sustainable levels of environmental quality and tourist visits.

Each point long the curve in Fig. 1.3 identifies a sustainable pair of visitation and environmental quality levels, based on natural environmental relationships. Points above the curve (e.g. point A) represent conditions in which visitor damage exceeds natural renewal – hence environmental quality will degrade over time. Points below the curve (e.g. point B) represents conditions in which natural renewal exceeds visitor damage – hence environmental quality will improve over time. Continuous positive changes in environmental quality, while perhaps desirable, cannot be sustained indefinitely since they will ultimately lead to the environmental carrying capacity where no further improvement is possible. Only along the illustrated curve does natural renewal exactly balance visitor damage over time – a sustainable condition.



**Locus of sustainable environmental quality with regard to visitor numbers: visitor – quality pairs where quality remains constant.**

### **The benefits of sustainable tourism**

While Fig. 1.3 shows the loci of sustainability with regard to the natural environment, the model does not yet account for sustainability with regard to the economic viability or benefits of tourism. To introduce this aspect of the model, the model must incorporate the objectives of different groups – in this case the tourism industry – as a collection of business – is profits. While this is a simplification allows us to retain a focus on the central aspects of the model. From year to year, the goal of the industry is to maintain and, if possible, increase net profits. This objective translates to a long – term goal of maximizing the sum of discounted profits over time.

To account for the time value of money, however, industry maximizes the sum of discounted profits. That is, while the primary goal of sustainability is to maintain the flow or stock of some variable (s) over the indefinite future, most individuals prefer benefits received in proximate time periods (i.e. close to the present), compared with identical nominal benefits received in the distant future (Just et al., 2004, p.572). Formally, the model assumes that profits are discounted when summing over time to account for the time value of money. Just as a bank recognizes the time value of money by charging borrowers interest, along – term industry objective must recognize the cost of waiting for its profits by discounting those received in the future. This follows a long tradition of models addressing the dynamics of resources use and social benefits (Clark, 1990; Just *et al.*, 2004). Individuals' collective rate of time

preference is indicated by the discount rate, denoted by the variable  $r$ . Although  $r$  may in theory vary between 0 and  $\infty$ , practitioners often recommend rates from 0.01 to 0.04 (Freeman, 2003, p.199).

Tourist industry profits may be represented as a general mathematical function of the number of visitors  $V$  and environmental quality  $X$ , given by  $\Pi(V, X)$ . This matches the form of profit functions found in other theoretical assessments of optimal resources use (e.g. Clark, 1990; Johnston and Sutinen, 1996). Profits are increasing in both  $V$  and  $X$ , but these increases occur at decreasing rates for both variables. That is, profits increase as visitor numbers increase, holding all else constant, but each additional visitor adds a little less to industry profits, on the margin. Similarly, profits increase as environmental quality results in a slightly smaller gain in industry profits – reflecting diminishing marginal returns. Although profits are influenced by other factors as well, including capital development and tourism infrastructure, we abstract from these features as they do not play a fundamental role in the model.

## **Sustainably Managed**

The term sustainable tourism development is a derivative of the more general concept of sustainable development, brought to prominence with the publication of *Our Common Future*, the report of the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED, 1987). The WCED defined sustainability as ‘meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs’ (WCED, 1987, p.8). This report stimulated much discussion regarding definitions of sustainability and sustainable development, and the principles and practices held to be consistent with any one definition.

Responses to the sustainable development concept appear to take one of two main forms (Barbier, 1989). The first is a generalized, normative and

energized response associated with the pursuit of synergisms and balance among environmental impacts, economic development, participatory processes, intergenerational and intragenerational equity, sustainable livelihoods so on. The second, while overlapping with the first, is narrower and involves the development of formal rules for sustainability. Different rules or models are associated with different assumptions regarding what it is that is to be sustained. This has become known as the constant capital perspective.

The first type of response appears to have dominated discussions regarding sustainable tourism development and is reflected in a wide range of government and industry initiative in the ecotourism context, including ecotourism strategies, sustainability indicators, accreditation and so on. Sustainable development provides an organizing concept of the development of such initiatives (de Kadt, 1992). This perspective tends to see the pursuit of sustainable tourism development as involving the balancing of social, economic and environmental goals (Wight, 1993). Discussions and initiatives are also commonly focused around lists of sustainability principles and guidelines. In the first edition of the ***Journal of Sustainable Tourism***, for example, Bramwell and Lane (1993) outline four basic principles of sustainable development and sustainable tourism development: **(i)** holistic planning and strategy making; **(ii)** preservation of essential ecological processes; **(iii)** protection of both human heritage and biodiversity; and **(iv)** development to ensure that productivity can be sustained over the long term for future generations.

Another well known list of principles and guideline is that developed by Tourism concern (1991) in association with Worldwide Fund for Nature (WWF). Each of the ten sustainability principles listed in Box 1.1 is accompanied by list of recommendations.

Associated with the first general principle, for example, are recommendations that the tourism industry should:

- (i)** prevent damage to environmental resources;
- (ii)** act as a force for conservation;
- (iii)** develop and implement sound environmental policies in all areas of tourism;
- (iv)** install appropriate systems to minimize pollution from tourism developments;
- (v)** develop and implement sustainable transport policies;
- (vi)** adhere to precautionary principle;
- (vii)** research establish and abide by the carrying capacity of a destination;
- (viii)** respect the needs and rights of local people;
- (ix)** protect and support the cultural and historical heritage of peoples worldwide;
- (x)** carry out practices in a responsible and ethical manner; and
- (xi)** actively discourage the growth of exploitative tourism

#### Using resources sustainably

The conservation and sustainable use of resources – natural, social and cultural – is crucial and makes long-term business sense

#### Reducing over-consumption and waste

Reducing over-consumption and waste avoids the costs of restoring long-term environmental damage and contributes to the quality of tourism

#### Maintaining biodiversity

Maintaining and promoting natural, social and cultural diversity is essential for long-term sustainable tourism, and creates a resilient base for the industry

#### Integrating tourism into planning

Tourism development which is integrated into a national and local strategic planning framework and which undertakes environmental impact assessment, increases the long – term viability of tourism

#### Supporting local communities

Tourism that supports wide range of local economic activities and which takes environmental costs and values into account, both protect these economies and avoids environmental damage

#### Involving local communities

The full involvement of local communities in the tourism sector not only benefits them and the environment in general but also improves quality of the tourism experience

#### Consulting stakeholders and the public

Consultation between the tourism industry and local communities, organizations and institutions is essential if they are to work alongside each other and resolve potential conflicts of interest

#### Training staff

Staff training which integrates sustainable tourism into work practices, along with recruitment of personnel at all levels, improves the quality of the tourism products

#### Marketing tourism responsibly

Marketing that provides tourists with full and responsible information increases respect for the natural, social and cultural environments of destination areas and enhances customer satisfaction

#### Undertaking research

Ongoing research and monitoring by the industry using effective data collection and analysis is essential to help solve problems and to bring benefits to destinations, the industry and consumers

#### **Box 1.1.** Principles for sustainable tourism (Tourism concern, 1991)..

Two sustainability principles that are commonly highlighted in the ecotourism context are that ecotourism should; (i) support local economies; and (ii) support conservation.

Support for local economies and conservation can take a variety of forms. Potentials economic benefits include foreign exchange earnings, employment, infrastructure development, long term economic stability and economic diversification (Lindberg, 1991; Wight, 1994). To the extent that the revenues obtained through entrance fees, donations and ancillary goods and services (accommodation, souvenirs, etc.) are sufficient in magnitude and earmarked for conservation, they can be used for conservation purposes (Ziffer, 1989). Other ways of supporting conservation include participating in rehabilitation projects, participating in scientific monitoring and removing litter from sites visited. The instrumental effect referred to above is additional. It is recognition of the potential of ecotourism to assist the twin goals of conservation and economic development that has resulted in its popularity as a core development strategy in numerous less developed countries (Honey, 1999).

The extent to which a region can supply locally made products for consumption by the tourism industry depends on the extent of development and the diversity of economic development (Ziffer, 1989).

## **I: Concept of the Study**

In contrast, attempts have also been made to define tourism conceptually from an essentially anthropological perspective. That is, a number of commentators have attempted to inject the meaning or role tourism (to tourists themselves) into the definitional process. For example Nash (1981) considers that 'at the heart of any definition of tourism is the person we conceive to be tourist'. Approaching tourism from the perspective of motivation and touristic practices, he defines tourism as simply the activity undertaken by 'a person at leisure who also travels' (Nash, 1981). Smith develops this theme with a more explicit reference to motivation, a tourist being a 'temporarily leisured person who voluntarily visits a place for the purpose of experiencing a change' (Smith, 1989: 1). Similarly, Graburn (1983) emphasises tourism's functional role in as much as it 'involves for the participants a separation from normal 'instrumental' life and the business of making a living, and offers an entry into another kind of moral state in which mental, expressive, and cultural needs come to the fore'. Tourism is, without doubt, one of the major social and economic phenomena of modern times. Since the early 1900s when, as a social activity, it was largely limited to a privileged minority, the opportunity to participate in tourism has become increasingly widespread. At the same time, distinctions between both tourism destinations and modes of travel as markers of status have become less defined; tourism, in short, has become increasingly democratized (Urry, 1990b: 16). It now also 'accounts for the single largest peaceful movement of people across cultural boundaries in the history of the world' (Lett, 1989: 277), an international movement of people that, in 1999, amounted to over 662 million arrivals (WTO, 2000).

Reflecting this dramatic growth in the level of participation, the so – called 'pleasure periphery' (Turner & Ash, 1975) of tourism has also expanded enormously.

However, tourism is not only a social phenomenon; it is also big business. Certainly, 'mobility, vacations and travel are social victories' (Krippendorff, 1986), yet the ability of ever – increasingly numbers of people to enjoy travel - related experiences has depended, by necessity, upon the myriad of organizations and business that comprise the tourism 'tourism industry'.

Throughout the world, the most compelling reason for pursuing tourism as a development strategy is its alleged positive contribution to the local or national economy. Internationally, tourism represents an important source of foreign exchange earnings; indeed, it has been suggested that the potential contribution to the national balance of payments is the principal reason why governments support tourism development (Oppermann & Chon, 1997:109).

Development theory and tourism have evolved along similar time lines since the Second World War, yet there has been little work connecting the two fields of study (Telfer, 1996a).

This is surprising considering tourism continues to be a growing focus of economic development policy in many regions and nations (Maleki, 1997).

Locations which can develop and market a tourism product, whether it be a special natural, historic or cultural attraction or an urban or rural destination, can take advantage of this market by attracting revenue from visitors (Maleki, 1997).

Tourism is being used to generate foreign exchange, increase employment, attract development capital and promote economic independence (Britton, 1982).

Others have also suggested that tourism can be focus for local economic development tied into the maintenance of the biophysical environment (Wilkinson, 1992).

While it is acknowledged that there is a diversity of approaches and classifications of development theory, for the purposes of this, the main paradigms that have been identified are modernization, dependency, economic neoliberalism and alternative development (Telfer, 1996a).

Tourism research has advanced mainly after the Second World War with the rise of mass tourism (Britton, 1982).

Papers on tourism can be traced to the 1930s and earlier but the bulk of the literature on tourism evolved from the 1960s (Pearce, 1993).

Tourism research initially functioned as an instrument for development with the majority of the research being conducted by planners and economists who worked for organisations including the United Nations, the World Bank and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (Graburn & Jafari, 1991).

There was a belief that tourism created increase in foreign exchange and employment and that tourist expenditure generated a large multiplier effect, which stimulated the local economy (Davis, 1968; Peppelenbosch & Templeman, 1973; Graburn & Jafari, 1991).

Mathieson and Wall (1982) likened the tourism industry to banking and insurance where no tangible product is shipped from one place to another.

More recently, tourism research has embraced the concept of sustainability, which is part of the alternative development paradigm (Butler, 1993a; Pigram, 1990; Wall, 1993a, b; Holden 2000).

Research evaluating alternative types of tourism development, including ecotourism, has become more prevalent (Smith & Eadington, 1992).

Tourism papers, which refer to development, are more often written in terms of the impacts of tourism (Pearce, 1989b).

Authors of tourism literature recognise the importance of tourism as a development strategy but only a small number of studies make any reference to the underlying theoretical constructs of development theory (Pearce, 1989b; Lea, 1988; Britton, 1991; Oppermann, 1993; Woodcock & France, 1994; Harrison, 1994; Ioannides, 1995; Burns, 1999a; Dieke, 1993, 2000).

## **II: Review of Literature**

**Hall** and **Page** (2002) note that social science scholarship on tourism can be traced back to the 1920s in the USA and Europe.

**Airey** finds an example of individual scholarship on tourism dating back to 1891.

Regional and local changes in consumer confidence and travel behaviour and corresponding shifts in travel patterns, such as a reported growth in “staycations” and more local travel, have, in the main, been short term as economic conditions improve in generating regions (Hall, 2010a).

Tourism research does not exist in a vacuum. It is affected not only by the changes in tourism consumption and production, but also wider global events and the shifting priorities and policies of higher education institutions and research funders which have placed stronger emphasis on assessments research output quality, public – private partnerships, and the “entrepreneurial university” (Rhoades and Sluagther, 1997; Deem, 2001; Sluagther and Leslie, 2001; Slaughter and Rhoades, 2004; Paasi, 2005; Hall, 2011c, 2013a).

The constant fluidity and change in their environment has led many researchers to question many of their assumptions about tourism and reassess the relevance of their work, not only in terms of policy and other applications, but also, more fundamentally, to revisit the ways in which the subject is theorized and conceptualized (Gibson, 2008, 2009, 2010; Waitt et al., 2008; Tribe, 2009, 2010; Winter, 2009; Wilson, 2012; Benckendorff and Zehrer, 2013; Hall, 2013a).

Undoubtedly, a substantial amount of government, industry body, and academic research effort has gone into the determination of “supply – side” or industry approaches to the definition of tourism, such

as the development of the Tourism Satellite Accounts (TSAs), which have become significant policy tools for organizations such as World Travel and Tourism Council (Smith 2004,2007; Hall and Lew,2009).

From a production or supply – side perspective, which TSAs seek to measure, the tourism industry may be defined as “the aggregate of all businesses that directly provide goods or services to facilitate business, pleasure, and leisure activities away from the home environment” (Smith, 1988: 183).

However, such production oriented approaches, while useful for comparative economic research and studies of tourism’s economic impact, fail to convey the manner in which the production and consumption of tourism are interwoven, the complexity of tourism labor market structure and even business innovation and strategy (Leiper, 2004; Hall and Williams, 2008; Leiper et al., 2008; Hall and Page, 2010).

An adequate conceptualization of tourism therefore clearly requires that we go beyond the narrowly economic. Most obviously, there is a need to appreciate the relationships between leisure, recreation, and tourism and other social practices, and behaviour.

As Parker (1992: 21) observed, “It is through studying leisure as a whole that the most powerful explanations are developed. This is because society is not divided into sports players, television viewers, tourists and so on. It is the same people who do all these things.”

Furthermore, Featherstone (1987: 115) argues that the tourism phenomenon we study should be socially situated: “The significance and meaning of a particular set of leisure choices ... can only be made intelligible by inscribing them on a map of the class – defined social field of leisure and lifestyle practices in which their meaning and significance

is relationally defined with reference to structured appositions and differences.”

There is therefore considerable value in viewing tourism and recreation as part of a wider conceptualization of leisure (Shaw and Williams, 2002; Hall and Page, 2014).

In figure (TWBCT) dotted lines are used to illustrate that the boundaries between the concepts are “blurred.” Work is differentiated from leisure, with there being two main realms of overlap: first, business travel, which is seen as a work - oriented form of tourism in order to differentiate it from leisure – based travel; and, second, “serious leisure,” which refers to the breakdown between leisure and work pursuits and the development of leisure career paths with respect to hobbies and interest (Stebbins 1979, 1982).

Although the blending or even convergence of work and leisure in a travel context has been recognized with the growth of working holidays, business travel, telecommuting from second homes, and volunteer tourism and gap years. In fact the government policies have often been set to enable such travel because of its perceived economic benefits to destinations areas, including remedying seasonal deficiencies (Williams and Hall, 2002).

In addition to being defined in relation to its production and consumption, tourism is also interpreted as but one, albeit highly significant, dimensions of temporary mobility and circulation (Bell and Ward, 2000; Urry, 2000; Williams and Hall, 2000, 2002; Coles et al., 2004; Cresswell, 2006; Hannam, 2008;).

The merging aspects of leisure, recreation, and tourism research (Crouch, 1999; Hall and Page, 2014), along with the study of migration (Williams and Hall, 2000; Williams et al., 2000; Hall and Williams, 2002;

Janoscka and Haas, 2013), circulation, and mobility (Urry, 2000; Cresswell, 2006) has had a substantial influence on how tourism is perceived as an area of interest in the wider academic community in relation not only to the movement of people, including the mundane mobilities of the everyday (Edensor, 2007), but also the movement of ideas (González, 2011; Paraskevopoulou et al., 2012;). Indeed, it is only really since the turn of the twenty – first century that temporary movements away from the home, such as tourism, but also including activities such as travel for work or education, travel for the health reasons, or even going overseas after finishing university, have begun to substantially catch the awareness of migration researchers (Bell and Ward, 2000).

Although the influence of the “mobilities paradigm” has been relatively limited within studies, it nevertheless has substantial implications for areas such as ethnicity, identity (Lugosi, 2014), innovation (Paraskevopoulou et al., a multiple – dwelling (Muller, 2006; Pitkanen, 2008 ;).

Yet it is increasingly evident to those seeking wider perspectives on tourism that supposedly “different” forms of mobility are highly interrelated. Thus, the inclusion of same day travel “excursionists” within technical definitions of tourism makes the division between recreation and tourism even more arbitrary (UN and UNWTO, 2007). Given innovations in transport technology, same – day travel compression is becoming increasingly important at widening spatial scales, an exemplification of “space – time compression” in tourism (Hall, 2005).

This emphasizes the need for those interested in tourism to address the arbitrary boundaries between tourism and leisure, and tourism and migration. Tourism constitutes just one form leisure oriented temporary mobility, being shaped by and shaping it.

While stressing the need to conceptualize tourism in terms of mobility, Flavell (2001: 391-392) reminds us that there is also a need “to assess really the extent or nature of movement, or indeed even see it sometimes, you have in fact to spend a lot of the time studying things that stand still: the borders, institution and territories of nation states; the sediment ‘home’ cultures of people that do not move.” This directs our attention to the nonmobile.

Although there is a well- established literature on leisure constraints (e.g. Nyaupane and Andereck, 2008) such notions have been relatively little applied to tourism (Shaw and Williams, 2002; Cole and Morgan, 2010; Hall, 2010b), with the possible exception of discussion of seasonality (Hinch and Jackson, 2000; Baum and Lundtrop, 2001) and a resurgence of interest in social and economic access issues in tourism. Indeed, it could be argued that for much “mainstream” business research tourism, issues of equity and rights of access are never considered and there often appears to be an implicit assumption that everyone can travel, has a car, and/or has a cell phone (Hall, 2010b).

Nevertheless, geographers have long recognized that a basic precondition for tourism mobility is that absences from the stations of the daily world are for certain periods socially and institutionally sanctioned.

The opportunity to travel has always depended on the right to be absent from home and work, with such rights having historically been reserved for very few groups in the (usually male) population (Frandsberg, 1998). Indeed, Hagerstrand (1984), describing the breakaway from the space – time prism of everyday life that tourism represents, refers to this as an “escape from the cage of tourist.” Similarly, the growing recognition of the role of spatial practice, with Giddens (1984: xxv) observing, “Time –space ‘fixity’ also means social fixity; the substantially ‘given’ character of the

milieu of day – to – day life interlaces with routine and is deeply influential in the contours of institutional reproduction.”

However, the embeddedness of tourism in modern social and economic practices has created a significance space for the social science research which may not only be of relevance for tourism itself but for a deeper understanding of the everyday as well as wider patterns of mobility. Nevertheless, the notion of tourism is open to multiple conceptualizations that rest on the ontological, epistemological, and paradigmatic assumptions of the viewer (Ayikoru, 2009; Tribe, 2009; Hall, 2011d; Lemelin et al., 2011). This means that the conceptualization of tourism remains open to substantial contestation that may almost seem at odds with a lay understanding of what tourism represents.

Before we proceed further with the contested notions of how tourism should be conceptualized, it should be noted that some commentators even questions the utility of tourism as a concept.

We will begin by interrogating the very category of “tourism”. Is there such an entity? Does term serve to demarcate a usefully distinct sphere of social practice? Where does end and leisure or hobbying and strolling begin? Tourism cultures is based on the view that tourism is a term that is waiting to be deconstructed. Or as Marx might have said it is a chaotic conception, including within it too wide a range of disparate phenomenon .... It embraces so many different notions that it is hardly useful as a term of social science, although this is paradoxical since Tourism Studies is currently being rapidly institutionalized within much of the academy. (Rojek and Urry, 1997: 1)

## **Defining Tourism**

Such has been the growth and spread of tourism over recent decades that it is now 'so widespread and ubiquitous ...that there are scarcely people left in the world who would not recognize a tourist immediately' (Cohen, 1974). However, 'tourism' remains a term that is subject to diverse interpretation, with a wide variety of definitions and descriptions proposed in the literature. This reflects, in part, the multidisciplinary nature of the topic and, in a part, the 'abstract nature of the concept of tourism' (Burns & Holden, 1995:5).

To complicate matters further, there is no single definition of the 'tourist'. In 1800, Samuel Pegge wrote in a book on new English usage that, simply, 'a traveller is now – a – days called a Tour – ist' (cited in Buzard, 1993:1), although there is some debate as to when the word tourist was first used. Some attribute the origin of the term Stendhal in the early 1800s (Feifer, 1985), whilst others suggest a number of different sources and dated (Theobald, 1994). Nevertheless, there now exist a diverse array of definitions and taxonomies of tourists, many of which are *etic*, being structures according to the specific perspective of the researcher.

Despite these difficulties, however, it is important to establish a working definition of tourism as the activity or process that allegedly acts as a catalyst of development. As a starting point, Chambers English dictionary refers to tourism as 'the activities of tourist *and* those who cater for them' (emphasis added), immediately reflecting the dichotomy between tourism as a social activity and tourism as an industry which enables and facilitates participation in that activity. In a similar vein, Burkhart and Medlik (1981: 41-3) identify two main groups or classifications of tourism definitions:

- (a) **Technical definitions.** Technical definitions of tourism attempt to identify different types of tourist and different tourism activities, normally for statistical or legislative purposes. The first such definition, proposed by the League of Nations in 1937, defined a tourist as someone who travels for 24 hours or more outside their normal country of residence. It included those travelling for business in addition to pleasure, health or other purposes, and it also introduced the 'excursionist' as someone who stays in a definition for less than 24 hours. A similar definition, though resorting to the more general description of 'visitor', was produced by the United Nations Conference on Travel and Tourism in 1963. It states that a visitor is 'any person visiting country other than that in which he [sic] has his usual place of residence, for any reason other than following an occupation remunerated from within the country visited', a visitor being either a tourist staying overnight or an excursionist on a day visit. This remains the basis of definitions of tourism adopted, for example, by the WTO, and is used primarily for the quantitative measurement of tourist traffic.
- (b) **Conceptual definitions.** In contrast, attempts have also been made to define tourism conceptually from an essentially anthropological perspective. That is, a number of commentators have attempted to inject the meaning or role tourism (to tourists themselves) into the definitional process. For example Nash (1981) considers that 'at the heart of any definition of tourism is the person we conceive to be tourist'. Approaching tourism from the perspective of motivation and touristic practices, he defines tourism as simply the activity undertaken by 'a person at leisure who also travels' (Nash, 1981). Smith develops this theme with a more explicit reference to motivation, a tourist being a 'temporarily leisured person who voluntarily visits a place for the purpose of

experiencing a change' (Smith, 1989: 1). Similarly, Graburn (1983) emphasises tourism's functional role in as much as it 'involves for the participants a separation from normal 'instrumental' life and the business of making a living, and offers an entry into another kind of moral state in which mental, expressive, and cultural needs come to the fore'.

Tourism is, without doubt, one of the major social and economic phenomena of modern times. Since the early 1900s when, as a social activity, it was largely limited to a privileged minority, the opportunity to participate in tourism has become increasingly widespread. At the same time, distinctions between both tourism destinations and modes of travel as markers of status have become less defined; tourism, in short, has become increasingly democratized (Urry, 1990b: 16). It now also 'accounts for the single largest peaceful movement of people across cultural boundaries in the history of the world' (Lett, 1989: 277), an international movement of people that, in 1999, amounted to over 662 million arrivals (WTO, 2000).

Reflecting this dramatic growth in the level of participation, the so – called 'pleasure periphery' (Turner & Ash, 1975) of tourism has also expanded enormously.

However, tourism is not only a social phenomenon; it is also big business. Certainly, 'mobility, vacations and travel are social victories' (Krippendorff, 1986), yet the ability of ever – increasingly numbers of people to enjoy travel - related experiences has depended, by necessity, upon the myriad of organizations and business that comprise the tourism 'tourism industry'.

Throughout the world, the most compelling reason for pursuing tourism as a development strategy is its alleged positive contribution to the local or national economy. Internationally, tourism represents an important

source of foreign exchange earnings; indeed, it has been suggested that the potential contribution to the national balance of payments is the principal reason why governments support tourism development (Oppermann & Chon, 1997:109).

Development theory and tourism have evolved along similar time lines since the Second World War, yet there has been little work connecting the two fields of study (Telfer, 1996a).

This is surprising considering tourism continues to be a growing focus of economic development policy in many regions and nations (Maleki, 1997).

Locations which can develop and market a tourism product, whether it be a special natural, historic or cultural attraction or an urban or rural destination, can take advantage of this market by attracting revenue from visitors (Maleki, 1997).

Tourism is being used to generate foreign exchange, increase employment, attract development capital and promote economic independence (Britton, 1982).

Others have also suggested that tourism can be focus for local economic development tied into the maintenance of the biophysical environment (Wilkinson, 1992).

While it is acknowledged that there is a diversity of approaches and classifications of development theory, for the purposes of this, the main paradigms that have been identified are modernization, dependency, economic neoliberalism and alternative development (Telfer, 1996a).

Tourism research has advanced mainly after the Second World War with the rise of mass tourism (Britton, 1982).

Papers on tourism can be traced to the 1930s and earlier but the bulk of the literature on tourism evolved from the 1960s (Pearce, 1993).

Tourism research initially functioned as an instrument for development with the majority of the research being conducted by planners and economists who worked for organisations including the United Nations, the World Bank and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (Graburn & Jafari, 1991).

There was a belief that tourism created increase in foreign exchange and employment and that tourist expenditure generated a large multiplier effect, which stimulated the local economy (Davis, 1968; Peppelenbosch & Templeman, 1973; Graburn & Jafari, 1991).

Mathieson and Wall (1982) likened the tourism industry to banking and insurance where no tangible product is shipped from one place to another.

More recently, tourism research has embraced the concept of sustainability, which is part of the alternative development paradigm (Butler, 1993a; Pigram, 1990; Wall, 1993a, b; Holden 2000).

Research evaluating alternative types of tourism development, including ecotourism, has become more prevalent (Smith & Eadington, 1992).

Tourism papers, which refer to development, are more often written in terms of the impacts of tourism (Pearce, 1989b).

Authors of tourism literature recognise the importance of tourism as a development strategy but only a small number of studies make any reference to the underlying theoretical constructs of development theory (Pearce, 1989b; Lea, 1988; Britton, 1991; Oppermann, 1993; Woodcock & France, 1994; Harrison, 1994; Ioannides, 1995; Burns, 1999a; Dieke, 1993, 2000).

### **III: Aim & Objectives**

Following the above the overall objective of the study should be to promote the creation of a practical and operational framework to meet the demand of Uttarakhand's next generation of value added, high quality tourism by:

- Improving the physical and socio-economic environment of the state in general and designated tourism zones in particular.
- Identifying new and unique tourist products based on existing resources and an assessment of development trends in the international and domestic tourism markets and provision of strategic marketing policies and initiatives to meet these trends.
- Identifying a comprehensive but simple planning and development control system for tourism development areas based on enhancing the function and capacity of the existing planning system and its institutional set up.
- Introduction of Development Briefs for specific development proposals in sensitive environments as a tool for sustainable development and a prerequisite for conversion of land.
- Review of the existing institutional framework for tourism development in sensitive areas and suggesting instruments enabling the tourism administration together other stakeholders to exercise and maintain proper control over tourism facility development in such areas.
- Improving HRD capacity at the central and local level whilst simultaneously protecting the interests of local communities, strengthening their involvement in all sorts of tourism related activities.

The study envisages the creation of a future demand driven tourism sector in Uttarakhand that is balanced between:

- The development of unique priority destinations for different market segments in suitable and attractive development nodes of the tourism zones and designed to attract both local and foreign private investments including PPP's, and
- A more widely distributed, locally owned but nationally and internationally linked community driven tourism based on nature, cultural, adventure and ecotourism resources.

## **Employment, Skills and Rural Transformation**

- Skills and Employability
- Employment: Trends and Measures
- Rural Transformation: Issues and Challenges
- Rural Infrastructure & Transportation
- Technology for Rural Transformation
- Demographic Change in Rural Areas
- Panchayati Raj Institutions: Assessment and Effectiveness.

## **Health and Environment**

- Environmental Problems, Causes and Remedies
- Climate Change
- Environmental Hazards and Disease Burden
- Clean India Initiative (Swatch Bharat)
- Clean Technology and Environment for Better Health
- Health Care for All: Accessibility and Affordability Issues

- Health Care Delivery and Resources
- Rural Health and Hygiene
- Disaster: Implications, Management and Health Issues
- Pollution, Congestion and Quality of Life.

## **Governance, Innovation and Public Policy**

- Governance: Status at National and State Levels
- Good Governance: Dimensions and Public Welfare
- E-Governance and Smart Governance: Dimensions, Experiences and Challenges
- Innovation, Knowledge and Governance in Public Policy
- Governance and Technology
- Corporate Governance: Trends, Issues and Policy
- Global Governance and India

## **Science and Education**

Science and Society: Developments and Coexistence

- Scientific Society: Past, Present and Future
- Scientific Temperament and Social Development
- Access, Equity & Quality in Higher Education
- Building World Class Educational Institutions: Issues & Challenges
- Leadership & Institution Building
- Standard Setting for Educational Institutions

- Knowledge & Innovation Governance in India
- Resources for Research & Development
- Digital Learning: Developments and their Impact
- Education, Skills and Employment

#### **IV: SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

Tourism is an elective sector of generating profit income; a sustainable eco-tourism development approach in the policy and planning of modern State, Uttarakhand, can lead to more prospects and community empowerment.

Tourism is a phenomenon of adversity; it creates vast distinctions of human empowerment. It generates resources which affects human development in the society and its behaviour towards its sources of life i.e. the land, water, air, forest, wildlife etc. which creates a balance to fulfill the demand and supply of the ecology of the environment, which alters with very frequent disturbance of natural and man-made activities and is very fragile in nature.

The demand for an ecotourism & its sustainable development helps/ leads, the state to create, and in generating more economic stability towards the growth of the state – end to the nation.

This Himalayan state is a source of rich bio-diversity which creates a balance of life in the northern plains of India by keeping a supply of evergreen drainage system to cater the seeds of grain and its seasonal demand.

As a modern state it opens various aspects of socio-cultural possibilities, a newly formed state is much well-known for its pilgrimage and its natural surroundings, since long hundred years.

As tourism is a multidisciplinary activity, it intake/offers multiple opportunities to the stakeholders, as well as the people who belong' to the preferred destination, where tourism activities can be performed with great skill and expertise. Tourism on the other side provides numerous open end possibilities to recreate the phenomenon of developed nation. Where great emphasis to be given on the environment impact (Montreal Protocol, 16 September, 1987), which is the major life source of this Himalayan state of Uttarakhand.

A study on ecotourism planning and sustainable tourism development approach can uplift the multiple disciplinary actions regarding the sustainable development of the state, as well as the impact of the sustainable tourism development, helps the community oriented people to come forward towards the growth and betterment of their livelihoods in the coming decades, which inversely replicated the man-power development programmer in a more sensible manner, which can create and affect the society of the next generation, which are as same as to be have clean water and fresh air to breathe in their leisure time of their travel from one destination to another.

## **CHAPTER - II**

### **METHODOLOGICAL PROCEDURE OF THE STUDY**

The study has various measurement tools and techniques that wide scope its representation in its uses and the analysis i.e.

1. Chi - Square test.
2. Karl Pearson coefficient of correlation.
3. Likert test.
4. t – Test.
5. f – Test.
6. q – Test.
7. Cumulative frequency.
8. ANOVA.
9. ANOCOVA.
10. Continuous systematic random sampling.
11. Empirical.
12. Benjamin Bloom Taxonomy, 1956.
13. Different Scaling Techniques.
14. Inductive approach, Holistic approach.
15. Quantitative analysis.
16. Flow diagram.

## **I: Data Collection, Processing and Analysis**

### **Issues**

Disciplines and fields of study change over time, and areas of specialization come and go depending on intrinsic and extrinsic factors. For example, issues such as sustainability or safety and security rise or fall on the tourism agenda of academics, as well as government, in response to external factors such as terrorism or environmental concerns, as well as on the availability of specific funding opportunities. There are also shifts in research priorities arising out of debates in tourism studies. And in surrounding areas of study and established disciplines. Illustrate some of the changing concerns within tourism studies as indicated by a keyword search of journals abstracted in the **Scopus database**. This is necessarily selective, and prone to misinterpretations that are intrinsic to such scanning as well as the inherent characteristics and deficiencies of the database. However, they do provide insights into the changing in tourism research.

Highlights the significance of the more applied and business concerns in tourism research, with considerable attention being given to management, which is referred to as a term in almost 25 % of publications, as well as strategy and the economy. Marketing is a term used in a little under 10% of publications, while the Internet is a rapidly growing area of research output, although as Bodker and Munar point out, much of this writing is not very critical. Planning and policy are also a focus of more applied tourism research but it is interesting to note Jenkins, Hall and Mkono's comments that it remains relatively under theorized as a topic and often with little as a topic and often with little connection to the policy studies (Dredge and Jenkins, 2011). A further

item to note is the extent to which reference to the role of government as well as public – private relationships in increasingly being contextualized within the concept of governance (Dinica, 2009; Bramwell 2010, 2011; Hall, 2011a, 2011b, 2013b; Hultman and Hall, 2012. This perhaps reflects recognition in tourism studies not only of the changing role of the state but also of broader debates as to how the state should intervene to achieve planning and policy goals (Zapata and Hall, 2012), including with respect to longstanding concerns in tourism as to its short – and long – term impacts (Hall and Lew, 2009), the role of destination communities in decision – making process (Zapata et al., 2011b). The tourism economics field has a specialist journal, *Tourism Economics*, with economics analyses also being significant in a number of other journals. Studies of economic impacts appear to dominate while the significance of the subject of economic evaluation appears to ebb and flow. Nevertheless, in terms of sheer volume the economic analysis of tourism does not appear any greater than studies of the physical environment in the main journals, although there are considerably more economically oriented studies than those concerned with the cultural turn.

Reflects some of the fundamental concerns of geographers, and illustrates the relative importance of place and environment as key concepts in tourism research, although this analysis does not distinguish between geographers and nongeographers as authors of these articles. The most obvious feature of this table is the large number of articles that can be classified as concerned with the “environment.” Arguably, this may be a function of the appearance of the journals such as *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* and *Journal of Ecotourism* rather than necessarily an increase in overall interest in the subject area. Even the terms “sustainability” and “sustainable tourism” occur in fewer than 5% of all publications in the Scopus database. Climate change and biodiversity are areas of growing importance in relation to tourism although much of this

is being published outside of tourism journals. In contrast, specific concerns with the space and spatially have only received limited attention, perhaps reflecting the relative shift away from positivism. But there has been significant growth in geographical research on tourism since 1998, which may possibly be attributed to the establishment of the journal *Tourism Geographies*. Interestingly, an analytical tool such as geographical information system (GIS), which is attracting increased attention from a number of social science disciplines other than geography, has had only limited reference in tourism journals although it has considerable potential for tourism research, including quantitative critical approaches (Hall, 2012).

The idea of sustainability has been a major research theme in tourism studies and was eagerly adopted from the late 1980s onwards as a focal point for tourism publications. Indicates the impact of several other new themes in the tourism studies literature as well as the persistence of more established themes. Perhaps surprisingly, other concepts that have been significant in the broader social sciences, such as post colonialism, post modernity and globalization (e.g. Cooper and Wahab, 2001; Hall, 2005; and post modernism is also an explicit theme in the contents of many of the articles on heritage. But they have not become core concepts in tourism, although extremely significant for feminist and post structuralist “cultural” approaches to tourism appear as a relatively marginal topic in tourism, appear as relatively marginal topic in tourism journals (Aitchison, 2006). It is also interesting to note that while Urry’s (1990) work on the tourism gaze is widely cited, it is actually not a focal point of many relatively many publications, a situation also similar to Butler’s (1980) work on the tourism area life cycle. Ethnic tourism and ethnicity have a higher profile, in part because of interest in cultural tourism and – as with the role of heritage – as an important object of tourism studies.

Such studies of key terms in abstracts can only provide a partial picture of the relative significance of particular issues in tourism research. As already noted, much research is published outside the immediate realm of tourism, hospitality, leisure and recreation journals, while this analysis also excludes the enormous amount of material published in books, whether they be authored or edited contributions.

Nevertheless such snapshots do help illustrate some of the rich diversity of subject matter that exists in tourism and which is also represented in the contributions to the present volume.

As emphasized, this volume does not aim to determine whether tourism studies are a discipline or not. Rather it aims to explore some of the key themes in the substantial field of research and scholarship on tourism.

The study of tourism now occupies a significant academic space in the same way that tourism as an industry and as a social practice occupies significant economic and socio - cultural spaces. Yet its boundaries are constantly changing and will continue to change in light of internal discourses, engagement with debates across boundaries, and exogenous factors. For good and bad it is also almost inevitable that, given how academic institutions function in capitalist societies, industry and government agencies (including research funding) will continue to shape the agenda of tourism research, alongside the tradition of critical social and theoretical social scientific enquiry (Hall, 2011c, 2013a. These permeable boundaries and the spaces within them lie at the heart of this work. The present volume is therefore a snapshot of some of the dominant discourses in the social science of tourism is a diverse field, in terms of its concerns, theories, and methodologies. But they also demonstrate that it is characterized by substantive debate and continuing innovation, and that it also engaged in some of the major debates that characterize social science and, in the case of research on

climate and environmental change, are reaching across to natural science. Indeed, the continued growth of tourism, as well as recognition of its role in contemporary society, environment, and economic development, can only serve to reinforce the importance of tourism as a field of study.

## **PERSPECTIVES OF TOURISM**

Tourism studies is a meeting ground, if not a melting pot, for competing theoretical and methodological perspectives. The contributes to its diversity, compared to many individual disciplines, but is also a source of discord, which at it best leads to creativity and conservation, and at its worst results in posturing whereby different perspectives talk not with each other, but at each other. This meeting ground of competing, and contested, perspectives constitutes a shifting set of overlapping borders which fluctuate over time in response broader scientific paradigmatic shifts, exogenous economic, political, and social agenda changes, and the dynamics of academic communities. This part of the brings together some – but certainly not all – of these perspectives, reflecting on recent theoretical and methodological shifts, which have brought about a degree of convergence among them. Methodologically this evident in the way that mixed methods have become the new methodological orthodoxy, as well as the by the increasing reflexivity has led several of these approaches to seek interconnecting bridges.

Pearce outlines how psychology researchers have started to look beyond rational decision – making models, while Crang writes of the need for need methodologies to study movement, that reach out to the mobilities approach. However, this should not be seen as heralding a sustained convergence of perspectives because, as the authors in this part make clear, there are substantial and enduring differences in the ways in

which different perspectives understood, conceptualize, and research tourism.

Positivism has long roots in tourism, and still holds sway in particular subfields, notably the economics and the psychology of tourism. Grounded in the beliefs that the world has an out – there, and measurable character, it is characteristic, it is characterized, by strongly deductive theoretical approaches and increasingly sophisticated modeling, driven both by developments in statistics and by new technologies offering new means of harvesting and analyzing data.

The latter include Global Positioning System (GPS) that offer new ways of tracking mobility, as well as cell phones, and digital photography. The move towards more sophisticated modeling is especially evident in demand – side studies (Song and Li, 2008), but there have also been significant advances in the analysis of spatial flows. There is a long – established field of inquiry, dating back to, for example, the work of Greer and Wall (1979) on distance decay effects, but it has attracted renewed interest in recent years, leastways among a relatively small group of researchers.

McKercher and Zoltan's contribution to this part outlines the historical trajectory of spatial analyses of tourism, and points to significant advances being made from the 1990s in identifying different spatial patterns in trips to multiple destinations. In some ways a descriptive approach, it does open up the way to modeling the determinants of these patterns, and identifies underlying spatial structures that may not be observable at first sight because of the effects of “noisy data;” that is, of not being able to see the wood for the trees in what is highly complex reality. Most of the earlier research was at the interdestination scale because of data availability, but the authors discuss how new technologies have enabled researchers to analyze intradestination spatial

movements. **(See also Lew and McKercher, 2006).** In a sense, they are building on the work of earlier researchers who relied on diaries to record mobility (for example, Thornton et al., 1997) but the new technologies bring much higher levels of precision, while also posing new challenges in how to manage, analyze, and classify the large data sets that are generated.

Behavioralist approaches developed as a reaction to what can be described as “classical positivism,” which tended to focus on relatively simple and deterministic modeling approaches and on aggregate patterns. In essence, these are attempts to more accurately record and analyze individual behavior and, within tourism, it has been widely adopted, particularly in studies of individual decision making, preferences, behavior, and motivations. The focus has mainly been on the tourist but there is also research within this tradition on local residents and entrepreneurs, among others. It is especially influential in areas of management and marketing studies, but is in fact widely represented in tourism research. While the earlier research in this field tended to focus mainly on single sources or motivations, such as authenticity, or simplistic decision – making models, there has seen a shift over time to more complex, multicausal, and multidimensional approaches. One of the most significant shifts has been to understanding the individual tourist trip in context of the travel career ladder, an approach which, although criticized for its oversimplification initially, has subsequently been revised and continues to provide further opportunities for fruitful research (Pearce and Lee, 2005).

Pearce’s contribution to how the behavioralist approach has sought to break out of its earlier narrowly positivist approach, to engage more with the complexities of individual values and motivations. Of particular note are his observations that researchers are beginning to consider how individuals seek to maximize their overall wellbeing, so that their

decision making is seen as being informed by wider goals relating to, for example, respect, status, and zest. Interestingly, the latter of these resonates with Crang's comment that theories in the cultural perspectives approach are poorly equipped to engage with the joy and exuberance of tourism experiences. Essentially, however, a considerable gulf still exists between the cultural and behaviorist approaches, as latter remain largely wedded to rationalist decision – making models, even if they increasingly examine the actual heuristics that individuals utilize in making decisions. In a similar vein, Pearce sees the future as being about refining existing core research competences, for example through more sophisticated design of how questions are asked, and via qualitative, although still positive, psychology approaches (Filep and Greenacre, 2007). This includes the analysis of visual stimuli (Ye and Tussyadiah, 2011), although again the approach is very different to the deeply cultural approach adopted by Scarles.

Political economy perspectives represented a very reaction to the limitations of positivism, and made a significant early impact on tourism studies, understandably in view of tourism's concerns with relationships between more and less developed economies, and with dependency relationships. There were notable early contributions by Kadt (1979), focusing on dependency relationships, followed by Britton's (1991) influential and strongly theoretical approach drawing more on the work of urban and social theorists. Harrison was another relatively early contributor to these debates, especially in the context of development issues, and his more recent views are expounded. This is an approach which, above all, address issues of power and capitalist reproduction, examining not only how tourism is influenced by these, but also how it shapes them.

Mosedale provides an overview of the trajectory of the political economy approach in tourism by focusing on two particular strands. One is the

influence of regulation, which centers on the nature of, and contradictions between, means of accumulation and modes of regulation, an approach that has been extensively discussed in Shaw and Williams (2004). Regulation theory offers a relatively rounded view of the relationship between the political and the economic, and provides an analytical framework for understanding both how tourism differs across national states and how recent changes such as neoliberalism side than the regulation side, and advocates for more research on governance in order to redress this. This links to the value of Jessop's (2004) cultural political economy, a framework which allows materialist to be combined with the understanding of how competing discourses influence development. This is another expression of bridge building between perspectives, specifically to the cultural approach. It is clear that here is still a long way to go in developing a political economy of tourism, and the need for this is underlined by the ways in which neoliberalism, and the 2008 economics crisis, have challenged crisis, have challenged how tourism services are produced and socially distributed.

While political economy approaches have made a significant contribution to tourism studies, the most significant influence in recent years has been postmodernism. Rather, it is constituted of a set of competing theories, defined above all in terms of their reaction to the limitations of modernism; that is, as a critique of supposed objectivity, the rationally of human decision making, and simple, discrete categorization of phenomenon (Harvey; 1985) still provides one of the most useful insights into the differences between modernism and postmodernism. In the schematic differences outlined by Hassan, it is possible to see many of the key concepts or ideas which have informed large areas of research in the sociology, anthropology, and cultural geography of tourism, including play as opposed to purpose, chance as opposed to design, performance as opposed to finished work, deconstruction as opposed to totalization,

internext as opposed to boundary, combination as opposed to selection, rhizome as opposed to root, trace as opposed to cause, and indeterminacy as opposed to determinacy. While many of the earlier writers on the sociology/anthropology of tourism, such as Cohen (1979) and Graburn (1976), were influenced by postmodernism, its influence has grown substantially through its various transformations in recent years, ranging from those who have fully engaged with this approach, such as Coleman and Crang (2002), to those who have attempted to introduce a “cultural turn” into areas such the economic analysis of tourism.

The underlying influence of the postmodernism can be seen in this section in Crang’s exploration of some of the challenges and gaps in the cultural geographies of tourism, arguing that tourism is not only underpinned by cultural values, in the forms of desires and imaginings, but is also enacted through various cultural practices that act as signifiers. He emphasizes that tourism is a culture that requires unpacking (rather than something that impacts on cultures), especially in how it mobilizes dreams and fantasies (Lofgren, 1999). But he goes further and argues for the need to pay more attention to mass tourism as a cultural system, neglected in part because of the way in which class informs what is considered by researchers to be interesting cultures. Moreover, he argues for the need to shift our research focus from symbolic meaning and discourses, to the study of the everyday performance and embodiment of tourism. Another key arguments is the importance of understanding the tourist and the destination as being mutually and dynamically constituted; they change each other, an arguments that distant but more nuanced echoes of the notion of the travel career ladder, at least in terms of the changing tourist. He also emphasizes the importance of the visual while calling for attention to be given to all aspects of tourists’ embodied experiences. Finally, reflecting

the need for the more attention on action as opposed to symbols, Crang argues for the research on the experiences of the mobility, which reaches across to the mobilities perspective.

The mobilities perspectives, which are particularly associated with the work of John Urry (2007), developed in response to what was seen as an unduly static approach in sociology that failed to capture the importance of different forms of mobilities. For tourism studies, it provided a source of theoretical and methodological enrichment, which included the connection of tourism mobilities with a range of other mobilities, ranging across different forms of the corporeal or human, to the mobilities of knowledge, images and capital. This opened up ways of relocating many aspects of tourism studies in a broader social literature, and reconnecting them to the analysis of everyday activities. An important element of this is the understanding of tourism as constituting both the banal and the exotic, as captured in Larsen et al.'s (2007) study of the different forms of mobility that young professionals engage in; visiting friends and family, for example, represents an important and under researched theme in this. This has given rise to some concern that mobilities research represents the "elephant in the room" for the tourism studies, in the sense that the latter has failed to recognize the "potential" that this larger, more embracing field of research has to displace tourism as a distinctive field of enquiry. This is not a view that the editors share, for the tourism involves more than study of mobilities and has sufficient critical mass for the two to coexist in a fertile interrelationship, provided that tourism continues to rise to its theoretical and methodological challenges, such as those outlined by the authors on perspectives.

Hannam provides an overview of many of the connections between tourism and mobilities, and clearly understands that there is a blurring of the borders between these areas of research, but a blurring which is full of fruitful promise rather than threats to tourism. He pays particular

attention to the connection between tourism and other forms of mobilities, for example to how the previously cited mobility of ideas and images shape tourism and tourist travel, but also how these tourism experiences in turn influence other forms of mobilities. In a way, this is an extension, albeit a substantial one, in terms of both remit and theoretical perspectives between migration and tourism. Interestingly, in his reflections on the methodology, drawing on La and Urry (2004), Hannam argues for the need for enhanced social science methods to deal with fleeting, the in between, the chaotic, and the complex inter mixture of mobilities, and this meets half way the bridge building that Crang called for in the cultural geographies of tourism.

Finally, there has been the emergence in recent years of what become known as the critical perspectives approach. This is similar to postmodernism in the sense that it is defined in part in terms of what it opposes, which in this case are the conventional approaches both to tourism research and to engaging with tourism stakeholders (Ateljevic et al., 2007). This is a very welcome addition to tourism studies, as a voice that calls for critical reflection and addressing the often half submerged, but always profoundly powerful, social cleavages that characterize all societies. In many senses it is not particularly new, of course, as political economic perspectives originated in Marxian critiques of the conflicts between capital and labor, while the voices of the Global South ere themselves influential in shaping much of the literature about dependency theories (Prebisch, 1950). There is also considerable overlap with cultural approaches in the focus on race, gender, education, religion, and discourses and also, for example, the Crang's call for cultural geography researchers to question their focus on the exotic, and often elitist, rather than the mass experiences of tourism. Nevertheless, the critical turn adds urgency to critical reflection, and the call for more participatory research (Pritchard et al., 2011) – again not a new

methodology – is a welcome call to move from theorizing the world to contributing to changing it.

Higgins – Desbiolles and Whyte review the emergence of critical perspectives on tourism, which was partly as a response to the excesses of boosterism, in context of the long – but not untroubled – economic boom in the developed world in the third quarter of the twentieth century. Academics were not the only group to respond to these boosterist articulations of tourism development, with individual communities and nongovernmental organizations also offering their own, frequently penetrating critiques. The authors review the development of critical studies in this context, and emphasize the need for researchers not to lose sight of structural injustices when addressing the inequities of tourism (Bianchi, 2009), not so much as an academic objective but so as to benefit those living at the sharp end of tourism development.

To conclude, it needs to be emphasized that, in the space available for this volume and to the individual authors, we have only been able to capture some of the more important perspectives on tourism and tourism research. These indicate some of the journeys made, and the journeys that still await tourism researchers. They may wish to make that journey as discrete disciplinary communities of researchers, united by shared methodologies and distinctive theories, but there is also evidence of tentative bridge building that can be lead to fruitful engagement among these competing perspectives in the tourism arena.

## **II: Tools and Techniques**

Traditional approach for legal research was centric to doctrinal method; even today doctrinal method is first choice of the researchers in Tourism schools. The domain of doctrinal research mostly contain following technique in data collection as –

### **Library Research**

Legal theories, principles and position of Tourism may be easily referred by sitting in the library. Contents of the documents are self sufficient to be shown as good evidence of what law is on any issue of Tourism and society, explanations, and object of law can be referred by bare reading of texts. That is why library research is most convenient way of data collection. Sources of data available within library are -Books, Journals, Reporters, Magazines, News Papers, Juristic work, Reports of (Seminar, conferences, symposiums, legislative, judicial and administrative proceedings), literature containing factual & 3Supra 1.

Philosophical information. Articles, Research papers, Thesis and Dissertations, Reports of Commissions, Court judgments and Case commentaries etc. General source materials relating to problem, their background knowledge and knowledge of previous findings in similar cases is easily read in numerable available material in the library. Use of library is must to law researchers. He must seek proper guidance and aids which would facilitate him to know where to locate and how to look into the documents for searching relevant texts. Because, a stranger approach is very time consuming, frustrating and researcher get disinterested in further reading. Therefore, a systematic approach and scientific methods available in library science are very useful in success of library research. Researcher, interested in using library technique firstly, search basic key terms in body of contents, subject index and

glossary provided in the text sources. Use of e-library is a modern and advance culture of legal research which is more efficient way to search on research material by pushing your fingers on computer, Laptop and smart phones. Web source and print source are the basics to build up library researches.

### **Participation**

Participation technique is another common pattern of data collection in doctrinal as well as in empirical researches. Doctrinal studies can be performed by using either Library, participation or both techniques. The objective of Doctrinal-participative approach is to obtain knowledge by participating in any activity where relevant information may be obtained from verbal statements and presentations made by the persons credible for such information as expert, experienced or authoritative, not from the printing or web materials. It may be obtained by participations in Lectures, Seminars, Conferences, and Proceedings of (Academic, Administrative, Judicial and Legislative) are some common sources of data collection. Here the objective of participation for doctrinal research is only to receive information given by credible person relevant to study not to observe and analyze the source of information, like observation of source under empirical method. Participation for data collection may be face to face or by modern means of technology i.e., video conferencing, Television, means of mass media and other means of communications.

### **Tools and Techniques for Data Collection in Empirical Research**

Techniques used in empirical legal researches are the same as used in other social science streams. Various techniques of data collection exist in social science researches with their specific tools. A systematic procedure or formula by which a complex or scientific task is

accomplished. Techniques are the ways of gathering data, whereas tool refers to the instrument to be used in observing the method. The choice of the one or the other technique depends upon several factors like nature of the study; unit of inquiry; nature of the sample to be drawn; the standard of the representativeness

Required; scale of the survey; the literacy levels of the respondents; the nature of the information required; availability of the human resources etc.

The following are the important techniques used in empirical research-

- (i) Observation
- (ii) Interview
- (iii) Questionnaire
- (iv) Case Study
- (v) Survey
- (vi) Scaling

### **Observation Technique**

Observation method of data collection deals with the recording of behavior of the respondents or sampling units. In this technique researcher has to observe the required phenomenon by himself. By involving himself, researcher will be able to keep his eye on the entire activity for the accurate data and certain direct inferences. Observation provides an opportunity for empirical study that is first hands collection of facts and there is scientific precision in this method as facts and related information is collected in a natural situation. From observation, researcher can very well relate cause and effect relationship.<sup>5</sup> Observation technique can be further classified as participating and non participating observation. Observation technique is

rarely used in legal researches. C.A. Moser opines that “...In the strict sense observation implies the use of the eyes rather than of ear and the voice.” Prof. Giri cites Oxford Concise Dictionary where Observation has been explained as “An accurate watching, noting of phenomenon as they occur in nature with regard to cause or effect or mutual relations.” Jahoda and Cook in his treatise has explained observation in very simple words by saying “Observation is not only one of the most pervasive activities of daily life, it is a primary tool of scientific enquiry,” P.V. Young in her book Scientific Social Survey and Research defines observation as –“Observation, a deliberate study through the eyes may be used as one of the methods for scrutinizing collective behavior and complex social institutions as well as the separate units composing a totality.” The purpose of observation technique is to study the existing phenomenon of human behaviour. Though, to control human behavior is not easy, yet it is studied simply by control and uncontrolled observation. In uncontrolled observation, researcher, studies Phenomenon without any interference in natural occurrence of phenomenon. Jahoda calls this observation as unstructured observation and P.V. Young call it simple observation. These observations are unguided, informal and independent observation. Uncontrolled observation is considered beneficial to research for following reasons –

- 1.** In uncontrolled observation natural and real phenomenon as to human behaviour is helpful in study.
- 2.** It consist objectivity.
- 3.** The dynamic social behaviour can be well understood by uncontrolled observation. Observation technique is considered vary important from hypothesis point of view. P.V. Young is of the view that the observed incidents have greater importance on research rather information received from other techniques. The object of

observation is to study the complex social phenomenon, human nature, culture; pattern of human conduct.

Observation technique can be classified on the basis of role of researcher's participation in the phenomenon of observation as.

### **I. Participant Observation**

Here researcher himself being actively remains associated with other members of the group and observes behavior and activities of the group of study. G.A. Lundberg says that "researcher actively keeps close relation with the observed group." Prof. M.S. Gopal says that "in participant observation researcher in close relations of observe group studies the phenomenon more closely, correctly and comprehensively."

### **ii. Quasi participant Observation –**

In this kind of observation researcher does not remains all present to study group activities. He has to believe on his fellow researchers of the phenomenon when he is not present. In quasi participant observations the researcher takes parts in festivals, sports, in group fooding etc.

### **iii. Non participant Observation –**

In this observation though the researcher remains present with observe persons but he studies their activities and behaviour as a neutral person. He does not take part himself in the group. He remains limited to the causes of observation, environment, population or social life of the observed group. Observation Participant Quasi participant Non participant

## **Interview**

Interview is commonly accepted technique of data collection where researcher enters into face to face interaction with any person or group for the purpose of seeking certain information as to the facts, idea or observation relevant to his research. Components of the interview are the researcher, the interviewer, interviewee and the interview environment. Where Researcher or any other person in his behalf enter in the role of interviewer and other person whose opinion, behaviour and responses are observed logically for research objectives is called interview. Expected research data is synthesized from internal views of other person.

The purpose of the interview is to probe the ideas of the interviewees about the phenomenon of interest. Even terms abstractly related to the search are helpful, in that they may pull up documents that would otherwise not be found.

Interview is the process to know the opinion, information or observations of other person through verbal and non-verbal conversation initiated for specific purpose and focused on certain planned content areas. This method is preferred if such information cannot be adequately observed by other methods without entering into conversation only. Information cannot be easily obtained by this method, because the process depends on the interest and attentiveness and personal qualities of the interviewee. Though, apparently, it seems verbal communication but it is not mere verbal communication between interviewer and interviewee. But, more than that, involving even the study of body language. Mead opines that, gestures, glances, facial expressions, pauses, even a flick of an eye or mere silence can speak more than verbal exchanges. Behaviour can be judged and attitude can be estimated based upon blush in the

face, or laugh, visible happiness or anger. The term itself denotes it is inter viewing; an interpersonal interaction.

Interview can be classified on the basis of objectives, purpose and methods of research as -

On the basis of objectives of research indicators to lead the conversation and observation is prepared. Method of interviewing either grouped or individual is decided according to nature of information and convenience of researcher. Applied methodology of focused, directive, non-directive, repeated, casual or formal all decide according to objectives and purposes of interview. Above terms are self explanatory of their nature and objectives.

Selecting tools for interview and their construction is an important step of this method. Interview schedule, instruction guide or arrangement of substance and devices for recording of responses in physical and electronic mode is required.

Schedules occupy a central place and play a vital role in interview. Schedule is a formal document containing a set of questions formulated and asked to the interviewees with the specific purpose. Schedule may contain direct or indirect, objective or open ended questions.

## **Questionnaire**

Questionnaire is a most popular method of data collection for empirical legal research. It is a physical or electronic document consists of predetermined set of questions printed, typed or digitalized distributed sent to various persons for their response on such questions. Questionnaire is useful where observation and interview is not possible and in the opinion of researcher it would be just to collect information for objective and purposive satisfaction of research. He may design certain questions in the light of objectives, hypothesis and indicators of research.

On each indicator there must be Question/s is/are designed and their language should be free from ambiguity, easy to understand and grammatically correct because responses are not made in presence of researcher so that any guidance and assistance can be provided if any difficulty arises in understanding them this is the limitation. Even it is not useful if respondents are illiterate or weak in language used in questionnaire. Therefore, before designing

ObjectiveDiagnosticTreatmentResearchIntervieweePersonalGroupMethod  
ologyFocusedDirectedNon-directedRepeated

Questionnaire researcher must select expected target group on whom it would be administer and design accordingly. Questionnaires may be supplied to respondents personally, by mail or internet. It works as mean and method both. Information from distant places can be easily accessed by the researcher economically.

## **Case Study**

Case study is an in depth study of any unit from the beginning to end. Any person, family, institution, group, cast, community or nation may be the unit for the purpose of study. By this study those qualities of unit are focused and analyzed which makes it distinct from other and special subject matter of study in which researcher is interested to know. It is a qualitative research method where all facts and information relating to such unit from the origin to last are collected by the researcher and all such conditions of life and their relations, and impact on unit is focused which makes it special. P.V. Young defines as-“Case study is a method of exploring and analyzing the life of a social unit, be that unit a person, a family, institution or culture group even entire community.” Sources used for data collection may be internal or external. Internal data gather from such unit or within the unit is internal and any information taken from outer sources are external one. Researcher may use all possible ways

and means for gathering information. If information taken from different sources is inconsistent, in such situation researcher has to adjudge prudently as to the admissibility between opposite information. Nature of information, interest of the information provider in professing such information and other relative information may be the decisive factors in deciding such issue. More specifically it may be understood as a comprehensive study of facts of life, incidents or episode of life of any study method.

## **Survey**

Survey method is commonly used in social science and socio-legal person, group, institution or entity for certain objectives. In legal research study on legal history of India, Constitutional history of India, Judicial contribution of any Judge, academic contribution of any renounce educationist, and life of artist may be the examples of case researches. Before planning any policy or implementing schemes surveys may be conducted to know the experience, observation and opinion of peoples relating to subject. The term 'Survey' constitutes with two terms as 'Sur' or 'Sor' which means 'Over' and 'veir' or 'vor' which means to see. It means 'to see over' or 'to look over', 'H.N. Morse defines social survey as "The social survey is a method of analysis in scientific and orderly form and for defined purposes of a given social situation or problem or population" Survey is a process of collecting quantity of facts in systematic and organized manner to report any social problem or status of facts in certain area of society. Where the object of study is to search the information through real public experience, their opinion or feelings as to any of social importance.

After deciding to survey, the next requirement is to decide about the means of information. Mostly the information is obtained through schedule, questionnaire and personal interview. Before launching survey

its units must be determined. It must be definite, appropriate in size so that generalized statement made on the basis of information must be coherent. The matter on which survey is conducted for the first time is called primary survey and thereby obtained is called 'primary data', subsequent survey on the same matter on same area or group is called 'secondary survey' and such data is 'secondary data'. Data obtained from survey can be used for limited purpose only to lay down the reality which is useful for making any policy matter. Data is only of persuasive nature not conclusive one.

## **Scaling**

Scaling means to measure something by using any unit of measurement. Social attributes, personality traits and human behavior are non-measurable facts. Measurements are acceptable only in quantitative researches where the measurable facts are variables. Variables are those facts whose characteristics may vary & such variations are measurable. Facts studied in qualitative research are called "Non variables". Characteristics of non-variables is not measurable. Qualities cannot be measured i.e., honesty, dishonesty, integrity, love and enmity etc. Scaling as a technique introduced by the social science researchers by which they have tried to measure social behavior and attributes of man by converting 'qualitative facts' into 'quantitative facts'. It is a method of converting series of qualitative facts into quantitative facts and attributes are turned into variables. Working knowledge of statistics is necessary for analyzing responses obtained by scaling method. Questionnaires and schedules are used as a source of applying this method. Questions are designed in objective form and their multiple answers are scaled numerically. For particular response certain scores are awarded and complete response of respondent is analyzed statistically and interpretation of data is made on probability basis.

## **CHAPTER - III**

### **THE STUDY REGION: PHYSIO – CULTURAL MILIEU**

#### **I. Location and Extent**

##### **Ramnagar**

Ramnagar Forest Rest House:

Ramnagar Forest Division, Ramnagar.

Ramnagar FRH being centrally located in the forest colony may be used for day visits inside the park and to look around the town of Ramnagar. The Kosi flows close to it and an evening stroll along the Kosi barrage is very delightful. A hanging rope bridge upstream the Kosi is a good visit which was built by the British for the villagers to cross over to the other side of the river. Upstream the rivers there are several such bridges. It was built in 1922.

Year of Construction: 1922

Location: Ramnagar town.

Tourist attraction near FRH: Corbett National Park, Garjia Temple, Kosi River, jungle Safari, elephant ride, Angling, Wildlife sighting (Jackal, jungle cat, Smooth Coated Otter, Indian Civet, Swamp Deer, Sambar, Barking Deer, Hog deer, Spotted Deer, Nilgai, Wild pig, Boar, Python etc.)

Contact: Divisional Forest officer, Ramnagar Forest Division. Phone No- 05947-251361

Email: dfo\_ramnagar@rediffmail.com

## **Corbett National Park**

Corbett National Park is the oldest national park in India and was established in 1936 as Hailey National Park to protect the endangered Bengal tiger. It is located in Nainital district of Uttarakhand and was named after Jim Corbett who played a key role in its establishment. The park was the first to come under the Project Tiger initiative.

The park has sub-Himalayan belt geographical and ecological characteristics. An ecotourism destination, it contains 488 different species of plants and a diverse variety of fauna. The increase in tourist activities, among other problems, continues to present a serious challenge to the park's ecological balance.

Corbett has been a haunt for tourists and wildlife lovers for a long time. Tourism activity is only allowed in selected areas of Corbett Tiger Reserve so that people get an opportunity to see its splendid landscape and the diverse wildlife. In recent years the number of people coming here has increased dramatically. Presently, every season more than 70,000 visitors come to the park from India and other countries.

Corbett National Park comprises 520.82 km<sup>2</sup> (201.1 sq mi) area of hills, riverine belts, marshy depressions, grasslands and a large lake. The elevation ranges from 1,300 to 4,000 ft (400 to 1,220 m). Winter nights are cold but the days are bright and sunny. It rains from July to September.

Dense moist deciduous forest mainly consists of sal, haldu, peepal, rohini and mango trees. Forest covers almost 73% of the park, 10% of

the area consists of grasslands. It houses around 110 tree species, 50 species of mammals, 580 bird species and 25 reptile species.

Some of the historic forest rest houses of Corbett National park are Garjia, Sultan, Gairal, Sarpdhuli, Khinanauli, Dhikala, Bijrani, Jhirna etc.

### **Chunakhan:**

Centre for Ecotourism & Sustainable Livelihood, Chunakhan has been developed to promote ecotourism by building capacities of communities, particularly of youth and women. The centre seeks to increase awareness of host communities and stakeholders on natural and cultural heritage by disseminating information, promoting discussion, study based tours etc. Facilities at the centre include a lecture room with accessories, documentation Centre-cum library, boarding and lodging for twenty five trainees and dining facilities. This centre is also open for tourist wanting to be close to Choti Haldwani Heritage Trail and Corbett National Park.

### **Choti – Haldwani:**

A FRH with 2 suites is situated midway from Ramnagar to Haldwani on the fringe area of Corbett Fall along with trek to Corbett village (Choti Haldwani) are the attraction to stay in the FRH.

### **Nainital**

In the Uttarakhand, district of Nainital lies in the Kumaun division. To its north is Almora district and to its south lies the Udham Singh Nagar district. Champawat district flanks it in the east and district of Pauri Garhwal is in the west. Nainital is a glittering jewel in the Himalyan necklace, blessed with scenic natural splendour and varied natural resources. Dotted with lakes, Nainital has earned the epithet of 'Lake District' of India. The most prominent of the lakes is Naini Lake ringed by

hills. Nainital has a varied topography. Some of the important places in the district are Nainital, Haldwani, Kaladhungi, Ramnagar, Bhowali, Ramgarh, Mukteshwar, Bhimtal, Sattal and Naukuchiatal. Nainital unending expanse of scenic beauty is nothing short of a romance with awe-inspiring and pristine Mother Nature. Nainital is headquarter of Nainital District. It is also divisional Headquarter of Kumaon Division of Uttarakhand State. Historical Background Nainital is referred to in the 'Manas Khand' of the 'Skanda Purana' as the Tri-Rishi-Sarovar, the lake of the three sages, Atri, Pulastya and Pulaha who were reputed to have arrived here on a penitential pilgrimage, and, finding no water to quench their thirst dug a hole and siphoned water into it from Mansarovar the sacred lake in Tibet. The Second important mythological reference to Nainital is as one of 64 'Shakti Peeths'. These centres were created wherever parts of charred body of Sati fell, when Lord Shiva was carrying around her corpse in grief. It is said that the left eye (Nain) of Sati fell here and this gave rise to patron deity of town Nainital. It is said that the lake is formed in the emerald eye shape. Naina Devi temple is located at the northern end of the lake. Thus name of Nainital derived from Naina and the Tal (Lake). British Settlement The British occupied Kumaon & Garhwal in 1815. After the British Occupation, E. Gardiner was appointed as the commissioner of Kumaon Division on May 8th 1815. In 1817 the second commissioner of Kumaon Mr. G.W. Traill has conducted the second revenue settlement of Kumaon, Mr. Traill was the first European to visit Nainital but he did not popularize his visit in respect for the religious sanctity of the place.

District Nainital is located approximately in between 80°14' and 78°80' east longitude and 29°00' and 29°05' north latitude. On the northern side lies the Himalayan ranges while on the southern side lies the plains making the resultant climate of the district enjoyable one. The total geographical area is 3422 Kms. Geographically the district is divided in to 2 zones viz. Hilly and Bhabar. The hilly region in outer Himalayas is

known to geologist as Krol. The highest peak of the district is Baudhanstali 2623 mts. high near Binayak adjoining Nainital town. The hilly region of the district. The hilly region of the district used to have big & small lakes. Bhimtal, Sattal, Naukuchiatal, Khurpatal, Nainital, Malwatal, Harishtal, Lokhamtal etc. are known lakes of bigger size.

### **Kilbury:**

Situated about 13 km from Nainital town at elevation of 2215 meter. An attractive place for eco-tourists providing opportunity to experience of living with nature on 9 km trek route to Naina Peak through dense forest of deodar, oak, surai & burans etc. along with extensive Himalayan view, animal and bird watching. Eight camping sites for tentage are available. Heavy snow fall is experienced during winter. Botanical garden is on the way.

### **Vinayak:**

A FRH with two suits and five tentage sites are available inside dense forest of deodar, oak, surai & burans etc. facilitated with water, solar light and clean toilets 22 km from Nainital at an elevation of 2216 m. providing opportunity for animal and bird watching, trek route etc. Heavy snow fall occurs during winter. Boarding and guide facilities available through villagers on reasonable rates.

### **Kunjakharak:**

Situated about 37 km from Nainital at elevation of 2323 m. FRH with two suites and two tentage sites are available with facilities of solar light, rain water harvesting system & clean toilets etc. An attractive place for eco-tourists provides an opportunity to experience living with nature, animal and bird watching, bear caves, trek route etc. inside dense forest of

deodar and its associates. Boarding and guide facilities available through villagers on reasonable rates.

## **II. Physical Environment**

- Jim Corbett National Parks
- Naina Devi Bird Reserve
- Bird Watching
- Cave Garden
- Nainital Lake
- Kosi Rivers
- Trek Route
- Himalaya Darshan
- Village Walk

## **III. Cultural Environment**

### **Social System**



District Nainital has rich cultural traditions & heritage. The main towns of the district are cosmopolitan and its people are associated with various religions and sets living through generations. Broadly eighty percent of population follows Hindu religion; the rest part belongs to Sikh, Muslim, Christian, Buddha etc religions. The major part of population follows Kumouni traditions.

Marriages are mostly arranged by the parents after tallying horoscopes. The main functions of marriages are Ganesh Pooja, Suwal Pathai, Dhuliargh, Kanya-daan, phere, vida. The traditional kumouni barat take a lively colour in presence of Choliya Nritya (Dance) & playing of turais (trumpets), dhol, and damua. But now a day people are seen dancing on the tunes of bands in Barat.

### **Cuisines**



People are mostly rice eating in habit but wheat, maduwa and other grains are also consumed. In pulses, people prefer Urad, Gahat, Bhatt, and Masur. Meat is also common among the people. Ceremonial food consists of Kheer, Singhal, Poori, Pua, Bada, Kapa made of Palak, Raita, and Khatai etc. The other typical kumouni foods are Chudkani & Bhattiya made of bhatt & Soya been, Gautras made of Gahat, Jholee made from mattha, Gaba vegetable. In towns restaurants provide general food along with Chinese &

South Indian dishes. There are people who enjoy fishes, Tharus and Bengali settlers comes in this class.

## **Fairs & Festivals**

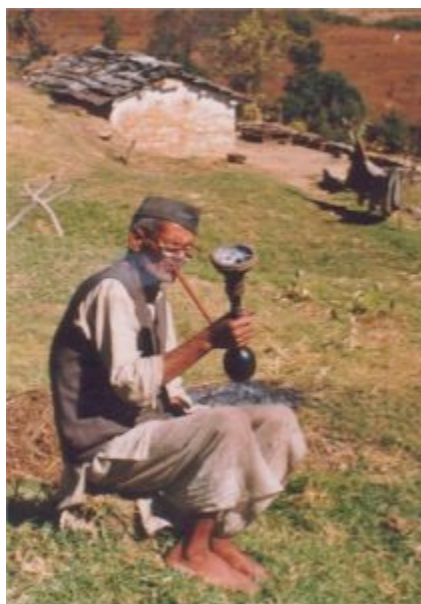


After harvesting season people mostly relax, rejoice, dance and sing thus a festival is generated. At the transition of sun from one constellation to another Sankranti is observed. Each Sankranti has a fair or festival connected to it somewhere in Kumoun. Fooldeyi, Bikhauti, Harela, Ghee Sankranti, Khatarua, Uttaraini are the mostly observed Sankranties throughout the region. Other festivals have the bearings in the moon and the dates changed frequently in Gregorian calendar. Basant Panchami, Shiv Ratri, Holi, Samvatsar Parwa, Ram Navami, Dashra, Batsavitri, Rakshabandhan, Janmastmi, Nandastmi, Deepawali etc are some of the auspicious occasions. Fairs are organised on these occasions on certain places.



The Uttaraini Mela at Chitrashila near Ranibag is observed on Makar Sankranti Day (Approx. 14th January). Kumaoni people feed the crows on Uttaraini day by saying 'Khale Kaua khale Ghughuti Bada Khale'. On Buddha Purnima Day, in the month of May there is festivity near Budhansthi, while Bhimtal observes Harela Mela on 16th or 17th of July. Baishakhi Purnima day brings rejoicing near Lokhamtal while Kainchi temple premises is gay on 15th June. Kakrighat has Somnath Fair on the last Monday of Baishakh, Garjia is full of festivity on Kartik Purnima day in the month of November. Nandashtami Festival is observed with full devotion in the district, fairs are organised at Nainadevi temple Nainital and Bhowali. The Kumaoni people use the fortnight of Shradha in late September or early October to remember their passed away ancestors.

### **Life Style**



At all auspicious occasions tilak made out of processed turmeric with akshat (Pithya) is put on the forehead. Village ladies are seen with a long pithya starting from the upper nose up to forehead. Various superstitions exist as common throughout the country. A

black spot is put on the forehead of a child to ward away from evil spirits.

Courtesy calls are made on days other than Tuesday and Saturday. Mourning calls are made exclusively on Tuesday and Saturdays. Visit to sick persons are not made on Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays. Females do not pay visit to their mothers on Thursday. Elders are greeted by touching their feet with ovation of pailagon and responded by chirinjivi bhav or saubhagyavati bhav. Others are greeted with folded hands using Namaskar.

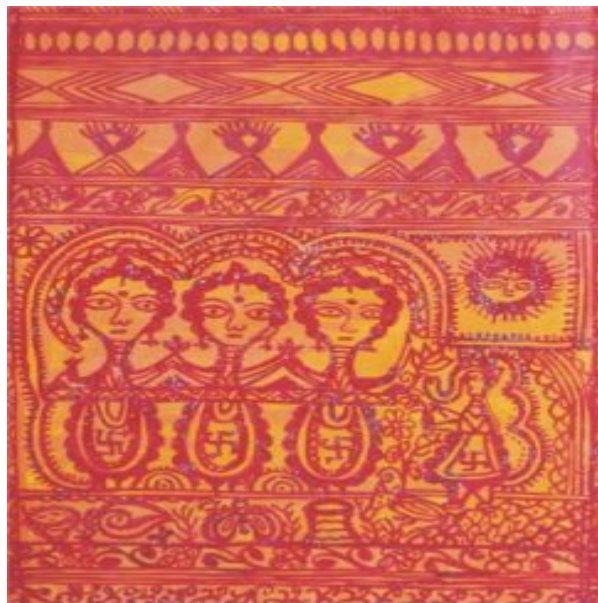


Married women put round ingoor or sindoor on their forehead. On special occasions married women wear huge golden nose ring called nath. Black beaded (Chareu) garland on their neck is considered to be the pious symbol of leading a married life for a woman. Golden necklace is commonly used but poor people use silver in the neck known as Hansuli. So far as the usual dress is concerned females wear sari but there is still a longing for the conventional dress of Ghaghara-pichora. Every lady keeps it ready for ceremonial occasions.

People live in houses made out of stone or bricks. Few old constructions are made out of wood also. Wood carvings which was very common in the past are now very rare. In hilly area, roofs have slopes and roofing is done with the help of tin or slates of stone. In villages, animals live in ground floor called Goth and human beings in first floor.

Hill temples are the monuments having mixture of deep sense of art and culture. Sculpture varies with the time of inception of the temple. The mode of worship is also different in many aspects from that of plains. These temples act as the nucleus of the social and cultural activities. Hill people organise Jagars to please local deities. Golu, Bholanath, Sam, Aidi, Gangnath are some of the local deities.

### **Cultural Traditions**



The tradition of colorful ornamentation on Aanchal cloths is a unique Kumouni tradition, rooted deep in its long history. In all ritual ceremonies women wear pichora, also known as Rangwali. It is a piece of muslin cloth, 3 mts. in length & One and half mts. in

width, which is dyed yellow, it is then printed with design with a padded wooden stick using red colours. At the centre are the sign of Swastik, and the motifs of sun, moon, bell and conch shell.



Ceremonies and festivals the women set themselves to decorating the floor & walls of their houses with designs & patterns. The material used is the paste of rice mixed with ochre. The floor of the worship room & the seat of Gods & Goddesses, are decorated with specific tantrik motifs called Peeth or Yantra. A Yantra is a diagrammatic representation of the deity, and consists of linear or septal geometrical permutations of patterns considered as the plan of the terrestrial places where the deity resides.

For Namkaran Sanskar, the Aipan on the wooden Chauki comprises motifs of sun, moon, bell etc. In the Janeu, the Aipan shows the zodiacal sign of Great bear arranged in hexagons, to invoke the blessings of Sapta-Rishis. In marriage ceremony, the Dhuliargh Chauki bears a design of big water-jar, symbolising primordial water from which the universe emerged.

## CHAPTER - IV

### SUSTAINABLE ECOTOURISM AND DYNAMIC CHARACTER OF TOURISM

#### **I. Concept of Eco - Tourism**

Eco - tourism ('eco' as in ecological) is a type of tourism based on an interest in the natural history attractions of a destination. The term itself can be traced to the work of Hetzer (1965), who used it to explain the intricate relationship between tourist and the environment and cultures in which they interact. Hetzer identified four fundamental pillars that need to be followed for a more responsible form of tourism: **(1)** minimum environmental impact; **(2)** minimum impact on – and maximum respect for – host cultures; **(3)** maximum economic benefits to the host country's grassroots; and **(4)** maximum 'recreational' satisfaction to participating tourists. In 2003 ecotourism earned US \$ 25 billion globally, representing approximately 2-4 percent of international tourism (Cater, 2006). It is often referred to as the fastest growing segment of the tourism industry, and its reliance on the parks and protected areas as a form of supply often diversifies marginalized economies in remote or peripheral areas.

Ecotourism is tourism that involves travelling to relatively undisturbed natural areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural aspects (both past and present) found in these areas. Ecotourism implies a scientific, aesthetic or philosophical approach, although the 'ecotourist' is not required to be a professional scientist, artist or philosopher. The main point is that the person who practices ecotourism has the opportunity of immersing him or herself in nature in a way that most people cannot enjoy in their routine, urban existence.

This person will eventually acquire a consciousness and knowledge of the natural environment, together with its cultural aspects, that will convert him into somebody keenly involved in conservation issues. (Ceballos - Lascurain, 1996)".

The longer - term objective of the second function of environmental education is summarized well by Ceballos - Lascurain (1988 cited in Ziffer, 1989, p.5): The person who practices ecotourism has the opportunity of immersing him or herself in nature in a way most people cannot enjoy in their routine, urban existences. This person will eventually acquire a consciousness ... that will convert him into somebody keenly involved in conservation issues.

The research within the area of ecotourism still appears to be at its infancy stage. The definitional perspective of the concept is lacking both in terms of scope and criteria used, as well as in aspects of its planning and operationalisation. There are a variety of ecotourism definitions all reflecting a range of paradigms and perspectives. The view that this article has taken is that the definition of ecotourism is not really necessary if the discussion focuses on the concepts rather than the issues implied by ecotourism. Hence, it seems that ecotourism definitions could range from passive to active stances incorporating the three common concepts in the form of trade-off scenarios. The three common concepts within ecotourism are natural-based, educational, and sustainable (which includes economic and social criteria). Within these components, both benefits and costs exist, and in some circumstances there is disequilibrium towards greater costs. Fundamentally, ecotourism could merit wider credibility, but only when the different actors involved avoid over marketing, and control the overuse of its products by consumers. In light of these pitfalls, this paper focuses on the three components of ecotourism and includes a review of ecotourism's definitions followed by an examination of its natural-based,

sustainability and educational components. It concludes with the future state of ecotourism research in light of the changes in trends in the tourism industry.

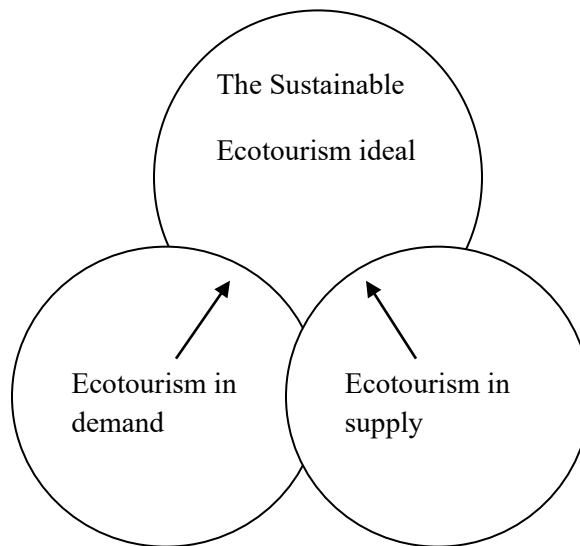
### **Ecotourism principles and guidelines**

Wight (1994); it should not degrade the resource and should be developed in an environmentally sound manner; it should provide long-term benefits to the resource, to the local community and industry; it should provide first-hand, participatory and enlightening experiences; it should involve education among all parties: local communities, government, non-government organizations, industry and tourists (before, during and after trip); it should encourage all-party recognition of the intrinsic values of the resource; it should involve acceptance of the resource in its own terms, and in recognition of its limits, which involves supply-oriented management; it should promote understanding and involve partnerships between many players, which could evolve government, non-government organizations, industry, scientist and locals (both before and during operations); it should promote moral and ethical responsibilities and behaviour towards the natural and cultural environment by all players.

The Ecotourism Society (Lindberg and Hawkins, 1993); Prepare travellers to minimize their negative impacts while visiting sensitive environments and cultures before departures; Prepare travellers for each encounter with local cultures and with native animals and plants; Minimize visitor impacts on the environment by offering literature, briefing, leading by example, and taking corrective actions; Use adequate leadership, and maintain small enough groups to ensure minimum group impact on the destinations. Avoid areas that are under-managed and over visited; Ensure managers, staff and contact employees know and participate in all aspects of company policy to prevent impacts on the environment and

local cultures; Give managers, staff and contact employees access to programmes that will upgrade their ability to communicate with and manage clients in sensitive natural and cultural settings; Be a contributor to the conservation of the region being visited; Provide competitive, local employment in all aspects of business operations; Offer site -sensitive accommodations that are not wasteful of local resources or destructive to the environment, which provide ample opportunity for learning about environment and sensitive change with local communities.

National Ecotourism Accreditation Program (NEAP), Australia. Eligibility principles; Focus on personally experiencing natural areas in ways that lead to greater understanding and appreciation; integrates opportunities to understand natural areas into each experience; Represents best practice for ecologically sustainable tourism; Positively contributes to the ongoing conservation of natural areas; Provides constructive ongoing contributions to local communities; is sensitive to, interprets and involves different cultures, particularly indigenous cultures; Consistently meets client expectations; Marketing is accurate and leads to realistic expectations.



### **One potential merging of perspectives.**

#### **Environmentally and Culturally Educative**

A feature of ecotourism experiences is education and interpretation about the natural environment and any associated 'cultural manifestations'. In contrast to learning, which is 'a normal process, occurring throughout the life and mostly incidental', education involves a conscious, planned, sequential and systematic process based on defined learning objectives and using specific learning procedures' (Kalinowski and Weiler, 1992). Interpretation is 'an educational activity which aims to reveal meanings and relationships through the use of original objects, by first hand experience, and by illustrated media, rather than simply to communicate factual information' (Tilden, 1977 cited in Moscardo, 1988). Although virtually all nature-based tourism involves some degree of learning, it is education and interpretation that serves as a key element and defining characteristics of ecotourism experiences. The term education includes interpretation.

To main purposes of environmental education can be distinguished in the ecotourism context. The first involves satisfying tourist demand for information regarding natural and cultural attractions

## **II. Types of Eco - Tourism**

The rise of the term 'ecotourism' has been relatively rapid. In 1980 the term did not exist and now, 20 years on, this Encyclopedia represents the thinking of many different authors from around the world on the topic. The term ecotourism has also become the subject of much debate; what is it, what it should be and how it can work are all questions that continue to dominate the literature.

### **Semantic Debates**

The evolution of languages is an interesting phenomenon. It seems that a natural part of this evolutionary process that is invention, adoption and eventual common usage of terms that describes valuable concepts or ideas. There are many examples throughout history. In the context of this discussion, namely the management of human influences on natural ecosystems, three terms provides examples of this process. The term 'conservation' and 'sustainability' have become popular terms for valuable approaches to managing natural resources. Each evolved in a similar way. First, the concepts themselves appear to have existed for many centuries. Second, the invention of the specific terms occurred and usage of them become more widespread and diverse in their application. Third, debates ensued regarding definitions, typologies and the terms/concepts. Fennell (1999, p.72) outlines three differing perspectives that evolved in the early use of the term conservation:

The first involved the view that conservation should entail the maintenance of harmony between humankind and nature, the second that conservation was related to the efficient use of resource. The final

perception was that conservation – preservation could ideally be attained from the standpoint of religion and spirituality.

Finally, the terms became used in more formal contexts, such as in law, in international agreements and within government agencies.

The semantic evolutionary process illustrated by ‘conservation’ and ‘sustainability’ has also occurred with regard to the concept of ‘ecotourism’. The idea of integrating tourism with conservation has probably been around since the early days of African safaris and the development of the national park concept in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. In the tourism literature, the concept was given wider and more explicit exposure by Budowski in a 1976 article entitled ‘Tourism and Conservation: conflict, coexistence or symbioses. However, while Budowski’s paper made a case for the ideals of ecotourism, as generally understood today, he did not explicitly use the term ‘ecotourism’ to describe his thinking. There is no general agreement on who invented or first used the term ‘ecotourism’ (Fennell, 1999), but it is clear that the term first appeared in the published material during the 1980s (for example, Romeril, 1985; Ceballos – Lascurain, 1987; Laarman and Durst, 1987; Ziffer, 1989). Certainly, even if the term itself was not used, the concept has been around for centuries (Fennell, 1999). It seems likely that the invention of the term ‘ecotourism’ itself is related to the connotations associated with the ‘eco’ prefix such as ‘ecology’ and ‘ecosystem’. Thus combining this prefix with the term tourism provides a suitable label for the concepts that authors like Hetzer (1965) and Budowski (1976) and others have advocated.

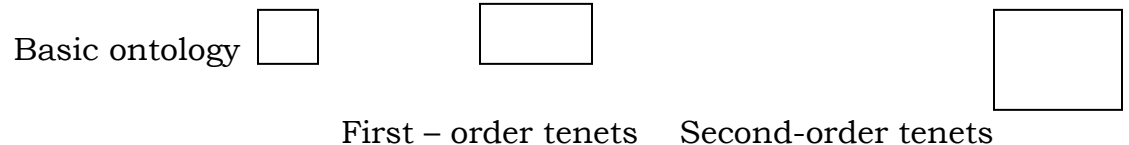
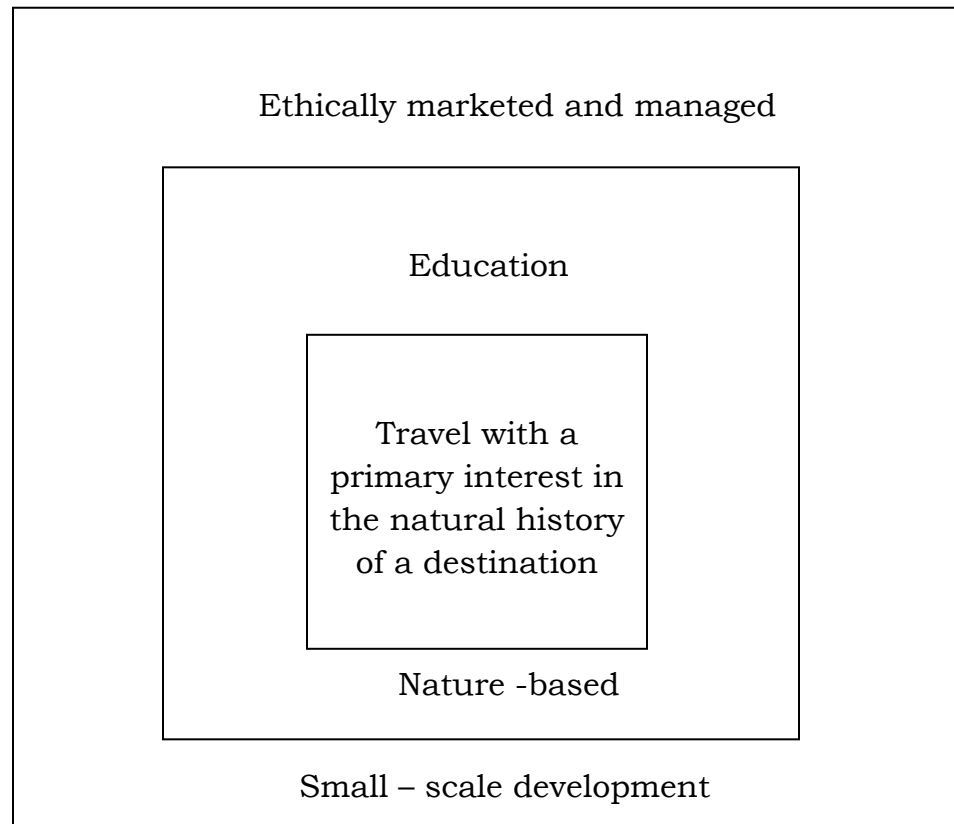
The idea of visiting areas for the purposes of observing and experiencing elements of the natural environment pre-debates ‘ecotourism’. Safaris to places such as Africa to view wildlife were popular among explorers and adventurers from Western Europe during the 1800s (Adler, 1989).

Recreational activities such as hiking, birdwatching, climbing, cross-country skiing, fishing, canoeing and other boating are all based on the natural environment and have been popular for centuries. Therefore, many of the activities that can now be included under the label 'ecotourism' have existed long before the term itself was invented. First, it is a reaction against the negative impacts associated with 'mass tourism' (Weaver, 1998). Second, it has developed in response to the growth of the tourism based on natural environmental attractions and third, as an outcome of the growing understanding and acceptance principles of environmental conservation and sustainability (Orams, 1995).

### **III. The Tenets of Eco - Tourism**

Positions the various component parts of ecotourism according to three different dimensions. The first component, or basic ontology, characteristics ecotourism, at its very essence, as travel with a primary interest in the natural history of a dimension. Despite the prefix 'eco' natural history is used to frame ecotourism because of this concept's historical and present – day usages. Natural history, although scientific in nature, is a branch of science that is premised on the observational rather than experimental practices. In this vein, Bartholomew (1996) wrote:

A student of natural history, or a naturalist, studies the world by observing plants and animals directly. Because organisms are functionally inseparable from the environment in which they live and because their structure and function cannot be adequately interpreted without knowing some of their evolutionary history, the study of natural history embraces the study of fossils as well as physiographic and other aspect of the physical environment.



**Ecotourism’s core and supporting tenets: Source: Fennell 2002b.**

Adding further scope to this definition, Lopez (1986) refers to natural history as the ‘patient interrogation of a landscape’, whereas Wilcove and Eisner (2000) argue that natural history is ‘The close observation of organisms – their origins, their evolution, their behaviour, and their relationships with other species’.

Explained as such, ecotourists may be conceived as students of natural history. Some students strive to learn a great deal about natural history,

but others rather less. They are motivated to pay close attention through observation of organisms, their role and function within the environment, and those of a more dedicated kind do this through patient observation. Furthermore, it would seem appropriate to characterize ecotourists as a naturalists rather than ecologists, because of the observational tendencies of the former and the experimental practices of the latter. Natural history and that practice it, is taken to encompass the following areas in the broadest sense: botany, general biology, geology, palaeontology and zoology (see e.g. The Society for the History of Natural History, which publishes the Archives of Natural History, [www.eupublishing.com/journal/anh](http://www.eupublishing.com/journal/anh), accessed 29 June 2011). It follows that the ecotourist, according to this manner of viewing ecotourism, would be interested in these types of attractions, and not just wildlife as in the case of wildlife tourism. For those theorists looking for a line of demarcation between ecotourism and wildlife tourism, the foregoing may be of use.

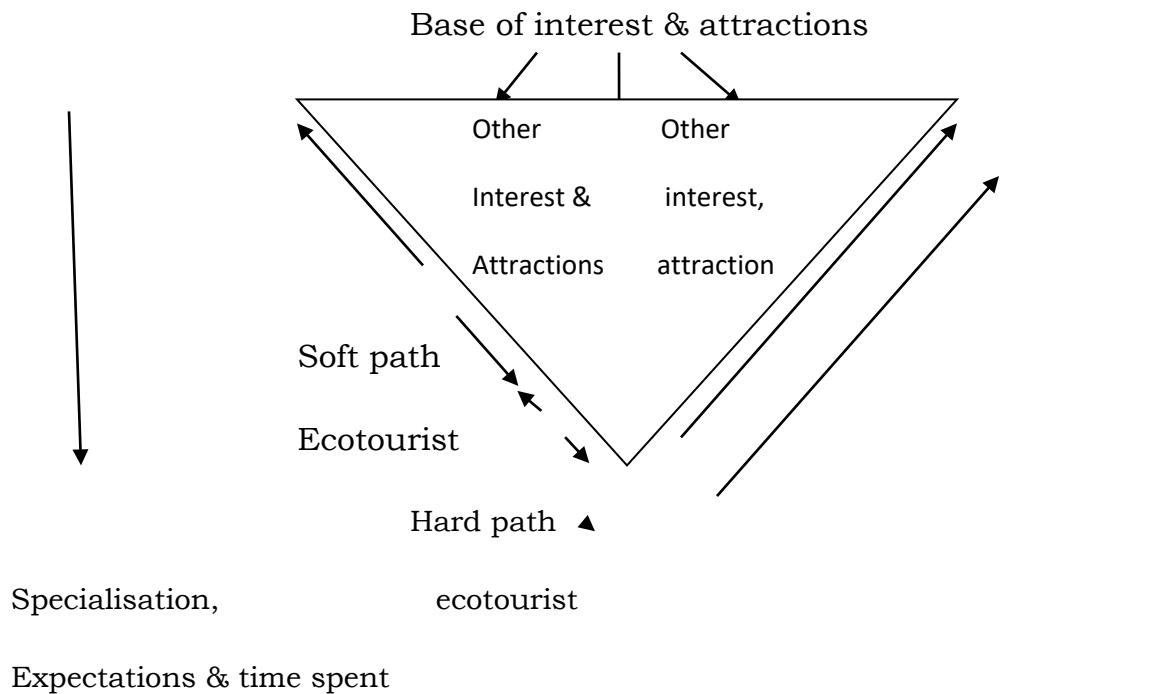
Building on the use of the term natural history in conceptualizing ecotourism, some of the first organized tours of what we today refer to as ecotourism were presented by natural history societies. For example, the travel department of the American Museum of Natural History has conducted natural history tours since 1953. Participants on these tours are referred to as naturalists, and the term 'naturalist' is often used to describe a certain segment of ecotourist market (see below). Some of the present day icons of ecotourism include the Monteverde Cloud Forest Reserve, Costa Rica, the Galapagos Island of Ecuador, Iguacu Falls, the Amazon basin, the Patagonian region of Argentina and Chile, Antarctica, hill tribe trekking in southeast Asia, Ayers Rock, The Barrier Reef in Australia, the Milford Track in New Zealand, the Serengeti Plain, Kruger National Park in South Africa and polar bear watching in Churchill, Canada. Ecotourism thrives in all environments including rainforests,

mountain regions, polar environments, islands and coasts, deserts and grasslands, and marine regions. Practices in these and other ecotourism destinations include the watching of specific animal group like cetaceans, birds or bears.

Ecotourism has also branched out into the realm of culture (Indigenous practices) and adventure (kayaking and canoeing). Although this branching out has increased the market, there are serious issues surrounding the legitimacy of forms of tourism that are focused more on culture and adventure than on natural history and educational orientations. Connected to these problems is the level of intra – group variability in the ecotourism. The literature supports a number of studies that have endeavoured to establish typologies of the ecotourist on the basis of several different dimensions. At its most basic, ecotourist have been portioned into two main groups: soft path and hard path ecotourists, with implications according to the types of programmes offered to these groups based on need. Fig.1.6. illustrates a number of factors or elements that might be used to differentiate between these to general categories – hard and soft.

Starting at the top of the inverted triangle in Figure. The base of the interests and attractions represent the spectrum of attractions and activities available to the ecotourist while on vacation. The soft path ecotourist, the group that is representative of most ecotourists by number, would spend much more time engaged with interests and attractions sought by the softest part of the soft path ecotourism segment would be spent on other attractions of the destination, including perhaps adventure, culture, shopping, theme parks and so on. Furthermore, the reliance built on or modified spaces and places would be more important to this part of the soft path segment, and there would be less specialization, fewer natural history expectations and less time spent on these of types of attractions. At the opposite end of the soft path

continuum, that is, just above the hard path ecotourist part of triangle, there would be a greater emphasis on specialization, expectations and time spent less reliance on modified spaces, and fewer number of tourists. The dashed line between the hard path group of ecotourists, as a very small number of the overall market, and the more dedicated soft path market is said to be less a matter of kind and more a matter of degree. Even within the hard path segment there is a slight variation. But, in general, the hard path segment is far more specialized, with higher expectations and a greater deal more time spent on attractions within the natural history attraction realm over the course of the vacation. Specialization means a focus on specific species or groups of species, or it may include other history attractions as defined above. If the tour were inadequate in fulfilling the hard path 'ecotourists' expectations, there would exist a greater measure of dissatisfaction in comparison with the expectations of soft path ecotourists. As such, hard path ecotourist are motivated to find ecotour operator that provide the necessary dimensions of a trip suit their needs, and often stick with these operators for subsequent ecotours (see, e.g. Quest Nature Tours, Toronto, Canada).



**Soft and hard path dimensions of the ecotourist. Source: Fennell 2002b.**

The second dimensions of Figure. First – orders tenets, outlines four concepts that are often at the heart of many definitions of ecotourism. These include sustainability (local benefits), sustainability (conservation), and a nature – based focus education. Sustainability is split into two different, local benefits and conservation, as a reflection of the ecotourism literature. However, if we are to accept that sustainable development can be defined as that form of development that ‘meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet’, both local benefits and conservation should be subsumed under the SD label, especially for an activity like ecotourism.

## **IV. Sustainable Eco – Tourism Development**

### **Sustainable development: local benefits**

Eco, sustainable, and film tourism – There has been a committee set up to formulate guidelines for sustainable and eco-tourism. There is also a strong emphasis on hotels to use eco-friendly measures and on maintaining environmental integrity. Eco tourism is the fastest growing market in the tourism industry having an annual growth rate of 5% according to the World Tourism Organization. Hence, there is an opportunity for the government to promote India's natural diversity, flora and fauna, and local culture by means of eco-tourism. Fennell (2002b) has argued that sustainable development, and indeed ecotourism, builds from the ecodevelopment literature of the 1970s, regarding the harmonization of social and ecological objectives, wise management of environment, thresholds and the enhancement of people, communities and justice. During the latter part of the 1980s, these ideas were more formally crystallized through the sustainable development as a model for structural change within society. The application of sustainable development principles quickly entered into the tourism vernacular, with an expanding market of travellers clamouring to take advantage of new eco-based opportunities. The face of sustainable development in tourism emerged in the form of Alternative Tourism (AT) as a natural outgrowth of the dissatisfaction with the mass tourism industry, which by the 1980s had adversely transformed many of the world's most beautiful and sensitive regions at the expense of communities and the natural world. The philosophy behind AT – forms of tourism, like ecotourism, that advocate an approach apposite to mass conventional tourism – was to ensure that tourism policies no longer concentrate on economic and technical necessities alone, but rather emphasise the demand for an unspoilt environment, the needs of local people and the elimination of

outside influences (e.g. external stakeholders) in winning back decision – making powers.

The ecotourism literature is replete with examples of how the introduction of tourism has led to the marginalization of local people through the removal of control and rights. Pressure from outside investment often translate into inevitability about the pace and scale of development and the perception of insignificance regarding the role of local people, with the unwillingness on other part of large firms to protect local ecological resources. A logical reaction to exogenous forces is to simply outside – funded tourism and ecotourism in order to fully control the tourism landscape. However, these efforts are constrained by: (1) the inability to organize to the point of political mobilization; and (2) whether the mobilized unit can ever be strong enough to influence government policy, in the face of intense development interests from outside. The path of least resistance for cash – strapped governments, unfortunately, is often foreign investment.

Furthermore, it is important to recognize that just because a type of tourism provides local benefits, does not mean it is ecotourism. Ecotourism would be that form of development that contributes to local people and areas while nested in many of the broader tents discussed here.

### **Sustainable development: conservation**

There are two main ways by which to examine how conservation has been associated with ecotourism. The first includes micro – scale involvement, whereas the second, although connected, includes larger scale initiatives. In regards to the former, theorists argue that for an activity to be viewed as ecotourism there must be some type of conservation effort extended on the behalf the ecotourist and /or the

service provider with which they are associated. This may come in the form of money contributed to parks and protected areas, local communities or specific projects that may be used to further these conservation objectives. It may also take the form of on-site involvement of ecotourists who directly assist in the activities like species breeding programmes, rehabilitation of degraded sites, banding and so on. In regards to the latter, conservation initiatives, whereby ecotourism may be a deliberate strategy to mesh and manage human and ecological processes according to various priorities. The following few cases serve to illustrate how ecotourism as a strategy links with broader conservation initiatives.

In Baja, Mexico, for example, poor fisheries conservation techniques led to a depletion of the in – shore fishery (Lopez-Espinosa 2002). In an effort to bolster the local economy, whale watching ecotourism emerged as an option on extrinsic (profit) grounds only. As the whale watching industry evolved with the profit motive only in mind (in the absence of an ethical and well-managed approach to ecotourism), it has not been so lucrative as to alleviate the pressures on the in-shore fishery. As such, conflict over the right to use marine resources has only intensified as a result of ecotourism. In Mongolia, although local people have a strong conservation ethic, they were unwilling to discontinue grazing certain protected area regions without compensation. Parallel to this is the finding that a chief motivating factor for involvement in the environment industry is a depleting natural resource based on deforestation or over – grazing activities (Maroney 2006). This is also the case in Bohol, Philippines, where protected areas were established based on the effects of intensive deforestation, agricultural exploitation and quarrying. With the establishment of limits to traditional harvesting activities, local employed in the establishment of protected areas (Urich et al. 2001). This has led theories to suggest that coexistence between local people,

tourism and protected areas managers should be developed through adaptive governance models that are based on shared involvement and more inclusive objectives.

### **Nature – based**

The focus of ecotourism as nature – based tourism, and later as part of a broader nature – based tourism landscape, has also been the focus of dimension. Early definitions of ecotourism demonstrate that there was little differentiation between what we today view as ecotourism and nature- based tourism. This started to change through the efforts of Laarman and Durst (1993), who identified a conceptual difference between ecotourism and nature tourism. Narrowly, nature - based tourism refers to operators running nature – oriented tours; however, broadly it applies to tourism's use of natural resources including beaches and country landscapes. Later work by Goodwin (1995) provides more of a differentiation between the two concepts. For Goodwin, nature-based tourism:

Encompasses all forms of tourism – mass tourism, adventure tourism, low-impact tourism, ecotourism - which use natural resources in a wild or undeveloped form – including species, habitat, landscape, scenery and salt and fresh - water features. Nature tourism is travel for the purpose of enjoying undeveloped natural areas or wildlife.

And conversely, *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 the local people to value, and therefore protect, their wildlife heritage area as a source of income.

Ambiguity between ecotourism and nature – based tourism has led to the development of a number of certification schemes – programmes that provides a means of establishing the extent to which a business offering tourism experiences meets industry – nominated standards. Adherence to these standards, and the ability to advertise as such through ecologos, provide the organization with the opportunity to be competitive. A good example of accreditation in action is the Nature and Ecotourism Accreditation Program (NEAP) of Australia, through which operators are given a core level of accreditation if they satisfy the programme’s basic criteria. The system also encourages operators to implement measures beyond the standards of the core in earning advances standing. An important aspect of NEAP is that programmes are accredited rather than operators. This means that although operators may run a number of programmes, only those that are worthy of ecotourism (over nature – based tourism) status get accredited (Buckley 2002).

Despite the advantages of these schemes, others argue that accreditation has become politicized because of the sheer number of these schemes in operation and the control over those which are most prominent (e.g. Green Globe 21). Just as important in the debate over the significance of such schemes is the basic question of whether accreditation is worth all of the time and energy. They may ultimately be less effective than simple government regulations and codes of ethics, but more research is required to answer this question. Other theorists argue that such schemes cannot do justice to the experimental aspects of ecotourism because there is simply too much of an emphasis on the institutionalization of ecotourism through objective forms of evaluation, which serve to strengthen power structures rather than topple them, consequently, accreditation schemes have turned more towards commodification of ecotourism, rather than well – being and

participatory democracy – which is really what ecotourism ought to defend (Jamal *et al.* 2006).

## **Education**

One of the key factors differentiating ecotourism from other forms of nature-based tourism or other more general forms of tourism is education. That is, the focus on learning about the natural history of a destination is one of the key features that sets ecotourists apart from other forms of tourism. In this sense, Fennell, (2008) made use of Wilson's, (1984) concept of biophilia to explain the intimate tie that exists between the learner and nature. Biophilia is 'the innate tendency to be attracted by other life forms, and to affiliate with natural living systems' (Wilson's, 1984: 214). Learning about these other life forms, and the web of relationships in which they are immersed is foundational in this sense. An important but contentious issue surrounding education is the usefulness of this knowledge or information not at the destination, but rather over longer periods of time – the extent to which ecotourists apply this stewardship knowledge during their everyday existence back at home. Most of the literature points to the fact that there is a very weak relationship between education and the application of this new knowledge over the long term.

The third dimensions of Figure, second – order tenets, includes another four characteristics that are often used to conceptualize ecotourism. This is not to say that these tenets are of lesser importance than first – order tenets, but rather that these exist as defining criteria beyond the four more central criteria assembled in the first order. It may be argued that these exist as defining criteria beyond four more central criteria assembled in the first order. It may be argued that these tenets are somewhat more inconsistent according to their frequency of appearance in ecotourism definitions. As such, they often take on a more transitory

or supporting role in defining what is and what is not ecotourism. These four include ethically marketed and managed, low impact and consumptiveness, small-scale development and the link to natural areas.

## **Ethical Marketing and Management**

The spectrum of nature – based tourism opportunities that may or may not be positioned as ecotourism is huge. As identified above, although some forms of ecotourism are ethically marketed and managed, others quite simply are not, and fall more in line with nature – based tourism or even further along the continuum to mass tourism.

This seems to be the case with places like SeaWorld, which are labeled and marketed as ecotourism, but without its philosophical foundation. Researchers argue that the capture and display of animals for touristic consumption should not be considered as *bona fide* ecotourism because it places the well – being of the animal at risk. As such, any form of tourism that places stress on the ecology of an area, including individuals and populations, should not be considered as ecotourism. This coincides with the extent to which other more consumptive forms of nature – based tourism have been considered as ecotourism. For example, moose hunting in Sweden has been referred to as ecotourism if cultural and social aspects are taken into consideration (Gunnarsdotter, 2006). In other cases, billfishing (sport fishing for marlin and sailfish) has been referred to as ecotourism because it directs economic assistance to the local community and has economic advantages over the other uses. Theorists, however, argue that such an activity cannot be ecotourism because of: **(1)** the intention to catch the animal (ecotourism should be about minimum disturbance in all cases); **(2)** the pain and stress that result from catching the animal; **(3)** consumptiveness (catch – and – release practices still may be viewed as consumptive); and **(4)** values, such that ecotourists have a different set of values related to

sport and the intrinsic/extrinsic motivations surrounding participation in these activities (Holland *et al.*1998); Fennell, 2000). The argument follows that the treatment of animals cannot be based on healthy populations (i.e. it is fine to catch animals because of the healthy state of the populations (i.e. it is fine to catch animals because of the healthy state of the population (Regan, 1983). The development and use of weak ecotourism definitions has opened the door to a great deal of misrepresentation (and unethical marketing) and the prospect of more anthropocentric values the ecotourism umbrella is not clear. One hypothesis is that the ecotourism label offers these activities social acceptability in the face of declining memberships. Accordingly, the best way to increase participation is to make the activity more socially acceptable through normative measures hinged on sustainability and ethics (i.e. catch and release or contribution of meat, skins, bones, and ivory to local people for commercial reasons).

### **The scale of development**

Another issue that has come to the fore in ecotourism is the likelihood of infusing ecotourism's more responsible ethic into mass forms of tourism in making these other types somehow 'better'. Some ecotourism theorist argue that because scale does not matter in our efforts to be sustainable (i.e. small - and large - scale can either be good or bad), there is no reason to believe that ecotourism could not occur at a grander scale (Weaver, 2002). The argument follows that because softer path ecotourists restrict their activities to front country regions of protected areas, which are hardened sites that can be absorbed the impact of numbers (with hard path ecotourists more likely to penetrate deeper into sensitive back regions of the these areas), this group has less of an impact. Furthermore, the softer path ecotourists is more likely to contribute to conservation financially though the revenue generated by

larger numbers of tourists. An example of this 'ecotourism as mass tourism' model can be found in Thailand, where two of the region's oldest ecotour operators, Sea Canoe and Siam Safari, are said to uphold the principles of ecotourism even though they have structural connections to the package tourism industry that provides their main market.

## **V. Dynamics of Eco – Tourism**

- **Migration**
- **Climate change**

## **CHAPTER - V**

### **SUGGESTED ACTION PLAN AND STRATEGIES FOR DEVELOPMENT**

#### **Historical Background**





Nainital is referred to in the 'Manas Khand' of the 'Skanda Purana' as the Tri-Rishi-Sarovar, the lake of the three sages ,Atri, Pulastya and Pulaha who were reputed to have arrived here on a penitential pilgrimage, and, finding no water to quench their thirst dug a hole and siphoned water into it from Mansarovar the sacred lake in Tibet.

The Second important mythological reference to Nainital is as one of 64 'Shakti Peeths'. These centres were created wherever parts of charred body of Sati fell, when Lord Shiva was carrying around her corpse in grief .It is said that the left eye (Nain) of Sati fell here and this gave rise to patron deity of town Nainital. It is said that the lake is formed in the emerald eye shape. Naina Devi temple is located at the northern end of the lake. Thus name of Nainital derivated from Naina and the Tal (Lake).

### **British Settlement**

The British occupied Kumaon & Garhwal in 1815 .After the British Occupation, E. Gardiner was appointed as the commissioner of Kumaun Division on May'8th 1815 .In 1817 the second commissioner of Kumaun Mr. G.W. Traill has conducted the second revenue settlement of

Kumaun, Mr. Traill was the first European to visit Nainital but he did not popularize his visit in respect for the religious sanctity of the place.



In the year 1839 an English businessman from Rosa, Mr. P. Barron a sugar trader and his friend an avid hunter strayed into the hills while hunting they got lost and while finding their way back chanced on the wondrous spot. So enamored was Barron with the vision of the placid lake that he left the sugar business and build a European Colony on shores of the lake .In 1841, Nainital appeared in issue of the

‘Englishman Calcutta’ announcing the discovery of a lake in the vicinity of Almora.

According to the earliest data available on tourist in Nainital by 1847, it had become a popular hill resort. On 3rd October 1850, the Nainital Municipal Board was formally constituted. It was the second Municipal Board of North Western Provinces. To catalyse the formation of a town the administration transferred land to the wealthy Sah community of Almora, on condition that they build houses on the land. In 1862, Nainital became the summer seat of the North Western Provinces. After it was made the summer Capital, a remarkable expansion of the town occurred with the growth of magnificent bungalows all around and construction of facilities such as marketing areas, rest houses, recreation centres, clubs etc together with the secretariat and other administrative units. It also became an important centre of education for the British who wanted to educate their children in the better air and away from the discomforts of the plains.

## **Geography**

In the Uttarakhand, district of Nainital lies in the Kumaun division. To its north is Almora district and to its south lies the Udham Singh Nagar district. Champawat district flanks it in the east and district of Pauri Garhwal is in the west. It is located approximately in between 80°14’ and 78 ° 80’ east longitudes and 29°00’ and 29°05’ north latitude. On the northern side lies the Himalayan ranges while on the southern side lies the plains making the resultant climate of the district enjoyable one.

The total geographical area is 4251 Sq. Kms. Geographically the district is divided in to 2 zones viz. Hilly and Bhabar. The hilly region in outer Himalayas is known to geologist as Krol. The highest peak of the district is Baudhanstali 2623 mts. high near Binayak adjoining Nainital town.

The hilly region of the district .The hilly region of the district used to have big & small lakes. Bhimtal, Sattal, Naukuchiatal, Khurpatal, Nainital, Malwatal, Harishtal, Lokhamtal etc. are known lakes of bigger size.

The foothill area of the district is known as Bhabhar. The name Bhabhar is derived from a tall growing grass growing in the region . The underground water level is very deep in this region.

Kosi is the main river of the district .River Kosi arising out of Koshimool near Kausani flows on the western side of the district. There are number of smaller rivulets like Gaula, Bhakra, Dabka, Baur etc. Most of these have been dammed for irrigation purposes.

### **District at a glance**

| <b>S.NO</b> | <b>ITEM</b> | <b>UNIT</b> | <b>YEAR</b> | <b>DETAILS</b> |
|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|----------------|
| <b>1.</b>   | Area        | Sqr.<br>KMs | 2018        | 4251           |
| <b>2.</b>   | Population  |             |             |                |
|             | Male        | Nos.        | 2011        | 493666         |
|             | Female      | Nos.        | 2011        | 460939         |
|             | Total       | Nos.        | 2011        | 954605         |
|             | Rural       | Nos.        | 2011        | 582871         |
|             | Urban       | Nos.        | 2011        | 371734         |
|             | S.C.        | Nos.        | 2011        | 191206         |
|             | S.T.        | Nos.        | 2011        | 7495           |
| <b>3.</b>   | Literates   |             |             |                |
|             | Male        | Nos.        | 2011        | 385779         |
|             | Female      | Nos.        | 2011        | 310721         |
|             | Total       | Nos.        | 2011        | 696500         |

|            |                                                                                                                                 |      |               |      |
|------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|---------------|------|
| <b>4.</b>  | Tahsils                                                                                                                         | Nos. | 2018          | 9    |
| <b>5.</b>  | Development blocks                                                                                                              | Nos. | 2018          | 8    |
| <b>6.</b>  | Nyay Panchayat                                                                                                                  | Nos. | 2018          | 44   |
| <b>7.</b>  | Gram Panchayat                                                                                                                  | Nos. | 2018          | 511  |
| <b>8.</b>  | (i) Inhabited Villages<br>(ii) Un – inhabited Villages<br>(iii) Inhabited Forest Villages<br>(iv)Un – Inhabited Forest Villages | Nos. | 2017          | 1050 |
| <b>9.</b>  | Municipal Corporation                                                                                                           | Nos. | 2018          | 1    |
| <b>10.</b> | Municipal Board                                                                                                                 | Nos. | 2018          | 3    |
| <b>11.</b> | Town Area                                                                                                                       | Nos. | 2018          | 3    |
| <b>12.</b> | Cantonment Board                                                                                                                | Nos. | 2018          | 1    |
| <b>13.</b> | Govt. Hospitals &<br>Dispensaries                                                                                               |      |               |      |
|            | Allopathic                                                                                                                      | Nos. | 2016-<br>2017 | 44   |
|            | Homeopathic                                                                                                                     | Nos. | 2016-<br>2017 | 14   |
|            | Ayurvedik                                                                                                                       | Nos. | 2016-<br>2017 | 36   |
|            | PHCs                                                                                                                            | Nos. | 2016-<br>2017 | 18   |
|            | Family Welfare Centre                                                                                                           | Nos. | 2016-<br>2017 | 6    |
|            | Family Welfare Sub Centre                                                                                                       | Nos. | 2016-<br>2017 | 136  |
| <b>14.</b> | Electrified Villages                                                                                                            | Nos. | 2016-<br>2017 | 1050 |

|            |                                  |         |           |            |
|------------|----------------------------------|---------|-----------|------------|
| <b>15.</b> | Govt. Educational Institutions   |         |           |            |
|            | Jr. Basic Schools                | Nos.    | 2016-2017 | 1296       |
|            | Sr. Basic Schools                | Nos.    | 2016-2017 | 306        |
|            | Higher Secondary Schools         | Nos.    | 2016-2017 | 238        |
|            | Degree Colleges                  | Nos.    | 2016-2017 | 9          |
|            | University                       | Nos.    | 2016-2017 | 3          |
|            | I.T.I                            | Nos.    | 2016-2017 | 14         |
|            | Polytechnic                      | Nos.    | 2016-2017 | 5          |
| <b>16.</b> | Climate                          |         |           |            |
|            | Rainfall (Average)               | mm.     | 2016      | 1744       |
|            | Max.<br>Temperature (Mukteshwar) | Celsius | 2016      | 29.3       |
|            | Min.<br>Temperature(Mukteshwar)  | Celsius | 2016      | -2         |
| <b>17.</b> | Development Authority            | Nos.    | 2016      | 1          |
| <b>18.</b> | Parliamentary Constituency       | Nos.    | 2016      | 2(partial) |
| <b>19.</b> | Assembly Constituency            | Nos.    | 2016      | 6          |

## **Temperate zone of Uttarakhand**

The Temperate zone is marked by the presence of *Quercus leucotrichophora* (Banj oak), *Rhododendron arboretum* (Burans), *Myrica esculenta* (Kaphal), *Leonia ovalifolia* (Aynor), *Ilex diphylla*, *Quercus semecarpifolia* (Kharsu Oak), *Q. dilatata* (Moru Oak), etc. The coniferous forests in this zone are unique. Pure stands of *Pinus roxburghii* (Chir Pine) and *Cedrus deodar* (Deodar, Cedar), *Abies windrow* (Raga), *Pinus wallichiana* (Kali), *Taxus wallichiana* (Thuner, Himalayan Yew) at places give a pristine look to the slopes. The slopes in temperate zone also have insectivorous plants like *Drosera peltata* and species of *Utricularia*. Another such species is *Pinguicula alpina* seen in Martoli Bugyal, Kumaon. The Saprophytes and Parasites are also well represented by *Monotropa uniflora*, *Dendrophthora falcata* (Banda), *Balanophora in volucrata*, and species of *Viscum*, *Korthalsella*, *Arceuthobium*, *Scurrula*, etc. The zone has a variety of useful plants, some of them well known for centuries. These include *Cedrus deodar*, *Pinus* spp., *Abies* spp., *Quercus* spp., *Aconitum nigrum*, *Paeonia moutan*, *Swertia chirata*, *Bergenia ciliata*, *Dioscorea deltoidea*, *Angelica glauca* (Choru), etc.

## **Sub-Alpine and Alpine Zones of Uttarakhand**

The altitude above 3,000 metres is generally considered a zone of sub-alpine and alpine vegetation. The tree species are represented by *Pinus wallichiana*, *Abies* spp., *Prunus cornuta*, *Abercrombium*, *Betula utilis* (Bhojpatra) and *Salix* sp. Species of the genera *Cotoneaster*, *Rosa*, *Berberis*, *Ribes*, *Juniper*, *Rhododendron* anthopogenic, *Rhododendron campanulata* are the shrubby components of the zone. The herbaceous vegetation is represented by a number of species of genera *Potentilla*, *Primula*, *Aster*, *Saxifraga*, *Achillea*, *Delphinium*, *Polygonum*, *Corydalis*,

Pleuraspermum, Ixleconopsis, Pedicularis, Saussurea, Rheum, Silene, etc. The Bugyals of this zone are well known for a rich and diversified flora. Plant species like Nardostachys grandiflora (Jatamansi), Podophyllum hexandrum (Himalayan May-Apple, Papri), Picrorhiza kurroa (Kutaki), Gentiana burro, Atmenia berithonica (Bal char), Rheum moorcroftianum (Dole), Ephedra gerardiana, Dactylorhiza hatagirea (Hafthajari), etc., common in this zone, are of immense medicinal value. 68. The floral diversity is further exhibited by the species that grow in the rain shadow areas of Uttarakhand. Such species develop adaptive characters to survive the wrath of adverse climate. Labium rhomboid, Thylacospermum caespitosum, Acantholimon polycaepioides, Dracocephalum heterophyllum etc are a few such examples.

## **Orchids**

Uttarakhand has more than 225 species of this charming group, well known for ornamental flowers with great horticultural potential and long shelf life. Aerides, Cymbidium, Dendrobium, Thunia and Rhynchostylis, for which Mandai, Baram, Shandev, Dafia Dhoora, Kaflani, etc are rich. Among the global orchids, species of Calanthe, Habenaria, Anoctochilus, Satyrium, etc are fairly common while the Lady's Slipper Orchid-Cypripedium is scarcely distributed.

Many small river valleys offer wonderful experience to nature lovers and hikers. The vast open hay field, above the tree line presents endless views of the variously colored Himalayan flowers. The most interesting of them, aesthetically or botanically are seen in the higher altitudes, from 2,450 meters and above. The arrival of spring brings forward an uprising of colours when the Semal and Palash put the lower altitude forests on fire with their blazing red flowers. It is also the time for Burans to spread

its fire at a height of or above 2,450 metres adding colour to the blue and white panorama of snow. The flowers do not grow only in the Valley of Flowers but are found on different treks habitually up to great heights as also on the hayfield and even in rock cracks or moraines.

## **Parks and Sanctuaries**

DevBhoomi Uttarakhand is a place on earth where nature has bloomed into its youth and never grown old. 64% of the total land of Uttarakhand is covered with forest. There are 12 National Parks and Wildlife Sanctuaries in Uttarakhand which cover 13.8% of the total area of the state providing enough space for students, biologists, ornithologists, zoologists and ecologists to research and study on plants, birds, insects and animals. The parks and sanctuaries are located from 800 meters to high altitude protected areas of 5400 meters.

This bio-diversity has made possible for wide variety of flora and fauna to attract national and international tourists, researchers and specialists in Uttarakhand. There are almost 300 species of wild flowers, 4048 species of plants among which 116 species are limited to Uttarakhand only. Similarly, there are 102 species of mammals, 623 species of birds, 124 species of fish, 69 species of reptiles and 19 species of amphibians in Uttarakhand.

Various species of birds, animals and plants including the rare and endangered animals and birds like Ghoral (goat antelopes), Monal, Musk Deer and Snow Leopard are preserved in the parks and sanctuaries of Uttarakhand. Some of the must watch species are black bear, common otter, deer, Indian tiger, jungle cat, king cobra, langur (monkey), leopard, porcupine, python, rhesus monkey, sloth bear and wild dog. The

common animals in Uttarakhand forests are antelopes, butterflies, goat, oxen and wild sheep.

The following given are the National Parks, Conservation Areas and Wildlife Sancturaries of the state. Though district in which they fall is mentioned, often they do not confirm to district boundaries.

### **National Parks**

1. Jim Corbett National Park at Ramnagar in Nainital District.
2. Gangotri National Park, at Gangotri in Uttarakashi District.
3. Govind Pashu Vihar and National Park at Dharkwadi near in Uttarakashi District.
4. Nanda Devi National Park at ghangharia in Chamoli District.
5. Rajaji National Park, Dehradun in Dehradun District.
6. Valley of Flowers National Park at ghangharia at Chamoli District  
Aranyam Eco Herbal Park at Gopeshwar in Chamoli District is a Popular Park.

## **Conservation Areas**

1. Jhilmil Tal Conservation Reserves at Haridwar Forest area in Haridwar District.
2. Asan Conservation Reserves at Dhalipur Village in Dehradun District.
3. JhilmilJhell Conservation Reserves at Left bank of Ganga River in Chidaypur Forest range area in Haridwar District.

## **Wildlife Sanctuary**

1. Askot wild life Sanctuary, Pithoragarh District.
2. Assam Barrage Birds Sanctuary in Dehradun District.
3. Binog wildlife Sanctuary at Mussoorie in Dehradun District
4. Binsar Wildlife Sanctuary at Near Almora city in Almora District
5. Govind Wildlife Sanctuary at Purola tehsil in Uttarakashi District
6. Kedarnath Sanctuary at Garhwal in Chamoli and Rudraprayaga Districts.
7. Malan Sanctuary
8. Motichur Sanctuary at Dehradun District.
9. Sonanadi Wildlife Sanctuary at Kotdwar Tehsil in Pauri Garhwal district

Tourism policy has been a pivotal element in tourism development for a long time and has been placed as a top priority in the global political agenda for decades. Back in 1980, the Manila Declaration on World Tourism (1980) provided a framework for UNWTO Member's on tourism policies and set out a new vision for tourism that today continues to be a point of reference at the international level. "Tourism planning policy should be formulated at the local, regional or national level within the context of national planning such policies should be subject to periodic assessment from both the quantitative and the qualitative

standpoint.”Ever since, several UNWTO Recommendations<sup>3</sup>and Declarations<sup>4</sup>have acknowledged the importance of tourism policy as a factor for competitiveness and have urged governments to take the necessary action to adopt tourism policies within a continued close cooperation and partnership between the various public administrations and between these and the private sector. Likewise, governments are recommended to draw up policies and regulations with which national, centralized or decentralized institutions and regional and local authorities, the private sector and communities should be associated, all with a view to achieve a harmonious tourism development. The interconnection of tourism with other sectors and the need for parliaments and governments to give greater consideration to the complexity of tourism in all its aspects, economic, social and cultural, has also been underscored; its multidisciplinary nature and its vulnerability to external variables call for overall policies and inter-ministerial collaboration. This consideration argues in favour of developing coordination procedures between ministries with links to the national tourism administration. This paper aims at providing an analysis on national tourism policies and recalls governments and policy makers of the need to place tourism on top of their agendas to formulate and implement sound, coordinated and comprehensive tourism policies which embrace the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) as a means to fully harness tourism’s potential to deliver on economic growth, job creation and sustainable development..Tourism, a driver of growth and development Tourism is one of the fastest growing economic sectors and an important driver of economic growth and development with a significant impact on trade, job creation, investment, infrastructure development, and the promotion of social inclusion. International tourist arrivals increased from 697in 2000 to 1.4 billion in 2018 and are expected to reach 1.8 billion in 2030.Tourism is a major player in international trade .As the world’s third largest export category after

chemicals and fuels, international tourism (international tourism receipts and passenger transport) generated 1.7 trillion USD in 2018 representing 29% of the world's services exports and 7% of overall exports in goods and services. Tourism is a major source of employment because of its labour-intensive nature and the significant multiplier effect on employment in related sectors. It is estimated that one job in the core tourism sector creates about one and a half additional or indirect jobs in the tourism related economy and overall it accounts for one in 10 jobs in the world<sup>7</sup>. Tourism's contribution to job creation is expressly recognized in the SDGs: "By 2030, devise and implement policies to promote sustainable tourism that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products" (SDG 8, target 8.9). According to UNWTO and ILO<sup>9</sup>, tourism employment can be categorized into two separate levels depending on the involvement in or contribution to the tourism supply-side: Hotels, restaurants, travel agencies, tourism information offices, aircrafts, cruise lines, resorts or shopping outlets provide direct employment because their employees are in contact with tourists and cater for tourist demand. Tourism also supports indirect employment in activities like restaurant suppliers, construction companies that build and maintain tourist facilities, as well as necessary infrastructure, aircraft manufacturers, various handicrafts producers, marketing agencies, accounting services, which are more or less dependent on the companies providing direct employment for their revenues. Tourism is one of the biggest job creators for women and youth. The tourism sector employs more women and young people than most other sectors. The age profile of workers in the tourism sector is young. Just under a half (47%) of people working in tourism in European OECD countries are between 15 and 34 years of age, compared to a third (32%) in the economy as a whole. The share of workers between the ages of 15-24 years is particularly high at 21%, twice the share of the total economy in OECD countries. In OECD countries, women account for 60% of employment in the tourism sector.

This is higher than the share of women employed in the services sector (47%) and in the economy as a whole (43%). Furthermore, women play a leading role in tourism entrepreneurship. That “tourism industries provide entry points for women’s employment and opportunities for creating self-employment in small-and medium-size income generating activities, thus creating paths towards the elimination of poverty of women and local communities in developing countries” was already noted by UNWTO and ILO in their joint report ‘Measuring Employment in the Tourism Industries – Guide with Best Practices’. Tourism has proven to be a resilient economic activity. Over the last decades, international tourism decreased only on three occasions – in 2001 following the 11 September attacks, in 2003 due to SARS and in 2009 as a consequence of the global economic crisis. In all occasion, it has recovered strongly the subsequent years. Such resilience and growth have translated into employment generation. According to OECD, job creation in ‘hotels and restaurants’ in the OECD countries grew at a rate double than that of the whole of the economy between 2009 and 2013. Tourism’s contribution to sustainable development is increasingly recognized by national and international policy makers showing the importance of aligning tourism with national and global policies: G20 Osaka Leaders’ Declaration, 29 June 2019, G20 Osaka Summit 2019, Tourism 24. A tourism account for a significant share of the world’s GDP and is expected to continue to be an important driver of global economic growth. We will work to maximize the sector’s contribution to the creation of quality jobs and entrepreneurship, especially for women and youth and in the creative industry; economic resilience and recovery; the preservation of natural resources through sustainable tourism planning and management; and the achievement of inclusive and sustainable development. [...] Tourism is included in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) as a target in Goals 8, 12 and 14: – Goal 8, target 8.9 “By 2030, devise and implement policies to promote sustainable tourism that creates jobs and promotes

local culture and products”;- Goal 12, target12.B “Develop and implement tools to monitor sustainable development impacts for sustainable tourism that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products”; and – Goal 14, target 14.7 “By 2030, increase the economic benefits to Small Island developing States and least developed countries from the sustainable use of marine resources, including through sustainable management of fisheries, aquaculture and tourism” The increasing recognition of tourism in sustainable development and in the achievement of the 2030 Agenda brings a unique opportunity for governments to become actively involved in national tourism planning for the SDGs and create sound and integrated tourism policies. The inclusion of tourism in the SDGs and the targets of the 2030 Agenda is a testimony of the positive contribution that tourism can make to sustainable development and should also be an inspirational element in tourism policies. Governments and tourism policy makers are called upon to take necessary action to accelerate the shift towards a more sustainable tourism sector by aligning policies and investments with the SDGs

Community Engagement and Participation – Public, Private and Community Partnerships Tourism if well planned, developed and managed is a catalyst for economic growth, inclusive development and environmental sustainability. For that local communities must be engaged and benefit from tourism. A truly community approach calls for the active participation of the host population in the design and management of tourism through appropriate consultation processes, which ultimately contribute to enhance the governance of the tourism sector. Some actions that contribute to ensure that local communities benefit from tourism are:-Increase the level of employment in tourism and strive to create decent jobs;- Promote the positive impacts of tourism, create awareness and knowledge of the sector amongst local

communities;-Conduct an analysis of supply-demand potential of the local communities and promote their integration in the tourism value chain;-Engage local communities in the development of new tourism products;-Strengthen the linkages between tourism and other economic sectors by increasing the locally produced food items in the tourism value chain, encourage the tourism industry to incorporate local products or develop shopping amenities/opportunities (i.e. local arts and crafts, apparel, etc.) in tourism points:- Foster the local ownership of tourism facilities and services by creating a friendly business environment (i.e. incentives, joint ventures of local and foreign companies when possible and, if local capital is limited allow for foreign ownership but require purchase by local owners when capital is available and require procurement practices ensuring a degree of national/local supply, local tour operators handling foreign tour groups, etc.);- Improve the quality of infrastructure and services considering residents and visitors; and-Stimulate development of impoverished regions/destinations through tourism. In order to achieve the goals above it is crucial to communicate with and engage local stakeholders by: - Ensuring that a tourism management group (including all stakeholders) is set up and is regularly convened;- Organizing professional development programmes for partners and communities;- Organizing local discussion platforms for residents and regularly monitoring residents' perceptions and attitudes towards tourism;- Encouraging locals to share interesting content about their destination on social media;- Communicating with residents on a regular basis about tourism development and its impacts and benefits; and- Use tourism to connect disjointed communities and promote the inclusion. The relationship between residents and visitors should be one of the critical issues of a tourism policy. Thus, the actions listed above cannot be disconnected from an appropriate communication plan to engage visitors. Some specific actions can include:

Create awareness of tourism impact amongst visitors;-Educate visitors on local values, traditions and regulations; and-Provide adequate information about traffic restrictions, parking facilities, fees, shuttle bus services, etc

## **UTTARAKHAND EMERGENCY ASSISTANCE PROJECT-TOURISM (GMVN & KMVN)**

### **Project Background**

During June 15 to 17, 2013, cloud bursts and heavy (64.5 - 124.4 mm) to very heavy rainfall (124.5 – 244.4 mm) hit several parts of the higher reaches of the Himalayas in the State of Uttarakhand. This unprecedented rainfall resulted in a sudden increase in water levels giving rise to flash floods in the Mandakini, Alaknanda, Bhagirathi, Kali, & Gauri river basins and also caused extensive landslides at various locations & wide spread damages to properties & loss of lives. Casualties in the affected areas ran into thousands apart from loss to the created infrastructure support for the pilgrims/tourists. Due to flash floods, many hotels, tourist rest houses, restaurants and shops in Garhwal & Kumaon region were completely destroyed, badly affecting the entire tourism sector in Uttarakhand.

### **Impact on Tourism**

As tourism industry is the backbone of economy of Uttarakhand state, it was adversely affected due to disaster. According to estimates from the Uttarakhand Hotel and Restaurant Association, the floods washed away over 100 small hotels which were constructed right on the riverbanks due to flash flood in Himalayan rivers. Rudraprayag district was worst hit due to disaster, besides Rudraprayag, Chamoli, Uttarkashi,

Bageshwar & Pithoragarh were the other districts, which were affected during disaster -2013.

As a part of Tourism Restoration Drive, it was decided by the Govt. of Uttarakhand that Uttarakhand Tourism Department's Assets run by G.M.V.N. /K.M.V.N., damaged during disaster June 2013 in above 5 disaster affected districts be Restored / Reconstructed / Rehabilitated so as to compensate for the loss of tourist accommodation and to provide improved accommodation facilities to the tourist / pilgrims visiting Uttarakhand.

The ADB, on receiving a request from DEA (Department of Economy & affairs) GOI, extended a hand of cooperation for rehabilitation/restoration/reconstruction of damaged assets of tourism infrastructure in the state of Uttarakhand. Following packages have been approved by HPC (High Power Committee).

- Construction of hybrid huts.
- Eco- friendly Galvanized LGFS (Light gauge framing steel structures) huts.
- Eco- friendly Galvanized LGFS Meditation centre, Multipurpose hall & Night Shelter.
- Re-developed/Re-strengthened TRH's (Tourist Rest Houses).
- Night Shelter's in Prefabricated Fiber-reinforced Plastic (FRP) Structure and social facilities.

## **CHAPTER - VI**

### **CONCLUSION AND FINDING**

Leisure, adventure and religious tourism play a prominent role in Uttarakhand's economy, with Corbett National Park and Tiger Reserve and the nearby hill stations of Nainital, Mussoorie, Almora, Kausani, Bhimtal and Ranikhet being amongst the most frequented destinations of India. Uttarakhand has many other tourist spots as well, where tourists come from all over the world, such as Rishikesh, Hemkund Sahib, Nanakmatta, Auli, Chakrata, Bageshwar, Bhimtal, Kausani, Lansdowne and many others. The state also has numerous peaks, mountains and pristine high-altitude lakes of interest to mountaineers, trekkers and outdoors enthusiasts. Other national wonders include the Valley of Flowers, which along with Nanda Devi National Park and Biosphere Reserve forms a UNESCO World Heritage Site. The state has always been a destination for mountaineering, hiking and rock climbing in India. A recent development in adventure tourism in the region has been white water rafting and other adventure sports. Ecotourism, agri-tourism, freshwater angling and cultural and rural tourism have also found new grounds in many villages of the state. Uttarakhand is also home to some of the holiest Hindu shrines and for more than a thousand years, pilgrims have been visiting the region. Gangotri and Yamnotri, the sources of the Ganga and Yamuna, are located in the upper reaches of the state and together with Badrinath and Kedarnath form the Char Dham, one of Hinduism's most spiritual and auspicious pilgrimage circuits. Haridwar, meaning 'Gateway to God', is also a prime Hindu destination. Haridwar hosts the Kumbha Mela every 12 years, in which millions of pilgrims from all parts of the India and the world take part. Rishikesh, near Haridwar, is known as the pre-eminent yoga centre of India. The state is also known for the typical architecture of most of

these temples. The ancient temples at Jageshwar (a complex of 124 temples in Deodar woodland) are historically the most prominent for their distinct architectural features. Hemkund, nested in the Himalaya, is a prime pilgrimage centre for the Sikhs. Tibetan Buddhism has also made itself felt with the recent reconstruction of Mindroling Monastery and its Buddha stupa, south-west of Dehradun. Uttarakhand ranks eighth among the states of India in terms of tourist arrivals, which are expected to grow exponentially.

The existing tourism infrastructure in terms of accommodation is managed by multiple agencies, predominantly the Garhwal Mandal Vikas Nigam (GMVN) and the Kumaon Mandal Vikas Nigam (KMVN), both state-owned enterprises that manage tourism in the Garhwal and Kumaon regions of the state.

### **Vulnerability to Climate Change**

As on date, no detailed climate vulnerability analyses and risk analyses exist for Uttarakhand. Likewise, no record of community perceptions of impacts of climate change on tourism appears to have been documented. However, analyses carried out elsewhere hold true in general for Uttarakhand as well. The tourism industry and destinations are clearly sensitive to climate variability and change. The climate defines the length and quality of tourism seasons and plays a major role in destination choice and tourist spending. In many destinations, tourism is closely linked with the natural environment. The climate affects a wide range of the environmental resources that are critical attractions for tourism, such as snow conditions, preservation of wildlife and biodiversity and water levels and quality. The climate also has an important influence on the environmental conditions that can deter tourists, including infectious diseases, wildfires, insect-or water-borne disease and extreme events. As such, mountain destinations such as in Uttarakhand are considered

particularly sensitive to climate-induced environmental change, as are nature-based tourism market segments. Considering the current and potential scope of tourism, climate change poses a direct economic threat to not only the sector but also the state.

## **Issues, Challenges and Priorities**

### **Issues and Challenges**

The unplanned growth of places as centres of tourism has had a severe and negative impact on the environment. The inflow of tourists places tremendous pressures on existing resources and infrastructure—in 2010, for example, Uttarakhand received as many as 31.1 million tourists—about 300% of the population of the state. A range of other issues beset the state's tourism sector:

- Many natural areas reflect man-made influences and virtually all Urban environments are of very poor quality in terms of overall Appearance.
- Pollution/waste management, health/safety and urban Design/congestion are serious threats and do little justice to the Natural environment.
- There is almost no interpretation of the natural environment in General; and many popular tourist spots such as Gangotri lack Conservation management.
- Limited design quality in development of tourism facilities and lack Of efficient public transportation.
- Inadequate understanding and participation in tourism by Communities and poor environmental awareness among the Population, domestic tourists, resort owners and developers.
- Over-development at certain scenic or religious spots, coupled with Inadequate management planning, increases in traffic and pollution

And continued poor maintenance of roads.

## **Priorities**

The Tourism Policy of the state focuses on placing Uttarakhand on the tourism map of the world as one of the leading tourist destinations and making Uttarakhand synonymous with tourism; developing the manifold tourism-related resources of the state in an eco-friendly manner, with the active participation of the private sector and the local host communities; and developing tourism as a major source of employment and income/revenue generation and as a pivot of economic and social development in the state. Key priorities include conducting carrying capacity studies, promoting more responsible and equitable tourism, distributing income from tourism, including retention of tourism income in local areas of the state and promoting low-key, community-based tourism.

## **Existing Initiatives**

Some of the initiatives that the Tourism Department has been undertaking include the following:

- Creation of multiple tourist-friendly locations to decongest existing Tourist locations.
- Providing appropriate wayside amenities at all locations.
- Promoting adventure tourism (water sports, trekking, mountaineering And skiing) and integrated and inclusive tourism.
- Providing better amenities to pilgrims and religious tourists.
- Engaging professional consulting companies and individuals for Conceptualization, design and development of tourism projects.
- Community involvement and capacity building.
- Solid waste and water management at all sites.
- Solar power usage in remote areas for tourism infrastructure. The

Forest Department is also promoting eco-tourism and responsible Travel to natural areas to conserve the environment and sustain the Well-being of local people.

## **Sectoral Responses**

### **I. Sectoral Vision and Commitment**

As is articulated in the state's tourism policy, Uttarakhand is committed to promoting tourism in an eco-friendly manner, with the active participation of the private sector and the local host communities and developing tourism as a major source of employment and income/revenue generation and as a pivot of economic and social development in the state. It is also committed to taking all possible measures to minimize the sector's 'footprint' while building adaptive resilience.

### **II. Strategies**

Towards improving the scientific knowledge and evidence base and understanding climate change and its impacts, the Tourism Department will set into motion processes for tracking and documenting impacts of climate change on the sector, its infrastructure and the linked economic, social and environmental continuum to build an improved understanding and evidence base. This will be carried out on an ongoing basis by the department and its partners and other organizations such as the GMVN and KMVN. It is anticipated that as the knowledge and experience base grows, increasing responsive and efficient measures can be adopted for both adaptive resilience building and mitigation. For improving governance mechanisms, institutional decision making and

convergence, the Tourism Department will develop a Climate Change Cell, tasked with overseeing climate change-related issues and initiatives. It will, in addition, work with GMVN and KMVN to establish similar cells, in addition to seeking partnerships with and encouraging associations of tour operators and other private sector tourism service providers in the state to undertake similar measures. At the same time, the department will also seek convergence opportunities with linked departments (especially the Forest Department and its eco-tourism initiatives) for shared/co-ordinated responses to climate change wherever possible. To build adaptive resilience, several options will be explored, including stimulating product and seasonal diversification; improving insurance cover in the face of extreme events and natural disasters (e.g., avalanches); promoting industry partnerships; educating and raising awareness among tourists about the impacts of global environmental change on the state; improving water use and protecting watersheds; improving emergency preparedness and warning and evacuation systems and collaborating more proactively with local communities to showcase tourism itself as an adaptive resilience building option to other occupations. For contributing to mitigation, options that will be examined and adopted appropriately include in-depth assessment of the potential impacts of market-based instruments and levies on the different components of the tourism industry (accommodation, tour operators, travel agencies, etc.); encouraging partnerships between different transport and tourism stakeholders with the objective of reducing emissions by optimizing the value chain; promoting the use of public transport and energy conservation and efficiency in buildings and tourist attractions; using alternative fuels (e.g., bio-diesel) and renewable energy sources (e.g., wind, photovoltaic, solar, thermal, geothermal, biomass and waste) and supporting initiatives related to recycling. Awareness building will be taken up on a large scale in a phased manner for the public in general and communities in tourism

locations/destinations. Additionally, it is anticipated that specific tailor-made awareness and capacity building programmes will be undertaken for department personnel, personnel of GMVN and KMVN, staff from government tourism facilities, as well as staff from tour operator groups/associations, etc. for effectiveness. It is also anticipated that such programmes will be repeated and that capacity and awareness building will remain ongoing activities. A robust monitoring and evaluation framework and protocol will be developed to support programme implementation, in line with the overall monitoring structure. As tourism destinations and tourism potential are similar in many states of the IHR, efforts will be made to document and share experiences with the tourism departments of other states. The department will also consider the idea of developing and hosting Himalayan Mountain Tourism conclaves, with participation from other states and B2B sharing of learning as a part of such conclaves. Tourism is an excellent adaptation mechanism and an alternative livelihood option, with the potential to stem the large-scale migration from villages, if managed effectively. As such, considering the sheer scale of the tourism potential in the state, the sector can be a significant factor in combating poverty as well as in enhancing livelihoods. The department also recognizes that production and consumption of freshwater, food and fuel, land use and transport are gender-specific responsibilities. Owing to their comparative lack of financial resources and roles as providers of food, water and energy, women may be hit harder than men by increasing food, water or energy prices. This will be considered in all activities of tourism promotion and all opportunities to use tourism development to further gender equity will be used, while any discrimination of women through the course of tourism development will be avoided. Participatory strategies of tourism planning and development, including gender-sensitive indicators, will be used actively to achieve sector goals and the involvement of women's organizations, co-operatives, consumer

associations, tourism companies, media and marketing experts will be sought. June 2013 Disaster has been a great setback to the tourism industry in Uttarakhand. The state incurred heavy loss in terms of human and livestock lives along with heavy damage to the infrastructure. Rebuilding of infrastructure and future development for the sector will have to be based on the experience learnt from this massive natural calamity. The department sees significant roles for the private sector in implementing and supporting implementation of the sector goals under the UAPCC. In addition to the already substantive private sector presence in the sector, new partnerships, potentially in the form of PPPs, will be sought to develop new climate-resilient and friendly green infrastructure and facilities, while studying the possibility of revamping and retrofitting existing tourism facilities to meet climate-resilient and energy-efficient standards, etc. The private sector will also be a potential source of collaboration for the introduction of new tourism products, management solutions and techniques and innovative technologies. Likewise, the departments also envisage similar collaborations with the financial sector to leverage sector gains. With their close links to communities and the grassroots, civil society and voluntary organizations will be seen as critical partners in sector development and processes and will be consulted/co-opted on an ongoing basis in all aspects of implementation under the UAPCC. International agencies are likely to be significant partners in helping the state achieve its tourism sector goals. The department is already partnering the ADB for tourism infrastructure development/revamping and other similar collaborative partnerships are likely to emerge.

## **Research Findings**

- I. Material Science**
- II. Material Culture**
- III. Applications of science.**
- IV. Low carbon modes.**
- V. Principles applied envisage widespread adoption.**
- VI. Geographically Imagination/Strata.**

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