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TOURISM INNOVATIONS
AN INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF INDIAN TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY CONGRESS (ITHC)

Aims and Objectives:

Tourism Innovations: A Journal of Indian Tourism and Hospitality Congress (ITHC) is a bi-annual international referred research Journal focusing on academic perspectives in Tourism and Hospitality. Being an journal of inter-disciplinary field, the journal focuses on various aspects of tourism and hospitality like, Tourism Issues, Tourism Impacts, Eco-tourism, Sustainable Tourism, Tourism Marketing, Medical Tourism, Health Tourism, Culture Tourism, Culinary Arts, Service Operations and other tourism, trave and hospitality areas. The objective of the journal is to have a comprehensive collection of research articles and dispersal of updated knowledge and information about tourism sector.

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Hospitality and Tourism Research Journal Publications in India: Bon Voyage since 1976 -2014

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Abstract

The study has a twofold purpose: to provide an overview of evolution of research journals in the tourism & hospitality field in India and to create a database that legitimate to observe the evolution of the field between 1976 and 2014. For the present study details have been obtained from NISCAIR & RNI, Google Search and Round Table with inputs from academic practitioners & researchers from universities (15), hotel & tourism industry representatives (10) during April - June 2014. Only the journals dedicated exclusively to tourism and/or hospitality research have been included in the research. Thus, a set of 24 academic journals in tourism and hospitality have been pooled in the present study. This study summarises the progression of research journals in the tourism &hospitality field. This paper argues that during the past 10 years tourism & hospitality research journals have made a significant progress in terms of publication frequency that have a profound impact on the growth and development of tourism & hospitality management education. The study suggests that research journals have new duties at this turning point to promote knowledge creation in the field of tourism & hospitality. For future research similar analyses including not only tourism & hospitality journals but also a bigger number of subject themes are needed, to expand the findings to the field as a whole.

Keywords:

Hospitality, Tourism, Research Journals, India

Introduction

India has experienced dramatic economic growth in the 20 years since the economic reforms introduced in 1990. India's tourism & hospitality industry is one of the fastest-growing in the national economy. From 2000 to 2011, the total revenues of India's tourism increased by 25 per cent annually (Ministry of Tourism, 2012). It is forecasted by the UN World Tourism Organization that India's tourism industry will represent an 8 per cent share of the worldwide tourism market and will rank as the world's top tourism industry by 2022 (UNWTO, 2012). Further, forecasts indicate that this industry contributes around 6.23% to the national GDP and 8.78% of the total employment of the country. The direct contribution to the GDP totalled US$ 30.95 Billion 2012 and is expected to rise to US$ 40.8 million by 2020. Moreover, the market size of the tourism and hospitality industry stood at US$117.70Bn. The industry grew at a CAGR of 36.50% during 2009-2013 and growing at a forecasted CAGR of 15.15%, it is expected to become a US$418.90 Billion industry by 2022. (Ministry of Tourism, 2014).

India's remarkable tourism & hospitality development growth history and current trends has drawn mounting attention not only from domestic and international investors for its business opportunities but also from academic researchers worldwide. Moreover, the speedy growth of tourism and hospitality in India has been accompanied by a surge in the tourism & hospitality research literature. During last two decades several research journals in hospitality and tourism has emerged to void gap in tourism & hospitality literature in India.

Academic researchers have long advocated the importance of quality and industry oriented research for assessing their academic credential (Leiper ,2000; Ferreira, et.al. ,1998; Ferreira, et al., 1994; Frechtling, 2004; Pechlaner, et. al., 2004; McKercher, 2005; Ryan, 2005; Mc Kercher, et. al., 2006; Faulkner, . and Goeldner, 1998; and Bagri, et al, 2010). However, academicians are required to publish in "Research Journals" of their or related domain to comply with institutional or nation-wide research assessment exercises, gain promotion or other such reasons. Established disciplines like Management, Engineering & Technology, Pharmacy and others have widely accepted listing of Journals including their hierarchical ratings as well. However, in Hospitality & Tourism Education in India there is no formal listing of Journals of the discipline and thus hierarchal rating perspective vanishes automatically. Often in hospitality & tourism domain university teachers, researchers and higher education funding agencies in India have to rely on their peers for publishing in Academic Journals and often allied or related Journals are chosen to get their research published. Apparently, the process of publication becomes dependent on multidisciplinary, allied or special issue publications and many a times even not reaches to the reached. Also such publications are at best arbitrary, often biased, exclusive and not reflective of the dynamic nature of tourism and hospitality. The issue is complicated further by the directives of University Grants Commission to have Journals of domain enlisted and approved in Department Councils and University Boards so as to consider select publications for evaluation for faculty promotion. The absence of such formal listing within Indian Subcontinent further raises a debate for Hospitality & Tourism Academicians on issue of getting research published. As a consequence, the hospitality and tourism community is placed in the unenviable position where it must continually inform higher education administrators about the breadth and depth of its academic literature.

Recognizing these vary facts this paper aims to provide an overview of evolution of research journals in the tourism & hospitality field in India and to create a database that legitimate to observe the evolution of the field between 1976 and 2014. Moreover, this research seeks to fill the need by presenting the results of a formal documentation of Hospitality & Tourism Journals in India using a fair and open process. The intent of present research is to report on the findings of the study and not to make value judgments about any of the journals assessed.

Tourism Education in India:

Tourism is a major source of socio-economic development, entrepreneurship and employment generation for a country like India. The tourism experts from across the globe have aptly acknowledged the dynamics of tourism education. The growth of tourism industry largely depends upon the educated, skilled and efficient man force. Sensing the importance of tourism education, The Ministry of Tourism, Government of India established Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel Management (IITTM) as a registered society in Gwalior during 80s with an objective of offering education, training, research and consultancy in sustainable management of tourism, travel and allied sectors.

Apart from the courses on Tourism Management by IITTM, the discipline of Tourism paved its way in Indian University Tourism Education with a Postgraduate Diploma in 1976 offered by HNB Garhwal Central University and Masters Degree Programme in Tourism in early 1990's in University Teaching Department at Kurukshetra University. Since then, there is no looking back and today, about 35 universities including Deemed universities in the country are offering tourism course at varying levels acknowledging the growing interest of learners towards tourism education. University Grants Commission allocated Travel and Tourism course at under graduation level under various nomenclatures like Bachelors of Travel & Tourism Management (B.T.T.M.) B.B.A. in Tourism

Management etc. At post graduate level, numbers of Indian universities are offering MBA in Tourism and MTTM. Some private institutes are also running certificate courses as well. Apart from exclusive graduate and postgraduate travel & tourism programmes IITTM in India, is also imparting various training and short-term programmes related to the ancillary services of tourism sector like Ticketing & Cargo Management in collaboration with Air India staff college, Bombay; Water Training programme in collaboration with the National Institute of Water Sports, Goa and Airlines Management etc.

Hospitality Education in India:

Department of Food, Ministry of Agriculture, Government of India initiated training program in the field of Hotel Management Catering Technology & Applied Nutrition in 1962. Initially, four Institutes of Hotel Management (IHM's) were set in New Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai and Kolkata and twelve Food Craft Institutes (FCI) at various places for imparting training in hospitality related craft disciplines. The efflorescence in the hospitality industry has resulted into tremendous popularity of Hotel Management & Catering Technology program in the country. Initially it was known as National Board of Studies in Food Management, Catering & Nutrition under the administrative control of Ministry of Agriculture (Department of Food) and subsequently got transferred to the Ministry of Tourism, Govt. of India in the year 1984. It was rechristened as National Council for Hotel Management & Catering Technology. Presently (2014), Ministry has set up 21 Central Institutes of Hotel Management (IHMs), 21 State Government IHMs, 15 Private IHMs and 7 Food Craft Institutes (FCIs) offering specialized courses. Through the Council, these institutes offer Ten (10) different professional programs leading to award of Certificate, Diploma, Post Graduate Diploma, Bachelor and Master Degree. The National Council of Hotel Management (NCHM) together with Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) upgraded the three year diploma program to a B.Sc Degree program in Hospitality & Hotel Administration in 2003. Later in 2004, M.Sc program in Hospitality was initially started at four IHM's. The IHMs offer M.Sc in Hospitality Administration, B.Sc in Hospitality and Hotel Administration, PG Diploma and other Certificate Courses. The Food Craft Institutes (FCIs) offer one and half year Diploma Programme in Food Production, F & B Service, Housekeeping Operation, Front Office Operation and Bakery and

Confectionary. Various schemes like "Hunar se rozgar" are also launched by the Ministry of Tourism, Government of India to train the young boys and girls of India for providing service to hospitality and travel industry.

In the university system the hospitality education has marked its presence in the year 1996 at MJP Ruhelkhand University, Bareilly offering launched 4 year Bachelor of Hotel Management & Catering Technology programme. Subsequently, Bundelkhand University Jhansi (2001), BIT Mesra (2003), HNB Garhwal University, Srinagar Garhwal (2004) introduced undergraduate programmes in Hospitality. The masters programme in hotel management was first introduced by Kurukshetra University, Haryana (2002), IGNOU (2004) & MD University, Rohtak (2005) and thereafter many more universities started offering various UG & PG level programmes and as well M.Phil and Ph.D programmes in Hotel and/or Tourism Management in the subsequent years.

Recognising the growth of Tourism & Hospitality Programmes in Indian Universities and disparity in nomenclature offered in Degrees of Hospitality & Tourism, The University Grants Commission, New Delhi specified the list of all degrees including Hotel & Tourism vide **The Gazette of India, Part III Section -4, Specification of Degrees in 2014.** The specified list of Degrees in Hospitality & Tourism that can only be offered in India hence forth are as listed in table-1.

Table:-1 Specification of Degrees in Hotel & Tourism Management in India

PART III—SEC. 4] THE GAZETTE OF INDIA, JULY 5, 2014 (ASADHA 14, 1936) 2987

UNIVERSITY GRANTS COMMISSION

SPECIFICATION OF DEGREES

NEW DELHI, March, 2014

NO. F. 5-1/2013 (CPP-II)--In exercise of the powers conferred by sub-Section (3) of Section 22 of the University Grants Commission Act, 1956 (3 of 1956) and in supersession of all earlier Gazette Notifications pertaining to specification of degrees, the University Grants Commission (UGC) with the approval of the Central Government hereby specifies the nomenclature of degree for the purposes of the said section.

SPECIFIED DEGREES

Broad discipline-wise nomenclatures of degrees at all levels of higher education should be taken as the specified degree, which the universities/institutions must adhere to, are given below. Alongside the nomenclature of the degrees, minimum entry-level qualifications and duration of the programmes have also been indicated. The information is presented in a tabular form for clarity. In the bottom-most row of each table, nomenclatures of degrees that are presently in vogue in some institutions were found to be neither conventional, nor reflective of a real innovation in knowledge and are de-specified with the suggestion that the same may be restructured/changed as suggested therein.

	Hotel Management/Hospitality/Tourism/Travel				
	Specified Degrees		Level	Minimum Duration (Years)	Entry Qualification
	Abbreviated	Expanded			
48.	BHM	Bachelor of Hotel Management	BACHELOR'S	4	10+2
49.	MHM	Master of Hotel Management	MASTER'S	2	BACHELOR'S
50.	BHMCT	Bachelor of Hotel Management & Catering Technology	BACHELOR'S	4	10+2
51.	MHMCT	Master of Hotel Management & Catering Technology	MASTER'S	2	BACHELOR'S
52.	BTTM	Bachelor of Tourism & Travel Management	BACHELOR'S	4	10+2
53.	MTTM	Masters of Tourism & Travel Management	MASTER'S	2	BACHELOR'S

Will require restructuring of some degrees being offered by a few universities:

BHTM be restructured as BHM/ BHMCT /BTTM
BTA be restructured as BTTM/ BBA (Tourism & Travel)
MTA be restructured as MTTM or as MBA (Tourism & Travel Management)
BHMTT be restructured as BHM/BHMCT/BTTM

2990 THE GAZETTE OF INDIA, JULY 5, 2014 (ASADHA 14, 1936) [PART III—SEC. 4

Extracted and presented in current form from The Gazette of India, Orignal version can be accessed on http://www.ugc.ac.in/pdfnews/1061840_specification-of-degrees-july-2014.pdf

Source: The Gazette of India, Part III Section -4, Specification of Degrees

Review of Literature on Research Journals, Academic Productivity and Ranking of Journals:

Although tourism and hospitality as an academic field of study is relatively young compared to other established disciplines (Hunt & Layne, 1991). But as is evident there are numerous research studies on the tourism & hospitality management (Breiter & Clements (1996). The 21st centenary era witnessed phenomenal advancement & escalation in academic journals in the field of tourism and hospitality management.

The genesis of hospitality programme related to 'hotels' was traced back in 1922 at Cornell University and Michigan State University in 1963 introduced 'tourism' to undergraduate students (Lewis, 1993). Since then, a large number of collegiate-level programmes and departments have emerged both across the United States & internationally (Pearce, Routledge & Morrison 1998). But then also, the disciplinary status of tourism is considered dubious by many academicians and scholars. Tribe (1997) asserted that Tourism is not a discipline but consists of two distinct fields: the business of Tourism and the non-business aspect of Tourism He defended the non-disciplinary nature of tourism and opined that Tourism studies should identify and focus on its diversity only and should not limit itself to an overly idealized concept. However, Leiper (2000) responded directly to Tribe's assertions of Tourism's non-disciplinary nature and favoured a recognition that a discipline can be seen to be emerging, and that ' the debate about whether or not a discipline of tourism studies exists is similar to debates about whether or not the industry exists'. Bagri, Chand & Dahiya (2010) considered these debates as crucial for asserting the nature of tourism as a subject and the extent of its academic maturity to be aired in the increasing number of academic tourism journals. There have been many researches on rankings of Teaching Departments, Measuring Research Productivity and Rating of Research Journals in Hospitality and Tourism discipline.

Jogaratnam, et al.(2005) opined that the analysis of research productivity and contributions has its benefits as such data provide academic administrators with a meaningful way to compare the efficiency and productivity of their institution with others and also provide needed information to the prospective graduate students and existing faculty members who are seeking new and collaborative research opportunities.

Svensson et. al.(2009a) described the 'scientific identity' of scholarly journals in hospitality and tourism research by reviewing and evaluating the approaches and the geographical affiliations of authors published in selected journals. The results appear to reveal the 'scientific identity' of each of the selected journals. In particular, scholars can note the particular features of individual journals while acknowledging the width and variety of research designs that are published in these scholarly journals. In similar vein, Svensson et. al.(2009b) identified the 'empirical characteristics' of scholarly journals in hospitality and tourism research by assessing selected journals. A sample of scholarly journals was selected on the basis of journal ranking lists. The 'empirical characteristics' assessed in this study were found to be variable across the studied journals

Recently, hospitality and tourism academia claim a rapidly mounting number of refereed, peer-reviewed and indexed journals globally and India is no exception in this context. The profound impact of academia claim have been investigated by the several authors (Ferreira, et al., 1994; Frechtling, 2004; Pechlaner, et. al., 2004; McKercher, 2005; Ryan, 2005; and Mc Kercher, et. al., 2006). Even though not all researchers agreed, they did show consensus on the most highly recognized hospitality and tourism journals. Various methods have been used by the researchers and scholars to determine quantity and quality of publications.

Citation analysis is being advocated by many researchers. Weaver and McCleary (1989) undertook a citation analysis of academic contributors from 1983 to 1988 across four journals. Citation indices measure the frequency that an article or articles in a journal are cited in other papers/ journals over a particular period of time (Garfield, 1994a). Garfield (1994a, b) argues that the frequency of citations for certain journals implies their scholarly importance and by evaluating citations, it is possible to rank, evaluate, categorize, and compare journals. The more frequently a journal is cited, the greater its impact is on the field and, thus one can argue that the higher the quality of the journal. Schmidgall & Woods (1997 &1998) also believes the added advantage of citation method is in being objective and independent. Weaver, McCleary, et al. (1990); Rutherford and Samenfink (1992); Woods and Schmidgall (2001) and Rutherford & Samenfink (2002a) conducted citation analysis in their various research for hospitality and tourism journals. But the use of citation indices has its own limitations too, where as impact factor is also one of the considerations. Morgan and Janca (2000) identified a number of major limitations in the use of impact factors, including the limited source of the database (limited to certain journals and excluding books), a strong bias to English language journals published in North America and the fact that citation indices cannot discriminate between positive or negative citations. Sloan and Needleman (2000) further add that citation systems favor older, more established journals that cover generalist themes and publish more papers than newer, specialist journals that publish fewer papers. Brown (2003) also stated that popular or well-known authors also tend to be cited proportionately more than unknown authors. The other method used for quantitative and qualitative analysis of research journals is the acceptance rate. It is reported that low is the acceptance rate of research articles, high is the quality of the journal. More is the difficulty in acceptance of the paper, the higher is the quality of the paper published and thus, the higher the quality of the journal. Further, Ferreira, et.al. (1998) cited that acceptance rate is an important factor in their study of how hospitality program directors rate journals. But this method too suffers from various limitations as the acceptance rate by a journal is mostly concealed and not publicized and the proliferation in tourism and hospitality industry has proportionately increased the research in these areas also and thus leading to expansion of journals page wise and edition-wise too that may come at the cost of a higher acceptance rate. Another emerging method of quality and quantity of research journals supported by Polonsky, Jones, and Kearsley (1999); Brown (2003) and Ryan (2005) is frequency of using electronic database of the journal /article. In fact, this method is indicating quality and quantity of research journals is documenting the number of downloads from electronic databases. However, most of research scholars (Polonsky, et al. ,1999; Brown ,2003 and Ryan ,2005) pointed towards the biasness of this method as only journals listed on the database can be evaluated and the evaluation is limited only by those people who have access to the database.

The use of expert panels is also used as proxy measure. This technique is successfully been used in hospitality journals (Ferreira, deFranco, & Rappole, 1994; Ferreira et al., 1998); in the field of human resource management (Caligiuri, 1999) and in management information systems (MIS) (Nord & Nord, 1995).Besides being unbiased and expertise of panel, the method too has a number of weakness. It seems unlikely that experts be fully aware of and knowledgeable enough about the entire site of journals in the subject area. Ferreira et al. (1998) asserts that the opinions of the panel may be influenced by intangible criteria such as the perceived rejection rate, reputation of editorial board members, the age of the journal and other factors. Beed and Beed (1995 as cited in Vastag & Montabon, 2002) observed that the typical economist knows no more than six or eight journals out of the more than 100 journals in this discipline.

Rating and ranking of research journals is also done through Peer assessment systems. This method is widely used in operations management (Soteriou, Hadjinicola, & Patsia, 1999), MIS (Mylonopoulos & Theoharakis, 2001), construction management (Wing, 1997), international business (Dubois & Reeb, 2000), and tourism and hospitality (Hsu & Yeung, 2003; Pechlaner, Zehrer, Matzler, & Abfalter, 2004; Schmidgall, Woods, & Rutherford, 1996; Sheldon, 1990). It is considered to be very reliable method since it is based in the end-users' own opinions but then has its limitations too. The limited sample size, the limited geographic scope or biasness on the part of reviewer are some major problems with this method.

The above discussion reveals that much have been done at international level for measuring research productivity, rating and ranking of research journals in hospitality and tourism disciplines but a careful investigation of tourism and hospitality research is equally needed in Indian scenario as hospitality & tourism in India is in nascent phase so it becomes quintessential to at least have the documentation of the research journals in hospitality and tourism fields. Moreover, when looking at how research journals in the tourism & hospitality field have progressed in recent years, it can assist us in appreciating recognizing key trends in the field. Further, the findings can help us to identify how the tourism & hospitality field has been emerging and borrowing concepts and methodologies from other fields and vice-versa. Recognizing these vary facts, the present research has been conducted on to provide an overview of evolution of research journals in the tourism & hospitality field in India and to create a database that legitimate to observe the evolution of the field between 1976 and 2014.

Research Methodology

For the present study details have been requested from NISCAIR & RNI, Google Search and Round Table with inputs from Academic Practitioners

& Researchers from Universities in India (15), Hotel & Tourism Industry Representatives from India (10) conducted during April - June 2014. Only the Journals dedicated Exclusively to Tourism and Hospitality Research have been included in the research. Other Journals with one full/ special issue or part dedicated to Hospitality & Tourism are not considered for the present study.

For formal documentation of hospitality & tourism academic research journals in India we adopted following methodology :

- ❖ The origin year of the selected journals i.e year of commencing;
- ❖ The source of publication: published from Government, University, Institute, Academic Publisher, NGO and Others;
- ❖ The impact factor;
- ❖ The Index Copernicus Value;
- ❖ The Publication type Online and/ or Print;
- ❖ The details regarding indexed and refereed with details of listing and indexing;
- ❖ The status quo – National or International
- ❖ The ISSN/eSSN number and the websites.

Findings & Discussions

In order to provide an overview of evolution of research journals in the tourism & hospitality field in India and to create a database that legitimate to observe the evolution of the field between 1976 and 2014. A set of 24 academic journals in tourism and hospitality have been pooled to summarise the progression of research journals in the tourism &hospitality field in India. A set of 24 Academic Journals are reported to be published in the field of hospitality and tourism in India (table no.2). There are ten journals published by Govt. Funded Universities/Institutes/Colleges; three journals each from Private Universities, Private Institutes/Colleges, NGOs, and Publishing House; One from Academic Association and One is Independent Individual Publishing Journal.

Table no. 2
Hospitality & Tourism Journals Published in India

Sr. No	Name of the Journal & Publisher	Frequency of Publication (No of Issues per Year)	Published Since and by	Whether indexed/ Refereed/ (Please provide details of listing and indexing)	International/ National	ISSN/ eISSN	Index Copernicus Value/ Impact Factor (if any)	Web Site of the Journal/ Publisher/ Institute
1	Atithi A Journal of Hospitality & Tourism : A Research Publication by Institute of Science & Management, Ranchi Jharkhand	One Issue in a Year	2008 PI	Yes, Refereed All published articles are permanently archived and available at Institute website in Word and PDF formats. Print Copy as well.	National	2347-6907	N/A	http://www.ismranchi.org/hotel,-catering,-hospitality.php
2	Atna Journal of Tourism: A Research Publication by Dept. of Tourism, Christ University, Bangalore Karnataka	Two Issues in a Year	2006 PU	Yes, Refereed, All published articles are archived and available at University website in Word and PDF formats. Print Copy as well.	National	0975-3281	N/A	http://www.christuniversity.in/ http://christuniversity.in/secpageview.php?LID =138
3	EARTH: Emerging Aspects Redefining Tourism and Hospitality - A Research Journal of Dr. Y.S.R. Reddy National Institute of Tourism & Hotel Management - Hyderabad Andhra Pradesh	Two Issues in a Year	2011 GI	Yes, Refereed, All published articles are archived and available at Institute website in Word and PDF formats. Print Copy as well	National	2231-6213	N/A	http://www.nithm.ac.in/index.php?option=com_content & view= section& id=14& Itemid= 265
4	Indian Journal of Applied Hospitality & Tourism Research : A Research Publication by Banarsidas Chandiwala Institute of Hotel Management - New Delhi	One issue in a Year	2009 PI	Yes, Refereed All published articles are permanently archived and available at Group website in Word and PDF formats. Print Copy as well.	National	0975-4954	N/A	http://www.bcihmct.ac.in
5	Indian Journal of International Tourism & Hospitality Research - A Research Journal from Dept. of Tourism & Hotel Management, Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra, Haryana	One issue a Year	2007 GU	Yes, Refereed, All published articles are available in Print Form	International	0974-2913	N/A	http://www.kuk.ac.in

Sr. No	Name of the Journal & Publisher	Frequency of Publication (No of Issues per Year)	Published Since and by	Whether indexed/ Refereed/ (Please provide details of listing and indexing)	International/ National	ISSN/ eISSN	Index Copernicus Value/ Impact Factor (if any)	Web Site of the Journal/ Publisher/ Institute
6	International Journal of Hospitality And Tourism - A Research Journal from Society for Social Welfare and Academic Advancement and Research - Bhopal Madhya Pradesh	Two issues in a Year	2011 NGO	Yes, Refereed, All published articles are available online	International	2240-5371	N/A	http://ijohat.sswaar.com/
7	International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Systems (IJHTS) : A Research Publication by Publishing India New Delhi	Two Issues in a Year	2007 PH	Yes, Indexed & Refereed Hospitality & Tourism Complete, Ulrich's Web, Cabell's Directory. All published articles are permanently archived and available at Group website in HTML, Digital, PDF & Print formats	International	0974-6250	Impact Factor 2.75 ICV 4.92 Points	http://www.publishingindia.com/ijhts/
8	International Journal of Hospitality Business and Research : A Research Publication by Intellectual Foundation India Rohtak Haryana	One issue in a Year	2010 PH	Yes, Refereed, All published articles are available in Print Form	International	0976-7789	N/A ICV 3.84 points	http://ifipub.com/
9	International Journal of Tourism & Travel : A Publication of IITTM Gwalior, Under Ministry of Tourism, Govt of India Gwalior Madhya Pradesh	Two Issues in a Year	2008 GI	Yes, Refereed All published articles are permanently archived and available at Group website in Word and PDF formats. Print Copy as well.	International	0974-2603	N/A	http://www.publishingindia.com/ijtt/ http://www.iittm.org/main/pub_journal.htm
10	International Journal of Hospitality Administration and Management - A Publication by Research India Publications Delhi	Two Issues in a Year	2014 PH	Yes, Refereed All published articles are permanently archived and available at Group website in Word and PDF formats. Print Copy as well.	International	A/F	N/A	http://www.ripublication.com/ijham.htm
11	Journal of Hospitality Application and Research (JOHAR) - A Research Journal from BIT Mesra, Ranchi, Jharkhand	Two Issues in a Year	2006 GU	Yes, Indexed & Refereed Google Scholar, All published articles are permanently archived and available at Group website in Word, PDF & Print formats	National	0973-4538	N/A	http://www.bitmesra.ac.in/johar/index.html

Sr. No	Name of the Journal & Publisher	Frequency of Publication (No of Issues per Year)	Published Since and by	Whether indexed/ Refereed/ (Please provide details of listing and indexing)	International/ National	ISSN/ eISSN	Index Copernicus Value/ Impact Factor (if any)	Web Site of the Journal/ Publisher/ Institute
12	Journal of Hospitality and Tourism - Published by Culture and Environment Conservation Society (A Non-Profit Non Government Organization) CSJM University, Kalyanpur Kanpur, Uttar Pradesh	Two Issues in a Year	2003 NGO	Yes, Indexed in EBSCO & Refereed All published articles are permanently archived and available at Group website in Word, PDF & Print formats	International	0972 - 7787	N/A	www.johat.org
13	Journal of Indian Art, Culture, Heritage and Tourism : A Research Publication by D-57, Syndicate Residency,No-36, Dr. Thomas Road T Nagar, Chennai Tamil Nadu	One issue in a Year	2009 I	Yes, Refereed, All published articles are available in Print Form	National	0975-9352	N/A	N/A
14	Journal of Tourism and Hospitality : An International Journal by Institute of Tourism & Hotel Management, Dr. B.R Ambedkar University - Agra, Uttar Pradesh	One issue in a Year	2012 GU	Yes, Refereed, All published articles are available in Print Form	International	2250-0626	N/A	www.dbru.ac.in
15	Journal of Tourism: An International Journal by School of Tourism, HNB Garhwal Central University, Srinagar Garhwal, Uttarakhand	Two Issues in a Year	1993 GU	Yes, Refereed and Indexed, Cabell's Directory, EBSCOHOST. All published articles are available in Print Form as well as online	International	0972-7310	N/A	http://www.hnbgu.ac.in
16	KIITS : Indian Journal of Tourism & Hospitality Management - A Journal by Kerala Institute of Travel & Tourism, Kerala	Two Issues in a Year	2013 GI	Yes, Refereed, All published articles are available in Print Form	National	A/F	N/A	http://www.kittsedu.org/greenportal.html
17	Pacific Hospitality Review - A Journal by Pacific Institute of Hotel Management, PAHER University Udaipur, Rajasthan	Two Issues in a Year	2013 PU	Yes, Refereed, All published articles are available in Print Form	National	2320-1398	N/A	http://www.pihm.org/

Sr. No	Name of the Journal & Publisher	Frequency of Publication (No of Issues per Year)	Published Since and by	Whether indexed/ Refereed/ (Please provide details of listing and indexing)	International/ National	ISSN/ eISSN	Index Copernicus Value/ Impact Factor (if any)	Web Site of the Journal/ Publisher/ Institute
18	Ripples - National Technical Journal on Hospitality by Garden City College Bangalore, Karnataka	One issue in a Year	2011 PI	Yes, Refereed, All published articles are available in Print Form	National	2229-6794	N/A	http://www.gardencitycollege.edu/
19	South Asian Journal for Tourism & Heritage - A Publication of Centre for Tourism & Heritage Research, Department of Commerce, Dayanand College, Ajmer, Rajasthan	Two Issues in a Year	2008 GI	Yes, Refereed, All published articles are available in Print Form as well as online	International	0974-5432	N/A Factor Index 1.2	http://www.sajth.com
20	*The Green Portal -	—	2005 GI	Yes, Refereed, available in Print Form	National	—	N/A	http://www.kittsedu.org
21	Tourism Development Journal – An International Journal : Journal of Dept. of Tourism, Himachal Pradesh University Shimla, Himachal Pradesh	One issue in a Year	2003 GU	Yes, Refereed, All published articles are archived and available at Group website in in pdf formats. Print Copy as well.	International	0975-7376	N/A	http://mtashimla.org/
22	Tourism Dimensions : A Research Journal of Maharaja Agrasen University, Himachal Pradesh	Two Issues in a Year	2014 PU	Yes, Refereed, All published articles are available in Print Form	International	A/F	N/A	http://www.mau.ac.in
23	Tourism Innovations : A Journal by Indian Tourism Congress	Two Issues in a Year	2012 A	Yes, Refereed, All published articles are available in Print Form as well as online	International	2278-8379	N/A	http://www.indiantourismcongress.org/
24	Tourism Recreation & Research : A Research Publication of Centre for Tourism Research & Development, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh	Three Issues in a Year	1976 NGO	Yes, Refereed, All published articles are available in Print Form as well as online	International	2320-0308	Yes	http://www.trrworld.org

Note: * - The publication of The Green Portal has been discontinued; PU- Private University, PI-Private Institute, GI-Govt

Academic research progress is crucial for both tourism & hospitality industry and education. No doubt, both are at nascent phase in India. However, the progress of tourism & hospitality research journals is certainly one of the critical indicators for measuring the research and academic progress in this field. It is appreciated that research journals are one of the critical channels of communication between the stakeholders. Previous research studies opined that there were a very few tourism & hospitality journals, secondly, the review process of these journals were slow, and finally there was lack of specialization among tourism and hospitality journals in India. However, many new tourism & hospitality journals have been launched in recent years to focus on specialisation area and employed much more rigorous the double blind review process then before (see table 2). Before 1976, there was no one journal for authors to disseminate their study results in tourism & hospitality field. 1976 was a fortunate year when "Tourism Recreation & Research" launched its 1st issue and offered a platform for the tourism & hospitality scholars in India. Another, landmark in the field of tourism & hospitality research journals started when Journal of Tourism: An International Journal by School of Tourism, HNB Garhwal Central University, Srinagar Garhwal, Uttarakhand in 1993. In fact, 1990 was the turning point in the field of tourism & hospitality education in India. Various educational institutions have been come into the field of tourism and hospitality education. This has changed for the past 10 years and there are now at least over 24 journals in hospitality and tourism. It is worth noting that 10 years ago none of the tourism & hospitality journals was included in the any citation index and other citation such as Impact factor. It is not possible to review the frequency of citations, their impact factor and indexing over time, and table 2 provides a summary of this information for the 24 tourism and hospitality journals in India as per their source of information. However, in recent years, some tourism and hospitality journals have made significant progress and become one of the top-tier journals in the field (see table 2).

Further, in order to understand the beginning of the tourism & hospitality research journals and why these are first in India. Table no.3 clearly enlists the name, publisher and year of commencement of First few Hospitality and Tourism Journals in India as:

Table no. 3

Few First's in Hospitality & Tourism Journals in India

S. No.	Name of the Journal & Publisher	Year of Commencement	Source of Publication	Observations as India's First
1.	Tourism Recreation & Research – A Research Publication of Centre for Tourism Research & Development, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh.	1976	NGO	**India's First:** ❖ Tourism Journal ❖ International Journal of Tourism ❖ Tourism Journal by NGO ❖ Online Tourism Journal ❖ International Award Recipient Tourism Journal ❖ Theme/ Special Issue Tourism Journal
2.	Journal of Tourism: An International Journal by School of Tourism, HNB Garhwal University, Srinagar Garhwal, Uttrakhand.	1993	Govt. Funded University	**India's First:** ❖ Tourism Journal by University ❖ International Journal of Tourism by University ❖ Collaborative / Joint Publication of Tourism Journal by University in India and USA ❖ Theme/ Special Issue Tourism Journal of University
3.	JOHAT – Journal of Hospitality & Tourism, By NGO – Uttar Pradesh	2003	NGO	**India's First:** ❖ Hospitality & Tourism Journal by NGO with Print and Online Editions.
4.	The Green Portal	2005	Govt. Institute/ college	**India's First:** ❖ Tourism Journal of Govt Institute
5.	JOHAR – Journal of Hospitality Application and Research, by BIT Mesra-Ranchi	2006	Govt. Funded University & State Tourism Department	**India's First:** ❖ Hospitality Journal by University ❖ Department of Tourism, State Govt Funded Journal of Hospitality by University ❖ Online as well as Print Journal of Hospitality by University in India

S. No.	Name of the Journal & Publisher	Year of Commencement	Source of Publication	Observations as India's First
6.	Atna – Journal of Tourism: A Research Publication by Department of Tourism, Christ University, Banglore. Karnatka.	2006	Private University	**India's First:** ❖ Tourism Journal by Private University
7.	International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Systems (IJHTS) : A Research Publication by Publishing India, New Delhi.	2007	Publishing House	**India's First:** ❖ Hospitality & Tourism International Journal by a Publication House Exclusively for Journals ❖ Online as well as Print ❖ Hospitality & Tourism International Journal with Impact Factor and ICV
8.	Atithi- A Journal of Hospitality & Tourism : A Research Publication by Institute of Science & Management, Ranchi. Jharkhand.	2008	Private Institute	**India's First:** ❖ Hospitality Journal by a Private College
9.	Journal of Indian Art, Culture, Heritage & Tourism: A Research Publication by D-57, Syndicate Residency, T.Nagar, Chennai. Tamil Nadu.	2009	Individual	**India's First:** ❖ Tourism Journal by an Independent Researcher & Publisher
10.	Tourism Innovations : A Journal by Indian Tourism Congress	2012	Academic Association	**India's First:** ❖ Tourism Journal by an Academic Association

The table 3 exhibits the name of journals, year of commencement, source of publication and observation as India's first journals. The list is in chronological order in terms of publication year, source of publication and India's first. Table 3 briefly describe each publication's source and publication year, reasons of standing first.

A closer observation of chart no. 1 clearly indicates the frequency of publication of the selected journals. Only one journal titled "Tourism Recreation & Research – A Research Publication of Centre for Tourism Research & Development, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh" comes thrice per year. 14 journals are published bi-annually and 08 journals annually. The Journal titled Green Portal has discontinued its publication.

The numbers of Journals with Impact Factor are only two and Four Journals have been reported with Index Copernicus Value, Two Journals have Thematic Tracks i.e Tourism Recreation Research & Journal of Tourism which are also the oldest Journals. Ten Journals out of twenty four are National whereas rest all has international character. Further, out of these 24 journals, nine journals are available in print form only and not available on their websites. However, a little information about them is available on web. It noted that some tourism & hospitality Journals yet to have their own website such as Journal of Indian Art, Culture, Heritage & Tourism.

Chart no. 1

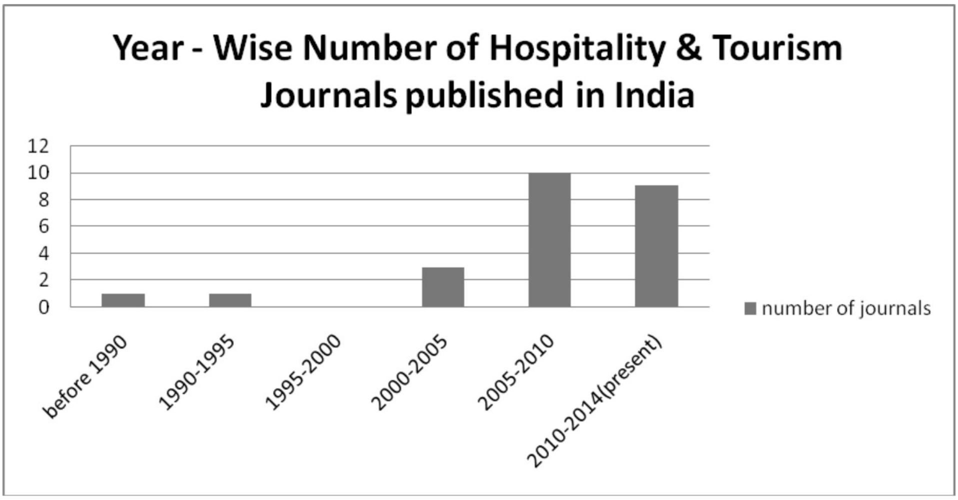

Chart no1 points toward the increasing number of the hospitality and tourism journals published in India with the passage of time that suggests the growing interest of academicians and scholars towards research pertaining to hospitality and tourism. Year 2005-2010 marks the maximum of ten journals published that further Is proliferating in the present five-year duration. There was hardly one journal published before 1990 i.e. “Tourism Recreation & Research – A Research Publication of Centre for Tourism Research & Development, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh” in 1976. Next five year also witnessed steady increase in the number of research journal by one named “Journal of Tourism: An International Journal by School of Tourism, HNB Garhwal University, Srinagar Garhwal, Uttrakhand” in 1993. The time period from 1995-2000 went in void. The period of 2000-2005 saw the birth of three new journals and after this there is recorded continuous growth in the number of hospitality and tourism journals published in India.

Conclusion, Suggestions & Implications

To date, there has been only limited research into evaluation of research journals in the tourism & hospitality field and to create a database that legitimate to observe the evolution of the field. In other words, academicians and practitioners do not have sufficient insight into how to evaluation of research journals in the tourism & hospitality field and to create a database that legitimate to observe the evolution of the field. However, given the positive research progress and the increased number of academic journals in the field, it is predicted that more tourism & hospitality journals will be included in the list of indexing, impact, factor and citations in coming years especially in india.

The Study would be useful for various stakeholders like Academicians for their Academic Interest, Institutions and Even Statutory and Regulatory Bodies like UGC, AICTE, ISTE, Universities and School Boards for a Formal Consideration of listed publication of Hospitality & Tourism Journals in India. It would be also of further use to our Foreign Academic Friends for Having Indian H&T Journals for consideration for Publication & Accessibility at one place. It may also be of interest to future researchers to review Research & Publication trends in Hospitality & Tourism in India. Further, research studies may be conducted to examination of quality and quantity of research papers including areas, sector, unit of analysis, and methodology in order to strengthen and progress in Indian tourism & hospitality research journals.

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"Destination Visual Identity Mix and Tourist Footfall: A case study of Indian States"

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Abstract

Destination Image as a concept has been a topic for research since the early 1980s. Many definitions of Destination Image focused on the multiple components of the destination image construct. One of the reasons destination's image is universally acknowledged in tourism literature is because its established relationship of affect on the individual's subjective perception and consequent behavior and destination choice. The present paper has been divided into 3 sections. The first section outlined the methodology adopted for the study followed by reporting of results and concluded by discussing the implications of the study. The current study highlights the need for Indian state tourisms to pay attention towards its visual identity. The need of the hour is to make informed decisions to compete in the international tourism market. The results indicate a need for uniformed attention towards the various elements of the visual elements. The results clearly indicate the ineffective result of attention towards any one the functions/elements of the visual identity.

Keywords:

Destination Image, Destination Visual Identity, content analysis

Introduction

Tourism industry in India has seen an unprecedented growth in the past few years whether it is in terms of GDP contribution, creation of employment or Foreign exchange earnings. As per a survey conducted by Ministry of Tourism, foreign exchange earnings (FEE) in 2012, grew by 7.1% i.e. FEE were US$ 17.74 billion in 2012 as compared to US$ 16.56 billion in 2011(Ministry of Tourism 2012). Estimates also indicate that for every one million that is invested in Indian tourism industry it creates 47.5 jobs directly and around 85-90 jobs indirectly while similar investment in agriculture would create only 44.6 jobs and in manufacturing it would create 12.6 jobs (Parliament Library And Reference 2013)(Parliament Library And Reference and (LARRDIS) 2013). Furthermore, tourism has contributed around 6.4% to the total GDP which when compared with contributions of other sectors turns out to be a significant amount as compared to automotive manufacturing (3.3%), education (4.5%) and mining

(3.7%) (Blanke and Chiesa 2013). Motivated by these statistics Indian Government launched the Incredible India campaign to present India and its rich cultural heritage in a fresh and unique way to both domestic and foreign customers. It is as a result of such efforts that the popularity of India as a destination has increased. It is as an ode to these efforts that in past 10 yrs India has welcomed more than 50 million tourists(Ministry of Tourism 2012). Given the increasing popularity of India as a destination it can be safely deduced that India would also be a beneficiary to the expected above average rate of return in global tourism in 2014((WTTC) 2014).

These estimates in themselves present a very optimistic scenario for the Indian tourism industry. But these numbers only present a partial picture. True picture emerges when these numbers are compared with tourist trends of other international destinations. Statistics indicate tourist arrivals in last 10 years in Malaysia were 201 million, Singapore 102.5 million; Thailand 148 million and Indonesia was 60 million. These numbers indicate that the number of foreign tourists have increased across destinations in Asia. These numbers indicate that the trend experienced by India is not unique to India rather it is similar across destinations in South East Asia. On the contrary other competing SE Asian destinations have higher number of tourists than India. If anything India would be called 'Laggard' in this race of attracting tourists rather than a front runner. This conclusion is supported by the estimates of World Travel Tourism council, which states that in India though the revenues from domestic tourism will increase in 2014, yet the revenues from international visitors would slow down((WTTC) 2014).

The explanation for India's laggard performance despite a rich cultural heritage as compared to many of the competing South East Asia destinations is found in its inability to distinguish itself in the cluster. Marketing fundamentals dictate that a consumer chooses among those alternatives which he/she can recall easily and among these he chooses one which matches his desired state. A marketer influences a consumer decision making process by using the brand Image to influence expectations of the consumer. In tourism, destinations compete and influence the customer choice using the same fundamental referred to in tourism as Destination Image. Past research has established that a positive perception of a destination results in positive purchase decisions.(Goodrich 1978) Therefore if India is unable to get desired purchase decisions then plausible explanation lie in the puzzle of Destination Image. It is within this back drop the current study has been undertaken to try and explore the dimension of DI in context of India.

The study would add to existing database of literature on DI and also help practitioner in the policy decisions regarding DI on how to improve performance of India. The study also highlights for the decision makers as to what could be the proposed neglected or over highlighted areas of visual image mix for investment. It could help the states make use of their limited resources to get maximum efficiency and effectiveness out of their marketing campaigns.

Destination Image and Destination Visual Identity

Destination Image as a concept has been a topic for research since the early 1980s. There are many definitions of Destination Image. Earliest definition of destination image was given by Hunt in 1971 where he defined destination image as Impressions that a person or persons hold about a state in which they do not reside (Hunt 1971). However, in simplest terms scholars have defined destination image as “impressions of a place” or “perceptions of an area” (Calatone , Hunt 1975, Phelps 1986, Baloglu and McCleary 1999). Most of these researchers have measured and referred to destination image in terms of its attributes (Echtner and Ritchie 1991). However, recently some researchers have indicated that destination image is a construct which is wider than just attributes of the destination and is a holistic construct where destination image refers to total impression a place makes on minds of others(Reilly 1990, Um and Crompton 1990).

There are multiple components of the destination image construct. Some researchers have defined destination image as a multi item construct as including variables like communication, visual image, culture, behavior and strategy(Gallarza, Saura et al. 2002, Melewar and Karaosmanoglu 2006). Each one of these components is important as it helps build “perceptions of an area”; however, past research has indicated that visual component or imagery leaves the most significant and long term impact on the memory of the consumer (Pearce (1988, p. 163) (MacKay and Fesenmaier 1997, Van den Bosch, De Jong et al. 2005).). Huang and his colleagues in their research highlighted tourism industry as an intangible dominated industry where images played a vital role for the destination image formation and selection(Huang, Busby et al. 2009). These visual strategies are therefore a way of tangibilizing the intangible component of the tourism industry and help manage the imagination and connect with the potential tourists. This in turn motivates and inspires people to travel to distant places. Jenkins in her research has indicated how desire to replicate the pictures seen in travel brochures motivates people to travel(Jenkins 2003). Therefore, in tourism industry one of the ways of managing destination image is through visual component of destination image. This latent construct includes various components i.e. Name, Slogan/Tagline, Logotype, Font Type and Color. (Melewar and Saunders 1999).

Destination Visual Identity and Consumer Choice: A relationship.

Researchers in the past have exhaustively explored the link between destination image and destination choice. One of the reasons destination's image is universally acknowledged in tourism literature is because its established relationship of affect on the individual's subjective perception and consequent behavior and destination choice (Chon 1990, Jenkins 2003, Therkelsen 2003, Tasci and Gartner 2007).

The consumer behavior model indicates that in the pre purchase behavior after need recognition the consumer goes out and actively searches for information(Bloch, Sherrell et al. 1986, Schmidt and Spreng 1996). The perception of destination image motivates him to decide among the various destinations that are pitching to him resulting in footfall for the chosen destination.

Therefore, from the above discussion we can induce that since visuals is a means of creating images in the minds of people this component can be used to create, change or strengthen the image of a destination and in turn can help the policy makers influence the footfall to a destination.

Understanding this very link between the two constructs i.e. visual identity and footfall; countries are investing in creating or projecting a strong and desired visual identity. In order to achieve this objective these practitioners are investing in the destination visual identity (DVI) components expecting to achieve a mix that works for them. However, relativistic nature (Gallarza, Saura et al. 2002) of the destination visual identity construct makes it extremely difficult for these destinations to predict the right mix. But at the same time comparative nature of these destinations make it important for destinations to invest into this component. However, there is no set framework or a process for the same and most of the decisions are being made without any evidence to support the same. DVI or destination branding and its constructs have been hailed by the researchers as under researched areas especially from the supply side perspective (Blain, Levy et al. 2005, Tasci and Gartner 2007, Konecnik and Go 2008). It is within this backdrop that the current study has been undertaken to study one of the components of destination image mix i.e. destination visual identity.

The paper has been divided into 3 sections. In the first section we outline the methodology adopted for the study followed by reporting of results and concluded by discussing the implications of the study.

Visual Identity, a part of the destination image mix is a concept cased on Corporate Identity. Research in the corporate field has successfully shown that visual image is a useful tool that can be used for managing the reputation of any organization(Van den Bosch, De Jong et al. 2005). Though visual image is an important aspect of corporate world yet not much work has been done in studying the visual image mix in tourism industry.

Past research has focused on helping destinations create a destination Image, controlling destination image mix, measuring destination image and work on factors which influence destination mix(Echtner and Ritchie 1993, Baloglu and McCleary 1999, Beerli and Martin 2004) However recent literature has again highlighted that one of the most important components of this mix is the visual image(Selby and Morgan 1996) because research indicates that human perceive visual images better than the verbal or print content. The various components of Visual Image together provide the tourist organization with a visual language for projecting the desired image. Various components are Name, Slogan/Tagline, Logotype, Font Type and Color.(Melewar and Saunders 1999). Given this Visual Image helps creating the customer recall which all brands crave for.

Understanding this importance of Visual and destination identity, States and countries are investing in creating logos, images, tag lines etc in a bid to create a desired destination image better than one of the competitor. However, there is no set framework or a process for the same and most of the decisions are being made without any evidence to support the same. It is within this backdrop that the current study has been undertaken to study one of the components of destination image mix.

Research Methodology

The objective of the current study was to understand the relationship between visual identity of India and its capacity to influence the consumers.

In order to explore this relationship footfall of both international and domestic tourist was taken as variable to practicalize the construct of influence on consumers. This section of the paper discusses the research methodology adopted to meet this objective.

To collect data for visual identity of India we initially decided to do content analysis www.incredibleindia.org. We chose websites as a unit of analysis for visual identity keeping in mind the inherent nature of the tourism industry. By nature tourism industry targets both domestic and international tourists and majority of communication for these borderless tourists is through internet. Therefore we started the study by analyzing the Indian Ministry of Tourism website i.e. www.incredibleindia.org. Analysis of the incredibleindia.org indicated that India had more of a state dominated tourism structure. All states were competing not only domestically but also internationally to attract tourists. They were piggy backing on Incredible India campaign but none the less it was a state campaign construct. Therefore it was decided to take Indian states as a unit of analysis for the current study. However comparing DVI of 26 states would only give qualitative data and not lead to any conclusions. The objective of the study was to find the DVI mix which would help India improve its performance. Therefore the DVI mix of different states was compared with a performance indicator i.e. tourist arrivals in these states. The data for the same was collected from the statistics published by the Market Research Division of the Indian Ministry of Tourism (Ministry of Tourism 2012). It was decided to analyze data from 26 states. The data for visual identity of the states was collected with the help of content analysis of websites of 26 states. Content analysis as a methodology is a means of analyzing the message itself and not the communicator or audience(Kelley 1956). Content analysis has been used primarily as a quantitative research method, with text data coded into explicit categories and then described using statistics. This approach is sometimes referred to as quantitative analysis of qualitative data(Morgan 1993).

The coders were two International Business students trained and supplied with written instructions on how to perform the categorization procedures. These coders were chosen on basis of their knowledge of content analysis technique and Visual Identity concepts. Coders received a codebook that guided them through the coding sheet, supplied them with rules for analysis, and defined the variables used in the study.

Two measures were used to assess inter judge reliability. First, the coder's agreement on different variables ranged from 70-100 per cent. The coders had 100 per cent (for variables such as name, logo, color and font type). Little disagreement was found in tagline. The disagreement was in terms of tagline orientation i.e. what is tagline used for. The disagreement varied from 10-30 per cent. Second, reliability index was also calculated to check inter judge reliability. The index values were found to be above the acceptable limit of 0.70. The two coders resolved all disagreements and 100 per cent agreement was achieved. In order to collect data in first stage a code sheet was prepared across 5 dimensions i.e. Logo, Name, Slogan/Tagline, Font Type and Color. The code sheet consisted of 61 questions across these 5 dimensions. The coders coded data across the five dimensions on a three point scale. Data for our dependent variable i.e. footfall of tourist into India was collected from the statistics published in the report 'Indian Tourism Statistics' by the Ministry of Indian Tourism. The report gave data for both domestic as well international footfalls for the year 2012.

The data was coded using 3 point scale. To analyze data collected for DVI mix of different states across the performance indicators i.e. footfall, the statistical tool of Discriminant Analysis was used. To study the relationship between State Visual Identity and the footfall of tourists into these states discriminant Analysis was used. In this case the prediction model would allow practitioner asses the SVI mix for better footfall. We discuss results of our analysis in the next section.

Analysis and Discussion

In the first step of data analysis the data was prepared for Discriminant Analysis. On basis of tourist footfall for 2012, the states performance was categorized as poor, medium, good and excellent. Therefore to convert these qualitative categories to quantitative ones, quartiles for the same were calculated. The footfall across states was collapsed into quartiles by calculating the cumulative percentage wherein each cluster was differentiated from the other by 25%. The method resulted in 4 clusters. The states were then categorized into these 4 categories on basis of their footfall. Therefore amongst the 26 states under analysis Andhra Pradesh was at the top with 207,110,740 tourist arrivals and Nagaland was at the bottom with 38,404 tourists coming in. Therefore these two states were grouped into two different Clusters and hence the process was repeated for each of the states where they have been grouped in four clusters. The footfall of states was generated from the Ministry of tourism report i.e. footfall for Nagaland was 38,404, for Meghalaya 64,993, for Arunachal Pradesh 322,378 and so on. In order to prepare this data for data analysis quartiles from the highest and lowest number were calculated i.e. 38,404 for Nagaland to 207,110,740 for Andhra Pradesh. The method resulted in 4 quartiles i.e.

Q1 from 38,404 to 685567

Q2 from 2,788,029 to 15,040,702

Q3 from 16,146,332 to 26,951,884

Q4 from 30,063,201 to 2, 07,110,740

The method resulted in clustering of states on the basis of footfall into 4 clusters where each cluster was differentiated by 25%. Further more on basis of footfall these quartiles were referred to as poor, medium, good and excellent. Therefore Nagaland with a footfall of 38404 was amongst the poor performing states while Andhra Pradesh with a footfall of 207110740 was amongst the excellent performing states. These grouping are known as clusters in the current paper.

Cluster 1 constituted states of footfall range from 38404 to 685567. It consisted of 6 states namely Nagaland, Meghalaya, Arunachal Pradesh, Tripura, Sikkim and Manipur reported in order of increasing Tourist Arrivals. These states accounted for 23% of total footfall into India i.e. less than 4% footfall on an average in each state. Therefore they have been put into cluster 1 i.e. the poor performing states. **Cluster 2** constituted states of footfall range from 2788029 to 15040702. It consisted of 7 states namely Goa, Assam, Haryana, Odisha, Kerala, Jammu and Kashmir and Chhattisgarh written in order of increasing Tourist Arrivals. These states form the Medium performing states cluster. **Cluster 3** constituted states of footfall ranges from 16146332 to 26951884. It consisted of 6 states namely Himachal Pradesh, Punjab, Bihar, West Bengal, Gujarat and Uttrakhand written in order of increasing Tourist Arrivals. These states form the Good performing states cluster. **Cluster 4** constituted states of footfall range from 30063201 to 207110740. It consisted of 7 states namely Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Uttar Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh written in order of increasing Tourist Arrivals. These states form the excellent category as they form the cluster of states with the highest footfall.

Sr. No.	States	Total 2012	Cluster	Cumulative Percentage	
1	Nagaland	38404	1	3.8	Poor
2	Meghalaya	64993	1	7.7	Poor
3	Arunachal Pradesh	322378	1	11.5	Poor
4	Tripura	369626	1	15.4	Poor
5	Sikkim	585027	1	19.2	Poor
6	Manipur	685567	1	23.1	Poor
7	Goa	2788029	2	26.9	Medium
8	Assam	4528950	2	30.8	Medium
9	Haryana	7032244	2	34.6	Medium
10	Odisha	9117590	2	38.5	Medium
11	Kerala	10870550	2	42.3	Medium
12	Jammu and Kashmir	12505924	2	46.2	Medium
13	Chattisgarh	15040702	2	50.0	Medium
14	Himachal Pradesh	16146332	3	53.8	Good
15	Punjab	19199948	3	57.7	Good
16	Bihar	22544032	3	61.5	Good
17	West Bengal	23949815	3	65.4	Good
18	Gujarat	24553173	3	69.2	Good
19	Uttarakhand	26951884	3	73.1	Good
20	Rajasthan	30063201	4	76.9	Excellent
21	Madhya Pradesh	53473139	4	80.8	Excellent
22	Maharashtra	71450516	4	84.6	Excellent
23	Karnataka	94648088	4	88.5	Excellent
24	Uttar Pradesh	170375771	4	92.3	Excellent
25	Tamil Nadu	187698580	4	96.2	Excellent
26	Andhra Pradesh	207110740	4	100.0	Excellent

Discriminant analysis was run across these 4 clusters to test the predictor variables i.e. the 5 variables of state visual identity.

Before conducting the discriminant analysis the data was checked for assumpltions of discriminant analysis. It is important to mention that the state visual identity data did not strictly adhere to the assumptions of Discriminant Anlysis. However, Lachendruch has suggested that discriminant analysis is relatively robust to slight violations of its assumptions(Lachenbruch 1975). Therefore a decision to continue with Discriminant Analysis was taken. Discriminant Anlysis was applied in SPSS Version 20 across 5 components of state visual identity and the 4 clusters of footfall performance. The results of the stuff indicated that the predictor model consisted of three functions i.e. the membership of states into cluster could be explained by 3 functions. Function 1 which has two variables explained 79.8 % of the variance in the data followed by function 2 with 2 variables which explained 9.7% of the variance and lastly function 3 with 2 variables which explained 6.6% of variance. The results of the study therefore indicated that the independent variable i.e. Name, logo, Tagline, Color and Font discriminated between the footfall performance clusters i.e C1, C2,C3 and C4.

Function 1 explained two components of State visual identity with a loading of Logo 0.627 and color 0.304 (table 1). These statisticss indicated that these two variables amongst themselves explained the mojority of the variation in the Group membership of the states. Therefore the results of the study indicated that logo and color were tarditionally perceived as the most important components of state visual idenity and had maximum effect on footfall implying that states were spending a considerable amount on these componenets to influence tourist behavior and decision making process. Function 2 explained 9.7 % of the variance in the data indicating that 9.7% of the change in footfall could be explained by Function 2. Two IDV loaded significantly on this function i.e. Tagline 1- 0.898 and Tagline 2- 0.774 (Table 1). These loading indicate that these two variables amongst themselves could explain 9.7% of the variation implying that these were significant variables for influencing footfall and therefore the same cannot be neglected. Function 3 explained 6.6 % of the variance in the data indicating that 6.6 % of the change in footfall could be explained by Function 3. Two IDV loaded significantly on this function i.e. Name- 0.608 and Font- 0.308 (Table 1).

Table1:Canonical Discriminant Function

Function	% of variance	Cumulative %	Canonical Correlation
1	79.8	79.8	.768
2	9.7	9.7	.443
3	6.6	6.6	.326
Structure Matrix			
		Function	
	1	**2**	**3**
Logo	0.627*	0.171	-0.415
Color	0.304*	0.011	0.232
Tagline 1	-0.252	0.898*	-0.268
Tagline 2	-0.096	0.774*	0.050
Name	0.175	0.601	0.608*
Font	0.011	0.085	0.308*

Therefore an analysis across clusters was done. The results indicated that Function 1 loaded strongly and positively on Cluster 1 i.e. with a loading of 1.613, negatively on cluster 2 and 3 with a loading -1.275 and -0.703 respectively. While its loading on cluster 4 was 0.496. Interestingly cluster 1 was for poor performing states namely nagaland, Meghalaya, arunahcal Pradesh, tripura, sikkim and manipur had strong presence of logo and color in their state visual identity mix indicating that they were investing heavily in these components. While the excellent performing cluster of states i.e. cluster 4 consisting of Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Maharshtra, Karnataka, Uttar pradesh, Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh had a function laoding of only 0.496 indicating not a strong presence in the two components.

The results further indicated that function 2 loaded positively only on cluster 4 i.e. with a loading of 0.697 . For all other clusters 1,2 and 3 loading was -0.497, -0.266 and -0.005 repectively. The Excellent performing cluster of states had the postive loading indicating a strong and differentiating function amongst all the clusters. The results for function 3 indicated that function 3 loaded strongly and positively on Cluster 3 with a loading of 0.543 as compared to a negatively loading on clusters 1 and 2 with loadings of -0.015 and -0.323 respectively. The excellent performing states of cluster 4 do have a positive loading but a very weak one with a loading of 0.129 only indicating not a very strong prepsence in these two components as well.

Table 2: Functions at Group Centroid

		Function	
Tourist Arrival	**1**	**2**	**3**
1	1.613	-0.497	-0.015
2	-1.275	-0.266	-0.323
3	-0.703	-0.005	0.543
4	0.496	0.697	-0.129

The results of the study were basic and agreed with traditional philosophies till this stage i.e. the function which explains higher variance is invested into by practioners. This also meant that if the traditionally used model of logo and color were successful then the model should have been able to predict cluster members. An analsyis of these statistics indicated that the model was able to reclassify 61.6% of states correctly.

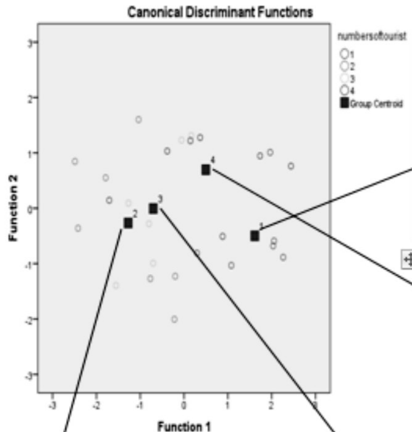
There was a marked difference from cluster 1 to cluster 4. This difference is clearly visible amongst the loading of the various state visual components for the states as well. A state will have to formulate a strategy to be able to move into the clusters ahead of them but moving from one to the other comes with its mobility barriers. The states with lower tourism arrivals will have to formulate strategies wherein a proper distribution of resources can take place. Cluster 1 states (Nagaland, Meghalaya, Arunachal Pradesh, Tripura, Sikkim and Manipur) need to realign their investment with the group of states with the highest tourist arrivals. Only investing in one component is not yielding the result thus a balanced approach i.e. decreasing the investment in Function 1 and distributing it over the other two functions is needed for the Cluster 1.

The same can be mentioned about Cluster 3 (Himachal Pradesh, Punjab, Bihar, West Bengal, Gujarat and Uttrakhand) wherein as per the results all investment is on the Function 3

(Name and Font) whereas a complete neglect is being shown towards Function 1 (logo and color) which is the most important function as per table 1 result.

The centroid graphical representation of the clusters clearly represents the various clusters and their loadings vis-à-vis each other. The States with loading of each Function and its variables are represented through table

4 (a), 4(b), 4(c) and 4(d). The positive loading on various functions for Cluster 4 shows a spread of investment across various functions of visual identity.



States	Functions	Loaded Variables	Loading Values
Nagaland, Meghalaya, Arunachal Pradesh, Tripura, Sikkim, Manipur	Function 1	Logo, color	1.613
	Function 2	Tagline	-0.497
	Function 3	Name, Font	-0.015

States	Functions	Loaded Variables	Loading Values
Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Uttar Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh	Function 1	Logo, color	0.496
	Function 2	Tagline	0.697
	Function 3	Name, Font	-0.129

States	Functions	Loaded Variables	Loading Values
Goa, Assam, Haryana, Odisha, Kerala, Jammu and Kashmir, Chhattisgarh	Function 1	Logo, Color	-1.275
	Function 2	Tagline	-0.266
	Function 3	Name, Font	-0.323

States	Functions	Loaded Variables	Loading Values
Himachal Pradesh, Punjab, Bihar, West Bengal, Gujarat, Uttarakhand	Function 1	Logo, color	-0.703
	Function 2	Tagline	-0.005
	Function 3	Name, Font	0.543

Therefore results of the study indicated that there was significant difference in the presence of SVI components of 4 clusters of states. Each one these clusters saw states working and outing in different degree of resources into the State Visual Identity components. A higher core was interpreted as an investment centre of SVI for the state. Therefore Cluster 1 states were investing heavily in Name and Font while cluster 3 in Color and Font. Cluster 4 was investing in Name, Font & Tagline components of SVI.

In order to analyze the state visual identity mix the predicted membership score were saved to the data sheet. Splitting the file on the bases of the Group membership descriptive a simple means chart was generated. The data indicated that cluster 4 had the most balanced portfolio of State visual identity with average score of 3 in Name, 1.8 in Logo, 1.7 in color, 3.1 in Tagline 1, 1.6 in Tagline 2 and 1.5 in Font.

	Avg. Name	Logo	Color	Tagline1	Tagline2	Font
Cluster1	2.8	1.8	1.7	0.5	0.6	1.5
Cluster2	2.5	1.6	1.5	2.5	1.2	1.5
Cluster3	2.9	1.6	1.7	2.1	1.1	1.5
Cluster4	3.0	1.8	1.7	3.1	1.6	1.5

Discussion and Conclusion

The current study highlights the need for Indian state tourisms to pay attention towards its visual identity. The need of the hour is to make informed decisions to compete in the international tourism market. The results indicate a need for uniformed attention towards the various elements of the visual elements. These results are in agreement of the past studies which seem to indicate that most of the destinations ignore the other components of Visual identity and concentrate only on logo design and development(Blain, Levy et al. 2005). The loading across the various clusters, in the present study, indicate towards a uniform and comprehensive approach for the visual identity. The results clearly indicate the ineffective result of attention towards any one the functions/ elements of the visual identity. This clearly points to the scenario wherein due attention needs to be given to each and every element which is clear from the loadings on Cluster 4 where positive loading is present on both functions 1 and 2 thus showing a spread in investment across the various elements of Visual Identity. The other clusters 1 to 3 represent a situation wherein attention is being given to only one function in each case.

The state tourism industry can use the results as the guiding light towards making fully informed decisions and no longer on whims or gut feelings. A positive and well received Visual image will go a long in helping the rich tourism industry of India scale its true potential.

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Tourism-Related Entrepreneurship and Socio-Economic Change: A Case Study of Meghalaya, India

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Abstract

Entrepreneurship is a vibrant and dynamic activity which is highly sensitive to the business environment. As per the classification of focus and operations, one variant of such is identified as tourism-related entrepreneurship. It comprises as the major form of tourism sector businesses world-over and especially in the context of developing countries. Globally, documented sources show the main contributions of tourism-related entrepreneurship to be on socio-economic domains of income and savings, employment, improvements in health and education, community recognition, independent decision-making, capacity building, empowerment and so forth. Accordingly, the present study aims to explore the same through a case study method in the context of Meghalaya by inquiring 'does tourism-related entrepreneurship contribute towards socio-economic change' through a focus on the entrepreneur. The analysis involves primary information covering 100 tourism-related microenterprise random samples collected during October-November, 2014 covering variables like change in income, expenditure, savings, household assets, living standard, household economic decision-making, access to learning and health services, mobility and travel, recognition and acceptance in community, social networks and so forth. The findings show that the tourism-related microenterprise involves a small investment thereby making them feasible and they are economically viable and profitable. The tourism-related entrepreneurship has a positive impact on the socio-economic status of the entrepreneurs across all variables. The degree of change is most in restaurant followed by accommodation, cafe and retail.

Originality Statement

I hereby declare that the research paper "Tourism-related Entrepreneurship and Socio-economic Change: A Case Study of Meghalaya, India" is an original research work done by me and is based upon relevant data. I also provide consent to ITHC for publication of the same.

I Introduction

The tourism sector is defined as per the demand approach as 'the activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes' (World Tourism Organisation [WTO], 1995) and is the most attractive and the fastest growing industry in the world (Othman and Rosli, 2011). Distinctively, it embraces a diverse range of providers and users of a variety of goods and services (Coetzer, 2001/02). As such, the range of activities under the umbrella of tourism has been in perennial existence encompassing effects on the development of various

The policy implications depict a need for detailed and serious initiatives for transforming the destination into a magnet for enticing tourist, a roadmap for encouraging and initiation of more microenterprise and sensitisation and training for tackling the existing gaps on services rendered.

Keywords:

entrepreneur, tourism-related microenterprise, tourism-related entrepreneurship, socio-economic, change

fronts such as economic, social, political, cultural, overall national development and international relations (Ashley, 2000; Brida et al., 2008; Fayissa et al., 2007; Goodwin, 2006; Vellas, 2011; WTO, 1995; World Travel and Tourism Council, 2012; Zortuk, 2009).

Globally, the impact of tourism is primarily seen on the socio-economic domains at macro and micro levels (Coetzer, 2001/02; United States Travel Association, 2010). Its growth has an impact on employment, GDP, tax revenue, infrastructure, foreign exchange earnings, balance of payments and the overall economy (Fayissa et al., 2007; Flecha et al., 2010; Kim, 2002; Pao, 2005). It generates direct effects on expenditure, indirect effects concerning intermediate consumption for the production of goods and services and induced effects concerning expenditure by employees from wages paid by companies (Vellas, 2011). Hence, it exhibits change of socio-economic nature and primarily through tourism-related entrepreneurship (Ashley et al., 2007; Jamieson et al., 2004).

The term entrepreneur is French and is derived from the verb entreprendre which means to do or to undertake. It is divided into two parts – entre meaning between and preneur meaning taker. Hence, an entrepreneur is a between-taker or a go-between (Filion, 2011). The leading definitions define entrepreneur as one who predicts and acts upon change within markets and bears the uncertainty of market dynamics (Knight, 1921) and an innovator who implements change within markets through the carrying out of new combinations (Schumpeter, 1934). As such, an entrepreneur is that person who seeks to generate value through the creation or expansion of economic activity by identifying and exploiting new products, processes or markets. In addition, entrepreneurial activity is the enterprising human action in pursuit of the generation of value. Accordingly, entrepreneurship is the phenomenon associated with entrepreneurial activity (Ahmad and Seymour, 2008).

Accordingly, all entrepreneurship focused upon tourist clientele and running operations accordingly can be classified as tourism-related entrepreneurship. It is a phenomenon flourished by current economic, social and political conditions (Aghapour et al., 2012). It includes activities related to creating and operating a legal tourist enterprise. As such, persons that hawk goods or services such as arts and crafts to tourists are tourism entrepreneurs (Koh, 1996). It has been identified as essential actors for creating jobs and growing the economy (Taskov et al., 2011). In general, tourism-related entrepreneurship manifest in the form of guide services, small spa and massage facilities, specialized bakery and pastry shops, coffee shops, souvenir trading and crafts shops, travel agencies, small tour operators, small lodges rented, small hotels, larger restaurants, recreation businesses and so forth (Sterren, 2008). As such, the tourism sector is dominated by microenterprises and the self-employed (Oldbell3, 2007). It comprises as the major form of entrepreneurship especially in the context of developing countries (Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel Management, 2010). Overall, they are identified as the most viable business structure to fight poverty and kick-start development (Manyara and Jones, 2007).

Accordingly, the present study aims to explore 'does tourism-related entrepreneurship contribute towards socio-economic change' through a case study method in the context of Meghalaya with a focus on the entrepreneur. Consequently, section II presents tourism-related entrepreneurship and socio-economic change. Section III details the method and tools applied. Section IV narrates on the case study. Section V portrays the findings and discussion and section VI pens down the conclusion and policy implications.

II Tourism-Related Entrepreneurship and Socio-Economic Change

Globally, tourism has experienced continued expansion and diversification overtime. It has become one of the largest and high growth economic sectors. It is seen as an activity which affects society in many ways and has a profound impact on social-economic life (Coetzer, 2001/02). Traditionally, the impact of tourism has been measured in terms of its contribution to GNP and employment created (Jamieson et al., 2004). It brings inward investment, foreign exchange earnings and creation of small, medium and micro businesses (Mshenga and Owuor, 2009). It exhibits impact of economic nature like creation of micro and small business opportunities and non-economic nature like opportunities for capacity building, education and training, improvement in health and so forth (Jamieson et al., 2004).

The microenterprise contributes to economic growth through the primary and secondary pathways that go beyond job creation (Leegwater and Shaw, 2008). In India, they are well known for their contribution to industrial production, exports and employment (Ramarao, 2012). For tourism to be beneficial, it has to be linked to local economies such as agriculture and micro and small enterprises (Mshenga and Owuor, 2009). Tourism brings about a positive impact on the local economy and entrepreneurial development (Ashley et al., 2001; Othman and Rosli, 2011). The poor are involved in all the initiatives as individual producers, employees, casual labourers and operators of microenterprises (Ashley et al., 2001). A high proportion of business enterprises come from the small sector (Awang et al., 2012). As such, tourism creates opportunities for micro entrepreneurs because start-up costs for and barriers to entry are relatively low (Othman and Rosli, 2011; United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific [UNESCAP], 2005). The local people, including the poor, have opportunities to earn additional income by selling produce or offering services directly to tourists (UNESCAP, 2005). The tourism entrepreneurs contribute to raising productivity, dispersal of economic power base through industry ownership, creating employment, commercialising innovative products and creating new markets (Awang et al., 2012). On sustainable practice of micro and small enterprise the impacts are mainly seen in socio-economic domains of the entrepreneurs (Kreag, 2001) amongst others. It provides employment, training, business skills and improves the socio-economic outcomes to family and community. It impacts upon the wages and earnings of entrepreneurs, livelihood strategies of local households, patterns of growth of the economy and the infrastructure or natural resource base of the destination (Ashley et al., 2007).

Similarly, the passion to achieve positive outcomes is a driver in the practice of enterprise (Rola-Rubzen et al., 2011). They impact upon livelihood strategies through changes in employment and earnings, development of collective benefits in the community, capacity building; education and training, improvements in health and education, community recognition, increased pride and self confidence (Ashley, 2000; Ashley et al., 2007; Jamieson et al, 2004). Although, rigorous empirical national and global level analysis of tourism economic and poverty alleviation impact is lacking, nevertheless it is clear that the industry is having substantial influence on local people and local economies in many developing countries (Ashley et al., 2007).

However, despite growing evidence of the beneficial impacts of tourism in developing countries and good practices by some individual firms critics still question whether the overall balance of impacts is positive (Ashley et al., 2007). As such, an assessment of impact depends not only on direct costs and benefits such as profits and jobs generated but on a range of indirect, positive and negative impacts (Ashley, 2000). Tourism can have negative impacts like depriving local people of access to natural resources like fishing grounds, forests and water (Ashley et al., 2007) including inflation of land value, raising price on food, seasonal employment, displacement of labour, overcrowding and so forth (Kim, 2002).

III Method and Tools

The study focuses upon tourism-related entrepreneurship and socio-economic change through the analysis of the entrepreneur of the microenterprise. It adopts the quantitative approach and case study method covering 100 entrepreneurs across retail, café, restaurant and accommodation microenterprises collected during October-November, 2014. The variables examined encompass the socio-economic domains extensively thereby adequately evaluating change over the period of five years. The economic classification includes change in income per month, contribution to household expenditure per month, savings per month, household assets, living standard, household economic decision making, ability to make purchase decisions and contribution to household goals (Ashley, 2000; Ashley et al., 2001; Flecha et al., 2010; Jamieson et al., 2004; Tatoglu et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2006). The social classification includes access to learning, access to health services, mobility and travel, recognition and acceptance in community, social networks, self-confidence and self-esteem (Ashley et al., 2001; Jamieson et al., 2004; Tatoglu et al., 2000). The change evaluation period of five years is applied as it is considered as a significant a time-frame for evaluating change appropriately. The data analysis evaluates change through absolute measurements for income, expenditure and savings and an equal interval scale of ‘one’ to ‘five’ for the other variables. They stand for ‘no change’, ‘small change’, ‘visible change’, ‘extensive change’ and ‘enormous change’ respectively. Statistically, t-test is applied for testing the significance level of change and variation coefficient for gauging the dispersion in the data. Here, change is tested as a difference of mean against the minimum i.e. ‘no change’.

IV The Case Study

The case study on the subject-matter is presented in a logical manner. It starts with a detail on the entrepreneur profile and tourism-related microenterprise profile. This is followed by the evaluation of change in totality across entrepreneurs (all inclusive) and by classification into type of tourism-related microenterprise namely, retail, café, restaurant and accommodation.

The entrepreneur profile (Table 1) throws light on basic and background information. The majority of the entrepreneurs are females thereby corroborating to the sizeable prevalence of female entrepreneurship in Meghalaya. The entrepreneurs are primarily in the age bracket of 26-45 and are under 10th pass in education level. The young initiation into entrepreneurship opens for more and bigger possibilities in terms of diversification, scaling and growth. In addition, most of the entrepreneurs are married and living as nuclear families thereby providing an adequate support base for their entrepreneurial activities.

Table 1: Entrepreneur Profile

Variable	**Classification**	**Frequency**	
		(%)	**Average**
Gender	Male	35	Mode = Female
	Female	65	
Age	<26	12	Median = 36-45
	26-35	34	
	36-45	31	
	46-55	16	
	>55	7	

Variable	Classification	Frequency	
		(%)	Average
Education level	Illiterate	18	Median = < 10th pass
	<10th pass	61	
	10th pass	5	
	12th pass	12	
	Graduation and above	4	
Marital status	Single	17	Mode = Married
	Married	79	
	Separated	0	
	Divorcee	0	
	Widower	4	
Family size	Nuclear	80	Mode = Nuclear
	Extended	1	
	Joint	19	

The tourism-related microenterprise profile (Table 2) depicts a favourable per month revenue and profit return. This is on the backdrop of a relatively economical current investment. The investment here conforms to the classification 'enterprises engaged in providing or rendering of services' under Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises Development Act, 2006 as tourism is primarily a service sector. Hence, it includes investment in equipment and other items directly related to the service rendered. In general, the microenterprises service a sizeable clientele, records good revenue and are highly profitable as against a relatively meagre investment. 45.38 per cent of the revenue earned constitutes profit thereby implying an estimate that the investment is recoverable in 4.33 months. In particular, retail and café have a huge clientele resulting in healthy returns. They are involved in the provision of essentials services like basic requirements and refreshments (retail) and very light and quick food (cafe). In economic terms, they involve a micro investment combined with highly attractive revenue of which 39.01 per cent and 54.45 per cent constitute profit respectively. These percentages are important as they imply an estimate that the investment is recoverable in 1.25 months and 2.03 months respectively. The restaurant and accommodation clientele is comparatively low thereby subsequently resulting in lesser returns for the entrepreneur. They are involved in the provision of food (restaurant) and home stay (accommodation). The restaurant and accommodation relatively require a huge amount of investment. Hence, even if an attractive 42.59 per cent and 45.28 per cent of revenue comprise of profits respectively it will require a longer time period of 5.96 months and 13.25 months to recover the investment.

Table 2: Tourism-related Microenterprise Profile

Type	Current Investment (₹)	Revenue Per Month (₹)	Profit Per Month (₹)
All inclusive (n = 100)	30661	15599	7079
Retail (n = 52)	5152	10608	4138
Café (n = 36)	14533	13147	7158
Restaurant (n = 6)	114167	45000	19167
Accommodation (n = 6)	265000	44167	20000

The socio-economic change in totality across entrepreneurs (all inclusive) is favourable (Table 3). The tourism-related entrepreneurship brought about a positive change in the status of the entrepreneur. This is true for all the socio-economic variables. Over the period of five years and in relation to economic variables, the income has appreciated thereby resulting in higher contribution to household expenditure. This expenditure is the actual hall mark of socio-economic change as it acts as a pivot to all other activities and outcomes. In other words, the appreciation in income may not be as potent a factor towards change as compared to expenditure. In addition, the entrepreneurs are able to practice savings. However, the amount is relatively small. The other economic variables show a visible change with a score of 'three' (approximately). This portrays that tourism-related entrepreneurship has a positive impact on the economic status of the entrepreneurs. In particular, the maximum score relates to change in living standard with 3.39 and the least relates to ability to make purchase decisions with 3.16. In relation to social change, most of the variables show a visible change. As in the case of economic indicators, tourism-related entrepreneurship has a positive impact on the social status of the entrepreneurs. In particular, the maximum score relates to recognition and acceptance in community with 3.79 which depicts more of an extensive change and the least relates to mobility and travel with 2.40 thereby being more of a small change. Lastly, all the socio-economic variables are highly significant at one per cent level highlighting the generalization and acceptability of the results. However, the variation coefficient is high across all variables particularly in case of income, expenditure and savings thereby depicting dispersion on the observations. As such, the results are to be considered pragmatically and with caution.

Table 3: Socio-economic Change (Type [All Inclusive, n = 100])

Variable	Change	T – value (two tailed)	Variation Coefficient (%)
Income per month	₹ 3367**	6.47	154.47
Contribution to household expenditure per month	₹ 2624**	6.65	150.28
Savings per month	₹ 743**	4.71	212.51
Household assets	3.24**	22.96	30.11
Living standard	3.39**	29.77	23.68
Household economic decision making	3.19**	25.44	27.00
Ability to make purchase decisions	3.16**	23.53	29.05
Contribution to household goals	3.19**	24.77	27.72
Access to learning	3.32**	20.75	33.68
Access to health services	3.31**	22.39	31.17
Mobility and travel	2.40**	12.61	46.25
Recognition and acceptance in community	3.79**	35.09	20.98
Social networks	3.38**	19.76	35.63
Self-confidence and self-esteem	3.09**	25.18	26.86

(**significant at 1%)

The socio-economic change by classification into type of microenterprise namely, retail and café depicts a positive picture for all variables (Table 4). The tourism-related entrepreneurship has a visible impact on the status of the entrepreneur. Over the period of five years, income, expenditure and savings has appreciated as is in the case of all the other socio-economic variables. In retail-economic change, the maximum score relates to change in living standard with 3.27 and the least relates to ability to make purchase decisions with 2.96. In cafe-economic change, the maximum score relates to change in living standard with 3.33 and the least relates to household economic decision making and ability to make purchase decisions with 3.14. In retail-social change and cafe-social change, the maximum score relates to recognition and acceptance in community with 3.62 and 3.81 respectively and the least relates to mobility and travel with 2.33 and 2.08 respectively. In general, the socio-economic change in cafe is of a greater degree as compared to retail. Lastly, all the variables are highly significant at one per cent level (except for savings in retail microenterprise which is significant at five per cent). However, the results are to be considered pragmatically as the variation coefficient is high across all variables.

Table 4: Socio-economic Change (Type [Retail, n = 52; Café, n = 36])

Variable	Retail			Café		
	Change	T – value (two tailed)	Variation Coefficient (%)	Change	T – value (two tailed)	Variation Coefficient (%)
Income per month	₹ 1280.77**	5.34	135.04	₹ 3266.67**	4.66	128.87
Cont…expenditure per month	₹ 1096.15**	5.75	125.32	₹ 2469.44**	4.72	127.21
Savings per month	₹ 184.62*	2.49	289.50	₹ 797.23**	3.89	154.05
Household assets	3.12**	16.55	29.58	3.17**	12.32	33.33
Living standard	3.27**	22.82	21.94	3.33**	16.24	25.86
Household…decision making	3.00**	19.46	24.70	3.14**	13.79	29.64
Ability…purchase decisions	2.96**	16.40	29.12	3.14**	13.36	30.61
Contribution..household goals	3.00**	18.21	26.40	3.22**	13.48	30.69
Access to learning	3.12**	14.15	34.61	3.28**	11.77	35.44
Access to health services	3.10**	14.36	34.00	3.33**	14.20	29.57
Mobility and travel	2.33**	9.18	44.81	2.08**	6.93	44.99
Recognition…in community	3.62**	24.47	21.32	3.81**	21.41	20.66
Social networks	3.04**	14.30	33.84	3.42**	11.19	37.92
Self-confidence…self-esteem	2.85**	19.10	24.49	3.00**	18.97	21.08

(**significant at 1%, *significant at 5%)

As in the case of retail and cafe, the socio-economic change in restaurant and accommodation presents a favorable picture (Table 5). Overall, tourism-related entrepreneurship has a visible impact on the entrepreneur. Over the period of five years, income, expenditure and savings have changed positively as is the case for all the socio-economic variables. In restaurant-economic change, the maximum score relates to change in household assets with 4.33 with the remaining recording the score of 4.17. In accommodation-economic change, the maximum score relates to change in household economic decision making with 4.17 and the least relates to household assets and contribution to household goals with 3.67. In restaurant-social change and accommodation-social change, the maximum score relates to recognition and acceptance in community and social networks with 4.83 and social networks with 4.67 respectively. In both cases, the least score relates to mobility and travel with 3.83 and 3.33 respectively. In general, the socio-economic change in restaurant is of a greater degree as compared to accommodation. Moreover, almost all the variables are highly significant at one per cent level. In addition, the variation coefficient is at acceptable levels for most variables.

Table 5: Socio-economic Change
(Type [Restaurant, n = 6; Accommodation, n = 6])

Variable	Restaurant			Accommodation		
	Change	T – value (two tailed)	Variation Coeffi-cient (%)	Change	T – value (two tailed)	Variation Coefficient (%)
Income per month	₹ 13583.33*	3.98	61.52	₹ 11833.33*	3.92	62.42
Cont…expenditure per month	₹ 10416.66**	4.15	59.05	₹ 9000*	3.69	66.30
Savings per month	₹ 3166.67	1.86	131.60	₹ 2833.33*	4.02	60.79
Household assets	4.33**	15.81	11.92	3.67**	12.65	14.08
Living standard	4.17**	10.30	18.07	4.00**	11.62	15.81
Household…decision making	4.17**	19.00	9.80	4.17**	19.00	9.80
Ability…purchase decisions	4.17**	19.00	9.80	3.83**	17.00	10.65
Contribution..household goals	4.17**	19.00	9.80	3.67**	12.65	14.08
Access to learning	4.50**	15.65	12.17	4.17**	19.00	9.80
Access to health services	4.17**	10.30	18.07	4.17**	19.00	9.80
Mobility and travel	3.83**	17.00	10.65	3.33*	3.80	45.17
Recognition…in community	4.83**	23.00	8.45	4.17**	19.00	9.80
Social networks	4.83**	23.00	8.45	4.67**	17.39	11.07
Self-confidence… self-esteem	4.50**	15.65	12.17	4.33**	10.00	18.84

(**significant at 1%, *significant at 5%)

V Findings and Discussion

The majority of the entrepreneurs are females which reflect upon the matrilineal society of Meghalaya. As such, females are at the forefront of such microenterprise particularly dealing with the service sector. The entrepreneurs are primarily young with lesser education level as is the general norm elsewhere whereby such a pool of resources does look at entrepreneurship as a means of livelihood. However, the poor educational status reflects poor exposure to training and this may act as a constraint on the processes and operations. In general, the entrepreneurs are married and living as nuclear families. Hence, the demands for livelihood make entrepreneurship a viable choice for making an earning. Moreover, the family serves as a support structure for the demanding entrepreneurial activities.

All the microenterprise types are economically viable and profitable as against a relatively meagre investment. Retail and café have a huge clientele, require a modest investment and this is combined with attractive revenue and high profit. This is on account of high demand for such services from the tourist as day-long covering of the tourism resources inevitable results in the need for retail-oriented essentials and light and quick food. These features also enable recouping of the investment at a very fast rate. In case of restaurant and accommodation, the clientele is relatively low. The reason being majority of the tourist involve in day-tripping by travelling from their places of stay in the city/town which includes Shillong (the state capital), Guwahati (Assam) and other nearby locations. Moreover, they require a higher investment. Hence, the revenue earned and attractive profits cannot mitigate the longer gestation period required for recouping the investment.

The tourism-related entrepreneurship influenced a positive change in the socio-economic status of the entrepreneurs. In general, all the variables reflect a visible change. The income, expenditure and savings increased appreciably. The practice of microenterprise provides avenues for earning a meaningful income as the flow of tourists to destination Meghalaya is quite good over the years (Lyngdoh, 2013). As such, the entrepreneurs are able to spend more and meaningfully on self and their household. Consequently, they are able to save more as a result of the increased income. However, the amount is small and the modest change in income is the explanation for this. Nonetheless, the savings are important as they act as a means for initiating more change and provide a buffer against future vulnerabilities. The entrepreneurs were able to improve upon their household assets thereby reflection wealth creation. The earnings and spending from microenterprise enabled a change in the living standard. There is better household economic decision making and ability to make purchase decisions on account of increased assertiveness in family through economic activities. The entrepreneurs were also able to contribute to household goals better and more assertively. The engagement in entrepreneurship increasingly made the need and importance of learning known. This sensitization is pivotal and there is a positive on the access to learning. It led to a better access to health services in the form of primary health centers and community health centers. There is an increased mobility and travel within the community and outside because the economic activities propelled a need to travel frequently near and far and interact with many others. It improved recognition and acceptance in community. The family members recognize the economic contributions of the entrepreneur and this percolates into the level of the community. As such, microenterprise also results in socializing and bigger social networks. There is an appreciation in self-confidence and self-esteem as a continuous engagement in microenterprise develops their outlook towards life and instilled upon a new sense of belief and endeavor.

Similarly, tourism-related entrepreneurship has a positive influence on the socio-economic change of the entrepreneurs by classification into retail, cafe, restaurant and accommodation. The degree of change is most in restaurant followed by accommodation, cafe and retail. The restaurant and accommodation microenterprise require a bigger investment as against retail and cafe. This percolates into a healthy revenue and profit which is ultimately reflected on the degree of socio-economic change. As such, the more the investment the higher is the income and other outcomes.

VI Conclusion and Policy Implications

The tourism-related microenterprise involves a small investment thereby making them feasible and they are economically viable and profitable. The tourism-related entrepreneurship has a positive impact on the socio-economic status of the entrepreneurs. The degree of change is most in restaurant followed by accommodation, cafe and retail. Overall, tourism-related entrepreneurship does contribute towards socio-economic change. It is a potent activity for transforming livelihoods. A longer, sustainable and professional practice of microenterprise will lead to better, holistic and well-defined changes thereby leading to better inferences.

Although the study covers an evaluation period of five years, the data was collected on the basis of 'recall', which has its own limitations. A certain number of entrepreneurs were unable to recollect adequately their position 'five years ago' thereby making compilation of data difficult. Here, adequate care was taken for collection of most authentic information through close observation and cross referencing. Overall, a study compiling 'on the period' pre and post data using pipeline approach is advocated. In addition, an experimental study whereby the socio-economic change of the tourism-related entrepreneurs is compared against the non-tourism-related entrepreneurs will yield better results and inferences. Moreover, the study does not dwell into the other areas of microenterprise like management and organization, finance, human resource quality and so forth.

The policy implications derived from the study show a need for detailed and serious initiatives on the part of the government, non-government organisations, local authorities and so forth. At the outset, there is a need for transforming the destination into a magnet for enticing tourist to have longer stays. This will help in the increased vibrancy and demand for tourism-related services. Secondly, a detailed roadmap is required for encouraging and initiation more micro and small enterprise. This should also include plans for scaling of enterprises from micro to small and so forth. Thirdly, the tourism-related microenterprise suffers from certain gaps in terms of services offered. These gaps are to be alleviated through concerted efforts at all levels of governance. Sensitisation and training can be used as an intervention for tackling the existing gaps. The stated policy measures calls for a sustained investment over a period of time. Hence, proper feasibility analysis and blueprint of the same before execution is a must.

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The impact of terrorism to tourism demand and tourism safety

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Abstract

Concepts of terrorism, political turmoil, and war appear unrelated to tourism. Closer examination of their points of convergence and impacts on tourism reveals otherwise. This paper examines literature focusing on the relationships between these phenomena. Research themes which emerge from available studies include impacts of terrorism on tourist demand, motives of terrorists in targeting tourists, using tourism as a political tool, the effects of political violence on destination image, crisis management, and recovery marketing efforts. The intent of this article is to synthesize research on these relationships, to present a comprehensive index of relevant publications, and to suggest topics for future research.

Keywords:

Terrorism, Tourism

Introduction

The impact of terrorism on the tourism industry is very huge. We can see the fact, such as events of September11, 2001 in the USA. The direct costs consist of the destruction of infrastructure and human capital. The collapse of the twin towers destroyed 13 million square feet of real estate, and 30% of superior office space in downtown New York. But this accounts for only 4% of the total office space situated in Manhattan. One estimate of the real and human capital costs ranges from $25 to 60 billion (Becker and Murphy, 2001). Another study estimates the human capital loss to be $40 billion, and the property loss to be between $10 and 13 billion (Navarro and Spencer, 2001). Yet another estimate of the total direct loss is $21.4 billion (International Monetary Fund, 2001). Looking at the extent of destruction relative to the overall US productive capacity indicates that the damage was minor. The estimates of between $10 and 60 billion worth of damage resulting from the attacks of September 11, 2001 are relatively small compared to the American GNP of $10 trillion. Moreover, Germany with a loss of 25 billion dollars and UK with a loss of 20 billion dollars. Another example we can see in Israel. The number of tourists dropped from 2.4 million in 2000, to 1.2 million in 2001 following of outbreak of El-Aktza Intifada in October 2000. Tourists have become a frequent target of terrorist activities in recent years (see e.g. Im et al. 1987) generating huge resonance in the media. Examples are the Luxor massacre in 1997, in which members of an Egyptian Islamic group shot dead 58 foreign tourists visiting the temple of Queen Hatshepsut in the Valley of the Queens, and the bombing of a disco in Bali in 2002, costing the lives of almost 200 tourists. There is a simple rationale for these attacks. Individuals planning their holidays are less likely to choose a destination with a higher threat of terrorist attacks. Host countries providing tourism services, which can be easily substituted, are, therefore, negatively affected by terrorist attacks to a substantial extent. The expected reactions from consumers make the bombing, shooting and kidnapping of tourists attractive strategies for terrorists who want to inflict economic damage, when pursuing their political goals. There is a fast growing literature evaluating the effects of terrorism on tourism, focusing on the number of tourists and lost revenues in the industry. Special attention is given to substitution issues and the temporal structure of the effects.

In an early, influential paper, Enders and Sandler (1991) study the relationship between international terrorism and tourism in Spain. They use monthly data on terrorist incidents and combine it with the number of foreign visitors in Spain between 1970 and 1988, applying VAR methodology. It is estimated that a typical terrorist act in Spain scares away over 140,000 tourists, when all the monthly impacts are combined. In 1988, 5.392 million foreigners visited Spain and 18 international terrorist incidents took place. Hence without these incidents, 1.5 times as many tourists would have visited Spain in 1988.

Austria, Italy and Greece lost \$4.538 billion, \$1.159 billion and \$0.77 billion, respectively, between 1974 and 1988 (in 1988 terms, using a real interest rate of 5%). For comparative purposes, total revenues in these countries in 1988 amounted to \$11.149 billion, \$19.311 billion and \$3.29 billion, respectively. For the same period, continental Europe as a whole lost \$16.145 billion due to terrorism (total tourist revenues in 1988 were \$74.401 billion). Fleischer and Buccola (2002) estimate a supply and demand model of the Israeli hotel industry to assess the impact of terrorism. Foreign demand and equilibrium prices are allowed to be influenced by a monthly index, capturing the severity of the terrorist campaign in Israel. The annual revenue shortfalls between 1992 and 1998 in the market with foreign visitors sum up to approximately $50 million (1998 present value discounted at 5%) or 1.27% of total revenues in this period. Though these revenue losses are relatively modest, they increase with a deterioration of the situation. In 1996, a year of Middle East unrest, the revenue shortfall amounted to 2.55%. Further, it is claimed that, due to inelastic local demand, hotels could not easily compensate these losses by cutting prices. These results are corroborated by Abadie and Gardeazabal (2005) in a cross-section analysis for a sample of 110 countries. Using a measure of terrorism risk constructed by an international risk agency, they find a large negative effect on countries' net stock of FDI that is statistically significant and robust to various specifications. A one standard deviation change in terrorism risk, which is about an increase in terrorism risk from the level of Italy to the level of the USA, induces a fall in the net position of about 5% of GDP. The inclusion of various political, economic, legal, tax, operational and security factors in the empirical framework suggests that terrorism, and more generally, security are among the most apparent and robust country-specific determinants of net FDI. As FDI is an important source of savings, a reduction in FDI negatively affects investment and economic growth. Moreover, the transfer of technological know-how into the country is reduced, again putting a damper on growth. Thus, the economic costs are substantial.

It is hard to give definition to terrorism as sometimes the different sense is put in this concept. Modern society faced many types of terrorism, and this term lost accurate semantic loading. The terrorism is meant also as purely criminal kidnappings for the purpose of repayment, and murders on the political soil, and cruel methods of war, both stealing of planes, and blackmail, i.e. the acts of violence directed against property and interests of citizens. There are more than hundred definitions of terror and terrorism, but any of them is not rather certain. The word terror came from Latin: terror - fear, horror. Really, any actions of the terrorist (even not connected with murder) always assume violence, coercion, threat. The main means of achievement of the purpose for any terrorist is an intimidation, creation of the atmosphere of fear and uncertainty, targeting of horror. In view of extreme public danger and cruelty of acts of terror, their anti-sociality and ant humanity, terrorism it is possible to define as the public phenomenon consisting in illegal use of extreme forms of violence or threat of violence for intimidation of opponents for the purpose of achievement of specific goals.

But the concepts "terrorism" and "terrorist" appeared at the end of the 18th century. If to trust one French dictionary, Jacobeans often used this concept orally and in writing in relation to themselves - and always with a positive shade. However already during Great French revolution the word "terrorist" began to carry offensive sense, having turned into a synonym of "criminal". Subsequently the term received more expanded interpretation and began to mean any system of board founded on fear. Then, before the most recent time, the word "terrorism", was used very widely and meant all range of various shades of violence. By 70th years of the 20th eyelid this term at last gained universal value and is now used for designation of motivated violence from outside "weak", oppositions - and with political goals.

Why they need the audience: Terrorist actions always have public character and are directed on impact on society or on the power. At the same time terrorists quickly realize a number of features of our time:

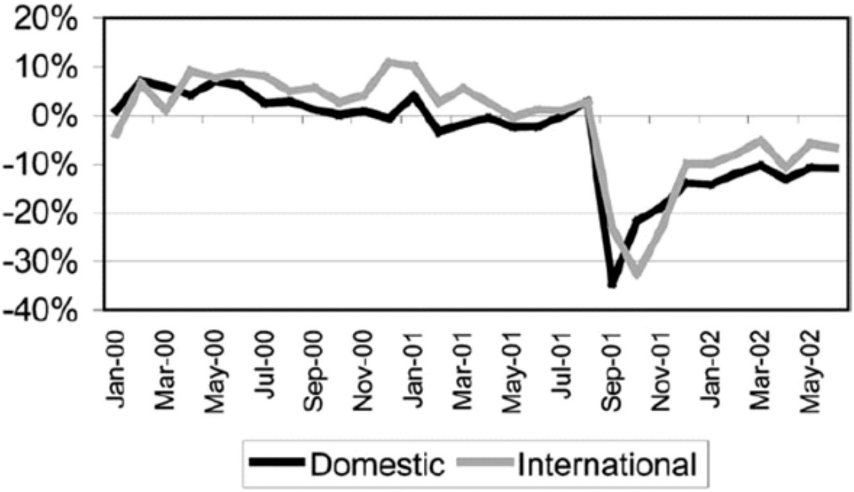
- The power strongly depends on elections and, therefore, on public opinion;
- There are powerful mass media greedy for "terrorist sensations" and capable instantly to form mass public opinion;
- People in the majority of the countries weaned from political violence and are afraid of it.

Today the most running and effective methods of terror - violence not concerning public agents, and against peace, defenseless and that is the extremely important, the people who do not have relations to "addressee" of terror, with obligatory demonstration of catastrophic results by means of mass media.

And at last - presentation through the same mass media to society and leaders of motives of terror and conditions of its termination.The main condition of such terror - rough reaction of mass media.

Terror typology: The experts studying a phenomenon of terrorism allocate six main types of modern terrorism: nationalist terrorism, religious terrorism, "state" terrorism, terrorism of the left extremists, terrorism of the right extremists, terrorism of anarchists.

The magnitude of the tourism downturn following September 11 was large, as is evident in Figure 1, which shows the annual growth rates of domestic and international passenger enplanements at US airportsfrom January 2000 to June 2002. A clear downturn is observed in September 2001 in both figures. The percentage decreases inenplanements at this time, compared with the previous twelve months, are 34% for domestic and 23% for international travel. While the September figures include a period in which all commercial air traffic inthe United States was grounded, the October figures do not; they showfalls of 22% and 33% compared with the previous 12 months(international volume being even lower in October than it was inSeptember) demonstrating the ongoing effects of the crisis. By June2002 some recovery had taken place, with enplanements down by 11%and 7% over the preceding 12 months. This is still less than the growth that the airline sector would have expected if the September attacks had not occurred.(Adam Blake M. Thea Sinclair)



Source: Air Transport Association (2002)

Figure 1. Annual Growth Rates of Passenger Enplanements

Previous research mainly focused on estimating price and income elasticity of demand for tourism. These studies also underline the importance of prices in the destination country and the exchange rate in tourism activity (for example, Garin-Munoz and Amaral, 2000; Maloney and Rojas, 2005; Martin and Soria, 2011). In addition, factors that affect the attractiveness of the destination country, such as weather conditions, quality and existence of beaches, historical artifacts, are listed among the determinants of umber of incoming tourists to a country (Richardson and Loomis 2004, Lyssiotou

2000; Patuelli, Mussoni and Candela, 2013). Other influential factors may include quality of the health services and economic development. As explained in the Introduction section, this paper hypothesizes that the perception of crime victimization risk is an additional determinant of the international tourism activity.

Following the guidelines described above, I estimate the equation depicted below:

(1) $\boldsymbol{Tc, t = \alpha + \beta Crimec, t\text{-}1 + \gamma Sc,l\ t + \mu c + \tau t + \varepsilon c,t}$

Where ***Tc***, ***t*** stands for the number of international tourists visiting country c in year t per 10 residents, or real international tourism revenue per 10 residents. Both variables are obtained from World Development Indicators. An average European country earns about $4,700 annually from international tourism per 10 residents from about 7 incoming tourists (Table 1).

Crimec,−1 is the variable of interest in the estimation equation above. It denotes the number of crimes per 100,000 residents in country c in year t-1. Crime data are obtained from European Source book of Crime and Criminal Justice. The summary statistics are provided in Table 1. Crime rate is used as a proxy for victimization risk in the empirical analysis. Although potential tourists do not have a true measure of crime victimization risk in the destination country, they have a perception about it. This ex-ante expectation about being victimized in the destination country can be formed by obtaining information through various channels, such as print or electronic media or word-of-mouth. Regardless of the source of the information, the higher the actual crime rate in the possible destination country is, the greater the perceived risk of being victimized will be. In this paper, only violent crimes (homicides, assaults, rapes, robberies) are analyzed. This is because of two reasons. First, property crimes may be measured with an error as they crimes may be under reported. Violent crimes, compared to crimes against property (such as theft), pose greater threats to the well-being of an individual. Consequences of violent crimes (such as death or injuries) are more costly to the victim. As a result, violent crimes are less likely to be under reported. Because property crimes are more likely to be measured with an error, their estimated impact may be biased towards zero. Secondly, some property crimes may not be relevant to the potential tourists' decision when they are deciding to visit a country. For example, by definition, a burglary involves a break-in into a property.

Since the tourists mostly do not have any property in the destination country, burglary victimization should not be relevant to their decisions. Similar arguments can be made for other property crimes, such as motor vehicle theft, arson or other property damage.

In the regressions, the lagged crime rate rather than the current crime rate is employed for two reasons. First, it may take some time for the potential tourists to update their expectations about victimization. In addition, including the current crime rate in the estimation equation could generate an endogeneity problem. Specifically, the current crime rate in a country can be affected by the tourism activity. For example, a resident of the destination country may be more likely to commit a crime when more tourists visit that country. This is because; tourists who visit a country are presumably wealthy. Consequently, their presence in the country may increase the returns to crime, and therefore the crime rate. In fact, McPheters and Stronge (1974) and Howsen and Jarrell (1987 and 1990) argue that an increase in the number of tourists increases property crimes. However, current tourism activity cannot influence past crime. Faced with similar potential reverse causality problems, Corman and Mocan (2000) and Levitt (1998) employed lagged variables in their estimations.

The vector ***Sc***, ***t***, in the estimation equation, includes control variables for the destination country characteristics. Specifically, the GDP per capita and urbanization rate (percentage of population living in urban areas) are proxies for economic development. To control for the extent of affordability of a visit to the destination country, the exchange rate (amount of local currency in the destination country per dollar) and the consumer price index are included in the estimation equation. Finally, to capture the effect of health service conditions in the destination, number of hospital beds per 1,000 people is used in the regressions as a control variable. All of these variables are obtained from the World Development Indicators. Their summary statistics are reported in Table 1. The effect of factors that influence the tourism attractiveness of the country such as a country's historical artifacts, or sea tourism opportunities is captured by country fixed effects (μc). Such factors are time invariant. Regressions also include time dummies represented by $\tau \boldsymbol{t}$ in the estimation equation above.

To investigate the possibility of differential responsiveness of incoming international tourists to crime by attractiveness of the country, I categorized the countries in my sample in two groups. The Sea Tourism Available sample is composed of countries that are located to the south of the latitude 50 north and have a coastline to either the Mediterranean or the Black Sea. The countries that are landlocked or are located to the north of the latitude 50 north make up the No Sea Tourism Opportunity sample. Very dark and medium dark gray countries are in the No Sea Tourism Opportunity and Sea Tourism Available samples, respectively. The very light gray countries are not in any estimation sample. The solid line approximately represents the latitude 50 north. The list of countries in both samples is in Table 2. Table 2 also presents the locations of the countries (approximated by the latitude of their capital city) and the lengths of their coastlines.

Table 1: Summary Statistics

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Dev
Tourism Revenue per 10 residents	239	4,700.99	6,435.02
Tourists per 10 residents	248	7.38	7.37
Violent crime rate*	249	212.70	215.74
Homicide rate*	212	3.39	4.32
Rape rate*	257	7.05	5.81
Robbery rate*	257	70.16	70.43
Assault rate*	253	130.62	183.05
Share of population in urban areas	258	67.26	11.46
Hospital beds per 1,000 residents	258	6.71	2.26
GDP per capita	258	19,879.49	17,983.94
Exchange Rate	258	67.10	205.17
Consumer price index	258	79.19	19.93

Summary statistics pertain to 35 European countries for the time period between 1996 and 2003. Countries are listed in Table 2. The table presents summary statistics of observations (country-years) that enter into the regressions at least once. The means of the variables of interest for the relevant sample are provided for each regression in the output tables.* Definitions of crimes: All crime rates are per 100,000 residents of a country. Homicide: intentionally killing of a person; Rape: sexual intercourse with a person against their will; Robbery: stealing with (threat of) force; Assault: inflicting bodily injury to another person. Violent crime rate is the sum of homicide, rape, robbery and assault rates.

Table 2: Tourism Attractiveness in the European Countries

Country	Latitude	Coastline Length	Sea Tourism	Natural World Heritage Sites	Cultural World Heritage Sites
Albania	41	648.7	Yes	0	2
Armenia	40	0	No	0	3
Austria	47.2	0	No	0	9
Belgium	50.5	76.2	No	0	11
Bulgaria	43	456.8	Yes	2	7
Croatia	45.1	5663.5	Yes	1	6
Cyprus	35	671.3	Yes	0	3
Czech	49.45	0		0	12
Denmark	56	5316.2	No	1	3
Estonia	54	2956	No	0	2
Finland	66	31119.1	No	1	6
France	46	7329.8	Yes	4	34
Georgia	42	376	Yes	3	3
Germany	51	3623.7	No	2	35
Greece	39	15146.7	Yes	0	15
Hungary	47	0	No	1	7
Iceland	65	8505.8	No	1	1
Ireland	53	6437.1	No	4	1
Italy	42	9225.8	Yes	4	45
Latvia	57	565.5	No	0	2
Lithuania	56	257.7	No	0	4
Luxembourg	49.45	0	No	0	1
Moldova	47	0	No	0	1
Netherlands	52.3	1913.8	No	1	8
Norway	62	53198.6	No	1	6
Poland	52	1032.3	No	1	13
Romania	46	695.5	Yes	1	6
Russian Federation	60	695.5	No	10	15
Slovak Republic	48	0	No	2	5
Slovenia	48	41.2	Yes	1	2
Spain	46	7268.1	Yes	5	39

Country	Latitude	Coastline Length	Sea Tourism	Natural World Heritage Sites	Cultural World Heritage Sites
Switzerland	47	0	No	3	8
Turkey	39	8139.6	Yes	2	9
Ukraine	49	4953	Yes	1	6
United Kingdom	54	19716.6	No	5	23

After September 11 there was noticeable discounting of prices by tourism firms in the United States and around the world. Some workers who become unemployed as a result of a shock take up lower-paid employment in other sectors of the economy. Those who retain their jobs may experience falls in average wages through immediate reductions of overtime working and, in the longer term, through smaller annual wage increases or (more rarely) through actual wage decreases. Wage and price flexibility is an inherent part of the mechanisms through which an economy adjusts to a shock; therefore, it is important to include such flexibility when modeling the effects that a shock will have. IO analysis, by ignoring wage and price flexibility, ignores the ability of workers to find employment in other industries and thus overestimates the effect that a demand reduction will have on GDP and unemployment. IO models also have difficulties in portraying the effects of policies. Their main focus is to trace final demand shocks through to GDP, so they are incapable of modeling changes in tax rates or subsidies. CGE models, by allowing a difference between the price that consumers pay for products and the money that producers receive for producing them, can incorporate taxes and can allow these tax rates to be changed. Therefore, while an IO model could (under the restrictive assumptions of such constructs) examine the effects of a change in government expenditure, it could not examine the effects of a change in tax rates or subsidies. The ability of governments to give targeted subsidies or tax reductions to specific industries is a significant formof response to tourism crises, and hence needs to be incorporated into a model that seeks to examine government responses. Therefore, CGE modeling is well suited to examining the economic impacts of exogenous changes in the demand for tourism, such as those associated with acts of terrorism, as well as the impacts of a range of related policy measures. As in the case of the Six-Point Legislative Plan in the United States, these include alternative types of government expenditure, taxation, and credits. A CGE model can take account of differing contexts; for example, differences in the degree of flexibility of money or real wages, changing returns to capital, shifts in productivity, alternative levels of capacity in different economic sectors, and different constraints on the public sector borrowing requirement. The main limitations of the CGE model are the dependence of the results on the estimated values of key parameters and the lack of provision of statistical confidence intervals for the results that are obtained. (Adam Blake M. Thea Sinclair)

The greatest danger to the tourist is constituted by terrorism. How to reduce of the influence of its negative factors. First of all, it is necessary to decide on essence of safety of tourism. It is not less important to understand that such it poses terror, what threats for tourism. So, safety of tourism is understood as safety of tourists, safety of their property, and also causing damage at commission of travel to environment, material and cultural wealth of society, safety of the state.

Terror as a method and at the same time means of fight of two conflicting parties exists so much, how many there is a mankind. There is a set of examples when by means of terror coup d'état were carried out, wars were launched, crises and the conflicts were inspired, governors, politicians and military leaders were destroyed.

Modern terror is a super profitable business. Constantly to receive money, acts of terrorism and cries of type are necessary: "Leave Chechnya and everything will stop!" Will not stop. Never and it is impossible to agree about anything with terrorists. Not because they bad, but because terror - their business. After all, for example, both Arafat, and Maskhadov claim that they for negotiations. Only neither in the Middle East, nor in Chechnya of any changes not considerably. Why? Yes who would begin to finance them if they actually agreed about the world? Remember that was in Chechnya after "truce" with Russia in 1996. Anything it was impossible to Maskhadov's team, except a slave trade, Nar coproduction and preparation for new war. – If the world in the face of the general danger agrees, terror can be destroyed? – Anybody and will never destroy terrorism completely as anybody and will never eradicate corruption. Represent, how many money left on training of the kamikaze who brought down planes on the cities of America? These are millions of dollars. And how many money those who knew received, what will occur, and controlled the financial markets? Tens, if not hundreds of billions. Here that such terrorist business today. But does not follow from all this that fight against terrorists is useless. On the contrary, it is inevitable and necessary. The terrorism leans on equality before the law, freedom of expression and mass media. But destroy freedom of expression, and any government itself can become terrorist.

The tourist trip practically always contains elements new and significantly different from habitual habitat, including that can constitute a certain danger to the traveling person. Practice of the international tourism shows that with increase in quantity traveling and expansion of geography of trips need of fuller accounting of specifics of trips and observance of security measures sharply increases. First of all it concerns regions with a difficult socio-political situation. Actually it is about risk of such trips, up to real threat of life and to health of tourists.

Besides, other problems - epidemics, HIV infection, criminogenic situations and crime, drug trafficking, prostitution, vandalism and other forms of violence, piracy, military complications and revolutions, terrorism, and also consideration of all possible risks connected with tourists, locals, travel agencies and the industry of tourism in general also belong to safety issues.

For fight against terrorism the world community concluded a number of international conventions (The convention of League of the nations of 1937 on prevention of acts of terrorism, the Tokyo convention on terrorism of 1963, the Montreal convention of 1971 on safety of civil aviation, the European convention of 1976, the Convention of the UN of 1979, etc.). In solutions of these conventions definitions of an act of terrorism which in a generalized view can be formulated so are given: "the behavior of the person or a group of persons serving strategy of direct violence, mentioning the international relations, directed against the state and aiming to frighten certain persons or public with use of grenades, bombs, rockets and other weapon".

In the next two-three years we can become witnesses of the birth of a new type of terrorism when diversions are carried out not by a laying of destructive devices, and a conclusion out of operation of the largest information systems through the world computer Internet. The state organizations and large commercial structures will become the victims first of all.

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Modelling Length of Tourist's Stay in Varanasi the Heritage City

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Abstract

Varanasi is a cultural and religious hub which always attracts tourists from abroad as well as inner part of India. There is a natural tendency that a tourist came to visit various places in the Varanasi city returns back to their own place of country or other place in the India whenever required condition arises. This present paper deals with a probability model for the number of tourists according to the length of stay under certain assumptions. Parameters involved in this model have been estimated by the maximum likelihood (ML). Model has been applied to the real data set collected from various hotels in Varanasi. A total of 10 (4 large and 6 small) hotels were selected at random and the retrospective data have been collected from hotels about the duration of stay of tourists in the Varanasi district on a day in February, 2014. The total sample size is 386 and tourist's information about their stay is analysed. The international tourists mainly belong from USA, UK, France, Australia, Italy, Netherlands, Japan, China, South Korea etc., however majority of domestic tourist are from Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra, Kerala, Andhra Pradesh and Rajasthan. The mean duration of stay of international tourists was found less than the domestic tourists stay.

Keywords:

Indian tourism demand, International/ domestic tourists, Probability Model, Length of stay.

Introduction

India is a land of diversities, with a wide variety of tourism offerings, varied geographies and sub-cultures. Tourism in India is the largest service industry, with a contribution of 6.23% to the national GDP and 8.78% to the total employment. The concept of tourism involves movements of people across the frontier or within their own country and is composed of three elements, namely man, space and time. Thus, the most popularly used categorization remains domestic and international tourism. In Domestic tourism people travel outside their residing area but within their own country for leisure, business, pilgrimage and adventure etc. while International tourism refers to movement of people between different countries. India has fascinated people from all over the world for its rich culture and heritage. There are historical monuments, beaches, places of religious interests, hill resorts etc. that attract tourists. Every region is unique with its handicraft, fairs, folk dances, music and its people. India is a land of diversities, with a wide variety of tourism offerings, varied geographies and sub-cultures.

Tourism has emerged as one of the world's largest service industries with adequate economic benefits and immense opportunities. With the emergence of technological advancement, and competitiveness in service-based industries the tourism sector is playing a vital role in contributing to improve gross domestic product (GDP) and creation of employment across the world economy. This accelerating tourism industry is proved to be one of the important drivers of growth and prosperity, employment generation, raises national income and improvement in balance of payments of Indian economy. Indian tourism sector is one of the most vibrating sectors of the economy. Sensing the importance and significance of this sector, Indian Government has invested much for the development of tourism. It has been partially successful with increase in foreign tourist arrivals over the last decade, consideration by "Incredible India Campaign".

Tourism is a demand driven, service oriented industry, experiencing rapid growth and innovation and plays a key role in the growth of the country's economy. The tourism industry, which benefits the transportation, accommodation, catering, entertainment and retailing sectors, has been blooming in the past few decades. Furthermore, international tourists have increasingly required interesting destinations in their pursuit of relaxation, escape, and adventure in the preceding century and recognizing the opportunity to earn valuable foreign currency, developing countries have catered to these desires by encouraging tourism development.

Tourism is a major engine of economic growth in most parts of the world. Several countries have transformed their economies using the tourism potential to the fullest. Tourism has great capacity to create large scale employment especially to the unskilled (India tourism, Annual Report, 2001-02). Recently in India international tourism industry is very interesting because the number of international tourists arrivals to India increasing every year, which affect Indian economy. For a long time, economists have tried to understand the international tourist consumer behaviour through demand models. Barry & O'Hagan (1972) studied the demand of British tourists going to Ireland; Jud & Joseph (1974) studied the demand of international tourist going to Latin American; Uysal & Crompton (1984) studied the demand of international tourists going to Turkey. Also Kulendran (1996) and Lim & McAleer (2000) studied the demand of international tourists going to Australia; Durbarry (2002) studied the demand of French tourists going to the UK, Spain & Italy. Chaiboonsri & Prasert (2012) studied the modelling international tourism demand in Thailand. Menezes et al. (2010) have already studied about tourism demand for length of stay on the Azores the fastest growing tourist place in Portugal. The above mentioned studies are based on count data regression model.

Length of stay is an important determinant, for instance, of tourist's overall expenditure and consumption of local resources, as the number of possible experiences to be undertaken by tourists depends on their length of stay (Davies & Mangan, 1992; Legoherel, 1998; Saarinen, 2006). Uncovering the determinants of length of stay is critical to the design of marketing policies that promote longer stays, associated with higher occupancy rates and revenue streams. Length of stay is one of the questions resolved by tourists when planning or while taking their trips (Decrop & Snelders, 2004). Hence, length of stay is best recorded when tourists depart, and, quite likely, is influenced by tourists' socio-demographic profiles. This paper contributes to fill this gap by developing a probability model for length of stay of the tourists at a particular place of interest. In this study an attempt has been made to model the duration of stay of tourists in the Varanasi the heritage city of India which is not conducted so far. This study based on the duration of stay of the international/domestic tourists coming to Varanasi, India during February 2014.

Data and Methodology

The study provides information of selected international tourist arrivals to India consisting of USA, UK, France, Australia, Italy, Netherlands, Japan, China, South Korea etc., however majority of domestic tourist are from Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra, Kerala, Andhra Pradesh and Rajasthan. Primary data have been collected from international/domestic tourist arrivals to Varanasi, India by surveying method. Survey of 386 international/domestic tourist arrivals is considered in this study. A total of 10 (4 large and 6 small) hotels have been selected at random and the retrospective data have been collected from hotels about the duration of stay of tourists in the Varanasi district on a day in February, 2014. The total sample size is 386 and tourist's information about their stay is analysed.

Model-I:

When we observe the data of number of tourists according to their duration of stay, we see that it declines with the increase in duration of stay. In fact, the chance of return to the own place of residence also increases with the increase in duration of stay. Thus, the number of tourists according to the duration of stay follows an exponential distribution.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda \exp(-\lambda x), x \geq 0 \\ 0, otherwise \end{cases} \tag{1}$$

Here is the risk of return to the own place of residence or other place of interest. Then, the proportion of tourists with the duration of stay less than or equal to X is given by

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - \exp(-\lambda x), x \geq 0 \\ 0, otherwise \end{cases} \tag{2}$$

But it has been seen that tourists stay some time in Varanasi and visit the interesting places. If they are satisfied with these then they continue to stay otherwise return back to the place of origin or other place of interest. Thus the exponential distribution is not an appropriate model. It needs some modification and thus model-II has been proposed.

Model-II:

Let X has a two parameter exponential distribution i.e. X ~ Exp (λ, θ,) then the probability density function of X is

$$f(x) = \lambda \exp[-\lambda(x-\theta)], \; where \;\; x \geq \theta \; and \; \lambda > 0 \tag{3}$$

and the cumulative distribution function is

$$f(x) = \lambda \exp[-\lambda(x-\theta)], \; where \;\; x \geq \theta \; and \; \lambda > 0 \tag{4}$$

Estimation Procedure:

Estimation of parameter of Model-I: This model contains only one parameter to be estimated from the observed distribution. The estimated value by the method of maximum likelihood is given as

$\hat{\lambda} = \frac{1}{\bar{x}}$ here $\bar{x}$ is the mean duration of stay of tourists.

Estimation of parameters of Model-II: If are i.i.d. Exp (λ, θ,) then the likelihood

$$L(\theta,\lambda) = \lambda^n \exp\left[-\lambda\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_i-\theta)\right] \text{ provided } x_{(1)} \geq \theta \tag{5}$$

and the log likelihood

$$\log L(\theta,\lambda) = l = n\log\lambda - \lambda\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_i-\theta) \tag{6}$$

Thus since $\hat{\theta} = x_{(1)}$, the first order statistics is 1 day i.e. lowest value of duration of stay in Varanasi. The m.l.e. of θ is given by $\hat{\theta} = 1$. To find the solution of λ, we have to solve the following equation

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \lambda} = \frac{n}{\hat{\lambda}} + n\hat{\theta} - \sum_{i=n}^{n} x_i = 0 \tag{7}$$

from the above equation we have

$$\hat{\lambda} = \frac{n}{(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i) - n\hat{\theta}} \tag{8}$$

using the value of $\hat{\theta} = 1$ we can estimate the value of λ as

$$\hat{\lambda} = \frac{n}{(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i) - n}$$

Result and Conclusion

Table 1 reveals that the distribution of tourists arrival to the Varanasi city from 2003 to 2012. The percent share of foreign tourists in Varanasi is increasing day by day. Also domestic tourists increase tremendously. It means Varanasi which is a traditional, cultural and religious city attract tourists fantastically through the exceptionally high quality hospitality and better environment. The mean duration of stay of the tourists in Varanasi is observed 4.92 days and standard deviation is 3.51 days. The minimum stay of the tourists is 1 day however maximum stay is 21 days. The mean duration of stay of international tourists is found (3.76 days) less than the domestic tourists stay (5.32 days). Some foreigners who love Indian mythology, culture and values, stay up to 2 or 3 weeks. Table 2 shows that the two parameter exponential distribution is excellently explain the length of stay of the tourists in Varanasi. The value of and p-value indicates that the model is suitable for this phenomena. One parameter exponential distribution is not appropriate for this study. But further research work is needed to do an empirical study to find the important factors and main attractions for which affect the length of stay of international/domestic tourists.

We can attract more and more tourists by increasing air seat capacity, increasing trains and railway connectivity to important tourist destinations, four leaning of roads connecting important tourist centres and increasing availability of accommodation by adding heritage hotels to the hotel industry and encouraging paying guest accommodation. Since tourism is a multi-dimensional activity, it would be necessary that the Central and State governments, private and voluntary organizations become active partners in the endeavour to attain sustainable growth of tourism.

Table 1: Distribution of tourist's arrival in India and Varanasi

S. No.	Year	Foreigners Tourists in India	Tourists in Varanasi			
			Foreigner Tourists		Domestic Tourists	Total
			Number	Percent share of India		
1	2003	2726214	108017	3.96	2701716	2809733
2	2004	3457477	141328	4.09	2809422	2950750
3	2005	3918610	143993	3.68	3049980	3193973
4	2006	4447167	153099	3.45	3204244	3357343
5	2007	5081504	169964	3.35	3506991	3676955
6	2008	5282603	178396	3.38	3713809	3892205
7	2009	5167699	188853	3.65	3898557	4087410
8	2010	5775692	219088	3.79	4139785	4358873
9	2011	6309222	245660	3.89	4466972	4712632
10	2012	6648318	278573	4.19	4783012	5061585

Table 2: Distribution of number of tourists according to duration of stay Varanasi

Duration of stay (in days)	Observed frequency	Expected frequency	
		One parameter exponential distribution	Two parameter exponential distribution
≤ 2	109	128.89	86.87
2 – 4	114	85.85	119.49
4 – 6	69	57.19	71.76
6 – 8	40	38.09	43.09

Duration of stay (in days)	Observed frequency	Expected frequency	
		One parameter exponential distribution	Two parameter exponential distribution
8 – 10	25	25.37	25.88
10 – 12	13	16.90	15.54
12 – 14	7	11.26	9.33
14 – 16	4	7.50	5.61
16 – 18	2	4.99	3.37
≥18	3	9.96	5.06
Total	386	386.00	386.00
The value of parameters		$\lambda = 0.203$	= 0.255 and $\theta = 1$
χ^2		25.65	9.10
p-value		0.002	0.245

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Exploring The Potentialities of Rural Tourism in Manipur

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Abstract

Rural tourism is currently the focus of attention throughout the world and is being recognized as an important instrument of growth for the rural economy. Rural tourism showcases the rural life, art, culture and heritage at locations. It is a multi-faceted and entails Agri-tourism, Cultural tourism, Nature tourism, Adventure tourism and Eco-tourism.

Rural tourism can be defined as the country experience which encompasses a wide range of attractions and activities that take place in agricultural or non-urban areas. Its essential characteristics include wide-open spaces, low levels of tourism development, and opportunities for visitors to directly experience agricultural and/or natural environments. The basic concept of rural tourism is to benefit the local community through entrepreneurial opportunities, income generation, employment opportunities, conservation and development of rural arts and crafts, investment for infrastructure development and preservation of the environment and heritage.

With its rich natural beauty and diversity, exotic cultural and ethnic mosaic, flora and fauna, arts & crafts, traditional huts and the serenity of virgin, unexplored ecosystems and tranquil rural environment, Manipur has a huge potential to provide a totally different experience for the tourists. However, despite having immense tourism potentials, it continues to offer limited tourism products. Tour packages of Manipur are still concentrated in few pre- defined tourist destinations with majority of them revolving in and around the urban areas, its surroundings and expanding to just few developed areas/ towns of the state. This signifies that the potential of Manipur with respect

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Introduction

Rural tourism is currently the focus of attention throughout the world and is being recognized as an important instrument of growth for the rural economy. Rural tourism showcases the rural life, art, culture and heritage at locations. It is a multi-faceted and entails Agri-tourism, Cultural tourism, Nature tourism, Adventure tourism and Eco-tourism. As against conventional tourism, rural tourism has certain unique features such as; it is experience oriented, the locations are sparsely populated, predominantly in natural environment, meshes with seasonality and local events and based on presentation of culture, heritage and traditions.

"Rural tourism is a multi-faceted activity that takes place in an environment outside heavily urbanized area. It is an industry sector characterized by small to tourism is not fully explored and thus, remains grossly unutilized. Rural tourism is one among these avenues which is not fully explored.

This paper is a modest attempt to analyze the significance of rural tourism and the potentialities of rural tourism development in Manipur.

Keywords:

Rural tourism, Manipur, significance, potentialities.

Originality Statement: We certified that the paper entitled, "Exploring the potentialities of rural tourism in Manipur" is original one and it has not been submitted in part or full in any journal or book for publication or any other purpose. We also permit ITHC to publish our paper in their journal or book.

scale tourism business, set in areas where land use is dominated by agricultural pursuits, forestry or natural area." (Dept. of Tourism, 1994)

Rural tourism can be defined as the country experience which encompasses a wide range of attractions and activities that take place in agricultural or non-urban areas. Its essential characteristics include wide-open spaces, low levels of tourism development, and opportunities for visitors to directly experience agricultural and/or natural environments. The basic concept of rural tourism is to benefit the local community through entrepreneurial opportunities, income generation, employment opportunities, conservation and development of rural arts and crafts, investment for infrastructure development and preservation of the environment and heritage.

Tourism growth potential can be harnessed as a strategy for Rural Development. The development of a strong platform around the concept of Rural Tourism is definitely useful for a country like India, where almost 74% of the population resides in its 7 million villages. Across the world the trends of industrialization and development have had an urban centric approach. This has led to growing interest in the rural areas. At the same time this trend of urbanization has led to falling income levels, lesser job opportunities in the total areas leading to an urbanization syndrome in the rural areas. Rural Tourism is one of the few activities which can provide a solution to these problems. Besides, there are other factors which are shifting the trend towards rural tourism like increasing levels of awareness, growing interest in heritage and culture and improved accessibility, and environmental consciousness. In the developed countries, this has resulted in a new style of tourism of visiting village settings to experience and live a relaxed and healthy lifestyle. This concept has taken the shape of a formal kind of Rural Tourism.

Objectives

- ❖ To revisit the significance of rural tourism
- ❖ To explore the potentialities of rural tourism in Manipur

Why Rural Tourism?

Rural tourism, while still only a minority tourism market, is making a valuable contribution to rural economies. Its contribution can be expressed not only in financial terms, but also in terms of jobs, contributions towards funding conservation, encouragement to the adoption of new working practices, and the injection of a new vitality into sometimes weakened economies. Potentially rural tourism promises some of the following benefits to rural development:

1. **Job creation**

   The main contribution of rural tourism or for that matter tourism, is the creation of jobs, thereby generating income for rural people. Job creation can occur in hotels, catering trades, transport, retailing and tourist guides. It can also provide additional income for farmers, and, in some cases, for foresters and fisherman.

2. **Increase arts and crafts sale**

   Besides creation of jobs, rural tourism can assist local arts & crafts and other ancillary units, by increasing their sales. Support between the arts and tourism can be a two-way process. As a matter of fact, many communities now use arts and crafts festivals as a marketing mechanism to encourage visitors to come to rural areas.

3. **Rural Infrastructure Development**

   Promotion of rural tourism will result in the development of rural infrastructural facilities, which will also cater to the requirements of other sectors of rural economy including agriculture and allied activities.

4. **Preservation of Rural Culture and Heritage**

   In rural tourism the sense of place is a fundamental element in both the tourists and host community's feelings of what makes the area attractive to visit and live in. This sense of place is maintained partly through rural museums which play a vital role in preserving heritage.

5. **New Business Opportunities**

Tourism generates new opportunities for industry. Even those rural businesses not directly involved in tourism can benefit from tourist activity through developing close relationships with tourist facilities where local foods can be used as part of the tourism offering in a locality. Rural tourism facilitates expansion of complementary businesses such as service stations and new businesses are created to cater to tourist needs for hospitality services, recreational activities and arts/crafts.

6. **Reduce migration**

Socio-economic benefits associated with rural tourism can help reduce migration from rural areas to a great extent. Promoting rural tourism will benefit the rural people in terms of income generation and employment opportunities. Rise in income level and employment opportunities will certainly reduce migration.

7. **Environmental conservation**

Environmental conservation has become an increasingly important issue. The joint declaration between WTO and UNEP states that the protection, enhancement and improvement of the various components of man's environment are among the fundamental conditions for the harmonious development of tourism. Rural tourism can contribute to a large extent in protecting the physical environment and the cultural heritage as well as improving the quality of life.

8. **Revival of Historical buildings & monuments**

Many historical buildings and monuments have become redundant. By promoting rural tourism, we can usually use these redundant buildings profitably and imaginatively: they can become attractions in their own right.

9. **Raise standard of living**

Promotion of rural tourism can contribute significantly in raising the standard of living of rural people. Personal interaction with tourist will provide new experience and help the rural people in changing their mode of life and attitude. Thus tourism can raise the standard of living of rural people.

Potentialities of Rural Tourism in Manipur

Manipur with total area coverage of 22327 sq.kms and home to more than 28 lakhs people has majority of the population residing in villages (rural population- 67.5% urban population- 32.5%). Manipur could be broadly divided into two distinct regions, Imphal valley and Hilly Areas. Manipur has enormous capacities in terms of natural tourist attractions. The state is endowed with breathtaking landscape, exotic culture and heritage, rich flora and fauna, invigorating climatic condition and hospitable people. This tiny state is home to Keibul Lamjao, the only floating National Park of its kind in the world as the last habitat of the marsh friendly brow antlered deer SANGAI- the dancing deer. Loktak Lake, the largest freshwater (sweet) lake in northeast India, also called the only Floating lake in the world due to the floating phumdis (heterogeneous mass of vegetation, soil, and organic matters at various stages of decomposition) on it, is located near Moirang in Manipur state. 'Siroi Lily' which is the only terrestrial lily in the world is grown on the hill tops of Siroi hill, Manipur.

Consequent upon various efforts of the Government and various stakeholders for promotion of tourism in Manipur, the state has witnessed considerable increase in the flow of tourist. The figures in table no.1 represent the flow of tourist both domestic and foreign tourist to Manipur.

Table No. 1 No of tourist visiting Manipur during the last 12 years

Year	Domestic	Foreign	Total
2002-03	89,829	227	90,056
2003-04	93,430	296	93,726
2004-05	97,054	248	97,302
2005-06	93,333	348	93,681
2006-07	1,20,472	263	1,20,735
2007-08	1,01,000	460	1,01,460
2008-09	1,15,300	271	1,15,571
2009-10	1,27,524	405	1,27,929
2010-11	1,16,652	431	1,17,083
2011-12	1,33,224	602	1,33,826
2012-13	1,31,803	768	1,32,571
2013-14	1,21,032	1,932	1,22,964

Source: Directorate of Tourism, Government of Manipur.

Note: the figures are recorded as per financial year (i.e April – March)

Increase in the number of tourist arrivals in Manipur reflects the potential of tourism in the state. The state is endowed with huge tourism resources, which remains untapped. Rural tourism is one such potential area, which can be explored for various embedded gains. Manipur has villages in abundance with greeneries and nature around them in the form of beautiful landscapes, rivers, lakes, waterfalls, paddy fields & agricultural farms, plantations, etc. Rearing of indigenous fruits and vegetables, animal husbandry, fishing and agriculture are activities practiced widely in villages of Manipur with close bonding with nature. The climatic condition in these areas is also suitable for tourism activity to occur1.

Rural folks form an integral element in rural tourism. In Manipur, the rural folks are engaged in arts & crafts activities to earn income, support livelihood. They have the skills and experience which has been transferred from past generations. Not only the arts & crafts sector but also the farming, fishing, handloom & handicrafts activities, horticulture practice and animal husbandries are conducted as part of their tradition besides providing livelihood. As a result, most of the famous arts & crafts products and handloom & handicrafts products of Manipur come from the villages and they are quite famous as well.

The traditional huts in villages of Manipur can cater to accommodation requirements, as in rural tourism, star category hotels and high-rise buildings are not what tourist look for. Home-stays, farm accommodation, paying guests facilities in the traditional huts, tree houses, etc. can be provided to tourists.

Tourism resources of Manipur can be base on Hilly areas and Imphal valley.

Natural factors: a) Scenic Beauty

Hilly Areas:

Scenic beauty	**Peaks (in m.)**	**Waterfalls**	**Caves**	**Valleys**
Blue and green mountain, wetland formation on top of hills, waterfalls, pine forests, etc.	Tenipu (2,994), Khayambung (2,833), Leikot (2,831), Siroy (2,568) Koubru (2,561.5)	Khayang, Barak	Songbu, Tharon, Kangkhui, Hundung etc.	Dzuko, Barak, Khou-pum, Kwakta, etc

Source: Manipur: A Tourist Paradise/ E. Ishwarjit Singh

Imphal Valley:

Scenic beauty	Peaks (in m.)	Lakes	Waterfalls	Centre of Attraction
Surrounding blue and green hills, exotic flowers, pristine forest, lakes with lilies, lotus, elegant islands, floating phumdis, small hillocks etc	Nongmaijing, Langol, Langthabal, Sendra Isle, Thanga Karang, Lokpaching, Cheiraoching etc	Loktak, Loukoipat, Waithou Pat, Laphu Pat etc.	Artificial waterfall of Singda dam, twin waterfall of Nambol	Ima Market, Shaheed Minar, Shree Govindajee Temple, Keibul Lamjao National Park etc

Source: Manipur: A Tourist Paradise/ E. Ishwarjit Singh

b) Flora and Fauna

Hilly Areas:

Forests	Flowers	National Parks	Wild Animals	Wild Life Sancturaies
Tropical wet evergreen, tropical moist deciduous, sub-tropical, pine forest and wet temperature forest	Siroy Lily, Dzuko Lily, Rhododendron, Iris, Wild Orchids, etc.	Siroy National Park	Java Rhinoceros, Malayan Sunbear, Honey bear, Barking dear, Sambhar, Serroe, Leopard, Tiger, Jackal, Fox, Hoolock, Gibbon, Langur, Clouded, Leopard, Flying squirrel, Hog badger, Civet cat, Wild beat etc	Yangangpokpi Lokchao, Proposed-Bunning, Zeilad, Jiri Makhru, Kailam

Source: Manipur: A Tourist Paradise/ E. Ishwarjit Singh

Imphal Valley:

Forests	National Parks	Endangered Birds	Endangered trees	Endangered shrubs	Endangered fishes
Tropical wet evergreen, tropical moist deciduous,	KeibulLamjao National Park	Nganu Thoidingnum, Nganu-Kok ngangbi, Nganu Pedek, Langmeidong, Lam-yel etc	Kekru, heirangoi, heigri, heitrol, nageshwar etc	Madhabi, kabok lei, utong lei, thariktha etc	Nganap, ngamhai, ngaton, khabak, pengba, Meitei ngamu etc

Source: Manipur: A Tourist Paradise/ E. Ishwarjit Singh

Socio-Cultural Factors a) Art and Culture

Manipur has been identifying itself to the people living in india as well as abroad through its rich arts and culture. Manipur presents a mosaic of traditions and cultural patterns. Particularly, it is world famous for the Manipuri style of classical dance like Khamba Thoibi dance, Pung Chollom, Maibi dance, Nupa Pala, Ras Lila, etc. Very much distinct from other Indian dance forms, The Manipuri school of dancing whether folk, classical or modern, is devotional in nature. Some of the dances of Imphal valley includes Ras Leela, Khrishna Vandana, Das Avatar, Khamba Thoibi, Leima Jagoi, Lai Haraoba etc. Cheiraoba, Lai Haraoba, Rath yatra, Heikru Hitongba, Diwali, Emoinu, Ningol Chakouba, etc. are some of the major festivals of Imphal valley.

Photo: Monsang cultural troupe.

The Hilly areas are dominated by tribals. More than 35 ethnic tribes inhabits the hills. Prominent tribes among them includes Tangkhul, Zemei, Liangmei, Rongmei, Mao, Maram, Maring, Anal, Monsang, Moyon, Lamkang, Chiru, Thangal, Purum, Tarao, Thadou, Paite, Hmar, Vaiphei, Gangte, Simte, Zou, Baite, Lushai (Mizo), Kom, Ralte etc. The dances of the tribal people have a high artistic and aesthetic value. The folk dances of tribal people captivate the beholders with their exotic costumes and simple but graceful rhythm. The dances of the tribal people are both ritualistic and recreational, religious and temporal. The ritual dances are performed at a particular rite or ceremony or sacrifice and these dances naturally have a spiritual and religious basis. Some of the important festivals of the tribals in Manipur includes Luingaini- Seed sowing festival of the Nagas, Kut Festival of Chin-Kuki-Mizo, Gang-Ngai festival of

Kabui Nagas, Chumpha festival of the Tangkhuls, Aekam festival of the Monsangs, Chavang Kumhrin festival of the Anals, etc.

Some of the important places of tourist interests are briefly highlighted below:

Loktak Lake

Loktak Lake about 48 Kms. from Imphal, is the largest fresh water lake in the North East Region. From the Tourist Bunglow set atop Sendra Island, visitors get a bird's eye view of life on the Lakesmall islands that are actually floating weeds on which the Lake-dwellers live in the backdrop of the shimmering blue water of the Lake, labyrinthine boat routes and colourful water plants. The Sendra Tourist Home with an attached Cafeteria is an ideal tourist spot. Boating and other water sports are organised here in Takmu Water Sports Complex.

Keibul Lamjao National Park

The only floating National Park in the world, on the Loktak Lake is the last natural habitat of the Sangai (Rucervus eldii eldii) the dancing deer of Manipur. A glimpse of the deer in this unique wetland ecosystem is a must for any wildlife enthusiast. Other wildlife to mention a few are: Hog deer, Otter and a host of water fowls and migratory birds can also be sighted during November to March. The forest Department of Manipur maintains watch towers and two rest houses within the park.

Dzuko valley

It is a very beautiful green valley and the most pictureqe place in Senapati District bordering Nagaland. It is famous for its rare terrestrial lily called Dzuko Lily and the enchanting snow clad valley during January & February. The highest peak of Manipur Mount Iso is also located behind this valley.

Ukhrul

Ukhrul is enchanting, beautiful and mesmerising. Far away from the maddening crowd, the cacophony of cars, the towering, congested buildings is this small tucked away almost heaven-like town. Ukhrul is peppered by numerous tourist attractions making Ukhrul tourism really an experience. Popular parks, peaks and waterfalls dot in and around the place. Duncan park and El Shadai park make ideal picnic spots for tourists. Khayang Waterfalls and Ango Ching, a forest area are still to be traced out by tourists and avid travellers.

Lunghar Sihai Phangrei a flat hilly place and Kachouphung Lake are ideal attractions for a leisure stroll. Waterfalls, caves, peaks dot the topography of Ukhrul all of which truly help it to live up to its other name, the Green Town.

Shirui Kashong Peak, Khayang Peak and Nillai Tea Estate are verdant green covers. Shirui Kashnog peak is shrouded by a host of lillies, during the May and June.

Khangkhui Mangsor Cave simply interests those who have an eye for archaeology.

"SHIRUI LILY" flower is rare and famous flower in the world. It is rare because it cannot be transplanted. The flower was / is never growing in the other parts of the world and perhaps will not grow again except in Shirui Peak. No one knows why this flower doesn't grow in other places in spite of the maximum care.

The abode of Shirui Lily is in Shirui Kashung in Ukhrul district, Manipur state. Shirui is the name of the village under Ukhrul district situated in North East of the district. Ukhrul is around 103 km away from the state capital Imphal. Manipur is located in extreme North East of India. The district is famous because of this flower. It is located about 15 km in the east of the district capital, Ukhrul. Shirui Kashung range stretching from north to south ranging from 4900' to 8474' above the sea level is one of the most beautiful ranges in Manipur.

Tharon Cave

Tharon cave is also spell as Thaeuluan Cave.It is about 27 km from Tamenglong, the district headquarters of Tamenglong District. The cave is 655.6 meters in length and features 34 joints and five exits. Excavations at the site had unearthed specimens related to the Hobinian culture of North Vietnam. A good ventilation system in the cave ensures that there is ample air circulation inside. The map of the entire cave is engraved and painted on a stone at the main entrance. This gives a clear picture of the alleys and turns inside the cave.

Zeilad lake

The legendary Zeilad Lake at Makoi (Atengba) in Tamenglong (Manipur India) is a natural habitat for a number of pythons, fishes and water birds. There are six other lakes nearby Guiphop Zei, Nrou Zei, and Nap-sam Zei etc.Zeilad Lake is located at Makoi (Atengba) off the west bank of the Barak, it is located at a high platform above a hill This legendary lake features in Naga myths as the place where paddy originated.This lake is assocaited with the Zeliangrong community as there is a legend where it is believed that Haipou Jadonang sittting on a white elephant when down the zeilad to get an medicine of immortal.The lake abounds in a number of pythons, tortoises, fishes and water birds. This lake is included among the four recently declared wildlife sanctuaries in Manipur.Zeilad Lake also hosts migratory birds every year.

Tengnoupal

69 km (43 mi) from Imphal and 20 kilometers off Chandel lies Tengnoupal which offers a complete picturesque view of the Manipur valley. The highest point on the Indo-Myanmar Road, from here, you can have a full view of the valley of Myanmar.

Andro Village

The village of Andro is just around 26 kilometers away from Imphal, the capital town of the State of Manipur (India). Situated in the foothills of "Nongmaiching', the village is a small ancient hamlet inhabited by one of the groups of the 'Loi communities' of Manipur which some believe were the earliest settlers of Manipur known as the 'Chakpas' and are ardent followers of the traditional religion and beliefs that prevailed before the onset of Hinduism in Manipur.

The beauty of Andro lies in the manner in which the small community has preserved the way of life and beliefs since time immemorial. The most significant and important practice of the community is that of preserving the "Sacred fire" of Andro. It is said that the fire has been kept burning since it was introduced to the people of Manipur by Poireiton, the King of the Khuman clan which had migrated from the mainland of Indian subcontinent around 1st Century AD, who is regarded to have brought a turning point in the Manipuri civilisation, turning the nomadic hunters to a well organised agrarian community. It was subsequent to him that Nongda Lairen Pakhangba ascended the throne as the first Manipuri King. Till today the sacred fire burns in the temple of Panam Ningthou, the governing deity of the village. Every two households in the village is entrusted with the responsibility of managing the fire for one day, which is passed on to the next two houses the next day and so on throughout the entire year until each household would have borne the responsibility at least once in a year.

Concluding Remarks

Rural tourism or tourism in rural areas is a new form of activity that can bring economic and social benefits to the society. The state of Manipur has an ample scope and potentialities for development of rural tourism. However, the potential of Manipur with respect to rural tourism is not fully explored and thus, remains grossly unutilized. With proper planning and management, rural tourism will emerge as an important instrument for sustainable human development including poverty alleviation, employment generation, environment regeneration and development of rural areas. In this regard, the State Government and all the stakeholders have a big task ahead. The success of rural tourism will depend upon the participation of the rural community. As such, the foremost need is to sensitize the rural community about the socio-economic benefits of rural tourism and give proper awareness on the needs and expectations of the tourists like hygiene, sanitation, proper waste management and friendly attitude. Home stays should be encouraged as these will directly benefit the rural community. Here, the State Government could take a reference from Sikkim experience of home stay funding by Sikkim Government. An innovative step towards home stay funding could be the alignment and integration of existing government housing schemes with rural tourism projects.

Besides, there are various issues which requires immediate attention like resolving political tensions and other regulatory barriers such as PAP, Disturbed Area tag, ILP etc, for promotion of rural tourism in particular and tourism industry in general.

Most importantly, courtesy and friendly attitude of the local community is sine qua non for the success of tourism in Manipur.

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The Representations of the Past: Museums, Cultural Tourism and the Dialectics of Identity

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Abstract

The 1980s and early 1990s have witnessed a marked boom in the museum and heritage industry. Public interest in our historic environment is growing and this new awareness has been met by a major increase in the commercialization of the past. The process of modernization has gradually served to distance people from their own heritage. As new horizons of expectation open up in the fields of consumption, travel and communication, the past becomes increasingly obscure and sequestered from those who own it, leading to a loss of sense of place. Many social theorists have suggested that we are currently living in a period in which the identities of the past are becoming increasingly irrelevant and in which new identities, and new identity formations, are being created. The major identity colossus forged in the nineteenth century, and subsequently spread over much of the globe. Nation-state identity has been the subject of particular debate; and theorists have attempted to identify alternative, post-national (in the sense of post-nation-statist) identity constructions. The proliferation of museums in the nineteenth century was undoubtedly closely bound up with the formation and solidification of nation-states in, and subsequently beyond, Western Europe. A crucial question for museums today concerns their role in a world in which nationstatist identities are being challenged. Are they too inextricably entangled in 'old' forms of identity to be able to express 'new' ones? In a world where the anonymous marketing director increasingly dominates our lives, the key to the future representation of the past lies in enabling people to come to terms with their own heritage. In this paper the relationship between museums and tourism is explored and

Introduction

Tourists have the dubious distinction of serving as a target of derision for almost everyone. Indeed, scholars of tourism have more often than not begun their studies with a notion of tourism as something that is inherently 'bad', due to the cultural degradation it is claimed to cause (Crick, 1989; Nash, 1981;Wood; 1997). In fact, a post-Second World War genealogy of laments for the havoc caused by tourism on the Other can be easily traced. The story is familiar to us all: once there was a pristine and natural place outside the West; then tourism arrived; now what was once pure and authentic has become spoiled and commodified. In short, tourism has been simultaneously internationalized, homogenized and demonized.

how the consequential intersections get represented. The concept of this paper is related to cultural heritage studies and management, since museum operation is a part of cultural heritage management and shares some of the same basic ideology. It is also connected to tourism studies, because heritage studies have certain aspects in common with that field, especially when it comes to cultural tourism. It touches up on several fundamental museological issues, for instance questions related to the basic role of the museum, its social value and the intercultural perspective.

Keywords:

Cultural Tourism, Interdisciplinary Research, Museum Operations, Heritage Management and Identity, Postmodernism

This story of loss transcends ideological and disciplinary boundaries. It is shared by conservative literary critics such as Paul Fussell, liberal academics such as Daniel Boorstin, harsh critics of postmodernism like sociologist Dean McCannell, and, as a subtext to larger arguments, Greens, feminists, and much of the non-governmental organization (NGO) movement. All embrace, implicitly or explicitly, Claude Levi-Strauss's plot line in Tristes Tropiques: travel books and travelers [contemporary tourists] serve only to 'preserve the illusion of something that no longer exists'; genuine travel has been replaced by movement through a 'monoculture' in a fruitless search for a 'vanished reality' (Levi-Strauss, 1972).

Related to this seemingly clear-cut story line, the relative 'seriousness' of tourism as a legitimate subject of inquiry remains an issue for many researchers. Hence, tourism research is often framed as a by-product of more scholarly work, with a focus that mainly serves to highlight and condemn its 'bastardization' features (Wood and Picard, 1997). Rather than operating as a legitimate academic topic, questions about tourism and travel have, until relatively recently, been relegated to the backbenches, so to speak, particularly in anthropology, where serious research on the subject dates only from the 1970s (Crick, 1994; Nash and Smith, 1991).

Today, tourism, like other previously non-anthropological topics such as development and globalization, has gained a regular place at annual American Anthropological Association (AAA) meetings. Along the way, however, it has been transformed into an anthropological object, one which is scrutinized and critiqued by an anthropology which claims to operate from a position outside of and distinct from tourism, a stance that works to mystify the relationship between anthropology and tourism. As an object of anthropological inquiry, it has been defined and shaped by a series of questions that tend to revolve around three issues: individual motivation (why do people travel?), economic gains and losses (who benefits from this travel?) and tourism's cultural impact (what 'cultural' changes does tourism bring?) (Graburn, 1983; Nash and Smith, 1991).

In the last decade, a new postmodern paradigm in marketing has emerged and has influenced recent research in the consumption and tourism fields. Postmodernism has emerged as a critique of modernism and as a dominant foundation, linked to the constructs of consumer culture (Firat and Venkatesh, 1995). In this sense, postmodernism offers an alternative perspective for studying consumption and exploring consumer behaviour in Western consumer society. Today's consumer society is changing dramatically. New consumption paradoxes and trends related to the omnipresence of digital equipment and the frequent use of new technologies represent an important part of everyday practices. This has influenced the shift in market segmentation from market logic to a consumer-centric approach by taking into account different consumption aspects such as: sociocultural, ideological, symbolic and experiential dimensions.

According to Brown (2006, 1995), postmodernism in its varied manifestations is not a marketing concept but a critique of the dominant ideas and the mainstream research in consumption. Furthermore, postmodernism is a pan-disciplinary movement that has marked different disciplines such as anthropology, cultural studies, sociology, philosophy, archaeology, geography, theology, etc. In respect of the consumption field, it appears that consumer society and postmodern society are near enough and may be considered as synonymous (Falk and Campbell, 1997).

Although the two concepts of structuralism/poststructuralism and modernism/ postmodernism have overlapping meanings, they refer to different fields (Firat and Venkatesh, 1995). In the social sciences, authors use the terms of 'modernism' and 'postmodernism' rather than 'structuralism' and 'poststructuralism'. Therefore, understanding the shift from modernism to postmodernism, and the implications of postmodernism in the consumption and tourism fields, leads first to clarify and locate the temporal dimension by choosing modernity as a starting point.

Modernity can be explained through two dimensions: economic and cultural. The economic aspect of modernity encompasses the industrialisation and the mass production era. In the modern society, culture is limited to artistic activities that obey the mainstream rules established by tradition. According to Piquet and Marchandet (1998), modernity is intended to free humanity from ignorance and irrationality. Therefore, the modern paradigm is characterised by the idea of the progress towards liberation of mankind. In this sense, the knowledge project of modernism is universal, since society is homogeneous and structured by hierarchies based on objective reality and reason.

Museums and Tourism

A large assortment of people visit museums: from the very young to the very old; and in a range of groups: families, friends, schools, couples. Museums are exciting places for visitors as they tell stories about the objects they hold and the research they undertake in a variety of ways. Museums are unique contexts for learning, often called "free-choice" learning environments (Falk & Dierking, 2000). Museums have the opportunity to shape identities—through access to objects, information and knowledge visitors can see themselves and their culture reflected in ways that encourage new connections, meaning making and learning (Bradburne, 1998; Carr, 2003; Falk, 2004; Falk & Dierking, 1992, 2000; Hein, 1998; Hooper-Greenhill, 2000; Silverman, 1995; Weil, 1997). Museums have developed from being repositories of knowledge and objects to having a '… multifaceted, outward looking role as hosts who invite visitors inside to wonder, encounter and learn' (Schauble, Leinhardt & Martin, 1997).

However, in the twenty-first century there are many challenges facing museums. These include increased competition and pressures on attendances because of the proliferation of leisure choices for more sophisticated consumers and the rise of access to the internet (Lynch, Burton, Scott, Wilson & Smith, 2000). Across the world museums are finding themselves competing in the marketplace with other leisure, learning and educational providers (Falk & Dierking, 2000; Lynch et al., 2000; Mintz, 1994) within what has been called the “experience economy”, defined as the wide range of currently available educational leisure experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1999).

The demands of the “information age” have raised new questions for museums, particularly in the areas of access and authority (Cameron, 2003, 2006; Freedman, 2000). It has been argued that museums need to move from being suppliers of information to providing usable knowledge and tools for visitors to explore their own ideas and reach their own conclusions (Bradburne, 1998; Hein, 1997) because increasing access to technologies, such as the internet, ‘… have put the power of communication, information gathering, and analysis in the hands of the individuals of the world’ (Freedman, 2000). Freedman also argued that museums should become mediators of information and knowledge for a range of users to access on their terms, through their own choices, and within their own place and time.

Funding cuts have resulted in more limited resources requiring museums to operate on a more commercial basis and to be more collaborative through partnerships (Brown, 1997; Garnett, 2002). As well, there is a need for museums to stay relevant and be responsive to pressing social and environmental issues such as population and sustainability, social justice and Indigenous rights (Bradburne, 1998; Brown, 1997; Griffin, 1998; Kelly, Cook & Gordon, 2006; Kelly & Gordon, 2002; Skramstad, 1999; Weil, 1994, 1999). Other world pressures such as terrorism, global warming and climate change are also affecting museums, not just locally but globally in terms of both the capacity to host travelling exhibitions, in loaning collections and in visitation.

Museums have always been tourist destinations. The earliest museums were founded on the premise of “education for the uneducated masses” (Bennett, 1995), “cabinets of curiosities” (Weil, 1995) established to ‘… raise the level of public understanding … to elevate the spirit of its visitors … to refine and uplift the common taste’ (Weil, 1997, p.257).Museums have been intimately linked with the leisure sector, especially in studies related to marketing of museums (Burton & Scott, 2003; Crang, 1996; Harkin, 1995; Lynch et al., 2000; Masberg & Silverman, 1996; Packer & Ballantyne, 2002; Prentice, Witt & Hamer, 1998; Ryan & Glendon, 1998; Scott & Burton, 2000; Tian, Crompton & Witt, 1996; Witcomb, 2003). Research has found that strong motivations to visit museums are for leisure and entertainment (Moore, 1997; Packer, 2004; Packer & Ballantyne, 2002).

Representations of the Past-The Idea of Modernity

Jurgen Habermas has defined modernity as, 'The epochal new beginning that marked the modern world's break with the world of the Christian Middle Ages and antiquity that is repeated, as it were, in every present moment that brings forth something new. The present perpetuates the break with the past in the form of a continual renewal' (Habermas, 1989).

Modernity has its origins in the Renaissance, and the emergence of modern science—the discovery of 'truths' and 'facts', or rather claims for the possibility of objective truths about the world and 'Man's' place within it. The 'meta narratives' which emerged during the modern epoch were essentially discourses which implied a rigid objectivism, and through this, the potential of a thorough analysis of the world. Such meta narratives might include Darwin's Theory of Evolution and Marx's analysis of capital. Modernism can thus be considered as a set of discourses concerned with the possibilities of representing reality and defining eternal truths.

The Idea of Progress

An essential proposition of modern thought is an idea of progress, a belief which developed as a constituent part of Enlightenment thinking, and provided modern thinkers with a faith in the ability of humankind to manipulate and exploit their environments for the benefit of society. Such a society could escape from the debilitating elements of the past, and could move ever forward to new horizons. If modernity has a particular essence, it is a belief in rational advancement through increments of perpetual improvement.

Enlightenment thinking provided the foundations of modernity, and must be seen within the contexts of European voyages of discovery and the Renaissance, and the establishment of world-wide trading, and Imperial, networks. These developments along with the foundation of new nation states within Europe, notably Italy and Germany, can be seen as important elements in the foundation of modernity.

A fundamental of Enlightenment thinking was a conception of a society which was advancing, a society that potentially knew no bounds, a society that could overcome any of the problems that it was either forced to confront, or confronted out of choice. Progression through the exploitation of the environment, combined with a faith in humankind's dominant position in the scheme of things, must be central to any appreciation of modernity. 'Since the beginning of the modern era the prospect of a limitless advance of science and technology, accompanied at each step by moral and political improvement, has exercised considerable hold over Western thought' (McCarthy, 1984)

The belief in progress was in part based on Newtonian physics, as was the Enlightenment's concept of time. A belief in growth provided a secure model for progress in all aspects of knowledge. To a certain extent it was this shift from the mythical/superstitious frameworks of the pre-Enlightenment period, to the rationalized lifeworld of modernity, which was to be symbolized by the museum displays of the nineteenth century. Such displays doubtless contributed to the idea of progress which helped develop a 'horizon of expectation': The horizon open to the future, which is determined by expectations in the present, guides our access to the past. In as much as we appropriate past experiences with an orientation to the future, the authentic present is preserved as the locus of continuing tradition and of innovation at once; the one is not possible without the other, and both merge into the objectivity proper to a context of effective history (Habermas, 1987). The idea of progress influenced many areas of thought, including the understanding of language. 'Speech and writing were considered to have improved during the past, and conscious attempts were made to foster further linguistic advance in the future. The progress of language seemed to have special significance because of its intimate relation to positive intellectual and social change' (Spadafora, 1990).

Pessimistic views of history began to disappear during the 1730s, and hardly existed come the latter half of the eighteenth century. Certainly in Britain, the idea of progress in history was fundamental to the way people thought about the past and was undeniably more important than the previously pessimistic outlooks. By the turn of the century it would seem that the idea of progress was widely accepted amongst the educated classes of the First World. Whether progress was apparent to other societies, whose suffering seemed to be an essential element of industrialization, is doubtful. During the eighteenth century, the Christian vision of history developed, with an emphasis on the correlation of past events with scriptural predictions: 'the eschatologists of high eighteenth century Britain gave the Biblical prophetic programme a concrete chronological order and made it amenable to their historical understanding' (ibid). In contemporary Christian thought the idea of progress was inextricably part of a wider optimism in the divine program for spiritual advancement.

The wider conceptions of history tended to articulate frameworks which were essentially concerned to promote the idea of progress, or during the later nineteenth century, a form of progressive evolutionism. James Mill's History of British India (1817) saw societal development as moving through stages 'from primitiveness toward a high level of civilisation (as determined by contemporary Europe)'. India was deemed to be near the lowest stage of development (Spadafora, 1990). Such an understanding of the world gave justification to the idea of the 'white man's burden': the duty of the European to colonize and educate those who were perceived as being less fortunate. It was such a belief in progress, and the rationality of the European economic and political system, which gave rise to the myth of the struggling savages' [sic] subsistence economy (Sahlins, 1974).

The height of the popularity of the idea of progress was probably during the mid-Georgian period, rather than the mid-Victorian period (Spadafora, 1990). But despite this, there is no doubt that for many Victorians, the nineteenth century was a period of great advances in both the arts and sciences, although many began to realize that progress in industrialization and urbanization was not progress for all. Despite this, it is undoubtedly true that, 'Rarely has a single idea played so central a part in an intellectual world. To begin to understand that world requires that we recognize the significance of the idea of progress within it' (ibid).

The idea of progress is an idea which has underpinned the teleological nature of many representations of the past, an ordering of the past which came about through a new conception of time and history, both of which can now be considered.

The Idea of Progress and History

As discussed above, central to modernity was a belief in progress, but often this was a progress achieved through destruction, often a destruction of lifestyles that had not really altered since the early Middle Ages, or even the late third and second millennia BC. The Industrial Revolution was responsible for the uprooting and disturbance of large sectors of the population. It was partly as a result of this newly imposed rootlessness that an enchantment with the past emerged during the nineteenth century.

Despite the fact that the Victorian period was dominated by industrial and scientific progress, it 'was also an age dominated by a fascination with the past' (Bowler, 1989). Of course, it is understood that societies prior to those of the nineteenth century had an interest in the past, but these interests were quite different from the histories and archaeologies which had their roots in the Enlightenment, and developed into the foundations of the modern disciplines of the twentieth century.

It can be argued that pre-industrial society's awareness of the past was an experience which was entirely more organic than that understanding of the past which was to develop in the modern urban world. In the rural, or pre-industrial context, there seems to have been an appreciation of the processes which had, and still did, affected daily life. The past was something which was present in the construction of the sense of place. This may be considered as a more organic form of history, one which recognizes the crucial contingency of past processes on present places. Places, natural and human-made features, acted as 'time-marks', physical phenomena which exist in the present but possess, for those who know them, a temporal depth which gives them a special meaning. An important form of such a time-mark is the boundary, the perceived periphery of a community's locality. These may range from boundaries made of stone in prehistory, to parish boundaries, and enclosed fields.

The experiences of industrialization and urbanization destroyed for many people this organic, or contingent, past. The sense of the past developed by the new urban mass was one that had to be created, in the same way as their places had to be created. The experiences of modernization wrenched a vast proportion of the population from settled, well-established lifestyles, where the past had been a part of their daily experience. 'The Victorians' fascination with the past was the product of an age obsessed with change, desperately hoping that history itself might supply the reassurance that could no longer be derived from ancient beliefs' (ibid). The move from the rooted place, to an ephemeral, transitory urban experience, resulted in a conception of the past which was dominated by change—progress towards the ever more modern world. Towards the end of the nineteenth century, there does seem to have been a developing awareness of the importance of the past, but this importance was increasingly neutered by the developing perception of the past as something which was separate and had a limited contingency for modern societies. Also, the idea that such a past was essentially a tale of progress towards the modern was rarely ever questioned by the majority of people. As Dellheim argues in his discussion of the Victorian appropriation of images of the Middle Ages, Liberal England's middle-class politicians and businessmen appropriated medieval forms to create pedigrees for their values and to legitimize their quest for hegemony. Although their concern with historic paraphernalia superficially reinforced the authority of traditional symbols, actually it diminished the prescriptive force of the past by reinterpreting its meanings in the light of progressive aspirations (Dellheim, 1982).

The Victorians tended to believe that social development was a movement in a purposeful, positive direction—a progression towards a meaningfully constituted society. It was this understanding of the nature of progress which saw its clearest articulation in Whig history: the belief in inevitable trends, based on freedom of thought and commercial enterprise. 'Evolution was the sum total of a vast multitude of individual progressive acts, allowing middle-class values to be seen as the driving force of an essentially purposeful system of nature' (Bowler, 1989).

This idea of progress was reflected in the work of Adam Smith, whose Wealth of Nations (1776) articulated the belief that, despite the fact that people are inherently selfish, their efforts for self-improvement would benefit society as a whole. If uninhibited by 'unnatural' controls, then the economy and society will develop naturally, and in a trend that will be in the interest of everybody. Contrary to Darwin's emphasis on the uniqueness and haphazard nature of all evolutionary developments, it would appear that there was a profound belief in the inevitability of progress as the basis to Victorian evolutionism.

It is this model of progress that contributed to early ideas on societal development in prehistory. This kind of linear interpretation clearly lent itself to static display in museums, although it was probably not until just after World War I that such ideas were represented explicitly in museum displays. It is in part for this reason that today many archaeological and historical displays still follow this basic formula.

To an extent, the modern idea of history and its concomitant conception of time implied that the future had already begun. There was a belief in acceleration and advancing of historical events. Habermas considers that at this time the image of history as a uniform process that generates problems is formed, and time becomes experienced as a scarce resource for the mastery of problems that arise—that is, as the pressure of time.

The ‘Zeitgeist’, or spirit of age, one of the new words that inspired Hegel, characterizes the present as a transition that is consumed in the consciousness of a speeding up and the expectation of the differentness of the future (Habermas, 1987).

For Stephen Kern, author of The Culture of Time and Space, ‘Thinking about the past centred on four major issues: the age of the earth, the impact of the past on the present, the value of that impact, and the most effective way to recapture a past that has been forgotten’ (Kern, 1983).

The first ‘modern’ histories were produced in the early nineteenth century. It was Condorcet who had hoped that the history of humankind would be modelled on the history of modern science and rationalization. But for most historians, the first ‘true’ history was written by Leopold von Ranke, whose History of the Latin and Teutonic Nations was published in 1824. Ranke’s aim ‘was the misleadingly modest-seeming one of presenting the past as it really was, discovering what actually happened on the basis of a systematic and comprehensive survey of existing evidence and of new evidence that could be collected’ (Atkinson, 1978).

During the Victorian period the modern discipline of history expanded. Macaulay wrote multi-volumed histories of England, while the historical novel flourished. Interest in the excavations of Assyrian cities by Henry Layard, and the work of Heinrich Schliemann at Troy, was extensive. Schliemann’s activities often reached the front pages of newspapers, and Gladstone himself wrote the preface to Schliemann’s Mycenae of 1875 (Bowler 1989:48). The teaching of non-ancient history in universities also developed during the nineteenth century. In 1866 William Stubbs was appointed to the chair of Modern History at Oxford, and in 1868 the new Ecole Pratique des Hautes Etudes opened at the Sorbonne.

Museum, Nation and Public

The emergence of the nation-state, the public, and the public museum in the late eighteenth century, were intimately bound together. The French Revolution of 1789, regarded as a key moment in the dawn of the nation-state era in Western Europe, was a revolution of ‘the people’ which saw the replacement of an aristocratic order with a new more horizontal and democratic conception of a collectivity of equals. As such, the opening up of the formerly princely collections was an eloquent symbolic assertion of the new ideals of ‘egalité, fraternité et liberté’. That which was private and aristocratic was made public and ‘of the people’; the special, exclusive sphere of the elite was breached and opened up to the scrutiny of those who had previously been denied access to such treasures. This was a moment for 'culturing' the public: for bringing 'culture', in the sense of 'high culture', to the masses and, more importantly, for attempting to constitute a public. That is, it was also a symbolic attempt to generate a 'public' - a self-identifying collectivity in which members would have equal rights, a sense of loyalty to one another, and freedom from previous tyrannies and exclusions.

Of course, this is not to say that the attempt fully worked. And, of course, attempts to culture the public were not made in quite the same ways or on the same time-scales in all those countries that became nation-states. However, as Benedict Anderson (1983) has argued for the idea of the nation-state, and as Carol Duncan has argued more specifically for the case of the Louvre (the original princely collection that was opened up in 1789) (1995), these became 'models' which were widely exported around Europe and later much of the rest of the globe. There they were recast within more local histories, politics and aesthetics. This global localization (or 'glocalization') produced hetereogeneity of the museum form and public culture across space. Even within any museum there were also competing agendas and contradictions. For example, the newly publicly revealed works of art, such as those at the Louvre, could themselves be the means of differential 'culturing' - social distinction - which would threaten the fragile conception of egalité. And the notion of fraternité - brotherhood - indicated a gendered exclusion which feminist theorists have suggested was deeply ingrained in, and perhaps even partially constitutive of, the idea of 'the public' itself (Yuval-Davis, 1997). National identities and national publics were also defined through difference from other nations and ethnic groups - the new world picture was one of discrete, spatially-mapped, bounded difference, something which could prove difficult for those who, according to this picture, were 'out of place' (such as migrants) or who found their values and cultural attributes depicted as less advanced or morally worthy than those of the 'home team'.

Identity Work

So, what was it about museums that made them appropriate agencies for culturing 'the public' and for 'thinking' nation-states? As Benedict Anderson has pointed out, thinking of oneself as a member of a national public - envisaged like a large 'team', 'family' or 'community' but made up of thousands or millions of people most of whom one would never meet - entailed a particular feat of the imagination (1983). It involved projecting sentiments of belonging and brotherhood way beyond those of direct experience, but only up to a specified 'edge' - the boundary of the national community. As individual identification with the nation-state and the numerous unknown 'brothers' could not rest on experienced social relations it had instead to be cultural - a matter of shared knowledge and practice, of representation, ritual and symbolism. Moreover, the nation-state, born of popular revolution and proclaiming equality and freedom, required that individuals would see themselves not just as passive objects of the means of social regulation but as willing and 'free' participant members. Nation-states were not to 'contain masses' but were to be made up of 'a public' of 'citizens'. This is why the harnessing of state and nation was so crucial for it brought together regulation and sentiments of belonging. It infused order with affect; it made rather contingent territorial boundaries and banal national property worth fighting, and even dying, for.

Museums, along with other public institutions, were an expressive site and agency of some of these new ways of thinking and of public culturing. Of course, not all museums operated in quite the same ways (there were differences, for example, between art galleries and industrial museums, between national and provincial institutions. And, of course, their public culturing was not always successful. It is nevertheless useful to outline some of the features that made them 'good' for identity work and which led to what is surely rather a remarkable proliferation.

The anthropologist Richard Handler (1988) has argued that the idea of 'having a culture' has become crucial to nationalist and politicised ethnic discourse: it is taken as a mark of being a bona fide 'people' who should also have rights of at least some degree of self-governance. Although this idea has become globally assumed, it is itself historically and culturally specific. It is based on a notion that the philosopher Charles Taylor (1989) calls 'expressive individuation': the idea not just that each national identity is different from the next, but that this distinctiveness is deep-seated and that we have a kind of 'calling' to express it. Taylor is in fact writing of personal identity but he notes that national identity was conceptualized by analogy (1989: 376). For nations, culture is their means of such expression: it is the outward sign of distinctive 'inner depths'. Museums, already established as sites for the bringing together of significant 'culture objects', were readily appropriated as 'national' expressions of identity, and of the linked idea of 'having a history' - the collective equivalent of personal memory. This did not necessarily mean that all that was on show had necessarily to be 'of the nation', though 'national' artefacts and art works were an important strand. Just 'having a museum' was itself a performative utterance of having an identity,5 and this formula was 'pirated' or replicated at other levels of local governance, most notably in the civic museums which burgeoned in the nineteenth century.

New Identities and New Public

Public museums, then, were from their beginnings embroiled in the attempt to culture a public and encourage people to imagine and experience themselves as members of an ordered but nevertheless sentimentalized nation-state. They invited people to conceptualise a sense of national or racial difference from others; and to experience their own worlds as relatively and reassuringly governed ones. They helped to convey senses of both stability and progress. They helped to instantiate a 'scientific', 'objective' way of seeing - a gaze which could 'forget' its own positionedness. They helped to think identities as bounded and coherent.

All of these kind of ideas have, however, been questioned since the nineteenth century attempt to establish them. For example, Habermas (1989) and others in the Frankfurt School (e.g. Adorno and Horkheimer 1979), argue that the expansion of the mass media and consumerism have led to the demise of the democratic 'public sphere'. The public sphere is becoming debased and de-cultured - subsuming itself to trivia and a more superficial notion of 'staging' - and it is becoming differentiated into diverse interest groups with little sense of a larger community. A less negative perspective suggests that there is indeed a differentiation within the public sphere (though that we ever really achieved an inclusive public culture is questioned) but that this is a welcoming opening up, an ability of previously marginal or excluded voices to be heard. The journal Public Culture, for example, started in 1988 by Arjun Appadurai and Carol Breckenridge, seeks to 'reclaim' the idea of 'public culture' in just this multicultural and indeed transnational way (Robbins, 1994). Alongside this suggested growth of cacophony in the public sphere, there has been critique of the idea of objective vision, of evolutionary and other 'grand' narratives from burgeoning new areas of theory (especially standpoint, feminist, post-colonial and queer). These have sought to unsettle the notion of the privileged vantage point from which subjectivity would be obliterated and underlying realities could be discerned. Instead, they have turned the gaze back upon the supposedly objective to explore its unstated assumptions and cultural-political positioning; and they have argued for theorising which acknowledges and seeks to reflect upon subjectivity and standpoint rather than pretends their irrelevance.

Representing Tran-cultural Identities

The Trans-cultural Galleries at Cartwright Hall were opened to the public in 1997. On display were artefacts from what was claimed to be 'the first non-colonial collection of its kind in the country' (Poovaya Smith, 1998), a collection which had been begun in 1986. The timing and the location of this collecting strategy and the 'experiment' in museological representation that resulted from it are significant. During the 1960s and 1970s, Bradford had developed a substantial population from South Asia - approximately 81,000 out of a total of 484,000 by the early 1990s. During the 1970s racial tensions grew, partly in relation to growing unemployment; and the early 1980s saw race riots in various British cities and a flourishing of reports on 'race-relations'. The collecting and display policies of museums, and their funding, were one of the areas to which attention was paid in an attempt to address cultural provision for, and the perception of, the non-white population in Britain.

In Bradford, a curator, Nima Poovaya Smith, was appointed in 1986 with the remit of building up, and displaying, a collection of art from the Indo-Pakistan subcontinent. The collection and displays were to be based at Cartwright Hall, a purpose-built public art gallery in a Baroque style building set in a public park, which had opened in 1904. Much of Cartwright Hall's internal space and exhibitions are fairly typical of a nineteenth-century public museum as described in the first part of this chapter; and most of the art on display is European, with a strong emphasis on British work (including art with a local and regional emphasis). At this time, South Asians rarely visited the museum and one of the tasks of the new curator was to try to change this state of affairs. This concern was itself a reflection of recognition of the symbolic role of museums in expressing (even imagined) community identity. In this case, the attempt was to articulate a plural, multicultural, identity.

One danger, identified by some who have written on multi-cultural policies (e.g. Werbner, 1997), is that difference could be 'fixed' or 'museumised' by the identification of discrete communities and traditions. Rather than try to represent distinct communties, however, Poovaya Smith sought to express the fluidity of cultural boundaries and identities. In doing so, she drew on her reading of post-colonial critical discourse theorists such as Edward Said, (Homi Bhabha and Gayatri Spivak ,1998). In attempting to cut across geographical and traditional 'community' identities, the exhibitions in the Trans-cultural Galleries do nevertheless employ the idea of locality.

Discussion, Summary and Conclusion

The modern museums' predecessors were Europe's aristocrats' private and social exclusive collections of rare or representative objects and during the ages museum operation was shaped by ideas of the Renaissance and the 18th century Enlightenment. At the beginning of the 19th century new ideas developed and museums were used for educating and enlightening the general public in order to civilize people and make the societies better. Thereby they were given the role of serving as one of societies' main cultural institutions. The number of museums all around the globe has grown drastically during the 20th century. At the same time almost every aspect of museum operation has developed, as is the case with professionalism and different specialization within the field. Today various types of museums are to be found in all parts of the world, but still there are several elements they all have in common which make the conception of a museum international and universal. One of the most accessible and best-known definitions of a museum is the one by The International Council of Museums (ICOM). It is a key-definition, which serves as a cornerstone to the understanding of the term museum: A museum is a non-profit making, permanent institution in the service of society and of its development, and open to the public, which acquires, conserves, researches, communicates and exhibits, for purposes of study, education and enjoyment, material evidence of people and their environment.

The definition explains the fundamental nature and function of the museum. The element of "non-profit" is of utmost importance regarding the operation and it is also related to the governmental body of the museum and its financial responsibilities. As a non-profit organisation in service of society the museum is dependent on society's support, both public support and even political. The issue that a museum is to be a permanent institution does also address the governing body's responsibilities to maintain and sustain the operation and its function. The obligations a museum has towards the society and its development certainly seems to be a complicated duty. This means that the operation has to be oriented towards, and for the benefits of, all members of society and therefore every museum has various stakeholders with different interests. According to the definition the museum has to be able take notice of a society's development and react to it. It has to be capable to adopt to changes in the environment, but the museum can also play a role itself in the development of the society, for example by protecting certain ideas and values.

The definition also addresses the objectives of the operation related to the material evidence of people and their environment. The evidence people have left of their past activities applies to both tangible material or remains and intangible things like customs, folklores and oral tradition. A museum is a collection consists of selected material evidence of human activity or the natural environment, accompanied by associated information. This is something that can be referred to as cultural heritage, which can also be seen as one of the museum's resources. Cultural heritage is a complicated term but according to a definition by ICOM, cultural heritage is any concept or thing, natural or artificial, which is considered to have aesthetic, historical, scientific or spiritual significance. Museums are certainly complex organizations with multiple purposes, functions, and roles to perform. One of the challenges is to balance the conservation and use of the resources, the cultural heritage – and to sustain that balance.

Articulating postnational, transcultural or 'hybrid' identity is a difficult matter. As some commentators have discussed, it easily runs the risk of unwittingly 'freezing' identities, precisely contrary to its ambitions. That some of these commentators have dubbed this a danger of 'museumising' the identities and cultures on display (Friedman 1995; Werbner 1997), signals, perhaps, that museums may face a particular dilemma in this regard. One problem that has been identified is that the notion of 'hybridity' (as with related conceptions, such as 'syncretic' or 'creole' identities) seems to presuppose pre-existing 'pure' or 'noncreolised' cultures, a view which most anthropologists would dispute (Friedman 1996; Caglar 1997). A second, related, problem is a tendency to privilege 'ethnic' or 'national' identity (e.g. 'South Asian'), even if this is conceptualised as 'hyphenated' (e.g. 'Anglo-Indian, 'German-Turkish') and to equate this with 'culture', thus again setting 'hybrid' or 'fluid' identities against an implicit 'pure' identity and conceptualising the non-homogeneous as inherently 'potentially conflictual' (Caglar 1997).

Moreover, escaping from geographical definitions and 'the trope of community', and the 'taken-for-granted isomorphism of culture, place and people' (Caglar, 1997) that these tend to conjure up, is methodologically difficult. How can hybrid and transcultural identities be represented without falling into these traps? Ayse Caglar's own suggestion, in her insightful discussion of these problems, is to focus on 'person-object relations as these exist in space and time' (1997). Thus, rather than beginning with 'a community' or a geographical area, her methodological suggestion is to begin with objects and then, 'by plotting the networks of interconnected practices surrounding objects, and the sentiments, desires and images these practices evoke, we can avoid the need to define collectivities in advance' (ibid.). The Transcultural Galleries at Cartwright Hall seem to exemplify this starting point well. The objects exhibited, rather than any particular geographical or ethnic categories are clearly the starting point and main content of the exhibition. Moreover, by having rather little text in the exhibition (for the most part there are only short labels giving the artist's name, the title of the work and its date), it is able to circumvent for the most part geographical or ethnic descriptions.

Categories such as 'Islamic calligraphy' are an exception here rather than the rule. In this respect, the exhibition medium has a clear advantage over, say, a written account in that it can privilege objects and do away with linguistic categorisation almost entirely. In doing so, however, it forgoes the second stage of Caglar's methodological process: the plotting of the social and cultural networks in which the objects are more usually employed. Objects are largely left 'to speak for themselves'. While this may be an appropriate strategy for art works which can be seen (controversially) as a more calculated attempt to speak directly to the viewer, it means that the biographical contexts of much that is displayed - the lives, worlds and histories of which they were part, the contexts which give meaning to the objects - are given much less shrift than their formal, 'artistic' qualities. At least one commentator on the Transcultural Galleries found the labelling 'predictable' and remarked that the approach was 'not innovative' at this level (Lovelace 1997). As this commentator also noted, however, this problem was one that was being well countered by the employment of a linked CD-ROM in the exhibition which includes quotes (e.g. by the artists involved), video footage of various artefacts being demonstrated in use, and - perhaps most innovatively - videos of visitor discussion groups making various thematic links between works on display (ibid.).

What we see with the Transcultural Galleries at Cartwright Hall, then, is that the museum medium is well capable of articulating postnational, transcultural identities. This, however, is an art exhibition. Perhaps to articulate such identities in a history museum or in a national museum would be more difficult: the writing of such accounts would have to be still further 'against the grain' of expectations of such museums and of their subject matter. Trying to create historical accounts that eschew national or ethnic narratives as well as causal or progressive trajectories is undoubtedly a difficult task; and one that needs to be tackled through aesthetic strategies, as we have seen here, as well as through content. Another question which we need to ask of an exhibition such as that discussed here is how far the conception of identity that it attempts to articulate is shared by those whose locality is represented in the museum - and whether they necessarily see the museum as a place for articulating identity in this way. Certainly the resistance to having the work of Indian influenced British artists in the collection is one instance of an identity-conception at odds with that of the curator. More generally, some commentators have questioned just how widespread are conceptions of identities as fluid, hybrid, transcultural and postnational.

Pnina Werbner, for example, claims that 'The hollow claims of the new intellectuals to be voices from the margins are exposed... by global trends towards ethnicisation: the real voices from the margins want no truck with hybridity. The reality is one of fragmentation and ghettoisation, of ethnic primordialism in the face of a weakened nation-state' (1997). Undoubtedly, a museological experiment in the representation of transnational identity has many counterparts in museums established in other locations whose aim is precisely to try to articulate the kind of bounded identity model, replete with autonomous and progressive history, that the Transcultural Galleries try to disrupt. That such identity articulations exist alongside, and even in superabundance to, attempts to represent postnational and transcultural identities is not, perhaps, surprising given that, as James Clifford observes: 'in a global context in where collective identity is increasingly represented by having a culture (a distinctive way of life, tradition, form of art, or craft) museums make sense' (1997).

At the same time museums do have such complicated obligations, they are facing all kind of other challenges and difficulties, for example related to financial issues and funding. Today most museums are under pressure, simply to prove their social value and the importance of their existence. There is also an increased demand for them to apply ways of measuring their performance which are more appropriate to the commercial world. But it is not easy to measure and evaluate a museums overall role and its social value. In his book, Making Museums Matter, Stephen E. Weil discusses that issue. He argues that museums are to be open workshops of delight and learning and he stresses that museums have to have a close connection to its user, they have to be in a direct and useful service to "the general public. But museums are also effective political instruments, since they can be used to control, confirm or challenge ideas and beliefs. Museums can even be tools for self expression and self-recognition – and they are used to create and represent identity. Most museums are even important centres of information and knowledge. But for the general public, museums have been defined cultural institutions, for education and enjoyment. By putting it in a commercial context, it is possible to say that a museum produces and offers to its users; recreation, sociability, learning experience, aesthetic experience, celebrative experience, enchanting experience.

As earlier said, museums today are among the fundamental public cultural institutions in almost every society and the museum operation is under constant development. One of the major trends within the museum world in recent decades has been regarding the public dimension and accessibility to the cultural heritage. Earlier the museum's prime responsibility was to its collections rather that to the visitors, but during the last years the focus has shifted from collections care to visitor service. The new conception is that a museum should not be a store house but more like a work-shop and even that its main function is to provide appealing and memorable museum experiences. This change has been described as a shift of focus from the collections towards the people.

Audience development is a term commonly used to describe this new conception and it has been adopted by many museums around the world. According to the new ideology, museums are to be accessible for the public by undertaking interpretation, education, exhibition, outreach, documentation, research and publication, within or outside the museum's own buildings. Audience development can be explained as a strategy, or even a way of thinking. The aim is to strengthen the relationship with the public, to serve better the general public, and by that increase the museums social value. The process of developing audiences includes various studies and evaluations providing information on visitors and even non-visitors – both the existing and potential audiences, but also on their attitudes, expectations and sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. In the Marketing & Public Relation Handbook, Sue Runyard and Ylva French discuss the concepts of audience development. According to them, a great deal has been said about audience development and the term is currently used to describe how a museum achieves broader audiences. But in fact, they say, audience development is simply marketing and programming under another name. Further on, they stress that audience development is obviously closely connected to the general museum policy, since it basically is a political decision. They point out that most museums have a component of their mission statement which says something about making the collections available to the people or a broad public. Audience development can be seen both as a part of the museum's overall mission and as a technique for it to communicate with the public – and that is one of the museum's fundamental roles. Even though terms like marketing might sound commercial and irrelevant to museum non-profit operation, it is only a practical question of working methods and processes, which the museums can adopt. It is possible to say that this focus on the public dimension basically means that the museum's vast challenge, is to try to please all of the people all of the time! It might be worth considering what the terms public and "all of the people" mean in this context – do they refer only to the local people in that particular society the museum operates, or do they have some broader references? This is something that can be seen a bit vague and therefore it needs some discussion. It is possible to argue that by their nature and function, museums confront the multicultural dimensions of human cultures across time and space. The core of the museum ideology can be described as intercultural and international, where museums serve as platforms, or neutral grounds for different cultures to meet on equal level.

Therefore it is important for museums to consider positioning in relation to local, regional, national and international conditions and imperatives. During the last decades museums have paid greater attention to some ethical issues concerning this, for example related to defining or re-defining identity, nationalism and ethnocentrism. It has been a vital task, especially now in a changing world where multiculturalism and globalization poses the greatest challenges. The cross-cultural perspective is of utmost importance within the field of museology today and based on these conceptions museums do not, or at least should not, have obligations only towards their closest environment. Their role has not only local, but even more global dimension. According to this, the term public does actually mean all people, both local and non-local. And museums aim to foster an informed appreciation of the rich and diverse world we have inherited and to preserve that inheritance they hold in trust for all societies. They are also to serve as resources for all humankind – for increased knowledge and to nourish the human spirit for posterity.

As museum prepare for the 21st century, two qualities characterise the successful management of public programmes: visitor-responsiveness and creativity." Therefore it is important for museums and museum professionals to have an open mind and be able to seek further ideas, which might be relevant and helpful to their work. One way of doing that is by applying new ideas and methods from different disciplines; for instance economics and marketing studies and also by understanding the tourism perspective.

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Impact of Terrorism and Terrorist Attacks on Tourism Industry in India

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Abstract

The main objective of this research paper is to examine the relationship between foreign tourist visitors and foreign exchange earnings from tourism industry in India. The impact of terrorism and terrorist attacks on tourism industry in India has also take into account. The regression model and Pearson coefficient of correlation has been used to testify the basic hypothesis, with the help of data (1997-2013) collected from the various secondary sources. The value of Pearson coefficient of correlation (-0.601) shows that there is a negative correlation between year in terms of terrorist attack and percentage change in foreign tourists visit (FTV) which means one unit increase in terrorist attacks last year will liable for the downfall in foreign tourist visitors. The Pearson coefficient of correlation between percentage change in foreign tourist visit and Foreign exchange earnings is 0.87 that is highly positively correlated which shows that 1% increase in percentage change in FTV will bring 0.87% increase in percentage change in FEE. Regression analysis is applied taking into account, FTV as independent variable and FEE from tourism industry as dependent variable. Its p-value is 0.000 which is less than 0.05; it means that there is a significant impact of foreign tourist visit on foreign exchange earnings. There are similar results in case of assessment of impact of terrorist's attacks on the FTV, the p-value is 0.000 which is less than 0.05 which means there is a significant impact of terrorist attacks on the foreign tourist visits.

Keywords:

Terrorist attacks, Foreign Tourist Visits, Foreign Exchange Earnings, United Nation World Tourism Organisation, Terrorism

Impact of Terrorism and Terrorist Attacks on Tourism Industry in India

1.1 Introduction and Literature Review

The World Tourism Organization defines tourists as "people traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes". The tourism industry plays a key role in the economic growth of any nation. Tourism is an important driver of world trade and prosperity. The challenge of poverty eradication can be achieved by promoting tourism industry. The tourism is a most viable option to bring sustainable economic development in under developed and developing countries. Tourism also contributes toward the foreign exchange reserves of a country and provides employment to people with least amount of investment. In India, states like Himachal Pradesh and Uttarakhand developed on the basis of tourism. The visa on arrival facility offered by Indian government attracts positive response from foreign tourist and incredible India campaign has done well in promoting tourism in India. Despite all this, there are certain years or phases where tourism industry witnessed a negative growth. The terrorist activities reduce the tourist arrival to that state, by and large to the country. Terrorism is a poison that kills not only the tourism industry but also the economic growth of a country.

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) in its vision statement has predicted global annual tourism expenditure to hit US$ 2 Trillion (i.e., US$ 5 billion per day) and the number of foreign tourists to reach 1.5 billion by 2020. Tourism provides 10.5% of global employment. The major challenge in attaining the vision statement is terrorism and political instability. The terror attacks on famous tourist spots create a fear among the tourists and they hesitate to visit there. The major impact of terrorism was felt in New Delhi, Mumbai, Bali and New York. The cultural and geographical diversity of India are assets for Indian tourism industry. The contribution of tourism industry towards the GDP is 6.23% and 8.78% to the employment. Tourism has also promoted social and cultural understanding among the tourists. The receipts from foreign tourist arrivals are expected to increase to US$375.5 billion by 2018 at a 9.4% annual growth rate. Henderson et al (2010) suggested the "quantity and quality of security that a hotel is able to provide is closely linked to the amount of funds allocated and while there will always be a stiffness between cost savings and expenditure, security should be given a financial priority which reflects its importance. Investment in the recruitment of skilled staff, education and training to staff and technology in particular will determine how well hotels respond to the terrorist threat."

Nimesh (2012) indicated about the connection between terrorism in all its forms and tourism. He advocates that tourism activities break down for a while due to terrorism but could not end it flourishes with the strong pace afterwards. Shah et al (2013) empirically studied the economic impact of armed conflict on Kashmir tourism and the resultant change in the socio-economic profile of the people of Kashmir. They emphasized that the central and state governments should jointly undertake steps to improve the security situation and instill confidence in tourists who have been the target of terrorist attacks. Goyal (2014) indicated in his study that terrorism which is unpredictable and may take place anytime, has a major negative impact on tourism not only in the countries where terrorism takes place but also in the neighboring countries. Tourism industry play a role of bridge between countries and nations for the exchange of cultures and civilizations and a tool to develop trust between people of different religions, cultures and ideologies. Rang& Pradhan (2014) presented a study how terrorist attacks affect the tourism and it showed a direct- relationship of the effect of terrorism on tourism .Misra and Dubey proves with the help of multiplier effect theory that how terrorist attacks adversely affects the growth of tourism and the development of the nation.

1.2 Rationale of the Study

Tourism industry plays a vital role for the development of country and anybody cannot refute it. Tourism has provided employment to skilled and unskilled personal at a very cheap cost and contributed significantly to India's gross domestic product. As per UNWTO barometer, India's share in international tourist arrival in the world is 0.64%. Terrorism act as a barrier for promotion of tourism and frequent terror attacks leads to fall in employment, increase in poverty, reduction in foreign exchange earnings, and downfall in the country's image at international level, tourism industry contribution towards the GDP. So there arises a need to assess the impact of terrorism on tourism industry, to maintain the image of tourist destinations and build up the confidence among the foreign visitors to increase India's share in world tourism industry.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

- ❖ To study the relationship between foreign tourist visitors and foreign exchange earnings from tourism industry in India.
- ❖ To analyze the impact of terrorism and terrorist attacks on tourism industry in India.

1.4 Data Base and Research Methodology

The present study is mainly based on secondary data collected from various reports and websites of government of India. In this study, the data of seventeen years (1997-2013) for foreign tourist visitors (FTV) and foreign exchange earnings (FEE) have been taken. To analyze the impact of terrorism on tourism industry; the attacks are classified as significant and not-significant terrorist attacks last year. Further assign the numeric values for both the attacks, one for significant and zero for not significant terrorist attacks last year. The attacks on famous tourist spots and metro cities are as considered significant and minor terrorist attacks are considered as not significant. The coefficient of correlation, multiplier effect theory and regression analyses have been used as research tools to testify the data.

1.4 Various Terrorists Attacks in India

The terror attack in metro cities and tourist spots has been classified as significant terror attacks and other attacks are classified as not so significant. The various terrorist's attacks in India since 1993 are as follows:

- **March 12, 1993:** Mumbai serial blasts
- **October 1, 2001:** Attack on J&K assembly complex
- **December 13, 2001:** Terrorists attack on parliament in New Delhi
- **September 24, 2002:** Terrorists attack on Akshardhaam temple in Gujarat
- **March 13, 2003:** Bomb attack on a train in Mumbai
- **May 14, 2003:** Terrorists attack on army camp near Jammu
- **February 14, 1998:** Blasts in Coimbatore
- **August 25, 2003:** Car bombs in Mumbai
- **August 15, 2004:** Terrorists attacks in Assam
- **October 29, 2005:** Serial blasts in New Delhi on Diwali festival
- **March 7, 2006:** Attacks in Varanasi in Shri Sankatmochan Mandir and Cantonment Railway Station.
- **July 11, 2006:** Mumbai local trains blasts
- September 8, 2006: Malegaon serial blasts at Maharashtra
- **May 18, 2007:** Bombing at Mecca Masjid, Hyderabad during Friday prayers
- **August 25, 2007:** Blasts in Hyderabad's Lumbini Park
- **May 13, 2008:** Jaipur serial bomb blasts
- **July 26, 2008:** Serial bomb blasts in Ahmedabad
- **September 13, 2008:** Bomb blasts across New Delhi
- **November 26, 2008:** Attacks in Mumbai around midnight
- **January 1, 2009:** Bombs attacks in Guwahati
- **April 6, 2009:** Terrorist attacks in Assam
- **February 13, 2010:** Pune bombing

- **December 7, 2010:** Bomb blasts in Varanasi
- **July 13, 2011:** Mumbai blasts
- **September 7, 2011:** Bomb blasts in Delhi
- **August 1, 2012:** Bomb blasts in Pune
- **February 21, 2013:** Hyderabad bomb blasts
- **March 13, 2013:** Blasts at Sri Nagar in Jammu& Kashmir

(***Source:***Http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_terrorist_incidents_in_India)

1.5 Terrorism and its Impact on Tourism Industry:

- **Downfall in the inflow of tourists:** The terror attacks on a nation create fear among the tourists and they hesitate in visiting the country. The major attack on red fort in year 2000 and Parliament in 2001 has significantly reduced the foreign tourist arrival in India.
- **Downfall in foreign exchange earnings from tourism:** The major terror attacks on tourist spots have resulted in decrease in foreign exchange earnings from tourism. The red fort attack in year 2000 resulted in decrease in foreign exchange earnings by 7.6% in year 2001. The parliament attack in year 2001 also resulted in fall in foreign exchange earnings from tourism by 3 percent in year 2000.
- **Reduction in GDP, employment:** The terror attacks lead to fall in employment level and also reduce the contribution of tourism to GDP. The tourism contribution to nation's GDP is 6.23% and contribution to total employment is 8.78%. Any form of terror attack will not only reduce the employment level but also results in decline in nation's GDP growth rate.
- **Inflation:** various studies have proved that the terror attacks have resulted in inflation. The after terror attack cost of construction increase the cost of hotels andvisit to tourist spot and creates inflation for the potential tourists.
- **Increase in poverty:** Various states which were carved out from other states have grown on the basis of tourism. For example, Himachal Pradesh was carved out from Punjab and the state has developed on the basis of tourism. The poverty eradication objective can be achieved by promoting tourism but frequent terror attacks on famous tourist spots will leads to increase in poverty.
- **Cultural differences:** The terror attack on any nation gives an implied message to the entire world that 'the security measures and

forces are not adequate in that country to control the terrorism. The cultural understanding of the country's culture is hampered and differences increases.

1.7 Multiplier Effect Theory: Leakages and Injections

The multiplier effect will start when there is an injection in circular flow of income. The expenditure made by tourists is an injection where as there are certain leakages other than savings i.e. taxes and related imports, means that foreign tourist visiting India will demand standard foreign products which domestic country cannot produce and have to import for the fulfillment of their need. It is also a fact that spending of one person will become the income in others hand and any fractional increase in spending is called as the marginal propensity to consume (MPC), the fractional amount that is not spent is called the marginal propensity to save (MPS). The mathematical formula for multiplier coefficient is as follows:

$$1/ (1\text{-MPC}) \text{ or } 1/\text{MPS}$$

The multiplier effect macro-economic theory will going to bring a multiple fold increase in spending. For example, Rs 1000 increase in tourism spending out of this, Rs 250 were saved and rest was spent. It means the MPC is 0.75 and MPS is 0.25.the multiplier will show a 4 fold increase in total spending. As, there are certain leakages while taking in account marginal rate of taxation and marginal propensity to import, if MRT is 0.1 and MPM is 0.15. The new multiplier effect is (1/0.25+0.1+0.15); the value of multiplier is 2, means an initial increase of Rs 1000 generate only Rs 2000 not Rs 4000.

1.8 Foreign Tourists Visit and Terrorists Attacks in India

It is evident from the table 1.1 that five terrorist attacks are considered significant and twelve attacks are not significant terrorist attack last year. The Pearson coefficient of correlation is -0.601. It shows that there is a negative correlation between year in terms of terrorist attack and percentage change in foreign tourists visit (FTV) which means one unit increase in terrorist attacks last year will liable for the downfall in foreign tourist visitors.

Regression analysis is applied, taking years in term of terror attack as independent variable and foreign tourist visit as dependent variable. The p-value is 0.000 which is less than 0.05 it means there is significant impact of terrorist attack on the foreign tourist visits.

Table 1.1

Foreign Tourist visits in India

Year	Numerical Assigned value	Foreign Tourists Visits (FTV)	Percentage change
1997	0	5.5	9.3
1998	0	5.54	0.7
1999	0	5.83	5.3
2000	0	5.89	1.1
2001	1	5.44	-7.8
2002	1	5.16	-5.1
2003	0	6.71	30.1
2004	0	8.36	24.6
2005	0	9.95	19.0
2006	0	11.74	18.0
2007	1	13.26	12.9
2008	0	14.38	8.5
2009	1	14.37	-0.1
2010	0	17.91	24.6
2011	0	19.5	8.9
2012	1	18.26	-6.3
2013	0	19.95	9.2

Source: Data compiled from State/UT Tourism Departments

0-Stands not significant terrorist attack last year

1-Stands significant terrorist attack last year

1.9 Foreign Tourist Visits (FTV) and Foreign Exchange Earnings (FEE) in India

It is also evident from table 1.2 that data of percentage change in FTV is normally distributed. The Pearson coefficient of correlation between percentage change in foreign tourist visit and Foreign exchange earnings is 0.87. It is highly positively correlated which shows that 1% increase in percentage change in FTV will bring 0.87% increase in percentage change in FEE. Regression analysis is applied taking into account, FTV as independent variable and FEE from tourism industry as dependent variable. Its p-value is 0.000 which is less than 0.05; it means that there is a significant impact of foreign tourist visit on foreign exchange earnings.

Table 1.2

Foreign Tourist Visits and Foreign Exchange Earning

Year	Foreign Tourist Visits (FTV)	Percentage Change in FTV	FEE (in USD millions)	Percentage Change in FEE
1997	5.5	9.3	2889	4.6
1998	5.54	0.7	2948	15.6
1999	5.83	5.3	3009	6.6
2000	5.89	1.1	3460	20.7
2001	5.44	-7.8	3198	-3.5
2002	5.16	-5.1	3103	-0.1
2003	6.71	30.1	4463	37.6
2004	8.36	24.6	6170	34.8
2005	9.95	19.0	7493	18.5
2006	11.74	18.0	8634	17.8
2007	13.26	12.9	10729	13.7
2008	14.38	8.5	11832	15.6
2009	14.37	-0.1	11136	4.7
2010	17.91	24.6	14193	20.8
2011	19.5	8.9	16564	19.6
2012	18.26	-6.3	17737	21.8
2013	19.95	9.2	18445	14.0

Source:- Reports of Reserve Bank of India and Ministry of Tourism, Government of India

1.9 Conclusion of the Study

The foreign tourist visitors and foreign exchange earnings is one of the important source of revenue for Indian economy. The Prime Minister of India also considers it as the booming and emerging industry at many platforms. Despite having terrorist attacks in India over the years still, India is one of the hottest destinations for foreign tourists. It is observed from the tourism statistics that there is significant impact of terrorism and terrorist attacks on tourism industry in India as it is evident by the value of Pearson coefficient of correlation i.e. -0.601. It shows that there is a negative correlation between year in terms of terrorist attack and percentage change in foreign tourists visit (FTV) .The value of Pearson coefficient of correlation between percentage change in foreign tourist visit (FTV) and foreign exchange earnings (FEE) is 0.87. It is highly positively correlated which shows that 1% increase in percentage change in FTV will bring 0.87% increase in percentage change in FEE.

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Appendix-1.1

Correlations

		percentage change in FTV	year in terms of attack
Pearson Correlation	percentage change in FTV	1.000	-.601
	year in terms of attack	-.601	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	percentage change in FTV	.	.005
	year in terms of attack	.005	.
N	percentage change in FTV	17	17
	year in terms of attack	17	17

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	13.275	2.712		4.895	.000
	year in terms of attack	-14.555	5.000	-.601	-2.911	.011

a. Dependent Variable: percentage change in FTV

Appendix-1.2

Correlations

		Percentage Change in Foreign Exchange Earning	Percentage change in Foreign Tourist Visitor
Pearson Correlation	Percentage Change in Foreign Exchange Earning	1.000	.873
	Percentage change in Foreign Tourist Visitor	.873	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Percentage Change in Foreign Exchange Earning	.	.000
	Percentage change in Foreign Tourist Visitor	.000	.
N	Percentage Change in Foreign Exchange Earning	17	17
	Percentage change in Foreign Tourist Visitor	17	17

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.873[a]	.763	.747	7.47308	.763	48.254	1	15	.000	2.012

a. Predictors: (Constant), Percentage change in Foreign Tourist Visitor

b. Dependent Variable: Percentage Change in Foreign Exchange Earning

Role of Vertical Greenery Systems in Green Tourism

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Abstract

Green vegetation is well known for its potential to mitigate ambient air pollution. Varanasi is one of the oldest living cities of the world. It is famous for its temples and river fronts (ghats) on the bank of river Ganga, thus it attracts tourists and pilgrims from all around the world. It is the 2nd most densely populated city of Uttar Pradesh (2,399 inhabitants per square kilometre). This city is developing at a faster pace; the process of urbanization has resulted in the loss of natural vegetation in the city. This study deals with the selection of air pollution tolerant plant species for the development of Vertical greenery systems (VGSs) specially green walls on the building walls using air pollution tolerant climber plant species. VGSs mean growing plant species vertically on walls with some support. Vertical greenery systems will also enhance the aesthetic of a building. Moreover, the installation of vertical greenery system is can reduce the increasing serious air and noise pollution. Lastly, vertical greenery system is able to bring nature closer to human beings in urban areas. VGSs can also improve the scope of green tourism in the city. Air pollution tolerance index (APTI) of 23 climber and creeper plants have been evaluated for the screening of suitable plants. It was revealed that Ipomoea palmate, Antigonon leptopus, Thunbergia grandiflora, Clerodendrum splendens, Aristolochia elegans, Quisqualis indica, Vernonia elaegnifolia, Petria volubilis , Cryptolepis buchuanni, Adenocalymma comosum and Jacquemontia violacea were found to be best suited for the development of VGSs in the city.

Keywords:

Peri-urban green space; Vertical garden; Air Pollution; urban heat island; green tourism; eco-tourism.

Introduction

Increasing levels of air pollution has become a great threat to urban areas of developing countries. The main cause of increase in the level of air pollution is increasing population, urbanization and industrialisation. Urban air often contains high levels of pollutants which are harmful to human health and well being (Mayer, 1999). Tourism industry also faces impacts of air pollution and is also a cause of it (Sáenz-de-Miera and Rosselló, 2013). Role of green plants in air pollution attenuation is well documented (Kapoor and Gupta, 1987; Burton, 2003), but the pace of urbanization is replacing huge quantities of vegetation with concrete buildings and low albedo surfaces. These resulting changes in the thermal properties of surface materials and the lack of proper evapotranspiration in urban areas also lead to the urban heat island (UHI) effect (Wong et al., 2010). It is needed that the greenery should be reintroduced into such urban areas; this can be done by collaboration of nature and city. The city of Varanasi (82º15/E to 83º30/E and 24º35/N to 25º30/N, area 79.79 Sq. Km. India) is one of the oldest living cities in the world and regarded as religious and cultural capital of India.

Thousands of tourists and pilgrims arrive here to visit its beautiful Ganga ghats, temples and Sarnath a place of historical importance. This city is also an educational hub with one central university and two state universities along with Central University of Tibetan Studies IIT BHU etc. and thus has great insurgence of students from locality and abroad. Being one of the oldest cities of world, Varanasi is an unplanned city with patches of planned settlements like Banaras Hindu University (BHU), Diesel Locomotive Works (DLW) and Cantonment area.

Green tourism or Ecotourism is a form of tourism involving visiting fragile, pristine, and relatively undisturbed natural areas such as waterfalls, hill stations and other areas. Generally, ecotourism deals with living parts of the natural environments. Ecotourism typically involves travel to destinations where flora, fauna, and cultural heritage are the main attractions. However, the focus of ecotourism has largely been on rural or sensitive areas, the vast majority of tourists generally visit an urban environment. Thus, it is needed that our cultural heritage should be combined with greenery. As the space for growing green plants in an urban settlement is limited, thus Vertical greenery systems (VGSs) can solve this purpose up to some extent.

VGSs involve the greening of the façade of building walls (Dan, 2014). It includes vertical gardens and green walls. It is known that Residential gardens are major portion of the urban green space (Gill et al., 2008; Goddard et al., 2010; Gaston et al., 2005) and play an important role in the conservation of biodiversity and aesthetic beauty of urban areas (Hunter and Brown, 2012). In similar fashion VGSs can be introduced on buildings near tourist spots. VGSs can be developed by growing certain plants directly on or with the help of plant guiding constructions alongside the building wall. VGSs generally involve use of woody or herbaceous climbers, algae, lichens and small shrubs. These can be planted directly into the ground or in pots or planter boxes and some other structures to anchor the plants (Ottelé et al., 2010; Köhler, 2008). Vertical gardens are of great ecological, economical and social importance (Yang et al., 2008; Tian and Jim, 2011), but very few studies have been done in India on VGSs (Sahu and Sahu, 2014). Varanasi is a compact tropical city which is characterized by tall buildings and narrow roads which results in the city canyon like structure. Thus, air pollutants are not dispersed properly and remain in surrounding ambient air for longer durations. Removal of such pollutants can be easily achieved with the help of vertical greenery system on surrounding building walls. To develop VGSs first we need to sort best suited plants which must be tolerant to air pollutants. For this purpose Air pollution tolerance index (APTI) can be used. APTI is based on four major properties of leaves viz. ascorbic acid content of leaf, relative water content of leaf, total chlorophyll content and leaf extract pH (Singh and Rao, 1983). Plant's tolerance to air pollutants varies with these parameters.

Therefore it was imperative to evaluate APTI of selected climber plants for the development of VGSs. No previous worker has used APTI to evaluate the climber species of plants for development of VGSs for air pollution reduction. Aim of the present study was to evaluate APTI of selected climber plants and to recommend tolerant plants for the development of VGSs to improve air quality for green tourism.

Methodology

Air quality was monitored for two years at Chandpur Industrial Estate (CIE) to access status of ambient air quality in that area. Standard methods (CPCB, 2011) were used for sampling and analysis of Sulphur dioxide (SO2) Nitrogen dioxide (NO2) Ozone (O3) and Particulate matter of aerodynamic diameter of less than 10 μm (PM10). Twenty three commonly available climber species of plants were identified and collected from a nursery. Two individual plants of each species were planted in a private plot of dimension 30 ft. × 20 ft. at industrial site (CIE) and using soil and farmyard manure in 3:1 ratio. Plants were allowed to grow fully for a period of one year with proper support so that they can flourish on the boundary walls. After one year of growth APTI was calculated in each season for one year at both the sites. Sampling of leaves was done thrice in each season (summer, rainy and winter). Seasonal mean values of each parameter were used for the calculation of final APTI.

The APTI of various plant species was calculated by estimation of ascorbic acid content, leaf extract pH, total chlorophyll content and relative content of water and calculating the following mathematical expression (Singh and Rao, 1983).

APTI=([A (T+P) + R])/10

Where A is the ascorbic acid content in mg g−1 of fresh weight; T is the total chlorophyll in mg g−1 of fresh weight; P is the pH of leaf extract and R is the relative content of water in percentage. Ascorbic acid content of leaf samples (Keller and Schwager, 1977), Chlorophylls 'a' and 'b' content (Maclachlan and Zalik, 1963) and relative water content (Sen and Bhandari, 1978) were determined. To calculate leaf extract pH, 0.5 g of leaf sample was crushed and homogenized in 50 ml de-ionized water, then the mixture was centrifuged and supernatant was collected for detection of pH by a digital pH meter.

Result and Discussion

The monthly variations of different air pollutants at CIE are given in fig.1. Annual mean concentrations of SO2 at this site was recorded to be 49.91 ± 9.98 μgm-3 which is slightly lower than the National ambient air quality standards (NAAQS) of 50 μgm-3 as prescribed by Central Pollution Control board (CPCB, 2009). Similarly annual mean concentrations of NO2 at this site were recorded to be 40.28 ± 9.49 μgm-3, which was again higher than the NAAQS (40 μgm-3). Ozone level was also moderately high but mostly remained below the NAAQS. However PM10 concentrations were very high (140.05 ± 29.54) μgm-3 as compared to NAAQS (60 μgm-3).

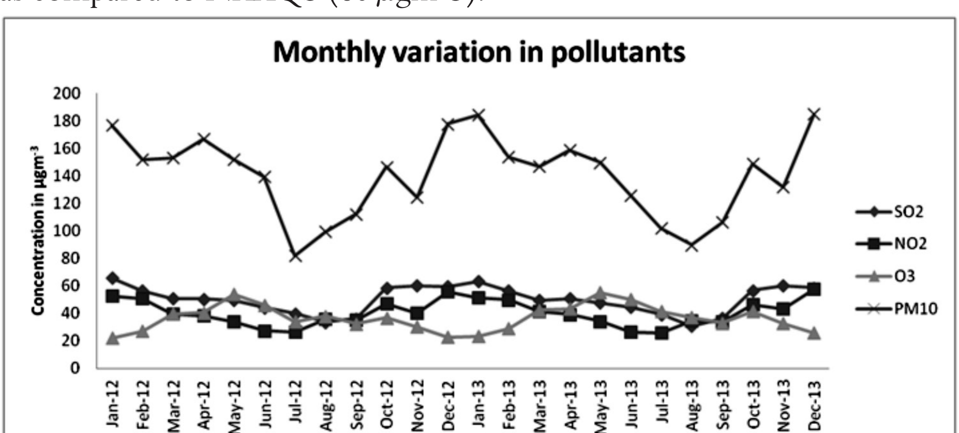

Fig.1 Monthly variations of air pollutants at CIE

The APTI of selected plants ranged from 11.45 to 24.51 (Table.1). The maximum APTI value was evaluated for Ipomoea palmata (24.51) followed by Antigonon leptopus (21.64), Thunbergia grandiflora

(21.24), Clerodendrum splendens (21.00), Aristolochia elegans (20.03), Quisqualis indica (18.76), Vernonia elaegnifolia (18.22), Petria volubilis (17.23), Cryptolepis buchuanni (16.45), Adenocalymma comosum (15.33) and Jacquemontia violacea (14.84). However, the minimum value was recorded for Capparis zealanica (11.45).

Table. 1. APTI of climber plant species at CIE

S. No.	Plant	Ascorbic acid	pH	Total Chlorophyll	Relative Water content	APTI
1	Ipomoea palmate	8.98 ± 0.27	7.77	11.41 ± 0.78	72.86 ± 1.58	24.51
2	Antigonon leptopus	9.66 ± 0.21	7.56	7.53 ± 0.44	70.67 ± 1.45	21.64
3	Thunbergia grandiflora	8.44 ± 0.18	5.99	11.2 ± 0.46	67.28 ± 1.36	21.24
4	Clerodendrum splendens G. Don.	8.6 ± 0.27	5.80	10.2 ± 0.45	72.41 ± 2.85	21.00
5	Aristolochia elegans	7.74 ± 0.19	5.88	10.73 ± 0.56	71.7 ± 1.44	20.03
6	Quisqualis indica Linn.	9.09 ± 0.17	5.78	9.09 ± 0.89	52.43 ± 1.25	18.76
7	Vernonia elaegnifolia	6.99 ± 0.31	7.97	8.42 ± 0.14	67.61 ± 1.15	18.22
8	Petria volubilis Linn.	6.75 ± 0.21	6.21	9.13 ± 0.21	68.73 ± 1.19	17.23
9	Cryptolepis buchuanni Roemer	5.66 ± 0.34	7.37	9.42 ± 0.41	69.47 ± 1.47	16.45
10	Adenocalymma comosum	5.64 ± 0.45	6.87	9.09 ± 0.41	63.28 ± 1.83	15.33
11	Jacquemontia violacea	5.42 ± 0.15	6.53	6.77 ± 0.75	76.28 ± 1.53	14.84
12	Tinospora cordifolia (Willd.)Miors.	5.33 ± 0.09	5.99	7.84 ± 0.47	74.57 ± 1.24	14.83
13	Beaumontia grandiflora	5.91 ± 0.14	5.21	8.75 ± 0.36	60.65 ± 1.17	14.31
14	Adenocalymma allicea Mart.	5.16 ± 0.15	7.18	7.55 ± 0.46	66.93 ± 1.48	14.29
15	Basella alba Linn.	5.92 ± 0.26	4.87	8.22 ± 0.24	65.28 ± 1.14	14.28
16	Celustrus panniculata Willd.	4.99 ± 0.21	6.64	8.53 ± 0.85	62.94 ± 1.19	13.86
17	Allamanda cathartica Linn.	4.5 ± 0.11	5.60	9.15 ± 0.34	69.34 ± 1.08	13.57
18	Argyreia nervosa (Burm.f.) Boj.	3.89 ± 0.23	5.74	11.2 ± 0.41	69.72 ± 1.12	13.56
19	Clitoria ternatea Linn.	4.14 ± 0.17	6.47	7.53 ± 0.19	69.45 ± 1.03	12.74
20	Chonemorpha macrophylla, C. fragrans	4.64 ± 0.15	5.72	6.74 ± 0.18	68.28 ± 1.17	12.61
21	Hiptage benghalensis (Linn.) Kurz	6.22 ± 0.45	3.94	7.86 ± 0.11	51.32 ± 0.89	12.47
22	Bignonia magnifica	4.83 ± 0.28	7.10	5.42 ± 0.08	63.61 ± 1.01	12.41
23	Capparis zealanica Linn.	4.25 ± 0.15	6.72	5.64 ± 0.13	61.93 ± 0.98	11.45

To chose tolerant plants following criteria (Singh et al., 1991) was used:

APTI $\leq$ 12, sensitive(S)

APTI =13-16 Intermediate (I)

APTI = 17-20 Moderately Tolerant (MT)

APTI > 20 Tolerant (T)

Table.2. Recommended species of climber plants based on their tolerance to air pollutants

S. No.	Plants	APTI	Tolerance
1	Ipomoea palmata	24.51	T
2	Antigonon leptopus	21.64	T

S. No.	Plants	APTI	Tolerance
3	Thunbergia grandiflora	21.24	T
4	Clerodendrum splendens G. Don.	21.00	T
5	Aristolochia elegans	20.03	T
6	Quisqualis indica Linn.	18.76	T
7	Vernonia elaegnifolia	18.22	MT
8	Petria volubilis Linn.	17.23	MT
9	Cryptolepis buchuanni Roemer	16.45	I
10	Adenocalymma comosum	15.33	I
11	Jacquemontia violacea	14.84	I

Based on this criteria, Tolerant and moderately tolerant plants (Table.2) were recommended to be best for development of VGSs in Varanasi.

Ascorbic acid imparts resistance to air pollution in plants because it acts as an antioxidant which is generally found in growing parts of plants (Pathak et al., 2011; Keller and Schwager, 1977; Liu and Ding, 2008). Earlier research proved that ascorbic acid decreases ROS (reactive oxygen species) concentration in leaves. An increased level of ascorbic acid in leaves is known to increase air pollution tolerance in plants (Chaudhary and Rao, 1977). Increased level of ascorbic acid content enhances pollution tolerance, which is a response of defence mechanism of the respective plant.

Similarly, Higher chlorophyll content in plants favours tolerance to pollutants (Prajapati and Tripathi, 2008). Degradation of photosynthetic pigments like chlorophyll has been widely used as an indicator of air pollution (Ninave et al., 2001). Many previous APTI studies have shown similar findings (Rai et al., 2013; Bakiyaraj and Ayyappan, 2014). This might be due to the destruction of chlorophyll (Rabe and Kreeb, 1980), Inhibition of RuBp carboxylase(Horsman and Wellburn, 1975) and reversible swelling of thylakoids (Wellburn et al., 1972) in polluted conditions.

It has been reported that higher leaf extract pH of plants, especially in polluted conditions increase their tolerance level to acidic air pollutants (Singh et al., 1991; Govindaraju et al., 2012). It has been reported that the leaf extract pH is lowered in presence of an acidic pollutant (Scholz and Reck, 1977). This might be responsible for lower pH values recorded at urban site.

RWC is purportedly associated with protoplasmic permeability. Thus, plants with higher values of RWC are perhaps more tolerant to pollutants (Singh et al., 1991). Higher relative water content is also reported to be beneficial for drought resistance (Matin et al., 1989).

Green tourism in Varanasi has a limited scope but introducing greenery in the form of VGSs will certainly a step forward towards sustainable environment. It will enhance the air quality as well as the aesthetic beauty of the city. Many other workers have shown that vertical garden can enhance the overall experience of tourism in an urban environment. (ELİNÇ et al., 2013; Gorman, 2010; Brebbia, 2012)

Conclusion:

Climber plants can be utilized for the development of VGSs in major tourist hub of Varanasi. It will turn out to be a useful strategy to promote green tourism in urban centre. VGSs can be used in betterment of deteriorating air quality of the city. On the basis of APTI, tolerant and moderately tolerant plants can be recommended for the development of VGSs. Air pollution tolerance index (APTI) of 23 climber and creeper plants have been evaluated for the screening of suitable plants. It was revealed that Ipomoea palmate, Antigonon leptopus, Thunbergia grandiflora, Clerodendrum splendens, Aristolochia elegans, Quisqualis indica, Vernonia elaegnifolia, Petria volubilis , Cryptolepis buchuanni, Adenocalymma comosum and Jacquemontia violacea were found to be best suited for the development of VGSs in the city.

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Explorations in Community Based Tourism: The Community Perspective

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Abstract

Across the globe tourism planners are continuously thinking about ways to make tourism a pro poor and pro development activity. The recent studies have shown a growing interest towards the development of community based tourism. Many studies have advocated that local community have a positive outlook towards the community based tourism activities. The present study attempts to identify the prevailing Community Based Tourism practices at two locations of Himachal Pradesh (Naggar and Paragpur) and tried to find out what is the exact perception of community about the Community Based Tourism. The tool used for the collection of data is pre structured questionnaires, developed on five point likert scale and population of the study is the community of the rural area. At first instance the study will introduce and examine the perception of Community towards the concept of Community Based Tourism (CBT) and then will explore the inherent issues arising through primary investigations.

Keywords:

Community, Community Based Tourism, Ananda, Paragpur, Himachal Pradesh, Expectations, Perception.

Introduction

Community Based Tourism has become a buzz word now days in the arena of tourism research. Community Based tourism for over last few decades has been promoted as a means of development whereby the social, environmental and economic needs of local communities are met through the offering of this type of tourism as a new product. Community based tourism is a unique type of tourism quite different from the other forms of tourism like mass tourism, rural tourism, urban tourism and many more. It is not only the simple tourism business that aims to maximize profits for investors rather it is more concerned with the impact of tourism on community and natural ecological resources. Community based tourism has emerged from a developmental strategy using tourism as a tool for strengthening the community and managing natural ecological tourism resources of the area with the help of the local people. Community based tourism is a form of tourism that takes care of environmental, social, cultural and ecological sustainability. It is managed and owned by community, for the community, with a purpose of increasing awareness among the tourists to learn more about the community and the local and traditional ways of life. This type of tourism gives sufficient time to visitors to understand and know more about the community through observations, activities and discussion because here the participation of community is high and there is ample of time to learn and practice cultural exchange.

Tourism in India especially in rural context is increasing continuously and is seen as a way of eliminating poverty and inequality. Community based rural tourism is enjoying popularity in India as an alternate major form of tourism to traditional mass tourism. This new type of tourism shows a close contact with the community and the experimentation of different new sensations to the community. Many rural tourism initiatives are conceived within the framework of community based tourism, which relates aspects of community development, poverty alleviation, cultural heritage and conservation of natural ecological resources. The country's National Tourism Policy of 2002 by the Ministry of Tourism Government of India, already has announced its plans of spreading tourism to the rural, unexplored areas of the country (National Tourism Policy, 2002). The Ministry of Tourism and Culture defined rural tourism as, 'any form of tourism that showcases the rural life, art, culture and heritage at rural locations, thereby benefiting the local community socially and economically by enabling interactions between the tourists and the local people for a more enriching tourism experience (Ministry of Tourism and Culture, government of India).

Since then the efforts to spread tourism in rural areas has come from multiple directions–ranging from initiatives from the central and state tourism ministries and departments, forest departments, private tourism industry players, NGO's and even nationalized and private banks – all willing to invest and loan. Apart from this, there are also communities who have come together who wish to benefit from tourism, to be independent and to build on their own resources. With many of these initiatives, there are many models focusing on various aspects. Most of these are structured around livelihood promotion and there are also a few with a vision of larger developmental objectives. Community Based Tourism is also one of the models of tourism planning focused on the holistic development of the concerned area or community encompassing dimensions of ethics, equity, and justice, of access, local participation, empowerment, and destination competitiveness and ultimately the Sustainability of natural ecological resources of the area. This is also a kind of 'People Centered Tourism' as it is faced with many challenges of rising economic inequity, social discrimination and conflicts arising from basic civic amenities and services. The current study is based on identifying general attitude of local community towards Community Based Tourism in Himachal Pradesh.

Community Participation in Tourism Development

Tourism is a tool for change and negative impacts often happen as tourism in the hands of non-locals. The locals too will have diverse views about tourism. The signs of local participation in tourism are important as tourism happens when locals want it and support it and hence it is a positive source. Often studies have assumed that communities are willing to participate equally (Hall 1995). However statements cited above have been accused of over simplicity (Mowforth and Munt 2009). As the concept of community participation is complex than it is conceived to be. The development of any form of tourism has local participation as an essential criterion (Poon 1994). But very often paradoxically community development beyond planning stage and often conceptualization stage forget the synonym 'local participation' (Mowforth and Munt 2009). Rather the motive should be that the communities should decide the type and form of tourism the locals want and they should be empowered to have full control. The lacunae often are that often local communities neither have exposure, experience, resource nor training and interest to align their ventures towards tourism (Scheyvens 2002).

The issues with community tourism may be multifarious like the lack of interest and concern for participation. The community conflicts, exclusions and outcomes of participation are further areas that need to be looked into (Mowforth and Munt 2009). Researchers like Murphy (1985) have advocated that the lacunae in planning could be rectified by putting local community on the horizon of tourism development by understanding local image and viewing tourism as a local resource. The current study tries to understand in how the community constructs its development in community based tourism, how community perceives it and whether the willingness of locals have been taken into consideration for the tourism development. Each community is a puzzle unto it own self and will provide a different reason to participate in tourism.

Community Participation in Tourism Community Development Projects

The discussion on community participation has taken to a new level (Nash 1977; Pizam 1978; DeKadt 1979; Mathieson and Wall 1982; Krippendorf 1987; Lea 1988; Dogan 1989; Cater 1985; Ratz and Puckzo 2002) yet there are newer heights that needs to be achieved (Simmons 1994; Joppe 1996; Pearce et al. 1996; Ashley 2000; Scheyvens 2002; Macleod 2004; Mitchell and Muckosy 2008; Simpson 2008). Search for issues which fail community participation is troubling industry and academics.

Is All Sunny With CBT?

Every researcher has not supported the sunny side of community based tourism but researchers like Mitchell and Muckosy (2008) has presented the gloomy side too where they cite it as a misguided quest. They have supported main stream tourism and claim the benefits are higher compared to CBT's contribution to poverty alleviation. CBT shave been accused of lack of financial viability, poor market access and poor governance.

How is Community Participation in Developing Countries Different

Lot many studies have talked about community participation in developed nations where participatory approach has been advocated (Blank 1989; Gunn 1988, Haywood 1988; Keogh 1990; Murphy 1985; Reed 1997; Simmons 1994). The need is to study the participatory approach in developing worlds too. The developing countries have tried the 'Ostrich Approach' where they try to avoid many of the issues that plagued tourism. These issues can be well dealt by involvement of diverse social groups form the popular sectors of local communities in decision making (Brohmann 1996; 568).

In developing countries it is all the more important to do an in depth study of the socio-cultural, economic and political conditions of tourist destinations which determine that whether community participation will work or not (Todaro 1994; 36). Most of the developing countries feel that the correctness of economic strategies will help them sail through the community participation tourism projects. The government, both rulers and in opposition, vested interest of the bureaucracy will all encompass the PEST studies under which the strategies for CBT has to be made. The diversities of developing societies especially vast countries like India need to consider many things pattern of power, wealth distribution, social and political histories of local region in which CBT to be planned have all to be considered. This all factors will vary from region to region and nation to nation.

With a country like India where the whole nation is also a community and there are innumerable smaller communities or sub-communities the questions arises whose interest needs to be taken up. Yet the idea of community can equally be applied to the nation - the national community - and inevitably what takes place, or does not take place, in the forests of a developing world country, also affects people living in the cities. It is not clear where this leaves local participation in relation to national participation through elections - should the local be privileged over the national? This question has to be answered by each nation and for every project on an individual basis.

In any tourism situation where a clearly defined community exercises real control, takes the initiative, makes all decisions on the basis of consensus, promotes a sustainable local natural environment and indigenous economy, supports traditional culture, retains most economic benefits internally, allows these benefits to be distributed equitably, and is financially self-sustaining, is the need of the hour.

Development and Community Participation

Development should be what people do for themselves rather than what is done to them by others has influenced attempts in theory and practice to make development assistance, and development generally, responsive to the local communities most directly affected by it (Brohman 1996). Empowerment is one parameter to judge community participation. This assist locals to have control over their things and hence they shape the tourism projects. Generally multinationals and federal governments go as per rule books ignoring the community. Government often supporting the decisions of the big businesses. It is supported by many researchers (Pretty 1995; Scheyvens 1999, 2002; Butcher 2007; Reed 1997).

Democracy in its strict sense is also seen as a parameter of community participation. A community should not be redirected on its choice of mass tourism towards alternative tourism by NGOs and other funding units (Weaver 1998). Corporate mass tourism, as is well known, was regarded by many academics of the left as inherently evil, and locally controlled small-scale tourism served as a diametrically opposed and morally correct counterpoint (Dernoi 1981). Very often in developing world participation does not involve real choice at all, as there is likely to be an absence of alternatives on offer. Rather, participation by the community is likely to be instrumental to the prospect of some limited financial assistance, the terms of which they have little if any control over.

The issue of power reminds us that communities, however defined, are not homogenous, but collections of individuals, families, clans and factions continually competing for power and resources. While the ideal of consensus is admirable, it is seldom encountered in the real world and even then may be superficial, indicating a series of compromises or a North Korean-type of conformity to the local socio-political status quo where certain individuals or factions, through fear or convention, are acknowledged as the power-brokers, and stability is arguably the only real benefit for the disempowered

Certainly in the case of the advocacy of ecotourism, national government and large scale development is often ignored or denigrated. Agency is talked up at the local level, but at the same time limited to that level. Actually it is not 'about how governments can extract the greatest economic benefits from encouraging foreign investment in tourism. Rather, the interests of local communities in tourism development are placed foremost' (Scheyvens 2002: 8).

Objectives of The Study

1. To identify the prevailing CBT practices in the state of Himachal Pardesh at two locations i.e. Naggar and Paragpur
2. To find out the perception and attitude of community towards community based tourism and its development.
3. To investigate that CBT is just a concept or a reality.

Need of The Study

The main aim of the study is to give appropriate suggestions for the development of tourism in harmony with local community, as Batta and Pathak (2009) have advocated the models of community based tourism and compared them to various small scale and medium enterprises in tourism specially in Himalayan perspective. This study presents the benefits of community based tourism and the perception of rural community towards it. This paper presents a study in which how this new form of tourism could generate vast economic resources and helps in curbing unemployment. Similarly the review of previous studies carried out in this field relates the relationship between tourists and local community which becomes more interesting than it was before in case of traditional form of mass tourism (Zorn and Farthing, 2007) mainly because of the involvement of host and contact with other cultures for its own development.

This concept of community based tourism paves the way for new investigations and the possibilities of tourism development together with other alternatives like community based tourism initiatives (CBTI'S) (Simpsons,2008) or community based Enterprises (CBE's) (Manyara and Jones,2007). All these agree that the local community should be a part of the planning and decision making process so that they can easily adapt to the changes and also open their horizons. The most important aspect of this type of tourism is to make a healthy relationship between the tourists and the local community, that creation of community events favors this type of tourism, because of the nature of the active participation of local community itself in this type of tourism (Guzman et.al, 2011).

Tourism and Community

There is a close relation between tourism and community. On one side at the local level, opportunities can be observed to develop plans for the participation of community and implementation of these new plans and strategies for the betterment of community and its development in civil operations. On the others side tourism can be linked to a community's hidden culture and natural resources which are of the recurrent factors in fostering the development of concerned communities. Tourism helps a community become more prosperous and attractive. It is more attractive because a community must be appealing to draw and satisfy tourists, and it is more prosperous because these tourists spend money and with the money spent in the community it gets development and become prosperous.

The Guide for Local Authorities on Developing Sustainable Tourism, (A Tourism and Environment Publication, WTO Spain) illustrates how the economic benefits of tourism flow through the local economy. The purchasing of locally produced goods and services leads to an increased benefits within the local economy. The guide also shows that some attractions, facilities and services, parks, sport centers, theatres, stores and art and craft galleries developed for tourists are ones that community residents can also use.

Tourism, Environment and Community Based Tourism

Since tourism is almost dependent on the natural ecological resources of the area, so we can say that tourism is closely linked with the environment. The natural environment provides many attractions for tourists and tourism development can have both positive and negative impacts on the environment. Sustainable tourism development depends upon protecting the natural environmental resources for tourism. Community based tourism (CBT's) along with other schemes related to the conservation and protection of rural and sustainable tourism is gaining popularity since from the last three decades. The recent approaches of tourism development are totally based on participatory approach and emerged as a result of 'top-down' approaches both conservation and development which had been widely practiced by both conservation and development organizations. Most of the community based projects vary in their methodologies but the only similarity is their link with environmental conservation and socio economic development, most notably in and around protected areas. They work on the thought that the success of conservation and developmental projects may result direct benefits to the communities.

Community's sense of ownership, feeling of responsibility and practical involvement in tourism has been heralded by researchers as central to sustainability of tourism and of great importance to planners, managers and operators (Boyd and Singh, 2003; Campbell, 1999; Mountain Agenda, 1999; Olsen, 1997; Page and Dowling, 2012; Ross and Wall, 1999; United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), 2004a, 2004b).

The issue of strengthening of communities and their livelihoods through tourism is unique and it needs a further analysis; for example how essential is community participation, ownership or control to the delivery of benefits to the community from the tourism and what role the visitors play in enhancing and conveying benefits to the community? Community based tourism can also be a best solution to minimize the negative impacts of mass tourism in the developing countries and can also help to attain better standards of living as the visitor tourists plays the equal role for the exchanging of ideas and knowledge sharing with the host community visited. Community based Tourism is projected and promoted by several International Organizations, such as WTO (2002) keeping the view in mind of so many objectives like ownership and empowerment of the concerned community. It also focuses on protection of cultural and natural resources, high quality visitors experience and social and economic development of the community and the area.

Geographical Description of The Area

This Study was carried out in two selected locations in the state of Himachal Pradesh.

- First site is a village called Naggar in Kullu Valley where, a project named as 'Ananda Project' was started in an old Krishna temple, where volunteer tourism is taking place.
- Second one is a village called Paragpur, which claims itself as 'The first Heritage Village of Himachal'.

Naggar is a large village located at the height of 1000 ft. above the sea level in Kullu Valley of Kullu district of Himachal Pradesh. The village is on a hill surrounded by beautiful apple orchids and pine forests. The houses are traditional made up of wooden and stone roofs. The village has a peaceful environment and it also has many old temples and a castle, which was King's headquarter 500 years ago. In terms of tourism Nagar is doing pretty well. There are about six hotels and many small guest houses. The main attractions of the village are the famous Castle and Roerich Art Gallery which was the home of Nicolas Roerich, the Russian artist and explorer. Nagger has everything to cater for day to day living facilities.

Naggar came on the Global map because of Non-Government Organization named 'Ananda' which started working for the development of the village and the community with the aspect of Volunteer tourism initially. It is a charitable organization registered under the society registration act 1860 and 12AA trust act. It is an eco tourism project and offers various voluntary work opportunities to help and serve the community. Some of the works that have been started are planting trees, collecting seeds, cultivating medicinal plants, or teaching in a local school. The Ananda project, based at the Krishna Temple, Naggar, aims to help local communities regain their self-reliance and return to a sustainable way of life. Working with local villagers, Ananda is developing a number of different projects aimed at restoring the environment, raising awareness of ecological issues, encouraging co-operation and providing sustainable sources of income in the local community.

Ananda

The Ananda Project was conceived in the sacred precincts of the Murlidhar

Krishna Temple of Thawa, within the Naggar, Kullu Valley. The Valley is extremely popular among the domestic and international tourists. Local residents, the Kulluvians, however, look upon their valley with geopious sentiments. Thus, despite being acclaimed as the recreation corridor of Himachal, the Valley remained particularly prized as a Hindu religious heritage. With the advent of modernity, and tourism in particular, this recreational corridor has been ripped off its delightful bucolic and ethnic charms, layer by layer. Ecologically, the natural system has been interrupted by indiscriminate use of the resource base, namely the forest cover, agricultural landscape and water systems. Culturally, the local community failed to prevent external forces from creeping into and interfering in their traditional patterns, resulting in a number of issues. Perched on a forested ridge overlooking river Beas, this hill top temple receives a sprinkling of devotees, trekkers and tourists during the summer season (100 on an average). The temple and its surroundings are owned and maintained by the local priest (Pujari) and his family. In keeping with pilgrim needs, the temple extends elementary hospitality to its devotees and the visitors. In 1999, a visitor (Ben Heron) was welcomed by the Pujari's family. While at the temple's guest house, Ben spent his time communicating with the people of the place and visitors, roaming around and trekking, reading, and picking up the vernacular language. In due time, this visitor developed a fondness for the place and the people. His fondness eventually translated into concern for the people and their future. Having grasped the milieu attributes of the valley he ingeniously thought of a community development project within the framework of the Krishna Temple Society (KTS). Later, this was registered as the Ananda Project in April 2002.

The Krishna Temple Society and the Ananda Project are the result of unsustainable practices that were destroying the place attributes of the Kullu Valley. Ananda is now admittedly a community based organization (CBO) that works together with its members, coming from several villages located in and around the Krishna Temple alongside other volunteers who find pleasure in joining-in. The Krishna Temple Society's Ananda Project is a typical example of locals and visitors, volunteering physical, social, intellectual and creative acumen, quite by choice. Each individual is a committed contributor, who simply enjoys his / her activity and opens doorways to enhanced personal introspection. Somewhere in their mind each has the self determination to uphold the wellbeing of others and a desire to 'feel good' by 'doing well', consciously. One of the most appealing features of the Ananda Project is the voluntary contributions of the Kulluvians and tourists alike. A self-determined commitment on both sides is of course eminent, and the nature of its execution will have a profound bearing on the long term viability of their current action. One feels greatly enriched by the environment created by man and nature, ones' experience of work among local groups, both men and women. Their common cause invokes caring and sharing among themselves and in the wider community. Ben and the Pujari's family are in constant consultation among themselves and with some community folk to chalk out future actions.

Paragpur

The Paragpur village came into existence because of the efforts of Sood Community. The community thought of preserving their ancestral heritage and presenting it as a tourism product. Their never tiring efforts results Paragpur to emerge as a community based tourism destination. Pragpur was founded about 350 years ago and is located at an elevation of 2000 feet. It is 60 K.Ms. from Dharamsala beyond which His Holiness the Dalai Lama lives at Mcleodganj i.e. his home in exile. Paragpur is the first heritage village of Himachal Pradesh located in the Kangra district. Owing to its historical significance, Paragpur has become the centre of cultural and religious importance. The small village Pragpur is one of the most popular original homelands of "Sood" community in India. As many as 52 different sub-castes of soods are found in this village. The civilization took its roots in Pragpur somewhere in seventeenth century. This area has several streams that drain into river Beas with its suitable climate, easy access, safe passage, rich flora and fauna and treasure of architecture. Paragpur and its surroundings offer an ideal location to explore new horizon. The Dhauladhar mountain range raised behind this picture of pastoral perfection is framed it with tall peaks that are draped with snow for the better part of the year.

With the advent of the concept of 'Conservation of Heritage' a new life appears to have been infused into the dying out socio-economic profile of the erstwhile rich area of Pragpur. Realizing the value of heritage Pragpur village was declared a "Heritage Village" during 1997. Heritage village Pragpur is ideal for village tourism and is being promoted as an example of community involvement in tourism. The core area of Pragpur village is a notified "Heritage Village".The famous 'Taal' or the pond around which the entire village has been constructed is one of the hotspots of this village. Most of the ancient architecture here is located around this pond. The Judges court located in this village is an Indo-European styled manor house and is worth visiting for its wonderful heritage architecture

Architectural character of this place is one of the finest examples of the traditional architecture of Himachal Pradesh. It can be cited as an example of ancient town planning and architecture. This settlement came into existence about 300 years ago. Mughal and Colonial impact is clearly visible on the planning and construction techniques used. Entire village of Pragpur provides a unique picture of traditional architecture.

Vijai Lal, an entrepreneur based at Delhi has roots at Paragpur where his family has been since the village was founded about 350 years ago. He and his wife Rani decided to restore their ancestral property and convert into a Heritage Hotel with the hope that it would attract enough custom to keep it open. However as time went by tourists realized the special medieval ambience of the village which has beautiful mansions, Italianate villas, dressed cobbled stone streets, mud plastered and slate roofed houses. Its neighboring villages like Garli, Rakkar and Pir Siluie also have lovely but crumbling villas and mansions. Rani and Vijai Lal felt that if they could develop Tourism at Paragpur and interest the local population in serving the Tourism Industry then considerable benefit would accrue to the village. It would also provide employment to the village educated youth and thus in a small way help in reducing exodus to cities. Since then, by the efforts of Vijai Lal and his wife Rani the village Paragpur emerged as a community based tourist destination on the Global map.

Methodolgy

This study is carried out in Indian perspective. The main focus of this study is identifying some practical aspects of community based tourism. It is an empirical study that focuses around some theoretical approaches given in some past studies and establishing a relationship between the theory and the actual practices of community based tourism. It is a supplement to the theoretical models or assumptions of community based tourism that this type of tourism practices are actually being into practice and these are no more theoretical concepts restricted to the books only.

The study is carried out with the help of primary data, collected from the local people of the selected locations. Though this kind of concept is quite new to the people of Himachal Pradesh that is why the people have just started to get associated with this type of endeavors of tourism. The total sample size is 64, which is selected on convenient- cum - judgmental basis. There were two major obstacles in getting a large sample of data as most of the people in the area are generally associated with other occupational activities like agriculture and horticulture and second one was illiteracy or less awareness.

To collect the data from the respective sites the same questionnaire was administered to judge that the community based tourism is a real aspect or whether it is restricted to the theoretical concept. The main aim was to supplement the theory and to check whether community based tourism is a conceptual oxymoron or a reality.

A pre structured questionnaire was developed consisting of various questions such as social and demographic profile of the respondents in the first part and the second part asked the respondents 14 variables focused to find out relationship between community development and tourism. Likert- type scale values assigned 1 to “strongly disagree”, 2 to “disagree”, 3 to “Neutral”, 4 to “Agree”, and 5 to “strongly agree”. Respondents were asked to give their level of judgment or agreement that most closely corresponds to their perception of 14 statements.

Data Analysis

Socio Demographic Profile of the Respondents (Table-1.1 to 1.4)

Table-1.1

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	43	67.2
Female	21	32.8
Total	64	100.0

Table-1.2

Age	Frequency	Percent
below 30 years	23	35.9
30 to 35 years	35	54.7
45 to 60 years	5	7.8
more than 60 years	1	1.6
Total	64	100.0

Table1.3

Educational Level	Frequency	Percent
below matriculation	3	4.7

Educational Level	Frequency	Percent
matriculate	11	17.2
graduate	15	23.4
post graduate	24	37.5
above post graduate	11	17.2
Total	64	100.0

Table 1.4

Occupation	Frequency	Percent
public sector employee	11	17.2
private sector employee	29	45.3
businessman	5	7.8
student	14	21.9
Any other	5	7.8
Total	64	100.0

Expectation–Experience Analysis About Community Based Tourism

During this study the respondents were asked to rate their expectation about community based tourism and experience with community based tourism on a 5 point (See Table 2).

Table-2

S. No	Variable	Expectation/ Perception (P)		Experience (E)		Gap (P-E)	Expectation/ Perception		Experience	
		Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation		t	Sig. (2 - tailed)	t	Sig. (2 - tailed)
1	In our area Tourism has become an important economic activity	3.59	1.12	3.33	1.19	0.26	4.23	.00	2.22	.030
2	Many People in our neighborhood are attached with tourism	3.25	1.29	3.23	1.20	0.02	1.54	.12	1.55	.12
3	I think tourism has contributed a lot in the development	3.73	1.06	3.62	1.09	0.11	5.43	.00	4.58	.00
4	The migration has stopped due to the tourism development	3.14	1.29	3.12	1.24	0.02	.86	.38	.80	.42

S. No	Variable	Expectation/ Perception (P)		Experience (E)		Gap (P-E)	Expectation/ Perception		Experience	
		Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation		t	Sig. (2 - tailed)	t	Sig. (2 - tailed)
5	Tourism can be a tool which allows communities to pursue development without losing their identities	3.50	1.29	3.28	1.09	0.22	3.08	.00	2.06	.04
6	Community based tourism contributing to protect natural assets and fostering community pride and social cohesion	3.31	1.20	3.35	1.11	-0.04	2.07	.04	2.57	.01
7	Community based tourism creates opportunities of self employment	3.82	.95	3.57	1.00	0.25	6.95	.00	4.60	.00
8	Community based tourism helps in preserving and promoting local culture and	3.73	1.23	3.51	1.22	0.22	4.74	.000	3.37	.001
9	Community based tourism creates new markets for local products	4.01	.93	3.75	1.08	0.26	8.69	.000	5.53	.000
10	Community based tourism has brought more advantages than disadvantages	3.48	1.12	3.40	1.28	0.08	3.43	.001	2.53	.014
11	Community based tourism development makes our community dependent on people outside of the community	3.42	1.10	3.34	1.14	0.08	3.04	.003	2.40	.019
12	because of community based tourism the environment in my community is well preserved	3.54	1.08	3.46	1.14	0.08	4.04	.000	3.28	.002

S. No	Variable	Expectation/ Perception (P)		Experience (E)		Gap (P-E)	Expectation/ Perception		Experience	
		Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation		t	Sig. (2 - tailed)	t	Sig. (2 - tailed)
13	Community Based Tourism promotes pride of their way of life and cultures among community members	3.78	.96	3.32	1.11	0.46	6.46	.000	2.35	.022
14	Community Based Tourism promotes cultural restoration and conservation	3.81	1.13	3.48	1.15	2.68	5.70	.000	3.35	.001

Note Since the values in the last column (significance) for all pairs except migration has stopped due to tourism development and many people in our neighborhood attached with tourism are less than 0.05, the differences between the expectations of the tourist and the experiences of the tourist for these factors are significant.

Table- 2 depicts that the Mean value shows perceived importance of factor on a 5 point scale. Standard Deviation (S.D.) reflects the consistency with which the respondents have rated the factor. A smaller S.D. means more consistency in response and vice versa

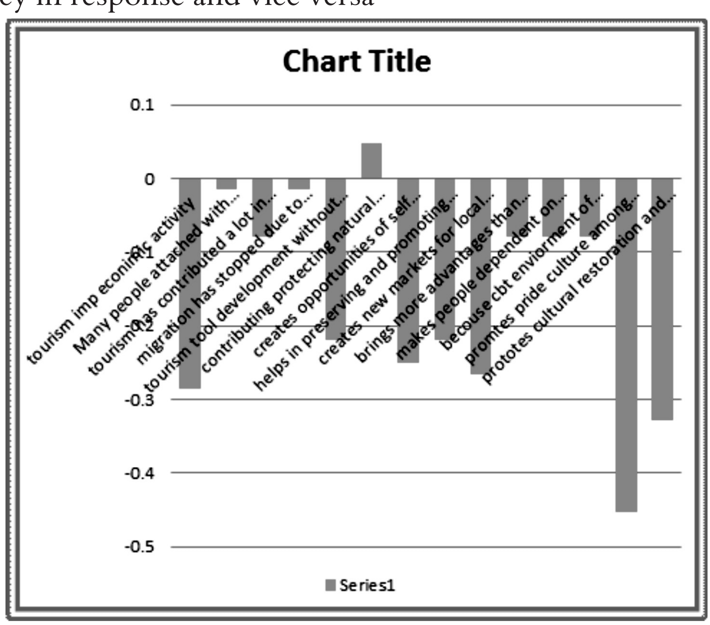

Figure: - Difference (Gap) in mean value of expectations and experience

Empirical Results & Discussions

Table 1.1 to table 1.4 indicates about the social and demographic profile of the respondents. In table 1.1, a total of 64 respondents were interviewed and out of which 67.2% are males and 32.8% are females. Table 1.2 indicates about the age groups of the respondents and out of the total respondents 35.9%are under 30 years, 54.7% are between 30 to 45 years, 7.8% are of age group between 45 to 60 years and only 1.6% are above 60years of age. Table 1.3 indicates about the educational level of the respondents and out of the total sample size interviewed 4.7% people are below matriculation, 17.2% are matriculate, 23.4% are graduate, 37.5% are postgraduate and 17.2% are above post graduate. Table 1.4 indicates about the occupation of the respondents and out of which 17.2% are public sector or Govt. Employees, 45.3% are Private sector employee, 7.8% are businessman, 21.9% are students and remaining 7.8% are involved in any other occupation.

To conclude data in significant manner‘t’ test was applied. The test value of 3 was tested, because the items were drafted in such a manner that a high score will give a positive sign for CBT. The data was treated with the help of SPSS. In item No (2) and (4) the significance value was comes out to be more than 0.05, which is higher to be accepted therefore these two items were rejected, as result become non significant.

It is important to understand whether the differences between expectations and experience are statistically significant or are because of a sampling error. A sample t-test for the mean difference for each of the 14 factors for 95% confidence level at the‘t’ value of 3 was administered. The result of the t-test indicates that the perceived difference between the expectations and experience of people attached with the tourism and migration has stopped due to tourism (the most important factors) were not statistically significant. However, for the other twelve factors the difference was significant. Absolute size of the gap was largest for migration has stopped due to the tourism development which indicates that much remains to be done. (See table-2)

Conclusions

The study concluded that Community based tourism is still in its infancy stage and is a new concept to the people. The results show that people have just come to know about this type of tourism and they have high expectations from CBT but their experience is not matching their expectations. The study reviled that the community members have completely rejected that many people in their neighbourhood are attached to tourism and because of tourism development the migration from their area has stopped. It was found that there are operational, structural and cultural limits to community based tourism. These limits are very important to understand they appear to be a reaction of prevailing socio-political, economic and cultural structure. The limitations may vary over time according to types, scale and levels of tourism development, the market served, and cultural attributes of local communities. It has to be well understood that forms and scale of tourism developed are beyond the control of local communities. Sometime stubbornness of the policy makers and their insistence of CBT or a type of tourism CBT should evolve may eventually bring in a total change in socio-political, legal, administrative and economic structure of these fragile communities. The study has endorsed the fact that one of the Community Based Tourism's defining principles is the transfer of benefits to community regardless of location, instigation, and size, level of wealth, involvement, ownership or control. For example the interpretation and definitions of community based tourism centre on the question of ownership, management and control of tourism projects (Lea, 1988; Scheyvens, 1999; Suansri, 2003; World Wildlife Fund (WWF), 2001). The study further advocates that successful community participation can help environmentally responsible tourism but even the quality of life of locals could be improved too (Bartholo et al. 2008). One of the conditions remains that the tourism development in various community based projects should be 'situation centered'. The parameter on which this has to be based is adaptability to local knowledge, the importance of local people in transformation of their territories (Bartholo et al. 2008). CBT also supports indigenous skills, creativity and innovativeness.

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Islam and Tourism: Where Thou The Two Meet?

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Introduction

Tourism is traditionally closely linked to religion which has acted a powerful motive for travel from the time of early pilgrimages to contemporary journeys to sacred places. Religious buildings, rituals, festivals and ceremonial events are important tourist attractions for those with a casual interest as well as more devout followers of the particular systems of belief represented. However, there is scope for misunderstanding between believers and non-believers in every religion with the possibility of tensions when the lives of residents and tourists of different faiths intersect at destinations visited. This is especially apparent in the case of non-Muslim tourist and resident Muslims, with considerable misunderstanding and a degree of mutual mistrust between the two worlds in general compounded in the aftermath of the 11 September 2001 attacks in the U.S.A. In view of these developments, it seems timely to address issues arising when tourism and Islam come into direct contact and consider some ways of managing the relationship. The current paper has been developed using analysis method of pertinent literature both academic and journalistic, where academic journals, theology books and media publications have been a major source. Many tourists who have travelled to Islamic destinations and hosts from these nations were informally probed on the topic. The purpose is to initiate the Indian academia to pull their socks on an area that has skipped the eyes of the tourism researchers in the Indian context where the world second largest populations of Muslims are to be found.

Religion and Tourism

Research has been conducted into aspects of the interconnectedness between religion and tourism (Rinschede 1992) and parallels are often drawn between the two (Allock 1998). Tourist sites are shown to have acquired a sacredness, travel to them exhibiting the qualities of pilgrimage (Cohen 1992) while actual pilgrimage venues display some of the trappings of the tourism industry so that the boundaries between them are obscured. The paper thus has a place in the literature that deals with the creation and representation of tourism spaces (Britton 1991). These centers may be visited by religious and other tourists whose motivations, expectations and experiences are at variance. For example, the Taj Mahal is an Islamic emblem for Indian Muslims and symbol of national heritage to all Indians while its fame has given rise to a sense of universal ownership amongst Westerners who also lay claim to it, each group possessing their own 'imagined geographies' which shape interpretation (Edensor 1998). The commercial potential of the religious travel market has also been highlighted. (Russell 1999) and (Shackley 2001) writes about the effective management of sacred sites. It should also be acknowledged, albeit optimistically, that tourism does have the capacity to facilitate the cultural exchange necessary to overcome the damaging stereotypes which prevail. (Henderson 2003).

Tourism aIslam

Tourism and Islam has, however, been relatively neglected which is surprising in view of the resurgence of the latter. An early study (Ritter 1975) compares the evolution of Tourism in Europe and the Middle East, revealing different patterns partly linked to religious doctrine. Din (1989) records the influence of the religion on tourism movements and polices in Islamic countries as a whole, concluding that inbound and outbound travel is relatively low in volume. Such conditions persist and these nations are now estimated to generate only about 7% of international tourism (BBC 2001) although several places such as Iran (Travel and Tourism Intelligence) are increasing their commitment to tourism development and its revenues are vital to the economies of the Maldives and the Gambia. Current leading destinations are Turkey and Malaysia, followed by Egypt, Indonesia and Morocco (World Tourism Organization 2012). Regional instability has had a detrimental impact on tourism growth in certain instances, one example being terrorist attacks by Muslim groups in Egypt (Aziz 1995). It has to be understood that appearance or disappearance has a lot to do with the political instability and global politics involve din these regions, be it Syria, Iraq, Iran or the Israel neighbourhood.

Types of Travels in Islam

Several authors recount how Islam historically enjoined particular types of travel which have retained an important religious and social function, albeit constantly adapting to the changing world. The hijra incorporates an obligation to migrate, and the hajj (pilgrimage) is one of Islam's five pillars alongside belief in Allah and the Prophet Mohammud (PBUH), prayer fasting and the giving of charity. Kessler (1992a p.148) additionally lists 'riha (travel for the acquisition of learning or some other appropriate purpose such as commerce) and ziyara (visits to various shrines)', these visits a form of voluntary pilgrimage which exemplifies the 'spatially distinctive cultural traditions of Islamic populations' (Bhardwaj 1998 p 71).

Koran and Tourism

According to readings of the text of the Koran, Muslims should also travel in order to visit friends and relative and fully appreciate the beauty of God's world, They have a responsibility to provide hospitality to visitors who, under Islamic law, enjoy the rights of citizens. The emphasis is no purposeful movement with the objective of fostering unity among the larger Muslim community or ummah, and the long history of Muslim travel is documented by Eickleman and Piscatori (1990). In contemporary society, over a million travel annually to Saudi Arabia for the hajj (Aziz 2001) which requires a massive organizational effort by the authorities (Travel and Tourism Intelligence 1997). Its scale is depicted in accounts of Islamic religious circulations (Rowley 1997), but Bhardwaj (1998) argues that the large numbers who take part in religiously inspired Mecca should not be neglected. Many Muslims also appear to share the common enthusiasm for leisure travel as domestic and outbound tourism rise with growing affluence.

Is Islam with Tourism or Against Tourism: The Cultural Misinterpretation Factor

Islam is not intrinsically opposed to tourism despite these gender-based inequalities of opportunity, yet international tourism is adversely affected by poor relations between Islamic and Western nations. Islam has been associated with conservatism, oppression, terrorism and anti-Western sentiment (Armstrong 2001) while the west is criticized as an imperialist aggressor pursuing economic, social and political dominations (Al Ahmad 1984) whose people are infidels of lax morals. Attitudes of tourists and their hosts are likely to be coloured by such conceptions, and cultures in which religion plays a fundamentally different role may clash at destinations. The arrival of non-Muslim inbound tourists is perhaps more disruptive for local Muslim communities than the situations reversed due to the religious codes which inform and are manifest in their daily lives and which may be violated by tourists knowingly or accidentally. However, the satisfaction of the special needs of Muslim travellers overseas may be a source of anxiety to themselves and those with whom they interact (Sayed 2001). There is evidence of a response by some in the Western tourism industry to these worries with information provided about Halal foods and the location of mosques. Several hotel bedrooms also have arrows pointing towards Mecca for the purposes of prayer, but whether these measures are adequate and the extent of their adoptions is still to be researched.

Tourism for The Islamic World: The Road Ahead

Possible social problems combined with political ideology have led several Middle Eastern countries to shun Western-style international Tourism, deemed to be incompatible with Islam (Burton 1995). Brunei is an interesting example of this strategy as a 'reluctant tourist destination' whose wealth has undermined any economic incentive out encourage international tourism and thereby helped to protect citizens from its 'worst excesses' (Baum and Conlin 1997 : 91). There is no consensus, however, about what constitutes compatibility or true Islamic conduct and this is reflected in the debate about the meaning and practice of Islam. The Koran and the Sunnah or Hadith, describing the habits and sayings of the Prophet (PBUH) set down by his companions and family, are agreed to be normative. Yet new approaches to the study of the texts and the Shariah, the Islamic law in which they are enshrined, means that 'questions of interpretation, authenticity and application have become contentious issues' for most Moslems (Esposito 1999: 684). Reconciling religious and civil law is particularly problematic, and is the relevance of a legal system grounded in an Arabic seventh century agrarian society for 21st century nations and people around the world.

Some Islamic countries and individuals or groups and Muslims may therefore find tourists more acceptable than others, partly depending on the degree of liberalism as well as personal gains and losses. In terms of official attitudes towards tourist (Din 1989: 557) scholar classifies these as 'accommodationist', ‘rejectionist’ and 'isolationist'.

Conclusion

The present paper seems more timely as Islam is being misinterpreted both outside and within the community. Tourism has its presence strongly sensed in countries which call themselves Islamic states like UAE, Oman, Malaysia, Indonesia, Brunei, Iran, Iraq and even India (in terms of its muslim populace). Had Islam being a synonymous to terrorism and spread by sword, as portrayed, then whole of India would have been a Muslim state as majority of its history had a centralized rule of the Mughals who ruled for the longest period of time. Within India too, Champaner a WHS site, Bhopal Hyderabad and Lucknow are a glaring example. Lucknow a small city in India provides a living, pulsating, mosaic of religious and cultural history situated at the bank of river Gomati (Sharma 1978). City known for its Islamic set of kings Nawabs and its bucolic facadism bespeaks Nawabian landscape taste (Singh and Kaur 1975). I am sanguine that this paper on one of the oldest and presently the most controversial religious culture shall stimulate further investigation in Islam, Islamic cultures and countries taking up their relation with tourism. It is unfortunate that despite having a high population of Muslims the tourism scholars in India have so far been ignoring these problems.

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Tourism in Punjab: The Untapped Potential Destinations

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Abstract

The term untapped means "if the availability of something valuable is unused, it is not yet used or taken advantage of". In tourism, untapped tourist destination means "a destination which is identifiable as a tourist destination but not used to gain economic benefits due to lack of development and promotional activities". The main objective of this paper is to identify the untapped tourist destinations in Punjab. To meet the objective 200 domestic and 100 foreign tourist respondents were requested to mention any unexplored area in the questionnaire, which they have come across during their visit to Punjab. From the present research, it is found that there are as many as sixteen untapped destinations, which are gradually fading out physically as well as metaphorically for want of proper care, maintenance and promotional activities. The state of Punjab is home for vast array of tourist attractions that are available in the form of cultural, historical and archeological resources. If these resources are properly exploited, the tourism sector can offer a lot to support the state economy.

Keywords:

Untapped, metaphorically, exploited, potential

Introduction

Punjab is a congregation of myriad tourist attractions-forts, pilgrim centers, monuments, archaeological sites, palaces, wetlands, cultural festivals and many others. Its native's life style, cultural heritage, colorful fairs and festivals held enduring attractions for the tourists. The other attractions include wild life sanctuaries and landscapes for eco-tourism, rivers for adventure tourism and science museums for science tourism, but the state has been benefiting little from the tourism sector. The state's diversified historical and cultural resources have not been well promoted and changed into economic values in a way that they can support nation's development efforts.

Review of Literature

Hyma and Wall (1979), in their study, discussed the potential for development of tourism in the state of Tamil Nadu, India. It was found that because of low priority formerly ascribed to tourism, fragmented responsibilities and lack of supporting infrastructure, the full potential of these activities has yet to be realized. Batra and Chawla (1995), in their research paper entitled "New Vistas in Developing Tourism- A Case Study of Punjab State in India" highlighted the fact that impact of tourism on national economy is becoming increasingly important today because of growing size of tourism market and global business changes taking place. Kumar (1995), in the study entitled "Himachal Tourism in Retrospect and Prospects" highlighted that a great potential in the state is still untapped and provides ample scope for growth. Raina (2001), conducted a research entitled "Tourism Development in Jammu & Kashmir- A Case Study for Decentralized Planning". The study was primarily concerned with the structuring of destination zones of attraction clusters in the state of Jammu & Kashmir. The study identified several unexploited attractions of tourist appeal in the three provinces of Jammu & Kashmir. Ortege (2002), discussed the heritage management of the destinations at Madrid and its tourist attractions to analyze, what are the main challenges that managers have to face and how they can overcome. The study carried out a comparison between the heritage experience of both the United Kingdom and Spain. Henderson (2006), in the research paper, investigated how Dubai overcame the various barriers in destination development. It was observed that barriers relate to poor accessibility, a perceived lack of conventional attractions and limited promotion. Kumar (2008), conducted a study entitled "Growth and Development of Tourism in Rajasthan: Associated, prognosis and Strategic Considerations". The study analyzed the tourism resource potential and existing tourist plant facilities in study area.

Research Gap

The development of tourist destinations is a central theme in the tourism literature and researchers approach the subject from various perspectives and disciplines. The in-depth review of literature reveals that none of the tourism studies conducted so far did attempt to identify the untapped tourist potential in a particular state like Punjab. Hence a need is felt to carry out a comprehensive study on "Tourism in Punjab: The Untapped Potential Destinations" in order to identify the untapped tourism destinations in the state.

Rationale of the Study

Punjab tourism has vast potential for generating employment and earning large sums of foreign exchange besides giving a fillip to the state's overall economic and social development. Thus the present study is an effort to identify the unexplored tourist destinations in Punjab. These destinations if properly developed and promoted can provide several benefits to the state economy as well as enhance the satisfaction of tourists and visitors to the state.

Objectives of the Study

Followings are the objectives of the study.

- To identify the untapped tourist destinations in Punjab.
- To study the basic requirements for the development of a tourist destination.
- To make suggestions for exploring the untapped tourism potential in Punjab.

Research Methodology

To identify untapped tourism destinations in Punjab, the data has been collected from both primary and secondary sources. To collect the primary data, the 200 domestic and 100 foreign tourists were requested to mention in the questionnaire any unexplored area, which they have come across during their visit to Punjab. The destination, which was described as untapped tourist destination by more than three tourists has been considered in the study. To get the information about the importance of destinations, published and unpublished material on historical, geographical, cultural and ecological personality of Punjab, travelogues, travel brochures, tourist guide maps and industry reports etc have been referred. Wherever possible, physical survey has been carried out to authenticate the secondary data.

Untapped Tourist Destinations in Punjab

From the present research, it is revealed that there are as many as sixteen untapped destinations, which are gradually fading out physically as well as metaphorically for want of proper care and maintenance and promotional activities. Out of a sample of 200 domestic tourists, 152 tourists mentioned different places in Punjab as unexplored or untapped destinations. Out of a sample of 100 international tourists, only three tourists answered this question and they stated about the unused beautiful villages in Punjab. The list of untapped destination is as follows.

Table 1.1
Untapped Tourist Destinations in Punjab

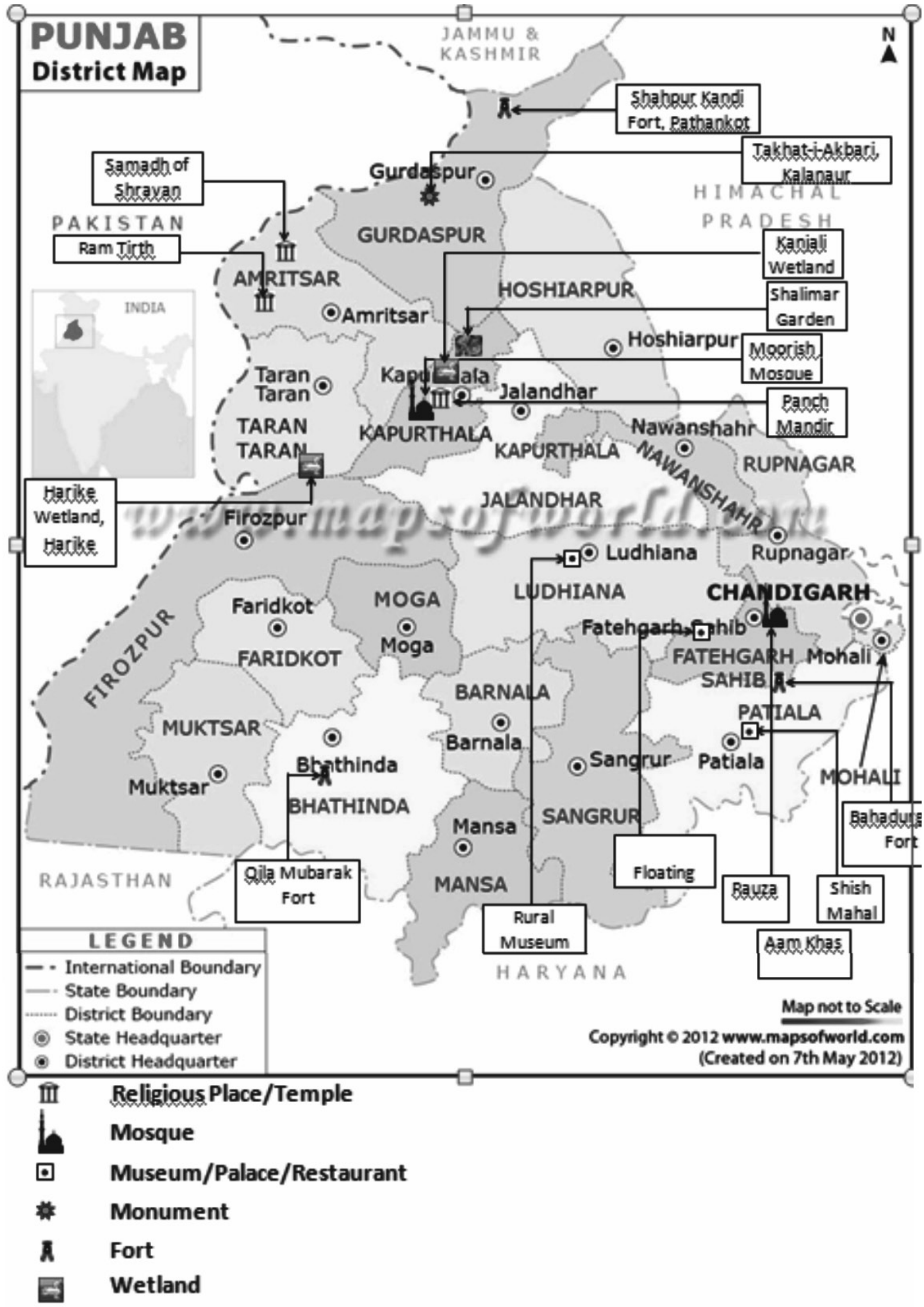
Sr. No.	Destination	District	Category
1	Aam Khas Bagh	Fatehgarh Sahib	Historical
2	Rauza Sharif	Fatehgarh Sahib	Religious/Historical
3	Floating Restaurant	Sirhind	Leisure/Recreational
4	Sheesh Mahal	Patiala	Heritage/Archaeological
5	Bahadurgarh Fort	Patiala	Heritage/Archaeological
6	Museum of Rural Life of Punjab	PAU, Ludhiana	Cultural/Heritage
7	Qila Mubarak Fort	Bathinda	Historical/Archaeological
8	Shahpur Kandi Fort	Pathankot	Historical/Archaeological
9	Moorish Mosque	Kapurthala	Historical/Spiritual
10	Panch Mandir	Kapurthala	Religious/Historical
11	Shalimar garden	Kapurthala	Heritage/Historical
12	Kanjli wetland	Kapurthala	Ecological
13	Takht-i-Akbari,	Kalanaur	Heritage/Historical
14	Harike Wetland	Harike Pattan	Ecological
15	Samadh of Shravan	Amritsar	Religious/Heritage
16	Ram Tirath	Amritsar	Religious/Historical

Source: Compiled from information provided by the tourist respondents

Table 1.1 exhibits the various destinations described by the respondents as unexplored destinations. The table mentions the district and the category of tourism to which a destination belongs. All these destinations have been further presented in the map to show their location in the state. (See Fig.1.1)

Figure 1.1

Map showing Location of Untapped Tourist Destinations in Punjab

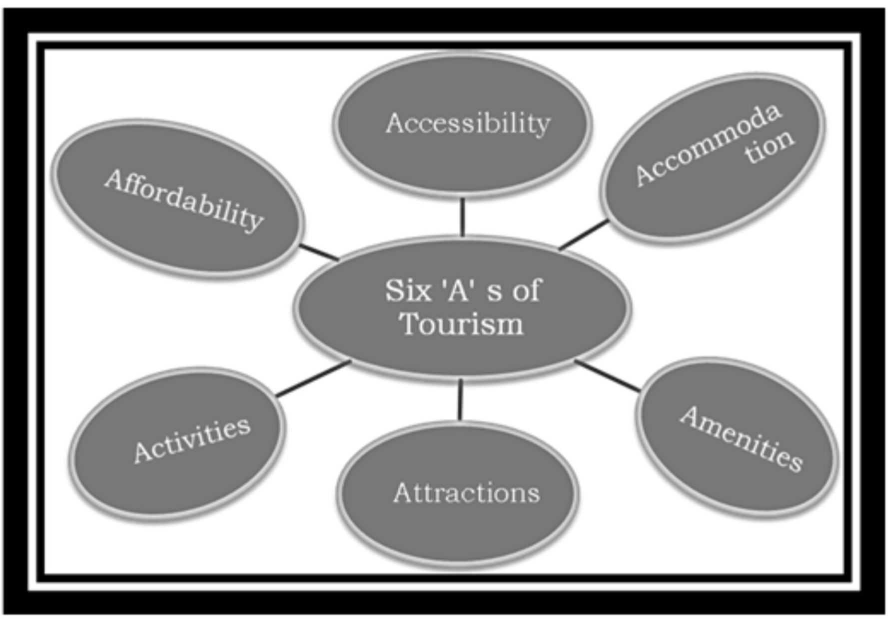


Basic Requirements for Tourist Destination Development

It's a well known fact that there can be no tourism without a destination. When people travel, they go to some particular place and the choice of place depends upon the importance and attraction of the destination. For a destination to develop and sustain itself there must be a presence of certain elements. These elements are interrelated and have to function properly with coordination of each other. Roday et al (2010) have provided the six elements of destination development which are extremely vital to the success of any destination. These elements are popularly known as six A's of Tourism.

Figure 1.2

Diagram showing Basic Requirements of Tourism Destination Development



- Accessibility–This refers to the transport and transport infrastructure to reach the destination. Tourists look for comfort and hassle-free travel. There are many important factors such as comfort, cost, convenience, time for travelling, and safety which need to be considered before undertaking a journey. Tourists look forward to smooth travel in terms of regular schedules, well developed network of roads, railway lines, airports and adequate means of safe transport.
- Accommodation–It plays a central role in the development of tourism. Every tourist needs a place to stay and relax. Tourists look for clean,

hygienic and well maintained accommodation with a comfortable bed, clean linen, and sanitary facilities with adequate hot and cold water supply. Without suitable accommodation there would be no tourism as accommodation is the temporary home of the tourist at the destination.

- Amenities–It refers to the facilities available at the destination which help in meeting the needs and wants of tourists. Tourist amenities include food and beverage facilities, drinking water, electricity, good communication network, local transport, automatic teller machine (ATMs), proper garbage and sewage disposal system and medical facilities etc.
- Attractions–This is the principle reason for undertaking travel to a particular destination. Attractions are classified into four categories such as Natural attractions, Human made attractions, Cultural attractions, Social attractions. Attractions form the core of tourism experience and the reason people travel to a particular destination.
- Activities– People takes a break because they want to see and do different things. A number of activities may be available at the destination to suit various age groups and social backgrounds. Tourists may be attracted to a destination for any activity which helps them to spend their time with pleasure.
- Affordability–Tourist should be able to afford the trip in terms of transport cost, accommodation charges, entrance fees and other expenses. It means that the trip should be affordable in both time and money. Tour operators should prepare the package tours keeping affordability in mind. These group tours work out cheaper than individuals booking their own tickets and making itineraries for themselves.

A successful destination should have a good balance between these six A's and ensure that there is something to see and do for people of different ages and backgrounds so that a large number of people visit the destination (Roday, 2010).

Initiatives Taken by the Government

Department of Tourism and PHTPB with the help of funds from Ministry of Tourism, Government of India and the loan from Asian Development Bank is conserving the numerous monuments across the state in order to preserve the heritage of Punjab. Asian Development Bank has conducted a feasibility study to identify the tourism potential sites in the state. ADB has identified a list of projects to be executed under "The India Inclusive Infrastructure Development Project" on behalf of Government of India. An array of projects for tourism development is to be carried out in the next five to ten years on the basis of recommendations from UNWTO Master Plan. Table 1.2 depicts the amounts sanctioned by the central government that has provided for the preservation and promotion of untapped tourist destinations.

Table 1.2

Amounts Sanctioned for the Development of Destinations

(Rs. in lacs)

Sr. No.	Year	Name of Destination	Amount Sanctioned
1	2005-06	Development of Sheesh Mahal	145.77
2	2005-06	Quila Chowk	13.04
3	2006-07	Moorish Mosque	26.62
4	2006-07	Shalimar Bagh	155.16
5	2006-07	Panchmandir	27.7

Source: Compiled from Project Documents, Department of Tourism, Punjab.

Findings of the Study

It is observed from the literature of these destinations that all the destinations are of national importance having glorious history. Though the state government has taken several initiatives to tap the untapped potential of the state, but it is mostly in an unsystematic way and the destinations are crumbling for want of care and patronage. Some amounts have been sanctioned by the central government for the preservation and promotion of untapped tourist destinations. However the funds were so thinly distributed that it was not possible to fabricate all the necessary elements for the successful destination development. The successful development of a destination requires easy accessibility, clean accommodation, basic amenities, special attractions and ample activities for visitor from different age groups and socioeconomic backgrounds, besides being affordable in terms of time and money. It is therefore desirable to apply this theoretical framework of five A's for the development of these untapped destinations.

11.0 Suggestions of the Study

- Punjab as a state has been considered largely as a transit point by the domestic and foreign tourists visiting Jammu & Kashmir and Himachal Pradesh, but it is much more than that. If properly developed and supported by requisite infrastructure, Punjab has considerable potential to be promoted as an important tourist attraction, and a destination point rather than a transit point to both the domestic and foreign tourists visiting northern region of India.
- The state government must allocate the required funds to tap the untapped destinations identified by present research work.
- It should conduct special research to identify other untapped tourist destinations in different parts of the state.
- While destination development, the government should pay attention to all the six A's of destination development in order to make it a successful tourist destination.

Conclusion

Punjab tourism has vast potential for generating revenue and employment besides giving a fillip the state's overall economic and social development. Much has been achieved by way of investments in tourism destinations. But much more remains to be done. There are so many destinations which are not looked after seriously. If these destinations are properly developed and supported by requisite infrastructure, Punjab has considerable potential to be promoted as an important tourist attraction, and a destination point rather than a transit point to both the domestic and foreign tourists. These destinations lack any of the required six A's of destination development. Punjab Tourism should give due importance to the overall destination development and promotion to fully tap the potential of these destinations.

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The Journey of Jarawa Territory - From The 'Land of Terror' To The 'Land of Tourists'

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Introduction

The Andaman and Nicobar Islands also known as the Emerald islands are unique in their own way. Shrouded in mystery for years these islands stretch over a length of over 700 kms floating on the blue waters of Bay of Bengal. Situated approximately 1100 kms away in the east of the Indian mainland these are a group of 572 islands amongst which 36 islets are inhabited and rest of them still reflect a sense of mystery to the outer world. (Source: http://www.andamans.gov.in/) Going back to the discovery of these islands it is said that it was in 1789 that Lieutenant Archibald Blair from the East India Company was the first person to have occupied the Andaman Islands to keep his ships safe in the rains. But then he abandoned these islands in 1796 because of unhygienic climate and expenses in maintaining the harbour. Later, the capital of the islands, Port Blair was named after him. It can be said that this would have brought these islands to the notice of the outside world but these islands had already accommodated there residents. This became clear when after the first war of independence, Britishers planned to construct the cellular jail in these islands where they had to face the Jarawa tribe. The fight for land resulted in displacing the Jarawa from Port Blair to Baratang Island which became their permanent residence. Further as the settlers started increasing in the islands the peripheral part of the Jarawa territory was occupied and the Andaman Trunk Road was constructed across the territory. This was a turning point for this hostile tribe which had changed their lifestyle and traditional practices, and the rest is history. Since then the tribe proves to be successful in making a prominent place in the headlines which instead of voicing their issues transformed the place into a tourist spot.

This paper narrates this journey of the Jarawa territory from being a 'land of hostile nakeds' to the land of 'hospitable neighbours'. The paper seeks to explore the reasons of this disastrous transformation. The paper is compiled with some secondary information collected from the internet and from the Andaman & Nicobar Islands during a month in October. This paper also has a prominent reflection of being well acquainted of the islands and describing this crucial journey with a pinch of firsthand lifetime experience. The initial part of the paper covers a brief archival outline of the Jarawa tribe from occupying the islands to getting displaced during the penal settlement. This describes the pre independent situation and the hardships suffered by the tribe. After which the paper gives a brief on the history of terror of the Jarawa tribe depicting various incidences of attack of different tribes on the outsiders and their reasons. Next part summarizes the post independent scenario i.e. the transformational phase of the tribe and their tragedy of being considered as an object to earn money which they are unaware of. The last part of the paper intends to develop curiosity and work out for a solution of this inevitable phase which the tribe is facing. This part would build in a curiosity and a sense of inquisitiveness to bring the tribe out of this vicious circle.

The Jarawas-An Archival Outline

The Jarawan story (here refers to the story of Jarawa) began long back around 1857. On records, it was the British people who from the mainland of India had the first encounters with the Jarawa tribe in these then considered 'forbidden islands'. This happened when after the first war of independence the British people planned to act even more cruelly and take the convicts along with them to the Andaman & Nicobar Islands. In 1858 the British government started the established of their penal settlement in the islands. The Port Blair was the main hub of the Britishers where they wanted to make their permanent settlement. In the early years of their residence they resided in the Ross Island which still has the remains of the Britishers. In the beginning of 1900s they had decided to construct the historical cellular jail in Port Blair when they had their first war with the Jarawa tribe and forced them to occupy the Baratang Island. Meanwhile the outbreak of diseases like measles and clashes with the other tribes resulted in the decline of population of the Jarawas; even then the Jarawas continued to be the major obstacle during the penal settlement in the islands. After the Britishers, the Japanese also for a year or two after the end of World War II had invaded the islands which again resulted in a revolt with the tribals. On 23 Mar 1942, a Japanese force of one battalion of the 18th Division arrived, backed by a powerful naval fleet. (Source: http://ww2db.com/battle_spec.php?battle_id=190). There was a drastic decline in the population of the Jarawas and other tribes too. After all they only had some bows and arrows and the other side was an army equipped with all modern ammunitions who had come to invade the islands. The tribes were experiencing this on their so called 'own land'. Since the penal settlement Jarawas were changing places. When India got Independence in 1947, it was this lot of people who were still enslaved.

The boxes 1,2 and 3 depicts the historical milestones pre and post independence which consists of almost all the major events which took place in the life of the Jarawas which transformed their hostile nature to being quite hospitable to the outsiders.

1789:British East India Company decides to set up colony in the Andaman Islands; Lt Hyde Colebrooke visits the islands, meets native islanders and records some of their language - it is found out later that it belongs to the Jarawa; the colony that was set up was abandoned a few years later

1839: Earliest known exploration of flora of the Andamans by the Russian scientist, Dr Hefler; he lost his life to the hostility of the local inhabitants

1857: Sepoy mutiny, also known as the first war of Indian independence

1858: Establishment of the penal settlement in the Andamans by the British

1860: A track cut from Port Blair in the east to Port Mouat in the west by the British; Jarawas were occasionally met in peaceful interactions and reportedly took away some useful metal articles

1863: First reported attack on the British by the Jarawa; Rev Corbyn undertakes an expedition to the Jarawa area

1869: One of the first records/accounts of timber extraction from the Andaman forests

1875: First record of deaths in conflict with the Jarawa; six convicts and two Jarawas killed

1878: One Jarawa woman and two children captured during an expedition near Constance Bay

1880: Jarawas kill an Andamanese man at Port Campbell

From 1789 to 1999 there are records of a little over 300 conflict incidents between the Jarawa and the settlers many of which led to injuries and deaths.

1873: First record of Syphilis among the indigenous peoples of the islands

1883: a station established at Port Campbell at the Tarachang camp- later called the Tarachang home

1886: Epidemic of measles in the Andaman forests

1890s: Onges of Little Andaman Island contacted through gift giving expeditions by the British; also believed to be the time when the Jarawas first started occupying Middle Andaman Island

1891: Jarawas first occupy parts of Baratang Island

1896: Construction works of the Cellular Jail starts

1901: First census in the islands. Total population of the Andaman Islands: 18138; Jarawa population estimate: 585; Onge estimate: 672; Sentinelese estimate:117; Great Andamanese actual count: 625; The Aka-Bea-Da, one of the ten groups constituting the Great Andamanese community go extinct

1902: Punitive expedition against the Jarawa by the British

1906: First Working Plan for the forests prepared by F.H. Todd; Construction work of Cellular Jail completed

Box1

1911: Jarawa population estimate: 114; Onge estimate: 631; Sentinelese estimate: 117; Great Andamanese actual count: 455; Total population of the Andaman Islands: 17,641

1921: Jarawa population estimate: 114; Onge estimate: 346; Sentinelese estimate: 117; Great Andamanese actual count: 209; Total population of the Andaman Islands: 17,814; clear felling system for extraction of timber introduced in the Andaman forests

1925: Establishment of the Karen village of Webi on Middle Andaman Island; the Moplahs were also settled in the Andamans around this time

1931: Jarawa population estimate: 70; Onge estimate: 250; Sentinelese estimate: 50; Great Andamanese actual count: 90; Total population of the Andaman Islands: 19,223

1941: Total population of the Andaman Islands: 21,316

1942: Occupation of the Andaman Islands by the Japanese

1947: India's Independence

1950: Remnants of Great Andamanese community (estimated to be a total of nineteen individuals) settled on Strait Island

1951: Jarawa population estimate: 50; Onge estimate: 150; Sentinelese estimate: 50; Great Andamanese actual count: 23; Total population of the Andaman Islands: 18,962

1952: Chengappa's Working Plan for the Andaman forests

1956: Notification of the 'Andaman and Nicobar Protection of Aboriginal Tribes Regulation (ANPATR) by the Government of India

1957 : Creation of tribal reserves in the names of the Jarawa, Onge and Sentinelese communities under the provision of the ANPATR; the Nicobar islands are also declared a tribal reserve; Bush Police outpost set up at Louis Islet

1961: Jarawa population estimate: 500; Onge actual count: 129; Sentinelese estimate : 50; Great Andamanese actual count: 19; Total population of the Andaman Islands: 48,985

1971: Jarawa population estimate: 250; Onge actual count: 112; Sentinelese estimate: 82; Great Andamanese actual count: 24; Total population of the Andaman Islands: 93,468

1974: First contact mission by the A&N Administration to establish friendly contact with the Jarawas along the west coast of the Jarawa Tribal Reserve

1977: Two Jarawa men, one with an old bullet wound were brought to Port Blair and then returned to the forest in the hope that they would carry the message of trust and goodwill

1979: Denotification of parts of the Jarawa Tribal Reserve to facilitate timber extraction, construction of the Andaman Trunk Road and clearing of forests for settlements, horticulture and agriculture

1981: Jarawa population estimate: 250; Onge actual count: 97; Sentinelese estimate: 100; Great Andamanese actual count: 26; Total population of the Andaman Islands: 1, 58,287

1988-89: Construction of the Andaman Trunk Road completed

1990: Master Plan 1991–2021 for Welfare of Primitive Tribes of Andaman and Nicobar Islands by S.A. Awaradi in the Kolkata High regarding the well-being and protection of the Jarawa Tribal Community; Measles epidemic amongst the Jarawa

Box 2

1991: Jarawa population estimate: 280; Onge actual count: 95; Sentinelese estimate: 100; Great Andamanese actual count: 45; Total population of the Andaman Islands: 2, 41,453; Jarawas attack the Bush Police Camp at Jirkatang and kill one policeman

1992: Jarawas attack the Bush Police Camp near Tirur

1996: 60–70 Jarawa surround timber extraction party at Puttatang killing some labourers and injuring some

1998 : Petition filed by three NGOs in the Kolkata High Court, Port Blair bench regarding timber logging in the Onge Tribal Reserve on Little Andaman Island

1999: Another petition filed by Port Blair-based lawyer

1998-99: Jarawa hostility to the outside world comes to a gradual end

2000: Jarawa raid on the settlement of Sippi Tikry in North Andaman Island

2001: Jarawa actual count: 240; Onge actual count: 96; Sentinelese estimate: 39; Great Andamanese actual count: 43; Total population of the Andaman Islands: 3,14,239

2002: Supreme Court of India orders for the closure of the Andaman Trunk Road in those parts that run through the forests of the Jarawa Tribal Reserve

2004: A 'Jarawa' Policy asking, mainly, for the Jarawa to be left alone is formulated in response to an order of the Kolkata High Court seeking a policy related to the Jarawa; area of Jarawa Tribal Reserve re-notified and increased to about 1,000 sq km; earthquake off the Sumatra coast, followed by the tsunami

2005: Eruption of volcano on Barren Island

2006: Another outbreak of measles reported amongst the Jarawa; Sub-group of experts on the Jarawa constituted by the Planning Commission submits its report. The group is chaired jointly by Dr Syeda Hameed, Member, Planning Commission and Mr Jairam Ramesh, Member, National Advisory Council

2007: A&N administration notifies a five kilometre buffer zone around the Jarawa Tribal Reserve

2010: Boa Sr, the 85 year woman believed to be the last speaker of the Bo language (in the Great Andamanese group) dies

2011: Jarawa actual count: 383; Great Andamanese actual count: 54; Total population of the Andaman Islands: 3, 80,581

2012: A controversy breaks out as the British newspaper Sunday Observer releases a short video showing six 'naked' Jarawa women dancing on the Andaman Trunk Road at the insistence of unseen male voices; A&N administration issues a modification diluting the buffer zone notification of 2007

2013: Buffer zone modified again, following which the SC orders closure of the Andaman Trunk Road for tourist traffic. A few weeks later the court re-allows all traffic on the Andaman Trunk Road; establishment of the Andaman and Nicobar Tribal Research Institute

Box 3

Source: The Last Wave: An Island Novel By Pankaj Sekhsaria (2014)

Figure 1: A photo of Jarawa ripping of the coconut

(Source: http://www.downtoearth.org.in/content/tourism-be-prohibited-jarawa-reserve)

The History of Terror

Sircar (2011): He highlighted that even before the first war of independence took place in India and the Britishers on their period of construction of cellular jail discovered some tribes in the 'Kala Pani' islands there was a recorded reference of the Jarawas in 1790. Lieutenant Robert Hyde Colebrook while making a survey around the Andamans in 1789-90 discovered the existence of Jarawas. Before this, only the great Andamanese Tribe was known to the world. Mr Sircar also mentioned that the Jarawas were misunderstood as a hostile tribe and tagged as 'unfriendly people' as they had already come in contact of the outsiders around 1884. He quotes in his book, "The history tells that before they came unfriendly towards the outsiders they came in contact of the outsiders with friendly gesture on several recorded occasions". What changed their attitude towards the outsiders was their fear of being thrown away from their own land.

Zubair Ahmed (2012) stated that in 1966, estimated the figures of Jarawas was around 300. Jarawa resistance towards the attitude of the colonizers was natural. Nobody would like to be pushed like this. The Jarawa attacks in 60s were not blind attacks. They would mark the person to be attacked and planned the revenge. They would give sufficient warning signs before the attack. Jarawas never liked anybody hunting in their forests. This was not the scenario few years back when Jarawa was known to be a friendly tribe. It all changed when the Britishers and then the Japanese started invading the islands and displacing the tribe from their own habitat which they revered. The tribal population suddenly started decreasing .This might have been the reason when there were incidences of visitors who were murdered not only by the Jarawas but also by the other native tribes:

- Dr. Helfer, a Russian Geologist who was killed at Port Cornwallis in 1839.
- A pilot of a vessel anchored in a harbor of the island and his crews were attacked in 1839.
- Captain Caw was killed at Camorta.
- Brigadier Fateh Islam and his crew of about 21 members were murdered by the Nicobarese.
- ‘Emily’ and ‘Flying Fish’ two ships were wrecked off the western coast of Andaman Islands.
- Shri B. Lachana got injured by Jarawa arrow while travelling in a bus in 1995.
- In the same year, a girl was wounded by arrows on her wrist while she was in a running bus.

[Source: Jarawa: The Struggle Continues, Sircar (2011)]

During the second penal settlement, the Battle of Aberdeen was fought which is considered to be the deadliest of all wars between the tribes and the Britishers. The hostile nature of the tribes thus came out in front of the world which continued in frequent intervals whenever the tribes had an intuition of danger. There were incidences when the convicts used to escape from the British imprisonment and were killed by the aboriginals. The tribes used to attack the British army to claim their land but as the army was well equipped, the tribe would always fail. Over all it was a game of ‘Survival of the Fittest’.

Tribes	**Census Years**					
	1901	**1911**	**1921**	**1931**	**1941**	**1961**
Andamanese	625	455	209	90	23	19
Onge	672	631	346	250	150	129
Jarawa		114	114	70	50	

Tribes	Census Years					
	1901	**1911**	**1921**	**1931**	**1941**	**1961**
Sentinelese	385	117	117	50		
Total	6,501	8,818	9,292	10,240	12,009	14,563

(TABLE 1)

Source: L.P.Vidyarthi(1971) Cultural Diversities in the Andaman And Nicobar Islands: A Preliminary Report

Tribes/ Years	1951	1961	1971	1981	1991	2001
Great Andamanese	23	19	24	26	45	43
Onges	150	129	112	97	95	96
Sentinelese		50			100	39
Jarawa	50	500	NE	31	(280)	(240)
Nicobarese	11,902	13,903	17,874	21,984	26,000	28,653
Shompens	20	71	92	223	250	398

(TABLE 2)

Note: NE is not estimated, figures in brackets are estimates

Source: Rethink Tourism in the Andamans (2008) by Equations “Basic Statistics”, 2005–2006, Directorate of Economics and Statistics (DES), A&NI Administration.

Sircar (2011) mentioned that the available data reveal that the cases of Jarawa hostility from 1950’s to 1970’s were only around 75 in number while about 189 cases of Jarawa violence recorded in a single decade between 1980 to 1990 against the construction of the Andaman trunk Road.

Inspite of the cannibal nature of the Jarawas the territory still attracted different people for different reasons. Pre independence, the Britishers, post independence the researchers, as things started getting discovered here, poachers for the endemic flora and fauna species and at last the tourists who posed even more dangerous than any of these visitors.

The Andaman Trunk Road (Atr) – A Bloody Construction

The Jarawas had resisted any non tribal or inter tribal contacts since 1891. They were known to be one of the most hostile and mysterious tribal groups of the world which was getting ready to become the guinea pigs for the anthropologists, researches and scientists. In 1947, 700 aboriginal negrito hunter and gatherers and 19,000-non tribals in the Andaman Islands, in the Bay of Bengal became citizens of free India (Pandya, 2002). As the five year plans of the government started developing the rest of India, the infrastructure of the Andaman & Nicobar Islands too was undergoing a significant change. As island started developing consequently the population started increasing. The convicts which were brought by the Britishers during their rule (who are now given the name as 'Pre 42' group of people), the settlers who started coming from the mainland to settle in the islands for different reasons and the central government employees who were sent from the mainland for bureaucratic and other government jobs formed a mixed population of the islands. Samir Acharya in the Jarawa Tribal Reserve Dossier by Kalpavriksha (2002) states that the induction of the new settlers into the islands brought with it the need for transportation and communication between the headquarters at Port Blair and the settlements and also between one village and another .With the increasing population and limited space in the island, needs emerged for land, accommodation, transportation routes and means of communication. This was the time when the government felt the need to connect all the major establishments of the islands through any possible way. The Jarawa tribe who was already displaced from their natural habitat during the penal settlement was in target again. The government planned to draw a route to connect the headquarters Port Blair to the northern parts of Andaman and the best possible way came out to be through the Jarawa Territory in Baratang. The tribes were considered not less than animals which can be just shooed off the way. No one realized that the people who were being displaced for the construction to comfort the outsiders were the owners of that land. The Jarawa Tibal reserve Dossier by Kalpavriksha (2002) mentioned that the construction started around 1978 when the Jarawas were made deprived of their resources and their land. The Jarawas were traumatised by the large-scale tree-felling and use of noisy heavy machinery for construction of the road, which probably also drove away their prey species. The road also effectively cut off their free access to the east coast resulting in further loss of habitat and shrinkage of their area available for resource gathering. There were incidences when the non tribal labourers became the victim of the tribes and were found to be dead the next day but nothing could stop the settlers. The construction area was even electrocuted which resulted in the death of many wild elephants and the Jarawas too. The year 1988 marked the completion of the Andaman Trunk Road.

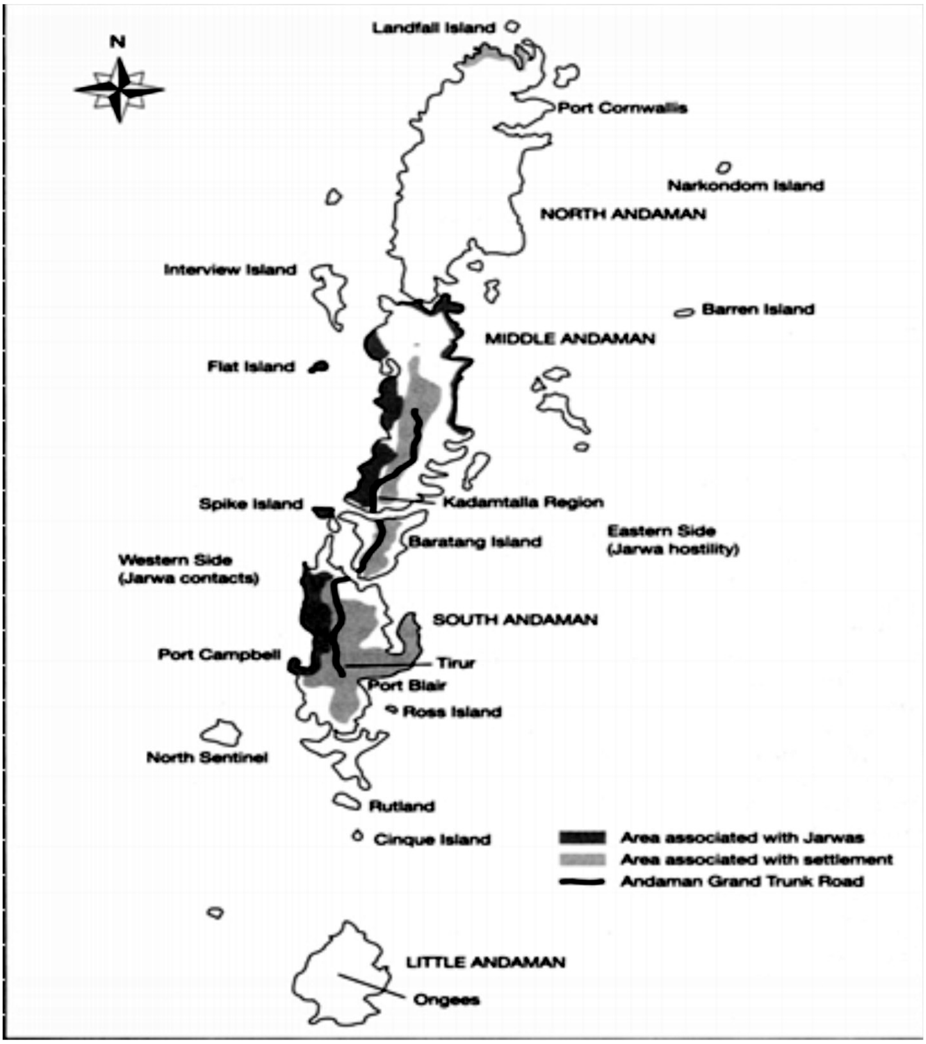

Figure 2: A screenshot showing Jarawa territory and ATR

(Source: Contacts, images and imagination: The impact of a road in the Jarwa reserve forest, Andaman Islands, Vishvajit Pandya (2002))

It took quite long as it was constructed in phases because of the inclement weather conditions and other obstacles like high cost of construction, thick rain forest, difficult terrain and hostile resistance offered by the tribals. Many agencies kept an eye on the consequences of the construction of the road from the middle of the Jarawa Terrirtoty with regard to environment degradation as well as the humane acts taking place. During the construction environment was one of the aspects which was getting exploited. Trees were chopped off, forests were burnt and animals died off the electrocution done at night around the construction. If this was the case with the environment, imagine the innocent Jarawas who were treated like objects on their own land. Although there was a constant protest from the Jarawas through the showers of their sharp poisonous arrows, yet the construction was on full swing. Sircar (2011) stated that several APWD workers; Kalimuthu, Bhimbahadur (21.04.1969), Joseph Kujur, Emil Bara, Markose Tigga, Philmon Dundung, Mangal Kujur and Budha Munda on 29.01.1971 and Dawood Kiro on 7.5.1972 were attacked by the Jarawas when they were engaged in construction of ATR. Hundreds of Jarawas in turn were electrocuted and died. Surprisingly, the Jarawa Forest Area where all these incidences were taking place was declared Reserve Forest in 1975 by the then Chief Commissioner of the islands. Inspite of providing it a status of reserve the construction and the death fair continued.

Many anthropologists, researchers and organizations raised voice for ceasing of the construction and protection of this traditional living treasure. Sircar (2011) mentioned that a report even said that the construction was under query by Smt. Indira Gandhi on the grounds of its running through a forest reserve. But the construction was way more important to the settlers and the government than the environment and the lives of tribals and their workers.

While the population of the outsiders and settlers was increasing, the population of the tribal community was dwindling. The increasing population on the islands began to cause a crunch to the natural resources and the tribal communities of the island simultaneously.

Consequences of The Atr Construction – The Transformational Phase

The construction was complete in 1988-89 and the islanders started traversing through the reserve. It was not only the transportation which was taking place in the reserve. Poaching and encroachment was a frequent activity taking place simultaneously. It seemed like the way was made for the poachers and it was used by the people to travel to other islands. The government had actually made it easy for the poachers and encroachers to collect the endangered species of the flora and fauna from the reserve forest. The reserve became a region to generate money. On one hand the poachers were approaching and on the other hand the Jarawa Tourism was planning to emerge. The construction of the road had done its job of breaking the ice between the islanders and the tribe. Rest of the part was being done by the poachers who were frequently seen in the forest and by the buses and other vehicles carrying passengers. Jarawas had attacked people in running bus initially but later they became acquainted with the outsiders seen in their territory. Moreover the islanders had also constructed their houses around the reserve which was another step forward to mingle with the tribe. As curiosity is a human tendency, it was evolving on both the sides. There were incidences when the Jarawas used to enter the gardens and backyards of the houses and steal fruits and other objects which seemed attractive to them. The shopkeepers had complaints that they pick eatables from the shops and they stand helpless. The Jarawas posed no longer to be hostile to the outsiders. They had suffered enough and were becoming habituated of the picking up new things everyday from their neighbour which was no crime according to them.

As the Jarawas continued to be a part of the headlines, apart from the researchers there existed a different lot of people who were keenly waiting to be a part of the audience. The tourists visiting these islands started demanding to get a glance of the tribe which fell on the way to the lime stone caves. It all initiated when the tourists started throwing bananas and clothes from their vehicles. This attracted the tribals to collect food and the tourists clicked the photographs of them to be taken as a souvenir to their place. Such was the scene in 1997, on the roadside; the Jarwas could be seen wearing sunglasses and colourful t-shirts, with every other traditional aspect of attire such as their body paints, baskets, bows and arrows. They started waiting on the road side for the vehicles and buses carrying tourists to grab eatables and clothes. Local shopkeepers started their business near the jetties for selling eatables to attract the Jarawas. Vishvajit Pandya (2002) stated in his paper that people spend money at these shops to buy things for the Jarawas. Over last three years, the practice is so institutionalized that shopkeepers have in fact trained Jarawas in a new form of foraging. Whatever the passengers give to the Jarawas, Jarawas carefully bring back to deposit with the shopkeepers. The Jarawa territory was turning down to become a 'Human Zoo'. Tourists started coming only to see how their ancestors used to be in the age of early man. The main disaster which was taking place here was the change in the culture of Jarawas. Feeding them with biscuits, chocolates, pan (Indian mouth freshener), alcohol giving them colourful t-shirts and sunglasses to wear, providing them medical aids were the unnecessary things provided by the people and the government to those who were already self sufficient. International organizations such as Survival International raised voice to treat the Jarawas as human beings and let them live as they want. Allotment of special Jarawa police force and creation of buffer zone around the reserve forest area were some of the measures which were taken in order to protect this culturally rich tribe. In 2002 the Supreme Court had passed orders to stop the transportation on the ATR and close the reserve forest for any outsider but the game continued. It was the source of income for the locals there which they were not ready to stop at any cost. It was now the Jarawa protection police who used to bring tourists to the tribe and earn money by allowing them to interact with them and shoot their videos. The Jarawas who were once another name of terror for the people became the main source of income and entertainment. The innocent Jarawas had no idea what was happening to them in lieu of some fruits and pieces of clothes. When the tribes got used to the pans and alcohols given to them, they knew that if they would entertain anybody on the way they would get what they wanted. And the barter system on the ATR started. "Entertain us (in any possible way) and we'll give whatever you want" was the ATR slogan. The scenario had changed. It all started from being scared of them to making friendly relationship with them to selling them. This gave rise to the controversial break out of 2012 when the tourists had shot the videos of the naked Jarawa women and it went viral on the web. When all this was protested by different NGOs and other agencies tourists still were not stopped from entering the region. A convoy system was introduced to prevent extra influx of tourists and stoppage in between the reserve. As one of the USPs of the islands, the limestone caves, had their way through the reserve, the tourists had to pass these areas where as the islanders for inter island travel used this way. It's all still the same even now. Anything that has changed is the Jarawa community.

Year	Domestic Tourists	Foreign Tourists	Total Tourists
1980	7,500	2,096	9,596
1981	8,835	1,170	10,005
1982	13,444	1,102	14,546
1983	14,020	1,817	15,837
1984	16,000	3,152	19,152

Year	Domestic Tourists	Foreign Tourists	Total Tourists
1985	20,291	1,264	21,555
1986	20,942	1,791	22,733
1987	31,591	2,085	33,676
1988	34,589	3,663	38,252
1989	39,967	2,392	42,359
1990	27,019	6,697	33,716
1991	32,242	2,248	34,490
1992	35,817	2,435	38,252
1993	35,000	1,771	36,771
1994	50,737	3,798	54,535
1995	64,490	3,849	68,339
1996	67,958	5,796	73,754
1997	73,558	4,724	78,282
1998	74,732	4,915	79,647
1999	77,448	6,035	83,483
2000	81,432	4,684	86,116
2001	85,866	5,249	91,115
2002	90,629	4,707	95,336
2003	93,899	4,281	98,180
2004	1,05,004	4,578	1,09,582
2005	30,225	2,156	32,381
2006	1,18,648	9,051	1,27,504

Figure 3: A screenshot of tourist arrivals from 1980 to 2006

(Source: Rethink tourism in the Andamans. Towards building a base of sustainable tourism. (2008) Equations by Department of Information, Publicity and Tourism (IP&T), Andaman & Nicobar Islands Administration, 2006)

Conclusion – A Question Mark (?) Remains…………………………….

The Jarawas, unfortunate to say, was once a tribe which was self sufficient and so much rich in traditional practices that the world would have got the answers of its many unknown quests. A major part of the biodiversity who revere the endangered species of flora and fauna to protect them, who knew all traditional ways of curing the tiniest disease to undertaking a delivery with no complications without any modern technology or medical aid, are today being made dependant on us by us. Who are we trying to help? Do they need our help or is it we, who are in need of help? Have we failed to understand them or we don't want to understand them?

The 340 km long road is said to be the only route which connects the other islands with the Port Blair but nowhere any attention was paid the report that an Environmental Impact Assessment taken up by the centre of taxonomy studies declared that waterways should be used as the more viable alternative to the road considering that the road hindered the natural environment. This deadly road happens to have triggered a disastrous change, a change which was not for good. Was the comfort of the islanders more important to the world than the life of the Jarawas?

The government provided medical aids to the tribe. Several agencies argued on the issue that the tribes are deprived of modern facilities which we enjoy and they are backward. Let us ponder upon this issue critically. The tribe who are much healthier than us, who cures of all deadly diseases through the herbs in the forest, who get early intuition of the natural calamities about to happen, can they be really called as backward people?. Are they in need of any of the technologies that we use today?

These are some of the questions which if not answered in the near future can create a catastrophe which would further cause either the tribe to extinct, biodiversity misbalanced or make the world devoid of a treasure of ravishing and precious cultural knowledge.

Figure 4:

One of the warnings posted by authorities along the Andaman Trunk Road going along the Jarawas' territory (Source: Times of India, 2014).

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Traditional Food Consumption as a Tourist Attraction: A Grounded theory Approach on Tourists in Himachal Pradesh

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Abstract

This paper has made an attempt to examine the contributing factors that influence the consumption of local/ traditional foodand beverages as a tourist attraction in the destination of their visit, i.e. Shimla.The researcher has made an attempt to obtain an understanding into the local food experiences through semi-structured and open ended questionnaire with 30 individual tourists visiting to Shimla. The study categorized experience into the following factors: 'motivational factors' (i.e. whether the food has become an essentiality or an experience to cherish, whether it is a matter of health concern, or adds to the culinary knowledge); and the second category is based on the 'demographic factors/ profiling of the tourists' (i.e. based on the gender, age, and education). This study established an in-depth understanding of consumption of local food by tourists in Shimla.

Keywords:

Traditional food, Food consumption, Culinary tourism

Introduction

The study by Telfer and Wall (2000) duly support the importance of eating out. This study brought a striking data in heading that spending on eating out during a holiday constitutes approximately one-third of all tourist expenditures. Tasting local food is considered as one of the important tourist experience as stated by Hjalager and Richards 2002; Fields, 2002; Ryu and Jang, 2006; Sparks, 2007). Following list consist of the various studies on the food and its consumption in tourism:

- Local food as tourist attractions in terms of economic benefits and local development (Bessiere, 1998; Tellstrom et al., 2005).
- Examination of success factors for culinary tourism in the marketing of tourism destinations (Getz, 2000; Hashimoto and Telfer, 2003; Okumus et al., 2007).
- Attraction of and impediments to local food experiences (Cohen and Avieli, 2004)

- Conceptualizing the relationship between food consumption and the tourist experience (Quan and Wang, 2004)
- Effects of gastronomy on the tourist experience at a destination (Kivela and Crotts, 2006).

Motivations to consume local food and beverages at a destination included various motivational factors like; exciting experience, escape from routine, health concern, learning knowledge, authentic experience; sensory appeal, and dwell in the physical environment. These were developed through exploration of participants' experiences of local food and beverages and the linkages between existing literature on food choice and travel motivation theories. The demographic factors including gender, age, and education were based on interviewees' social, physiological, cultural backgrounds. It was also emphasized that food in a destination is a physical experience through people's sensory perceptions, such as sight, taste and smell. Secondly, according to McIntosh et al. (1995), cultural motivators are related to the need to not only experience different cultures, such as lifestyle, music, food, and dance but also to gain knowledge about other countries in terms of cultural activities. With respect to food in tourism, Fields (2002) indicated that food can be included amongst cultural motivators because when experiencing new local cuisines, tourists are also experiencing a new culture. Thirdly, interpersonal motivators relate to a desire to meet new people, spend time with family and friends, visit friends or relatives, and/or get away from routine relationships (McIntosh et al., 1995). Fields (2002) also suggested that having a meal during a holiday can be regarded as a means of reproducing social relations. Lastly, McIntosh et al. (1995) included status and prestige motivators, which are associated with self-esteem, recognition and the desire to attract attention from others. From this point of view, Fields (2002) stated that eating nice food in a nice place can be recognized as a means to be distinguished from others in terms of social status.

The purpose of the current study is to gain an insight into the motivational factors to consume local food and beverages on trips and holidays. The study determines factors influencing consumption of local food and beverages on holiday using a grounded theory approach. The grounded theory approach was adopted as an accepted method of textual investigation, with the goal of revealing motivational factors and constructing a research model of travel motivations linked to local food. This study can be thus seen as exploratory, forming the groundwork for building a model of local food consumption on holiday.

Research Methodology

Research design and sample selection

The study was conducted using a qualitative approach as it aimed to investigate and describe local food experiences and later build a theoretical model in relation to local food consumption at a tourist destination. An interview approach was used to understand the meanings that the respondents attached to issues and phenomenon in more depth, which was achieved through the use of questionnaires.

The aim of the study was to obtain an insight into the experiences of the interviewees in their own words. Thus this study adopted a grounded theory research design to analyze the data collected by a means of individual interviews (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Grounded theory has been used extensively across a variety of social science disciplines (Charmaz, 2006; Mehmetoglua and Altinay, 2006; Strauss and Corbin, 1990). A grounded theory approach is defined as a qualitative research method using a systematic set of processes to develop an inductively derived grounded theory about a phenomenon (Charmaz, 2006; Strauss and Corbin, 1990). This theory has been primarily used to develop derived theory about a phenomenon where either theory had previously not existed or where the theory is judged to be inadequate.

People who had experienced local food and beverages on their holiday were identified through a purposive sampling technique.

Interviews and data analysis

The study in its starting phase was done over a sample of 10 participants, who participated for the identification of the main points for their opting of local food and beverage product on their holidays. This discussion ranged for a period ranging between 15 and 20 minutes. This helped in the generation of an interview guide for the data collection phase.

The semi-structured and open-ended questionnaire thus built consisted of 23 questions, excluding the information regarding the study and the set of questions related to the participants demographic profiling. The questions were arranged in 5 different sections. The first section laid its focus on the preferred tourist destination; that included destinations ranking in Himachal Pradesh, purpose of travel, times of visit, source of information about the destination, accompanying person and mode of travel. The second section was related to the local food experience focusing on questions like refreshment/ local food consumed in transit, and the information available about the same. The third section aimed at ascertaining the availability of the local/ traditional food at the place of halts, the type of food (steamed/ fried/ boiled). The fourth section focused on the motivational factors influencing the choice for local food, items pleasurable/ not pleasurable on the menu, modifications required to suit the taste of the tourists (if any). The next section aimed at getting the opinion of the tourists for the promotional steps of marketing local food as a tourist attraction through options like subscription mailers, email/ postal/ telephonic messages or advertisements through newspaper and tourism magazines and the best season to organize local food festivals/ stalls. The last section gained an insight of the demographic profiling of the tourists through their name, gender classification, age, marital status, educational background, occupation and nationality.

Demographic profile of interviewees

Table 1

Profiling of respondents (n = 20)

No	Gender	Age	Marital status	Education	Occupation	Nationality
1	F	21-25	Married	UG degree	House wife	Indian
2	M	21-25	Married	UG degree	Private Organisation	Indian
3	F	41-45	Married	PG degree	Career consultant	Indian
4	M	Above 50	Married	PG degree	Govt. Employee	Indian
5	F	41-45	Married	UG degree	House wife	Indian
6	F	Above 50	Married	UG degree	Govt. Employee	Indian
7	F	36-40	Married	UG degree	Business	Indian
8	M	26-30	Single	UG degree	Private Organisation	Indian
9	M	21-25	Single	Secondary schooling	Student	Indian
10	F	36-40	Single	Secondary schooling	Private Organisation	Indian

No	Gender	Age	Marital status	Education	Occupation	Nationality
11	F	36-40	Single	PG degree	Private Organisation	Indian
12	M	Above 50	Married	UG degree	Private Organisation	Indian
13	F	41-45	Single	Secondary schooling	Student	Indian
14	M	21-25	Single	UG degree	Student	Indian
15	M	36-40	Single	UG degree	Govt. Employee	Indian
16	F	36-40	Single	Doctoral	Govt. Employee	Indian
17	M	36-40	Married	UG degree	Accountant	Indian
18	F	16-20	Single	Secondary schooling	Student	Indian
19	M	21-25	Single	UG degree	Student	Indian
20	M	26-30	Married	PG degree	Student	Indian

The table 1 abovedescribes the demographicprofiling of each of the interviewees. As evident from the above table, among 20 participants, 10 of the interviewees were female, and 10 were male. The lower range of their age wasbetween 16 and 20 and the highest were above 50. Ten of them were married and remaining was single. There was one female who had Ph.D. and others were varying between Undergraduate course and Post graduate course, with a majority having UG level of educational backgrounds. All of them were Indian nationals.

Chart 1

Preferred Tourist Destination

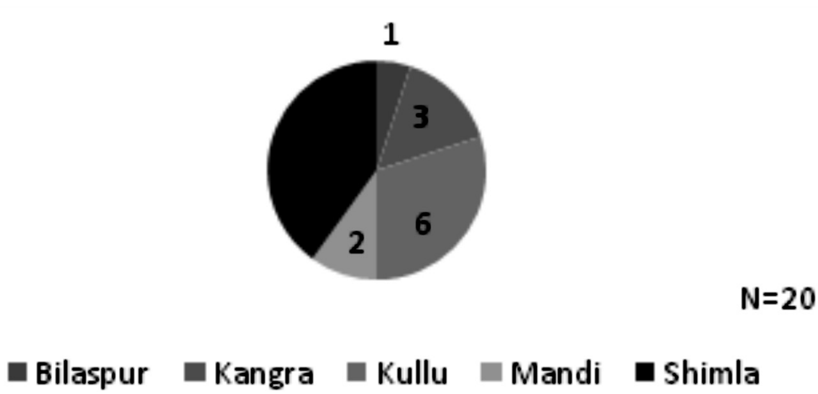

Chart 1 above signifies the preference of tourist's destinations in Himachal Pradesh among 20 tourists. Eight tourists preferred Shimla, with Kullu being the second most preferred destination having 6 respondents and Kangra with three, Mandi two and Bilaspur with only one tourist response.

Table 2

Preferred Travelling Companion

Spouse	Business partner	Friend	Family	Others (Alone)	Total
10	3	4	2	1	20
50%	15%	20%	10%	5%	100%

Out of the 20 participants, 10 favored travelling with their spouses, 3 with business partners, 4 with their friends, 2 with family members and 1 alone.

Findings and discussion

The findings of the qualitative survey of 20 interviewees were classified into two categories, 'motivational factors', and 'demographic factors'. Motivational factors were categorized into; exciting experience, escape from routine, health concern, learning knowledge, authentic experience, sensory appeal, and dwell in the physical environment, whereas the Demographic factors contained gender, age, and educational level.

Motivational Factors:

Exciting experience

Three respondents related their interest in tasting local food and beverages to exciting and thrilling experiences. They mentioned that eating local food that they have not eaten before, or that they have seen travel guidebooks was really an exciting experience.

Escape from routine

Two interviewees-articulated that travelers may indulge in eating the local food and beverages as they want to escape from daily routines or experience different things. Although the participant seemed to be happy with his present living conditions, a person may still need something new to help him feel strong and comfortable.

Health concern

Health concern was also found as to be a key factor in determining the interest of the food traveler in local food and beverages. Six of the respondents believed tasting local food in the fresh environment to be a means for improving their health either mentally or physically. They indicated that local food made with local ingredients should be fresher and better for health.

Learning knowledge

The three interviewees including the one indulged in the hotel business thought that tasting local food paved a road to learn and understand about the local culture. They also concluded that consumption of the local food allows them to understand the local food habits of the community as well as to observe and understand new things.

Authentic experience

Some of the participants had a belief that the authenticity of the cooking can be seen as new and unique experiential factor of food related travelling. They focused on local food and beverages in terms of its uniqueness and originality.

Sensory appeal

Several people felt that sensory factors can lead to their local food choice. In addition, their experience of local food and beverages was satisfied through the smell, taste and visual image of local food. Especially, flavor was considered a chief contributing standard for consumption of local food and beverages.

Physiological factors:

On the basis of the results generated by the above study, the category of physiological factors was formulated with the assumption that tourists taking part in food tourism may have a tendency towards an urge to taste something new, which may be termed as food friendly. Along with the explorers there is a category of people who are afraid or a reluctant to taste new food.

Gender

In terms of gender, the study revealed that Female respondents were especially interested in tasting local food and were also excited about local food on their holiday. The demographic factor of gender is demonstrated as a critical element on food choice and eating behavior.

Age

In relation to the gender classification, it is opined that middle aged and senior citizens lay emphasis on consuming food as a matter of health concern and have been shifting to healthier foods as compared to the youngsters who have expressed their interests in consuming and trying richer food.

Education

The majority of the participants had a relatively medium to higher levels of educational background. The participants with higher educational level are more often inclined towards learning knowledge and consuming local food to understand the local cultures.

Conclusions

The study was undertaken in the framework of the ever rising consumption of local food and beverages on trips and holidays. Through a semi-structured and open-ended questionnaire and review of related literature on common travel motivations and food consumption, it identified the motivations influencing local food consumption of local food experiences on trips and holidays.

Fields (2002) suggested that motivators for consumption of food and beverages in a tourist destination can be theoretically conceptualized within four categories provided by McIntosh et al. (1995): 'physical motivators', 'cultural motivators', 'interpersonal motivators', and 'status and prestige motivators'. Firstly, physical motivators refer to refreshment of a person's body and mind, physical rest, desire for recreation, participation in sports. These motivators are associated with reducing physical tension (McIntosh et al., 1995), and Fields (2002) proposed that they can be closely connected with the opportunity to taste new and exotic foods.

The current study thus demonstrates that tasting local food and beverages satisfies tourists' appetite and offers local cultural experiences. Older and experienced participants also suggested that people while visiting a tourist destination are also concerned with the healthy eating as well as they are concerned with trying new food of the community to understand their local cultures.

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Doing Narrative Research

Molly Andrews
Corinne Squire & Maria Tamboukou (2009) Sage Publications Ltd, London
ISBN 978-1-4129-1196-2.

My purpose is to make my narrative as truthful as possible.

—George Armstrong Custer

Narratives are an accepted portmanteau expression in present-day social research. And rightly the purpose of the narratives is without doubt to provide a connote exacting acute perceptions of the tricky incidents by reading or hearing the anecdotes of those concerned. The book is a beautifully crafted treatise for the novice researchers who are not familiar with narratives. Though an edited book, it has plethora of information on narratives from the most knowledgeable lot. The book has been edited by Molly Andrews, Corinne Squire and Maria Tamboukou who themselves have done a lot of work on this aspect and are Co-Directors of the Centre for Narrative Research at the University of East London in England. The book was first published in 2008 & then reprinted in 2009.

The book opens with a striking Introduction that "What is narrative Research?" It gives a deep and yet a general commentary about the narrative research. The prologue investigates narrative research, its diverse histories and theoretical disagreements and the likelihood for functioning productively inside those intricacies. The concept itself is an umbrella expression for capturing personal experience & cultural context. It efficiently assembles, evaluate and signify stories of masses as told by them. And confront traditional and modernist views of truth, reality, knowledge and personhood. The book has been divided into eight chapters. In its beginning chapters, core issues of the narrative research like positionality, reflexivity and power are considered while the final chapters deal with actual social problems and ethical dilemmas which researcher face while dealing with it.

Chapter 1

Wendy Patterson presents the Labov's model of the structure of the personal experience narrative. He presents its advantages like the ability to find some narratives within the transcript; reveal structure of narratives allowing comparison; encode various types of evaluation which help in examining events and eliciting personal narratives. Also, some limitations are associated with the approach for example distinction between referential & evaluative clauses is often problematic, significant differences between gender narratives. This leads to a contemplation of event –centric in opposition to experiential approaches and elucidation of the more interpretive experiential viewpoint.

Chapter 2

In the chapter Corinne Squire gave two perspectives i.e. experience centred and culturally centred view for studying narratives rather that is centred on events. The chapter focuses on the semantics of narrated experience i.e. experience centred narrative research and the notion that "experience through stories, become part of consciousness". It also takes hermeneutic approach to completely comprehend by examining stories rather than following William Labov's structural analysis. Also, the chapter spell out the incessant disagreements and intricacies involved with the approach. The chapter links many examples employed by Patterson and Squire's own experiences, including the HIV experience of South Africa.

Chapter 3

Ann phoenix brilliantly correlates her experience with the earlier chapters of the book. She follows the Georgakopolou (2006a:123) approach that as "moved from the study of narrative as text to the study of narrative-in-context". The chapter outlines the benefits of small story telling over the big story approaches by highlighting the "under-represented narratives". Further the chapter analyses the interpersonal contexts which help in construction of narratives which change over period of time and has used extracts from a study of social identities i.e. from dialogue with a white mother of a child with mixed race descent.

Chapter 4

The section deals with the dialogue between Phillida salmon and Catherine Kohler Riessman who were senior narrative scholars and brings into notice the complicacies which are involved in narratives making it a chaotic affair. The scholars instead of writing the section contributed a dialogue between them. The narrative experiences emphasize the importance of words, but at the same time highlight the non -consistency of words both for the orators or listeners over time. Hence, the narrative process is for all time in the course of transformation.

Chapter 5

Molly Andrews in this chapter views narratives as a journey, in which nothing is permanent and continuously there is a change. The transformation is manifested in our thought process, actions, and our experiences which vary with our age. Neo- experiences and neo- understanding of older experiences bring neo- perspectives which affect not only our present, past as well as our future. The section considers the in progress rapport among power, history and biography. And how our understanding of ourselves and society always changes with a swing in events in the life.

Chapter 6

The chapter presents a Foucauldian approach, in which Maria Tamboukou uses narratives as a means to re-imagine history, examining the interrelationship between narrative, subjectivity and authority (power).Tamboukou has broadly highlighted the chapter into three sub-areas i.e. genealogical problems, questions of the method and emerging themes in Foucauldian approach. Tamboukou sees Foucauldian approach to narratives as an open methodological framework which creates "a methodological rhythm of their own, weaving around a set of crucial questions ...questions which create unexplored and even unthought of areas of investigation".

Chapter 7

The chapter is written by Margareta Hyden, starts with an example of Maria, a sex worker. The incident and other examples bring to light the topic of narrating sensitive topics, and how the power & space help in outlining the relational circumstances. And these relational circumstances define sensitive issues which are dependent on the relationship between listener and teller in personal, cultural and contextual aspects. Hyden, further states that narrating the sensitive issues highlight the darker or victimized side of the interviewee may cause pain to the individual & hence seriously limit your research.

Chapter 8

In the last chapter, Paul Gready examines certain ethical, political and methodological challenges, which the narratives face prior to their presentation. And prior to the presentation of narratives, the researcher should have a full understanding of public sphere and at the same time the violation of trust should be avoided. The narratives should give voice to the issues which are dealt in research, should give control & ownership to the interviewees by adopting ethical, political and methodological propositions when narratives go through public forefront.

The book takes you through a fine journey on narrative research. It explains the topic in a phased and detailed manner. At many instances, interrogatory questions are raised followed by good explanations. Numerous incidents (examples) of narratives in the book highlight the various perspectives of this research type. The various editors of the volume demonstrate relevancies of diverse methodological perspectives, cross disciplinary and multivocal aspects that come under the broad areas of narrative research. Catherine Kohler Riessman in her concluding comments says that book would be a great help to students & answer their three questions -"How is narrative research employed? To what degree does an investigation attend to narrative features? How do narrative analysts take into considerations to the 'worlds' that surround a narrative text?" She further ends her comments by saying that these three questions will help the future investigators to develop a 'theoretical bicolage' of narrative research which is full of complexity and diversity.

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