Chapter – II

Review of Literature
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to review the collection of scholarly research works carried out by various researchers in different parts of the world to understand the concept of sustainable tourism development in heritage destinations. In addition, it introduces various theoretical aspects essentially important for this research and examines its significance. The chapter begins with the history of tourism development in the world with a brief description of tourism development in India and Tamilnadu. Further a brief note on the concept of sustainable tourism development with its evolution and many subsections explaining about cultural tourism, coastal and resort tourism is reviewed. In addition to that empirical work done on characteristics and satisfaction of tourists, resident’s perception of tourism impacts and the concepts of ecological footprints are also presented.

2.2 HISTORY OF WORLD TOURISM

Since time immemorial travel has been a part of human life to seek food, to protect from danger and to explore different places for trade and commerce. Development of cities along the banks of river gave rise to the necessity of undertaking travel with the help of boats in the rivers. Fazli and Ashraf (2006) expressed that the origin of the term tourism is derived from Leiper’s ‘de la tour’ hypothesis. According to it, the Duke of Burgundy inked an agreement with England in 1516 for making provisions for travel and accommodation. It facilitated and removed the age-old travel obstacles for the English travelers to travel across the channel and led to the formation of ‘tour-ist and tour-ism’.
Towner (1995) described that the history of Tourism begins with the affluent people of ancient Greeks and Romans. The Grand Tour of Europe in 18th century has been much reviewed in various journals and guidebooks. The modern organized travel began with the evolution of the Grand Tour. At the same time, many unrecorded small scale and informal activities occurred due to the group travel. Towner (1985) identified that between 1820 and 1830 were an important period for the transformation of tourist development in the organized form.

As tourism is multidimensional and includes many different activities, it is hard to define what constitutes tourism (Ricardo, 2004). Swiss Professors Hunziker and Krapf (1942) made the first attempt to define tourism. They defined it as “the sum of phenomenon and relationship arising from the travel and stay of non-residents in so far as they do not lead to permanent residence, and are not connected with any earning activity”. WTO defines tourism 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 purpose”.

2.2.1 Origin of Indian Tourism

Indian tourism derives its origin from the Sanskrit word “Atana” means going out. Based on which, ‘Tirthatana’ (going out for religious places), 'Paryatana' (tripping for pleasure and knowledge) and ‘Deshatana’ (going out of one’s country for money) originated (Pawar, 2012). Thus tourism emerged as the process of travel for the purposes of religious devotion, leisure or business, and the arrangement of services for rendering this act.

In the ancient times, religious travel was widely recognized for spreading Buddhism. The Emperor Ashoka throughout his travels from Pataliputra to Gaya established special memorials and rest houses for travelers. Roads were laid with the trees
at the side for providing shades from sunlight to the travelers. Another great Emperor HarshaVardhan built Dharamsalas for the travelers. The Arthashastra of Kautalya revealed that the security provided to the traders through the safe passage and insurance for goods, guideline of prices and practices of gold, silver and copper for exchange rates showed a well-developed form of trade and travel. Possibly Persians were the first foreigners to tour India using caravans (Gour Kanjilal, 2008).

Evidence from the Greek writers and other travelers to India proved that the prosperity and culture of Indian land attracted various foreign traders and pilgrims. Ptolemy was one of the ancient travelers to India, accounted the geography of India in the second century A.D. (Rajesh, 2009). Mark Twain praised India as “So far as I am able to judge, nothing has been left undone, either by man or nature, to make India the most extraordinary country that the sun visits on his rounds. Nothing seems to have been forgotten, nothing overlooked”. Arnold Toynbee mentioned India “as a society of the same magnitude as Western Europe – a whole world in herself”. These depictions from the foreign travelers have confirmed their visit and glory of ancient India.

### 2.2.2 Origin of Tourism in Tamilnadu & Mahabalipuram

Tamilnadu (land of the Tamilians) has been in existence from the past 20 to 30 centuries. This is one of the oldest places in the world to create a scientific grammar about 1500 years ago for Tamil language. Perhaps it must have been in contacts with China from 2nd century BC onwards. About 100BC to 300 AD are marked as Sangam Age and this is the Golden age of Tamilnadu (Glaeser and Glaser, 2010). The literary evidence from Sangam literature proves the presence of ancient seaports and their mercantile achievements through it (Sarma, 1978).

Ancient cities like Madurai, Kanchipuram and Pumpuhar witnessed urban revolution and the typical ancient Indian trade with Mediterranean regions during the
reigns of Cholas and Pandyas. Later under the Pallava kingdoms from sixth to ninth centuries saw a new type of town development in Kanchipuram, the capital city of Pallavas (Heitzman, 1987). Kanchipuram is one of the seven sacred cities in India which contains religious centre for Hindus, Jains and Buddhists. The integration of all religions such as Shaivism, Vaishnavism, Jainism and Buddhism with fused culture in Kanchipuram led the blend of Hinduism and Buddhism in the architecture of Mahabalipuram. The Chinese Traveler and Buddhist Scholar Hiuen Tsang visited Kanchipuram and mentioned about it in his ‘Siyuki’ and three hundred Buddhist Monks from Srilanka visited Kanchi during the reign of Pallavas (Shukla, 2001).

Pallavas were the pioneers and probably the initiators of stone structures in Tamilnadu (Sobhana Devi and Swain, 2013). The epigraphical sources proved that the Pallavas had strong overseas relationships with Ceylon, China and the South Asian Countries. And discovery of some Roman coins of 4th Century AD indicates that Mahabalipuram had active trade relationships with Romans around the Christian era (Sundaresh et al., 2004). Indeed, European travelers in the sea identified the free-standing temples on the shore of Mahabalipuram as Seven Pagodas for their navigation (Ranjani and Kasturirangan, 2013). Sonnerat (1782) pointed that the temple of ‘Seven Pagodas’ is one of the most ancient on the coast of Coromandal and on account of its appearance.

Beginning in recorded times, as a centre of pilgrimage through the Sthalasayana Perumal temple and as the birth place of Bhoothath Azhwar, Mamallapuram became a port for trade with the west. It was also a port for the spread of Hindu and Buddhist religion and culture in south-east Asia (Ramaswami, 1989). ‘Avantisundari Kathasara’, a Sanskrit fiction by Dandin, the great author who lived in Kanchipuram gave an account of first recorded tourists to Mamallapuram (Ramaswami, 1989) and still it attracts huge inflow of tourists into it.
2.3 SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Tourism is recognized as a complex phenomenon (Swarbrooke, 1999; McKercher, 1999) which is crucially relied upon natural resources for fulfilling the needs of tourists. It influences various other sectors directly and indirectly. The principal objectives of tourism development include production and continuation of job opportunity, improvement in the livelihood of people and conservation of cultural and natural heritage (Eagles and McCool, 2002) resources forever by curtailing its negative impacts. This can be achieved through the practices of Sustainable Tourism Development (STD) principles. The concept of STD has been emerged from the broader view of sustainable development. Hence, the deep understanding of sustainable development will give a clear picture on the concept and development of sustainable tourism.

2.3.1 History of Sustainable Development

The phrase “Sustainable Development” was very popular for the past few decades due to increasing consciousness towards environmental protection and effective usage of resources. Sustainable development is a mixture of two different concepts - development and sustainability. Usually, “development has been defined as a process whereby a community, region or nation improve its economic position by increasing the quantity and quality of goods and services at its disposal” (Ricardo, 2004). In other words, it is a process to improve the living condition of people not just for economic growth but for changes in the manner of conducting oneself and the way in which he or she perceives the world around himself. In the similar way, sustainability refers to the quality that allows a process to continue forever without degrading the environment or infringing the resources of others well-being in terms of socio-political, economic and environmental factors.

The initial stages of the sustainable development paradigm can be tracked down to the notable environmental movement in Europe and North America during 1960s...
(Amalpay, 2005). These cracking events gained extensive attention from the valuable publications of Rachel Carson’s “Silent Spring” (1962). It was seriously concerned with the misuse of synthetic pesticides. It marked as a landmark event in the history of modern environmentalism to protect environment from pollution.

Garrett Hardin’s Tragedy of the Commons (1968) described how individuals bring trouble to every species in the planet earth due to the over consumption of a limited natural resource in due course. Thus, in 1970’s attention was primarily focused on limiting growth in order to curtail the excessive demands upon the global ecosystem. The Stockholm Conference in 1972 (also called as United Nations Conference on the Human Environment) dealt issues of world environment and marked as a milestone in the international environmental politics. It formulated that economic development must go hand in hand with conserving natural resources and using it effectively by reducing its possible impact to least impact on nature. The emergence of the concept of sustainable development signified a convergence between economic development and environmentalism (Hardy et al., 2002) by integrating the concept of eco-development.

Though the concept of sustainable development was emerged in the Stockholm conference, it was explicitly pointed for the first time in the World’s Environmental Development Commission (WECD) document “Our Common Future” (1987). This report is also called as Brundtland Report. The Report defines Sustainable Development as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs”. It also highlighted that the sustainable development should not only be based on equating environmental and economic interests, but also on assuring social justice in regional and global levels (Brundtland report, 1987). It recommends economic and social development for poor people by protecting the natural resources. It stated that “economic and social well-being cannot be improved with
measures that destroy the environment” (Brundtland report, 1987). Hence, all developmental activities have to be taken by considering its effects on the prospects of future generations.

The Rio Earth summit in the year 1992 leads to the detailed plan of action “Agenda 21” in 2001. It was acknowledged in the National Report on Sustainable Development in 2002. It provides directions to execute the principles of sustainable development in every aspect of life, estimating economic, ecological, social, territorial, institutional and political aspects. Though tourism was not exclusively mentioned in the Agenda 21’s Action Plans, its increasing recognition with considerable amount of natural capital & environmental impacts leads to its inclusion in the Agenda 21 for the Travel & Tourism industry, an Action Plan for Sustainable Tourism Development launched by WTO. As a result, Travel & Tourism is the first industry sector to have launched an industry specific Action Plan based on Agenda 21 (WTTO & IHRA, 1999).

In order to review the progress of sustainable development action plans of the Earth Summit, the **World Summit on Sustainable Development-2002 (Rio+10)** took place in Johannesburg, South Africa. It mainly concentrated on social problems such as poverty and poor sanitation which affect billion people globally. It also discussed about climate change and global warming. This summit spotted further steps for STD in a destination by increasing benefits to host population, while retaining the environmental integrity, and by conserving natural heritage sites and ecologically sensitive areas (WSSD, 2002).

The **United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development 2012 (Rio+20)** took place in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. This conference promotes a cleaner, safer, greener, more equitable and successful world for all by conversing ways to develop a green economy to attain sustainable development and improve the living condition of the
people. It also discussed about assistance to developing countries for proceeding towards greener technologies and discussed issues to enhance international coordination for promoting sustainable development. It highlighted seven major areas to require main concern such as decent jobs, energy, sustainable cities, food security and sustainable agriculture, water, oceans and disaster readiness (UNCSD, 2012).

Thus, the concept of sustainable development necessitates collaboration of all economic activities to improve the living standard of the people and the ecosystem (Ko, 2005). Travel & Tourism has been identified as the key sector to contribute to development that is economically, ecologically and socially sustainable. It has less impact on natural resources and the environment than most other industries. It is based on enjoyment and appreciation of local culture, built heritage, and natural environment. As such, the industry has a direct and powerful motivation to protect these assets and it can play a positive part in increasing consumer commitment to sustainable development principles through its unparalleled consumer distribution channels. It provides an economic incentive to conserve natural environments and habitats. This might otherwise be allocated to more environmentally damaging land uses, thereby helping to maintain bio-diversity (WTTC & IHRA 1999; Kandiah, 2008).

2.3.2 Evolution of Sustainable Tourism

The concept of Sustainable Tourism became popular after the official recognition of the term Sustainable Development in the Report titled as “Our Common Future” (Hardy et al., 2002). But, it was witnessed and understood indirectly from the literatures of concepts such as ‘Carrying Capacity’ (Tivy, 1973; Stankey, 1973), ‘New Tourism’ (Rosenow and Pulsipher, 1979) and Destination Life Cycle Model (Butler, 1980). All these concepts highlight the conservation of destination by maintaining carrying capacity and improving the environmental and heritage values of tourism destinations through
enriching the knowledge of the tourists. The Manila Declarations in 1980 clearly pointed out the conservation of natural resources and cautioned that tourism industry must not be prejudicial to the environment (WTO, 1980).

Sustainable Tourism took a set of principles, policy recommendations and management process to provide a direction for tourism development. Environmental resources including natural and man-made cultural attraction are protected in a tourist destination for future development (Lane, 1994). These types of tourism-centric approaches were widely criticized for not contributing to the parental concept sustainable development. Following the Earth summit in 1992, the World Conference on Sustainable Tourism (1995) was conducted in Lanzarote. It was the first ever to integrate the principles of system constitutes dimensions like political, economical, socio-cultural and quality of services and products for tourists. The ecosystem includes general environmental impacts, quality of ecosystem, biodiversity of plants and animals, and management of environmental policy as its dimensions.

The Charter of Sustainable Tourism highlights eighteen principles to direct how tourism should be practiced under the principles of sustainable development. The Sustainable Tourism Action Plan directs the signees with special proposals and strategies for tourism development to be ecologically sustainable, economically feasible and socially impartial for the host (Mowforth & Munt, 1998).

McIntyre (1993, p. 11) defines sustainable tourism as an alternative tourism form that improves the quality of life of the host community, provides a high quality of experience for the visitors and maintains the quality of the environment on which both the host community and the visitor depend. The international tourism industry adopted sustainable tourism development as it meets the needs of present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunity for the future. It is envisaged as leading to
management of all resources in such a way that economic, social, and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential eco-logical processes, biological diversity, and life support systems (WTTC, 1998).

Tourism Concern and WWF (1992) proposed a set of principles for sustainable tourism such as using resources sustainably, reducing over consumption and waste, maintaining diversity, integrating tourism into planning, supporting local economies, involving local communities, consulting stakeholders and the public, training staff, marketing tourism responsibly and undertaking research to solve problems and bringing benefits to all.

Ko (2005) identified eight dimensions for the sustainable tourism development in a tourist destination using two systems such as the human system and ecosystem. The human system constitutes dimensions like political, economical, socio-cultural and quality of services and products for tourists. The ecosystem includes general environmental impacts, quality of ecosystem, biodiversity of plants and animals, and management of environmental policy as its dimensions.

Bramwell and Lane (1993) advocated that “sustainable tourism is a positive approach intended to reduce the tensions and friction created by the complex interactions between the tourism industry, visitors, the environment and the communities which are host to holidaymakers. They recognized sustainable tourism as a long-term planning of all resources and it accepts Limits to Growth based on the management practices of different destinations by highlighting tourism activities.

Hunter (1997) mentions that sustainable tourism should not be regarded as a rigid framework, but rather as an Adaptive Paradigm to legitimize a variety of approaches according to specific circumstances. Page and Thorn (1997) identified that the absence of national policy and strategic action plan on the principles of sustainable
tourism is the crucial reason for the resources mismanagement at the regional areas. Clarke (2010) mentioned that sustainable tourism is not an inherent characteristic of any existing form or situation, but a goal that all tourism must strive to achieve.

2.4 HERITAGE AND CULTURAL TOURISM

Travel and Tourism helps produce new knowledge and understanding about being and provides an identity of the past (Lanfant, 1995). A typical tourist moves away from the sun, sea and sand to a unique type of experience through cultural and heritage attractions (Apostolakis, 2003). Heritage Tourism is a type of Special Interest Tourism which helps the tourists to learn the potentials of past and their lifestyle (Li & Lo, 2004). For past few decades, Heritage and Tourism are complimentary to each other. Scholars like Hewison (1989), Urry (1990) had mentioned about the convergence of Tourism and Heritage. Heritage Tourism has achieved significant interest economically and politically for regional, state and national benefits (Jamal & Kim, 2005). It is based on what we have inherited (Yale, 1991 and Sharpley, 1993). It means historic sites, buildings and the experiences for the people to seek in them (Christou, 2005 and Stewart et al., 1998).

Park (2010) defined Heritage is a symbolic embodiment of past, reconstructed and reconstituted in the collective memories and traditions of contemporary societies rather than being perceived as a mere apotheosis of by-gone times. He describes that Heritage Tourism acts as a medium to reconstruct and communicate the national solidarity. It also helps to transform people’s ethnicities and identities. Richards (1997, p. 24) stated that Cultural Tourism is the movement of persons to cultural attractions away from their normal place of residence, with the intention to gather new information and experiences to satisfy their cultural needs.
It has an extensive role in not only enhancing the knowledge of contemporary generation about culture and nature, but in the shadowing of people by disciplining their actions (Deleuze & Guattari, 1984). Peterson (1994) identified three major rationales for visiting historical destinations: to experience a different place, to enjoy a cerebral experience and to share the history of the site with others. Russo & Borg (2002) mentioned that tourism provides vital financial resources for the conservation and restoration of cultural heritage sites which otherwise faces shrinking funds.

McKercher et al. (2005) identified that tourism and cultural heritage sites are performing well in parallel existence with tourism and other stakeholders by carrying out their respective jobs promptly with a mutual relationship by giving a realistic appreciation to the tourism and conserving its cultural values of the destination. Garrod & Fyall (2000) investigated the challenges of heritage attractions in the long run and assessed the fundamental mission behind heritage management. They found that there is a close relationship between the heritage mission and the principles of sustainable development.

2.4.1 World Heritage Sites

In order to protect the heritage sites from the natural and man-made destruction, the UNESCO initiated the World Heritage Convention in 1972. The Convention passed an international treaty on “Protection of the World’s Cultural and National Heritage” and started issuing World Heritage Site (WHS) status to several noteworthy sites from 1978 onwards (Huang et al., 2012). The Convention defines “cultural heritage as monuments, group of buildings and sites, whereas natural heritage as natural features (physical and biological formations), geological and physiographical formations, and natural sites(natural areas”).

As of June 2013, 981 sites, including 759 cultural, 193 natural and 29 mixed sites in 160 countries have been enlisted in WHS list. Although the UNESCO title intends to
protect and conserve natural and cultural resources forever, it has been usually used as a marketing tool to catch the attention of tourists (Huang et al., 2012). Based on its international significance and advantageous interface, they are widely branded for socio-economic development through tourism industry (Hall & Piggin, 2001).

Having historic, scientific or aesthetic value, many of the WHSs are unsurprisingly favorite tourist attractions. One of the objectives of WHS List is to acquire tourists from different parts of the world to enhance greater understanding in people relationships through sharing experiences (Drost, 1996). These heritage sites are regarded as terrific worth to the people of all nations regardless of their own culture and customs (Su and Li, 2012). As it symbolize the culture of the country nationally and internationally, it must be open to the public and tourist while being preserved for the future generation as well.

However, increasing population pressure on WHS is continuing and it enforces the need to formulate effective management practices in accordance with the deep understanding of geographical locations between WHS and the tourist origin (Li et al., 2008). Perhaps, these sites can be an effective tool for promoting STD if its goals and strategies are well realized with effective participation from local community (Kaltenborn et al., 2013) and kicking off constructive tourist behaviour and practices through the process of enlighten and effective regulations (Drost, 1996).

2.5 COASTAL & RESORT TOURISM

Coastal tourism development begins from 19th century despite climatic and cultural differences with the establishments of grand hotels, beach resorts, recreation activities and so on. Wealthy tourists began to travel towards exclusive sites for sun, sea and sand in Caribbean, African and Asian countries (Onofri & Nunes, 2013). Tourism is the major sources of revenue in the coastal areas (Gable, 1997) and beaches play the vital
role for the local economy in various destinations (Dharmarante & Braithwaite, 1998; Houston, 2002; Birdir et al., 2013).

Coastal resorts form the main type of growing attractions with well-resourced amenities like spa, swimming pool, bar etc. Consequently, number of tourists to resorts continues to increase which pressurizes the managers to manage resources effectively by avoiding environmental degradation and resources depletion to sustain the arrival of the tourists (Wong, 1998).

Although coastal zones play the considerable role in all spheres of living beings in particular humans, they face severe conflicts with the utility of other services and its dynamic processes in nature (Ketchum, 1972). The increasing demand for coastal recreation and global coastal erosion (Cipriani et al., 2004) highlights the importance of protecting the coastal zones for tourism industry. Jennings (2004) portrayed coastlines as the magnet for the tourists and visitors to enjoy bathing, swimming, eating sea food and participating in the adventure water sports. It faces environmental pressures leading to the focus towards shoreline management and sustainable development. Philips and Jones (2006) presented an assessment of beach erosion and sea level rise due to climatic changes, and uncovered a significant threat to the economy of many localities and regions. Therefore, they suggested that the coastal managers should adopt techniques to work with processes of soft engineering solution for eroding beaches with long-term vision. They also ensured that the stakeholders should implement measures based on sound Integrated Coastal Zone Management (ICZM) practice for sustainable management of the coastal zone.

2.6 TOURISM LIFE CYCLE

Acquiring knowledge of stages of development or life cycle in the tourism destination helps to execute the sustainable practices and curtail the unsustainable
outcomes. Studies were conducted to examine the practices of tourism activity by evaluating its economic growth at different stages and started developing theories from sixties (Alvares & Lourenco, 2005).

Butler (1980) was the foremost researcher who adapted life cycle product model to the tourist destination and named it as “Tourism Area Lifecycle (TALC) Model (Figure 2.1). In that, he described six stages such as exploration, investment, development, consolidation, stagnation and post stagnation. In the last stage, the product can decline or rejuvenate. The first four phases of destination lifecycle model represent stages of growth while the stagnation signifies the commencement of declining in tourist arrivals due to its unattractiveness.

Figure 2.1: Butler’s Model

Nevertheless, if counter actions are taken, attractions of the destination can be reclaimed as indicated by curves A and B in the figure, or else it continues to diminish like C, D and E (Agarwal, 1997). This model is extensively used to explain the destination growth and development in different contests and tested in many locations (Prideaux, 2000). Conversely, Cooper (1992) recognized problems with this model in
identifying stages and turning points of the cycle. Haywood (1986) also pointed that this model is insufficient for developing tourism policies and plans.

Cooper (1997) identified that the association between destination lifecycle and sustenance underlies with the long-term perspectives to execute strategic approach to ensure each stage of the TALC as a renewable resource. Agarwal (1997) concluded that regeneration in the post stagnation phase is a continuous process of rejuvenation and re-orientate destinations to cater the needs of the tourists.

2.7 TOURIST BEHAVIOUR

Tourist behaviour and perceptions are essential to identify motivations which influence tourists to select destination and other ancillary services at the destinations. A satisfied tourist generally becomes a repeat visitor and promotes others to revisit and recommend the destination to others. The behaviour of tourists can be determined by gender, age, education, occupation, income, nationality etc (Engel et al., 1995). The differences in the gender of tourist behaviour have been observed by various researchers (Gibson, 1996; Laing, 1987). The socio-cultural practices associated with their places of living may cause the differences in their leisure behaviour (Pawsen & Banks, 1983).

Carr (1999) studied the behaviour of young men and women tourists and found very few differences with respect to the leisure activities of them. Beerli and Martin (2004) determined the association between characteristics of tourists such as socio-demographic, motivation and experience with their perception on the destination image. Esu & Arrey (2009) recognized that the behavioural characteristics of tourists are given much importance as compared to the demographic variables to enhance delight of tourists. Beerli and Martin (2004) identified that motivation led to form perceptions about the destination. Hanqin and Lam (1999) investigated the pull and push factors of Chinese tourist on their Hong Kong trips and found sightseeing of destination as unique ways of
enhancing knowledge about the strange/foreign site and spending time with members of
the family as push factors as against multi-ethnic city, comfortable transport, shopping,
etc., as pull factors.

Sonmez and Sirakaya (2002) found the overall appeal of the site, safe and secure
environment, local attractions and hospitality, authenticity of experience etc., as pull
factors to influence travelling to destinations. They also found that American tourists give
more importance to the personal information sources like friends and colleagues rather
than magazine or newspaper information.

Mill and Morrison (1985) pointed out that the differences in the culture of hosts
and tourists may affect tourists’ holiday experience. Culture can be viewed as ideological
and material elements of life. However, many studies found a narrow approach of
studying tourists’ expectation and satisfaction excluding culture as its determinant (for
material feature of culture such as shopping product, cuisine, accommodation and
language influence the holiday satisfaction levels of the tourists or not. They found it had
little impact on overall satisfaction of the tourists in the destination.

Poria et al. (2003) identified that there is a difference between the perception of
heritage tourists and tourists at heritage attractions. They defined heritage tourists as one
who perceive the attractions as their own heritage and whose behaviour is different from
other tourists. Kerstetter et al. (2001) found that heritage tourists are highly
knowledgeable, likely to stay for long duration, interested to pay more time during their
tour and happy to spend more than the ordinary tourists. In order to satisfy the fondness
of tourists with the outcome of technological innovations and increasing diverse needs of
tourists, results found changes in heritage tourism both in the production (supply) and
consumption (demand) patterns of tourists (Apostolakis, 2003).
2.7.1 Tourist Satisfaction & Destination Loyalty

Tourist satisfaction is a result of experience to meet with the expected level or more (Engel et al., 1995). Satisfaction is the most important tool for marketing the destination lucratively (Kozak and Rimmington (2000). Many studies have been conducted for identifying customer satisfaction like Expectancy Disconfirmation Model (Oliver, 1980) and Service Quality Model (Parasuraman et al., 1985).

Lee et al. (2011) described that the complete understanding of tourist motivations and expectations would enhance the service quality of tourism destination. This would in turn increase the satisfaction levels of tourists by reducing their complaints. Tribe & Snaith (1998) measured the holiday satisfaction of tourists by developing a research instrument called HOLSAT. This model is used to find the key attributes of holiday destination and the attitude of tourists towards it either satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Truong and Foster (2006) examined how tourists perceived a destination by identifying their satisfaction levels from a set of 33 destination attributes. They used HOLSAT model to investigate whether there is any difference between those who travel on a package tour and those of free and independent travellers (FITs).

Chaudhary (2000) conducted a gap analysis between tourist expectations and satisfaction to find out pre and post trip opinion of international tourists about the destinations in India. Her findings clarified strengths and weaknesses of tourism destinations in India. Joppe et al. (2001) examined the satisfaction of tourists by asking the tourists to rate the destination attributes from the most important to least important. Services rendered by the accommodation sectors, food and cuisine, and several kinds of destinations to visit were the top attributes which won over in satisfying tourists.

Hui et al. (2007) examined the expectations, perceptions and overall satisfaction of different types of tourist towards the products and services based on the tourist origin.
They ascertained from their study that there exists a difference between the expectation and perception of eight travel attributes such as people, overall convenience, accommodation and food, commodities, price, culture, attractions, and climate and image. Their results also revealed that overall satisfaction was the key factor to determine the likelihood of tourists recommending the destination to their friends and relatives, and showed a positive sign from all the tourists to revisit the destination again in the future.

McDowall (2010) compared the overall satisfaction of local visitors and non-local visitors. He found difference in the satisfaction levels between them in the attributes such as duration of the festival and quality of the programme. His findings also revealed that the cultural event and family activity were the strong motivating factor behind their trip for domestic and foreign tourists. Valle et al. (2006) found that the tourist satisfaction is a major factor of destination loyalty and identified that the most satisfied tourists were more determined in revisiting and recommending the destination. Petrick (2004) identified that the first-time visitors and less loyal tourists are less price sensitive than loyal tourists. Nevertheless, the revisits of loyal tourists are more desirable than new comers. Hallowell (1996) presents evidence on the association between satisfaction, loyalty and profitability. The author found that loyal customers offer opportunities to reduce recruiting cost of customer, price sensitivity and service costs.

2.8 RESIDENT PARTICIPATION & SATISFACTION

Tourism is a community development tool which can’t be victorious without the participation of local people and community leaders (Aref et al., 2010). The importance of tourism has been recognized by local communities and has inspired changes in economic, socio-cultural and environmental dimensions of local livelihood (Richards & Hall, 2000). Mbaiwa and Stronza (2011) described that tourism has the capability of producing income for the local people through economic development and protecting
resources. Cultural tourism has the potential for community development (Cole, 2007) and has more resources than other tourism types because it is largely relied upon its own cultural resources than luxurious amusements (Ivanovic, 2009).

The hosts are one of the major resources in enhancing and maintaining a tourism industry and they are directly and indirectly affected by the practices of tourism development (Murphy, 1983; Yoon et al. 2001). Gunn (1994, p. 111) also mentioned that “development plans would bear little fruit unless those most affected are involved from the start”. Therefore “development should be through local initiatives and consistent with local values” (Duffield & Long, 1981, p. 403).

Hospitality of local communities is essential for tourism activities (Andriotis, 2005) and sustainable tourism development in the destination (Latkova, 2008, Choi and Murray, 2010). Dyer et al. (2007) pointed out that participation of residents in planning and implementation process is also fundamental for sustainable destination. Mbaiwa & Stronza (2011) argue that the economic benefits derived from tourism not only oblige local people towards tourism development and conservation, but also create a sense of ownership and collective management over natural resources. Sunitkul et al. (2010) recorded the societal and individual perception of the locals towards tourists, tourism development and employability in it. They found that community mindedness, exchanges of culture, community organization and control, and awareness of own culture were the prime factors towards social sustainability in tourism destination. Nicholas et al., (2009) examined that local community’s perspectives using the factors such as community attachment and their involvement in tourism, environmental attitude, and their perceptions on the destination. All those influenced the promotion of Pitons Management Area as a World Heritage Site and for sustainable tourism development in it.
Choi and Sirkaya (2005) developed a subjective indicator SUS-TAS to study the residents’ feelings, attitudes and their opinion with regard to their working with tourism industry and their participation in decision making process for STD. They also found that the subjective indicators helped assess progress at the regional level as it was kept aside by majority of the governments in giving most preferences towards objective indicators such as income level, employment rate etc., for measuring the outcome of tourism development at the destination.

2.8.1 Resident Perceptions of Tourism Impacts

Perceptions of residents have been studied over more than four decades. During early times, studies mainly focused on positive economic impacts but later due to the witness of negative impacts coupled with tourism industry enabled a balanced approach for investigating positive and negative impacts of tourism (Latkova, 2008). Ko & Stewart (2002) identified the importance of analyzing the relationship between the resident perceptions of tourism impacts and their attitudes for further tourism development. They found that community satisfaction of the residents was mainly related to their perceptions of positive and negative impacts of tourism. It directly influences their attitudes for additional enrichment. Vargas Sanchez et al. (2009) studied the resident’s attitude by determining the perceived tourism impacts and community satisfaction for further tourism development. By testing the Ko and Stewart (2002) model, he concluded that the residents considered tourism development would bring more benefits to the municipalities rather than its effects.

Andriotis (2005) measured the perceptions of residents and tourism entrepreneurs about tourism and its expansion. His findings proved that the perceptions among the residents reliant on tourism, non-reliant residents and business people were highly positive towards tourism and its further development. Oviedo-Garcia et al. (2008)
identified that Social Exchange Theory acted as a valid tool to explain resident’s attitude towards tourism. He also confirmed that the positive impacts of tourism were significantly higher than the negative impact as perceived by the residents. This explains the kind support of local community for tourism planning and development. Dyer et al. (2007) examined the association between the perceptions of local residents’ with regard to the five dimensions of tourism impacts (perceived economic benefits, perceived social costs, perceived social benefit, perceived cultural benefit and perceived social cost) and their support for tourism development. Their findings proved that the perceived economic and cultural benefits chiefly contribute to the support for tourism development.

2.9 TOURISM SERVICE PROVIDERS

Goodall (1995) acknowledged that tourists, as consumers of environment, can damage the every resource to form the basis of the tourism industry. Ramsey & Everitt (2008) also highlighted that there are no environmental benefits rather negative impacts in cultural and heritage tourism sites. In addition, Horng et al. (2012) pointed out that tourism destinations face a clash between tourism practices and conservation of resources. Hence, they suggested an Energy Saving and Carbon Reduction (ESCR) indicators for tourism operators to evaluate their practices. They described that energy saving can be done through improving the technology or consciously reducing the intensity of energy by changing lifestyle, and reduction in levels of carbon emissions can be attained by planting more indigenous tree species and curtailing the artificial facilities.

As accommodation sector contributes major part of tourism industry, it is mostly considered as the maximum resource user by consuming excess amount of energy, water, paper and many other required products (Bohdanowicz & Martinac, 2007). Charara et al. (2011) studied the usage of water in hotels and found that it uses more water than its hosts (756 vs. 240L/cap-d). It is due to the fact the consumption of water in hotels accounts for
less than 5 per cent of their total expenses. Warnken et al. (2005) benchmarked the consumption of energy and water in the fully accredited eco-resorts and found some eco-resorts fail to achieve above average standards with respect to their environmental performance. He acknowledged that the most efficient resource consumption outcomes were evident only at the beginning stage of resort planning.

Chan (2011) aimed at finding out the obstacles for implementing Environmental Management Systems (EMS) in the Small and Medium Sized Hotels (SMH) in Hong Kong. His findings found nine barriers of which five were unique to SMHs. They include lack of a sense of urgency, uncertainty of EMS standards, not having suitable consultants, conflicting guidance and inconsistent support.

Kuo & Chen (2009) stated that tourism leads to a full range of environmental impacts and used Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) to explore environmental loads of a tourist on the basis of each trip. The LCA is an approach to quantify the environmental loads of tourist from beginning to end of the trip including every sector such as accommodation, transportation and leisure activities. In terms of energy use they found that the transportation consumes the largest energy (67 per cent); in particular, the airplane sector. The findings of the study revealed that the amount of solid waste discharge per tourist is 1.95 kg per day, while that of per local people is 1.18 kg. They also identified that a tourist consume 607 L of water and discharge waste-water of 416 L and 83.1 g of biological oxygen demand of waste water. In addition to that, they make use of 1606 MJ of energy and produce 109,034 g of CO2, 597 g of HC, 2660 g of CO, 70 g of NOx.

Horng et al. (2012) described that tourist and tourism operators are the major stakeholders for determining successful environmental management in the destination. Dalton et al. (2008) found that tourists desired to have environmental friendly
accommodation through the usage of renewable energy. In fact, the majority of tourists expressed willingness to pay extra amount between 1 per cent and 5 per cent for Renewable Energy Supply (RES) and to cooperate with the possible inconvenience of RES initiatives contrary to the perceptions of tourist operators. Mercado and Lassoie (2002) opine that tourist preference can oblige tourism managers in sustainable directions and needs the voluntary involvement of tourism firms on environmental impact assessment (Goodall, 1995).

Kasim (2009) pointed out that positive response to the role of environmental management in hotels doesn’t indicate their actual practices. It is found that hotels wish to be politically correct without having sufficient knowledge about it. Optimal usage of resources through best practices can’t be used in practice until and unless accommodation sector obtain quick profitable return through efficiency saving without compromising tourists satisfaction (O’Neill & Siegelbaum, 2002).

2.10 ECOLOGICAL FOOTPRINTS

Everybody from individual to a whole world consumes earth’s resources and their ecological impact depends upon the utilization of nature for their living. For achieving sustainable living, natural capital is essential (Pearce et al., 1989) and hence, it is necessary to quantify biologically productive areas to continuously supply people’s demand and absorb the waste generated by them. This is otherwise called as Ecological Footprints. It measures people’s demand on earth’s ecosystem.

According to Wackernagel et al. (1999), “the ecological footprint represents the critical natural capital requirements of a defined economy or population in terms of the corresponding biologically productive areas”. The ecological footprint of a region is calculated by keeping track of most of the resources people consume and waste generated by them. This is an attempt to convert these consumed resources and its waste into a
biologically productive area which ensures the balanced functions. This method has been accepted as an environmental indicator for sustainable tourism (Hunter & Shaw, 2007) and as a standard tool to estimate resource consumption and waste assimilation in terms of productive land (Wackernagel & Rees, 1996).

Hunter & Shaw (2007) gave an extensive review of the concept of Ecological Footprint (EF) using its usage in tourism research. They presented a simple methodology for estimating net tourism EF for international tourists with regard to their air travel. Gossling et al. (2002) estimated that 97.5 per cent of the footprint emitted by European tourists was resulted from air transportation. Cejas & Sanchez (2010) studied the energy consumption of tourist travel by road in Lanzorte to make the ecosystem evenly sustainable. The estimated EF values showed that the road transport will become the major component in the total EF of Island tourism due to its tourist’s excessive dependence of private transport for their mobility.

Patterson et al. (2007) applied ecological footprint accounting to benchmark the consumption and waste production of tourists and residents of Val di Merse, Italy to incorporate municipal plans accordingly. They estimated that the EF for tourist equivalent resident is 5.28 global hectares (gha) which is similar to the residents’ footprints of 5.47 gha and impact created by tourist arrival transport contributes 32.8 gha. It is 86 per cent of total tourism impact.

Gossling et al., (2002) estimated the ecological footprint of the leisure tourist using secondary data and found that an average tourist needs more than 1.8 ha of global average space for enjoying the existing resources and controlling the GHG emissions. However, the global per capita of biologically productive area is only 2 ha. Gossling et al., (2002) extrapolated the above footprint to one year and found that it requires more
than 65ha of world average space equivalent to 17-37 per cent of emissions generated by a citizen in the developed country in a year.

Sonak (2004) evaluated the environmental impacts of tourism practices at Bardez Taluka in Goa by estimating ecological footprints. The estimation of “Ecosystem support area required to earn Rs 1000 through tourism activities is 1.2ha”. Her findings showed that the destination faces considerable stress and becomes unsustainable while taking into account the ecological services essential for the host. Thus, her findings brought to light the demand of ecological capital in the coastal destination.

### 2.11 TOURISM CONFLICTS

An occurrence of immediate and overdevelopment of tourism in urban and rural regions in the third-world countries has instigated activism against tourism. Since 1980’s social impact of tourism and its conflict relationship with other stakeholders have been studied by various researchers (McKercher et al. 2005). Crystal (1989) studied the conflict between the habitants and immigrant business person for economic gains from tourism industry and the conflict due to limited resources between tourists and local people was investigated by Urbanowicz (1977). On the other hand, Lea (1993) stresses the need for the execution of responsible tourism practices.

Conflict arises when tourism development plans compromise the qualities of the destination and their attachment with it (Dredge, 2010). But the study on social conflict in tourism industry was not properly investigated with conflict resolution unlike other disciplines like sociology and philosophy (Yang et al., 2013). According to Mc Kercher et al., (2005) conflicts most probably happen when there is a mismatch of power between stakeholders in which one’s activity affects another’s enjoyment. He rightly pointed out that “successful conflict resolution involves the separation of values from personal interests”.

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Lea (1993) scrutinized the significance of anti-tourism activity in Goa. He stated that Jagrut Goencaranchi Fauz, (JGF) is one of the well documented and popular protesting events with wider audience to highlight the tourism and environmental ethics including prior social concerns. His findings revealed that the irresponsible tourism practices and tourist behaviour have direct impacts on the local people and the environment.

2.12 TOURISM POLICY & PLANNING

Tourism makes use of common pool resources (Briassoulis, 2002) and can’t function in isolation. Therefore, tourism planning requires complete understanding of interrelated difficulties within it by making active participation of all stakeholders and recognizing their shared values (Reed, 2000). Governance acts as a decisive force between heritage conservation and tourism development in heritage sites. Whittaker et al. (2004) argued that governance is essential for meeting the social targets with the mutually dependent stakeholders such as individuals, private and non-governmental organizations.

Garrod and Fyall (2000) suggest that heritage tourism requires a wider range of stakeholder’s participation in the decision-making process to avoid losing its heritage relevance and meaning. The major function of the government is to protect and enhance the people’s interest. However, it has been lost with the emergence of innovative policies and highly relied upon negotiation and collaboration (Arts and Van Tatenhove, 2004). While studying political economy of heritage sites, Wang & Bramwell (2012) mentioned that strong entrepreneurial behaviour and growth oriented approaches will cause threat to the conservation of heritage attractions, by identifying tourism development remained as the top priority despite the voices and beliefs of other actors.

In fact, Hall (2000) also pointed out that tourism development requires coordination between government and industry with the inclusion of wider section of
people in order to avoid tourism centric policy and to protect the environment. Matheison and Wall (1982) suggested that the key aim of tourism planning was to ensure that opportunities are available for tourists to gain enjoyable and satisfying experiences and at the same time to provide a means for improving the way of life for residents and of destination areas.

2.13 RELATED RESEARCHES ON STD IN DESTINATIONS

Most of the tourist sites were promoted and executed for further enhancement of plans without taking adequate considerations about its environmental and socio-cultural effects. This raises questions about the sustenance of a destination. García-Falcón et al. (1999) highlighted that the destination Gran Canaria in Spain has been developed based on the land use planning rather than the principles of sustainable development. They suggested that tourism actions must be practiced as per environmental law; thereby it curtails environmental pollution, directs waste generation in a cautious manner and preserves the flora and fauna by punishing the violators. They also insist upon the implementation of environmental impact assessment before developing a tourism product.

Mc Donald (2006) used complex systems perspective as a tool to understand the composite character of sustainable tourism development in Swan River. He recognized that sustainability and sustainable development are intrinsically linked to nature, humans and their values as a part of nature, not apart from nature. Therefore, tourism research should analyze both natural and social systems. In his research, he identified that stakeholder values and views of tourism industry makes the system dynamic and unpredictable over time which persuades the process of tourism management.

Prakobsiri (2007) stated that SD is the tool to improve the quality of life not by increasing materialistic behaviour rather preserving the environment and resources. He identified six components for STD such as resources, accessibility, amenities, safety,
carrying capacity and community participation of which amenities and community participation need improvements in Kwan Phayao Lake Rim Communities in Phayao Province, Thailand.

Schweinsberg (2009) pointed that sustainability of the destination requires following factors such as wider participation of all stakeholders, industry’s contribution to overall wellbeing of the people, maintaining community’s attachment about their living place and sense of pride on their culture and traditions, and by providing appropriate job opportunities.

Ricardo (2004) mentioned that tourism development is a system which integrates various elements such as conservation of biodiversity (marine, wildlife, livestock etc.) heritage and cultural identity, utilization of energy resources in air transport etc. The findings uncovered that Bazaruto Island in Inhambane, Mozambique is far away from attaining sustainability due to the fact that tourism development has not diminished the level of poverty among native islanders. Natives are confined from using the lands and resources which are being used from their ancestors. Indeed, tourism industry has offered jobs for only 18 per cent of indigenous people, not even two per cent in the Bazaruto Lodge and also denied from the share of its entry tax as a compensation for lost opportunities.

Scheyvens (2011) studied the challenges of sustainable development in tourism sector through understanding economic and socio-political dimensions. He advocated that tourism should be led by the government organization in which industrial bodies might propose and implement programmes for sustainable and socially responsible tourism. It should be ensured to have a strong and continuous relationship for further equitable developments in which interest of few should not super-cede the majority of people.
2.14 SUMMARY

This chapter gave an overview of history of tourism in the world and in India. It discussed the importance of sustainable tourism development in the destination and more specifically with cultural heritage and coastal tourism destinations. Further, it gave an idea about the association of tourism life cycle analysis with sustainable tourism principles. The major stakeholders of tourism industry such as tourist, local community or residents, and tourism service provider perceptions were studied from the literature and appropriate attributes were also identified. Moreover, the significance of ecological footprints of tourism and essentiality of implementing environmental impact assessment in the tourism destination for sustainable tourism were clearly defined. All these discussions evoked interest to study the prospects and challenges for sustainable tourism development in Mahabalipuram by analysing its impacts from residents to the maximum and tourists to some extent.