Chapter I
Introduction

1.1 Overview of the study

“Travel is more popular than ever, so why should destination managers worry?” This was the question that Stanley Plog asked while presenting a paper to Southern California in 1972, forty years ago. The answer, as was provided by Plog himself, is “because their location’s attractiveness may be spinning away even as they watch.” What Plog wanted to convey is that the tourism industry is self-destructive as “the seeds of the destination’s almost-inevitable decline are already sown in the midst of its success.” Hence “a number of tourist destinations have experienced a cycle of intense building activity and capital investment, witnessed a tourist boom, hit a heyday and then began to decline. To avoid eventual decline responsible planning and management are essential (Tewari, 1994).”

The eventual decline is the bitter truth of almost all the tourist destinations of the world. In fact, the more popular a destination the faster its sheen fades away, and the more fragile the ecosystem of a recreational area the greater it suffers from the unmanaged tourism development. When an area starts exploring and exploiting its natural or cultural endowments and opens its womb for the outside world little do the people realise that someday this very reason, that is attracting outsiders, may suffer and get degraded leaving them without any means of living. The stakeholders, who initially represent the local enthusiasts, change with time. As more benefits are expected to be derived from the tourists more and more involvement of external elements begins and the resident population gets marginalised. Bigger hotels, restaurants, service centres and other necessary demands of tourists are met by these rich outsiders. Such people have but little respect for the ecosystem and the environment and hence they exploit the resources as much as possible to get as many benefits in as little time as possible. In their endeavour to meet their greed they cut the very roots of the economy for the local residents who might have used their resources more judiciously and symbiotically.
Hence, the destination area may attract more number of tourists with time but ultimately it starts declining because of the inevitable degradation of the scenic resources, and reaches to the level where it is unsustainable for the whole community to benefit from the tourism activities. Local residents develop a sense of discontent towards the outer stakeholders and towards the tourists as well, who are enthusiastically welcomed initially. Thus a tourist spot passes through a cycle with distinct and successive stages of exploration, involvement, development, maturity and finally to decline. The types of tourists visiting the area also change with time. Poets, painters and adventurists prefer to visit undisturbed natural areas with minimum human involvement. As the people come to know about the attractive landscape of the destination through poems, paintings and travelogues, more and more outsiders begin visiting the area. Sensing the economic opportunity, the locals start providing the basic services like retails, transport, accommodation and other facilities. This further increases the visitor number and with increased economic opportunities external stakeholders get involved, first from the neighbouring areas and gradually the influence extends to far off places, especially towns and cities. The rich people from these urban areas invest the money in tourism sector. These new and external stakeholders provide the basic services like accommodation, transport, lodging and food, by building hotels, restaurants and opening travel agencies, tourist centres etc. Now the visitor type also changes and more luxury preferring tourists visit the destination. The local involvement slowly fades away. They get marginalised to informal sectors and are left with providing the lower services like coolies, small dhabas, road-side vendors, manual labourers, ponywallas, hawkers etc. The result is that local hosts turn hostile to the tourists and may oppose any further development of tourism. Host-visitor conflicts escalate. At this point even the attitude of the visitors towards the destination conservation, if any, diminishes. Similarly, the perception of the resident population towards the tourism development, towards tourists as well as towards the environment turns negative. The visitor pressure on the environment is multiplied with time and gradually the landscape resources are degraded and the negative impacts on the environment reach to the point when visitors find the destination unattractive and finally abandon it.
Nevertheless, if the corrective measures are taken in time the tourism potential of the destination can be rejuvenated, recovered and reinvented. Better would be if the destination is managed in a sustainable way so that the decline stage of tourism cycle is delayed or postponed permanently. For this, tourist activity has to be managed in conformity with the physical and social environment of the region. Recreation opportunities need to be provided to all potential visitors so that there is not too much pressure on only few locations. One of the best sustainable tourist activities is ‘eco-tourism’. It is one such activity which can improve both the economic status of the inhabitants and the quality of the environment on which it flourishes. Since its impacts on the environment are still debatable it is the best option as an economic activity in ecologically fragile environments.

1.2 Statement and significance of the problem

Since “tourism has always been a gold mine for Kashmir and has the potential to make Jammu and Kashmir the most prosperous state of India” (Kaul and Kachru, 1998), it is imperative to provide more attention to this sector of economy. Researches need to be carried out to help tap the full tourism potential of the region. Simultaneously, the tourism resources need to be preserved, conserved as well as protected from degradation and over-exploitation.

For meeting such goals it is necessary to know the current trend of tourism development. Since using and exploiting resources ultimately lead to their exhaustion/degradation, same happens with the landscape resources on which tourism development rests. The utilization of landscape resources for recreation purposes has been explained in a cyclic model by Butler, through his Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC) model in 1980. This model, using arrivals and infrastructure development as attributes, helps in understanding the stage of development of a particular tourist resort. This model is applied in the present research to know the phase of development, which the region is currently in, as knowing the health and status of a tourist resort or destination and the associated elements is indispensable for the sustainable tourism industry. Moreover, the type of tourists visiting a particular resort also changes with the change in the nature and the character of its environment.
Hence, the research assesses this aspect too. Further, it is also necessary to know the attitudes of tourists towards the areas they visit, towards the conservation of the environment they enjoy, and towards the local society they interact with. Similarly, bringing the perceptions of the local hosts and residents is also necessary to evaluate in order to know how much they are involved in the tourist development process and how much are they happy with the strangers who visit their land. Moreover, host-visitor interaction, which is a very healthy sign if it is positive, will be brought out. The research further tries to bring to the notice that it is not only the resort development that is necessary for the tourist satisfaction, but the tourism region in its entirety. In tourism development plans what is neglected is the traversed landscape that every visitor has to pass through while in the region. Developing this landscape, embedded in between two tourism resorts and a very important element of recreation satisfaction, will go a long way in making the industry sustainable. Therefore, the present research, which addresses a few problems of the tourism industry in Kashmir region, is significant in highlighting the current status of the tourism development which can help in giving directions for the further improvement of this sector in order to maintain the balance between economic benefits and the environment. Knowing the stage of development and the tourist types it becomes necessary to provide recreational opportunities for all potential visitors in order to attract as many tourist numbers as possible without the extra pressure on the smaller number of already known resorts. Hence Recreation Opportunity Spectrum is described and an attempt is made to delineate the region into such a spectrum in order to provide recreation opportunity to all age groups, economic classes, and the tourist types. Since Jammu and Kashmir is the only state, in India, without any tourism policy (Akmali, 2012) this research will help in providing a framework to build an environment-friendly tourism policy.

The research has a broader significance beyond Kashmir region. It is only the second work that tests the Butler’s TALC model in Indian conditions (first being of Kamat, 2010). It also contributes to Jammu and Kashmir Tourism and environmental studies and demonstrates the value of local involvement in sustainability research. This research also has a role in demonstrating the value of both qualitative research and of
presenting viewpoints of the local residents as well as the visitors towards the tourism development and tourism-environment relationship. Understanding the stakeholders’ views help us in understanding their involvement in sustainable tourism development and their will to preserve the environment.

Therefore, the study is important because: (1) first, it traces the evolution and development of tourism in Kashmir valley by applying a theoretical model, the Butler’s TALC model. (2) Two, this study addresses the applicability of Butler’s model in a conflict zone, for which literature is not available, thus adding to the literature repository. (3) Third, it will be the first of its kind in India to utilize ROS model to delineate a tourism region into different opportunity zones, thereby helping in the enhancement of the quality of experiences of the visitors vis-à-vis helping in conservation of the fragile ecosystem. (4) It also understands the tourists’ level of satisfaction with recreational experience and the perception of the host community, towards the tourism environment nexus in Himalayan conditions. Knowing the satisfaction level of the tourists and the attitudes of the locals, through this study, necessary change in the current direction can be brought.

1.3 Survey of related literature

Tourism as a sub-discipline has not yet got its due recognition in the field of geography. The situation of tourism geography is paradoxical as the researches on tourism by geographers is highly recognised and acknowledged but still the tourism geography as a sub-discipline is being neglected by geographers (Hall & Page, 2006). It lacks prestige, even though we know ‘the significance of tourism on landscape is obvious’ (Mitchell, 1979).

Based on the nature of this study and the sequence of chapters, the related literature survey has been divided into the following sub-headings:

1. Landscape resource
2. Evolution of tourism
3. Tourism-Environment relationship
4. Host-guest perceptions
1.3.1 Landscape resource

Natural resources include both tangible and intangible substances having a functional utility for man (Zimmermann, 1933). However, earlier only tangible substances like land, water, minerals and forests were considered to be useful for the development (Zlotin and Zusman, 2005). Nowadays, everything that acts as a means to an end falls under the category of resources. So, knowledge, peace, freedom, health, man-power are also resources as they are responsible for the exploitation of tangible resources (Otokiti, 2010). Landscape is an area of land containing a mosaic of patches or landscape elements (McGarigal, n.d.). It is also defined as a heterogeneous land area composed of a cluster of interacting ecosystems, spatially heterogeneous in at least one factor of interest (Forman and Godron, 1986; Turner et al, 2001). Landscape started to be treated as resource only later in the history of man. In fact, mining of coal or other minerals was done without any consideration of the defacing of landscapes or the scenery. But after the urbanisation spread the need for the recreation increased, as the so called “virgin” lands became scarce. Since high quality landscape, which mostly refers to the scenery (Johnston, et.al, 2000), doesn’t occur everywhere (Price, 1978) this started to be getting importance for both cultural and economic development (Hudson, 1986). Seeing the increasing importance of the landscapes many laws and plans came into being to preserve them. For example, the designation of 38 regions as Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty (AONB) in England under the 1949 National Parks Act had the primary aim of preserving and enhancing the beauty of these areas for recreation purpose (Anderson, 1990; Holdaway & Smart, 2001). An Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty (AONB) is “a precious landscape whose distinctive character and natural beauty are so outstanding that it is in the nation’s interest to safeguard them (NAAONB, 2003)

With urban areas associated with pollution and congestion the rural landscapes and attractive serene areas got the attention of urban dwellers and thus their holidays, picnics and excursions to such areas provided economic benefits to the rural people.
(Domon, 2011; Bhattarai, et al, 2005). But the tourism industry is very susceptible to the changes either in natural beauty (Simonic, 2003) or the political situation. In fact, Richter & Waugh (1986) gave more emphasis on political stability as a requirement for tourism development. With the overuse and overexploitation the very tourism resources may get degraded (Barker, 1982). Hence, regular evaluation of the quality of the landscape is necessary to preserve them (Zube, 1992), and, thus, National Parks may serve the purpose of saving the scenic beauty and making it available for the observers (Acar, et al, 2006; Burden, et.al, 2002).

People have different levels of preferences for different kinds of landscapes. It is seen that usually higher preference is ‘towards areas with higher water visible’ and landscape scenes with less water visible are less preferred. Moreover, higher preference is for complex than simplified scenes (Simonic, 2003). Daniel et.al, (1989) have found a nearly perfect linear relationship between scenic beauty and willingness to pay. Domon (2011) suggests transforming the ordinary landscapes marked by intensive agriculture or forest practices, into landscapes rich in amenities and visual qualities to ensure the maintenance of rural landscapes along with keeping them open to recreation activities. Protected areas serve various functions, like providing good opportunities for seeing scenic beauty (Acar, et al, 2006), help in preserving ecology and provide a source of income to the local people. Furthermore, evaluation of the quality of the environment is necessary for designing the landscapes in order to make them sustainable (Zube, 1992). In fact, scenic quality can be enhanced by the environmental, water and soil and vegetation conservation programs (1). The visual beauty of landscape, whether it is inherent or in the eye of the beholder? Is an argument continuing between the landscapes experts of objectivist and subjectivist paradigm (Lothian, 1999).

The perceived and visual landscape is appreciated by the visitors basically for the presence of four primary components in combinations or in isolation. These components include vegetation (Akbar et al., 2003), water, landform and Builtform (Hampe & Noe, 1979; Sezen and Yilmaz, 2010).

Price (1978) observed and reported that in addition to the visited landscapes or places,
the incidental experience of the landscapes passed through, i.e., ‘traversed landscapes’ also play a role in the overall experience of the travelers, despite the prime reason to scale the distance. This may be due to ‘visual occupancy’ (Shannon, et al, 1995) of the travelers on a journey. It is also noted as ‘tourist gaze’ in a tourist’s perspective, (Urry, 2002).

It has been suggested, that the concerns of the tourists and travelers would highlight the critical planning issues associated to the area of travel route and pave way for coordinated efforts between tourism Departments and other developmental authorities. (Lucas, 1992) formulated and gave six key principles in context with the ‘principles for tourism in (protected) landscapes’ as - 1.Conservation; 2.Enjoyment; 3.Rural; Economy; 4.Development; 5.Design and 6.Marketing. It is also observed that some of the roadways are periodically evaluated and nominated as scenic highways, byways, heritage trails and so on, considering the importance of tourist gaze (John Urry (2002) and travel glances (Larsen, 2001) on distinct landscapes along the road.

War or political instability has the highest impact on the international tourism (Sonmez, 1998). Bevan (2006) argues that war creates irreversible damage to the cultural and social memory as buildings are destroyed during the war and sometimes cultural heritage is deliberately destroyed as a strategy of war. War and violence is an important factor effecting the decision of tourists to select destinations and watching violent images on TV discourages most of the people from travelling (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998). It is noted that tourist destinations have frequently been used as soft targets by terrorists (Paraskevas & Arendell, 2008; Sadiq, 2006). Terrorism doesn’t affect the tourism only but also the associated economies, as is the case with Kashmir where terrorism had negative impact on the tourism industry as well as the affiliated sectors. Besides, terrorist activities lead to the ‘change to the image profile of the destinations’ (Arana & Leon, 2008). But it is important to mention here that with war or conflict going on at a particular destination, people don’t leave travelling at all but just look for other destinations and alternative resorts (Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2008). Nevertheless, it has also been seen that the ‘most experienced tourists downplay the threat of terrorism’ (Lepp & Gibson, 2003). Terrorist attacks or other conflicts lead to severe decline in ‘hotel occupancy and airline passenger loads’, as
has been seen in the aftermath of September 2001 attacks on America (Goodrich, 2002). But it takes time to regain the level of tourism in areas affected by terrorism even after taking necessary measures to bring the confidence of travelling community back (Putra and Hitchcock, 2006).

1.3.2 Evolution of tourism

Butler (1980) put forward the life cycle product model to understand the stages through which a tourist destination ideally goes through. Six stages completed the cycle: Exploration, Involvement, Development, Consolidation, Stagnation and finally Decline. After the stabilization/stagnation stage there are many possibilities for a destination ranging from rejuvenation to the total abandonment. Although this model has been most extensively used but its universal applicability is still doubted (Agarwal, 1997). She has further proposed for the re-evaluation of the post-stagnation phase, and also argued that restructuring of the resort may change the course of the cycle (Agarwal, 2002). Also Butler (2009) himself has argued that in many modern destinations instead of one single curve there may be ‘a series of cycles in different stages of development’. However, many studies have confirmed the applicability of the model (Formusa and Uysal, 1996; Meyer-Arendt, 1985; Wilkinson, 1987; Alvares and Lourenco, 2005), although there are many resorts where this model has not been found applicable in one way or the other (Baker, 1982; Weaver, 1990; Hovinen, 1981). The model has weaknesses in its application to colonial and post-colonial resorts (Douglas, 1997). Many resorts having long history of development seem to have passed through different consecutive life cycles related to different stages (Gary and Canoves, 2011). The model has been successfully applied to Zhangjiajie National Park of China by (Zhong et al, 2008). Even in some cases the tourism planning has ironically contributed to the resort’s decline as the marketing and promotion of other resorts in vicinity developed at the cost of other resorts (Chapman and Speake, 2011). Despite being a simple model the range of results are varied. Some resorts showing slow while other depicting very fast take off, some have a long run growth while others show early overshoot and decline (Cole, 2007). So this model needs additional understanding and analysis (Tooman, 1997).
This model has not been applied to Indian destinations except Kamat (2010) who used it to evaluate the performance of tourism industry in Goa and concluded that this destination has yet to reach the stagnation phase because of the change in the source regions which has also delayed the decline stage as well. But a proper planning and structuring is necessary to sustain the tourist arrivals in future.

Impact of terrorism on the life cycle of a destination has been addressed by Putra and Hitchcock (2006) by analysing the effect of Bali bombings on the tourism arrival to this island destination and relating it with the Butler’s TALC model. According to the study Bali has not yet reached the consolidation stage as is evident by the revival of the arrivals after the bombings. Scarpino (n.d.) has compared the life cycle model with the evolutionary nature of an organism, in which an organism evolves in different stages.

1.3.3 Tourism-environment relationship

As early as 1976, Budowski suggested that three different relationships exist between tourism and environmental conservation, viz. where environment and tourism can co-exist; where tourism and environment are in symbiosis and where tourism and environment are in conflict. These three relationships are the basis of all impact studies. Singh (1980) describes the gradual conquest of tourism into the Alpine Zones. He did not discourage tourism but ‘pleaded’ to safeguard the environment on which tourism depends. A pioneering effort regarding the impact of tourism on environment has been made by the Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development (1980). According to the study, construction activities and increased waste residuals are the twin factors associated with tourism that exert negative impact on the environment. Saxena and Verma (1981) evaluated resource use and economic planning in Dehradun district of then Uttar Pradesh while Barker (1982) considered the impact of mass tourism on Alps. They believe that tourism can bring economic progress but at the cost of wildlife. Jayal (1986) has assessed the impact of tourism on Nanda Devi Sanctuary and Darjeeling stressing that tourism has caused loss of vegetal cover. In an interesting study, Mader (1988) highlights that 59,000 acres of land are covered under ski slopes in Switzerland of which 90 per cent are destroyed with long
lasting effects. Similar views have been expressed by Dutta and Zutshi (1990). They opined that tourism is a hazard to ecology and culture of the Lidder Valley in Kashmir Himalaya. Pirazizi (1992) considers the demand for extensive infrastructure to promote tourism as major factor exerting negative impact on environment. He also questioned on the negative land uses operating around highly vulnerable environments. Tourist behaviour within a tourism destination also has its own impacts on environment, which was expressed first by Cohen in 1987.

The concept of carrying capacity has always been the topic of interest for resource geographers. Lucas (1964) provided the first empirical study on this topic through behavioral study of tourists using Boundary Water Canoe Area in Minnesota, USA. Burden and Randerson (1972) have studied ill effects of tourists on vegetation. Kaur (1980) has reevaluated tourist capacity of Nainital for diffusion of planned tourism. Cocossis and Parpairis (1992) provide a theoretical base as well as an operational framework in an effort to establish carrying capacity as a useful tool for tourism planning and management. Another recent and valuable addition to the concept of carrying capacity is the work done by Zurick (1993). Zurick has analysed adventure travel in Nepal and places it within the theoretical framework of tourism models and sustainable development.

1.3.4 Host-guest perceptions

For the successful and sustainable destination development tourist satisfaction is a necessary criterion because it influences the choice of destination, utilization of tourism products and services and, more importantly, the decision to revisit the destination. Destination attributes are critical to the overall satisfaction levels of tourists (Kozark & Rimmington, 2000). All the attributes are important as the consumer dissatisfaction with just one one of the attributes may lead to dissatisfaction with the overall experience of the destination (Pizam, 1978). Tourist satisfaction is crucial to the successful survival and operation of any tourist destination. Khaki and Sahaf (2011) have taken three attributes of tourist information, tourist infrastructure and tourist services and facilities to measure the tourist satisfaction level in Kashmir valley. According to them tourist satisfaction depends on the overall quality of these
three critical attributes at the destination and hence the quality of these attributes should either exceed or at least meet the expectations of the visiting tourists. They are of the opinion that customer satisfaction will help to make tourism industry a significant force for the overall economic development along with the socio-cultural and environmental preservation. Tourist satisfaction is important to successful destination marketing because it influences the choice of destination, the consumption of products and services and the decision to return (Kozak and Rimmington, 2000). Tourism products can be defined as a bundle of activities, services and benefits that compromise the whole tourism experience (Medlik and Middleton, 1973). According to McGrath (1999), a product can be any part of tourism industry like a destination, transportation, hotel, food and beverage, travel operator or an attraction of natural or man-made resources. These include destinations’ attractions, facilities, accessibility, images, services, hospitality and prices. In a simpler definition, Kotler (1984) described tourism product could be anything that can be offered to a market for attention, acquisition, use or consumption that might satisfy a want or need like physical objects, services, persons, places, organization and ideas. A biggest problem in managing the quality of tourism product is due to the fact that tourist destination includes a number of attributes. Therefore, “each attribute of destination is important as consumer dissatisfaction with one of its attribute will lead to dissatisfaction with overall destination (Pizam, 1978). Furthermore, Rust et.al., (1993) explained that relative importance of each attribute to overall impression should be investigated because dissatisfaction or satisfaction can be the result of evaluating various positive and negative experiences.

According to the authors Joshi and Pant (1990) environmental problems arise when tourism is developed without a proper planning; when tourism is allowes to grow uncontrollably. After the history and morphology of the region authors have dealt with the reasons for the sudden growth of tourism in Nainital. Haphazard and unplanned growth of infrastructure and other establishments have affected the environment and the civic amenities along with the socio-economic aspects. Development of tourism has increased the impact of subsidence and ground creep, pace of erosion processes, slope failures etc. Deterioration of sanitation facility has
led to increases incidence of diseases. Traffic congestion and shrinking of open spaces are other problems associated with the progress of tourism. Pouring of sanitation drains into the lakes is leading to the pollution of water that has a marked effect on the biological life there and the people who are dependent on that water for daily use. Gaughan et al (2008) linked the landcover change to the increase in tourists, especially the forest. Chen (2004) has taken Danayigu (the Shanmei Community) of Taiwan as a case study to bring out insights into the conflicts about the balance of economic interests and conservation programmes. According to him the increase in economic income and social equity makes residents to contribute more efforts towards conservation programmes and eco-tourism. He has further concluded that preservation of environment does not hinder the development of tourism and, in fact, eco-tourism can attract more tourists to the region. So, in his view the fragile ecosystems can be developed for tourism and at the same time their ecological balance could be maintained if indigenous people are made to participate and felt that natural resources are vital for their future life. Lamichhane and Singh (2002) have tried to examine the relation between the environmental protection and tourism sustainability, taking Pokhara (Nepal) as their study area. Moreover, the conservation and protection of sensitive environment has been related to the development of residential areas surrounding the tourist spot. According to them negative environmental impacts of tourism can be controlled by the coordination between the tourist areas and its adjoining residential space. To achieve these goals long term planning has to be done where the main aim should be to benefit “touristically, socially, economically and ecologically”. For prosperous tourism 'human habitat formation' and 'animal habitat conservation' have been considered important. In addition to all this they have advised to develop the road infrastructure and upgrade the vehicular traffic to minimize the environmental pollution. Thus, to sustain tourism in Pokhara region authors have emphasized on the overall planning of human habitations, animal habitats, environmental conservation and infrastructure upgradation.

Chaudhury (2004) has emphasized the dependence of tourism economy on the natural environment, Tourism carrying capacity, sustainable tourism development and
ecotourism should be the main aspects of the policy regarding the development of tourism. Overuse of tourism product by visiting more tourists than the carrying capacity 'defaces the visual qualities' of a tourism area and with time tourists may stop visiting the area. So a balance has to be maintained so that neither the physical environment is damaged nor the economic opportunities are diminished. Equity in the distribution of economic benefits and participation of indigenous communities are considered necessary for sustainable development of tourism. Further, highest priority has been given to the environment management for carrying out the sustainable eco-tourism. The author has considered Sikkim's late start of tourism as an advantage—because the present demand of tourists and the sensitization towards the conservation of environment and the experience of other states and countries gives the chance to the state to develop tourism rationally so as to have minimum effect on the physical environment.

1.3.5 Tourism sustainability

For tourism to be sustainable, a proper planning and management is a necessity. There are many models that are applied to a destination for the sustainable management of tourism resources and Recreation Opportunity Spectrum is one of them. A recreation opportunity has been defined by Clark & Stankey (1979) as “the combination of physical, biological, social, and managerial conditions that give value to a place. Thus, an opportunity includes qualities provided by nature (vegetation, landscape, topography, scenery), qualities associated with recreational use (levels and types of use), and conditions provided by management (developments, roads, regulations). By combining variations of these qualities and conditions, management can provide a variety of opportunities for recreation”.

ROS was established simultaneously by two groups of researchers: Clark and Stankey (1979) and Brown, Driver, and associates (Brown et al. 1978; Driver and Brown 1978). However, demand for diverse recreation opportunities has been there for a much longer time. As early as the 1930’s it was proposed that different kinds of forests be planned and managed for distinct recreation activities (Marshall 1933). It was also suggested that recreation opportunities should extend “from the flowerpot at
the window to the wilderness” (Wagar 1951). By the early 1960’s, a formal classification system for recreation managers began to take shape. A wildland planning handbook catalogued lands on a scale from “wilderness” to “semi-urban” (Carhart 1961) and the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission proposed a six-fold framework for public lands that ranged from primitive to high-density use areas. A spectrum of opportunities for campgrounds was suggested by Wagar (1966), for hunting (Potter et al. 1973), wildland areas (Marshall 1933; Lloyd & Fischer 1972; Driver & Brown, 1978), for parks, mountain climbing and for river running (Arighi & Arighi, 1974). Others who attempted the zoning of recreation areas include Brown et.al. (1978), Orams (1999), Brown (2003), Lynch and Nelson (1997), Butler and Waldbrook (2003), US Bureau of Reclamation (2004), Aukerman and Haas (2004), Roman et al. (2007), Flanagan and Anderson (2008). Recreation Opportunity Spectrum is the most widely used and highly advanced classification system.

The basic assumption underlying the ROS is that quality outdoor recreation is best assured through provision of a diverse set of opportunities (Clark & Stankey, 1979) as it would be difficult for a single recreation area, regardless of size, to provide a full spectrum of recreation opportunities (Pettengill and Manning, 2011). The development of the ROS has been caused by practical and concrete experiences of the problems that might occur in the planning and management together with the influence of collaborative planning. It provides a useful foundation for planning and managing natural resources for recreation and tourism (Kaltenborn & Emmelin; 1993; Shafer & Inglis, 2000). So the main purpose of ROS is to divide a region into geographical perceivable areas with various contents. Users with different interests and activities should therefore choose areas which they perceive satisfying (Manning, 1999).

The system appears to be suitable for a variety of environments, like forest, grassland, and desert landscapes and fits all topographic and land ownership conditions (Brown & Manfredo, 1982). Therefore, applications of ROS have been extended to broader outdoor recreation contexts. For instance, while ROS was originally applied to public parks and forests, it has also been expanded to other recreation-related fields. These areas of recreational interest include wilderness (Flanagan and Anderson 2008), ecotourism (Boyd and

Underlying ROS planning is the idea that quality recreation experiences are best assured by providing a diverse set of recreation opportunities (Clark & Stankey, 1979). Specifically, it means we might supply different opportunities for people to engage in specific recreation activities in specific recreation environments (or settings) to realise desired recreation experiences (Driver & Brown, 1978). Further, the assumption suggests that these different opportunities can be arrayed along a spectrum of opportunities that are defined by using activity, setting, and experience dimensions. Each type of opportunity is unique according to the activities, settings and experiences that define it.

The visitors need to know the available opportunities, and the opportunities must be comprised of conditions desired by recreationists (Clark & Stankey, 1979). “Managing opportunities for recreation to promote a diversity of experiences is crucial for social equity (Watt, 1972). Failing to provide diversity of opportunity invites charges of favouritism, elitism and discrimination (Clark & Stankey, 1979). Providing diversity of recreation opportunities is just a means to an end, while the ultimate objective of planning is to provide quality recreation, producing desired satisfactions and benefits for the visitors (Clark & Stankey, 1979). “The opportunity spectrum does not offer a prescribed formula for providing outdoor recreation opportunities. It does provide a systematic framework for looking at the actual distribution of opportunities and a logical procedure for assessing possible management action (Clark & Stankey, 1979). Further, it acts as a means of controlling conflicts (Clark & Stankey, 1979; Manning 1999; Stankey et al., 1999). In the ROS, the landscape is divided into factors which are considered to provide possibilities for different experiences.

The environmental conditions are the qualities of the physical landscape, the social
conditions how the landscape is used and managerial conditions are which measurements that are done in the area. Noteworthy, the total of the factors creates a *spectrum*. This spectrum contains different classes where the areas are zoned after primitive, semi-primitive, non-motorized, semi-primitive motorized, rustic, concentrated, and the modern urbanised (Manning, 1999). Users with different interests and activities should therefore choose areas which correspond to their preferences. He or she has to be well-informed and make a choice to achieve their experience goals. Also, management has to be part of a rational process to create concrete goals for various areas and have the means to fulfil the goals. When applying the ROS, one should be attentive that the environmental, social and managerial factors can be combined in different ways to generate recreation opportunities, as pointed out by Manning (1999).

However, how to implicate and use the ROS is not an obvious task. To use the framework correctly, Ankre and Emmelin (2006) hold the view that there have to be clear and described goals on what should be offered in the area and where, how and for whom. Even if relationships may be more complex than those in the setting classes and that user preferences may not overlay an environment in linear fashion, the concept of the ROS gives a useful foundation for planning and managing natural resources for recreation and tourism (Kaltenborn & Emmelin, 1993; Shafer & Inglis, 2000). The key limitation of the use of the ROS is the emphasis on the setting at the expense of the type of visitor, as claimed by Hall and Page (2006). Also the ROS has not been widely adopted by heritage managers in the late 1980s and early 1990s (Hall & Page, 2006). Earlier there have been no participation from a local level and the ROS has been directed by experts and professionals. Stankey et al. (1999) argue that if the ROS is executed primarily as expert-based it will be difficult to implement it where there are conflicts over goals and disagreements of cause-effect relationships. The ROS has in this manner developed to become a more modern planning framework to admit the legitimacy of different groups’ values and interest in an area, - to admit that other knowledge than the scientific is necessary, - to give scientific knowledge as information to stakeholders rather than only being the base for decision-making, - to have active involvement and learning among the stakeholders.
1.3.6 Literature related to the study area

As Dutta (1989) mentions “the slender collection of literature on the Indian tourist industry becomes even more anaemic in the context of Kashmir area even though, tourism was not unknown in Kashmir valley prior to independence.” The availability of literature of tourism in Kashmir, which has been considered as having “guide book approach” by Dutta, still holds true, even after more than two decades, since her research work. Most of these travelogues were written by Europeans who traversed the length and breadth of the region before penning down their observations and experiences. Bernier (1671), the French physician was the first European to record his account of experiences in Kashmir region (Dutta, 1989).

The most important work consulted for this study has been the unpublished PhD thesis of Dutta (1989). The year 1989 signifies the new commencement of the new era in the history of Kashmir – the period of great turmoil. So the work by Dutta has been a good source for the comparative study of the tourism before and after conflict. The relevant literature pertaining to the present study also include a survey conducted by the Indian Institute of Public Opinion (1970-71) regarding the domestic and foreign tourist arrivals to the region. Another survey, which was restricted to foreign tourists was conducted by Commonwealth Fund for Technical Co-operation in 1978. The report makes a comparison of other tourist spots in the country as potential threats to Kashmir. According to the report by Tata Economic Consultancy Services (1982) the major domestic markets to the region are Maharashtra, West Bengal and Delhi, whereas, Western Europe and North America are the major markets of foreign origin. According to Dutta (1989) the suggestions provided by this report can be very useful in beautifying the Kashmir region, but simultaneously questions the overall benefit of such suggestions to the local residents. Another study conducted by J&K Industrial and Technical Consultancy Organisation (ITCO) Limited (1987-88) suggested that the three main resorts of Gulmarg, Pahalgam and Sonamarg should be developed as the important nodes (Dutta, 1989). Sanket Consultants Private Limited (2002) prepared the report for Ministry of Tourism, Govt. of India; providing plan for sustainable tourism development in Jammu and Kashmir. For the recent literature an unpublished report by Yousuf et al (2011), prepared for the Pahalgam Development
Authority for Environmental Impact Assessment of Greater Pahalgam, was consulted. The most recent report of IL&FS Infrastructure (2012), again prepared for the Ministry of Tourism, Govt. of India, has attempted to classify the tourist products available in the state into different tourist nodes. Naik (2008) attempted to categorise the Kashmir valley into tourism zones based on the ecological sensitivity, while Bhat (1992) has analysed the environmental impact of tourism in Kashmir valley. Shah (2007) has dealt with the spatial and temporal aspects of tourism volume in Kashmir valley.

Apart from the reports many books and articles were consulted. Ahmad and Bano (1984) gave an illustration of the lakes, springs, meadows, mountains and gardens of Kashmir region. Lakes play an important role in increasing the economic status of the Kashmir region, as they form an important part of the tourism product (Sarah et al, 2011). Khaki and Sahaf (2011) have taken three attributes of tourist information, tourist infrastructure and tourist services and facilities to measure the tourist satisfaction level in Kashmir valley. Other works relevant for this study and consulted for different purposes include Bakshi (1996), Parashar (2004), Sharma and Bakshi (1995), Banerjee and Chandran (2005), Aima et al. (2012), Husain (2006), Basu & Raina (1968). This national park is popular among tourists because it is easily accessible from Srinagar and attracts tourists due to the presence of biological and geological recreational resources (Bhatnagar, 2002). It is the only habitat of Kashmir stag in the world. But this habitat is threatened by livestock grazing, illegal timber and fuelwood collection (Grueisen, 1989). Soundrarajan and Rajan (2006) have dealt with the issue of terrorism in Kashmir and its implication on the tourism industry. Present status of militancy and its historical background is mentioned, followed by the systematic study of terrorist incidents further supplemented by the case studies of militancy in tourist spots has been elaborately discussed. Schaffer (2005) has reported that tourism in Kashmir has recovered to about one third of its pre-1989 level. Instead of having a great potential tourism is underdeveloped, and pollution of the water resources is going to have an impact on both agriculture and tourism. The environmental problems of tourism development have also been analysed by Jehangir et al. (2011), taking air quality as an attribute, and Sonamarg as the study area. The
study has found that during the peak tourist activity there is high concentration of pollutants, as compared to the lean season. Lala and Bhat (2008) has considered adventure tourism as the fast growing segment of Kashmir and suggested that the due attention is needed for developing this sector. The safety and security perceptions of the tourists visiting Kashmir has been analysed by Chauhan (2007). Considering the safety and security as one of the five global forces driving tourism industry, the author has concluded that the this aspect is a pre-requisite for an ideal destination image and Kashmir, as such needs proper strategies to minimise the negativity of the decades long conflict. However, Mahapatra and Shekhawat (2008) have argument that the development activities can be carried out even during the conflict times, which will help in subsiding the conflict gradually. Considering the diversion of tourists to other destinations during the conflict era as an important aspect of the Kashmir tourism, the authors have remarked that the tourism development is necessary for alleviating the poverty of the region.

Mandal (1989) has given a special emphasis on the ecology of Jammu and Kashmir. Tourism in Jammu and Kashmir is considered as a 'nature bound cultural activity'. The analysis has reached to the conclusion that the Himalayan ecology is extremely sensitive and hence any slightest disturbance can be disastrous. Agreeing with the view that the tourist traffic to the state has already a devastating effect on the ecology of the Himalayas there he has advised to 'promote quality tourism rather than mass tourism'.

The impact of tourism activity on air pollution was studied by Jehangir et. al. (2011). Sonmarg, one of the very famous valleys of Kashmir located along the route to Amarnath Cave was taken as the study area and it was concluded that the tourist inflow is the main cause of the air pollution in Sonmarg valley. Vehicular traffic leads to the increase in dust particles, suspended particulate matter (SPM), nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), sulphur dioxide (SO₂). Burning of fuel wood by tourists also contributes to the air pollution. The study was conducted over a period of six months (July – December) in 2009. These are the only months when Sonmarg remains open to tourist traffic. Peak tourist flow occurs from June to September as it is one of the base camps for the annual Hindu pilgrimage to Amarnath holy cave. Three stations have been choosen
which differ in terms of tourist inflow, transportation, nearness to road and residential and commercial activity. Concentrations of pollutants has been found highest in summer months corresponding with the peak tourist activity and higher vehicular density while in December the concentration was the least. December is the month of least tourist activity as the Srinagar-Leh National Highway gets closed and the snowfall washes out the pollutants. However it is not the tourists only but the local population and military camps also which add to the air pollution due to burning of fuel wood. This is obvious from the higher concentration of pollutants in the month of October, when tourist activity is less. Out of the three sites studied the Thajwas site has the lowest concentration of air pollutants because of its location inside the Thajwas Wildlife Sanctuary, which has a restricted vehicular movement, least tourist activity and presence of dense forest cover. However, the levels of \( \text{NO}_2 \) and \( \text{SO}_2 \) were found to be lower at all the three sites than the permissible levels on hourly as well as 24 hourly limits set by USEPA guidelines and by NAAQS for sensitive areas respectively.

Khaki and Sahaf (2011) have dealt with the issue of tourist satisfaction of different tourism products offered by Kashmir division of Jammu and Kashmir. According to them the tourist satisfaction depends on the overall quality of the three critical attributes of information, infrastructure and services and facilities. The data had been collected from Srinagar, Gulmarg, Pahalgam and Sonamarg by stratified sampling. Scores have been calculated and different test performed to reach to the conclusion that the overall satisfaction level of tourists visiting Kashmir is below the average although some of the basic components of information, infrastructure and services have been fairly satisfying. Recruitment of the non-professional staff by the tourism establishments is believed to be one of the reasons. Huge gap is also found between the satisfaction levels of domestic and foreign tourists, with foreigners more dissatisfied with the tourism industry than their domestic counterparts.

The travelogues are full with the appreciation of the beautiful landscape of Kashmir region, both natural and cultural. Valleys, mountains, rivers, lakes, springs, climate, monuments etc. all have been depicted in these travelogues as beautifully as they are. Landscape of Kashmir is compared with Switzerland (Adair, 1899; Bruce, 1911),
England (Adams, 1867), Jerusalem (Aynsley, 1879), Venice, Surrey and Berkshire (Bruce, 1911), Spain and Andorra; Oxford and Henley (O’Connor, 1920). The Jhelum and the Kishenganga were compared with the Soane and the Rhone of Europe by Brue (1911). Bernier was reminded of the mountains of Auvergne while at one place called Domel in Kashmir. Bruce (1911) says he was “reminded of a broad reach of the Thames with bits of Switzerland thrown in”. Lolab valley was compared with the camping grounds of Surrey and hills of Berkshire (Bruce, 1911)

1.4 Research questions

Several questions concern me about the current tourism developments in different resorts individually and Kashmir valley as a whole as one tourism destination within the broad nomenclature of Kashmir region. These are guiding questions and their treatment is implicit in the contents of chapter three to seven. Since the tourism industry has been brought to a standstill due the political and social unrest that started in 1989, it is imperative to examine the current level of tourist flow to the region and the possible future trends. How has the unrest affected the tourism development in the region and at what stage of tourism development does the valley stand? How is the environment responding to the current developments and what recreation opportunities are available for the tourists? What types of tourists are coming to visit the valley and what are their attitudes towards the tourism development and the environmental conservation in the region? How does the local community perceive the tourism development and how do they interact with the visitors? And finally, how can the tourism industry be developed so that it is sustainable?

These questions are explored through five major themes. The first theme is the Landscape Resources. Landscape components, both physical and cultural, have been taken into account. Primary and secondary landscape components of the Kashmir region have been described and perceptions of the landscape users analysed. Further, the traversed landscape has also been dealt with to get answers to some of the questions related to the landscape of the Kashmir region. How important is the natural landscape for the economic status of the local residents? How do the visitors perceive the landscape and the traversed landscape?
The second is *Destination Life Cycle*. Using Butler’s Tourism Area Life Cycle model, evolution of the tourism and development through time is addressed. The concept is applied to the Kashmir region as a whole as one single destination as well as to the different resorts lying scattered throughout the length and breadth of the region. The impact of armed conflict on the cycle is analysed. How armed conflict can have an impact on the tourism development? Is it feasible to develop tourism while militancy is still going on?

The third theme embraces three components: *tourist types*, evaluating the types of tourists that visit the destination; *SWOT Analysis*, dealing with the strengths and opportunities, and weaknesses and threats to the tourism industry of Kashmir region; and *carrying capacity*, which involves the evaluation of the current tourism resources and their utilization. In investigating the second theme, Plog’s classification of tourists is employed and based on the questions asked to a sample of tourists the visitors are categorised into the respective tourist class. Moreover, the carrying capacity concept has been used to examine the current relation between the tourist demand and the development. Can the environment and the fragile ecosystems be saved even after the development of tourism industry?

The fourth theme has two components: *tourist attitudes*, towards the tourism-environment relationship and *host perceptions*, towards tourism development and visitors. Questionnaire has been set in such a way so as to get an insight of the attitude of visitors towards the tourism development, satisfaction level and environmental conservation. Moreover the host attitude towards the tourism development, their acceptance of the strangers in their areas, benefits they get from the tourism development and finally their perception towards tourism-environment relationship is attempted to understand. In investigating this theme the effects of tourism development on the natural and social values has been examined. What are the tourist attitudes towards tourism in Kashmir? Does tourism development conflict with environmental management objectives? How do the local communities perceive tourism and the environment relationship? How can environment be conserved in a better way? Does the influx of tourists and new residents (and associated developments) affect social values pertaining to the case resorts, and if so, how?
The fifth theme pertains to the sustainability of tourism in the region. It is significant as the region is set in such environmental and ecological settings that if the development is not environmentally sensitive it can lead to the degradation and eventually the abandonment of the destination by the visitors. How can the satisfaction level of tourists be enhanced without putting further pressure on the ecosystem of the area? Is a model possible to be applied to all the tourism spots of Kashmir region for sustainable development?

All these problems can be solved to a greater extent if a model is applied for developing the destinations in harmony with nature. New destinations need to be popularised which may help in the distribution of tourists to the whole valley thereby homogenising the benefits of tourism economy. So the benefits of tourism can be more or less distributed equally amongst the different sections of population. Regarding the impact on environment, tourism can never be 100 per cent environment friendly. Even after the utmost care and planning there always will be negative repercussions on the environment but these impacts can be minimised by regionalisation of tourism, taken into consideration the carrying capacity of each zone. Recreation Opportunity Spectrum (ROS) is one such model that helps in planning and management of tourism resources by delineating the whole destination area into a spectrum of opportunities. Different zones can be developed as different Recreation Opportunities (ROs) regions catering to the needs of different sections of visitors so as to minimise the environmental impacts when tourists get dispersed, instead of concentration at a few locations, the impacts on social life of the native population can be minimised.

1.5 Conceptual framework

This work is based on six interrelated concepts, viz. the Tourism Life Cycle concept of Butler, concept of carrying capacity, SWOT Analysis, perception and attitudes of the stakeholders and the visitors and the concept of regionalization in terms of Recreational Opportunity Spectrum concept.

The first component traces the evolution and development of tourism through different stages as proposed by Butler in 1980. According to the TALC model a
tourism destination goes through a sequence of six stages. The first stage is the ‘exploration’ where a place is found to have some natural scenic beauty that attracts a small section of population. With the passage of time the number of visitors increases and assumes some regularity and some local residents will enter the ‘involvement’ stage and begin to provide facilities primarily or even exclusively for visitors. The ‘development’ stage reflects a well-defined tourist market area, shaped in part by heavy advertising in tourist-generating areas. As the ‘consolidation’ stage is entered the rate of increase in numbers of visitors will decline, although total numbers will still increase, and total visitor numbers exceed the number of permanent residents. As the area enters the stagnation stage the peak numbers of visitors will have been reached. In the decline stage the area will not be able to compete with newer attractions and so will face a declining market, both spatially and numerically. On the other hand rejuvenation may occur, although it is almost certain that this stage will never be reached without a complete change in the attractions on which tourism is based.

The concept of carrying capacity is closely related with the stages of life cycle. Stagnation occurs when the capacity is exceeded. In the stagnation stage of TALC capacity levels for many variables will have been reached or exceeded. Overall sustainable development of tourism and its success not only depends on the attitudes of the visitors towards the tourism region but also the perception of locals and other stakeholders towards the overall tourism development. Tourism planning cannot be successful without the participation of the residential population and the stakeholders. In the involvement stage of TALC model residents begin to provide facilities primarily or exclusively for visitors while local involvement and control of development will decline rapidly in developmental stage.

Finally it is necessary to develop tourism in conformity with the environment it thrives on. In fragile ecosystems like Kashmir valley it is very necessary to preserve the ecology while developing any economic activity especially tourism which thrives and sustains on the quality of environment only. Therefore, Recreation Opportunity Spectrum concept can be used to rejuvenate the sick tourism by providing diverse recreating opportunities to the visitors.
1.6 Objectives

This study mainly focuses on building an appropriate model for sustainable tourism development in Kashmir Valley. Keeping this in mind the following objectives have been set forth:

1. To appreciate and analyse the landscape resource endowment of Kashmir.
2. To trace the evolution, growth, pattern and trends of tourism vis-à-vis conflict.
3. To examine the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats to tourism.
4. To investigate the attitudes and perceptions of residents and visitors towards tourism-environment relationship.
5. To develop a model for sustainable tourism.

1.7 Research methodology

1.7.1 Database

Both primary and secondary sources of data have been used for this study. Various secondary sources of data have been used while writing this work. Ancient travelogues have been extensively used to know about tourist arrivals and infrastructure available during earlier period of tourism growth in the region. For the data on tourist arrivals various sources were consulted ranging from government reports to books and articles. Secondary sources regarding the number of tourists and tourism receipts were obtained from the Ministry of Tourism, Jammu and Kashmir. J&K Tourism Development Corporation (JKTDC) was accessed to get the data regarding the hotel and other facilities to tourists in different regions. Data was also collected from various Tourism Development Authorities responsible for collecting and managing the visitor data at different tourist resorts.

1.7.1.1 Primary data sources

Primary data was collected through pre-tested, self-administered questionnaire and personal interviews of the local population, and tourists visiting the region. Since
tourism as an industry is an amalgamation of a number of other industries viz. transport, hotel etc. The composition of stakeholders associated with it vary. From locals, who may be providing snacks or beverages, to those who own big hotels and transport companies are all the stakeholders. Moreover, Kashmir being an amalgamation of a number of small and big tourist spots, it was a real challenge to develop a good sampling design so to encompass as respondents from as many resorts as possible and include choose a sample which can be representative of the whole region.

1.7.1.2 Sampling design

The sample units, thus, include tourists (local, domestic and foreign) and locals residing in and around the tourist locations, and the officials associated with the tourism industry, environment and planning. So the questionnaire was divided into two sets, each for tourists and locals. Apart from the structured questionnaires detailed interviews of officials were conducted through long interactions and the conversation was recorded. The questionnaire was first checked through the pilot survey and refined after analysing the responses of the subjects.

Respondents were chosen from Gulmarg, Srinagar, Pahalgam, Wular and Aharbal and Achhabal, Kokernag and Verinag. Gulmarg, Srinagar and Pahalgam were chosen because these are the most developed spots and attract all tourists – foreign, domestic and local alike. Aharbal and Wular are chosen because of their very high potential for development but very little attention is paid to them. The circuit of Achhabal-Kokernag-Verinag is very popular amongst the locals only. The sampled respondents were, therefore, chosen in such a manner so as to cover all the three seasons in a tourist year and have a representation from all the major tourist resorts in the valley. Samples were chosen using stratified purposive sampling technique and stratified on the place of origin, age and gender, during the survey phases. The survey was conducted over a period of three years from, 2009 to 2011.

1.7.1.3 Data collection

The primary data used in this research was collected in different phases apart from the
pilot survey. During the first phase in summer of 2009 information was collected about the pilgrims who visit Amarnath cave during the two months of May and June. Second phase was during the summer and winter months of 2010 to cover the tourists who visit the region during these two seasons. Moreover, during the lean phase of tourism, data regarding the local residents was collected. Third phase included the summer of 2011. Most of the data about the tourists and residents was collected during this phase (Table 1.1).

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<th>Survey phase</th>
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### 1.7.1.4 Questionnaire

For the collection of the primary data, two comprehensive questionnaires were drafted with utmost care keeping in mind the aims and objectives of the study. The questionnaire for tourists (Appendix C) comprised 23 questions contained mainly close-ended questions. Similarly, the questionnaire for local residents (Appendix D) comprised 21 questions, mostly close-ended questions. Questionnaire was handed over to the subject and asked to fill it up. The respondents were assisted in understanding the questions if any confusion arose. Moreover, the illiterate respondents, who were not able to read and write, were asked the questions in their native languages – Kashmiri for the locals and Hindi or Urdu for the outsiders. Apart from the questionnaire respondents were interviewed and the interviews recorded.

### 1.7.1.5 Problems faced during the survey

Apart from the problems that a researcher normally faces while conducting field survey, the data collection for this study was more troublesome. In 2009 when first attempt was made to collect the data the study area was gripped in violent activities
over the Amarnath Land Row\textsuperscript{1}. During the three months that were spent in the study area, the researcher was hardly able to collect just a few dozen samples. Same situation was prevalent in 2010 over the infamous Shopian rape case\textsuperscript{2}. However, I managed to interview the pilgrims to Amarnath Cave because this pilgrimage has a high security cover. However, there were hardly any tourists to be consulted. It was finally in 2011 that I collected my data because the situation was calm and hence the valley was flooded by tourists, both domestic and foreign.

1.7.2 Overview of research methodology

Here only an overview of the methodology is given and the detailed description is provided in respective chapters. The study is based on multiple measurement technique. The study has combined field studies, personal observation, experimentation, visitor survey and stakeholder survey with vital secondary statistical information obtained from different government and other sources.

The approach for investigation has remained general to specific, i.e first, the general objectives of the study concerning evolution and distribution of tourists in Kashmir valley are investigated and then the approach becomes specific, i.e. the study orients towards understanding the specific issues related with the impact of tourism development on environment society and economy, status of carrying capacity in different tourist resorts and provision of recreation opportunities and perception of stakeholders.

The main objective of the survey was to find out the perception and attitudes of residents and tourists towards the tourism-environment relationship. Tourists’ level of satisfaction with recreational experience was brought out. The variables on which information were obtained from tourists about recreational experience relate to motivational factors for visiting the valley, impact of crowding of tourists and tourist vehicles on the recreational experience, satisfaction with quality of tourist amenities,

\textsuperscript{1} Amarnath Land Row was the public uprising against the allocation of forested land to Shri Amarnath Shrine Board.

\textsuperscript{2} Shopian Rape Case was again public outcry against the rape and murder of two women in Shopian district of South Kashmir.
tourist attractions and state of fauna and recreational activities performed by tourists in the valley. Using SPSS, appropriate statistical analyses like frequencies, descriptives, correlation analysis and analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used according to the respective objectives and descriptors. Moreover, statistical diagrams were constructed using excel in MS Office. Maps were constructed using GIS.

1.8 Organisation of the thesis

This research explores the various aspects of tourism development in the region of Kashmir. Chapter one introduces the topic and the logic behind choosing this area for research. Apart from presenting the aims and objectives of the study it explains the data sources and the techniques to analyse the data. Relevance of the study in the academic field as well as for practical purposes has been explicitly demonstrated. Moreover, overview of methodology is also given. Chapter two tries to present the physical and social character of the study area. Through this chapter historical background, geographical landscape and political/administrative delineation has been attempted to bring out. Moreover, it peeps into the literature at disposal, and tries to link the current work with the already available research in different parts of the world having similar conditions as that of Kashmir. This literature has been reviewed thoroughly and logically presented. The current research has tried to bridge a small gap within that broad literature base. Chapter three traces the recreation landscape of the destination. Physical, scenic, archaeological, historical and other tourism resources have been explained in detail. Chapter four analyses the evolution and trends of tourism development in the Kashmir region using Butler’s hypothetical Tourism Area Life Cycle model. Based on this model the current status of the tourism development in Kashmir valley has been analysed and impact of the armed conflict on the tourism life cycle has been emphasised. Chapter five helps in understanding the types of tourists to the valley and their demands, using Plog’s classification of travellers. Availability of tourist circuits and nodes have been systematically described. After analysing the carrying capacity of different resorts and the valley as a whole tourist movement within the valley has been assessed and its likely implications discussed. Chapter six uses different statistical techniques to understand the relation between the tourism development and the perception of the local
residents. The attitude of these visitors towards the tourism development and their sensitivity towards the environmental conservation is assessed. The tourist-host interaction has also been analysed. In *Chapter seven* the emphasis has been given on developing a suitable model for sustainable tourism. Recreation Opportunity Spectrum (ROS) has been used to meet this aim. Therefore, the area has also been delineated into the regions with different Recreation Opportunities, to provide choice for all potential tourists visiting the destination. The summary of conclusions of the study is provided in *Chapter eight*. 