CHAPTER-2

LITERATURE REVIEW
CHAPTER: 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

With the review of available literature, which is relevant to the study topic chapter two starts with the views and approaches expressed by various scholars in the field of heritage tourism, heritage conservation and provide knowledge on the subject. This chapter explore the notion of heritage and a relational ship of culture and heritage. Chapter further establish to whom should we call a cultural tourist, differentiate between tourism determinants and motivators. It further progress with the discussion on cultural heritage attraction attributes. The various studies cited in this review have been broadly divided into international, national and regional context. These studies helped to understand the emerging relationship between attraction attributes and satisfaction of tourist and stakeholders. Chapter ends with the expectation disconfirmation framework, identified research gap and emerging research issues.

2.2 THE NOTION OF HERITAGE

Heritage is a term that is quite often used to describe a set of values, or principles, which relate to the past. Most of the scholars and practitioners have defined heritage in their own way with a strong basis of inheritance. Most people will have an idea of what heritage ‘is’, and what kinds of thing could be described using the term heritage. For example, Hewison (1987a) states that heritage is derived from past images of history transmitted into current reality. For many people, the word ‘heritage’ is probably synonymous with ‘history’. However, historians have criticised the numerous instances of recreation of the past in the image of the present which occur in museums, historic houses and heritage sites throughout the world, and have sought to distance themselves from what they might characterise as ‘bad’ history. Heritage is not history at all: ‘it is not an inquiry into the past, but a celebration of it’ and is a profession of faith in a past tailored to present-day purposes’ (Lowenthal, 1998). According to Prentice (1993) “heritage” not only symbolizes landscapes, natural history, buildings, artifacts, cultural traditions and the like that are literally or metaphorically passed on from one generation to the other, but those among these which can be promoted as tourism products. He further added that heritage sites should be differentiated in terms of built, natural, and cultural heritage. Timothy and Boyd (2003) have defined heritage as something that presents some sorts of inheritance
passed down to present and future generations. However, broadly heritage can be divided into cultural and natural elements (Lowenthal, 2005). Harrison (2010) argued that heritage should be seen as different from the pursuit of history, as it is concerned with the re-packaging of the past for some purpose in the present. These purposes may be nationalistic ones, or may operate at the local level (Harrison, 2010). The concept of "heritage" also provides one of the central characteristics of the phrase which determine its legal significance. It would include such elements as the "material culture, ritual culture, symbolic culture" and even "language-as-culture, values, beliefs", while, in some circumstances, "ideas ideologies, [and] meanings" might also be included (Blake, 2002). As suggested by Black, clearly a useful definition of cultural heritage for the purposes of this study cannot include "everything in society". Rather, our understanding of the term will be gained by understanding the relationship between cultural heritage and culture itself. It is the symbolic relationship of the cultural heritage to culture in its widest sense (culture-as-society) which is central to understanding the nature of cultural heritage (Clark, 2013).

2.2.1 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CULTURE AND HERITAGE

The term culture is more complex than tourism which is reflected from multiple existing definitions. The UNESCO World Commission on Culture and Development report- Our Creative Diversity (1996) looks at culture as “ways of living together.” The definition of culture indicated by World Bank treat culture as, ‘the whole complex of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features that characterize a society or social group’. It does not only includes arts and letters, but also modes of life, the fundamental rights of the human being, value systems, traditions, and beliefs. According to Cambridge English Dictionary, culture is, "the way of life, especially the general customs and beliefs, of a particular group of people at a particular time." The United States, Centre for Advance Research on Language Acquisition (CLARA), defines culture as shared patterns of behaviours and interactions, cognitive constructs and understanding that are learned by socialization. Thus, it can be seen as the growth of a group identity fostered by social patterns unique to the group.

A major difficulty lies with the identification of "culture" and what constitutes it (Blake, 2000) and if we look at the definition of "culture" given by various anthropologist the complexity of the question becomes clear: “it is a totalizing concept because everything becomes, or is considered, culture (p. 67). There are material culture, ritual culture,
symbolic culture, social institutions, patterned behaviour, language-as-culture, values, beliefs, ideas ideologies, meanings and so forth (Sider, 2003). In 2002 during the United Nations Year for Cultural Heritage, UNESCO produced a list of ‘types’ of cultural heritage (Blake, 2002.). This is one way of dividing and categorizing the many types of object, place and practice to which people attribute heritage value. It should not be considered an exhaustive list, but it gives a sense of the diversity of ‘things’ that might be considered to be official heritage:

- cultural heritage sites (including archaeological sites, ruins, historic buildings)
- historic cities (urban landscapes and their constituent parts as well as ruined cities)
- cultural landscapes (including parks, gardens and other ‘modified’ landscapes such as pastoral lands and farms)
- natural sacred sites (places that people revere or hold important but that have no evidence of human modification, for example sacred mountains)
- underwater cultural heritage (for example shipwrecks)
- museums (including cultural museums, art galleries and house museums)
- movable cultural heritage (objects as diverse as paintings, tractors, stone tools and cameras this category covers any form of object that is movable and that is outside of an archaeological context)
- handicrafts
- documentary and digital heritage (the archives and objects deposited in libraries, including digital archives)
- cinematographic heritage (movies and the ideas they convey)
- oral traditions (stories, histories and traditions that are not written but passed from generation to generation)
- languages
- festive events (festivals and carnivals and the traditions they embody)
- rites and beliefs (rituals, traditions and religious beliefs)
- music and song
- the performing arts (theatre, drama, dance and music)
- traditional medicine
- literature
- culinary traditions
- traditional sports and games
Culture is a major factor in the attractiveness of most destinations, not only in terms of tourism, but also in attracting residents and inward investment (OECD 2009 p. 19). The cultural heritage concept can be better understood after reviewing the definitions conceptualised by different researchers as shown in Table 2.2.1.

Table 2.2.1 Definitions of cultural heritage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Conceptualization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Hewison, 1987, p.144)</td>
<td>Cultural heritage is bogus history and many of its products are fantasies of a world that never was.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Bowes, 1989, p.36)</td>
<td>Cultural heritage must be broadly defined to encompass not only major sites and institutions, but the entire landscape of the region with its geographic base: farms and field patterns, roads harbors, industrial structures, villages and main streets, commercial establishment and of course, the people themselves and their traditions and activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Ashworth &amp; Tunbridge, 1990, p. 6)</td>
<td>Cultural heritage is what contemporary society chooses to inherit and to pass on.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Johnson &amp; Thomas, 1995, p. 170)</td>
<td>Anything by which some kind of link, however tenuous or false may be forged with the past.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Prentice, 1993 pp.5-7)</td>
<td>Cultural heritage is regarded as an inheritance or legacy, things of value which have passed from one generation to the next.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Schouten, 1995, p. 21)</td>
<td>Cultural heritage is history processed through mythology, ideology, nationalism, local pride, romantic ideas or just plain marketing, into a commodity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, 1998, p. 369)</td>
<td>Cultural heritage is the trans-valuation of the obsolete, the mistaken, the outmoded, the dead, and the defunct. Cultural heritage is a new mode of cultural production in the present that has recourse to the past.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Lowenthal, 2005, pp. 81-82)</td>
<td>Cultural heritage denotes everything we suppose has been handed down to us from the past. The buildings and engineering works, arts and crafts, languages, traditions, humans themselves have created out of nature’s raw materials.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Ballesteros &amp; Ramírez, 2007, p.681)</td>
<td>Heritage is more of a social construction than a discovery made by specialists.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author’s own compilation of heritage and cultural tourism definitions
The review of above definitions reflects that the definition of heritage tourism is as multifarious as the notion of heritage. Therefore, to conclude it is understood that

cultural heritage tourism is a form of special interest tourism which caters to the desire of tourists to learn about and understand the history, and people`s lifestyle of a destination. This includes movements of travellers for “essentially cultural motivations” such as study and cultural tours, travelling to festivals and other cultural events, visiting monuments, and travelling to study folklore or art). However for more in-depth analysis of concept it is necessary to understand the interchangeable use of the heritage tourism and cultural tourism or vice versa.

2.3 HERITAGE OR CULTURAL TOURISM DEBATE

Debates have taken place among researchers trying to distinguish cultural tourism from heritage tourism. Hall and Zeppel (1990) have proposed definitions for cultural tourism and heritage tourism. They opined that, cultural tourism is attached with visual attractions, performing arts, and festivals, whereas heritage tourism involves visits to historical sites, buildings, and monuments. Zeppel and Hall (1991) further clarified terminology by stating that “cultural tourism is experiential tourism based on being involved in and inspired by the performing arts, visual arts and festivals. Whereas, heritage tourism, whether in the form of visiting preferred landscapes, historic sites, buildings or monuments, is also experiential tourism in the sense of seeking an encounter with nature or feeling part of the history of a place”. Heritage tourism could refer to religious tourism motivated for religious reasons including visits to religious ceremonies (Rinschede, 1992) or a visit to a wineries could be classified into wine tourism, heritage tourism or a visit to heritage buildings that could be classified and revealed under “built heritage tourism” or simply as “heritage tourism” (Black, 1990). Balcar and Pearce (1996) further stated that “heritage tourism is at present largely characterised by an expanding range of concepts and definitions” if indeed it is a separate phenomenon or how it should be best be studied”. However, Prentice (1993) indicated that the overlap of cultural tourism and heritage tourism is so close that the application of these two terms is synonymous and interchangeable.

In the critical response to the interchangeable use of terms Masberg and Silverman (1996) disagreed about the interchangeable usage of both notions in their viewpoint. They stressed that “despite the growing interest in heritage tourism, there is a surprising lack of understanding of how visitors define a heritage site and what the activity of visiting a
heritage means to them”. Crang (1996) argued that the literature on heritage tourism is certainly marked by many academic researchers seeking to clarify what constitutes heritage tourism (Crang, 1996). The more clarification on the concept of heritage tourism has been highlighted by recent studies. Heritage tourism accounts for one segment of the tourism industry that focuses on heritage and cultural attractions and attributes importance to them as tourism products (Poria, Butler, & Airey, 2003). However, Poria, Butler and Airey (2006) suggested an alternative perspective that sought to combine the characteristics of subgroups based on (a) the different motivations of visitors combined with (b) attributes of heritage sites, to generate a classification of different types of heritage tourism. These discussions may offer a clearer definition of cultural and heritage tourism and emphasise the experiential aspect and sense of seeking emotion at historic places in heritage tourism. It is also evident from the literature review that heritage is strongly related with the inheritance and culture and most of the available literature for the purpose of tourism has interchangeably used both the terms heritage and cultural tourism. Therefore, the terms heritage and culture have been used interchangeably in this thesis. It is also apparent that heritage tourism may be further categorised into subgroups with specific titles such as indigenous heritage, built heritage, educational or ethnic heritage mainly based on consumer motivation.

To summarize on the basis of available literature it seems that there is still a lack of census among the researches for the common acceptance of definition of heritage. Therefore, the definition of heritage tourism for this thesis has been adopted from The Advisory Council on Historic Preservation (ACHP) in United States which defines heritage tourism as: “The business and practice of attracting and accommodating visitors to a place or area based especially on the unique or special aspects of that locale’s history, landscape (including trail systems), and culture”.

2.4 WHO IS A CULTURAL OR HERITAGE TOURIST

While connecting heritage with tourism, three major reasons for visiting historic sites were described by Peterson (1994) in terms of experiencing a different time or place, to learn and to enjoy a cerebral experience, and to share with others or teach children the history of the site. A number of the definitions strongly imply that all cultural/heritage tourists are motivated to travel for deep learning, experiential, or self-exploration reason (McKercher et al, 2002). Others recognize that the motivations for cultural/heritage
Heritage Tourism and Its Determinants: An Empirical Study in Himachal Pradesh

tourism participation fall along a continuum, from those who travel exclusively or primarily for cultural tourism reasons to those for whom cultural tourism participation is an accidental element of the trip. A definition of cultural tourists can be developed by considering two major issues towards developing definition of cultural or heritage tourist (McKercher, 2002b). These includes the main reasons for a trip and the level of experiences at the destinations. McKercher and Du Cros, (2003) further identified complexity of defining cultural tourism and cultural tourists because it can mean different things to different people (A number of both conceptual and empirical studies have attempted to implement this process and explore the typology of cultural tourists as mentioned below table 2.4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Cultural Tourist Classification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Silberberg (1995)</td>
<td>identified four types of cultural tourists, ranging from the greatly motivated to the accidental,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stebbins (1996)</td>
<td>suggests that the cultural tourist comes in two types: ‘general’ and ‘specialized’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aluza, O’Leary, &amp; Morrison (1998)</td>
<td>contend that the cultural and heritage tourism market consists of five distinct segments with each having different trip characteristics, suggesting that not all cultural and heritage tourists are alike and should be targeted in different ways.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McKercher (2002)</td>
<td>suggests that cultural tourism can be segmented into five markets based on the depth at which the tourists engage in a culture or a cultural attraction, and how central the culture or attraction was to their choice of destination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martin et al. (2004)</td>
<td>report that cultural and general visitors are very different in terms of activities, expenditures, information sources used and lodging preferences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyaupane &amp; Andereck (2007)</td>
<td>suggest that cultural tourists can be divided into two groups: ‘true cultural tourist’ and ‘spurious cultural tourist’.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author Own Compilation
The review of cultural classification indicates that motivation acts as the strong basis for heritage tourist classification. Therefore it is important to study tourism motivations before proceeding ahead.

2.5 TOURISM MOTIVATIONS

Studying tourist motivation has always been an important factor for tourism management. The ways of expressing and the changes those develop over a period of time in tourist motivations directly influence tourism demand and supply. For tourist destinations, in order to survive in a market in constant evolution and change, characterized by fierce competition, in an economy in crisis, suppliers of tourism products and services need to know and anticipate changes in the motivations that determine tourists to buy a holiday package (Mahica, 2011). Tourist motivations explain the factors or motives those influence a tourist to travel. Hill (1965) concluded the motive of many vacation makers is in a response to psychological depletion and is an opportunity to allow the tourist to replenish and restore, if the traveller finds what they want they will come back enriched, regenerated & recharge. In the case of tourism this motive forms the basis for the desire to travel and includes the generation of a need.

However, in social sciences motivation is a theoretical construct used to explain behaviour. It represents the reasons for people's actions, desires, and needs. Motivation can also be defined as one's direction to behaviour or what causes a person to want to repeat behaviour and vice versa (Elliot at al., 2001). Motive is what prompts the person to act in a certain way, or at least develop an inclination for specific behaviour (Pardee, 1990). In the case of tourism, there are two categories of factors that influence the tourist in buying a holiday package: motivational factors that motivate tourists to want to buy a package holiday, and determining factors that determine whether the tourist is able to purchase the desired product (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007).

2.5.1 TOURISM MOTIVATORS

These are those factors which inspire the tourist to desire to purchase a particular product. No widely recognized approach exists of categorizing the motivators in tourism. A wide range of factors stimulate consumers to buy tourism products either holiday package or any other service. These factors in tourism can be divided into two groups. First group includes those factors which motivate a person to take a holiday whereas second group includes those factors which motivate a person to take a particular holiday to a specific
destination at a particular time (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007, p.54) refer table 2.5.1. There are many potential motivators that could relate to either or both of these factors.

Table 2.5.1 A typology of motivators in tourism:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Type/ class</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Physical</td>
<td>relaxation, suntan, exercise and health, sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>sightseeing, experiencing new culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>Nostalgia, Romance, Adventure, escapism, fantasy, spiritual fulfilment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Status</td>
<td>exclusivity, fissionability, obtaining a good deal, ostentatious spending opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Personal Development</td>
<td>increasing knowledge, obtaining a new skill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>visiting friends and relatives, make new friends, need to satisfy others, search for economy if on very limited income.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted From Swarbrooke & Horner (2007)

2.5.2 TOURISM DETERMINANTS

These are the factors which determine the extent to which consumers are able to purchase the tourism product they desire. These can be classified in to two types: firstly the factors which determine whether or not someone will be able to take a holiday or not, secondly the factors which determine the type of trip, if the first sets of determinants allow a holiday to be taken (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007 p.54) refer table 2.5.2.

Consumers personality and life style plays a vital role towards the extent to which tourists’ behaviour is determined by their own personal determinants or external determinants. Sometime, determinants can be either facilitators or constraints upon tourists who wish to turn their motivations and desires into reality. For example, high disposable income will be a facilitator while limited and low disposable income would be a constraint. And in the case of group travel, the issue of determinants became multifaceted. Each individual has his or her own determinants but the group has a set of determinants of its own. For example any strong group member may impose his or her own determinants, such as a fear of flying or other phobia, on every other group member. In that case others group members would have preferred to the dominating group members choice.
Table 2.5.2  A Typology of Tourism Determinants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Determinants External To the tourist</th>
<th>Determinants Personal To the Tourist</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. <strong>Global</strong>, political, economic, social and technological factors.</td>
<td>1. <strong>Circumstances</strong>: Health, Disposable income, Available leisure time, Work commitments, Family commitments, Car ownership.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. <strong>National</strong>, society-wide political, economic, social and technological factors, The influences of the media, The marketing activities of the tourism industry, Views of friends and relatives Individual tourist.</td>
<td>2. <strong>Knowledge of</strong>: Destinations, The availability (of different tourism products), Price differences (between competitor organizations).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political factors: Government legislation and policy, Immigration restrictions and visa requirements, Civil disorder and terrorism. The nature of the political system, Taxation policy, e.g. airport taxes, Tourist taxes.</td>
<td>3. <strong>Attitudes and perceptions</strong>: Perceptions of destinations and tourism organizations, Political views, Preferences for particular countries and cultures, Fear of certain modes of travel, How far in advance they like to plan and book a trip, Ideas on what constitutes value for money, Their attitudes to standards of behaviour as a tourist.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media: Travel media, e.g. holiday features on television, in newspapers, and guidebooks. Non-travel media, e.g. news programmes and wildlife programmes on television.</td>
<td>4. <strong>Experience of</strong>: Types of holidays, Different destinations, The products offered by different tourism organizations, Taking a trip with particular individuals or groups, Attempting to find discounted prices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism organization marketing: Foreign destinations’ advertising campaigns, Tour operator’s brochures, Travel agent’s special promotions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted From Swarbrooke & Horner (2007)

2.6 CULTURAL OR HERITAGE ATTRACTION ATTRIBUTES

According to Pearce (1991) attractions are: a named site with a specific human or natural feature which is the focus of visitor and management attention. The notion of ‘visitor attractions’ has been used instead of ‘tourist attractions’ by most of the English literature because most of the visitors are not tourists but residents or day trippers (Swarbrooke, 1995). In order to clarify the concept of attractions another definition was proposed “Attraction is a designated resource which is controlled and managed for the enjoyment, amusement, entertainment and education of the visiting public” (Middleton, 1994 p. 261).
But the earlier proposed definition of attraction by MacCannell (1976 p.41) is dominant among the other researchers perception of attractions. According to MacCannell point of view attraction is an empirical relationship between a tourist, a sight and a marker (a piece of information about a sight). It further clarified that attractions are social constructs budding in the process of ‘sight sacralisation’. In this process sites are transformed into tourist attractions in five stages; naming, framing and elevation, enshrinement, mechanical reproduction, and social reproduction. For example any object or souvenir must have collective consciousness towards accepting it as a sight. This transformation of object into site undergoes consecutive stages of scarlisation. On the part of tourist, this process must met with ritual attitude. In other words anything might become attraction including a simple stone, statue, artefact, object, landscape, practice etc. provided it must have collective consciousness.

However, tourism is a dynamic phenomenon where every individual have his/her own psychological framework of mind and cognitive wisdom toward experiences gained through tourism and expectations from the tourism product and services offered, which finally leads to the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of a tourist. The satisfaction with tourist experiences contributes significantly to life satisfaction (Neal, Sirgy & Uysal 1999), which is one of the central concepts of individual well-being. Expectations are defined as the individual’s beliefs about how a product is likely to perform in the future (Oliver, 1987). The role of these beliefs is not only analysed as a comparison standard in consumer evaluations, suggested in the disconfirmation paradigm, but also as a direct antecedent of satisfaction (Szymanski & Henard, 2001).

Tourism sites can be considered as complex networks that involve a large number of co-producing actors delivering a variety of products, and services (Haugland et al., 2011). While tourists perceive the destination as a unit, offering an integrated experience or a destination product (Buhalis, 2000; Murphy et al., 2000), this experience or product is still produced and composed by the individual actors. The success of individual actors, as well as the success of the entire destination, is dependent on efficient coordination and integration of individual companies’ resources, products, and services (Beritelli, Bieger, & Laesser, 2007; Rodri guez-Di az & Espino-Rpdri guez, 2008).

As travelling stimulates an increased interest in tourism, the decision of a holidaymaker to go for a particular destination is basically influenced by its comparative advantage in terms of attractiveness over the competing destinations (Batra & Chawla, 1995).
However, it is extremely important to take into account the way a tourist perceives about the destinations he/she visits. The planning process can take inputs from the findings of the perceptions of the tourists in developing a site further so as to either attract more tourists or make a site viable for sustained tourism.

2.6.1 STUDIES RELATED TO VISITORS PERCEPTION TOWARDS AND SATISFACTION FROM HERITAGE SITE ATTRIBUTES

2.6.1.1 Previous Studies in International context

On the concept of heritage site attributes multiple studies has been carried out worldwide. Philipp (1993) studied the black and white racial differences in the perceived attractiveness of cultural/heritage tourism was investigated by Philipp (1993). The research revealed that white tourists were more interested in cultural/heritage destinations than black tourists.

Another study, Glasson (1994) explained the impacts of cultural/heritage tourism and management responses through an overview of the characteristics of tourists to Oxford. This study highlighted the altering perspectives and dimensions of impacts on tourist sites and tourist capacity of the city.

Richards (1996) selected several attributes related to cultural/heritage destinations in order to analyse European cultural tourism. This article indicated a quick boost in both the production and consumption of heritage attractions. Similarly, Janiskee (1996) emphasized on the importance of events through several attributes such as festivals, historic houses, traditional ceremonies, music, dancing, craftwork, food, and the direct experience of traditional life. Alhemoud and Armstrong (1996), compared the image of Kuwaiti tourism sights as perceived by Kuwaiti university students and English-speaking foreigners living in Kuwait. The findings show that the sample groups have different perceptions of tourism attractions and that neither group is very impressed with the attractions.

Kaynak et. al. (2000) investigated the Irish travellers perception towards important attributes that influence travel preference of major foreign holiday destination. A significant difference was found between different age groupes, sexes, qualifications, income & marital status. Young people preferred vacations for activity-based holidays, while older travellers preferred with sightseeing opportunities. The more highly educated
respondents showed a preference towards nature based or cultural activities. Less educated people preferred destinations where they could try new and unfamiliar activities that were very different from their everyday life. Those on lower incomes saw their holiday as a chance to get away from the monotony of everyday life, and indulge in activities that built up their self-confidence. Higher-income earners wanted an intellectually stimulating holiday with excitement, and the chance to increase their knowledge of the destination area.

Towards examining destination success, numerous studies have been conducted. For example, Peleggi (1996) examined the relevance of Thailand’s heritage attractions (traditional villages, monuments, museums, and temples) to both international and domestic tourism. Study analysed the role of the state tourism agency’s promotion of heritage. Similarly (Alhemoud & Armstrong, 1996) compared the image of Kuwaiti tourism sights as perceived by Kuwaiti university students and English-speaking foreigners living in Kuwait. The findings show that the sample groups have different perceptions of tourism attractions and that neither group is very impressed with the attractions. Similarly, Andersen, Prentice and Guerin (1997) identified the important attributes as being castles, gardens, museums, and historical buildings, when tourists made a decision to visit Denmark. Whereas, Sofield & Li (1998) identified history, culture, traditional festivals, historical events, beautiful scenic heritage, historical sites, architecture, folk arts (music, dancing, craft work) and folk culture villages as the attributes of significance. In the Chinese Context.

In order to assess the destination on value for money, Keown, (1989) with the help of a survey of 490 Japanese tourists visiting Hawaii suggested a model for tourists' propensity to buy goods in a vacation destination. Similarly Stevens, (1992) identified the role price plays in travel decision making and examined pleasure traveller perceptions of the price and quality of Canadian tourism products compared to those of other countries. Study suggests that information gathered from travellers on their perceptions of price, quality, and value can be used to competitive advantage by a country.

During 20’s, Huybers & Bennett (2000) focused on the relative importance of the natural environment on the choices made by prospective UK tourists regarding their overseas holiday destination. Whereas, (Kozak, 2000) analysed the facilities and consumer satisfaction with tourist expenditure. Research indicated that each destination might have its own regional differentiation and unique characteristics in some respects. Similarly,
Heritage Tourism and Its Determinants: An Empirical Study in Himachal Pradesh

Master & Prideaux (2000) examined the role of material culture in determining visitor satisfaction amongst Taiwanese tourists. The major findings were that most Taiwanese respondents believed that culture did not play a major role in determining their satisfaction levels and they expressed a high level of satisfaction with their visit.

Kerstetter et al. (2001) documented the existing types of heritage tourists by using a 10-item specialization index and classified on socio-demographic characteristics, visitation behaviour, motivations, and/or perceptions. Three types of heritage specialists were identified. All differed with respect to education, visitation behaviour, motivations, and overall satisfaction.

Whereas, Huh (2002), investigated the relationship between cultural/heritage destination attributes and tourist satisfaction, in terms of selected tourists’ demographic characteristics and travel behaviour characteristics.

However, Yuksel, (2004) focused on domestic and international visitors’ perceptions of service provided in shops. He attempted to understand whether domestic and international visitors differed in their service evaluation and shopping item preferences or not. The analysis was based on Kusadasi Chamber of Commerce database. Mann–Whitney U-tests indicated significant differences between domestic and international visitors’ evaluation of service delivered in shops. Domestic visitors were more negative in their service evaluations than their international counterparts. Chi-square tests revealed that these two groups also differed significantly in their shopping preferences.

With respect to destination competitiveness, Dwyer et al., (2004) developed a model to capture the main elements of destination competitiveness and identified key success factors in determining destination competitiveness. With respect to research problem selected to study, Huh, et al., (2006) study assessed expectation and satisfaction with a cultural/heritage destination by using an expectation and satisfaction grid. The findings indicated that there was a significant relationship between destination attributes and overall satisfaction with the cultural/heritage experience.

Similarly, Pekka and Antti (2007) examined perceived tourism behaviour and desire to travel among Finnish travellers. Their study was based on postmodern theories which state that instead of demographics, social divisions are based on identity and lifestyle. In their article the effects of these both were also examined. Analysis was based on two
nationwide surveys, “Finland 1999 and Finland 2004” the results were somewhat parallel with the hypothesis. Their study concludes that the effects have remained quite stable regardless of the finding that “desire to travel more” has increased while “perceived tourism behaviour” has increased.

A study conducted by Hosany, Ekinci and Uysal (2007) examined the contentious relationship between brand image and brand personality in the context of tourism destinations. Results indicate that destination image and destination personality are related concepts. Canonical correlation analyses reveal that the emotional component of destination image captures the majority of variance on destination personality dimensions. Similarly, De Rojas and Camarero (2008) examined how expectations, experiences, and satisfaction are related in the context of cultural tourism and the services provided by cultural organizations. The results revealed that there is a significant relationship between quality and emotion.

Baker and Cameron (2008) identified Critical success factors in destination marketing. Whereas, William and Soutar, (2009) empirically examined the relationships between value, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions in an adventure tourism context. Results indicate that Value-for-money was prominent, but also emotional value and novelty value were also significant predictors of satisfaction and future intentions. Study suggests that researchers should take a broader, holistic view of value in a tourism context.

More recently, Bornhorst et al., (2010) conducted a study with objectives to examine the concept of tourism success as its relationship with both destinations and to DMOs (destination management organisation). They interviewed 84 knowledgeable tourism managers and stakeholders from twenty-five Canadian destinations. Unique to DMO success were supplier relations, effective management, strategic planning, organizational focus and drive, proper funding, and quality personnel. Unique to destination success were location and accessibility, attractive product and service offerings, quality visitor experiences, and community support. However, Prayag and Ryan (2012) in their article evaluated a theoretical model based on hypothesized relationships among four constructs, namely, destination image, place attachment, personal involvement, and visitors’ satisfaction as antecedents of loyalty on the island of Mauritius. The structural model indicates that destination image, personal involvement and place attachment are antecedents of visitors’ loyalty but this relationship is mediated by satisfaction levels.
2.6.1.2 Previous Studies in Indian Context

In terms of demand, heritage tourism is representative of many contemporary visitors’ desire to directly experience and consume diverse past and present cultural landscapes, performances, foods, handicrafts, and participatory activities. On the supply side, heritage tourism is widely looked to as a tool for community economic development and is often actively promoted by local governments and private businesses (Chhabra, Healy & Sills, 2003). However, referring to both the demand (tourists) and supply (destination) side, Push and Pull Theory has been used by several authors to explain the travel motivation. The previous studies directed in Indian setting give important understanding to investigate the issue identified for this study. For instance, Chaudhary, (2000) led a study with the reason for deciding pre-and post-trip view of remote vacationers about India as a visitor destination. A hole examination amongst desires and fulfillment levels was utilized to distinguish qualities and shortcomings of India’s tourism-related image dimensions. It was found that India is appraised exceptionally for its rich art works and cultural legacy. Be that as it may, aggravations like deceiving, begging, unhygienic conditions, absence of safety dampen the spirits of visitors.

Singh (2002) highlighted that customary tourism arrangements in India were neither elaborate nor properly executed. Further, these arrangements were domestic tourism oriented instead of universal tourism. The study emphasised on the absence of appropriate process of policy formulation and implementation as a main obstacle in tourism development. Author, further highlighted the requirement for dealing with the effect of traveler and explorer portability in the Indian Himalayas. The goal of this study was to decrease biological debasement and disintegration of social qualities in Garhwal Himalayas with the help of management of guests. This study highlighted the problems of accommodation, catering, sewage, sanitation, water supply, tariff and ecological degradation due to heavy tourist footfall in the months of April to June.

Another study led by Srinivasan and Nath (2004) talked about the part of data innovation for improvement of tourism industry in India. They expressed that exclusive Kerala was making utilization of data innovation in tourism. The analysts pushed on chiefly three components of tourism industry i.e. administration suppliers, offices of tourism and visitors which required a sufficient data framework. Additionally they introduced a coordinated tourism data framework model to encourage the greater part of the elements.
of all the three components of tourism industry. Study also highlighted the significance of incorporated tourism data framework in lodging industry, travel industry and handiwork industry. The study suggested that India must embrace cutting edge data innovation rehearse for tourism to manage in both domestic and universal business sector.

Anbalagan, Selvam and Amudha (2005) in their study highlighted tourism as India’s third export industry after readymade clothing, jams and adornments. They proposed five point methodology i.e. solid supported strategies, private segment inclusion, liberalization of flight, end of formality and interest in human asset improvement to accomplish maintained development rate in tourism industry in India.

However, Bandyopadhyay et al. (2008) studied religion and identity in India’s heritage tourism and compared the way India’s heritage is represented by the Indian government, by the domestic tourism trade media and by the popular tourism media. The findings reveal that India is consistently represented as an ethnically diverse nation in which Hinduism preceded and prevailed over all other ethnicities/religions; a portrayal that consolidates the state’s secular nationalist narrative.

More recently, Kaushik et al. (2010) made an attempt to determine which factors are considered more important by tourists while selecting their destination. They extracted seven factors by factor analysis, and used ANOVA to check their relationships with the demographic variables. A model has been established to predict customer satisfaction on the basis of the factors obtained.

Similarly Mahar and Bagri, (2010) with the help of a quantitative survey assessed the attitudes and perceptions of tourists visiting Bhialangana Valley, Uttarakhand towards infrastructure, tourism impacts and policies, amenities/ facilities and the behaviour of local residents. This study provides a brief overview of guest-host relationship in the region, recognizing that a comprehensive assessment can only be made through community participation.

Rafat (2013) conducted a study on modern interpretive techniques, their role and potential in Indian museums and heritage sites and suggested that museums and heritage sites should adopt modern computer/electronic based technology for their interpretation. Whenever necessary the expert guidance and suggestions may be taken from the experts of electronics and computers at the time of planning for using interpretive techniques.
Museums and Heritage Site, rather make a collaborative programmes / project with electronics and computer institutions. Considering the resources of the institution, museums and heritage sites should appoint an expert of modern computer based interpretive techniques. The expert preferably may be from electronics or computer background. The National Museum of Natural History, New Delhi, Parliament Museum, New Delhi, New Delhi and Science Centers / Museums has already initiated this practice. The other museums and heritage sites should also think in this direction. Researcher further elaborated that tourism planners must keep in mind that India is a land of rich Cultural and Natural diversity but unfortunately most of its population is still uneducated. The modern interpretive techniques, even some traditional interpretive techniques like labels, brochures, leaflets ect. used in Museums and Heritage Sites are not sufficient to fulfil the purpose of learning and proper interpretation for such uneducated visitors. Most of the educated visitors are not IT (informationa technology) friendly and hesitate to use the electronic gadgets in museums and heritage sites. Therefore, it seems worthwhile to adopt some indigenous methods of interpretation using some traditional Knowledge in India.

Another study conducted by Chauhan et al., (2014) examined the level of importance domestic tourists’ accord to different information sources and its impact on perceived destination image in Ooty, India. The results indicate that tourists can be classified into different segments based on their importance for information sources. Further, consumer segments differ in their perception about destination image on several dimensions.

Similarly, Mody et al., (2014) examines the motivations of domestic and international travellers in India by utilizing Dann's push–pull typology, factor analysis revealed nine fundamental inspirations for responsible tourism, with critical contrasts amongst domestic and international tourist for these factors. The study contributes one obligation particular push and one pull variable to the literature about travel inspiration.

Nitya (2014) studied heritage tourism in Kerala and suggested that that many heritage sites having historic and architectural elegance and monuments in various districts are not adequately preserved and promoted. Proper initiative to frame a commercially viable network of Heritage Centres shall come from each Local Authority to identify, foster, preserve and market the same effectively. Researcher further suggests that heritage (Tourism) study should necessarily be part of schools and college curriculum.
Collaboration with NCC, NSS, Scout and guide or other similar clubs working in the nearby schools and colleges would be an added advantage to this venture.

More recently, Bhardwaj (2015) studied cultural heritage tourism and development in Punjab province of India. The most important outcome drawn from the survey and analysis was, that there is no positive co-relation between cultural heritage resources and tourism in Punjab. There is ample existence of heritage buildings mainly forts, palaces and havelis, yet the number of tourists visiting especially to acknowledge and appreciate these rich sources of heritage is negligible. Even those monuments which are now under the protection of government are still being used by the local people for their personal use as they are ignorant of the significance of the heritage. While studying various tangible and intangible aspects of culture it was found that people are ignorant of the various handicrafts, and the folk dance forms researcher further stressed that there is a need to promote the cultural heritage tourism among the youth below 20 years and adults above 40 years of age. It is also reflected from the research that there is dearth of awareness about the resources as well as other facilities like amusement parks, theme parks, sound and light shows etc. which can motivate the tourists to stay longer. Another important finding was that the overall impact of tourism was positive in Punjab, however people were not very happy due to the inflation in commodity price and growth in crime and begging. The local community was also unhappy about the garbage waste and increase in air pollution.

Kumar and Satya (2015) studied cultural heritage and tourism promotion of Andhra Pradesh and observed that majority of tourists visiting Andhra Pradesh are with religious interests. They opined that Hindu calendar based religious tourism attracts more tourists, because of the associated rituals and the pageants of large congregation, hence to be encouraged. Most important events festive seasons and specific days have religious significance and attract large number of tourists. Therefore they need to be widely propagated. In the absence of authenticated translation in English or other local languages inscriptions do not enable even an informed traveller/tourist to understand the historic significance of the site/monument. The study revealed, historic monuments and temples are rife with graffiti and other disfigurements etched by visitors. The beauty of monuments is sullied by hooligans untrained tourist guides and unlimited tourists surprisingly, no action has been taken by the administration of the temples and monuments to educate the tourists and clamp down the menace. The natural heritage of
Andhra Pradesh has been assessed and found to be highly potential for promotion of Tourism in almost all the circuits offering various benefits for the rural populace.

Swamy (2015) considered making arrangements for protection of heritage legacy zones in Mysore city—an antiquated city being pronounced as heritage city by the state and focal government. He opined that heritage resources are facing great threat in the absence of effective legislations not addressing the heritage issues in the Mater plan. This exploratory study recognized that the Mysore city has solid components of urban structure with assembled structures, substantial and elusive legacy assets. Study further added that maximum of heritage resources those are located in the heritage zone area have very significant quality when compared with the assets found far from the center zone. Without strong heritage arrangement and compelling policy, the heritage assets have endured a formative misfortune. With a specific end goal to address the heritage issues, encircling heritage regulations for recognizing, reviewing and centrality appraisal of heritage zones into primary, secondary, tertiary, buffer zones and creating protection management plan, developing motivating forces and empowering open private organizations and making mindfulness are unavoidable for arranging and preservation of heritage sites in the city of Mysore for resuscitating the past and its wonderfulness.

2.6.1.3 Studies in the context of Himachal Pradesh

Himachal Pradesh, Being the earlier identified destination for tourism, has been investigated by various researchers and practitioners. However, this review consists of selected studies for the purpose of this thesis. For example, (Kapoor, 1976) has studied tourism as an instrument of economic development with special reference to Himachal Pradesh. The main objective of this study was to analyse the role of tourism industry in the overall economic development of the state and formulation of the strategy for the promotion of tourism. He has concluded in this study that tourism in Himachal Pradesh as a distinct product presents a vast potential. This is perhaps on to the industries whose development ensures the simultaneous development with a number of other related industries. The authorities associated with this trade throughout the world are now adapting new techniques to promote tourism.

Similarly, (Singh, 1978) studied the Economic Potential of Tourism in Himachal Pradesh with special reference to Shimla. The main objective of the study was to analyse the various economic aspects of tourism with regard to employment and income generation.
The data has been collected through both primary and secondary sources. The findings of this study shown that there is an scope and vast potential for the tourism development due to its natural resources, which can help to generated employment and income and as well as foreign exchange.

Kanwar (1982) conducted a study in urban history of Shimla. She studied the history of Shimla from 1882 to 1947. In her study she described the establishment of old heritage buildings at Shimla. Whereas, Thakur (1984) conducted detail study in temple architecture of Himachal Pradesh. This is one of the informative studies conducted on heritage of Himachal Pradesh. Gautam (1987) has conducted a study on problems and prospects of tourism in Shimla. Author pointed out the problems of traffic congestion and growth of heritage tourism in Shimla. Similarly, Singh (1987) conducted a study on tourism in Kullu Valley in Himachal Pradesh and made and attempts to examine the prospects and problem of tourism in valley. They opine that Kullu valley alone has intake of 60 percent tourists of the state. About 33 percent are academicians and about 40 percent other tourist visiting the valley for sightseeing, trekking, photography, fishing, skiing, mountaineering and other entertainment activities.

Tyagi (1989) attempted to study the development and potential of tourism in Himachal Pradesh. The main objective of her study was to critically examine the performance and development of tourism and to identify tourism potential in the state. The findings revealed that Himachal is bestowed with all the ingredients, which make a state a tourist state.

Bhakuni (1989) studied the profile of tourists visiting the state. Samples from Shimla, Kullu, Manali, Chamba-Dalhousie, and Dharamsala were taken during summers. Whereas, (Sharma,1990) in his study, “A critical appraisal to tourists facilities in and around Shimla “focuses on the existing facilities to the tourist during peak and off season and the difficulties faced by the tourists during their stay at Shimla. The study also emphasizes the steps to be taken to ease these difficulties to make Shimla a better hill station so that it can attract a greater number of tourists every year. There are number of studies those have been conducted to check the development of tourism in Himachal Pradesh during 90s.

Duffield et al., (1998) studied the Local knowledge in the assessment of resource sustainability through a cross cultural feasibility in India and in Canada. Regardless of
differences between the Indian and Canadian case studies in their identification of indicators, it is evident in both areas that people see a sustainable future in economic terms as being intimately related to environmental sustainability. The results of this study of local perceptions and knowledge lead us to believe that in developing indicators of sustainability, significant attention must be directed to area-specific indicators which are sensitive to local knowledge, and that sustainable resource management policies and practices must be tailored to the local conditions, especially in relation to common property resources.

However, there are limited studied related to research problem in hand those were conducted in 20s. For example, Gardner et. al., (2002) studied the accelerated growth of tourism in the Kullu District of Himachal Pradesh in the Himalaya over the past decade has had substantial impact on the local society, economy and environment. The analysis shows that the rapid rate of growth which occurred in the early- to mid- 1990's has not continued, that the current level of tourism activity may not be sustainable, and that the physical and cultural attractions of the area are compromised by some of the impacts of tourism. The Kullu District contains spectacular mountain scenery and a fascinating cultural heritage with deep historical roots. For centuries it has attracted visitors and has catered to travellers and traders. From the beginning of the 1990's, violent conflict in Kashmir, upgrading of National Highway 21, improvement in communications, effective marketing, and growth of the Indian economy all have contributed to a very rapid growth in tourist visitations and supporting infrastructure which has occurred with both positive and negative effects.

Singh, 2002 described the frontiers of tourism in his book while discussing Tourism in Frontier Area. He stressed on tourism frontiers, myths, geographical appeal, attitude & ethics, political aspects and other tourism development issues and environmental Implications for the Indian Frontier Region through a study of Himachal Himalaya.

Bansal and Gautam (2003) in their study portrayed the role of heritage tourism in Himachal Pradesh. They expressed that all around 37% tourism was culturally inspired and developing at the rate of 15% yearly. They considered that Himachal Pradesh had substantial number of heritage sites along with first heritage village of India - Pragpur. They highlighted four types of cultural heritage tourism product in Himachal Pradesh (Natural, manmade but not for tourists, manmade and built to attract visitors and lastly
special events or occasions). They depicted that absence of assets, absence of aptitude, absence of ready product, common absence of information and negligible showcasing were the primary reasons influencing heritage tourism in Himachal Pradesh. They proposed the presentation of extra charges from travelers going to heritage centres and isolate heritage administration board to safeguard and advance the heritage destinations.

Whereas, Batta (2003) endeavours to identify the values that stakeholders attach to the environmental resources in the Himachal Pradesh. It is argued that the recovery of these use and non-use values could play an important role in contributing funds towards the preservation and/or conservation of common-pool resources. Conclusively, tourism generally uses environmental resources without making any contribution to its wellbeing. It is also true that tourism has enough potential for resource generation.

Singh and Mishra (2004) in their study highlighted social, monetary and environmental dimensions of tourism in Manali. They observed an expansion of 27% in traveler entries in Manali from most recent three decades. Study uncovered that Manali was encountering natural issues like intense lack of water, stuffed streets, overwhelming activity, exorbitant trash, unplanned development and illicit developments and sanitation issues. They likewise inspected variables like tourist season, expenditure pattern, tourism charges, settlement, transport, and carrying capacity of town as vital for tourism industry in Manali. Other than this they recommended distinctive short and long haul systems for accommodation, transportation, water, sewage, electricity and finance. The study proposed that cautious steps must be taken by the state government to evade mass tourism and make solid eco-tourism in Manali.

Rishi and Giridhar (2007) in their paper evaluated tourism industry in Himachal Pradesh with the help of SWOT (strengths, weakness, opportunities & Threats) analysis. It highlighted the unique natural offerings of Himachal Pradesh which it could not cash due to lack of various facilities like food, transportation, water and accommodation etc. The researcher viewed that to leverage tourism potential it was necessary to analyse the needs, perceptions, preferences and satisfaction level of tourists. The study concluded that Himachal Pradesh had vast potential of becoming one of the world’s top destinations provided it developed its infrastructure facilities and promoted its offerings in a suitable manner.

With respect to tourism development Singh, (2008) studied the destination development dilemma in Manali. The article commences with the argument that the discernment of the
purpose and limits of destination development are crucial for its sustainability. Consequently, it is recommended that interest groups focus their attention on the long-term viability of the core product, primarily, to avoid unacceptable product innovation.

However, Gautam, (2011) assessed the preferences of tourists in Himachal Pradesh with reference to the need for information, value for money, security, mode of access, choice offered, and responses to complaints. The results of a conjoint analysis show that tourists attributed the highest importance to security, value for money, and provision of information. Conversely they attribute less importance to complaint responses, choice offered and mode of access. However unlike other products and services there is nothing urgent or emergency (under normal circumstances) about a holiday which provide visitors sufficient time to have information in advance either online or offline and select their destination wisely.

Similarly, Parmar, (2012) made an attempt to study the trend of tourist inflow, assessment of the services/facilities available to the tourists and analyze the attitude of the domestic and international tourists towards these facilities in various tourist destinations.

Whereas, Singh (2012) conducted a study on Pragpur- the 1st heritage village of India. He described that its unique cultural heritage has good potential for the rural & Eco Tourism, with many cultural heritage sites and areas of natural beauty. A limiting factor for the tourism growth in the State is connectivity and transportation network. Study further conclude that coordination among decision makers, planners and the ultimate beneficiaries will be very helpful in making tourism a major economy generator of the state. So involvement of administrators, experts and local people is important during decision-making.

Regarding benefits of heritage tourism, Chand, (2013) focused on residents' perceived benefits of heritage and support for tourism development in Pragpur- the first heritage village of India. He found that, there exists an unlimited range of alternative benefits of heritage and that research until now had only a limited success in identifying the most common benefits. Findings revealed that the community is heterogeneous in their attitudes toward tourism with different benefits they perceived. Results indicated that no significant differences were found between demographic variables and identified factors in terms of age, education, income and marital status. However, it is suggested in the study that before any gainful tourism development, an analysis of perceived influence of
community should be studied from a longitudinal perspective as residents perceived the economic impacts most favourably followed by supporting environmental impacts and socio-cultural impacts.

Similarly, Singh, 2013 emphasized on planning for ecotourism in the hill region: a case study Pragpur, Himachal Pradesh. District wise inflow of tourism between 1987 to 2000 revealed that for Indian tourists Shimla, Kullu and Dharamshala districts were the first and the second choices. International tourists also show a similar preference for these places up to 1987. But since 1995 Kullu district has become the top choice in Himachal Pradesh at least amongst foreign tourists. Pragpur and Garli being declared the Heritage zone and comes under the SADA (Special Area Development Authority) Therefore, involvement of local people, hoteliers and administration in implementation of the plan and diversion of tourists visiting Dhauladhar Circuit to Pragpur and other areas of this region need to be ensured for its success. A limiting factor for the tourism growth in the State is connectivity and transportation network. There is a need for improvement of the road, air and rail network to reduce travel time and provide comfortable means of transport to the tourists. Study further concluded that Budget tourist constitutes more than 80 per cent of the total tourist arrivals in the State. A serious effort is required for providing basic and other infrastructure facilities to this class of tourists.

Kanga et al. (2014) reviewed the potential of geospatial techniques to facilitate the tourism and administration in the Shimla city of Himachal Pradesh. This technologies offer great opportunities for the development of modern tourism applications using maps. The geospatial technology make it easier for tourists to find their way around their destinations such how to find the best route, how to set up locations to visit, what are the closest facility, how to customize directions, and how to evaluate accessibility across destinations.

Singh et. al., (2014) in their book distinguished and broke down livelyhood effects of late ecological and financial changes in the precipitous condition of Himachal Pradesh situated in north western Himalaya, India. The research findings dealt with the changing patterns of agricultural production with special reference to diversification, forest-based livelihood outcomes, clean development mechanism forest project activities, the roles of different ethnic groups and non-governmental organizations and the benefits and shortcomings of tourism as a livelihood source.
A study conducted by Sharma and Prakash (2014) emphasized that ecotourism has the potential to enhance wilderness protection and wildlife conservation, while providing nature-compatible livelihoods and greater incomes for a large number of people living in the those areas. This becomes more important in case of tribal areas considering the fact that the environment and the originality of tribal culture have to be maintained. Moreover there is also a need to create income avenues for these people (Sharma & Prakash, 2014).

Singh (2015) described status of tourism in Manali through a master thesis and opined that there is a great need to have holistic policies incorporating all stakeholders to attain tourism sustainability besides adopting green practices to save environment from further deterioration. NGT (National green tribunal) intervened in Manali when policies lacked efforts to check this growing trend that was harming environment on which tourism is dependent.

A study conducted by Katoch and Gautam (2015) beautifully connected the potential villages for rural tourism (Dharmkot, Satovari and Barnet) near to Dharmshala region. They stressed upon the necessity of awareness campaign for local community w.r.t rural tourism and opined that negative impacts of tourism can be avoided through sustainable development.

More recently, a working paper on a case of Great Himalayan National Park Conservation Area (GHNPCA), highlighted that local communities have employed heritage as a weapon, successfully marshaling the representation of the region as the “Valley of the Gods” and put their cultural heritage to work against global conservation agendas (Chhatre & Lakhanpal, 2016). Whereas, Gautam (2016) assessed the present scenario of tourism at Naggar village, Himachal Pradesh. Findings reveal that local residents and business- owners have positive attitude towards tourism and there is no negative impact perceived by them.

It is well established by the literature that visitors seek a total experience, including leisure, culture, education, and social interaction, therefore ‘visitor experience’ represents a psychological outcome resulting from the individual’s socio-psychological and physical interaction with a recreation setting which require both qualitative and quantitative analysis.

Tourism has functioned primarily for the benefits of the tourists and its forms have been derived from the industry itself. However local community being the major stakeholders should be given priority while planning for tourism. It is argued that for the successful
destination management, each and every stakeholder’s role is instrumental. Moreover, “National governments have taken it upon themselves to act on behalf of the people by facilitating the tourism development in their respective territories. Meanwhile local communities found themselves far distant from the decision making process.”

Based upon the above argument it is proposed that subject for analysis of this research study should include at least four key stakeholders including government, tourism related business, ethnic community and visitors to the tourist destinations although other stakeholders may be included (figure 2.6.1).

The figure involves tourism related and non-tourism related sectors along with community, visitor, local government and other entities. A stakeholder for this study is considered to be “any individual, group, or organisation that is affected by or affects the tourism development of the Himachal Pradesh”.

Figure 2.6.1 Stakeholder Map for Studying Heritage Tourism in Himachal Pradesh

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tourism Related</th>
<th>Non Tourism Related</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tour operators</td>
<td>Transport providers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hoteliers</td>
<td>Service providers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel agents</td>
<td>Retailers/wholesalers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rent a car/Bike rentals Restaurant/</td>
<td>Building/Construction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bar/Coffee shops</td>
<td>Farming/Fishing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Souvenir shops</td>
<td>Small industry/ Manufacture,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attraction providers</td>
<td>Electricity/ Water providers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Stakeholders Map for Himachal Pradesh Holistic Tourism Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Public Sector Officials/ Managers</th>
<th>Private Sector Entrepreneurs/ Managers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indian Government</td>
<td>Residents ,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of tourism</td>
<td>Ethnic community,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPTDC</td>
<td>NGO- nongovernmental organisations,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Districts of HP</td>
<td>Institutions,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chambers of commerce</td>
<td>Trade associations,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing organisation councils</td>
<td>government sector employees,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local governments</td>
<td>Visitors</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (Authors Own Illustration)
2.6.2 STUDIES RELATED TO STAKEHOLDERS ROLE TOWARDS TOURISM DEVELOPMENT AND PROMOTION

Tourism industry itself is a vast and interwoven network of tourism businesses, industry organizations and government agencies – all working to grow and sustain a dynamic industry by fostering fresh, innovative ideas and encouraging investment to make regions even better equipped to attract more visitors, stimulate economic activity, and continue building. It is one of the most notable service industries in the world (Schumacher, 2007). According to Freeman (1984), a stakeholder is ‘any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organisation’s objectives’. Thus, a group qualifies as a stakeholder if it has a legitimate interest in aspects of the organizations activities (Donaldson & Preston 1995) and, thus, according to Freeman, has either the power to affect the firm’s performance and/or has a stake in the firm’s performance. From stakeholder’s perspective, Shah and Gupta (2000) analysed the tourism experience in Asia. Morgan et al. (2003) explored the context and creation of the New Zealand brand. This study identifies the stakeholders crucial to the delivery of this destination brand and examines the positioning process and the creation of its largely web-driven strategy.

Timur & Getz (2008) examined network of inter-relationships of stakeholders representing government, the community and the tourism and hospitality industry, and their perceptions of critical stakeholders in destination development. The study demonstrates the use of a network analysis methodology as a potential tool for researchers and managers in examining destination stakeholder relationships. Local government and DMOs are perceived to hold the greatest legitimacy and power over others in destination development. Similarly Baker & Cameron (2008) identified Critical success factors in destination marketing.

Batta, (2003) endeavours to identify the values that stakeholders attach to the environmental resources in the Himachal Pradesh. It is argued that the recovery of these use and non-use values could play an important role in contributing funds towards the preservation and/or conservation of common-pool resources.

In Indian Context (Vasudevan, 2008) studied the role of internal stakeholders in destination branding in Kerala. The ‘Case Note’ prepared in the context of Kerala Tourism offers an insight into the different internal audiences in case of a place brand, and what branding initiatives mean to them. The paper also tries to understand the obvious and latent connotations of an internal branding exercise.
In the context of Himachal tourism Singh (2008) studied the destination development dilemma in Manali. The article commences with the argument that the discernment of the purpose and limits of destination development are crucial for its sustainability. Consequently, it is recommended that interest groups focus their attention on the long-term viability of the core product, primarily, to avoid unacceptable product innovation.

Bansal and Kumar, (2013) studied ecotourism for community development in Great Himalayan national park from stakeholders perspective. Similarly Agarwal et al. (2013) studied stakeholder’s role towards promotion of ecotourism in Himachal Pradesh.

Worldwide multiple countries are increasingly becoming dependent on tourism, as it is one of the most rational and sustainable development choices that have the capability of creating employment to the communities and also acting as a main provision of foreign earnings to the economy (UNWTO, 2010 – Tourism and the Millennium Development Goals). Increasing competitiveness amongst countries has also pushed the business capacity of the tourism industry to the level of, or, sometimes even exceeding trade commodities such as oil and food exports (UNWTO, 2011).

While it is often the economic impacts of tourism that businesses and public organizations that are usually interested in (Stynes, 1999), the late twentieth century saw the emergence of environmental and socio-cultural impacts of tourism being controversial and critical issues discussed in tourism study (Youell, 1998). Peak periods of tourism can benefit the economy of a country, however on the expense of the locals, who might have to pay for the higher prices of goods and services in the community, thus increasing their cost of living. However, contributions of tourism to a country’s economic benefits is relative to factors such as the availability of facilities and resources, the country’s social and political stability, the host communities’ behaviour towards tourist and the amount of investment injected by the government into tourism projects and development (Youell, 1998).

According to Wall and Mathieson (2006), more often than not, social tensions between host communities and tourists happens in developing countries whereby the tourist market are from a country with higher foreign currency rate than the host communities and thus unintentionally highlighting the disparity of wealth. They also mentioned that since the nature of tourism involves the movement of people around geographical locations, social conflicts occur as a result of differences in cultures, values, lifestyles and languages.
Despite of the positive and inspiring socio-cultural impacts of tourism on a host environment, the negative impacts of tourism, on the other hand, can equally cause a prominent damage on a culture. Ironically, instead of reviving a lost culture, the continuous development of tourism driven by the influx of tourist demand can very well cause the same cultural identity and value of the host communities to change and this issue has raised concerns amongst tourism organizations. This normally happens when local communities conformed to the needs, wants and desires of tourist’s expectations in the bid to respond to their growing demands.

A recent study by Tsai et. al., (2016) suggests that global climate patterns have undergone dramatic changes since 1990s, often resulting in weather-induced natural disasters that have caused widespread environmental damage. Such conditions raise serious threats to communities that are dependent on natural resources and ecosystem services for tourism development.

However on the positive note, Kreag (2011) states that the increased interest of tourists into the culture and traditions of the local society also helps to push the demand for historical and cultural education and local tourism agencies will be pressured to step up on preservation and conservation of possible endangered ancient sites, monuments or artefacts (Kreag, 2001).

A key intention behind government support for tourism in any country either fully diversified developed economy or a less developed country, is tourism's ability to create employment opportunities and hence contribute to the overall economic and social development of a nation. However, at the same time, the merits of tourism employment in terms of quality and sustainability are often questioned and there is a lack of consensus as to what, if any, is the role of the state in supporting the development of human resources in the tourism sector. The influence of government can also be significant through its indirect impact on the determinants of national advantage in an industry. In some countries governments may also exert a direct impact on an industry (e.g., government-run National Tourist Offices and destination promotional campaigns). Governments have tended to become more actively involved in tourism as the stakes have grown. They have both discouraged tourism (e.g., foreign exchange restrictions by France, the United Kingdom, and Japan in the late 1960s—Bond, 1979; Witt, 1980), and encouraged foreign travel (e.g., the Japanese government’s “Ten Million Program” to
double overseas travel between 1986 and 1991, Indian governments “Incredible India Campaign” to increase the flow of foreign tourist). Government is a major player in shaping the economy and its development in all countries, in measure ranging from active intervention to deliberate distancing or incompetent neglect. Today, visitors are turning out to be more modern and their need to recover the past has been expanding. They have been visiting heritage destinations more repeatedly. Consequently this review is in consistence with fascination traits and trends those draw the visitors to a tourist site and effects of tourism on these sites.

2.7 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DESTINATION ATTRIBUTES AND TOURISTS’ SATISFACTION

In the leisure literature, however, satisfaction tends to be treated as the attitude resulting after a particular experience (Pearce, 2005) and as the emotional state emerging as a result of experiencing a tourism product (Crompton & Love, 1995). The basis of understanding the consumer’s satisfaction or dissatisfaction separately exists in people’s ability of learning from their past experiences. The theory of learning states that: a certain answer is consolidated both positively and negatively in accordance with the reward implied. While discussing the conceptualization of consumer’s satisfaction, Hunt (1977) – quoted by Peyton, Pitts & Kamery (2003) – observes that, satisfaction means a way of abandoning experience and its evaluation. One can have a pleasant experience that caused dissatisfaction, because no matter how pleasant it was, it did not prove to be as pleasant as expected. Therefore, satisfaction/dissatisfaction is not an emotion, but the evaluation of an emotion”. Several theoretical approaches were used to explain the relationship between disconfirmation and dissatisfaction (Anderson, 1973). These approaches can be seen as variations of the consistency theories and they focus on the nature of the process of comparing the consumer’s post-usage. The theories of consistency suggest that when the expectations and the actual performance of the product do not fit, the consumer will present a certain amount of tension. In order to get rid of this tension, the consumer will try to adjust both expectations and perceptions on the actual performance of the product.

2.7.1 THE EXPECTATION DISCONFIRMATION FRAMEWORK

EDT or Expectation Disconfirmation Theory was at first proposed by Oliver in the field of consumer behavior and marketing research (Oliver, 1980; Venkatesh & Goyal, 2010). As per EDT, consumers' satisfaction fulfillment is, to a limited extent, dictated by the
Heritage Tourism and Its Determinants: An Empirical Study in Himachal Pradesh

level and direction of disconfirmation of their underlying desires (Oliver, 1980; Premkumar & Bhattacharjee, 2008). Satisfaction of consumers is viewed as a key determinant for customers' post-buy behaviour, including repurchase or duration of utilization expectations (Bhattacharjee, 2001; Oliver, 1980; Venkatesh & Goyal, 2010). EDT can be depicted as a five-stage process. During the initial step, consumer shapes specific beliefs or expectations or convictions or desires of items or administrations before buying (Venkatesh and Goyal, 2010). These desires or expectations are, for instance, affected by product information, organisational promotions, media reports and criticism from earlier clients or users or consumers (Haistead et al., 1994; Premkumar & Bhattacharjee, 2008). First of all, research has found a positive relationship between cultural values and product desires or expectations (Au et al., 2002).

Second, customers utilize, expend or encounter the obtained product or service and build up their own particular view of the product’s or service's genuine execution (Premkumar & Bhattacharjee, 2008). Third, they survey the performance of the product or service by utilizing their desires as a kind of perspective level (Oliver, 1980). This appraisal can have three nonexclusive results: If execution surpasses desires, buyers fabricate a positive disconfirmation. On the off chance that execution meets desires, buyers assemble affirmation. On the off chance that execution falls underneath desires, buyers construct negative disconfirmation (Khalifa and Liu, 2004; Oliver, 1980). Here, disconfirmation is characterized as the disparity amongst desires and the really perceived performance (Meng et al., 2004; Venkatesh & Goyal, 2010). As a fourth step, buyers structure sentiments of fulfillment. The level of fulfillment relies on upon the level of disconfirmation and on the desire on which that disconfirmation was fabricated (Premkumar and Bhattacharjee, 2008). Finally, customers create repurchase or use continuation expectations that depend on their level of fulfillment (Bhattacharjee, 2001). A large portion of the feedback that has been brought up with regards to EDT depends on the way that customers’ fulfillment is thought to be exclusively controlled by their level of disconfirmation.

Au et al. (2002) stressed that from the perspective of EDT, low expectations that are confirmed by a low perceived performance exert the same influence on satisfaction as high expectations that are confirmed by a high perceived performance. It seems reasonable, however, to assume that beside the expectations built by consumers, a desire for a certain absolute performance impacts satisfaction (Khalifa & Liu, 2004). In this
Heritage Tourism and Its Determinants: An Empirical Study in Himachal Pradesh

regard, an individual, whose expectations are slightly disconfirmed to the negative or positive, may still be satisfied or dissatisfied with a product or service. Beside applications of EDT in tourism and hospitality studies EDT has been applied in a number of fields, (Shi et al., 2010). For example, Lee (2010) applies (and extends) EDT to explain and predict users’ continuance intentions with respect to e-learning services and Shi et al., (2010) use EDT to analyse the factors influencing users’ continuance intentions to use Facebook.

2.8 RESEARCH GAP

- As tourism paradigm is related to human beings and human nature, it is always a complex proposition to investigate why people travel and what they want to enjoy (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). A series of studies (Tideswell & Faulkner 1999) have shown that the multi destination travel decision is influenced not only by the characteristics of the traveler but also by the characteristics of spatial configuration (relationship of the origin with respect to a destination). The available resources (i.e. attractions, accommodations, accessibility etc.) around the origin as well as the destination may affect ones travel pattern (Beaman, Jeng, & Fesenmaier 1997). Since the cultural background of the majority of heritage tourists differs vastly from that of their hosts, the influence of culture on the interpersonal contact between tourists and hosts requires analysis.

- Worldwide managing tourism and sustaining the tourist arrival is a challenging phenomenon. The destinations relays on the resident’s accord towards any kind of tourism activity either developed or proposed. Local community may oppose any tourism developments due to multiple human stakes and beliefs. Therefore, before suggesting tourism development, it is mandatory to keep in mind the local factors, satisfaction of tourist and the community stake towards tourism development. Also, there has been a growing body of literature that addresses tourism as a viable economic option for local community development. However, there is little evidence on the literature that depict the nature of interaction between local communities and tourism development (Aref et al. 2010) which is one of the core elements for developing a viable tourism industry in a destination. While the literature recognizes that the inclusion of the local community in tourism development is considerable, there have been some debates about their role (Sherpa, 2011).
Literature commonly investigates and clarifies elements associated with the supply of heritage and its management (Poria, Butler & Airey, 2004), less interest and attention has been paid to the demand component and even less to the relationship between the two. Of the literature about demand, much is concerned with motivation and market segments. Only few studies explore the relationship between these and the core of site attributes, which is believed to be essential for understanding heritage tourism as a social phenomenon.

Whilst making a significant contribution to the body of knowledge, studies that have examined visitors’ experiences with heritage site attributes were conducted outside India viz; Masberg & Silverman, (1996), Poria, Butler & Airey, (2004), Poria, Reichel & Biran, (2006), Chen & Chen, (2010). In addition, Poria et al. (2009) call for further research in the field of heritage tourism and relationships between interpretation, visitors and place. This study begins to fill the gap in research of people’s motivations to visit heritage sites and to contribute to a deeper understanding of heritage tourism consumption and strategic management of cultural heritage sites in Himachal Pradesh.

### 2.9 RESEARCH ISSUES

With the help of literature review and the established research gap the present study propose to address the following issues.

1. Clarifying the concept of cultural heritage tourism, finding the travel motivation of visitors to visit heritage sites and establishing profile of heritage tourist.
2. Exploring the factors those draws tourists to a heritage destination through the psychological process involved among the pre-visit destination image in the mind of tourists and after visit experience.
3. Establishing the image of heritage destination by evaluating role of various stakeholders involved in the process.
4. Utilizing pre-historic and historic heritage tourism resources and products for the unique heritage tourism product development.
5. Finding out a solution to the problem of tourism seasonality in the selected destination under study by presenting heritage as an important industry.
6. Knowing the visitors satisfaction from heritage site attributes in the selected area and suggest development of such type of tourism accordingly.
7. Justifying the holistic cultural tourism development in a mountain state with logical arguments.
2.10 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In the light of identified research gap and research issues this study addresses the following research questions

1. What do heritage tourists perceive as most important determinant in social contact with hosts?
2. How do tourists relate themselves to and perceive the Himachal’s community, which differs culturally from themselves?
3. Do tourists wish to revisit Himachal Pradesh and recommend others to visit?
4. Are there any obstacles to tourist’s satisfaction with heritage tourism site attributes?
5. What are the impacts of tourism those are being perceived by residents on the tourist destinations?
6. What role residents can play towards preservation and promotion of Heritage sites?
7. Are the existing heritage resources fully utilized towards tourism development in Himachal Pradesh?

On the basis of identified research gap and research issues, and research questions the objectives for this study have been framed as described in Introduction of this thesis.

2.11 SUMMARY

Today, we are living in the knowledge economy witnessed with every day rapid developments in terms of information, communication, technology, management etc. The rising population and their travel demands consume the resources (natural and cultural) at the destination. A race of human being to grow up and become superior to each other is a very common and challenging phenomenon worldwide. The globalization and modernization has deficiently affected the local culture, customs, trends and traditions. This co-modification of culture is a serious threat to every community worldwide. The adverse effect is on our resources (both natural and manmade). To overcome this problem it is mandatory to analyze the tourism industry trends, understand the tourist psychology and keep the local factors in mind while making any suggestion for tourism promotion at any destination. Therefore this chapter emphasize on protection of valuable heritage, identification of contributory factors towards heritage tourism, and suggests the measures to overcome the challenges faced by heritage sites as tourism attractions. This
chapter discussed the increased interest in heritage tourism destinations worldwide. The notion of heritage was defined along with heritage tourism. Additionally, the prior exploration in this part was recognized keeping in mind the end goal to investigate which areas required further study. The past examination on heritage tourism included such issues as the qualities of heritage destinations, the visitor characteristics, and relationship between heritage destination traits and visitor satisfaction. Few studies also explored the role of stakeholders in heritage tourism development and promotion. From these past studies, the variables for this study were decided.