CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

‘Tourism is the temporary short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where they normally live and work, together with their activities and experiences during these journeys’ (Hunziker and Krapf, 1942). Journeys are for pleasure, entertainment, culture, business, conferences, visiting friends and relatives, adventure, shopping, dining, challenge and self-development, or for a combination of these reasons. Tourism has become one of the world’s largest and fastest growing industries with an average annual rate of 4.1 per cent during 1995-2005 and exceeding the 800 million mark in 2005. This is because of several factors, such as rising levels of income, improvements in transportation and the introduction of low-cost airline services, easier access to destinations by tourists and the diversification of the industry with new market niches, such as cultural tourism, ecotourism and adventure tourism. During the decade between 1995 and 2005, the Asian and Pacific regions witnessed increases in arrivals averaging 6.5 per cent annually, thereby raising the region’s global share of the tourism market from 15.3 per cent in 1995 to 19.2 per cent in 2005.

Tourism has become a significant source of foreign exchange revenues for many countries of the region, including some least developed countries and island developing economies. For example in 2006, tourism activities in Maldives contributed 66.6 per cent of the country’s gross domestic product (GDP) and accounted for 65.9 per cent of its exports, while in Vanuatu the tourism industry contributed 47.0 per cent of the country’s GDP and 73.7 per cent of its total export earnings.

Nowadays north-east Asia has emerged as the most dynamic sub region, posting an annual tourism growth rate of 7.8 per cent. In spite of an escalation in disasters and other crises, other sub-regions in Asia and the Pacific succeeded in maintaining a positive trend in annual tourist arrivals. Cambodia had an average annual growth rate of 21.1 per cent; the Lao People’s Democratic Republic, 61 per cent; Vietnam, 9.8 per cent; and Thailand, 5.3 per cent. India had an average annual growth rate of 6.4 per cent; the Islamic Republic of Iran, 14.0 per cent; and Maldives, 7.8 per cent. Worldwide, international tourists spent some US$ 680 billion in 2005, a net increase of US$ 269.2 billion, which is equivalent to an average increase of 5.2 per cent annually, over the period 1995 to 2005. Tourism 2020 Vision, published by the World Tourism Organization, forecasts that international arrivals will reach nearly 1.6 billion annually by the year 2020. Furthermore, it is forecast that, by 2020, East Asia (comprising Northeast Asia and Southeast Asia)
and the Pacific will be receiving an estimated 397 million visitors annually (UNWTO’s Tourism 2020 Vision).

1.1 Why study tourism?

Tourism and its analysis has become a relatively recent field of study among academics, researchers and commentators. Some of the very early textbooks on tourism date to the early 1970s, with a second wave being produced in the 1980s and then an explosive growth of literature in the late 1980s and 1990s, as tourism education and training expanded worldwide.

Tourism is normally defined by reducing it to a simple range of activities or transactions rather than focussing on the frame work needed to give a wider perspective or overview of tourism as a dynamic and important subject. These problems often compound the way people view tourism as a subject, emphasizing the holiday or enjoyment aspects of travelling (either in spare time or on business) as the defining feature of tourism. To the general public tourism is something many have engaged in, and thus have an opinion regarding what it is, its effects and its widespread development.

Often tourism is not perceived as a serious subject by other academicians, as it does not address societal problems. In reality, these prejudices and attitudes are fundamentally flawed. Admittedly tourism is about pleasure and enjoyment, but its global growth and expansion are now creating serious societal problems and issues that require a fundamental understanding of tourism so that the impacts and problems it can cause can be managed and controlled. One way of beginning to understand that tourism is more than holidays and enjoyment is to consider why tourism is so important in modern society (i.e. its social, cultural and economic significance) by looking at an important process that has led to the demand for it – the rise of the leisure society.

1.2 Various types of tourism around the world

Table 1.1 Types of Tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SI. No.</th>
<th>Type of Tourism</th>
<th>Features</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Pilgrimage Tourism</td>
<td>Pilgrimages have created a variety of tourist opportunities in medieval period and even in today’s modern tourism, they stand as an important stream of tourism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Health Tourism</td>
<td>Even though health tourism existed long before, it gained importance during eighteenth century. This tourism is associated with spas, places with health-giving mineral waters, treating diseases from gout to liver disorders and bronchitis. A number of doctors have highlighted the benefits of sea bathing, which has become a part of health tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Winter Tourism</td>
<td>Winter sports contribute to winter tourism. Many water sports holiday packages are available at places in many countries apart from Ski and Snow festival tours organized annually. Skiing is extremely popular in the mountainous areas. Ski festivals have variety of events like ski and sled competitions, ski and snow board lessons, performances and recreational activities. Majority of the event participants are from countries with a warm climate.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Introduction

Assessment of Carrying Capacity of selected Tourism Destinations in Kerala: A Strategy for Sustainable Development

4. Mass tourism
Mass travel is possible with improvements in technology allowing the transport of large numbers of people in a short period of time to places of leisure interest. Through this, greater numbers of people enjoy the benefits of leisure time. The increase in the speed of Railways, the better Sea travel options, and the increase in the number of improved Air travel services, the mass travel has grown and developed internationally.

5. Niche Tourism
Physical activity or sports-oriented niche tourism includes adventure tourism such as the mountaineering and hiking (tramping), the sport travel for golf and scuba diving or extreme tourism for people interested in risky activities. There are many types of niche tourism.

The creative tourism includes attending cultural festivals, events, and workshops. The educational tourism is to attend classes and learn certain faculties. The hobby tourism is to gather more information about hobbies and this involves garden tours, amateur radio, or square dance cruises. The music and dance tourism involves focusing on cultural and arts activities with more emphasis on music and dance. The heritage tourism involves visiting places to know about the heritage and culture of those places.

There are many sub-types in nature and environment-oriented tourisms, such as coastal tourism, ecotourism, garden tourism, rural tourism or the agritourism. The mystical tourism involving meditation, yoga, and rituals.

6. Dark tourism
Travel to sites associated with death and suffering, such as the scene of the Hindenburg airship disaster, or to the sites of disasters (Disaster tourism. The Pop-culture tourism is the tourism by those that visit a particular location after reading about it or seeing it used as a location in a film.

7. Space tourism
Traveling in outer space or on spaceships. Whilst the forecasts of future tourism arrivals illustrate the importance of looking ahead in trying to anticipate changes, one new trend that is likely to emerge in the next 50 years and is therefore worthy of discussion is space tourism.

1.3 World tourism - current trends
Global tourism has been growing at a remarkable rate in the post Second World War period. The world’s annual tourism growth rate is over 7%. Some areas, in the blind pursuit of profit and totally oblivious of the adverse impacts of tourism, have reached saturation levels and are manifesting the negative impacts of tourism. If travel and tourism were to be a separate state, it would now be the third largest economy in the world, after the USA and Japan (Jefferson, 1993).

1.3.1 International arrivals and receipts
Tourist arrivals at the international level were 69 million in 1960 and 566 million in 1995. This was an increase of 5% over the previous year 1994. The international tourist arrivals rose to 700 million in 2000. In the next 20 years, arrivals are expected to hit 1.5 billion (excluding domestic arrivals) (Times of India, 2001a). In 1995, worldwide receipts from international tourism (excluding expenditure on international transport) rose to US$ 393 billion, an increase of over US$ 155 from 1994 (Latham, 1998).
In the decade 1985-94, Europe accounted for 60% of all international arrivals and about half of all the receipts. Therefore, Europe seemed to be the most preferred tourist destination. Its market share later, however, eroded mainly because of the emerging nations in the East Asia and Pacific (EAP) region (Latham, 1998). This decline in Europe clearly signals a diversification in world tourism and the emergence of alternative tourism destinations (WTO, 1995). Over the past few decades, many countries under the EAP region have shown remarkable growth in economy and tourism. Given the levels of economic development and the gains in capital investment and business expenditures, that are expected in this part of the world in the next century, this trend is likely to continue (Latham, 1998). The Americas, together with Europe and the EAP, share the world’s international tourism trade.

The second highest rate of growth of international tourism is witnessed in the African countries. However, at the global level, this accounted for only 18.4 million arrivals of the world total and stood fourth. The ranking with regard to receipts at US$ 6.4 billion also was fourth. Following a number of years of sustained growth, it was in 1994 that a slight drop in arrivals to Africa was noted mainly due to the poor performance of some countries of North Africa (WTO, 1995). However, South Africa, within the African continent achieved a substantial increase in tourism growth during the later 1980s ranking between 1985-94 (Latham, 1998). Between 1987 and 1991, tourist arrivals and receipts in Central America grew at average annual rates of 11.5% and 16.8%, respectively, thus exceeding the average rates of growth of global tourism in third world countries and elsewhere in the Americas during the same period (Stonich et al., 1995). By 1996, more than 2.5 million tourists were visiting Central America annually and tourism contributed approximately US$ 1.5 billion to foreign exchange earnings of the region (CAN, 1996; LADB, 1996).

Some regions and countries exhibit a somewhat erratic nature of tourism growth. For example, the Middle East showed a 7.7% decline in international arrivals in 1991 but followed it by a 23.6% growth the next year. This fluctuation may vary from one region to another depending on a number of factors or their combinations within a particular country. There may be an absence of attractive recreation resources, shortage in basic amenities and facilities, lack of infrastructure, tedious policies and procedure of the government all of which affect the arrivals considerably. Climatic conditions also cannot be neglected in determining the particular season for arrival of tourist from one part of the globe to another. Along with the factors discussed above, without recourse to publicity and advertising, there will be very little tourism (Dann, 1996). In 1993, Cyprus allocated 86% of its tourism budget for promotion. Likewise, Greece spent 85%, Turkey 76% and Canada 72% of the total tourism budget on publicity (Paci, 1994).
South Asia has the lowest share of the market of world tourism in both arrivals and receipts. In 1994, international arrivals showed a rise of nearly 10% mainly due to the strong performance of India and its sustained growth in the European market (WTO, 1995; Latham, 1998). Considering the average annual percentage change in arrivals as well as receipts (1985-94), South Asia attracted only 5.1% of tourists and earned only 6.2% of receipts of the global tourism trade (Latham, 1998). Among the 15 countries leading in international arrivals, countries within Europe and North America occupy the top slot. Twenty-five years ago, only about 1500 tourists visited Nepal but by 1993 their numbers increased to 300,000; a quarter of them were trekkers (Dann, 1996).

1.3.2 Tourism in South Asia

The WTO region for South Asia includes Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Burma, India, Iran, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. The people of these ten countries have inherited cultures that date back thousands of years. They have much that is in common, like their religions - Buddhism, Hinduism, Islam and Christianity and also much that is uncommon – food, language, customs and dress.

The countries possess a diversity of attractions – snow capped mountains, golden beaches, historical remains, archaeological monuments, wild life sanctuaries and sporting facilities. There are modern cities side by side with ancient ones and treasured archaeological sites. Religious festivals and practices have been preserved for centuries and their customs have ignored the passage of time. The tradition of hospitality, imbibed as a way of life, has been nurtured through the ages. All these factors, along with the development of modern facilities, constitute varied and rich attractions for tourists.

1.3.3 Indian scenario

Indian tourism has also undergone a sea change. Tourism policy in India is being structured and given form by the creation of a separate tourism development fund, setting up of a tourism development authority, visa-on arrival, effective marketing, and people’s participation in the planning process. Reserve Bank of India data on the composition of service exports show that over a quarter of the local income now comes from software services. The second largest item is receipts from travel services.

India’s outbound tourism has grown much more substantially compared to inbound tourism. The WTTC and Oxford Economic Forecasting conducted a survey in the year 2001 and found that more than 3.7 million Indian tourists are going abroad every year and the Indian traveller is consuming leisure and business products and services to the tune of US$ 16.3 billion. This reveals that the Indians are the fastest growing travel spenders in the world. Worldwide
tourism industry creates one in 10 jobs. India ranks 153 out of 160 countries in terms of investment made in the tourism sector, which highlights the low priority accorded to this sector.

Countries like the USA, France, Spain, Italy etc which are giving priority to tourism development, realizing the potential of this sector in solving critical economic situation. Moreover, the higher goals of socialism can best be achieved through tourism as it contributes to bringing in an economic equilibrium in society. Governments are increasingly aware of the wide spectrum of effects created by tourism. The economic returns from tourism, however real and significant they may be, do not constitute the only reason why states encourage this activity. Tourism creates contact between individuals, between cultures and religions. It gives insight into alien cultures and in the process creates interest and understanding among people.

1.3.4 Kerala tourism

During the last two decades Kerala has been experiencing consistent growth in the case of tourist arrivals with corresponding changes in infrastructure and support facilitates (Dileep, 2004). Kerala comprises high ranges of the Western Ghats, the undulating mid lands and the coastal belt interspersed with lakes and backwaters. The Coastal Zone in Kerala is the low land fringing the sea extending over 560 kms, with a height of less than 8 m from the mean sea level, covering about 15% of the state’s total area of 38,863 km². A chain of water bodies, locally known as kayals running obliquely parallel to the coastline is a characteristic feature of Kerala coast. These are mostly interconnected by natural or man-made canals, facilitating internal navigation almost for the entire length of the coast. Numerous perennial rivers discharge into these kayals. The southern half of the Kerala coast harbours more of larger backwaters. The kayals of the Kerala coast are mostly separated from the sea by elongated sandbars and based on this they can be treated as ‘coastal lagoons’. The Kerala Public Works Department (cf. Water Resources of Kerala, 1974) has identified 27 estuaries and 7 lagoons in Kerala. The vast low lying area fringing the coast, is not only an important physiographic unit of the state, but also important in terms of economic activity and demographic distribution. It constitutes 16.40% of the area of the State (State of the Environment Report, Kerala, 2005).

Environment and tourism are closely linked in Kerala, as the forms of tourism popular in Kerala – ecotourism, beach tourism, backwater tourism and coastal tourism are all heavily dependent on the environment and its resources (Romiti, 2005).

1.4 Impacts of tourism

It is essential to identify the possible impacts of tourism. The major goal of developing the tourism industry in a community is maximizing selected positive impacts while minimizing potential negative impacts. Tourism researchers have identified a large number of impacts. Grouping the
impacts into categories shows the types of impacts that could result from developing tourism in a community. A community will not experience every impact. Some are dependent on particular natural resource features (mountains, coral reefs) or development and spatial patterns (special ‘tourist zones’). Others relate to the social condition of the community, particularly the ability to culturally or socially connect with tourists. Still others relate to types and intensity of tourism developments, i.e., approval or hostility toward tourist activities. Apart from obvious and visible effects on the economy and the physical environment, tourism can contribute to social and cultural changes in host societies, including changes in value systems, traditional lifestyles, family relationships, individual behaviour or community structure. Tourism's social and cultural impacts are often difficult to measure, as, to a large extent, they are indirect. The impacts of tourism can be summarised as follows (Fig 1.1):

![Impacts of Tourism](image)

**Fig 1.1 Impacts of Tourism**

### 1.4.1 Economic impacts of tourism

Development of tourism in India is a recent phenomenon compared to some other countries. Tourism in India was a neglected area in its economy and investment. Initially in 1948, a small cell in the Ministry of Transport looked after tourism. After the recommendations of the estimates committee in 1955, a separate Department of Tourism was established in March 1957.

In the three decades that followed, Indian tourism has developed considerably and made rapid strides and has brought profits to the country. Now tourism has established itself as a prime component in the Indian economy (Babu, 1998). Smaller and less developed countries have made much progress, over the last few decades, in tourism, while India, despite its diversity and attractiveness, has not been a match for them. In India, the nature of tourism has remained very
fragile and has fluctuated considerably from time to time. For example, between 1961 and 1970, average growth was 8.4%, but during 1980 to 1985 it declined to 3.4% (Babu, 1998). This was essentially because of a steep rise in the cost of air travel (Jain, 1998). India’s share in world tourism earnings stood at 0.74% in 1995 (Statistical Outline of India, 1996-97). Of the total foreign tourists, India attracted only 1.89 million tourists (0.36% of the total international arrivals) in 1994 and 2.12 million (0.337% provisional) in 1995 (Statistical Outline of India, 1996-97). However, the number of tourist arrivals into India during 2000 touched 2.62 million, recording an increase of 5.7% over the previous year (Times of India, 2001b).

Out of the total earnings of US$ 340.7 billion from tourism at the global level, South Asia earned US$ 2.4 billion (WTO, 1996). Foreign exchange from tourists is an important issue and a useful indicator of the status of tourism. India’s exchanges receipts from the tourism sector are estimated by the average expenditure incurred by foreigners during their visits and are obtained from surveys conducted from time to time (Babu, 1998). In spite of this increase in foreign exchange, it is at the lowest ebb when compared to the world level. The foremost reason seems to be the continuous rise in the country’s population and the resultant over-exploitation of available resources. The second reason is the habit of ignoring the norms and regulation of town and country planning while constructing homes and hotels (for example in Munnar, Kerala). This attitude inevitably leads to haphazard development and increased load on land and basic amenities. If such unplanned developmental activities are allowed to continue, they will collectively cause many of the environmental problems in the locality, region and the country. These environmental problems, particularly relating to sanitation, solid wastes, air pollution and inadequate water supply prevent the tourist from enjoying the place visited to the desired level of their expectations. In these circumstances the recreation resources, although attractive and beautiful, are of secondary interest to the tourist. The nature of tourism in India is primarily cultural and religious, nonetheless, amenities and facilities are as important and India, unfortunately, is still backward on this count (Jain, 1998).

### 1.4.1.1 Foreign exchange earnings

Tourism expenditures and the export and import of related goods and services generate income to the host economy and can stimulate the investment necessary to finance growth in other economic sectors. Some countries seek to accelerate this growth by requiring visitors to bring in a certain amount of foreign currency for each day of their stay and do not allow them to take it out of the country again at the end of the trip. An important indicator of the role of international tourism is its generation of foreign exchange earnings. Tourism is one of the top five export categories for as many as 83% of countries and is a main source of foreign exchange earnings for at least 38% of countries. Kerala’s earnings from foreign tourists from 1991-2010 is depicted in Table 1.2.
Table 1.2 Kerala’s earnings from foreign tourists from 1991-2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Earnings (Rs. In millions)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>282.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>597.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>1057.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>1161.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>1587.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>1963.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>2273.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>3020.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>4160.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>5253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>5350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>7056.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>9833.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>12667.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>15523.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>19984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>26409.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>30665.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>28531.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>37973.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.4.1.2 Contribution to government revenues

Government revenues from the tourism sector can be categorized as direct and indirect contributions. **Direct** contributions are generated by taxes on incomes from tourism employment and tourism businesses, and by direct levies on tourists such as departure taxes. **Indirect** contributions are those originating from taxes and duties levied on goods and services supplied to tourists.

1.4.1.3 Employment generation

The rapid expansion of international tourism has led to significant employment creation. For example, the hotel accommodation sector alone provided around 11.3 million jobs worldwide in 1995. Tourism can generate jobs directly through hotels, restaurants, nightclubs, taxis, and souvenir sales, and indirectly through the supply of goods and services needed by tourism-related businesses. According to the WTO, tourism supports some 7% of the world's workers.
1.4.1.4 Stimulation of infrastructure investment

Tourism can induce the local government to make infrastructure improvements such as better water and sewage systems, roads, electricity, telephone and public transport networks, all of which can improve the quality of life for residents as well as facilitate tourism.

1.4.1.5 Economic development of host community

Tourism can be a significant, even essential, part of the local economy. As the environment is a basic component of the tourism industry's assets, tourism revenues are often used to measure the economic value of protected areas. There are other local revenues that are not easily quantified, as not all tourist expenditures are formally registered in the macro-economic statistics. Money is earned from tourism through informal employment such as street vendors, informal guides, autorickshaw drivers, etc. The World Travel and Tourism Council estimate that tourism generates an indirect contribution equal to 100% of direct tourism expenditures. Econometric methods have been widely used to study the demands of tourism in various countries (Akis, 1998). The aim of these studies is to determine the factors affecting demand and to forecast tourist arrivals in order to develop appropriate policies for the tourism sector. In Australia, a formal, theoretical model of the dynamic structure of tourism demand has been developed from consideration of low information (Morley, 1998). In Spain and other countries, some studies with the basic objective of reconciling environmental impacts with tourism development propose an alternative model for the development of new resorts (Gilbert, 1939; Christaller, 1963; Plog, 1973; Stansfield, 1978; Butler, 1980; Priestley and Mundet, 1998). The laissez-faire policy applied throughout Spain during the growth stages of tourism and the associated absence of planning measures, is largely to blame not only for over-development, but also for lack of product definition (Priestley, 1995).

The negative economic impacts of tourism are the following:

**Cost:** Public resources spent on subsidized infrastructure or tax breaks may reduce government investment in other critical areas such as education and health.

**Increase in prices:** Increasing demand for basic services and goods from tourists will often cause price hikes that negatively affect local residents whose income does not increase proportionately. A San Francisco State University study of Belize found that, as a consequence of tourism development, the prices for locals increased by 8%.

Tourism development and the related rise in real estate demand may dramatically increase building costs and land values. Not only does this make it more difficult for local people, especially in developing countries, to meet their basic daily needs, it can also result in a dominance by outsiders in land markets and in-migration that erodes economic opportunities for the locals, eventually disempowering residents. In Costa Rica, close to 65% of the hotels belong to foreigners.
**Economic dependence of the local community on tourism:** Diversification in an economy is a sign of health, however if a country or region becomes dependent for its economic survival upon one industry, it can put major stress upon this industry as well as the people involved to perform well. Many countries, especially developing countries with little ability to explore other resources, have embraced tourism as a way to boost the economy. In Gambia, for instance, 30% of the workforce depends directly or indirectly on tourism. In small island developing states, percentages can range from 83% in the Maldives to 21% in the Seychelles and 34% in Jamaica, according to the WTO. Over-reliance on tourism, especially mass tourism, carries significant risks to tourism-dependent economies. Economic recession and the impacts of natural disasters such as tropical storms and cyclones as well as changing tourism patterns can have a devastating effect on the local tourism sector.

**Seasonal character of jobs:** The seasonal character of the tourism industry creates economic problems for destinations that are heavily dependent on it. Problems that seasonal workers face include job (and therefore income) insecurity, usually with no guarantee of employment from one season to the next, difficulties in getting training, employment-related medical benefits, and recognition of their experience, and unsatisfactory housing and working conditions.

**Other industry impacts affecting tourism:** Economic crises, like the Asian crisis that hit Thailand, Malaysia and Indonesia some time ago, can be devastating to inbound tourism flows.

### 1.4.2 Environmental impact of tourism

The quality of the environment, both natural and man-made, is essential to tourism. However, tourism's relationship with the environment is complex. It involves many activities that can have adverse environmental effects. Many of these impacts are linked with the construction of general infrastructure such as roads and airports, and of tourism facilities, including resorts, hotels, restaurants, shops, golf courses and marinas. The negative impacts of tourism development can gradually destroy the environmental resources on which it depends. On the other hand, tourism has the potential to create beneficial effects on the environment by contributing to environmental protection and conservation. It is a way to raise awareness of environmental values and it can serve as a tool to finance protection of natural areas and increase their economic importance (UNEP, 2001).

Areas with high-value natural resources, like oceans, lakes, waterfalls, mountains, unique flora and fauna, and great scenic beauty attract tourists and new residents (in-migrants) who seek emotional and spiritual connections with nature. Because these people value nature, selected natural environments are preserved, protected, and kept from further ecological decline. Land that could be developed can generate income by accommodating the recreational activities to visitors.
Income from tourism often makes it possible to preserve and restore historic buildings and monuments. Improvements in the area’s appearance through cleanup or repairs and the addition of public art such as murals, water fountains, and monuments (part of making a community ready for tourism) benefit visitors and residents alike. Tourism is generally considered a ‘clean’ industry, one that is based on hotels, restaurants, shops and attractions, instead of factories.

Tourism can also degrade an environment, like the degrading Vembanad Lake in Kerala. Visitors generate waste and pollution (air, water, solid waste, noise). Natural resource attractions can be jeopardized through improper uses or overuse. Providing tourist services can alter the landscape’s appearance. As tourism develops, demand for land increases, especially for prime locations like beachfronts, special views, and mountains. Without forethought, natural landscape and open space can be lost. The destruction or loss of flora and fauna can happen when desirable plants and animals are collected for sale or the land is trampled. Tourists or the businesses that cater to them often remove plants, animals, rocks, fossils, coral, and cultural or historical artefacts from an area. Uncontrolled visitation or overuse by visitors can degrade landscapes, historic sites, and monuments. Where water is scarce, tourists can overwhelm the available supply. Travellers can also inadvertently introduce non indigenous species, as can increases in the trade of animals and plants. A constant stream of visitors may disrupt wildlife by disturbing their breeding cycles and altering natural behaviours.

1.4.2.1 Positive impacts

Realizing the potential of the tourism sector for economic growth and harmonious relationship in the family of nations, governments are now giving priority to tourism development. But all development processes entail the problems of environment and ecology, be it science or technology, tourism or agriculture. It is said that tourism can kill tourism. The interaction between tourism development and environmental degradation is so complex that it requires sensitive handling. The concept of sustainable tourism embodies a challenge to develop world tourism capacity and the quality of its products without adversely affecting the environment that maintains and nurtures them. Sustainable tourism development is positive socio-economic change that does not undermine the ecological and social system upon which communities and societies are dependent. Its successful implementation requires integrated policy planning and social learning processes. Its political viability depends on the full support of the people it affects through their social institution and activities.

Tourism can contribute to environmental protection and conservation, the conservation of biodiversity, the sustainable use of natural resources and provide much needed resources. The major contributions are summarised as:
**Direct financial contributions:** Tourism can contribute directly to the conservation of sensitive areas and habitat. Revenue from park-entrance fees and similar sources can be allocated specifically to pay for the protection and management of environmentally sensitive areas. Special fees for park operations or conservation activities can be collected from tourists or tour operators.

**Contributions to government revenues:** Some governments collect money in more far-reaching and indirect ways that are not linked to specific parks or conservation areas. User fees, income taxes, taxes on sales or rental of recreation equipment, and license fees for activities such as hunting and fishing can provide governments with the funds needed to manage natural resources. Such funds can be used for overall conservation programs and activities.

**Improved environmental management and planning:** Sound environmental management of tourism facilities and especially hotels can increase the benefits to natural areas. But this requires careful planning for controlled development, based on analysis of the environmental resources of the area. By planning early for tourism development, damaging and expensive mistakes can be prevented, avoiding the gradual deterioration of environmental assets significant to tourism. Cleaner production techniques can be important tools for planning and operating tourism facilities in a way that minimizes their environmental impacts. For example, green building (using energy-efficient and non-polluting construction materials, sewage systems and energy sources) is an increasingly important way for the tourism industry to decrease its impact on the environment. And because waste treatment and disposal are often major, long-term environmental problems in the tourism industry, pollution prevention and waste minimization techniques are especially important for the tourism industry.

**Environmental awareness:** Tourism has the potential to increase public appreciation of the environment and to spread awareness of environmental problems when it brings people into closer contact with nature and the environment. This confrontation may heighten awareness of the value of nature and lead to environmentally conscious behaviour and activities to preserve the environment. If it is to be sustainable in the long run, tourism must incorporate the principles and practices of sustainable consumption. The tourism industry can play a key role in providing environmental information and raising awareness among tourists of the environmental consequences of their actions.

**Protection and preservation:** Tourism can significantly contribute to environmental protection, conservation and restoration of biological diversity and sustainable use of natural resources. Because of their attractiveness, pristine sites and natural areas are identified as valuable and the need to keep the attraction alive can lead to creation of national parks and wildlife parks.

**Alternative employment:** Tourism provides employment to many people who are engaged previously in illegal activities such as hunting and illegal timber extraction in natural areas.
**Regulatory measures:** Regulatory measures help offset negative impacts; for instance, controls on the number of tourist activities and movement of visitors within protected areas can limit impacts on the ecosystem and help maintain the integrity and vitality of the site. Such limits can also reduce the negative impacts on resources. Limits should be established after an in-depth analysis of the maximum sustainable visitor capacity. This strategy is being used in the Galapagos Islands, where the number of ships allowed to cruise this remote archipelago is limited, and only designated islands can be visited, ensuring visitors have little impact on the sensitive environment and animal habitats.

**1.4.2.2 Negative impacts**

Fostering a beneficial relationship between tourism and the environment requires public sector intervention to plan and manage each element, whilst highlighting the benefits for the tourism industry. For example, the UK government-led study on Tourism and the Environment examined and established the scale and nature of environmental problems induced by mass tourism at major tourist sites, and produced guidelines on how such problems were to be addressed. The study pointed to the need to maintain the resource base for tourism activities. As part of the study, common problems resulting from tourism were identified, including wear and tear on the urban fabric, overcrowding, and social and cultural impacts between the visitors and local communities.

Negative impacts from tourism occur when the level of visitor use is greater than the environment's ability to cope with this use within the acceptable limits of change. Uncontrolled conventional tourism poses potential threats to many natural areas around the world. It can put enormous pressure on an area and lead to impacts such as soil erosion, increased pollution, discharges into the sea, natural habitat loss, increased pressure on endangered species and heightened vulnerability to forest fires. It often puts a strain on water resources, and it can force local populations to compete for the use of critical resources. Therefore, negative environmental impacts of tourism have to be examined and many studies of tourism pertain to these negative impacts.

**Pollution:** The technological complexity of twentieth century living has led to various forms of pollution, which are both initiated and compounded by tourism development and by travel in particular. Any large-scale tourist movement increases air pollution, whether from jet aircraft or the exhausts of cars or boats. All three forms of travel can also contribute to unacceptable levels of noise. Water-borne vessels, by dumping fuel or waste over board, also contribute to water pollution, which in turn affects the wildlife in the rivers. Transport by air, road, and rail is continuously increasing in response to the rising number of tourists and their greater mobility. Tourism now accounts for more than 60% of air travel and is therefore responsible for an important share of air emissions. Transport emissions and emissions from energy production and use are linked to acid rain, global warming and photochemical pollution. Air pollution from tourist
transportation has impacts on the global level, especially from carbon dioxide (CO$_2$) emissions related to transportation energy use. And it can contribute to severe local air pollution. Some of these impacts are quite specific to tourist activities. For example, especially in very hot or cold countries, tour buses often leave their motors running for hours while the tourists go out for an excursion because they want to return to a comfortably air-conditioned bus.

Visual pollution can also be ascribed to activity related to the design of buildings for tourism. Lack of planning is very often to blame, as developers prefer to build more cheaply, leading to high rise concrete hotels lacking character and out of sync with the surrounding architecture. Some authorities have insisted that hotels must be built with local materials, or conform to the ‘vernacular’ styles of architecture, that is, those indigenous to the region. Others require buildings not to exceed a certain height – for example, Tunisia requires that the hotel developments in tourism resorts should not be higher than the normal height of the palm trees which will surround them. Mauritius has imposed constraints on both the architectural style and the materials employed in hotel building. Others have questioned the appeal which accommodation such as thatched dwelling units, vaguely resembling African huts for tourists.

Other common forms of visual pollution by tourists include littering, particularly in areas around picnic sites, and graffiti on buildings. It is a curious fact that even those tourists who come from large cities, where they are so used to seeing litter that they become unconscious of it, immediately become aware of the effects of litter at a tourist destination. Resorts which have made the effort to improve their image in recent years tend to start by undertaking a drive against both rubbish in the streets and graffiti on buildings. An important point here is that litter bins should be not only readily available, but be attractively designed. Graffiti has become a common problem in the Western world, with thoughtless tourists desecrating ancient monuments with spray paint, or even by chiseling messages on them. This of course is no new development. The Romans were chiseling their names on Greek monuments two thousand years ago.

Ecologists and environmentalists, across the global, lament the over exploitation of flora and fauna, the spoiling of the scenery, and the litter and pollution that tourism causes (Echelberger, 1971; Kaur, 1980; Edington and Edington, 1986). These are the most glaring negative impacts of tourism on our natural environment. The natural environment, the central ingredient that establishes tourism in the first place includes the seashore, the mountains, the forests, the valleys and the countryside. The large scale inflow of tourists, attracted by the natural beauty of a place, promotes many activities that have an adverse effect on the environment, such as: air pollution from vehicles of all kinds, water contamination arising from sewage and solid waste disposal and ecological damages caused by trampling and road construction. The discharge of untreated wastewater and sewage generated by hotels into local streams is frequently noticed in hilly areas.
Awareness of environmental issues, in general, has increased since 1980 and sustainable objectives have been set for each developmental activity. For example, Butler introduces the model of a product life cycle for tourist resorts. The model foresees a decline in organized mass tourism and increase in weekend or one-day visits. It further predicts the conversion of hotels into apartments for permanent settlement or retirement homes (Priestley and Mundet, 1998). Spanish resorts are frequently cited as representing the advanced stages of this model. Butler (1980) considered that the Costa Brava resorts exemplified the characteristics of the stagnation stage when the peak number of visitors is reached. With capacity levels for many variables reached, or exceeded, attendant environmental, social and economic problems set in. The criteria of market competitiveness and economic viability may thus be more valid indicators than carrying capacity in measuring the stagnation phase of the resort cycle. Haywood (1986), Getz (1992), Ioannides (1992), Smith (1992), Agarwal (1994) and Oppermann (1995) have made theoretical summaries of studies based on Butler’s cycle and also reviewed the subsequent contributions in the area. Butler’s cycle is based on capacity levels and demand per visitor numbers (Debbage, 1990) and points out that decline sets in when visitor numbers exceed capacity levels at the destination (Cooper and Jackson, 1989). However, this idea of carrying capacity is problematic as it invokes subjective perceptions (Wall, 1982; Wilkinson, 1990).

The limit of carrying capacity is often crossed in the case of water bodies like rivers, lakes, coastal areas and islands due to the increasing load of pollution. The dumping of garbage and the discharge of sewerage from nearby tourist spots directly into rivers pollutes the major source of drinking water in the Himalaya. Therefore, water-borne diseases have been noticed in many human habitations close to the river. Surprisingly, the sources of Himalayan rivers such as glaciers and snow-covered peaks have also begun to be polluted due to expeditions and trekking activities. In the lower altitudes, the problem of dumping waste directly into rivers is a major cause of water pollution. Direct throwing of municipal wastes into the Beas river is a common feature in Manali, Kullu and Bhuntar in the Beas valley and Manikaran in the Parbati valley. In many Himalayan lakes with a large number of houseboats, the discharged matter and untreated wastewater containing pathogenic materials poses health hazards to the inhabitants. Eutrophication of lake water is a common phenomenon in such situations (Kant, 1983). The pollution level of the islands of the world and coastal regions, in particular, have long been of great concern to environmentalists and tourism analysts (Camhis and Coccossis, 1983; Beller et al., 1990; Bergh, 1992; Wong, 1993).

**Solid Wastes:** Solid waste generated by tourism is a threat to environmental health particularly in developing countries. These countries generally lack the technology, financial capacity or awareness among people to handle waste generated from large numbers of tourists. Sagarmatha national park, in which Mount Everest is located, is now regarded as the world’s highest trash pit,
where tonnes of non-biodegradable garbage, waste paper trails and impromptu toilets add to the epidemic of bacterial illness that kills thousand of Nepalese babies (Dann, 1996). In the Himalaya, the refuse generated by tourists, trekkers and expedition members during their visits cause widespread ecological problems as all the routes are littered with non-biodegradable wastes (Kuniyal et al., 1998a). On all trekking areas, one may very easily come across wastes blotting the landscape as ugly scars.

**Biodiversity Degradation:** At the Rio Earth summit in 1992 loss of biodiversity was recognized as one of the major environmental challenges faced by humankind (Agenda 21, 1992). While recognising the fact that tourism should certainly be part of the efforts for sustainable use of bio-resources, it has to be acknowledged that the impact of tourism on bio-resources can be detrimental in several ways.

The tourist activities also have secondary impacts on the fragile mountain ecosystems. Each year 70,000 trekkers and their 150,000 supporting staff, requiring food, hot water and accommodation, crowd into the sensitive areas of Annapurna, Langtang and Khumbu-Everest. In response to this demand, 4000 km$^2$ of virgin woodlands are cleared annually and 30-75 tonnes of soil per ha is lost through erosion (Dann, 1996).

**Pressure on Local Resources:** Tourists, trekkers and expedition members consume local resources. They consume locally available resources such as water, food, firewood, medicinal plants and other raw material that may be in short supply and thus cause severe pressures on the limited resources. In the hills water supply is a major issue and the impact of tourism on this resource is even greater because of the seasonal influx of tourists during the dry summer months.

Tourism thus accelerates the over exploitation of forest resources. In the temperate areas like the Himalaya, this may have far reaching adverse impacts on the environment. Timber and fuel used in resorts and hotels can transform the fragile mountain ecosystem, particularly where tree growth is very slow. Initially, forest resources, especially timber and fuel wood, were used for domestic purposes only. But now the demands for the forest produce have increased greatly due to the establishment of hotels. To meet the diary requirement of tourists, large numbers of cows and buffaloes are kept. These animals overgraze the surrounding forests and degrade the sites (Shrestha, 1989). In the higher reaches within the Beas valley itself, some of the patches such as Munjak point in Khokan Wildlife Sanctuary, Rohtang pass, Chandrakhani Pass and Hamthkh pastures in the upper Beas valley have been the platforms for the grazing of the buffaloes of the gujjars (migratory graziers). The fragile ground cover of alpine pastures is damaged and made more erosion prone due to overgrazing, trampling and digging by the buffaloes. Degradation of mountain slopes for meeting the milk requirements of the locals and tourists is a widespread phenomenon both in the Alps (Sinnhuber, 1982) and the Himalaya.
**Water resources:** Water, and especially fresh water, is one of the most critical natural resources. The tourism industry generally overuses water resources for hotels, swimming pools, golf courses and personal use of water by tourists. This can result in water shortages and degradation of water supplies, as well as generating a greater volume of waste water. In dryer regions like the Mediterranean, the issue of water scarcity is of particular concern. Because of the hot climate and the tendency of tourists to consume more water when on holiday than they do at home, the amount used can run up to 440 litres a day.

**Land degradation:** Important land resources include minerals, fossil fuels, fertile soil, forests, wetland and wildlife. Increased construction of tourism and recreational facilities has increased the pressure on these resources and on scenic landscapes. Direct impact on natural resources, both renewable and non-renewable, in the provision of tourist facilities can be caused by the use of land for accommodation and other infrastructure provision, and the use of building materials. Forests often suffer negative impacts of tourism in the form of deforestation caused by fuel wood collection and land clearing. For example, each trekking tourist in Nepal - an area already suffering the effects of deforestation - can use four to five kilograms of wood a day.

**Construction activities and infrastructure development:** The development of tourism facilities such as accommodation, water supplies, restaurants and recreation facilities can involve sand mining, beach and sand dune erosion, soil erosion and extensive paving. In addition, road and airport construction can lead to land degradation and loss of wildlife habitats and deterioration of scenery.

**Alteration of ecosystems by tourist activities:** Habitat can be degraded by tourism activities. For example, wildlife viewing can bring about stress for the animals and alter their natural behaviour when tourists come too close. Safaris and wildlife watching activities have a degrading effect on habitat as they often are accompanied by the noise and commotion created by tourists as they pursue wild animals in their trucks and aircraft. This puts high pressure on animal habits and behaviours and tends to bring about behavioural changes. In some cases, as in Kenya, it has led to animals becoming so disturbed that at times they neglect their young or fail to mate.

**Climate Change and Tourism:** Climate is a fundamental factor in influencing the inflow of tourists to a particular area. If the climate is favourable, tourists will be high in numbers. In addition, when this high inflow remains uncontrolled they begin to affect adversely the surrounding environment. Residents in UK recognise climate as a primary motivating factor for holidays taken abroad (Perry and Smith, 1991; Kevan, 1993; Boniface and Cooper, 1994; Giles and Perry, 1998).
1.4.3 Socio-cultural impacts of tourism

‘Tourism is the temporary movement of people to destinations outside their normal places of work and residence, the activities undertaken during their stay in those destinations, and the facilities created to cater to their needs’ (Mathieson & Wall, 1982). During their stay in the destination, tourists interact with local residents and the outcome of their relationship is changes in the host individuals’ and host community's quality of life, value systems, labour division, family relationships, attitudes, behavioural patterns, ceremonies and creative expressions (Fox, 1977; Cohen, 1984; Pizam & Milman, 1984). The larger the cultural and economic difference between tourists and local residents, the more obvious and more significant these changes (Mathieson & Wall, 1982). Changes in the host community's quality of life are influenced by two major factors: the tourist-host relationship and the development of the industry itself. Apart from obvious and visible effects on the economy and the physical environment, tourism can contribute to social and cultural changes in host societies, including changes in value systems, traditional lifestyles, family relationships, individual behaviour or community structure.

Tourist-host encounters occur in three main contexts:

- where the tourist is buying some good or service from the host,
- where they are in the same place at the same time, and
- when they meet and share ideas and information (de Kadt, 1979).

As the last type of encounter is far less common than the first two, tourism often fails in promoting mutual understanding among different nations and stereotypes prevail (Nettekoven, 1979; Boissevain & Serracino-Inglott, 1979; de Kadt, 1979; Krippendorf, 1987; O'Grady, 1990). Tourism can emerge as a source of conflict between hosts and visitors in destinations where its development leads to perceived and actual impacts. There has been a wealth of studies of the social and cultural impacts by anthropologists and socialists, embodied in the influential studies by Smith (1977, 1992). The attitudes of residents towards tourism represent an important way in which this stakeholder group contributes to policy and public support for, or opposition towards, tourism. At a simplistic level, resident attitudes may be one barometer of an area’s ability to absorb tourists. However, the analysis of tourism’s social and cultural impacts is related to the way in which it affects or induces change in a number of elements.

Any analysis of host-guest impacts is a function of the interaction between these two groups, and will be dependent upon:

- The nature and extent of social, economic and cultural differences between tourists and hosts
- The ratio of visitors to residents
- The distribution and visibility of tourist developments
- The speed and intensity of development

(Douglas and Douglas, 1996)

The tourist-host relationship is characterised by four major features: it is transitory, unequal and unbalanced, lacks spontaneity and is limited by spatial and temporal constraints (UNESCO, 1976). The tourist usually stays in the destination for a short time, so there is no opportunity to develop the superficial relationship into a more meaningful one (Sutton, 1967). The traditional spontaneous hospitality turns into commercial activity (de Kadt, 1979; Greenwood, 1989; Jafari, 1989). Tourists are on holiday, served by locals, which results in different attitudes and behaviour (Sutton, 1967). The obvious relative wealth of the tourists often leads to exploitative behaviour on the hosts' side (Nettekoven, 1979). The main impacts affected by the tourist-host relationship are the demonstration effect, when the hosts' behaviour is modified in order to imitate tourists (Boissevain & Serracino-Inglott, 1979; Wilson, 1979; Duffield & Long, 1981; McElroy & Albuquerque, 1986; Crandall, 1987; Greenwood, 1989; Pearce, 1989; Tsartas, 1992); the change in language usage in the destination (White, 1974; Brougham & Butler, 1977; Wallace, 1997); the growth of alcoholism, crime, prostitution and gambling (Young, 1973; Graburn, 1983a; Gay, 1985; Pi-Sunyer, 1989; O'Grady, 1990) and the transformation (revitalisation or commoditisation) of the material and non-material forms of local culture (Graburn, 1976, 1984; UNESCO, 1976; Andronicou, 1979; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Greenwood, 1989; Mason, 1990; Mill, 1990; O'Grady, 1990; Evans, 1994).

Besides the physical presence of tourists and their encounters with local residents, the development of the tourism industry also contributes to changes in the quality of life, social structure and social organisation of local residents. Rapid and intensive tourism development results in different and usually less favourable impacts than organic and small-scale development (de Kadt, 1979; Getz, 1983; Krippendorf, 1987; Pearce, 1989; Peck & Lepie, 1989). The development of the tourism industry is often credited for generating new employment in the destination (UNESCO, 1976; Crandall, 1987; Pearce, 1989). However the community's traditional work patterns might be seriously affected, resulting in the abandonment of agricultural occupations (de Kadt, 1979; Urbanowicz, 1989; Verbole, 1995; Crick, 1996). Other significant impacts of tourism development are changes in the size and the demographic characteristics of the host population (de Kadt, 1979; Duffield & Long, 1981; Getz, 1986; Crandall, 1987; Jeffs & Travis, 1989); alteration of community structure (Duffield & Long, 1981; Haukeland, 1984); increased mobility of women and young adults (Greenwood, 1972; Stott, 1978; Boissevain & Serracino-Inglott, 1979; de Kadt, 1979; Duffield & Long, 1981; Pi-Sunyer, 1989; Mason, 1990; Kousis,
1996); infrastructural development in the destination, increased supply of services, and, consequently, improved quality of life for local residents (Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Garland, 1984; Crandall, 1987; Liu et al., 1987; Milman & Pizam, 1988; Mason, 1990; Snapenger & Johnson, 1991; Coccossis, 1996).

The social and cultural characteristics of the host community are, of course, also continuously influenced by the political, economic, technological, social, cultural and natural aspects of their wider environment. The problem of separating tourism's impacts from these influences is unsolved yet (Pearce, 1989; Crandall, 1987; Crick, 1996). The main objective of socio-cultural impact analysis is to provide developers, local authorities and all other parties concerned with information on the host communities’ perceptions and attitudes to tourism development in their destination, so that perceived positive impacts could be reinforced and perceived negative impacts could be minimised.

Tourism can improve the quality of life in an area by increasing the number of attractions, recreational opportunities, and services. Tourism offer residents, opportunities to meet interesting people, make friendships, learn about the world, and expose themselves to new perspectives. Experiencing different cultural practices enriches experiences, broadens horizons, and increases insight and appreciation for different approaches to living. Often, dwindling interest in host cultures is revived by reawakening cultural heritage as part of tourism development, which increases demand for historical and cultural exhibits. This interest by tourists in local culture and history provides opportunities to support preservation of historical artefacts and architecture. By learning more about others, their differences become less threatening and more interesting.

1.4.3.1 Tourism and service quality

Studies have also been conducted to identify the quality of tourism services by focussing on the interaction between the customer and the service provider (Callan, 1998). These interactions are known as ‘the service encounters’ (Czepiel et al., 1995) or the ‘moment of truth’ (Carlzon, 1987). As each person behaves differently in such encounters, the customers’ perception of this ‘moment of truth’ is the central consideration when evaluating the quality of services. This has been emphasised by many researchers (Parasuraman et al., 1985; Shostack, 1985; Solomon et al., 1985; Bitner et al., 1990). Shostack (1985) has defined the service encounter as ‘a time during which a consumer directly interacts with a service’. She suggests that the consumer interacts with all the dimensions of the service experience; the material product and, where appropriate, the physical surroundings, as well as, the service provider (Callan, 1998). The customer’s perspective of the quality of service has also been studied by several other researchers (Nightingale, 1985; Parasuraman et al., 1985; Bitner et al., 1990). To deliver consistent quality service, the customer’s perspective must be harmonised with that of the service providers and the managers of the
organization. The critical incident technique (CIT) developed by Flanagan (1954) is a method that can be used to compare and contrast the perspectives of the customer and the service provider. The technique relies on a set of procedures for collecting direct observations of human behaviour in such a way as to facilitate their potential usefulness in solving practical problems and developing broad psychological principles (Flanagan, 1954). This technique has been successfully employed in different disciplines, such as, management (Andersson and Nilsson, 1964; White and Locke, 1981), human resources (Latham et al., 1980; Pursell et al., 1980; Latham and Sarri, 1984) and hospitality and travel education (Ingalsbe and Spears, 1979; Copas, 1982; Coterell, 1982; Parttlow et al., 1988; George, 1989; Edvardsson, 1992; Lockwood, 1992; Gilbert and Morris, 1995).

1.4.3.2 Tourism and communications

Amenities such as fax, subscriber trunk dialling (STD), international subscriber dialling (ISD), internet and e-mail and mobile phone networking need to be developed in the tourist areas. These facilities are useful not to the tourists alone but also to the local residents in their day-to-day needs and emergencies. The addition of these facilities in the tourism sector helps the tourist to plan their journey in advance.

1.4.3.3 Cultural exchanges

According to Kreag (2001) the socio-cultural impacts of tourism can be summarised as:

**Positive Impacts**
- Improves quality of life
- Facilitates meeting visitors (educational experience)
- Positive changes in values and customs
- Promotes cultural exchange
- Improves understanding of different communities
- Preserves cultural identity of host population
- Increases demand for historical and cultural exhibits
- Greater tolerance of social differences
- Satisfaction of psychological needs

**Negative**
- Excessive drinking, alcoholism, gambling
- Increased underage drinking
- Crime, drugs, prostitution
- Increased smuggling
- Language and cultural effects
- Unwanted lifestyle changes
• Displacement of residents for tourism development
• Negative changes in values and customs
• Family disruption
• Exclusion of locals from natural resources
• New modified social structure

Tourism can come to a community with a dark social and cultural side, too. Illegal activities tend to increase in the relaxed atmosphere of tourist areas. Increased underage drinking can become a problem especially in beach communities, areas with festivals involving alcohol. It is easier to be anonymous where strangers are taken for granted; bustling tourist traffic can increase the presence of smugglers and buyers of smuggled products. Lifestyle changes such as alterations in local travel patterns to avoid tourist congestion and the avoidance of downtown shopping can damage a community socially and culturally. Hotels, restaurants, and shops can push tourism development into residential areas, forcing changes in the physical structure of a community. Development of tourist facilities in prime locations may cause locals to be or feel excluded from those resources. As local ethnic culture alters to fit the needs of tourism, language and cultural practices may change.

1.4.3.4 Sex
The early European tourists were to some extent motivated by the liberal attitude towards sex in some of the third world countries they visited. More recently a major tourism market has grown up around sex tourism and destinations such as Thailand, Gambia and some of the Central European countries have actively marketed the sexual content of their products. The spread of sexually transmitted diseases such as AIDS has done much to dampen the rapid growth of this element of tourism industry but it is still a significant part of the market. The growth of paedophilic activity is one element of the tourist industry that has become one of the biggest social evils in many tourism destinations.

1.4.3.5 Crime
The presence of large numbers of tourists provides a source for illegal activities including drugs trafficking, robbery, sexual harassment and violence. Tourists are obvious victims of crime where they are clearly identifiable by language or colour and can be expected to be carrying significant sums of money with them. Tourism in many places is associated with different gaming activities, gambling and casino developments. Unless properly monitored and controlled such developments can induce social behaviour that is detrimental to social cohesion.
1.4.3.6 Health
Sexually transmitted diseases can be transmitted when people from different communities interact, which leads to social and economic stress in the host population. In addition, the spread of waterborne diseases due to improper disposal of solid and liquid wastes and improper sanitation leads to the spread of microbial diseases. Cases of food poisoning are also reported in many tourist spots.

1.4.3.7 Comoditisation and staged authenticity
The demands of tourism lead to the mutation and sometimes destruction of the meaning of cultural performance and events. Events are made more colourful, more dramatic and spectacular in order to capture the attention and imagination of an audience that often does not possess the underlying knowledge/experience that would make the version appealing. Here culture becomes a commodity for financial transactions. The pseudo events are presented to satisfy tourist needs. With growing public awareness regarding cultural and ethnic differences there has been increasing demand for tourism products that offer cultural authenticity. Tourists are provided with sufficient cultural exposure to satisfy their demands while preserving the true cultural identity of the host population. One such way is the use of staged authenticity whereby the host population provides a more realistic performance of cultural heritage than which existed before (Cooper et al., 1998).

1.4.3.8 Tourism and terrorism
Terrorism that threatens civil life and governments in many states also takes unwanted advantage of tourism. Terrorists disguised as tourists often enter into targeted countries to start their destructive activities. Tourism has been used to send spies and terrorists to the enemy country. Of late, it is also being used to send unemployed youth from one nation to another for terrorist training. This case is more common in the countries having racial and linguistic similarities. The perceptions of risk from terrorism and the decisions of foreign tourists were studied by Sonmez and Graefe (1998). Quoting examples from many countries, including India, this study prominently mentioned the incident of 1995 (4-8 July) when six foreign tourists were taken hostage by militants in Kashmir; one of them escaped while another was decapitated (Fletcher, 1993; Sonmez and Graefe, 1998).

According to Adam Blake and M. Thea Sinclair, two scholars who have studied the impact of the September 2001 al Qaeda strikes on the U.S. tourism industry, ‘The contribution of tourism and travel to both industrialized and developing countries is now so great that any downturns in the level of activity in the industry are a cause of concern. The repercussions extend beyond activities directly associated with tourism, notably airlines, hotels and catering, to sectors that supply intermediate or final goods that are purchased by firms and employees in the industry, so that all sectors of the economy are affected to a greater or lesser extent’. The Mumbai terrorist attacks at
the start of peak tourist season compounded problems for the airlines and hotels that were already facing the slowest growth in visitor numbers in five years.

Jammu and Kashmir attracted a lot of tourists from different parts of the world. But terrorism has stemmed the flow of visitors to the state. As Buckley and Klemm (1993) have suggested ‘the problem with any kind of civil unrest is that unfavourable images are beamed across the world so that even those who are not afraid of terrorism will be discouraged from taking a holiday there’. As the EIU (1994), has asserted ‘international tourism has shown itself to be susceptible to concern over political instability and risks to personal safety. At its most extreme, outbreaks of military conflict are able to destroy established tourism sectors in very short order’.

Three categories of disruption to international tourism can be identified (EIU, 1994).

- Fundamental long-term disruption such as occurred in London, Northern Ireland, Sri Lanka.
- Continuing volatility and uncertainly at tourism destinations such as in Egypt, Israel.
- Short-term single event disruptions such as in India due to occasional terrorists attacks in the UK.

According to the above categorization, Jammu and Kashmir has been identified as an area of continuing volatility or uncertainty, causing disruption to the tourism industry.

1.5 Latest trends

As a result of the economic crisis of 2008, international arrivals suffered a strong slowdown beginning in June 2008. Growth from 2007 to 2008 was only 3.7% during the first eight months of 2008. The Asian and Pacific markets were affected and Europe stagnated during the boreal summer months, while the Americas performed better, reducing their expansion rate but keeping a 6% growth from January to August 2008. Only the Middle East continued its rapid growth during the same period, reaching a 17% growth as compared to the same period in 2007. This slowdown on international tourism demand was also reflected in the air transport industry, with a negative growth in September 2008 and a 3.3% growth in passenger traffic through September. The hotel industry also reports a slowdown, as room occupancy continued to decline.

1.6 Management of tourism

The lack of management and planning has resulted in the destruction and degradation of several resort areas and scenic attractions, affected fragile ecosystems and environments, and created adverse impacts on host’s cultures. Because of such effects tourism has been criticized and charged with destroying the very resources on which it is founded. The need for the proper management of tourism is thus essential for its development.
The issues and problems relating to the management of tourism, and their nature, differ in the developed and developing countries. While the former have the resources and professional competence to deal with them, the latter usually have neither. The role and functions of governments and tourist public enterprises in the management of tourism in developing countries, therefore, assume great significance. The World Tourism Organization has formulated guidelines on management techniques for tourist enterprises especially in developing countries, which are briefly reviewed in this section.

The role of government in the management of tourism is primarily in the fields of planning, finance and training. It has to formulate guidelines on different issues which include: ‘the need to obviate political or regional pressures in selecting sites for tourism development: the importance of evaluating both social and economic implications of policy; the desirability of establishing a master plan; the need to diversify tourist products offered while at the same time avoiding dispersion of effort; the importance of identifying sources of finance and determining investment policy; the desirability of ensuring that tourism creates employment and the provision of necessary vocational training facilities’.

It is considered desirable for governments to formulate specific plans for the realization of tourism objectives. Suitable strategies have to be evolved and an organizational framework with clear-cut demarcation of responsibilities devised. The provision of legislative support for the development of tourism is also a primary responsibility of governments.

Unless there is a proper approach to the evaluation of tourism projects considering their social and economic implications, both positive and negative, it will not be possible to maximize the benefits from tourism. The formulation of a master plan for the development of tourism, integrated closely with the socio-economic development programme of the country is absolutely essential. Such a plan can be evolved only as a result of detailed research, field work and evaluation.

It is advantageous to diversify and broaden the national tourism sector, but is would be uneconomical to undertake scattered development which would necessitate provision of infrastructure over wide areas. A policy of development of well planned resort areas at priority sites is advisable. In developing particular destinations, commitment to catering for one type of traffic only should be avoided. The provision of infrastructural facilities and utility services are an indispensable condition of any tourism development; these are generally provided out of public funds. The roles of public and private finance in tourism, as also government policy in regard to foreign investment in building up the tourist industry should be clearly defined.

The management of tourism requires competent managerial personnel. The fate of tourism development is presented in Fig 1.2. Governments have an important role to play in setting up the
institutional framework for manpower training in all sectors at different level. The creation of employment opportunities constitutes an important objective of tourism policies in developing countries. Workers in the tourism sector come into direct contact with customers which are not usually the case in most other economic activities. This calls for the development of special human and social attitudes on the part of workers.

![Graph showing the stages of tourism development](image)

**Fig 1.2 Fate of Tourism Development**

### 1.7 Sustainable tourism

‘Sustainable tourism development meets the needs of present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunity for the future. It is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes and biological diversity and life support systems’ (WTO, 2004).

#### 1.7.1 Principles of sustainable tourism

**Using Resources Sustainably:** The conservation and sustainable use of resources – natural, social and cultural – is crucial and makes long-term business sense.

**Reducing Over-Consumption and Waste:** Reduction of over-consumption and waste avoids the costs of restoring long-term environmental damage and contributes to the quality of tourism.

**Maintaining Diversity:** Promoting natural, social and cultural diversity is essential for restoring long-term sustainable tourism, and creates a resilient base for the industry.

**Integrating Tourism and Planning:** Tourism development which is integrated into a national and local strategic planning framework and which undertakes environmental impact assessments increases the long-term viability of tourism.

**Supporting Local Economics:** Tourism that supports a wide range of local economic activities and which takes environmental costs and value into account both protects those economies and avoids environmental damage.
Involving Local Communities: The full involvement of local communities in the tourism sector not only benefits them and the environment in general but also improves the quality of the tourism experience.

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

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

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

Undertaking Research: On-going research and monitoring by the industry using effective data collection and analysis is essential to help solve problems and to bring benefits to destinations, the industry and consumers.

Carrying capacity is a factor central to putting in place the concept of sustainable tourism development and is discussed further in Chapter 3.

1.8 Scope of the present study

Kerala has emerged as the most acclaimed and ‘must see’ tourist destination not just in the country but also in the world, in the recent years. Kerala has bagged the award for best performance in tourism for three consecutive years (2000-2002). To quote from the Tourism Vision-2025 of the Dept. of Tourism, Kerala (2001) ‘The strength of Kerala tourism is its excellent natural resources in the form of backwaters, hill stations and beaches. Having understood the need for looking into the sustainable development of these destinations, Kerala tourism focuses on the conservation of ecology to reduce the negative impact of tourism on the environment and intend to promote development of tourism based on the carrying capacities of the destination’. This Ph. D. study on Carrying Capacity indicates the limit or the threshold for the tourism development and suggests methods to be followed for the development of sustainable tourism in selected tourism areas. It is hoped that the Dept. of Tourism and the Government of Kerala would implement the recommendations that emerge from the study.
1.9 **Major objectives of the study**

1. To assess the carrying capacity of Varkala, Vagamon and Kumarakom.
2. To analyze the environmental, socio-cultural and economic impacts of tourism with special reference to the area under investigation.
3. To evolve a ‘sustainable developmental strategy’ of tourism, focusing on the Kerala scenario.

1.10 **Statement of hypotheses**

In this study the following hypotheses relative to the objectives of the study are postulated:

(a) The carrying capacity is exceeded in the tourism areas under study
(b) The tourism activities have socio-cultural and economic impacts on the local community.
(c) The majority of the local community is not aware of the importance of tourism in the study area
(d) The local communities do not seem to participate in tourism activities that would reduce benefits to them
(e) Tourism negatively affects the ecology of the area under investigation

The hypotheses mentioned above, as the core of the study are subject to acceptance or rejection pending the outcome of data analysis. The hypotheses would also facilitate the process of arriving at interpretive findings and conclusions (Magi, 2005). The questionnaires were formulated in such a way that they would address the concerns encompassed in the statements of hypotheses.

1.11 **Summary**

Tourism activities began in time immemorial, early travels were mainly for sustaining livelihood activities but the modern travel and tourism is mainly for pleasure and recreation; this results in exploitation of newer and newer areas without any concern for nature. The over exploitation of the tourism areas can result in pollution and destruction of natural flora and fauna, the natural beauty of the area and adverse social, economic and cultural impacts on local population. Tourism developments based on carrying capacity and sustainable development becomes relevant in this scenario for proper management of natural resources so that the present as well as future generations may enjoy nature’s beauty, and thereby enhance tourist flows and revenues.