Chapter 2

Review of Literature

2.1. Introduction

This chapter presents a review of literature on tourism at the international and national levels. The following section explains international literature on tourism which is further divided into two, the literature on general tourism and the literature with particular emphasis on coastal tourism. This is considered essential for an understanding of tourism especially coastal tourism development at the global level. The next section outlines the literature on tourism at the national level. It is followed by a section on studies on tourism in the state of Kerala. The last section gives the summary of this chapter. Even though a lot of reports published in newspapers and local weeklies about tourism related activities of Kerala were used for this study, they were not included in the literature reviewed here.

2.2. International literature

The international literature on tourism is quite extensive and well developed (Jafari and Graburn, 1991, p.1). Earliest writings were works sharing the experience of the adventurous voyages taken up by spirited travellers exploring new land and new people, with a missionary zeal. The industrial revolution provided better facilities and comforts for travel and prompted the travels related to trade, exchange of goods and activities related to it. The pilgrims, scholars and missionaries who accompanied the tradesmen gave picturesque descriptions about the places visited. These writings kindled the interest of many others to seek knowledge and pleasures and lured them to undertake travel. This travel phenomenon grew up slowly and got
evolved into the business of tourism. Naturally, the new business of tourism had problems appended to it, and needed the attention of academics to analysis and suggest corrective actions which later became a major source of global literature. The isolated national efforts taken up in the early stages got converged into international efforts because of the wide and vivid set of populations involved. Thus, the development of literature on tourism is intertwined with the long history of tourism itself.

Studies of tourism often took the form of travelogues and were often a record of the experience of travellers (Jafari and Graburn 1991, p.1). Prior to the 20th century, the focus of attention of writers on tourism was on the geographical, social and cultural aspects of places visited. The pioneers like Marco Polo, Hiuen-Tsang, Fa-hien and Ibn Batuta reported different dimensions of the movement of people between or among geographical regions (Towner, 1985, p.297). Ogilvie made the first systematic attempt to examine the movement pattern of tourists from western countries towards Asia and Africa based on purposes of business and pleasure (Ogilvie, 1933). This was followed by a plethora of studies on various aspects of tourism. Jafari and Graburn observe that most studies were after 1970, with a major chunk published after 1980 (Jafari and Graburn, 1991, p.1). Considering the voluminous international literature on the subject, the attempt made in this chapter is to review the major works published after 1990, in two subsections.

2.2.1. Literature on general tourism

Adams (1990) described the conflicts between the western social system and the traditional conservative social system of development.
Khan, *et al.* (1990) conducted a study to analyse the economic significance of tourism in Singapore by estimating the multiplier effects of tourist expenditure on total output, income, value addition and employment.

Wall and Towner (1991) examined the contribution of history to the understanding of tourism with special account of ancient and medieval world; the Grand Tour era, Spas and seaside resorts.

Cooper and Ozdil (1992) discussed Turkey’s place within the mass versus ‘responsible’ tourism debate.

Lego and Shaw (1992) empirically evaluated the convergent validity in tourism research.

Smeral and Witt (1992) analysed the impact of unification of Germany and the general move towards free market-type economies in Eastern Europe and claimed that it would create adverse effect on the international tourism demand.

Buckley and Klemm (1993) conducted a study on the impact of terrorism on tourism in Northern Ireland.

Cooper, *et al.* (1993) linked Rostow’s theory of stages of economic development to certain levels of tourism development. The concept of discretionary income was applied by them to explain the economic influences in generating tourism. They also used the theories of demographic development to explain the high levels of economic development and high purchasing power.

Cukier-Snow and Wall (1993) argued that the prospects of tourism employment might be viewed differently in developed and developing countries.
Dahl (1993) examined the beginnings of tourism development in Pohnpei, a volcanic island in the tropical Pacific, where tourism related issues were magnified.

Ryan (1993) analysed the relationship between crime and recreation in tourist locations.

Frechtling (1994a) introduced the concept of economic impact estimation of travel and tourism.

Frechtling (1994b) examined the nature of direct and indirect economic repercussions related to travel and tourism expenditures. While doing so, the author briefly reviewed the role of economic models in tourism impact analysis as well as the need for clarity when conducting research in this area. He discussed four approaches commonly used for estimating economic impacts, namely, direct observation, controlled experiments, analysis through economic models and statistical analysis of traveller survey data.

Harrison (1994) investigated the links between tourism and prostitution in Swaziland.

Hughes (1994) addressed certain issues relating to multiplier analysis and noted the need for caution in the use of multiplier in the measurement of tourism's economic impact.

Louise (1994) presented an overview of the various types of social impacts that could be found in a tourism destination area and described a number of methodologies that can be used to examine them.

Prosser (1994) explained the social change and growth in international tourism.
Williams (1994) explained the framework for conducting research for assessing and managing the environmental impacts of tourism, especially the impacts of tourism on the physical environment in general and on the ecology in particular.

Witt and Muhlemann (1994) presented a review of various approaches to total quality management (TQM) process, with specific reference to their impact on key differences between manufacturing and services and suggested certain guidelines to implement total quality management in tourism.

Faulkner and Valerio (1995) suggested an integrative approach to tourism demand forecasting and argued that a combination of techniques should be employed in order to facilitate a more meaningful dialogue between analysts and those responsible for tourism management decisions.

Johnson (1995) presented some of the political, economic and institutional developments that had taken place in the tourism industry of the Czech and Slovak republics. According to him, policies are needed to improve infrastructure, to promote the integration of tourist services to maintain visitor numbers, to encourage guests to stay longer, to promote visits to additional locations, and to increase their spending.

Krausse (1995) studied the perception of harbour residents on tourism and water-front re-developments in Newport, Rhode Island, and indicated that, by and large, the waterfront community perceived the current traffic conditions, inadequate parking, lack of privacy and commercial intrusion into neighbourhoods were the consequences of increased tourism.

Pandey, et al. (1995) conducted a case study to understand the nature of the effects of tourism on the local culture, environment and economy of Nepal.
Towner (1995) argued that more attention should be paid to tourism's past in non-western societies and cultures and to the more ordinary and routine practices of a wider cross-section of the population.

Wootton and Stevens (1995) studied the market for hotel-based meetings and its contribution to Wales tourism and concluded that the importance of business tourism and meetings related travel to Wales was significantly under-estimated and had potential for further development and promotion.

Boyd and Butler (1996) suggested an opportunity spectrum approach to manage ecotourism and discussed the difficulties of assigning relative priorities to ecotourism activities in a region and in assessing the significance of the resulting environmental impacts.

Joppe (1996) analysed the difference between traditional community economic development and community tourism development and clearly showed that tourism continued to be driven by all levels of government rather than community interests.


Ryan and Kinder (1996) studied tourism and tourists visiting prostitutes as both being examples of 'luminal' behaviour, i.e. behaviour undertaken by those operating at social thresholds, and argued that it is not an added component of tourism, but a form of behaviour quite consistent with the motivations that underlie much of tourism.
Tosun and Jenkins (1996) gave an account of decentralized approaches to tourism development in Turkey and argued that participation in the planning and implementation of tourism development should be encouraged at community level which would make the plans more relevant to local needs.

Agarwal (1997) made an attempt to assess the validity and applicability of resort cycle and seaside tourism.

Brass (1997) edited the Community Tourism Assessment Handbook to facilitate the process of determining the viability of tourism development.


Krippenhorf (1997) theorised that reasons for travel encompassed more aspects of ‘going away’ than aspects of ‘going to’, thus bringing in the influence of human psychology on tourism.

Lawrence, et al. (1997) outlined the legitimacy problem facing ecotourism.

Lindberg and Johnson (1997) worked out the economic values of tourism’s social impacts with an application of contingent valuation method and the need for their incorporation into tourism policy.

Stynes (1997) summarised various economic impact concepts and methods as they apply to tourism.

Thornton, et al. (1997) studied the behaviour of tourist parties while on holiday and argued that the role of children was under-researched and undervalued
and suggested the need for theories sensitive to the influence of group decision-making and the ability of children to influence group behaviour.

Tisdell (1997) found that the volume of foreign tourists to India and South Asia was much lower than that to East Asia. According to him excessive government regulation of tourism in India and Bangladesh appears to have played a role in this sluggish growth.

Zhou, et al. (1997) introduced a relatively new and alternative compatible general equilibrium (CGE) technique to estimate the economic impacts from tourism. Their study concluded that the results of the input-output model are similar in magnitude to those of the CGE model.

Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation and World Travel and Tourism Council Report (APEC and WTTC 1998) provided a comprehensive analysis of the economic impact of travel and tourism in the APEC region together with projections up to the year 2010. It highlighted the enormous importance of travel and tourism in the region’s economy and the exciting potential for continued economic growth which this industry offers. In doing so, it laid the foundation for increased awareness and understanding of the significance of travel and tourism’s contribution to the economy of the APEC region.

Inman, et al. (1998) presented a conceptual framework for regional tourism development and promotion strategy for Central America.

Amelung, et al. (1999) stressed the need of an integrated approach and proposed a research framework supporting an integrated approach. They emphasised the need to devise a system for classification of different types of tourism. As a
structuring tool for analysing the phenomenon of tourism, they used the Pressure-State-Impact-Response (PSIR) method. On the pressure side, several driving forces were identified. The state covers the technological, economic, demographic, institutional, political, cultural and environmental situation. This situation serves as an input for the psycho-social forces which are studied using Motivation-Opportunities-Abilities Concept. On the impact side, the economic, environmental and socio-cultural consequences of tourism are dealt with. The synthesis of the various impacts dealt with provides the response side.

Frechtling (1999a) outlined the development of Tourism Satellite Account (TSA) as a tool for analysing the economic impact of tourism and also explained the concepts and coverage of TSA and how it expanded the scope of traditional tourism impact analysis.

Frechtling (1999b) discussed the various approaches to estimate the economic impacts of travel and tourism.

Lindberg (1999) reported that a positive relation exists between tourism and cultural and natural attractions and presented several strategies for promoting sustainability in tourism associated with cultural and natural environments.


Scheyvens (1999) conducted a case study on ecotourism and the empowerment of local communities.

Stynes (1999) prepared guidelines to present examples of different approaches to estimate the economic impacts of tourism.
United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development (UNCSD, 1999a) report to the Secretary General of United Nations briefly explained the economic, social and environmental policy challenges for the tourism industry, governments and international community.

United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development (UNCSD, 1999b) highlighted the need for local authority perspective for tourism and sustainable development of tourism.

United Nations Environment Programme Convention on Biological Diversity (UNEP-CBD, 1999) emphasised the need for conservation of biological resources for tourism development.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP, 1999a) draft plan of action urged the need to address various issues of policy making, planning, management and the participation of the private sector in terms of opportunities for action and possible constraints in order to sustain tourism.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP, 1999b) offered an analysis and insight into the experiences of selected ESCAP member countries viz., Bangladesh, India, Myanmar, Sri Lanka and Thailand in addressing issues of facilitation of travel as part of their national tourism development strategies.

Wall and Ross (1999a) examined the gap between ecotourism theory as revealed in the literature and ecotourism in practice as indicated by its own site applications.
Wall and Ross (1999b) evaluated the relationship between people, resources and tourism in North Sulawese, Indonesia, essentially as required for successful ecotourism.

Buhalis (2000) listed six major components of tourism attractions and resources that most tourism literature commonly included in assessing and evaluating the elements of tourism destinations. These components are (i) attractions (natural, man made, artificial, purpose built, heritage, special events), (ii) accessibility (entire transportation system comprising of routes, terminals and vehicles), (iii) amenities (accommodations, catering facilities, retailing, other tourists services), (iv) available packages (pre-arranged packages by intermediaries), (v) activities (all activities available at the destination and what consumers choose during their visit), and (vi) ancillary services (services used by tourists such as banks, telecommunications, newsagents, hospitals).

Coccossis and Parpairis (2000) shared their observation on the concept of carrying capacity with regard to tourism and the environment.

Dixon, et al. (2000) analysed the link between environment and the economy of Caribbean tourism sector and concluded that the environment generated important economic benefits or rents that could be used to both pay for improved environmental management and also to generate revenues for the country.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2000) summarised the efforts that have been made in the past decade to develop new methods, like Tourism Satellite Accounts, to analyse tourism and tourism related employment, to standardise and ensure the relevance of tourism statistics, to increase
consistency between the various systems in place at the international level and to create awareness among member countries of the implementation of such tools and how the results should be interpreted.

Prideaux (2000) argued that a new approach to the issue of resort development was required and proposed a new model, Resort Development Spectrum, based on the operation of the market within a tourism resort.

Saveriades (2000) attempted to shed some light on the concept of carrying capacity and its importance as a management tool in tourism planning and development and to assess the carrying capacity of a region in terms of sociological capacity thresholds.

Tohamy and Swinscoe (2000) adopted a comprehensive approach to assess the impact of foreign tourism on the Egyptian economy, which extends beyond their spending on hotels and restaurants. This study used the economic impact analysis methodology to trace direct and secondary effects of foreign tourist’s spending on output, value addition, employment and tax revenue.

Tosun (2000) pointed out the limitations of 'participatory' tourism development approach in the context of developing countries.

United Nations World Travel Organisation (UNWTO, 2000) compiled 49 case studies of tourism policies as an example for sustainable practices and according to it, the success or the sustainability of these projects depended on local community involvement in planning, development and management of the projects, cooperation among different partners in the pursuit of the projects, environmental commitment of the project’s promoters and continuous monitoring of the project’s performance.

Berno and Bricker (2001) explained the practical difficulty that lay in the sustainability theory and practice of tourism development.

Ceballos-Lascurian (2001) argued that sustainable tourism had the capability of being a feasible tool for biodiversity conservation by providing an economic alternative for communities to engage in other than destructive livelihood activities, creating new revenue stream to support conservation through user fee system and other mechanisms and building constituencies that support conservation priorities by exposing tourists, communities and governments to the value of protecting unique natural ecosystems.

Eagles, et al. (2001) discussed global park tourism trends in seven fields, namely, park establishment, park economics, park finance and pricing policy, tourism competencies, park tourism market, visitation statistics and tourism management structures.

International Labour Organisation (ILO, 2001) illustrated how the issues of globalisation, employment and human resources development in the hotel, catering and tourism sectors were linked to the strategic objectives of the ILO and to its overall conceptual framework of decent work.

Kline (2001) discussed the concepts of nature-based tourism, ecotourism and sustainable tourism and provided a general overview of research and issues and suggested potential areas for future research.
Kreag (2001) identified both the positive and negative impacts of tourism under seven categories namely, economic, environmental, social and cultural, crowding and congestion, services, taxes and community attitude.

Liang and Wood (2001) evaluated the economic impact of tourism on Vermont’s economy taking into account changes in industrial output, employment, income and taxes.

Stynes (2001) studied the economic importance of tourism to Marguette County, Michigan, US.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP, 2001a) explained the major issues related to the investment in tourism infrastructure and suggested certain measures to create a favourable atmosphere for investment in tourism infrastructure.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP, 2001b) compiled reports of various workshops on sustainable tourism development held during 2000 and 2001, which focused on the challenges and opportunities for sustainable tourism development. It also included the case studies of South East Asian Nations with special emphasis on community based tourism development.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP, 2001c) reviewed the progress and obstacles for sustainable tourism development in the Asian and Pacific regions for the period 1999-2005.

Davies and Cahill (2002) prepared a discussion paper, which explained the various environmental implications of the tourism industry.
Department of Environmental Studies of University of Aegean (2002) conducted a study to evaluate the carrying capacity and its practical measurement and its efficient application in European tourist destinations.

Eagles, *et al.* (2002) prepared certain guidelines for planning and management of sustainable tourism in protected areas. The guidelines contained numerous practical suggestions to implement based not only on sound theory but also on practices from around the world.

Neto (2002) noted that the promotion of sustainable tourism development was essential for maximising its socio-economic benefits and minimising its environmental impact.

Scheyvens (2002) presented an alternative perspective, elaborating upon ways of providing goods and services for backpackers for promoting tourism in third world countries.

Tosun (2002) made a comparative study on the host perceptions of tourism impacts in a Turkish town, in absolute and relative terms, and drew implications for marketing and destination management from the results.

Chen (2003) outlined the valuable market segments that entangle tourists’ sentiments towards marketing.

Digance (2003) discussed the interaction between pilgrims and their journey’s goal.

Divisekera (2003) suggested a demand model for international tourism based on the consumer theory of choice and applied this to the demand for tourism in Australia by USA, UK, Japan and New Zealand and their chosen alternative
destinations. It gave substantial new information on the effects and sensitivity of economic parameters on international tourism.

Holden (2003) evaluated the actions of tourism stakeholders towards nature within the context of environmental ethics.

Neto (2003a) examined the main economic benefits and environmental impact of tourism and reviewed the development of sustainable international tourism agenda with focus on developing countries. He suggested that new approaches to sustainable tourism development in these countries should seek not only to minimise local environmental impact but also to give greater priority to community participation and poverty reduction.

Pongsirirushakun and Naewmalee (2003) analysed the foreign tourist expenditure and argued that its impact on the Thai economy was tremendous.

Poria, et al. (2003) challenged the idea that heritage tourism was simply represented by tourists at heritage attractions and suggested that perceptions more properly lay at its core. The results of their study indicated that the perception of a place as part of personal heritage was associated with the visitation patterns; in particular, those who viewed a place as bound up with their own heritage were likely to behave significantly different from others.

Pretes (2003) tried to analyse the relationship between tourism and nationalism. Viewing of heritage sites by domestic tourists was a key aspect in the formation and maintenance of a national identity, especially when nationalism was understood as an 'imagined community'.
Yunis (2003) discussed the importance of sustainable practices in tourism industry.

Diken and Laustsen (2004) discussed party tourism as a kind of hedonism enjoyed on a massive scale in which the citizen was transformed into a ‘party animal’, a reduction which was experienced as a liberation from the daily routine of the ‘city’ or civilisation, and in which the pursuit of unlimited enjoyment created an exceptional zone where the body as an object of desire and pleasure became indistinguishable.

Blain, et al. (2005) attempted to review the definitions of destinations branding and also to review the practices of destination management organisations (DMOs) in general.

Chris Choi and Sirakaya (2005) developed and validated a scale for assessing residents’ attitudes toward sustainable tourism.

McCabe (2005) discussed the concept of a ‘tourist’ within tourism studies.

Pearce and Schott (2005) made a study on tourism distribution channels, (providers and intermediaries) by addressing the use of multiple channels from the visitors’ perspective.

Hudson and Ritchie (2006) proposed a model for exploiting film tourism marketing opportunities. The study identified the optimum marketing factors that encouraged tourists to destinations that appeared (or were depicted) in the movies.

The above review of general literature on global tourism reveals that the global literature is extensive and fast growing. The international literature is vast and diverse covering a wide range of issues and concepts such as international tourism demand, tourism receipts, tourism promotion strategies, positive and negative impacts
of tourism development, pro-poor tourism, wildlife tourism, VFR tourism, eco tourism, sustainable tourism and growth of tourism promoting organisations like WTO, WTTC and IATA. Another important point that has emerged out of this review is the interest shown by the various international organisations such Asia Pacific Economic Council (APEC), United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP), International Labour Organisation (ILO), Organisation for Economic Corporation for Development (OECD), United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) and World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) in the activities of international tourism.

2.2.2. Literature on coastal tourism

Though the study on coastal tourism is a subset of studies on general tourism, the same has been given an exclusive treatment in this section as coastal tourism forms the focus of this research work. It is one among the many types of tourism such as mountain tourism, eco tourism, cultural tourism, etc. According to Pearce, however, it is the most significant form of tourism. The domestic and international tourist flow in many countries is dominated by visitors seeking the sun, sand and the sea (Pearce, 1989). The coast, with its beaches, dunes, coral reefs, estuaries and coastal waters, has always been a natural playground. Coastal environments provide open space, opportunity for leisure, relaxation, contemplation and physical activity. Emerging recreation-oriented life styles in developed countries and the rapid expansion of tourism facilities in developing countries have placed considerable strain on coastal resources and in many cases intensified conflicting pressures on them. The situation in coastal environment is particularly complex because of the often
conflicting legislation associated with the interface of both terrestrial and marine systems. This situation emphasises more studies in this direction. Though there are quite a large number of studies on various aspects of tourism in general, there is only limited published material on coastal tourism and most of these have appeared after 1990 (Gill, 2003, p.1). Some of the notable studies are reviewed in the following paragraphs.

Dobias (1991) reported that coastal tourism development at Ban Don Bay, Thailand had proved to be a double-edged sword, i.e., it had assisted the protection of coral reefs from grossly destructive blast fishing, but it had also contributed to the degradation of beaches and marine waters.

Kenchington (1991) provided a case study of tourism as a reasonable use of the great Barrier Reef Marine Park and summarised the multiple-use management concept applied to the Marine Park. He described the general provisions of zoning and management that affected tourism and also the specific approach of the permit system which provided for case by case management and control of tourist Programmes and developments.

Miller and Auyong (1991) noted the potential of coastal tourism to transform both society and natural environment quickly and permanently.

Agardy (1993) suggested that user conflicts could be avoided by instituting proactive multiple use planning and nature based ecotourism could be encouraged in coastal protected areas aimed at achieving sustainability.

Kenchington (1993) gave an overview of the development of recreational activities and identified a number of relationships between environmental conditions
and human impacts associated with tourism. He argued that in the long-term interests of the environment and all usage sectors, coastal and shallow marine environment and resource management should be conducted on a multiple-use strategic basis.

Miller (1993) proposed that the resolution of tourism problems in the coastal zone would require the scientific study of environmental and social conditions, policy analyses, planning and public education.

Stewart (1993) presented an argument in favour of utilizing marine conservation regimes for managing and controlling tourism in coastal and marine areas. She argued that marine conservation regimes enable governments to choose a combination of preservation and development principles that reflect an area’s capacity for tourism and preferences of the nearby communities.

Clark (1996) underlined the need to keep the environmental changes within acceptable bounds. He argued that negative effects could be minimised, if priority was given to the identification and evaluation of resources and potential impacts and if a planning and control system was established.

The Caribbean Environment Programme of United Nations Environment Programme (CEPUNEP, 1996) suggested certain tourism management practices on the basis of the best approaches and practices available. These practices included effective public awareness and training activities to determine the level of degradation of the coastal areas of small islands.

in the wider Caribbean. It specifically focused on costs and benefits of the use of coastal resources best management practices in coastal tourism and initiatives for mitigations of coastal resource degradation.

Ward, et al. (1998) prepared a key set of 61 environmental indicators for estuaries and the sea, that were important for sustainable tourism development, and were recommended for Australia. Of these, three relate to cited species or taxa, nine to habitat extent, seventeen to habitat quality, six to renewable products, two to non-renewable resources, five to water or sediment quality, seventeen to integrated management (which included coastal tourism) and two to ecosystem-level processes.

Wong (1998) opined that coastal tourism experience provided valuable lessons for coastal zone management, i.e., the necessity for environmental impact assessment, management of increasing tourist numbers, evaluation of small-scale resort development, consideration of conservation, defining and revising planning standards and aiming for sustainable development.

Orams (1999) provided an overview of successful and unsuccessful tourism with regard to marine tourism and its impacts on development. He also examined the characteristics of marine tourists and considered the role of ‘vendors’ of marine tourism activities and opportunities.

European Commission (2000) expressed their view that integrated quality management offered an opportunity to act on all the three fronts, i.e., economic development, environmental protection and preserving the identity of the local people by promoting tourism in coastal destinations.
Hall (2001) reviewed the trends in coastal tourism research, particularly those related to environmental impacts.

Moscardo, et al. (2001), examined the similarities in demand for coastal and marine tourism activities and experiences from the three European markets, namely the United Kingdom, Germany and the Netherlands. Their study also pointed out the implications for the future of ecotourism.

Tanzania Coastal Management Programme (TCMP, 2001) made a broad assessment of the current status of coastal tourism in Tanzania and identified the priority actions that are needed to be taken in order to develop a sustainable coastal tourism industry.

United Nations Environment Programme Convention on Biological Diversity (UNEPCBD, 2001) suggested certain guidelines for activities related to sustainable tourism development in vulnerable terrestrial, marine and coastal and mountain ecosystems.

Zhang (2001) presented an approach to utilize and apply information and data from remote sensing for better management of coastal tourism in Ameland, one of the Wadden Sea islands of the Netherlands and argued that the method is effective and economical.

Harriott (2002) categorised the marine tourism impacts as ecological, social and cultural. The specific types of marine tourism impacts noted were coastal tourism development (island-based), tourism infrastructure (marine-based), boat-induced damage, water-based activities and wildlife interactions.
Huttche, et al. (2002) prepared a sustainable coastal tourism handbook for the Philippines, which explained the use of practical tools like carrying capacity, EIA, etc. for the integrated coastal zone management to avoid unnecessary environmental and social problems associated with tourism development.

Dobson (2002) edited the proceedings of the workshop on “Policy Directions for Coastal Tourism”, organised by the Linking Science and Local Knowledge node of Ocean Management Research Network (OMRN), Vancouver, Canada.


Miller and Auyong (2003) published proceedings of the international coastal and marine tourism conferences held during the year 1999, which offered global case studies on a range of issues.

An overview of the studies reviewed above points to the growing importance attached to coastal tourism development and the emerging environmental and social issues and the need for developing new strategies for mitigating the negative impacts. Proactive planning and involvement of local communities in planning and implementation of corrective/preventive actions were also suggested.

2.3. Indian literature

The Indian literature on tourism is very few. The accounts left by the Greek writers who accompanied Alexander, Arab travellers and traders like Sulaiman and Al Masudi and the Buddhist Pilgrims Hiuen-Tsang and Fa-hien show that the prosperity and culture of India attracted foreign traders, conquerors and pilgrims from time
immemorial. Ptolemy gave one of the earliest geographical accounts of India in the second century A.D. Notwithstanding the existence of such early works and the writings of later travellers, the attempt in this section is to review only the tourism related writing of the last four decades.

Roy (1970) emphasised the need to have an effective information network to ensure the steady flow of tourists to a destination and pointed out the limitations of the then existing information arrangements, which caused dissatisfaction to the visitors.

Oberio (1978) described the relative importance of private initiative in the development of tourism industry and highlighted the role of travel agent as a retailer or as a distributor of the tourism product.

Sharma (1978) pointed out the negative influence of foreign exchange regulations on the tourism activities of the country and brought out the importance of banking industry in facilitating the travellers for meeting their financial requirements and providing the investment needs of the accommodation industry.

Ummat (1979) conducted a survey on the growth of tourism development in India since independence and noted the factors responsible for the sluggish growth of tourist traffic to the country.

Naqshband (1980) emphasised the need and responsibility of tourism planners and promoters of tourism in India for protecting the environment of the places of natural and cultural importance.

Ojha (1982) analysed the satisfaction level among the foreign tourists and found that the extreme dearth of infrastructure facilities as the dominant factor which hindered repeated visits to India by foreigners.
Srivastava (1983) estimated the growth rate of tourist arrivals in India for the period between 1951 and 1981 and observed the paradox between the five fold increase in the Indian share of world tourism market and the poor percentage share (0.3) of world tourists coming to India by the end of the same period.

The Indian Statistical Institute (GOI, 1984) analysed the arrival of foreign tourists to important stations during 1982-83.

Singh (1986) discussed the practical problems with the measurement of tourist arrivals at a destination, making reference to the frontier check method, i.e., counting of the passengers at railway stations, bus stations and air ports or at any point of entry and occupancy of beds in hotels and rest houses.

Richter (1989) classified Indian tourism development into five different phases and compared it with other South Asian Nations. She noted that India had the most fully developed tourism organisations, the longest experience with tourism planning and most extensive and diverse attractions.

Bala (1990) dealt with planning and policy perspectives in the sphere of human resource development, provision of fiscal and non-fiscal incentives, existing status and targeted addition to accommodation and transport facilities and marketing strategies.

Bhatia (1994) gave an account of tourism development in India and discussed the planning and marketing strategies to be taken into consideration.

Singh (1997) presented the contribution of education/training bodies, world over, and their status in a developing country like India, where conditions are more complex. She enumerated and highlighted the wide range of problems that need serious consideration to overcome India's problems of surplus skilled work force.
Wilson (1997) gave an account of paradoxes of tourism in Goa, which is often referred to as a classic example of the evils of tourism development.

Ravibhushan (1998) conducted a study on coastal tourism and environment and gave a general description of coastal tourism activities in Goa and Kerala.

Sinha (1998) gave an account of ecotourism and mass tourism, including coastal ecotourism.

Korakandy (2000) introduced the novel concept of developing a recreational fishery in India with special reference to Kerala. He estimated the demand for recreational fishing in Kerala by linking it to the changing life styles of the population and the increase in the number of foreign tourists attracted by the backwaters of the state.

Singh (2001) reported that in India, where poor policy formulation and implementation at national and state levels were the norm, cooperation with the private sector was tainted by corruption and bureaucrats had little or no experience in tourism or any other form of business activity.

Tata Energy Research Institute (TERI, 2002) explained how the coast provides an interesting and unique site for understanding the complexity of the linkages between social and natural system with special emphasis on coastal tourism in Goa. It noted that, along with the globalising of tourism, changes in local political, economic, social and legal institutions over time, such as capital inflows in the form of remittance income, democratic institutions, new tenurial laws and changes in common property systems played a major role in the homogenisation of ecosystems in the study villages.
Noronha (2004) made a study on the policy in India that relates to the management of resources on the coast. According to her, all problems that are encountered in coastal policy fall into three major domains of coastal policy problems: (i) those that relate to resource use conflicts, (ii) those that relate to resource depletion and (iii) those that relate to pollution or resource degradation. Policies for developments that relate to the coast have to be sensitive to these three problems. Using this as an analytical lens, this paper examines Indian policy in relation to the developments in Goa, a coastal state of India, which is famous internationally for its coastal tourism. The paper argues that the absence of an integrated holistic approach to policymaking and a failure to link the process of policy-making with the substance of policy results in outcomes that are inferior viewed within a sustainability framework.

A retrospective look at the Indian studies noted above revealed that the major issues discussed in them included the general trend in the growth of Indian tourism, the poor infrastructure and accommodation facilities, absence or weak tourism development policy of the central Government and the restraining influence of foreign exchange controls on tourism in the earlier years.

2.4. Tourism studies on Kerala

The studies relating Kerala tourism are much less in number. The National Council for Applied Economic Research made one of the pioneering works in this area (GOI, 1975). It made a cost-benefit analysis of investment in different classes of accommodation for tourists with special reference to the integrated Kovalam Beach Resort Project.
Government of Kerala (GOK, 1989) conducted a study to identify the crucial areas, which required special attention of the Department of Tourism for the planned promotion and provision of tourism related infrastructure in Kerala.

Sudheer (1993) conducted a primary survey of tourists, specially asking them to make their preferences for major attraction factors and developed criteria for weighing the attractiveness of the destination area, i.e., Kerala.

Vijayakumar (1995) highlighted the importance of eco tourism and assessed the demand for the same in Kerala. This study, confined to foreign tourists, has succeeded in establishing empirically the fact that the natural beauty of Kerala, rather than the man-made one attracts the foreign tourists. Applying the technique of Delphi, he substantiated the claim of Kerala on its immense potential with respect to eco-tourism.

Kamalakshy (1996) analysed the growth and pattern of hotel industry of Kerala with special reference to tourism and noted that the growth of hotel industry in any place was an index of the economic development of that region, especially industrial development in terms of tourist industry. She has identified significant centres in respect of hotel units, calculating mean centre size for the years 1985 and 1994.

Kumar (1998) conducted a study on foreign tourists visiting Kerala to find out the influences of their demographic profiles on the selection of Kerala as a destination and found that the psychological factors have influenced their visit and spending pattern during their visit.
Government of Kerala (GOK, 1999) explained the concept of ecotourism, ecotourism resources, potential of ecotourism in Kerala and ecotourism policy guidelines of India.

Government of Kerala appointed Tata Consultancy Services (TCS, 2000) to work out output, income and employment multiplier from tourism. TCS observed that though the output and employment multiplier were very large, income multiplier was not so large due to the large degree of leakage present in the state’s economy.

Government of Kerala (GOK, 2001a) outlined the Tourism Vision 2025 and noted the action plan to achieve a ten percent increase in earnings from tourism with seven percent growth in foreign and nine percent growth in domestic tourist arrivals and hoped to create 10,000 job opportunities every year. It proposed to promote and market Kerala tourism products at the national and international levels thereby making the state a premier global tourist destination.

James (2001) worked out the economic impact of tourism in Idukki district on motor transport sector, small-scale industries, business establishments and spices trade.

A retrospective look at the above studies reveals that these studies have ventured on emerging concepts of tourism products, eco-tourism, recreational fisheries, satiation of visitors, overall impacts of tourism, etc. and no effort seems to have been made to study the economic and environmental impacts of coastal tourism in Kerala or its sustainability.
2.5. Summary

The above review of general literature on global tourism reveals that the global literature is extensive and fast growing. The international literature is vast and diverse covering a wide range of issues and concepts such as international tourism demand, tourism receipts, tourism promotion strategies, positive and negative impacts of tourism development, pro-poor tourism, wildlife tourism, VFR tourism, eco tourism, sustainable tourism and growth of tourism promoting organisations like WTO, WTTC and IATA. Another important point that has emerged out of this review is the interest shown by the various international organisations such Asia Pacific Economic Council (APEC), United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP), International Labour Organisation (ILO), Organisation for Economic Corporation for Development (OECD), United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) and World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) in the activities of international tourism.

An overview of the studies on coastal tourism, world-wide, pointed to the growing importance attached to coastal tourism development and the emerging environmental and social issues and the need for developing new strategies for mitigating the negative impacts. Proactive planning and involvement of local communities in planning and implementation of corrective/preventive actions were also recognised.

A review of the Indian literature on tourism found that the major issues discussed in them included the general trend in the growth of Indian tourism, the poor infrastructure and accommodation facilities, absence or weak tourism development
policy of the central Government and the restraining influence of foreign exchange controls on tourism in the earlier years.

An overview of the limited studies on Kerala revealed that the major efforts were to study the demographic profile of tourists, eco-tourism development, infrastructure for tourism including accommodation (hotels), economic impacts of tourism, etc. and no effort was found to be made to study the economic and environmental impacts of coastal tourism in Kerala or its sustainability. This justifies the present study.