

Perspectives on Rural Tourism: Sustainability Issues and Ethno-Cultural Preservation

Working Paper-VIII

Study Conducted By

A.K.Dasgupta Centre for
Planning & Development

Principal Investigator : Arup Kumar Baksi

Associate Professor
Department of Management & Business Administration
Aliah University
West Bengal, India

Content

1. **Chapter-1:** Sustainable Tourism: Perspectives and contexts
2. **Chapter-2:** Sustainable Tourism and Ethno-cultural preservation initiatives: Performance Measurement indices
3. **Chapter-3:** Development and validation of a scale to measure visitors' travel motive and behavioural pattern in response to sustainable initiatives to preserve ethno-cultural heritage: A case of Rural Crafttourism
4. **Chapter-4:** Entrepreneurship in community-based rural tourism for sustainable development
5. **Chapter-5:** Models for Sustainable Tourism and Ethno-cultural Preservation

Chapter-1

Sustainable Tourism: Perspectives and contexts

1. Tourism and its spread

Tourism is one of the fastest growing industries globally. In 2017, the World Travel and Tourism Council released a report revealing that tourism contributes to the tune of 8604.50 billion USD to global GDP, and provides nearly 9.73% of the global population with employment (WTTC). Further, the WTTC report of 2017 revealed a 4.12% increase in the contribution of travel and tourism industry in global GDP over 2016 and a 3% increase in direct employment in the same.

Travel & Tourism contributes approximately 3.72% of GDP of India in 2017 (as per WTTC Report India, 2018) and was to the tune of Rs. 5,943.4 billion. This is forecast to rise by 7.6% to Rs. 6,392.64 billion in 2018. This growth can be attributed to the revenue generated by the networked industries namely hotels & accommodation, travel & tour operators, transportation & logistics, allied infrastructure and host community activities. Direct contribution of Travel & Tourism industry to GDP is expected to grow by 7.11% pa to Rs. 12,677.87 billion (3.87% of GDP) by 2028. Travel & Tourism accounts for Rs. 15,239.57 billion (9.39% of GDP) and Rs. 16,387.00 billion (9.38% of GDP) considering the broad impact areas of investments and supply chain management. This is predicted to grow by a rate of 7.43% and 6.72% respectively to approximately Rs. 32,000.00 billion by 2028 accounting for almost 9.87% of GDP.

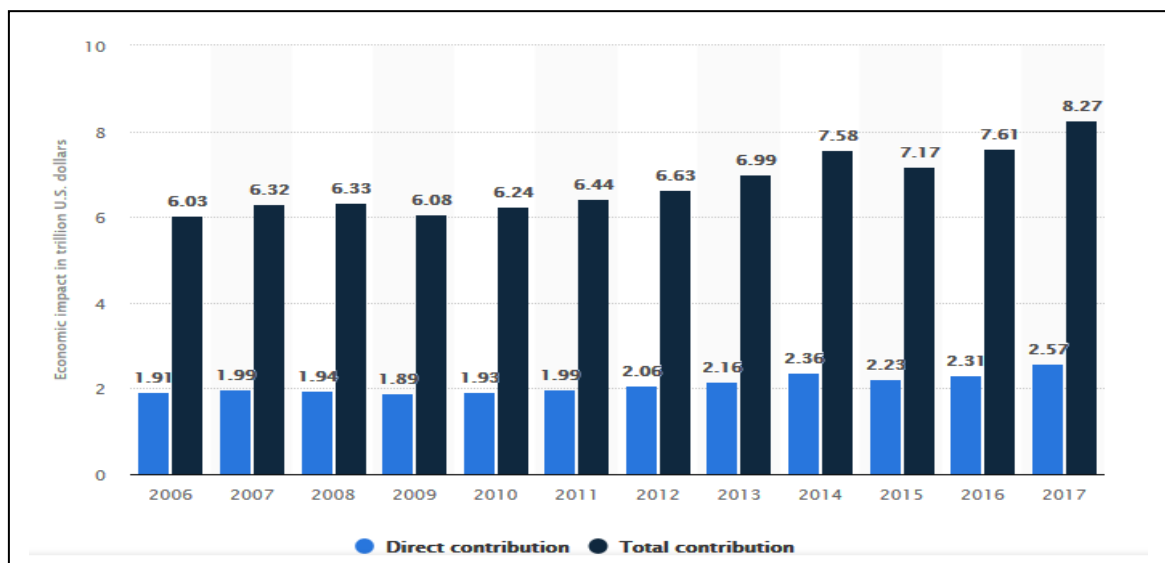
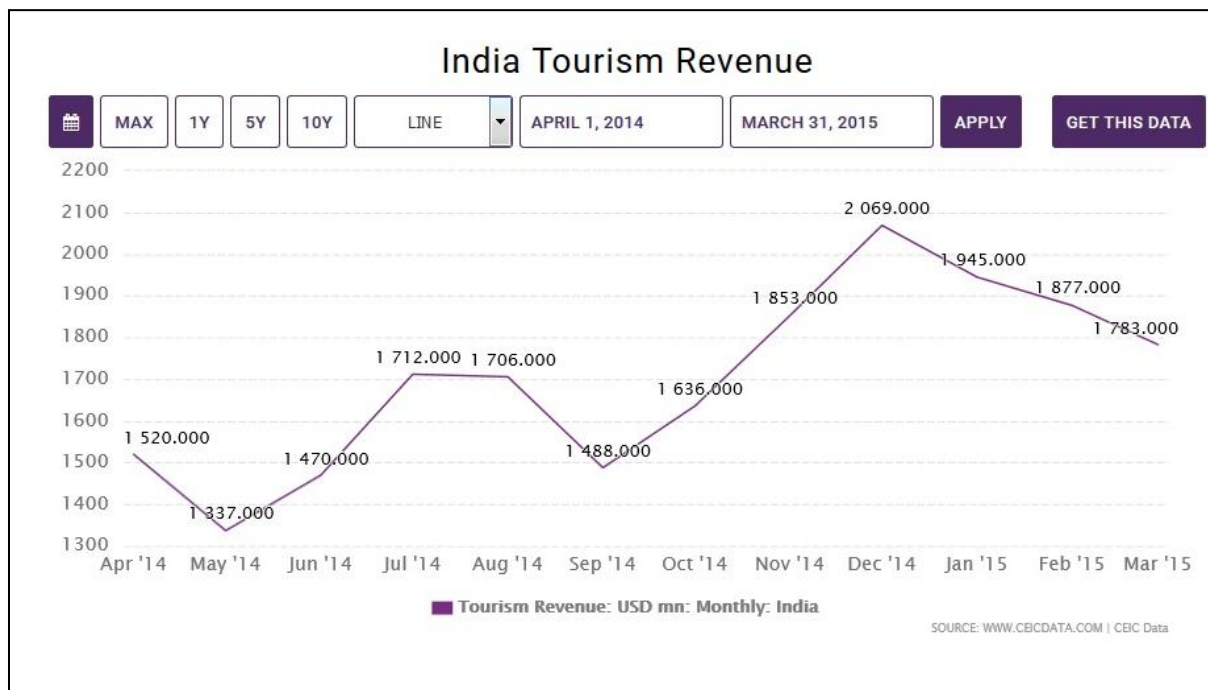


Fig.1: Direct and total contribution of travel & tourism to the world economy (2006 -17) (in USD)

(source: <https://www.statista.com/statistics/233223/travel-and-tourism--total-economic-contribution-worldwide/>)

The Travel & Tourism industry generated approximately 26,148,000 jobs directly in 2017 (i.e. 5.0% of total employment) and this is predicted to grow by approximately 2.76% in 2018 to 26,884,000 in core areas including restaurant & dining services and recreation & leisure industries, but, excludes customer services. In terms of job generation the Travel & Tourism industry is predicted to create approximately 33,000,000 jobs by 2028. In terms of revenue generation the Travel & Tourism industry banks on visitor exports. In 2017, India generated Rs. 1,778.00 billion in visitor exports and it is expected to grow by approximately 9% in 2018 as the country is expected to attract more than 1.8 billion international tourist arrivals. This is further expected to increase to 3.04 billion with an approximate revenue generation of Rs. 3,317.00 billion by 2018. In terms of capital investment, the Travel & Tourism industry drew Rs. 2,707.00 billion in 2017 and is likely to increase by 7% in 2018. By 2018 the investment is predicted to swell to Rs. 5,547.00 billion, more than double the present level of



investment, by 2018.

Fig.2 : Revenue from Tourism in India 2014-2015

(source: <https://www.ceicdata.com/en/indicator/india/tourism-revenue>)

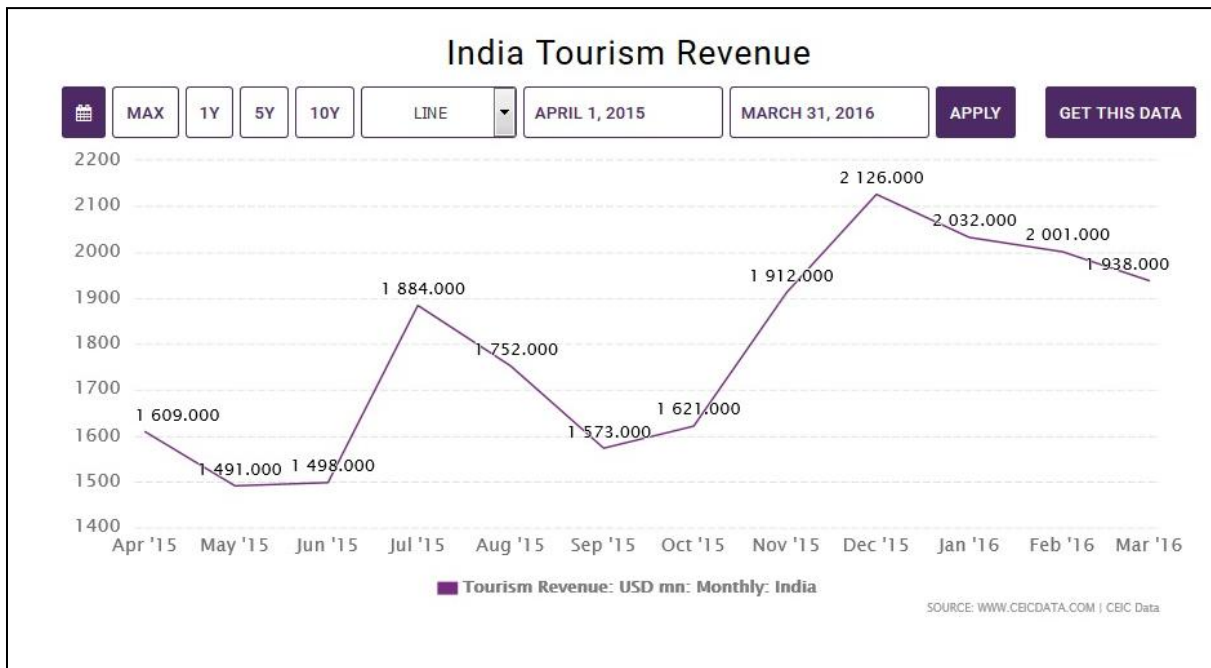


Fig.3: Revenue from Tourism in India 2015-2016
 (source: <https://www.ceicdata.com/en/indicator/india/tourism-revenue>)

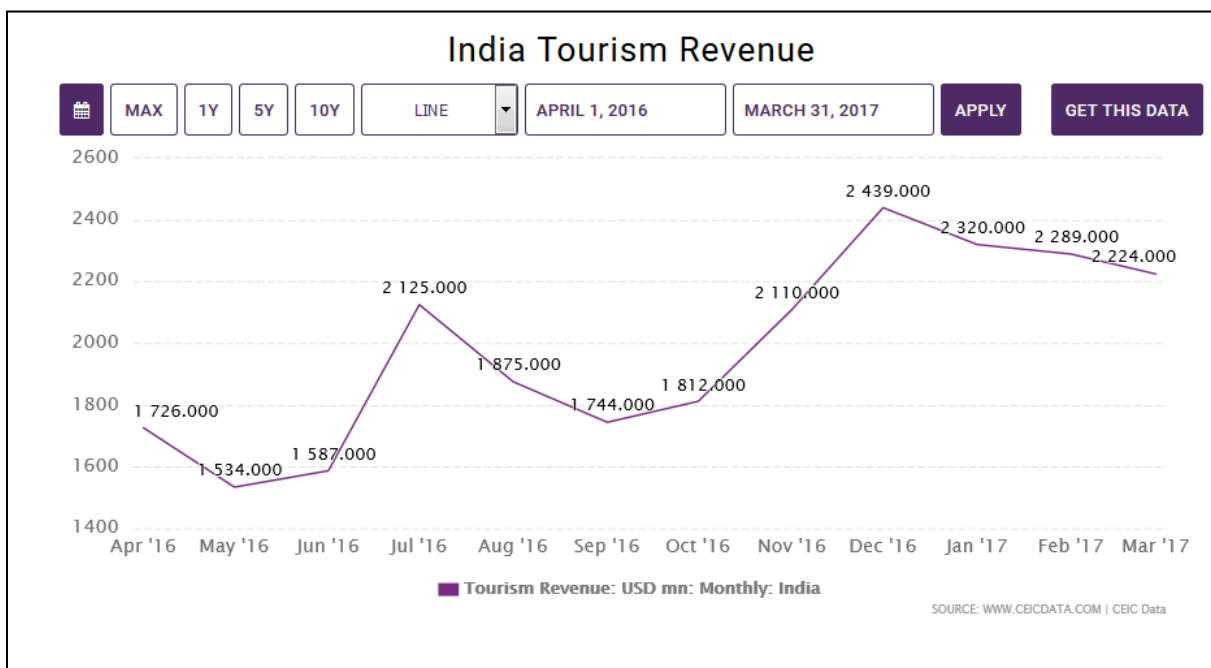


Fig.4: Revenue from Tourism in India 2016-2017
 (source: <https://www.ceicdata.com/en/indicator/india/tourism-revenue>)

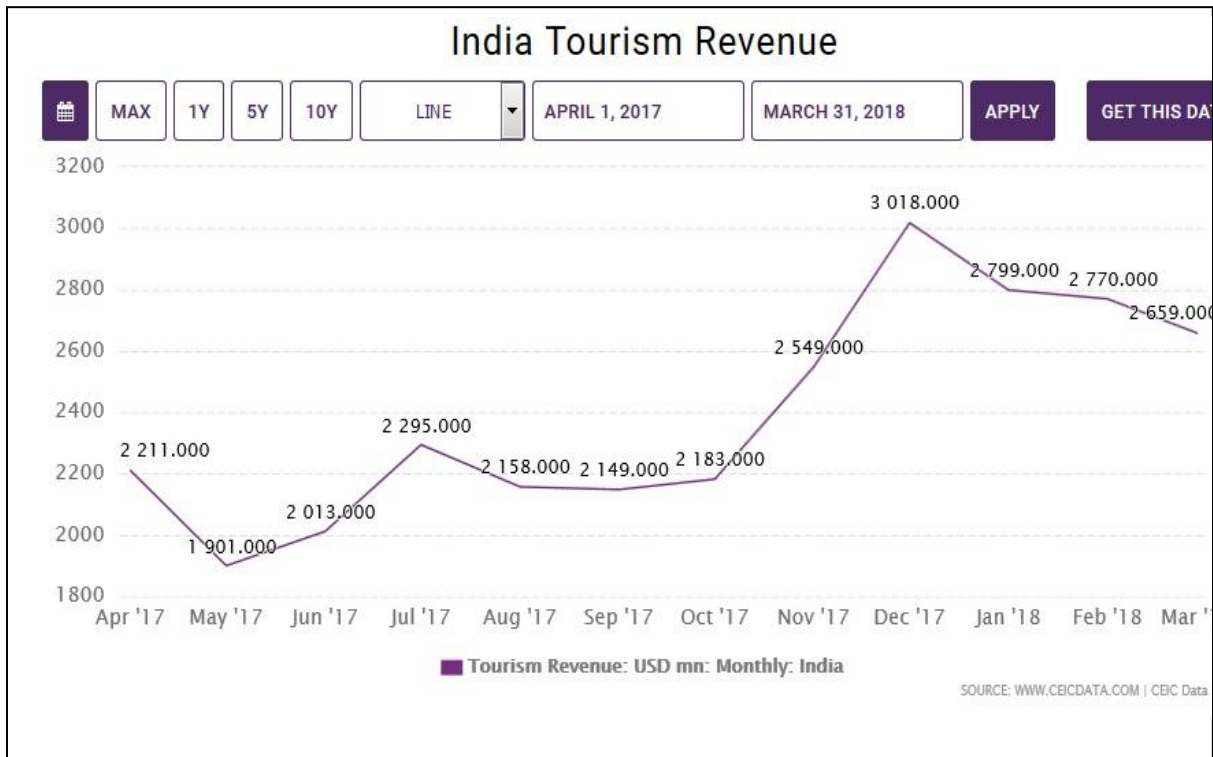


Fig.5: Revenue from Tourism in India 2017-2018
 (source: <https://www.ceicdata.com/en/indicator/india/tourism-revenue>)

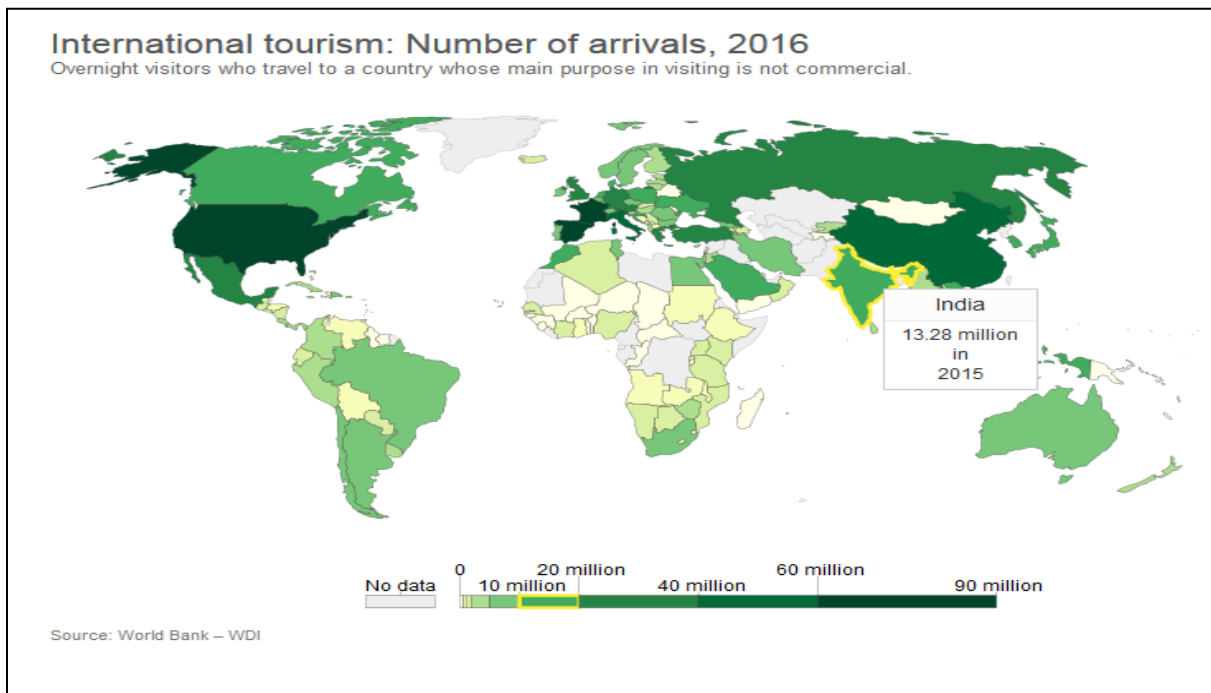


Fig.6: International tourism: Number of arrivals, 2016
 Overnight visitors who travel to a country whose main purpose in visiting is not commercial.
 (source: World Bank- WDI)

2. Sustainable Tourism: Definition and Perspectives

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) conceptualizes Sustainable Tourism as ‘Tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities’. The German Forum on Environment and Development explains: ‘Sustainable Tourism has to meet social, cultural, ecological and economic requirements. Sustainable tourism holds a long-term view, for present and future generations, ethically and socially just and culturally adapted, ecologically viable and economically sensible and productive’.

The tourism sector is fundamentally capable of integrating aspects of economic, social, cultural, ethnographic and environment synergistically and symbiotically. Tourism, as a economic activity is dependent on a thriving natural environment, proliferation & transgenerational expansion of ethno-cultural practices and a vibrant host-community. However, tourism has impact that goes beyond the economic realms of revenue and foreign exchange earnings. Tourism stimulates the process of enculturation and acculturation and reinforces the societal value system, behavioural mechanisms, strata-relationships, community life, moral conduct, collaborative & creative expressions, indigenous festivals and preservation of traditional practices. Ethno-culture preservation, environmental resource management, waste management and corporate & social ethics in tourism influence other industries and sectors when it comes to sustainable development and inclusive growth. The United Nations has identified 12 major aims for sustainable tourism (UNWTO 2013) as highlighted in the table below (Table-1):

Table-1: Aims of Sustainable Tourism

Sl. No.	Aims	Descriptors
1	Economic Viability	Destinations should be able to maintain their attractiveness and earnings over the long term
2	Local Prosperity	Minimize leakage of tourist spending from the local economy
3	Employment Quality	Enhance quantity as well as quality of jobs including remuneration and working conditions
4		Widespread and equitable distribution of economic and social benefits to the host community
5	Visitor Fulfillment	Safe and enriching experience for visitors sans any discrimination
6	Local Management	Local communities empowered towards destination planning and decision making

7	Community Wellbeing	Maintain integrity of community structures and practices and control any degrading effect
8	Cultural Richness	Preserve traditions, heritage, architecture and cultural uniqueness
9	Physical Integrity	Maintain quality of landscapes
10	Biological Diversity	Contribute towards conservation of habitats, flora and fauna
11	Resource Efficiency	Minimize use of non-renewable resources in tourism infrastructure and operations
12	Environmental Integrity	Minimize pollution and waste generation

Source: UNWTO

While most of the discourses around sustainable tourism are focused on the supply side pertaining to optimal use and management of resources and creation of balanced destination management frameworks while, emerging paradigms are now also laying emphasis on the demand side, placing an onus on the tourist to choose products that adhere to the principles of sustainability and recognizing the fact that such products may come with a price premium and austerity in resource consumption. It ensures well-being of the local population, and contributes to the larger cause of achieving global sustainability including the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). In recent years, the ideology behind sustainable tourism has diffused into other specialized niches that focus on specific components to ensure equitable growth, conservation of environment and culture as well as community driven management frameworks. Fig. 6 highlights some of the key niches.

Minimizes negative social, economic & environmental impacts • Adopted by industry since sustainability can imply larger dimensions beyond their scope	RESPONSIBLE TOURISM	ECOTOURISM	• Environmentally responsible travel to undisturbed natural areas • All forms of tourism can be sustainable but not all forms of tourism can be ecotourism
	ECOTOURISM	VOLUNTOURISM	
• Preserving & enhancing focus on the 'sense of place' in an area rather than the industry's efforts			• Focus on 'giving back to the community' through volunteer work

Fig.7: Key niches

With rapid growth in the tourism sector post the 1950s, many frameworks have evolved that try to study and identify tourism based issues pertaining to sustainable development:

a. Carrying Capacity (CC): Derived from geography, it is the most popular assessment tool which works on the basic premise that each destination has its limits to how many visitors it can host before the environment or biodiversity is threatened. From a focus solely on environmental issues in the 1960s, the concept has grown to have a wider perspective, including social CC and economic CC (Coccosis, 2004).

b. Limits of Acceptable Change (LAC): A continuation to the concept of Carrying Capacity, it is a regional planning tool draws on local residents’ perspectives on how much change they can accept in order to establish subjective limits to growth (Ahn, 2002).

c. Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA): Mainly been applied in developing countries as a tool for poverty reduction, it works on the idea of ‘capital’. Impacts of tourism development can be said to influence the capital stocks of residents, the physical destination, developers and/or institutions. Physical capital is influenced in the form of newly built attractions or renovated airports, social capital can be linked to a feeling of togetherness that can increase with tourism development, and cultural capital can be reinforced, for instance, by an upswing of interest in local traditions and handicrafts (Macbeth, 2004).

d. Sustainable Tourism Benchmarking Tool (STBT): A policy and decision-making tool based on quantifiable indicators, it aims to compare, on a country-level, different destinations in terms of sustainability measures (Cernat, 2012).

e. Integrated Tourism Yield (ITY): This framework is proposed by as a way of including costs and benefits across a number of different impact dimensions, using the concept of ‘yield’ outside of its classic territory of financial gains for businesses (Northcote, 2006).

f. Cost Benefit Analysis (CBA): Cognizant to the multi-sectoral nature of tourism, this model tries to incorporate externalities and to apply methodologies that can help measure a wider range of impacts in monetary units by including all costs and benefits to society, both tangible and intangible, i.e. to internalize the externalities (Theobald, 2012).

A summary representation of the frameworks with impact dimensions can be seen in Table-2

Table-2-2: Sustainable approach frameworks with impact dimensions

Sl. No.	Framework	Attributes	Impact dimensions
1	Carrying Capacity (CC)	Destinations have limits to growth, thresholds	Physical, perceptual, social or cultural, economic and political/administrative carrying capacity
2	Limits of	Local residents’ perceptions of	Economic, social (cultural) and

	Acceptable Change (LAC)	desired conditions, regional tourism planning	environmental indicators defined by local residents
3	Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA)	Capital stocks increase or depreciate	Financial, physical, human, natural, social, cultural and administrative capital
4	Sustainable Tourism Benchmarking Tool (STBT)	Benchmarking sustainability, country level decision-making tool	Economic and socio-ecological impacts and infrastructure
5	Triple Bottom Line (TBL)	Calculating the “bottom lines” in three dimensions	Economic, social (cultural) and environmental impacts
6	Integrated Tourism Yield (ITY)	Monetary evaluation, assessment of yields, assessment and decision making tool	Originally economic impacts, but recent incorporations of social, cultural and environmental impacts
7	Cost Benefit Analysis (CBA)	Includes all tangible and intangible costs and benefits, monetary evaluation	Tangible and intangible costs and benefits

2.1 Why switch to Sustainable Tourism?

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) has declared Year 2017 as the ‘International Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development’, which emphasizes on the role of tourism towards ensuring economic equanimity and distributive social justice & equality in a rapidly diversifying global economy. The tourism industry also symbolizes international cooperation and harmony with its quantum impact on global GDP, which has been estimated to be US\$ 7,613.3 billion or 10.2% to global GDP in 2016 in addition to creation of employment opportunities to the tune of 300 million (approximately). The adverse impact of mass tourism was felt during the 1970s as the events (fairs and festivals) in rural destinations drew flow of visitors interacting with the environment and thereby inflicting irreversible damages. These mass gathering also caused depletion in the layers of social fabric in terms of societal values and ethno-cultural practices. Brundtland Report (Our Common Future), launched by the United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development in 1987 brought forward the term ‘Sustainable Development’. In principle, sustainable tourism is a transition from mass tourism with shift in focus from ‘wellbeing and positive experience of tourists’ to ‘wellbeing of the host community’ to the most recent approach of ‘wellbeing of visitor-host relationship in the context of environmental and ethno-cultural preservation’. This shift in focus has major implications for the tourism industry as a whole. The tourism

industry, being a trans-boundary agglomeration and network of standalone industries, stimulates productive capacities, asset creation, employment generation and economic progress. The flip side portrays a diminishing environmental vibrancy and fading ethno-cultural heritage as it exposes the indigenous and conventional communities to antagonistic behaviours of the tourists, thereby, damaging the well-knit social fabric and creating dents in environmental repositories. Tourism can bridge the gap opened up by industrial growth and rural aspirations while venerating the ethno-cultural and environmental ethics. The concept of Sustainable Tourism has emerged to balance the diverse and networked impacts of tourism. Rather than being a type of product, tourism is an ethos that underpins all tourism activities and has the potential to contribute, directly or indirectly, to all Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), such as, inclusive and sustainable economic progress, sustainable consumption and production (SCP), sustainable use of marine, forest and other geomorphological resources. One of the most critical processes to ensure sustainable tourism is to inflict a behavioural reversal that will arrest indiscriminate exploitation of natural resources and conserve them for posterity. Sustainable tourism not only advocates prudent use of our natural capital, but also endeavors to suitably remunerate communities by helping to achieve this goal through mechanisms like Payments for Ecosystem Services (PES). The transition in focal and operational areas brought forward by the switch from mass tourism to sustainable tourism has been summarized in Table-3.

Table-3: Shift in focal areas from Mass Tourism to Sustainable Tourism

Focal areas	Mass tourism	Sustainable tourism
MARKET <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Segment • Volume • Length of Stay • Seasonality • Origin 	Psychocentric to Midcentric Large groups Short Distinct Seasons 1-2 Dominant Markets	Allocentric to Midcentric Individuals or Small groups Long Without Seasons No dominant markets
ATTRACTIONS <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Characteristics • Accent • Drive 	Generic, built for tourism Very commercial Focused on tourist	Pre-existent, 'Authentic' Moderately commercial Focus on both local & tourist
LODGING <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Size • Spatiality • Density • Architecture • Property 	Large Scale Clustered in tourism centres High International Foreign, Corporate	Small scale Dispersed Low Local/ Vernacular Local
ECONOMICS <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Earnings • Leakages 	High High	Low Low

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multiplier Effect • Role of Tourist 	Low Dominant	High Supplemental
REGULATIONS <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Control • Quality • Principal • Accent • Time Span 	Foreign, Corporate Low Free Markets Economic Growth & Profit Short-term	Local, community based High Intervention Community well-being Long-term

Source: Weaver, 2006

(Plog's Model of Tourist Behaviour: Allocentric – A tourist who seeks new experiences and adventure in a wide range of activities; Psychocentric – A tourist who is usually non-adventurous and prefers to return to familiar travel destinations; Midcentric – Between Allocentric and Psychocentric)

Hall (1998) noted that sustainable tourism, like earlier terminologies such as 'conservation', seemingly emerged in an attempt to reconcile conflicting value positions with regard to the environment. Hunter (1997) suggested that sustainable tourism must be considered as an 'adaptive paradigm' that accommodates both weak and strong interpretations of the sustainable development concept. A weak sustainable tourism strategy falls short of the requirement to preserve the core environment of a destination and concentrates on the outer realm with high density of tourists and intensive interaction with the social and economic environment. The same applies to massively degraded or modified rural settings such as an abandoned landscape, where large-scale tourism development may represent a significant improvement over the environmental status quo. This highly anthropocentric approach contrasts on the other side of the spectrum with strong sustainable tourism strategies, which are regarded by Hunter (1997) as relevant in relatively undisturbed natural or cultural settings where even a small increase in tourism-related activity could result in unacceptable environmental or sociocultural costs. Accordingly, the precautionary principle, or idea that a course of action should be avoided if its consequences are unknown, is a premise of this approach, which stresses the 'sustainable' component of sustainable development and is basically compatible with the cautionary and adaptability platforms. In extreme cases, this may entail the prohibition of all tourism activity from certain areas. Where tourism is allowed, alternative options such as small-scale ecotourism are usually preferred.

One of the major reasons to adopt the concept of sustainability in tourism industry is the degree of complexity of the industry itself. The complexity of tourism demands a new set of approaches that will seamlessly integrate the fundamental objectives of a business proposition and social aspirations with initiatives to stabilize vulnerable environmental and ethno-cultural setting (Faulkner and Russell, 1997; McKercher, 1999). The complex issues in switching to a sustainable tourism mode include the fuzzy boundaries of tourism systems, the

direct and indirect impacts of tourism on ancillary and adjunct industries, the impacts external systems on tourism and the unpredictable relationships between cause and effect.

The complexity of the tourism industry shoots from the lack of clarified boundary embedding the system. The tourism industry itself is a collection of several standalone and isolated industries which are networked on assorted terms and conditions. These standalone industries interact with the environment, society and cultural aspects with varying degrees and proportions, thereby, making it extremely difficult to chalk out a homogeneous and standardized charter. For example, the food and beverage industry, a major input to the tourism value chain, has a starkly differentiated operational platform compared to the logistic industry, which is also a major plug-in to the industry. Similarly the operational and value-chain differs in other contributing industries too such as, hotels & restaurants, travel & tour operators, retails displaying shopping items and souvenirs etc. Apart from these organized industries, there are unorganized inputs too in the form of local travel guides, local transport etc. It is extremely difficult to isolate the component for which the tourism industry is responsible damaging environment and ethno-cultural fabric.

Complexity is further evident in tourism's indirect and induced impacts on other sectors and environments. In the multiplier effect, indirect impacts involve the ongoing expenditure of direct revenues on goods and services within the destination. For example, a hotel allocates a portion of tourist receipts to purchase local food, while the farm supplying the food uses some of the receipts from the hotel to purchase fertilizer and extra labour from local sources. At each round of indirect impact, induced impacts are created when the wages paid out by the hotels and farms are in turn used to purchase other goods and services (Weaver and Lawton, 2002a). The implication is that a certain amount of food and fertilizer production, with its attendant effects on the natural and cultural environment, would not otherwise occur except for the demand created by tourism, both inside and outside the destination. The same applies to housing and related induced construction that occurs in a destination when a new hotel adds jobs to the community, as well as the concomitant extraction of natural resources. The magnitude of these indirect and induced impacts is indicated by the fact that the global tourism economy, which takes into account direct as well as indirect impacts, is approximately three times larger than the global tourism industry, which quantifies only the direct impacts. Hence, a hotel that appears to operate in a sustainable manner may actually be generating substantial negative impacts within the sectors and land uses that link with that hotel – impacts and links, moreover, which may be extremely difficult to isolate beyond the first round of indirect and induced effects. Whether the tourism industry, in its quest for

sustainability, should assume at least some culpability for its impacts in agriculture, mining, construction and other external sectors is a contentious ethical question. More fundamentally, to what extent should the assessment of tourism as a sustainable or unsustainable industry take into account these indirect and induced impacts? Equally contentious is the culpability of tourism in bringing about social and cultural change through the demonstration effect and commodification. While direct social and commercial contacts between hosts and guests clearly do have some impact, it is also likely that changes are inordinately attributed to tourism that are more likely associated with a society's exposure to mass media.

Complexity also arises from the external sectors and systems. For example, some eco-lodges in the rainforests of southern Peru have been threatened by the deforestation of adjacent properties settled by farmers from other parts of the country (Yu et al., 1997). Similarly, attempts to foster sustainable tourism in parts of coastal Indonesia are impeded by the continued use of dynamite and poison to capture fish in coral reefs (Elliott et al., 2001). Political instability and insurgency can also make the tourism industry complex and vulnerable to environmental threat and ethno-cultural fragility. (Beirman, 2003). Examples of such instability and complexity in otherwise ravishing tourist destinations are Kashmir (in India), Middle East, parts of Southern Africa etc. Natural catastrophe such as floods, hurricanes, tsunamis, volcanic eruption or any other kind of climatic extremities too franchise complex impacts on tourism industry. Cloud burst and subsequent flash floods in Uttarakhand, India, volcanic eruption followed by tsunamis in Indonesia, earthquakes in Nepal, hurricanes in Florida and Caribbean Islands are a few examples of natural disasters rampaging tourist destinations. This demonstrates that sustainable tourism is an essentially meaningless construct if the external context, and its effects on sustainability, are not taken into account in the planning and management of destinations and businesses.

Complex systems such as tourism are associated with non-linear and unpredictable cause and effect relationships and hence extremely difficult to anticipate the location and timing of all significant consequences associated with an action such as the construction of a new hotel or exposing the mangroves to tourists. When stresses reach a critical level, long periods of calm (indicating apparently sustainable levels of activity) may suddenly give way to an avalanche effect after seemingly minor catalysts. An ethno-cultural equivalent occurs when ostensibly content local residents suddenly engage in hostile actions against tourists following a relatively minor incident. The opposite scenario is revealed in research showing that most campsite vegetation damage and soil compaction occurs during the first few visits, with

subsequent visits resulting in relatively small increments of additional damage (Marion and Farrell, 1998).

Spatial and temporal discontinuities between cause and effect are an aspect of complexity that further complicates the implementation of sustainable tourism strategies. The former scenario is illustrated by the ski resort of Aspen, Colorado, where strict internal controls on development in the early 1990s exacerbated the problem of tourism-related sprawl in nearby communities inadequately positioned to accommodate this extra pressure (Gill and Williams, 1994). Problems may therefore be deliberately or inadvertently diverted from one location to another when a narrow view of planning is taken. At a larger scale and within the external arena, terrorist actions and other forms of instability often reverberate throughout an entire region, as when the civil war in Sri Lanka destabilized the tourism industries of nearby India and the Maldives in the mid-1980s (Richter and Waugh, 1986).

Considering the complexity in the sector, practitioners and strategists are recommending a more holistic approach to incorporate the macro effects along with the micro impacts to give sustainability 360 degree vision.

With these criticalities and complexities of overlapping industries creating a sort of consortium, tourism as an industry has evolved its own dynamics. The constant interaction with community and ecosystem with prevalent business motive, the industry is gradually shifting to address issues related to adverse outcomes.

2.2 Benefits of Sustainable Tourism

Sustainable tourism does not solely focus on minimising or controlling the adverse impact of the industry on environment and ethno-cultural heritage. With multi-networked industry with business motive, tourism will always have its direct, indirect and induced impact on natural resources and traditional human culture. This happens as destinations are positioned and branded on natural spread and ethno-cultural heritage. Therefore the concept of sustainability should be a built-in issue while formulating strategies for this industry. Within the tourism sector, economic development and environmental protection should not be seen as opposing forces—they should be pursued hand in hand as aspirations that can and should be mutually reinforcing, and practices that commensurate with these values can provide long term benefits to the industry as well as the community. The benefits of adopting a sustainable strategy for tourism industry would:

- a. Ensure long-term profitability and enhancement of corporate image for the tourism enterprises

- b. Preservation of ethno-cultural heritage while improving on quality of life for the local communities.
- c. Quality experiential travelling for the tourists with minimal intervention with the natural set-up and thereby ensuring low adverse impacts of travelling.
- d. Provide valuable information to the environmentalists regarding conservation and back-up revenue stream to undertake projects to deal with damages.

The sustainable approach in tourism industry also calls for Government intervention. The role of the Government can range from that of a coordinator, regulator and an arbitrator. Considering the nature of fragmentation that exist in the tourism industry and the number of stakeholders, it requires a coordinator to ensure an overall coordination and maintain a uniform alignment of the contributing industries in conformity to the sustainable development goals. Government supervision is also required as tourism offers ethno-cultural heritage of destinations as a product, apart from natural landscape and allied resources. Governments also have mechanisms to regulate and offer economic incentives and resources to promote and disseminate sustainable practice.

3. Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

In recognizing 2017 as the International Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development, UNWTO has identified following five key pillars required to ensure sustainable tourism for development.

1. Inclusive and sustainable economic growth
2. Social inclusiveness, employment, and poverty reduction
3. Resource efficiency, environmental protection, and climate change adaptation and mitigation
4. Respect for cultural values, diversity, and heritage
5. Mutual understanding, peace and security

UNWTO clarified the mission and vision of sustainable programme for the tourism industry (Table-4).

Table-4: Mission and Vision of Sustainable Tourism Programme

Sl. No.	Goals	Key focal areas
1	Integrating sustainable consumption and production (SCP) patterns in tourism related policies and frameworks	a) Integrating SCP principles and objectives for sustainable development b) Monitoring policy implementation
2	Collaboration among stakeholders for the	a) Data sharing and exchange of

	improvement of the tourism sector's SCP performance	information b) Fostering stakeholder collaboration and joint action c) Capacity building for stakeholders d) Establishing monitoring frameworks
3	Fostering the application of guidelines, tools and technical solutions to improve, prevent and mitigate tourism impacts and to mainstream SCP patterns among tourism stakeholders	a) Developing integrated tools for use at destinations and in tourism enterprises b) Research and action on priority issues of the tourism value chain c) Influencing consumer choice and behavior
4	Enhancing sustainable tourism investment and financing	a) Promoting use of sustainable tourism investment and financing tools b) Enabling and mainstreaming sustainable tourism investment and finance

3.1 Sustainable Value chain and Supply chain for tourism industry

A traditional value chain for the tourism market (Fig.2) is shaped by the experience and perception of the tourists and all key stakeholders. The value chain incorporates a system flow of resources to ensure end-to-end integration of inputs, operational aspects and outputs. It seamlessly combines inflow of activities to produce tourism products. The tourism value chain integrates multiple vendors, such as, hoteliers, restaurants, logistic service producers, local community, shopping community, travel guides, tour arrangers etc., as inflows from these sources produce a unique tourism product specific to a destination. The tourism value chain reflects the destination attributes and is instrumental in branding the destination too. The value chain also focuses on internal operation such as, planning, development, financing, marketing, distribution, pricing, positioning and selling. The value chain portrays the full spectrum of activities that are required to convert a concept into a product. The value chain of the tourism is grounded on a number of assumptions:

- The tourism industry, although fragmented in nature, is characterized by a unique demand of the public and private stakeholders to navigate seamlessly across destinations, service providers and transactions.
- Collaboration between tourists and service providers hinges on symbiotic and synergistic service transactions. These collaborations have at long-term perspectives with mutual benefits.
- The service industry is constrained with perishability of services with no concept of inventory. A vendor cannot sell a unsold service on prospective basis. Therefore a

vendor's profitability depends on the effective distribution of perishable services at lowest cost of distribution.

The economic impact of tourism can be perceived based on the share-of-wallet (expenditures) by the tourists (both domestic and international) in endorsing tourism services and products. The tourism value chain can be effectively used to identify opportunities to create value propositions for the tourists and design means to effectively transfer the same by nullifying possible constraints and barriers. The tourism value chain may be bifurcated into two aspects: (i) the overall experience of the tourist, involving the trip-planning, selection of destination, travel motive, logistic arrangement etc. and (ii) the 'on-trip' experience depicting the actual experience of the tourist while touring the destination and interacting with the service providers. The 'on-trip' experience assumes critical proportion as the expenditure inputs shape it significantly. The 'on-trip' part of the value chain is responsible for quality perceptions and hence impacts the satisfaction level of the tourists.

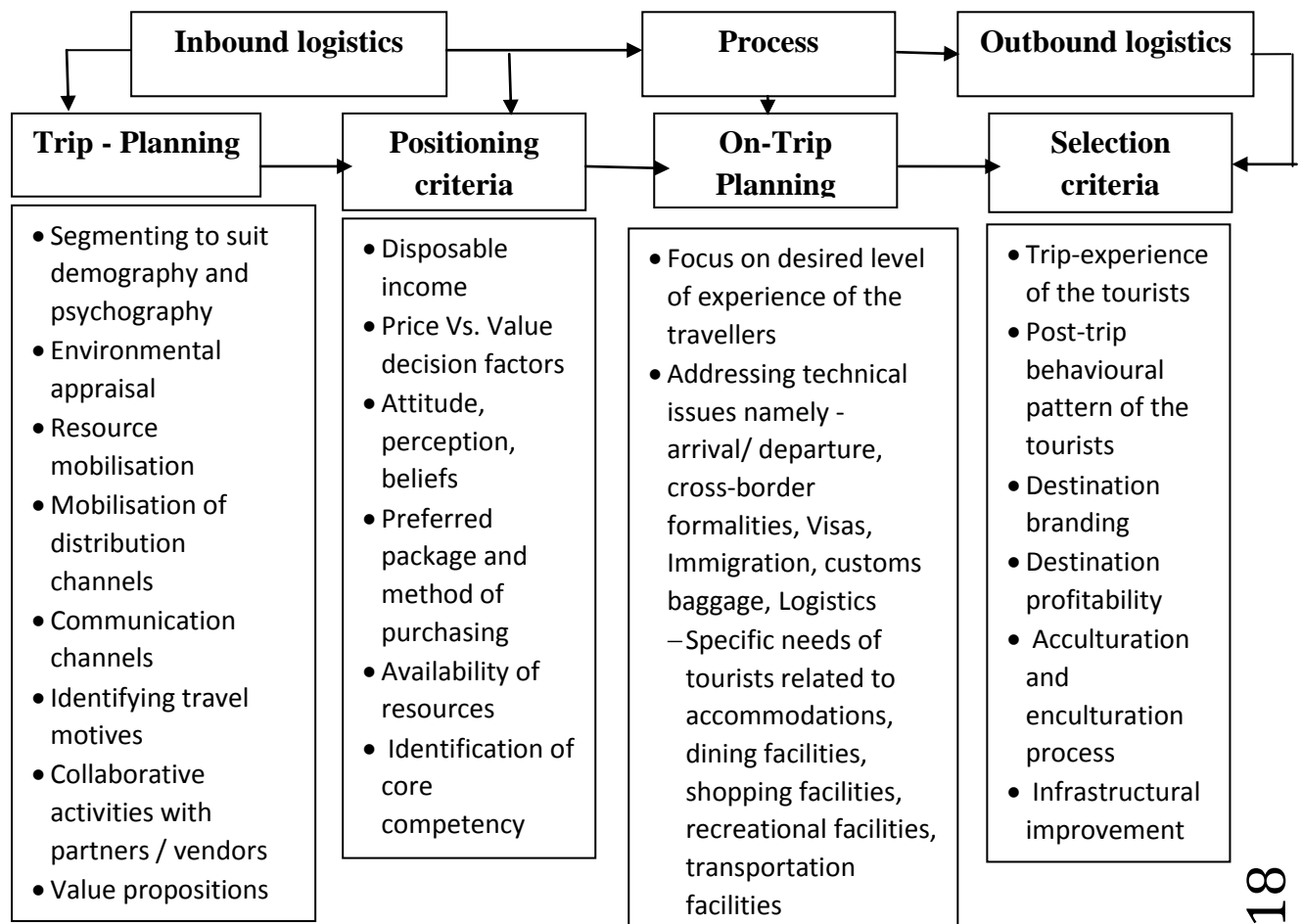


Fig.7: An ideal tourism value-chain elements

In contrast to the traditional value chain, a sustainable value chain incorporates a number of learning organizations. In a conventional value chain for products (eg. durables, semi-durables, non-durables, agricultural, industrial, pharmaceuticals etc.) or services (except tourism services) the end-market is static and the flow is unidirectional towards the end-market. In tourism, this in essence, inverts the model, as the end-market is actually travelling down through the value chain to the point of production, rather than, say, agricultural products, which move up through the value chain to the consumer. Therefore the structural changes for sustainable value chain for tourism incorporates: a) a reverse physical flow of end-market and b) integration of facilitators to propagate and monitor sustainability. At the global level a number of initiatives have been taken up to establish such facilitators such as Rainforest Alliance, a market facilitator working to conserve biodiversity and ensure sustainable livelihoods by transforming land use practices, business practices, and consumer behavior, Mesoamerica Travel, a wholesale tour operator promoting eco-lodges and sustainable accommodation to the tourists visiting Honduras, Prague etc., VivamosMejor Guatemala, a local tourism service provider working for improving quality of life in Guatemala and assisting in preserving ingenious community and ethno-cultural heritage, Finca Esperanza Verde, a local tourism service provider operating in San Ramon, Nicaragua, is promoting patronization of organic products, eco-lodge and arranging funds for the local community to engage in eco-friendly productions, La Ruta Moskitia, a tour operator and local service provider operating in Honduras, is actively engaged in poverty alleviation programme by engaging local community in sustainable tourism operations, The Blue Yonder, building different eco-initiatives to promote sustainable waste management and eco restoration through planting varieties of native trees as Travelers' forest in Kerala, India, Crosswaters Ecolodge, promoting green accommodation for tourists in China, Andaman Discoveries, promoting green tourism by educational programmes creating mass awareness for all the stakeholders in Thailand, Matin Abad Desert Camp & Organic Farm in Iran is facilitating tourists with organic farming and renewable energy based operatives. These facilitators play the critical role in converting a traditional value chain into a sustainable value chain for the tourism industry.

Tourism service providers offer tour packages comprised of accommodation, travel & logistic, activities, shopping & souvenir collection, pilgrims, food and dining, craft production etc. Till date, a distinct differentiation may be observed between the mass marketers and niche operators. This distinction is becoming increasingly blurred as mass

operators move into more niche markets. The sustainability in tourism depends on better network between demand and supply.

As intermediaries in the supply chain, travel & tour operators and other facilitators influence destination management on the supply side, while, tourists on the demand side (Carey *et al.*, 1997; Klemm and Parkinson, 2001; Miller and Twining-Ward, 2005; Tapper, 2001). Operators have conventionally known to have lesser degree of control over suppliers (Carey *et al.*, 1997; Middleton and Hawkins, 1998; Miller, 2001; Swarbrooke, 1999; Tearfund, 2001), and are not oriented and aligned along a long term view of sustainable development of destinations (Holden, 1996; Klemm and Parkinson, 2001; Tapper, 2001; Welford *et al.*, 1999). However, growing concern about environment and the intense interaction between tourists and environment stimulated the operators to focus on sustainability of their suppliers (Kalisch, 2002; Moir, 2001). This requires management of environmental, economic and ethno-cultural issues through the supply chain.

Environmental aspects include sustainable transport development and sustainable use of resources; reducing, minimizing and preventing pollution and waste (e.g. solid and liquid waste, emissions to air); conserving plants, animals, ecosystems and protected areas (biodiversity) and conserving landscapes, cultural and natural heritage.

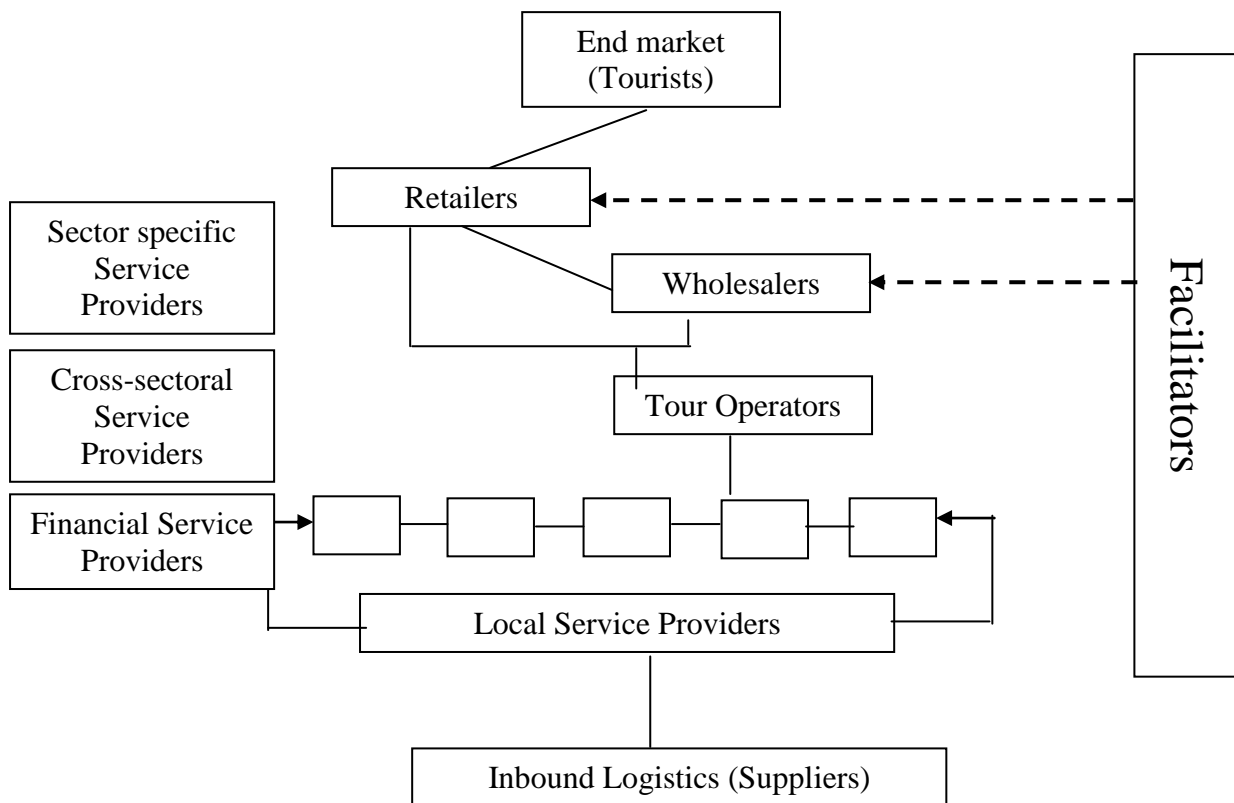


Fig.8: Sustainable Tourism Value Chain

4. Sustainable Tourism: Global perspectives

Tourism industry has emerged as a potent driver of global economy contributing to the global GDP and creating job opportunities across the world. In 2016, Travel & Tourism directly contributed US\$2.3 trillion and 109 million jobs worldwide. Considering its broad-spectrum indirect and induced impacts into account, the sector contributed US\$7.6 trillion to the global economy and supported 292 million jobs in 2016. This was equal to 10.2% of the world's GDP, and approximately 1 in 10 of all job categories. Environmental dilemmas pertaining to global warming, rising pollution level, water scarcity, receding forest-line etc. are issues that has made sustainability all the more relevant for tourism industry which exhibits intensive human-environment interaction apart from the probable ethno-cultural dilution. Sustainability has emerged as an important issue for some of the fast growing tourism destinations around the world, especially in developing countries which already support large indigenous populations.

According to United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), tourism contributes to 5% of global carbon dioxide emissions and 4.6% of global warming by radioactive forcing. The transport accounts for 75% of the total CO₂ emissions by the sector, with aviation and road transport accounting for 40% and 32% respectively and the accommodation stands at 21% of the total tourism sector emissions. Tourism has been found responsible to have trampling effect on soil and natural vegetation too, such as, breakage and bruising of stems, reduced plant vigor, change in species composition, reduction in soil macro porosity, decrease in air and water permeability, accelerated erosion etc. These anomalies in ecological balance has been made worse by the increased influx of visitors beyond the carrying capacity of the destination, for example, in Iceland in 2016, overnight international tourism arrivals outnumbered the resident population by a ratio of 5.1 to 1. The ratio is also particularly high in growing European hotspots like Croatia (3.3 to 1) and Montenegro (2.6 to 1). These imbalanced ratios demonstrate the squeezed impacts on infrastructures leading to social pressures and exploitation of environment.

The growing awareness related to environmental degradation may, in the coming decades, induce practice of sustainability amongst all stakeholders of tourism industry and induce greater responsibility in the travelers. However, the extent to which the travelers are committed to responsible tourism is a matter of concern. A survey conducted by the British Travel Association ABTA, showed that a meagre 20% of the tour & travel agents have ever been asked about the sustainability of a trip.

Sustainable tourism models require a multi-networked structure involving all the stakeholders, such as, core tourism business operators (hoteliers & restaurants), Government, facilitators (logistic service providers, travel agents, financial sponsorer, NGOs, media etc.), host community and tourists. Globally, the sustainable tourism models have been developed by modifying the pure business models. The US Travel Care Code, created by a network of academics and professionals, promotes responsible travelling by creating awareness amongst the global travelers and guiding them with vital functions while interacting with the environment and host community. Sustainable Travel International's 'Travel Better Club' offers training programs, resources, travel benefits, and an online community to travelers committed to 'making a difference by traveling better'; and an increasing number of online travel purchasing platforms, such as Kind Traveler, which help consumers choose responsibly-minded companies that are giving back to their communities. According to an in-depth study by Sustainable Travel International in partnership with Mandala Research, 60% of all leisure travelers in the United States alone (105.3 million Americans) have taken a 'sustainable' trip in the last three years. They spend significantly more (on average \$600 per trip), stay longer (seven days compared to four days), and over three-fifths believe they have a great deal of responsibility for making sure their trips do not harm a host community, environment, or economy. Two-fifths of global sustainable travelers had business transactions with travel companies because they believe they offer fair wages to their employees and invest in employees; while 38% say they have done business with travel companies who have helped to reduce human trafficking. 89% of consumers do have a switching probability from a proposition with lesser environmental considerations to a more sustainable offer. The millennial tourists, born between 1981 and 1997, are significantly more attracted to destinations with ethno-cultural or heritage/ historical significance (76% versus 63% of the general population), access to adventures like scuba diving and hiking (59% versus 45%) and festivals or regional events (66% versus 49%). The Global Sustainable Tourism Council (GSTC) was formed in 2010 by virtue of a merger between the Partnership for Global Sustainable Tourism Criteria and the Sustainable Tourism Stewardship Council (STSC). The GSTC is platform that represents a network of diverse global memberships of organizations, including UN agencies, NGO's, national and provincial Governments, leading travel companies, hotels, tour operators, individuals and communities – all striving to achieve best practices in sustainable tourism. GSTC is a virtual organization without an office where volunteers operate from all six continents. Financial support from donations, sponsorship, and membership fees allows us to provide services at low costs and to create, revise, and make

available the GSTC Criteria. The GST criteria embeds almost all the components of tourism service providers. It has fixed up a multi-criteria assessment model for the destinations, tour operators and hotels (Table-5)

Table-5: Multi-criteria GSTC model

Criteria for Destination Management		
Sl. No.	Section	Criteria
1	Section: A – Demonstrate effective sustainable management	Sustainable destination strategy
		Destination management organization
		Monitoring
		Tourism seasonality management
		Climate change adaptation
		Inventory of tourism assets and attractions
		Planning Regulations
		Access for all
		Property acquisitions
		Visitor satisfaction
		Sustainability standards
		Safety and security
		Crisis and emergency management
		Promotion
2	SECTION B: Maximize economic benefits to the host community and minimize negative impacts	Economic monitoring
		Local career opportunities
		Public participation
		Local community opinion
		Local access
		Tourism awareness and education
		Preventing exploitation
		Support for community
3	SECTION C: Maximize benefits to communities, visitors, and culture; minimize negative impacts	Supporting local entrepreneurs and fair trade
		Attraction protection
		Visitor management
		Visitor behaviour
		Cultural heritage protection
		Site interpretation
4	SECTION D: Maximize benefits to the environment and minimize negative impacts	Intellectual property
		Environmental risks
		Protection of sensitive environments
		Wildlife protection
		Greenhouse gas emissions
		Energy conservation
		Water management
		Water security
		Water quality
		Waste water
		Solid waste reduction
Light & noise pollution		
Low impact transportation		

Criteria for Hoteliers			
	SECTION A: Demonstrate effective sustainable management	Sustainability management system	
		Legal compliance	
		Reporting and communication	
		Staff engagement	
		Customer experience	
		Accurate promotion	
		Buildings & Infrastructure	
		Compliance	
		Impact & Integrity	
		Sustainable practices and materials	
		Access for all	
		Land water and property rights	
		Information and interpretation	
		Destination engagement	
		Community support	
	SECTION B: Maximize social and economic benefits to the local community and minimize negative impacts	Local employment	
		Local purchasing	
		Local entrepreneurs	
		Exploitation and harassment	
		Equal opportunity	
		Decent work	
		Community services	
		Local livelihood	
		SECTION C: Maximize benefits to cultural heritage and minimize negative impacts	Cultural interactions
			Protecting cultural heritage
	Presenting culture and heritage		
	Section D: Maximize benefits to the environment and minimize negative impacts	Artefacts	
		Environmentally preferable purchasing	
		Efficient purchasing	
		Energy conservation	
		Water conservation	
		Greenhouse gas emissions	
		Transport	
		Waste water	
		Solid waste	
		Harmful substances	
		Minimize pollution	
		Biodiversity conservation	
		Invasion of species	
		Visits to natural sites	
		Wildlife interactions	
	Animal welfare		
	Wildlife harvesting and trade		
Criteria for Tour operators			
	SECTION A: Demonstrate effective sustainable management	Sustainability management system	
		Legal compliance	
		Reporting and communication	
		Staff engagement	
		Customer experience	
		Accurate promotion	
		Buildings & infrastructure	
		Compliance	

		Impact & integrity
		Sustainable practices and materials
		Access for all
		Land, water and property rights
		Information and interpretation
		Destination engagement
	SECTION B: Maximize social and economic benefits to the local community and minimize negative impacts	Community support
		Local employment
		Local purchasing
		Local entrepreneurs
		Exploitation and harassment
		Equal opportunity
		Decent work
		Community services
		Local livelihoods
	SECTION C: Maximize benefits to cultural heritage and minimize negative impacts	Protecting cultural heritage
		Presenting culture and heritage
		Artefacts
	Section D: Maximize benefits to the environment and minimize negative impacts	Environmentally preferable purchasing
		Efficient purchasing
		Energy conservation
		Water conservation
		Greenhouse gas emissions
		Transport
		Waste water
		Solid waste
		Harmful substances
		Minimization of pollution
		Biodiversity conservation
		Invasive species
		Visits to natural sites
		Wildlife interactions
		Animal welfare
		Wildlife harvesting and trade

Source: GSTC Criteria, 2016

The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) has presented a trend and predictive scenario comparing sustainable tourism with business as usual (BAU) for a period ranging from 2010-20150, portraying a stark contrast in the approach (Table-5).

Table-5: Sustainable tourism with business as usual (BAU) for a period ranging from 2010-2050

Scenarios	Implications	Collaterals				Direct employment
		Energy consumption growth	Green House Gas Emissions	Water Consumption	Solid waste management	
Sustainable tourism	Efficient consumption of resources & Low carbon discharge Stress on renewable energy sources	44%	52%	18%	21%	580 million
	Higher level of investments					
	Amendments in policies related to environment and energy					
	Allocation of approximately 0.2% of global GDP each year					
Business as usual (BAU)	Consumption of traditional resources and fossil fuels	154%	131%	152%	251%	544 million
	Increased level of investments					
	Conventional policies related to energy and fuel consumption					
	Investment around 2% of GDP according to existing patterns without emission reduction targets					

5. Sustainable global destinations: Cases

Case-1: Following the GSTC guidelines a number of global destinations have emerged as green destinations. Slovenia is one such nation pioneering the propagation and patronization of sustainable tourism. Tourism in Slovenia contributes close to 13% of the country's gross domestic product, accounting for 8% of total exports, and approximately 37% of service exports. The Government of Slovenia has recently adopted the Sustainable Development Strategy for Slovenian Tourism 2017-2021 to develop competitive advantages and the promotion of systemic solutions in this area. The arrival of foreign tourists in Slovenia has increased more than 1.5 times from 2002 (2.4 million) to 2016 (4.3 million). The Slovenian Tourism Board has implemented the Slovenian Green Programme to promote healthy competition between the destinations. The programme uses the European Tourism Indicator System (ETIS) and the GSTC criteria to create a certification scheme considering the natural and ethno-cultural assets on display. Two Slovenian regions of Gorenjska and Goriška have partnered with neighbouring regions in Italy to create a Slow Tourism network. This comprises small businesses such as eco-accommodations, restaurants and activities. There is an emphasis on meeting local people, discovering traditions such as cheese making and folk music, and low-impact, "slow" activities such as walking, cycling and rafting.

Case-2: Bhutan is one of the few countries globally that has the ethos of sustainability embedded deep into its social structure as well as public policy. The only carbon negative country in the world, it has developed a unique Gross National Happiness (GNH) index based on four pillars: sustainable development, environmental protection, cultural preservation, and good governance. Being a completely land-locked mountain country with difficult accessibility, tourism is the mainstay of the Bhutanese economy, contributing more than 9% to GDP, earning the highest hard currency reserves and providing the highest employment opportunity. Despite this fact, the country had consciously chosen to go on the path of 'high value, low impact' tourism. The success of this model can be ratified by the fact that despite the high cost barrier, tourism in Bhutan continues to flourish, with steady rise in the growth rate. The RISE programme (Rapid Investment in Selected Enterprise) is an initiative taken by the current Government to accelerate economic growth and achieve the objective of self-reliance. One of the key sectors identified is Tourism - with a focus to achieve higher yield

per tourist as well as double the arrivals, but ensuring that it is spread across the country and throughout the calendar year.

Case-3: Under sustainable tourism initiatives in Phuket, Thailand, a resort namely, Evason Phuket has been introduced with sustainability criteria and is certified by ‘Green Leaf’, one of the eco-labels for green hotels and resorts. The initiatives confirmed upgradation of older tourism infrastructure to environmentally sustainable architecture which can improve energy efficiency and reduce water use, wastes and costs. The installation of resource efficient and energy saving equipment in the resort makes both economic and environmental sense. The investment has brought about significant savings.

Table-6: Evasion Phuket advantages

Item	Investment (in US \$)	Annual savings ((in US \$)	Payback
Energy monitoring system	11,000	About 10%	N/A
Quantum heat recovery	9,000	7,500	1.2 years
Centralized mini chillers	1,30,000	44,000	1.8 years
Energy efficient light bulbs	8,500	17,000	6 months
Biomass absorption chillers	1,15,000	41,000	2.8 years
LPG boilers for laundry	27,000	17,000	1.6 years
Rainwater reservoir	36,000	3,30,000	1 month

6. Sustainable Tourism: Indian perspectives

With its diverse geographical spread studded with microcosms of ethno-cultural and architectural heritage, India offers a vibrant tourism opportunity for all categories of travelers. India witnessed a phenomenal 10.7% growth in Foreign Tourist Arrivals (FTAs) in 2016 compared to 2015. Similarly the Domestic Tourist Visits (DTV's) have increased by 15.5% in 2016 over 2015 with a CAGR of 13.84% over the last 10 years. From economic perspective the Indian tourism sector contributes significantly to the national GDP and has emerged as a significant source of foreign exchange earning. Apart from this the national tourism sector has created substantial job opportunities. To leverage the immense potential of tourism, India needs to frame the right kind of policies and identify the investment areas. The major statistics that the policy makers should take into consideration are a) foreign tourist arrivals,

b) foreign exchange earnings, c) contribution to GDP, d) generation of employment, e) domestic tourist mobility, f) investments and g) visitor exports.

Table-7: Major statistics of tourism in India

Sl. No.	Major heads	Statistics
1	Investments	Tourism's contribution to capital investment was 5.7% of total investments in 2016 and is projected to grow 5.7% p.a. during 2017–27, higher than the global average of 4.5%.
2	Foreign Tourist Arrivals (FTAs)	Foreign Tourist Arrivals (FTAs) which were 7.68 million in 2014, increased to 8.03 million in 2015 and 8.89 million in 2016. FTA has grown with a CAGR of 8.45% against the global growth rate of 4-5%. By 2025, Foreign Tourist Arrivals in India are expected to reach 15.3 million, according to the WTO. FTAs during the period January - April 2017 were 35.85 lakh with a growth of 15.4%, of which 5.82 lakh tourists arrived on e-Tourist Visa as compared to 3.91 lakh during January-April 2016, registering a growth of 48.8%.
3	Foreign Exchange Earnings (FEEs)	FEEs during the period January-April 2017 were INR 61,605 crore with a growth of 18.9%, as compared to the FEE of INR 51,812 crore with a growth of 15.0% in January-April 2016 over January- April 2015.
4	Contribution to GDP	India ranked 3rd among 184 countries in terms of travel and tourism's total contribution to GDP in 2016. The tourism & hospitality sector's direct contribution to GDP in 2016, was USD 71.53 billion; During 2006-17, direct contribution of tourism & hospitality to GDP is expected to register a CAGR of 14.05%.
5	Generation of employment	Indian tourism sector is estimated to support 41 million jobs by 2017 which have been further forecast to reach approximately 49.8 million jobs by 2027.
6	Visitor exports	Contribution of visitor exports to total exports is estimated to increase 6.1% p.a. during 2017–27 compared to the world average of 4.3% p.a.
7	Domestic tourist mobility	Domestic travel spending generated 82.5% of direct Travel & Tourism GDP in 2015 compared with 17.5% for visitor exports. Domestic travel spending is expected to rise by 7.8% pa to Rs. 13,305.5 billion in 2026 while visitor exports are expected to rise by 7.2% per annum to Rs. 2,625.6 billion in 2026.

Sustainable tourism has been recognized by Government of India as a potent route to sustainable livelihood, particularly, considering the high population base of the nation and its dependency and usage of non-renewable natural resources. As a comprehensive programme

to promote India as a sustainable tourism destination, the brand of ‘Incredible India’ was created to encompass not only the major and prominent tourist destinations with rich heritage but also the unexplored rural tourism sector.

With environmental concerns like global warming and climatic changes looming large, the global tourism industry is rapidly adjusting to the unforeseen and unpredictable adversaries. Developing nation like India has also realized the implications of this climatic shift and allied impacts on tourism industry as a whole. The conventional tourism value chain has been re-explored to analyse its share in emitting green house gases (GHGs), deforestation, wetland usage, expanded carrying capacity, intervention with environmental elements, disturbances in biodiversity spread etc. Moreover, tourism is one of the few service sectors operating in rural areas and other fragile ecosystems, where the conservation of cultural heritage also becomes an important facet apart from the natural heritage. Recognizing this challenge to create a sustainable balance between visitor numbers and heritage conservation, the Ministry of Tourism is working to provide policy mechanisms to guide the industry towards sustainable use of resources and mitigating negative impacts on environment and society.

The Ministry of Tourism framed policy and guidelines for Eco-tourism in India in 1998 after a detail deliberation with the industry and other stakeholders. The deliberations incorporated the strategic issues namely identifying the eco-tourism assets of India, plans and programmes to promote eco-tourism in India and functional guidelines to all the stakeholders and partners. A number of criteria and parameters were identified to be used as a sustainable audit-instrument, namely, estimation of carrying capacity, polluter pays principle, inclusive growth, preserving heritage and ethno-cultural aspects, regulatory aspects etc. In 1998 itself the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and UNWTO brought out a publication entitled “Making Tourism More Sustainable – A Guide for Policy Makers”. It listed the following objectives for sustainable tourism which also became guiding principle for the Government of India while rolling out plans and programmes for sustainable tourism in India:

1. Economic Viability
2. Local Prosperity
3. Employment Quality
4. Social Equity
5. Visitor Fulfillment
6. Local Control

7. Community Wellbeing
8. Cultural Richness
9. Physical Integrity
10. Biological Diversity
11. Resource Efficiency
12. Environmental Purity

Later, in 2010, additional criteria and measurement parameters were included in conformity with the Global Sustainable Tourism Council (GSTC). Sustainable tourism initiatives were integrated in policy framework in the 12th Five Year Plan with provisions for infrastructural support to augment responsible tourism, awareness & training programmes and incentives for sustainable initiatives in tourist destinations.

A National Workshop on Sustainable Tourism Criteria for India was convened in July, 2010. Based on therecommendations of this National Workshop on Sustainable Tourism Criteria for India, a sub-committee chaired by the Joint Secretary (Tourism), Government of India, and comprising expert stakeholders was constituted in 2010 for defining Sustainable Tourism Criteria for India (STCI) and Indicators (Ministry of Tourism, Government of India 2016). In 2016, the Ministry of Tourism launched the Sustainable Tourism Criteria for India (STCI) in association with Ecotourism Society of India (ESOI), a non-profit organization formed in 2008 with the sole aim to promote and ensure environmentally responsible and sustainable practices in the tourism industry. The criteria were fixed as per the GSTC guidelines and focused on three major operational areas:

- (i) Tour operators
- (ii) Accommodation industry
- (iii) Natural resources (landscape, marine and other water bodies, biodiversity etc.) and Intellectual resources(ethno-cultural, heritage architecture, folk-art, indigenous practices etc.)

The key concerns kept in mind by STCI were:

- (i) Carrying capacity.
- (ii) Anthropogenic character, applying to all major human impacts on theenvironment.
- (iii)Local community participation, engagement and benefit.
- (iv)Guidelines of Ministry of Environment & Forests, Government of India.
- (v) Bio-degradable toilets.
- (vi)Water harvesting.

- (vii) Lessons from successes and failures, national & international.
- (viii) Institutional certification and viewpoints: ISO, BIS, BEE, LEED etc.
- (ix) Polluter Pays Principle.

In addition, the Ministry framed parameters to approve hotel projects and even fixed criteria to categorise existing hotels on the basis of their operational practices. The tour operators were also brought under the scheme of sustainable tourism and were provide with guidelines to follow in implementing the same. Over the last five years a number of states have launched initiatives.

Table-8: State-wise major initiatives of implementation of sustainable tourism in India

Sl. No.	State	Policy & Promotional initiatives	Organizational initiatives	Capacity building, Infrastructure development & New tourism products
1	Andhra Pradesh	Collaboration with UNWTO to promote sustainable tourism		Coastal Tourism Circuit in Sri PottiSriramalu, Nellore under SwadeshDarshan Scheme Community based eco-tourism development has been taken up at a cost of INR 2.5 cr at Bairutla and Pacharla in Nallamala forest
2	Assam			'Majuli Sustainable Tourism Development Project' to encourage a carbon free tourism experience in the island
3	Chhattisgarh	Provisions to promote Eco tourism, rural tourism, adventure tourism and tourism promotion through Special Tourism Areas/Zones		Tribal tourism circuit has been identified for development under SwadeshDarshan Scheme
4	Gujarat	Homestay policy		Ambardi Lion Safari Park
5	Himachal Pradesh	HP Eco Tourism Policy 2017		Infrastructure Development Investment Program for Tourism (IDIPT)
6	Karnataka	Declared "2017 – Year of the Wild" Adventure Tourism Policy and Homestay Policy under preparation	Jungle Lodges & Resorts - Joint Venture of Department of Tourism and Department of Forest Karnataka Eco-Tourism Development Board	

			(KEDB)	
7	Kerala	Re-branding Kerala as 'Land of Adventure		Introduction of Coracle Ride as part of the Seethathode - Gavi Popular Tourism (SGPT) project 10 forest-centered ecotourism circuit projects
8	Madhya Pradesh	Madhya Pradesh Forest (Entertainment and Wildlife experience) Rule 2015	Madhya Pradesh Ecotourism Development Board	
9	Maharashtra	Mahabhraman Scheme		Signed MoU with AirBnB to promote unique experiences PustakancheGaon (village of books) Concept
10	Odisha	Odisha Ecotourism Policy 2013		42 eco-tourism facilities across 23 forest divisions
11	Sikkim	Sikkim Ecotourism Policy 2011	Sikkim Ecotourism Council	Sikkim Himalayan Home Stay Program
12	Tamil Nadu		Vehicle Safari at Sathyamangalam Tiger Reserve (STR) Tree-Top Rest Houses Mangrove Ecotourism at Karankadu	
13	Telangana		TelanganaSamskruthika Sarathi	Integrated Development of Eco Tourism Circuit in Mahabubnagar District with an outlay of INR 91.62 cr Tribal Tourism Circuit in Warangal District
14	Uttarakhand	Uttarakhand Tourism Policy 2017	Uttarakhand Tourism Development Board (UTDB)	
15	West Bengal	West Bengal Tourism Policy 2016, Homestay policy 2017		Blue Homestays in the Dooars area to promote rural tourism, Bishnupur Music Festival to promote cultural tourism, Rural Craft Hub n Panchmura to promote local crafts. Sunderbans Tiger Reserve to promote wildlife tourism, Tea gardens in Jalpaiguri and Darjeeling to promote tea tourism.

7. Major issues and challenges in adopting sustainable tourism practice

While sustainable tourism positions itself well as a panacea to curb the negative impacts of tourism activity without compromising on the economic benefits, its adoption into the mainstream has presented certain challenges, especially in an emerging tourism market like India.

- a) **Change in Consumer Patterns:** While inbound tourism comes from an evolved market that is better aligned towards sustainable tourism products, the domestic market is still in a nascent stage and highly dominated by mass tourism activities. Changing the mindset of the domestic tourist to be more amenable to sustainable tourism products represents one of the major challenges hindering growth of sustainable tourism in India.
- b) **Low Adoption of Sustainable Practices and Certifications:** Many guidelines and certification mechanisms exist today that can guide the tourism industry towards adopting sustainable practices, especially when it comes to the use of resources like water, electricity and also waste management. The Ministry of Tourism has prepared an extensive Sustainable Tourism Criteria for India (STCI), adapting the tenets of Global Sustainable Tourism Criteria (GSTC) in the Indian context. However, adoption of these principles remains low, in some cases due to the high costs involved in acquiring certification.
- c) **Price Barriers:** Many sustainable tourism products are positioned at a higher price point than their conventional counterparts owing to the higher input and localization costs involved. As a result, many tourists, especially domestic travelers, are compelled to settle for mass tourism based livelihoods even if they have an inclination to try out sustainable tourism products.
- d) **Capacity Creation in Rural Areas:** While creating necessary tourist infrastructure is one part of the puzzle, motivating communities to take up tourism activities, especially in rural areas, requires building up skill sets (sometimes from the scratch) in areas pertaining to both hospitality as well as business operations. In a scenario where a large part of the rural population is living on frugal agrarian means with low literacy rates and limited access to basic amenities, motivating them to undertake new ventures can prove to be a challenging ordeal.
- e) **Informed Policy Frameworks:** In order to create a framework that can be easily adopted and implemented by the industry, policies need to be informed by evidence,

making the collection of data collection, analysis and monitoring critical. Efforts are needed to ensure that data collection is sustained and participatory; makes use of existing statistical frameworks where relevant; involves needs-based indicators; and that the data collected is used to guide tourism management in practice.

The significance of sustainable tourism in India can also be understood from an analytical point of view stated by World Economic Forum Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index (Table-9):

Table-9: Analysis – World Economic Forum Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index 2013

Framework	Rank (out of 144 countries)	Score (scale of 1-7)
Travel & Tourism regulatory framework	110	3.92
Business environment and infrastructure	67	3.69
Price competitiveness in the Travel & Tourism industry	20	5.11
Travel & Tourism human, cultural and natural resources	21	4.72
Natural resources	9	5.36
Cultural resources	24	4.68
Air transport Infrastructure	39	4.18
Ground transport infrastructure	42	4.44
Quality of Roads	85	3.50
Quality of port infrastructure	79	4.00

India ranks 21st in Travel & Tourism human, cultural and natural resources, 9th in Natural resources and 24th in Cultural resources out of 144 countries. These three indices of global travel & tourism competitiveness focuses on sustainability. With this advantage in their favour, India can lead the world towards sustainable tourism initiatives.

8. Sustainable tourism initiatives in India: Cases

Kerala has taken pioneering role in propagating the spirit of sustainability and embed the concept within the fundamental scaffold of its thriving and vibrant tourism industry. Tagged as ‘God’s own country’, Kerala is blessed with abundant natural spread in the form of coastlines and backwaters. The tourism products of Kerala represent a diverse portfolio of natural setting, heritage & culture, wellness (ayurveda) and cuisine. Kerala has a stated policy on responsible and sustainable tourism and has functional institutions to implement the same.

Alleppey Tourism Development Cooperative Society (ATDCS) is one of the oldest community-based tourism initiatives in the country engaged in counterbalancing the declining environmental health due to tourist intervention by creating awareness not only amongst the visitors, but also, amongst the service providers. ATDCS introduced the concept of houseboats to lure the tourists by maintaining precautionary measures to protect its coastline and backwaters.

Jungle Lodges & Resorts (JLR), one of the earliest PPP model, was established as a joint venture between the Government of Karnataka and Tiger Tops Jungle Lodges (TTJL). The initiative promoted a host of tourism opportunities that consume lesser amount of natural resources, namely, white water rafting, trekking, jungle-camping, fishing etc. Positioned as a destination, supporting adventure tourism, wellness tourism and eco-tourism, Karnataka has implemented a well-drafted sustainability programme along with the host community and the visitors. In 1987 TTJL sold its share to the Government, but the model continue to show its path towards sustainable co-existence between people, planet and profit for other destinations to follow.

Sikkim, with its fragile mountain eco-system, has moulded on neighbouring Bhutan towards sustainable tourism. The Government, along with the tourism service providers, have focused on the carrying capacity of the destination and strict restrictive measures were adopted in terms of allowing economic activity at random. Sikkim has been the first to be declared as an organic state in India. One of the success stories of Sikkim is the rollout of Sikkim Homestay Programme in collaboration of UNESCO, Norwegian Government and Principality of Andorra. The programme has been implemented in the rural destinations of Sikkim by Ecotourism and Conservation Society of Sikkim (ECOSS).

Apart from the Government and institutional initiatives, a number of corporate houses have endorsed the sustainability programme in tourism perspective. The ITC chain of hotels is one such example. Tagged as one of the greenest chain of hotels in the world ITC has invested heavily in reduction of GHG emissions, solid waste management, water harvesting and recycling, energy management and use of green material in building infrastructure. At present 14 hotels of the ITC group have been certified as LEED Platinum by the U.S. Green Building Council.

9. Conclusion

National Geographic and Globescan developed 'Greendex', a measure to capture consumers' concern and response to environmental regression and climatic changes. The survey conducted in 2014 considered 18 nations worldwide. The researchers asked survey participants about their habits in a realm of different areas, including energy conservation, food purchases, transportation habits, preferences in terms of organic and conventional products, and environmental knowledge and attitude. This can be largely attributed to the fact the rural communities, who practice austerity in almost every walk of life, constitute around 70% of the country's total population. They then used the survey results to rank the 18 countries they studied based upon consumers' responses. India topped the ranking table.

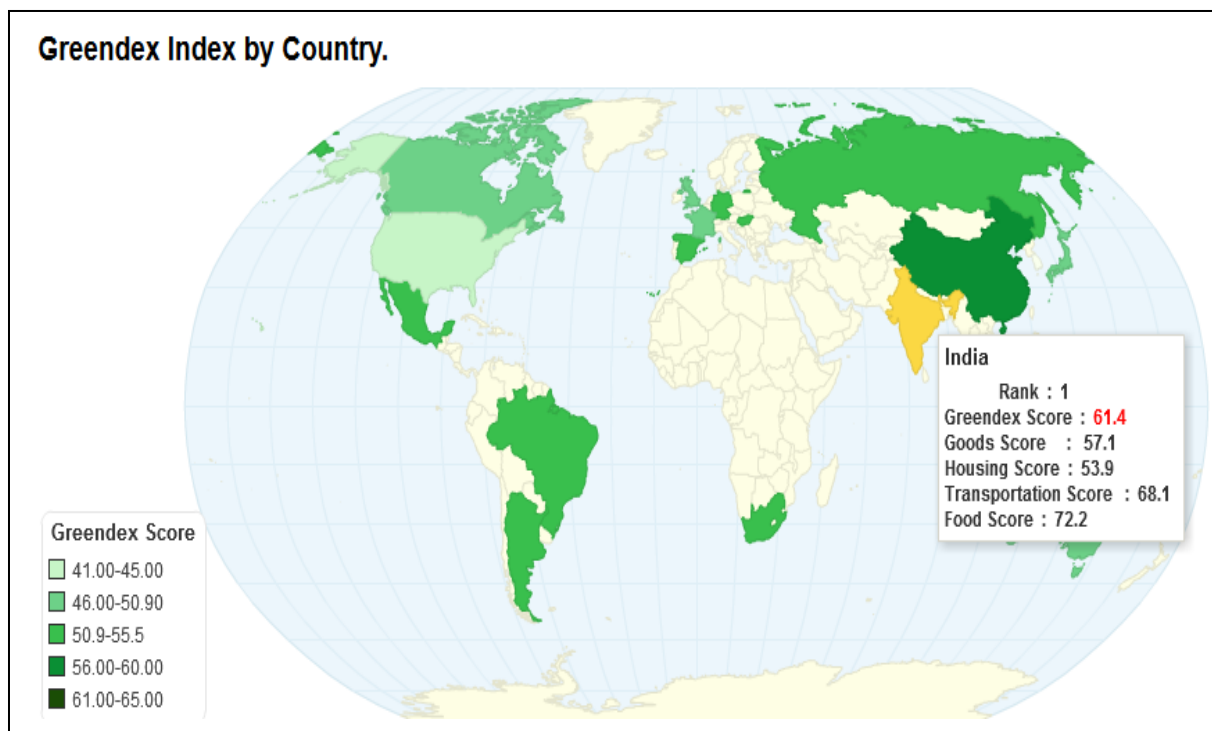


Fig.9: India topped in Greendex
(source: National Geographic, 2014)

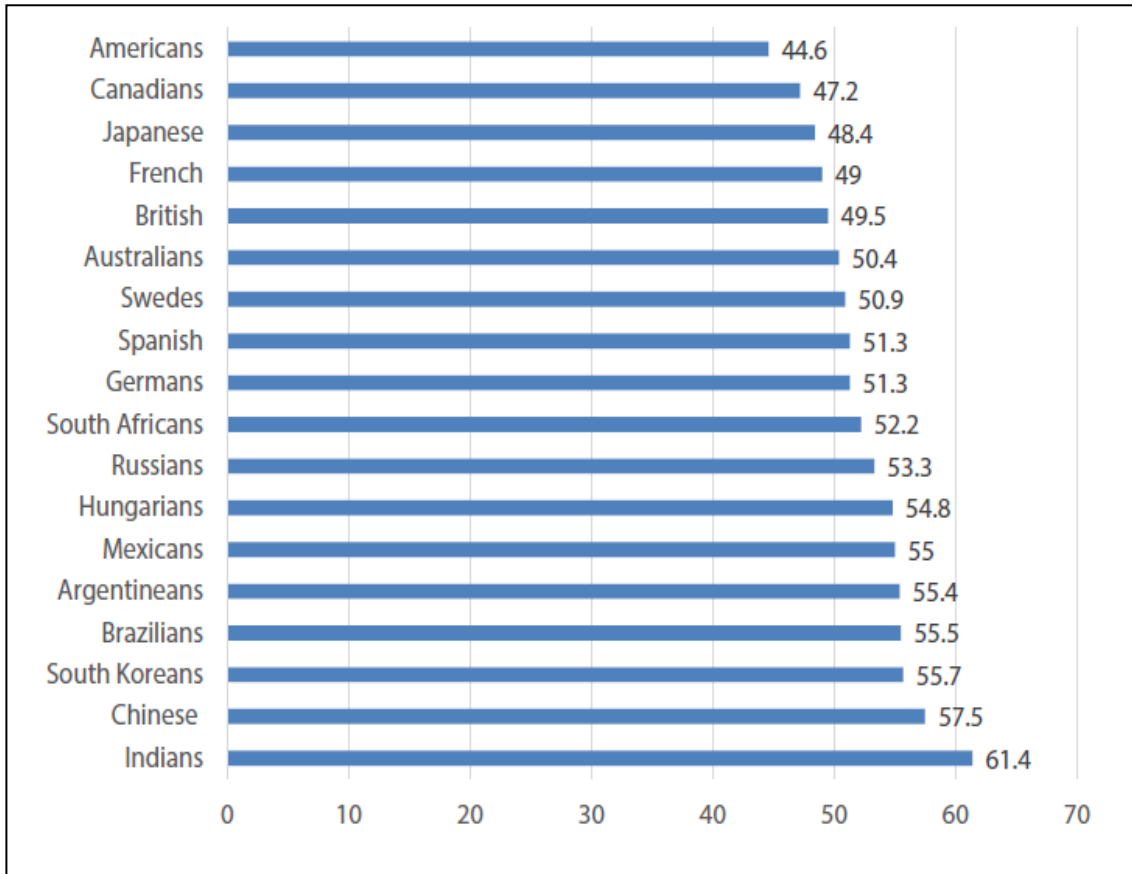


Fig.10: India's performance in Greendex
(source: National Geographic, 2014)

Sustainability runs deep into the Indian philosophy and way of living. Transgenerational practice and patronization of craft, folk & indigenous art, ethnic rituals (namely festivals) and cultural heritage and architecture are examples of initiatives towards sustainability. Yoga and Ayurveda are, perhaps, among the most well-known ways of holistic Indian living. Sustainable and environmentally friendly practices and psyches still continue to be part of the lifestyle and culture. India has both a culture of hoarding and thriftiness and it has been acknowledged by the stakeholders for its efforts and initiatives to promote environmental sustainability through policy measures, dialogues and implementations of the same. Despite this, the rural economy of India faces a number of challenges including low level of income, dependency on agriculture, absence of alternative forms of viable livelihood, lack of infrastructure and supportive technology, compromised healthcare and educational opportunities, low employment generation etc. This is where tourism can intervene to uplift rural communities and improve social indices in the hinterland. Sustainability is a community-based and ecology-centric approach in which tourism is leveraged to provide

sustainable community infrastructure and preservation-map for ethno-cultural heritage. It gives tourists an authentic experience of local culture and traditions while helping the community—and both these objectives are aligned with the evolving targets of the Paris Agreement and the UN SDGs. Tourism leads to sustainable rural development and provides livelihood opportunities for rural communities, a win-win situation for all stakeholders (Bansal 2017).

References

Tourism and Innovation by C. Michael Hall and Allan M. Williams, Routledge, Taylor and Francis Publication (1st edn.)

Hosts and guests revisited by Valene L. Smith and Maryann Brent, Cognizant Corporate Communication

Tourism Development revisited: Concepts, Issues and Paradigms by Sutheeshna Babu S., Sithikanta Mishra and Bivraj Bhusan Parida Response Books

Tourism and Hospitality Marketing by Simon Hudson, Sage Publication (2nd edn.)

The management of Tourism by Lesley Pender and Richard Sharpley, Sage Publication

Tourism Management in 21st Century by Peter R. Chang, Nova Science Publishers, Inc.

Tomorrow's Tourists: Scenarios & Trends by Ian Yeoman, Advances in Tourism Series, Elsevier, 2008.

Researching Customer Satisfaction and Loyalty by Paul Szwarc, Kogan Page, London and Sterling VA, 2005

Happiness Quantified by Bernard Van Praag and Ada Ferrer-i-Carbonell, Oxford University Press, 2008\

TRAVEL & TOURISM ECONOMIC IMPACT 2018 WORLD by World Travel and Tourism Council

TRAVEL & TOURISM ECONOMIC IMPACT 2017 WORLD by World Travel and Tourism Council

TRAVEL & TOURISM ECONOMIC IMPACT 2018 INDIA by World Travel and Tourism Council

TRAVEL & TOURISM ECONOMIC IMPACT 2017 INDIA by World Travel and Tourism Council

Van Dolen W. et al., 2004, An Empirical Assessment of the Influence of Customer Emotions and Contact Employee Performance on Encounter and Relationship Satisfaction. Journal of Business Research. Vol.57. page 437 – 444.

Oliver R. Burke R., 1999, Expectation Processes in Satisfaction Formation. Journal of Service Research. Vol.1. page 196 – 214.

Lundberg, Erik. *Tourism Impacts and Sustainable Development*. Gothenburg: School of Business, Economics and

Law, University of Gothenburg, 2014.

Ministry of Tourism, Government of India. *Sustainable Tourism For India: Criteria and Indicators - Applicable to*

Accommodation Sector and Tour Operators. New Delhi: Ministry of Tourism, Government of India, 2016.

OECD. *OECD Tourism Trends and Policies 2016*. Paris: OECD Publishing, 2016.

Strategic Government Advisory (SGA), YES BANK. *Smart Cities: Fostering Sustainable Tourism in U.P.* New Delhi: YES

BANK Ltd, 2017.

UNWTO. *Sustainable Tourism for Development . Guidebook*, Madrid: World Tourism Organization, 2013.

WWF. *Towards sustainable tourism investment*. WWF Mediterranean Programme, 2009.

<http://cf.cdn.unwto.org/sites/all/files/docpdf/devcoengfinal.pdf>

<http://sdt.unwto.org/content/faq-climate-change-and-tourism>

World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC) – *Travel & Tourism Global Economic Impacts & Issues 2017*

<https://www.gstcouncil.org/about/about-us/>

Center for Responsible Travel - *The Case for Responsible Travel: Trends & Statistics 2017*

<http://mandalaresearch.com/downloads/role-sustainability-travel-tourism-2016/>

Sustainable Travel International (May 12, 2016). “Why ‘Going Green’ Pays Off: Sustainable Practices Drive

Destination Choice for A Majority of Travelers, New Research Unveils”

<http://www.businesswire.com/news/home/20160825006194/en/COLLOQUY-Research-Shows-76-U.S.->

<https://www.slovenia.info/en/press-centre/press-releases/7184-2016-another-record-year-for-sloveniantourism>

<https://www.slovenia.info/en>

<https://www.responsibletravel.com/holidays/slovenia/travel-guide/responsible-tourism-in-slovenia>

<http://www.ft.lk/article/593749/Cinnamon-Wild-Yala-in-the-running-for-top-global-sustainability-award>

<https://sgp.undp.org/mwg-internal/de5fs23hu73ds>

[progress?id=sxeaJfaChC95V8OJ4Ft5cQFJbt5NG4ArGd3AiP94vrs,](https://sgp.undp.org/mwg-internal/de5fs23hu73ds/progress?id=sxeaJfaChC95V8OJ4Ft5cQFJbt5NG4ArGd3AiP94vrs)

World Tourism Organization (2012b) Global Report on Food Tourism. Madrid: UNWTO

World Tourism Organization (2015e) UNWTO/UNESCO World Conference on Tourism and Culture: Building a

New Partnership Siem Reap, Cambodia, 4–6 February 2015. Madrid: UNWTO

United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (2015) Creative Economy Outlook and Country

Profiles: Trends in international trade in creative industries. Geneva: UNCTAD

http://www.routevangogheurope.eu/images/Press/PDFPressReleases/EN_Press_release_Kick-off_Route_

IBEF, Tourism and Hospitality – May 2017

<http://pib.nic.in/newsite/pmreleases.aspx?mincode=36>

<https://www.ibef.org/download/Tourism-and-Hospitality-February-2017.pdf>

http://tourism.gov.in/sites/default/files/FTA/Press_release_-_Feb_2017-_FTAs.PDF

<http://pib.nic.in/newsite/>

http://tourism.gov.in/sites/default/files/FTA/FEE_Press_Note_Jan_17.PDF

<https://www.ibef.org/download/Tourism-and-Hospitality-February-2017.pdf>

<https://www.wttc.org/-/media/files/reports/economic-impact-research/countries-2016/india2016.pdf>

<http://www.ecotourismsocietyofindia.org/>

<http://pib.nic.in/newsite/PrintRelease.aspx?relid=137882>

http://www.theschoolhouseatmutianyu.com/downfile/sustainable_hotels_asia.pdf

<https://www.nationalgeographic.org/>

<https://www.globescan.com>

<http://www.mssrf.org/content/biodiversity-and-sustainable-tourism-development>

<http://www.financialexpress.com/industry/airbnb-world-bank-sign-mou-to-enhance-rural-tourism/730811/>

http://assets.panda.org/downloads/towards_sustainable_tourism_investment.pdf

<https://www.statista.com/statistics/233223/travel-and-tourism--total-economic-contribution-worldwide/>

Chapter-2

Sustainable Tourism and Ethno-cultural preservation initiatives: Performance Measurement indices

1. Introduction

Tourism has emerged as a major industry for world economy generating a formidable stream of revenue, particularly, foreign exchange. Several nations, throughout the globe, rely solely on this industry for strengthening their economy and employment generation. Simultaneously, the tourism process has its own impact on the host community and environment. Tagged as an 'intensely-interactive' industry, both with human race and natural environment, tourism operations induce considerable changes in geomorphological set-up and ethno-cultural pattern. Therefore, informed decisions at all scales are needed so that tourism can be a positive contributor to sustainable development in keeping with its role as a significant source of both benefits and potential stresses. During the decade since the 1992 Rio conference, planners and academics in many nations and specific destinations have been working to develop indicators suitable for their management needs. These indicators have focused both on issues of impact and sustainability for tourism, and on more traditional management indicators that respond to particular needs at many scales. Unfortunately, the sustainability issues that were considered to be addressed since the Rio conference, did not include preservation of ethno-cultural heritage and traditions. The focus was predominantly on human interventions with environment and ecosystem, thereby, increasing the level of toxic emissions and random & indiscriminate use of non-renewable resources inducing climatic changes. The World Tourism Organisation (WTO), in 2004, for the first time addressed sustainability by incorporating the operational impacts of tourism as an industry. WTO narrated that sustainability principles refer to the environmental, economic and sociocultural aspects of tourism development, and a suitable balance must be established between these three dimensions to guarantee its long-term sustainability. WTO further went on to state that tourism in all forms, ranging from mass tourism to niche tourism, must have an inbuilt mechanism to ensure sustainability and recommended that sustainable tourism should:

a) make optimal use of environmental resources that constitute a key element in tourism development, maintaining essential ecological processes and helping to conserve natural heritage and biodiversity.

b) respect the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities, conserve their built and living cultural heritage and traditional values, and contribute to inter-cultural understanding and tolerance.

c) ensure viable, long-term economic operations, providing socio-economic benefits to all stakeholders that are fairly distributed, including stable employment and income-earning opportunities and social services to host communities, and contributing to poverty alleviation. Sustainable tourism development requires the informed participation of all relevant stakeholders, as well as strong political leadership to ensure wide participation and consensus building. Achieving sustainable tourism is a continuous process and it requires constant monitoring of impacts, introducing the necessary preventive and/or corrective measures whenever necessary. Sustainable tourism should also maintain a high level of tourist satisfaction and ensure a meaningful experience to the tourists, raising their awareness about sustainability issues and promoting sustainable tourism practices amongst them.

1.1 Indicators for sustainable tourism

Indicators are measures of the various manifestations of cause-&-effect kind of scenario and are reflective of severity of impacts, signals of forthcoming situations or problems, measures of risk and potential need for action and means to identify and measure the results of actions of all stakeholders. Indicators are set of information, which are formally selected to be used on a regular basis to measure changes that are significant and critical for tourism operations and management and they should be able to measure a) changes in tourism's inherent structures and internal factors, b) changes in external environmental (macro) factors which affect tourism and c) the impacts caused by tourism. A mix of quantitative and qualitative indicators can be used for measuring sustainability ranging from environmental paradigm to ethno-cultural legacy.

Indicators are chosen from a range of data sets or information which are meaningful to the key issues to which tourism, as an industry and process, must address. The chosen indicators must enable the policy makers to roll-out preemptive action-plans to forecast and prevent undesirable and unsustainable practices at the destination level. In the context of sustainable development for tourism, indicators are time series information, which is strategic to the

sustainability of a destination in terms of its assets (both tangible and intangible) and functionalities. The key sustainability indicators for the tourism industry are those, which respond to the key risks, and concerns associated with a destination and also provide information, which can help clarify the issues and measure the responses. Indicators will normally respond to issues concerning the:

- a) natural resources and environment of a destination,
- b) concerns relating to economic sustainability,
- c) issues relating to ethno-cultural assets and social values,
- d) issues related to destination management

While developing indicators, the demographic, geographic and ethnographic attributes of destinations must be taken into consideration. Rural destinations offer different challenges compared to urban destinations. Rural or remote destinations with fragile and vulnerable ecosystem pose stronger challenges to maintain sustainability. Destinations with age-old heritage architecture and aboriginal ethno-cultural practices will have different mix of requirements regarding sustainability. Therefore, there can be a number of add-on indicators which may capture and address the exact nature of sustainability depending on the specific destination attributes and the extent to which visitors interact with them.

While developing indicators, the relevance to the key issues of a destination and practicality of generation & use are the foremost considerations. In addition, criteria relating to scientific credibility, clarity, and ability to be used as bench marks for comparison over time and with other destinations are used to help choose the indicators likely to have the greatest impact on decisions or actions. Indicators are considered relevant only if they effectively address the key issues associated with planning and management of a destination. They must also be feasible to collect and analyze and practical to put in place. As a consequence, the indicators development process is usually iterative: in effect a procedure of negotiation between the ideal information important to key issues and decisions surrounding them, and the realities of what can be obtained and at what cost. The procedure is dynamic as the continuous improvement of information sources and processing, aiming at more accurate indicators, is an implicit objective.

The World Tourism Organization (WTO), since 1992, has been active in developing and implementing indicators which help in the sustainable development of tourism at different destinations. The initiative has assisted the destination managers to formulate proactive strategies to deal with adverse impacts of tourism apart from dealing with other sustainability issues. This also helped the destination managers to develop destination-specific scales

depending on the niche attributes of the destination pertaining to its demography, geography and ethnography. In 1995-96 WTO prepared a manual for indicator development based on initial pilot tests in Canada, US, Mexico, Netherlands and Argentina. Since the publication of the manual, there have been several regional workshops and case studies, including those organized by the WTO in Mexico, Argentina, Hungary, Sri Lanka, and Croatia, where participants from many nations learned about indicators application, helped to advance the methodology, focused on specific cases to ensure practical application and testing of the approach.

The rationale behind developing indicators to measure sustainability of a tourism destination lies in the fact that it enables better management of destination. The ecosystem of tourism destinations is vulnerable as they are host to abundant natural resources (biodiversity) and transgenerational ethno-cultural and heritage assets. The very essence of tourism compels the visitors to interact with these fragile environments and often leaves long-term adverse impact. Incidences of polluted natural and vulnerable landscapes namely, beaches, mangroves, hill-sides, rivers & streams and damaged ethno-cultural and ecological assets, hostile attitudes of local community to tourists and tourism activities and subsequent problems for the tourism sector have occurred in many destinations. Studies done by the WTO and many other statutory organisations have revealed that the planning and management of tourism in many destinations have occurred with insufficient information, particularly with regard to the impacts of tourism on destinations, the impacts of changes in the social, cultural, ethnic and natural environment due to tourism activities and the long-term maintenance of the key assets which make a destination attractive. Within this context, indicators are an early warning system for destination managers of potential risks and a signal for possible action. They serve as a key tool, providing specific measures of changes in factors most important to the sustainability of tourism in a destination. Tourism sector decision-makers need to know the links between tourism and the natural and cultural environments, including the effects of environmental factors on tourism (possibly expressed as risks to tourism) and the impacts of tourism on the environment (which may also be expressed as risks to the product). Responsibility requires knowledge. Using existing and newly gathered data, changes in environmental, social and economic conditions can be detected. This information, in turn, enables the status of issues relevant to a destination's sustainability to be gauged on an ongoing basis. Decision making in tourism planning and management can, therefore, be improved. The objective is to reduce future risks to the tourism industry and to destinations. Some of the benefits from good indicators include:

1. better decision-making - lowering risks or costs;
2. identification of emerging issues - allowing prevention;
3. identification of impacts - allowing corrective action when needed;
4. performance measurement of the implementation of plans and management activities – evaluating progress in the sustainable development of tourism;
5. reduced risk of planning mistakes - identifying limits and opportunities;
6. greater accountability - credible information for the public and other stakeholders of tourism fosters accountability for its wise use in decision-making;
7. constant monitoring can lead to continuous improvement - building solutions into management.

The destination managers and other the tourism operators are part of an environment which is considered to be data-rich but often poor in information. In these context appropriate indicators can help to organise meaningful data to link with sustainability issues allow interpretation with regard to its significance and probability of impact. It can further allow an analyst to forecast the intensity and severity of impact and its outcome and thereby can provide the policy makers with preemptive decisions. For example, data of tourist arrivals and mobility (both domestic and overseas) with regard to specific destinations can enable an analyst to calculate the carrying capacity beyond which the destination assets and resources, both tangible and intangible, will be under stress. Environmental issues, such as water supply or waste generation (consumption of water by tourists, amount of waste produced by tourists in peak seasons), or ethno-cultural issues related to host communities (ratio of tourists and host population in different periods of the year) can only be effectively understood when linked to tourist inflows. Indicators generated at different levels of interaction and scales are often strongly interrelated. If aggregated, many of the indicators can be used to create higher-level indicators and can be used for comparative studies across destinations and even for benchmarking. For example, environmental performances in the context of emission of green-house-gases at different tourism destinations may be aggregated and can be cross-tabulated with the issues of damage in heritage architecture, compromised biodiversity etc. These information can be shared with the management of the hotels & restaurants, logistic service providers and other tour operators so that they can rollout programmes to reduce the emission considerably and contribute to the sustainability of the destination. Sustainability indicators for a destination are often based on data collected at a more specific level from key

tourist sites, specific tourist attractions and individual tourism establishments. Destination level indicators are essential inputs for regional level planning processes that can further accumulate information to support the development of indicators at the national level.

1.1 Types of indicators

There are different types of indicators having different implications and utility for the policy-framers and decision-makers. These indicators predominantly allow to predict and forecast scenarios on the basis of the intensity of interaction between human and environment. These indicators can be generally categorise into:

- a) early warning indicators (e.g., decline in numbers of tourists who intend to return);
- b) indicators of stresses on the system (e.g., water shortages, or crime indices);
- c) measures of the current state of industry (e.g., occupancy rate, tourist satisfaction);
- d) measures of the impact of tourism development on the biophysical and socio-economic

environments (e.g. indices of the level of deforestation, changes of consumption patterns and income levels in local communities);

- e) measures of management effort (e.g., cleanup cost for coastal contamination);
- f) measures of management effect, results or performance (e.g., changed pollution levels, greater number of returning tourists).

The early-warning indicators are particularly important for the decision makers as they allow them to be proactive and implement strategies to resist environmental stresses arising out of tourism activities and, at the same time, improve the travel experience of the tourists. Ideally, indicators can enable actions to be taken well before serious threats to sustainability occur. Specific indicators may have multiple and dynamic uses. The same set of indicators may be used to analyse and explain a number of sustainability issues and its use may also be expanded over a period of time. For example, an indicator of stresses on the ethno-cultural and heritage assets of a specific destination may serve later to measure the impacts and results of management efforts taken in response to the problems identified, becoming in effect, a performance measure for the response.

2. Developing indicators

The primary phase of developing indicators involves collection of information about the tangible and intangible assets and attributes of the destination, tourism operatives,

environmental trends and concerns and archived research/ academic data. The agency engaged in developing indicators stay in contact with the local experts representing assorted fields (environment, ethno-cultural practice, heritage architecture, festivals & rituals, infrastructure and logistic etc.). The objective is to obtain clarity in the identification of the current state of the destination and its tourism, determine trends and potential risks to the industry, and make clear the roles of key stakeholders before focusing on issues and indicators. The entire process of developing indicators to measure sustainability at the destination level is an integration of three major steps: (a) planning process, (b) step-wise development of indicators and (c) implication and role of the indicators.

Table-1: Indicators and planning procedures – links and relations

Planning process	Step-wise development of indicators	Implication and role of the indicators
A. Definition/delineation of the destination /development area.	Research and organization 1. Definition/delineation of the destination (to identify scope of information needs for indicators).	The definition of area reflects data boundaries (management or political units for access and utility).
B. Establishment of participatory planning process.	2. Use of participatory processes for indicators development.	Indicators are part of participatory planning process and catalyst to stimulate it.
C. Formulation of vision and/or mission statement.	3. Identification of tourism assets and risks. 4. Long-term vision for a destination – clearly defined.	Key step in indicators work is to identify existing vision, and clearly define key elements.
D. Initial assessment and analysis of assets, risks, impacts (situation analysis).	Indicators development 5. Selection of priority issues and policy questions. 6. Identification of Desired Indicators. 7. Inventory of data sources. 8. Selection of indicators. Indicators implementation 9. Evaluation of indicators feasibility and implementation procedures. 10. Data collection and analysis.	Indicators are essential to clarify key issues, assets, risks and provide accurate information on them. Indicators are used to report on the results of the initial assessment to the stakeholders involved.
E. Setting up development objectives (for the short, medium and long term according to priority needs).	Ideally indicators are built into the action phases of planning and implementation. Data gathering and analysis	Indicators help to provide clarity to development objectives – can be used to set targets and performance measures. Essential for definition of clear targets and

	occur on an ongoing basis.	timeframes, and communicate them to stakeholders.
F. Formulation and evaluation of strategies targeting development objectives.	Policy objectives can also target development of data sources and processing capacities that supports indicators application.	Indicators can be used to define or analyze fit between issues and strategies.
G. Formulation of action plans and specific projects based on the optimal strategy.		Indicators become performance measures for projects and activities and assist in definition of specific targets.
H. Implementation of action plans and projects.	11. Accountability, reporting and communication <i>Monitoring and evaluation of implementation should be conducted on an ongoing basis, with periodic reporting of results, using indicators.</i>	Indicators are what is monitored and evaluated about:
I. Monitoring and evaluation of plan and project implementation.	12. Monitoring of indicators application <i>Priority issues, information source and processing capacities can change, so it is also necessary to verify the appropriateness of indicators periodically.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • management processes, direct • program and project outputs; • progress in achieving defined objectives; • changes in environmental and socio-economic conditions as a result of actions. Indicators form key part of public accountability for implementation and results.

Source: Indicators for Sustainable Development for Tourism Destinations: A Guidebook by World Tourism Organisation (WTO), 2004

2.1 Steps in the development of indicators to measure performance with regard to sustainability of tourism destination

2.1.1 Step-1: Defining destination boundaries and listing destination assets

The development of indicators starts with defining the destination and its boundaries. To assess the issues of sustainability one must have a clear idea about the geographical and ethno-cultural assets of the destination as these assets are the prime attraction for the tourists and are often instrumental in shaping the travel motive. A clarified repository of these tangible and intangible assets alongwith identified boundary of the destination is essential for developing indicators. Destinations come with unique geographical features and natural backdrop and hence carry different implications for sustainable parameters. For example destinations having coastal line are a different proposition from destinations having desert or

mountain spread. Similarly island destinations poses different challenges from land-bounded destinations. Further, destinations may have wide distribution of heritage architecture or may be rich in ethno-cultural practices. Destination boundary may be established by:

- a) including key sites and assets
- b) matching with existing boundaries
- c) identifying areas that reflect natural or ecological areas
- d) considering subdividing the destination
- e) considering specific sub-areas for special consideration

Apart from defining the destination boundary, the initial phase of developing the performance measurement indicators include identifying the key attributes of the destination that makes it approachable for the tourists. The basic information that should be collected early in the process includes identification of:

- a) who comes to the destination, when, where and for what purposes?
- b) what is the typical experience?
- c) what are the trends in tourism for the destination?
- d) have there been any tourism planning or regulation processes put in place and are results evident?
- e) are there existing problems which are likely to drive any planning or management process, and are there proposals currently on the table (from the tourism sector or from others) which may affect the future of the destination?

2.1.2 Step-2: Use of participatory processes for indicators development

The development of indicators for sustainability performance measurement is necessarily a participatory process. The participants may range from local authority, host community and stakeholders, tourism operators and service providers and government departments. The participants have dual activities (a) planning of assets and infrastructure critical to tourism and (b) defining issues and sources of information for indicators. The complexity of stakeholder groups, their interests and relationships, at the local level cannot be underestimated. The **potential stakeholders in tourism at local destinations can be represented with an indicative list** (each destination will have its own unique groups or individuals with an interest in tourism or related aspects of the destination):

a) Communities

- Local community groups;
- Native and cultural groups;

- Traditional leaders;
- Private sector employees;
- Property and building owners (might live in the community or might be outsiders);
- Tenants.

b) Public sector

- Municipal authorities;
- Regional authorities (e.g., planning areas, conservation authorities, coastal zone, regional parks, authorities);
- National (and State, Province, County, Departments or equivalent) ministries responsible for tourism and its key assets;
- Other ministries and agencies in areas affecting tourism (e.g. transport, natural resources, environment, culture, infrastructure, planning, health, etc);
- Agencies with an interest in the planning or maintenance of specific attractions (e.g., parks, protected areas, museums, marketplaces, cultural sites and events).

c) Private sector

- Tour operators and travel agents;
- Accommodation, restaurants and attractions, and their associations;
- Transportation and other service providers;
- Guides, interpreters and outfitters;
- Suppliers to the industry;
- Tourism and trade organizations;
- Business development organizations.

d) NGOs

- Environmental groups (in the destination and outside but with an interest);
- Conservation groups (e.g., wetlands, native species, parks, cultural heritage);
- Other interest groups (e.g., hunters, fishers, sports and adventure associations).

e) Tourists

- Organizations representing tourists' interests at the point(s) of origin;
- International tourism bodies.

Those who know the destination most intimately tend to be those who live within or in close proximity to it. Local knowledge can be a key source of unique information on such factors as local use of resources, key traditions, and the values they hold most important regarding

the destination. Local residents often will have clear ideas regarding the current situation and strong

opinions on what is likely to be acceptable in the future. Their support and participation in providing information to assist in key issues identification and indicators selection is invaluable.

Key factors in obtaining constructive local participation include:

- a) early contact with local groups, active individuals and those most likely to be affected by any changes
- b) provision of forums, meetings, discussion opportunities where all interested stakeholders can identify their interests and concerns
- c) provision of feedback in a clear form – showing participants that their input has been taken into

consideration

- d) ongoing involvement of key players throughout the process (openness and transparency are essential).

2.1.3 Step-3: Identification of tourism assets and risks.

This step is a baseline inventory documentation of the tangible and intangible assets on which tourism in the destination is currently or potentially based such as natural landscapes, historical sites, marketplaces, opportunities of activities, pilgrims, wildlife, festivals, food, cultural experiences, folk-art etc. The assets may be segregated on the basis of their intensity with which they interact with the tourists and to the extent to which they arouse travel motive and ensure a pleasing trip-experience. The extent to which the assets are susceptible to degradation should also be taken into consideration while classifying. It should be noted that the definition of assets can differ among stakeholders and therefore the review should include all perspectives to the greatest extent possible. Exploration of the critical opinion of all stakeholders is essential to determine the tourism assets which are sensitive to the needs and expectations of both tourists and local residents. This step, essentially, deals with two pertinent questions:

- a) how sensitive are these to changing demands by the tourism industry and to the impacts of other changes that may alter their attractiveness to tourists or utility to the community?

- b) how sensitive are the values of local residents to the changes which tourism can bring?

This step can be accomplished through interviews as well as by reference to past studies or planning documents.

Integral to sustaining the economic, social and environmental assets of a destination is a recognition of the potential limits to use (or carrying capacity) of the destination. Past or current studies are often a good source. Hence, any information that can be obtained which documents the biophysical and social dimensions of sustainability for the destination is useful. Work done in these areas can assist in identifying the nature and extent of potential impacts of new developments or changes and can assist in identifying thresholds beyond which tourism may no longer be sustainable at that particular destination. Where there is no plan that has considered such stresses and possible responses, the indicators development process may itself be a form of initial survey which can help to identify these sensitivities. The objective of this step is to look at the potential impacts of changes or trends on the key assets and their associated values.

2.1.4 Step-4: Long-term vision for a destination

This step involves aligning the identified assets with the long-term vision of the destination. This helps in prioritizing the assets based on which the destination can be branded. This phase focuses on the definition of which indicators are important and can respond to the issues of greatest importance to the destination.

2.1.5 Step-5: Selection of priority issues and policy questions.

The selection of indicators is directly related to the key and significant issues related to a destination. Hence, identification of relevant and important issues from the perspective of all stakeholders is an important element of this step. The identified issues must have relevance in the context of tourism operations in the destination. A participatory group approach can be apt for mining key and relevant issues for a tourism destination. Rural destinations have different issues to be addressed compared to an urban or a metro destination. The objective is to obtain consensus on a list of issues which are likely to be of greatest importance. This list of important issues becomes the checklist against which candidate indicators can be developed.

The issues can be used as point-of-reference for a sustainability scale. A battery of issues ranging from health to seasonality, water use, climate change, tourist satisfaction and competitiveness may be examined and indicators suggested for each. The range of indicators is suggestive of the environmental, economic, ethno-cultural, community and administrative spread. This battery can be suggestive in nature as each destination possesses a unique mix of issues related to its own natural set-up, ethno-cultural legacy and the involved community.

In WTO workshops on indicator development, agreement is initially sought concerning the principal social, economic, cultural and ecological risks to the destination and to the tourism which it supports. It has been found in many cases that an initial focus on risks (and opportunities) is a good icebreaker, and helps get most issues and concerns on the table quickly. Where there is already an agreed vision (for example, where there has been a planning exercise that has defined desired future scenarios and a set of objectives for the destination) risks may be defined in terms of achievement of that vision. In practice, discussion focuses on the values and expectations that both tourists and local residents hold concerning the destination, and may reaffirm the vision, or add dimensions that may have been missed. Where there is no such plan or vision in place, the discussion becomes a de facto visioning exercise, identifying risks or opportunities related to the futures which all stakeholders (or some stakeholders) desire.

Issues may be both within the management purview of the tourism industry (e.g., control of waste from the industry), or beyond its ability to affect (e.g., climate change). The desired result of this step is an agreed list of key issues for which indicators would be useful for tourism managers to respond effectively to the most important risks. In practice, where there is no agreement on whether an issue should be on the list, it is recommended to keep it there for the next step, as discussion on how it can be measured often aids in clarification and may create understanding of why it should be considered a key issue, or not.

2.1.6 Step-6: Identification of Desired Indicators

This step focuses on developing indicators to address the issue and policy questions. Based on the risks and issues identified, a consultative procedure, or a designated group of experts can be used to define a list of possible indicators that might be of use in understanding the issues/risks, and in helping to manage or influence them.

3. Sustainability Issues and Indicators in Tourism

A number of baseline issues may be considered to develop a performance evaluation framework with reference to the sustainability initiatives of a tourist destination. These issues provide an optimal mix of issues and its components & indicators. In practice destinations may choose the specific mix relevant for it. There can be a number of potent baseline issues namely effects of tourism on communities, access to local residents to key assets, gender equity, sustaining cultural assets, community participation, tourist satisfaction, accessibility of the destination, economic issues and environmental concern.

Table-2: Baseline issues, components & indicators for sustainability

Baseline issue	Components of the issue	Indicators
Local satisfaction with tourism	Level of community satisfaction	a) Local satisfaction level with tourism
	Problems or dissatisfaction	a) Number of complaints by local residents
Effects of tourism on communities	Community attitudes to tourism • (including community agreement and coherence on tourism, perceptions • and attendance rates and acceptance of tourism)	a) Existence of a community tourism plan b) Frequency of community meetings and attendance rates c) Frequency of tourism plan updates d) Level of awareness of local values % who are proud of their community and culture
	Social benefits associated with tourism	a) Number of social services available to the community b) % who believes that tourism has helped bring new services or infrastructure c) Number (%) participating in community traditional crafts,skills, customs d) % of vernacular architecture preserved
	General impacts on community life	a) Number of tourists per day, per week etc; number per sq km b) Ratio of tourists to locals c) % locals participating in community events d) Ratio of tourists to locals at events or ceremonies e) Perception of impact on the community using the resident f) % of local community who agree that their local culture, its integrity and authenticity are being retained

		Changes to resident lifestyles, (cultural impact, cultural change, community lifestyle, values and customs, local dress, customs, traditional occupations)	a) % of residents changing from traditional occupation to tourism over previous year(s); men and women b) Number or % of residents continuing with local dress, customs, language, music, cuisine, religion and cultural practices c) Increase/decrease in cultural activities or traditional events
			a) Number of tourists attending events and % of total b) Value of tourist contribution to local culture (amount obtained from gate, amount of donations) c) % of locals who find new recreational opportunities associated with tourism
		Housing issues	a) % of housing affordable for residents; b) Mode and average distance of travel to work or school; c) Number of new housing starts and % for local residents Note: prices of other goods can also rise or fall
		Community demographics	a) Number of residents who have left the community in the past year; b) Number of immigrants (temporary or new residents) taking tourism jobs in the past year; c) Net migration into/out of community (sort by age of immigrants and out-migrants).
Access to local residents to key assets		Retaining access to important sites for local residents	a) Access by locals to key sites (% of site freely accessible to public) b) Frequency of visits by locals to key site(s)
		Economic barriers to access	a) Cost of access expressed in hours of local wages
		Maintaining satisfaction with access levels	a) Perception of change in accessibility due to tourism growth b) Number of complaints by local residents regarding access
Gender equity	Family wellbeing	Stress	a) % tourism employees (male/female) suffering increased fatigue and stress as a result of work

		Childcare	a) % of tourism operators who provide day care and other benefits for employees with children
		Health and safety	a) % of tourism operators who have regulations/made commitments regarding equal gender opportunities b) % of operators who promote staff awareness of occupational health, safety and issues affecting female employees.
		Transport	a) % of tourism operators who provide transport for women returning from night shifts
		Discrimination against women/ men	a) % employees who believe their gender has affected their job advancement, pay or benefits
	Equal opportunities in formal employment	Opportunities for Women	a) Women/men as a % of all tourism employment; b) Women/men as a % of all formal tourism employment; c) Women/men as a % of all tourism informal occupations; d) % women/men in part-time employment
		Seniority	a) % of women/men in different tourism income earning categories; b) % of women/men in unskilled, semi-skilled and professional positions in the industry
		Entrepreneurs	a) % of owner-operator tourism businesses run by women/men; b) % of tourism businesses registered under women/men
		Training	a) % women/men tourism employees with formal training b) % women/men employees sent on training programmes
	Traditional gender roles	Community tourism	a) % women/men involved directly (providing services)in village-based tourism projects b) % women/men involved indirectly (supplying goods)in village-based tourism projects.
		Ownership	a) % women/men owning/controlling village tourism businesses
		Rewards	a) Average income for women/men working in village-based tourism

			business b) % women/men involved in village-base tourism satisfied with their work and rewards
	Access to land and credit	Land ownership	a) % women/men with rights to land in tourism development areas; b) % women/men holding rights to tourism leases
		Loans	a) % bank loans issues to women/men for tourism ventures; b) % women/men defaulting on bank loans; c) % donor grants issued to women/men for tourism ventures
Sustaining cultural assets		Legislative basis for protection	a) Number and type of new legislation or amendments introduced to preserve structures at local, provincial/state/canton or national levels
		Designation	a) Number and type of designation under which historic structures, monuments and districts are recognized; b) % of eligible sites and or structures receiving designation
		Funding for protection	a) %/Amount of funds allocated to the restoration, preservation and maintenance of cultural assets on a yearly basis, (differentiated according to different sources of funding, such as visitor/entrance fees, tour operator fees, donations, government funds, private foundations, international financial and development institutions, NGOs, etc.); b) Voluntary contributions (number and duration of programmes, number of volunteers, estimated value of contributions); c) Tourism contribution to preservation
		Profile of the issue	a) % change/number of electronic and print articles generated on historic structures, monuments and districts by local, regional, national and international media
		Condition of setting and environment	a) %/change in the development of the surrounding area to a cultural asset, and whether maintenance or

		improvements have taken place; b) Condition of the building or site
	Threats to the integrity and authenticity of the property	a) Increase/Decrease in threats and their type to the original purpose and use of a site.
Community participation in tourism	Availability of information	a) Number and types of avenues/channels used to promote sustainable tourism (e.g. audiovisual and printed media, events, Internet); b) Number of places in the destination where information is available
	Access to information	a) Number /% of people accessing information; b) Frequency of access
	Analysis of information	a) % of people that have a clear understanding of the role of sustainable tourism planning
	Application of information	a) Number of times information on sustainable tourism is used within the broader community context; b) Number of agencies applying information on sustainability aspects to their strategic planning processes; c) Degree to which the community is satisfied with the quality and quantity of information it receives re tourism issues and sustainability d) % of partners and key stakeholders who are satisfied with access to appropriate information; e) % who agree that the right information on sustainable tourism is available to me when I need it.
	Advocacy of information	a) Number of promotional opportunities relating to sustainable tourism practice; b) Number of tourism operators offering information on sustainable tourism practice c) % of visitors receiving information on sustainable tourism practices

		provided prior to their visit to the destination and at the destination.
	Action/impact of the information	<p>Accessibility of information</p> <p>a) Number (%) of tourism operators providing interpretation on sustainable tourism practice;</p> <p>b) Number (%) of tour companies in destination offering tours/guides with trained knowledge of sustainable tourism practice / information on local management plan;</p> <p>c) Number of educational programmes / institutions incorporating sustainable tourism learning into curriculum;</p> <p>d) Number (%) of self guided opportunities that educate regarding sustainable tourism practice.</p> <p>Level of demonstration of good practice</p> <p>a) % of agencies incorporating sustainable tourism principles in to their strategic planning processes;</p> <p>b) Number (%) of tourism industry operators applying sustainable tourism concepts within their business;</p> <p>c) Number of operators certified by an environmental or sustainability scheme (and % of all eligible).</p> <p>Impact of tourism information</p> <p>a) % of residents with an understanding of what constitutes sustainable tourism practice;</p> <p>b) Number (%) of residents who support sustainable tourism for their destination (see also questions on specific elements in questionnaire Annex C 6);</p> <p>c) Number of registered/reported incidents in respect to accepted codes of good practice (where in place);</p> <p>d) % of residents who believe tourism is good for their community. (see Questionnaire Annex C 6);</p>

		<p>e) % who believe that they or their family benefit from tourism.;</p> <p>f) % actively participating in outreach/advocacy;</p> <p>g) % who believe that they understand tourism and its impact</p>
Tourist satisfaction	Determining whether tourists were satisfied upon leaving	<p>a) Level of satisfaction by visitors on exit</p> <p>b) Perception of value for money – Complaints received.</p>
	Measuring the impact of satisfaction levels on the industry and destination	<p>a) % of return visitors</p> <p>b) Changes in average price paid per room</p> <p>c) Complaints registered</p> <p>d) Ratings by guidebooks/travel sites</p>
Accessibility	Access throughout the destination	<p>a) Existence of disabled friendly policy;</p> <p>b) Existence of disabled access program including e.g., airports, bus stations, sidewalks, public washroom facilities (% meeting standards);</p> <p>c) Existence of public transport suitable for mobility of persons with disabilities (#//% transport vehicles);</p> <p>d) Number of tour companies in destination offering tours/guides trained for persons with disabilities</p>
	Access to public buildings, hotels and tourism services	<p>a) % of hotels with rooms accessible to persons with disabilities (easy access, bathrooms that accommodate wheelchairs, safety bars etc.);</p> <p>b) % of access doors to buildings which have automated openers or attendants on the door;</p> <p>c) % restaurants, hotels and public buildings with wheelchair accessible restrooms (level entry, larger stalls, lower sinks, safety bars etc.)</p>
	Access to tourist attractions, including natural and cultural sites, viewpoints, (including some which have traditionally been	<p>a) % of attractions with wheelchair access;</p> <p>b) % of attractions offering alternative access for those with mobility concerns (e.g. drop off points, elevators, ramps or</p>

	accessible only to the fit)	walkways accessible to mobility assist devices).
	Access to tourist experiences, including adventure travel Access to suitable tours, which match the capabilities of the traveler	a) Number of tours to destination with specific program to accommodate persons with disabilities; b) Number of persons with disabilities visiting destination and key sites c) % of key sites considered accessible or inaccessible for those with differing levels of mobility or fitness
	Assistance when needed	a) Distance to nearest hospital (Km) or medical facility (for longer tours/cruises) b) Presence of medical personnel;
	Satisfaction by those with disabilities with the destination or attraction	a) Assistance and care to special requirements
Economic issues	Employment	a) Number of local people (and ratio of men to women) employed b) Ratio of tourism employment to total employment c) % of tourism jobs held by local residents d) Average tourism wage/average wage in community; e) Ratio of part time to full time employment in tourism f) Average tourism employee income (and ratio to community average).
	Business investment in tourism	a) Number of tourism businesses in the community and % owned locally b) Number and type of business permits and licences issued c) Ratio of the number of local to external businesses involved in tourism d) Asset value of tourism businesses and % owned locally e) Longevity of tourism businesses (rate of turnover).
	Tourism revenue	a) Tourist numbers b) Tourist spending/spending per tourist; c) Occupancy rates in accommodation establishments

		<p>d) Revenues generated by tourism as % of total revenues generated in the community</p> <p>e) GDP and % due to tourism</p> <p>f) Total fees collected by community for access/use of community attractions;</p> <p>g) Revenue from business permits, licenses or concessions and taxation.</p>
	Community expenditures	<p>a) Existence of tourism budget/plan</p> <p>b) Annual expenditures on tourism (% of total tourism revenue)</p> <p>c) Amount and % of infrastructure expenditures for tourism</p> <p>d) Amount and % of total annual operating expenditures for tourism</p> <p>e) Cost of tourism advertising and promotion per number of tourists</p> <p>f) Amount and % contribution of tourism revenues to the cost of water, sewage, roads, food production, energy, waste management, air quality, human resources development, etc.</p>
	Net economic benefits	<p>a) Net tourism revenues accruing to the community</p> <p>b) Economic Multipliers: Amount of additional revenue in other businesses for every dollar of tourism revenue (based on satellite accounts where available).</p>
	Changes in cost of living	<p>a) % increase/decrease in land and housing prices over time</p> <p>b) % increase/decrease in average family weekly income</p> <p>c) % increase/decrease in expenditures (groceries, transportation, leisure etc.).</p>
	Evaluating less tangible, non- economic, livelihood priorities	<p>a) Annual audit of the contribution of different activities to household needs</p> <p>b) Survey of household capacity to fulfil livelihood priorities for the year</p>
Environmental concerns	Protected area	<p>a) Existence of protected area(s) at the destination</p> <p>b) Extent of protected area(s) – square km</p>
	Disturbance to species	a) Health of population of key

	and fragile systems particularly specific impacts on rare and endangered species	indicator species (counts, sightings) b) Breeding success rates for selected species
	Measuring energy use and conservation	a) Per capita consumption of energy from all sources
	Energy management programs	a) Percentage of businesses participating in energy conservation programs, or applying energy saving policy and techniques
	Use of renewable energy sources	a) % of energy consumption from renewable resources (at destinations, establishments) b) % of establishments (e.g. hotels) using renewable sources, generating own energy
	Climatic change impact on wildlife and biodiversity	a) % of tourism dependent on viewing species (% of key species considered vulnerable to changes in climate)
	Level of exposure to risk	a) Percentage of tourist infrastructure (hotels, other) located in vulnerable zones
	Degree of planning for climate change impacts	a) Degree to which key tourist zones are covered by contingency or emergency planning (existence of plan, % area included)
	Greenhouse gas emissions by the destination and by the tourism component	a) Total CO ₂ produced due to the community's energy consumption b) Consumption of fossil fuels by the tourism sector
	Water conservation initiatives	a) Water saving (% reduced, recaptured or recycled) b) % waste water or grey water recycled; c) Number of establishments participating in water conservation programmes, applying water conservation policies and techniques, recycling treated wastewater
	Sewage receiving treatment	a) Percentage of sewage from the destination/site receiving treatment b) % of treated sewage recycled (e.g. for irrigation)
	Extent of sewage treatment systems	a) Percentage of tourism establishments (or accommodation) on (suitable) systems treatment systems

		b) Percentage of the destination served by storm water systems (separating sewage from runoff and surface drainage).
	Managing total waste collected in a destination	a) Total amount of waste collected; b) Waste volume produced by the destination c) Waste disposed by different methods d) Waste attributable (by month or season) to tourism.
	Reducing waste produced	a) Volume of waste recycled b) Number of tourism establishments collecting waste separately, capacity of collecting separated waste from local residents; c) Number of tourism establishments recycling their own waste (e.g. composting)
	Providing waste collection services	a) % of destination area (especially in urban sites) covered by waste collection services b) Percentage of tourism establishments covered by waste collection programs.

Source: Indicators for Sustainable Development for Tourism Destinations: A Guidebook by World Tourism Organisation (WTO), 2004

4. Global Sustainable Tourism Council (GSTC) criteria for sustainability measurement

The Global Sustainable Tourism Council (GSTC) criteria has beendrafted to provide a uniformassessment of the concept of “sustainable tourism”, and are supposed to be the minimum standards that any tourism business should aspire to reach. They are organized around four main themes: effective sustainability planning, maximizing social and economic benefits for the local community, enhancing cultural heritage, and reducing negative impacts to the environment. They have applicability to the entire tourism industry. The Criteria have been developed and revised while striving to adhere to the Standard-Setting Code of the ISEAL Alliance, the body recognized to provide guidance on international norms for developing sustainability standards in all sectors. The GSTC criteria are amended in every 3-5 years.

Some of the uses of the criteria include the following:

- Serve as the basis for certification for sustainability
- Serve as basic guidelines for businesses of all sizes to become more sustainable, and help businesses choose sustainable tourism programmes that fulfill these global criteria
- Provide greater market access in the growing market for sustainable products, serving as guidance both for travelers and for travel agencies in choosing suppliers and sustainable tourism programmes
- Help consumers identify sound sustainable tourism programmes and businesses
- Serve as a common denominator for information media to recognize sustainable tourism providers
- Help certification and other voluntary programmes ensure that their standards meet a broadly-accepted baseline
- Offer governmental, non-governmental, and private sector programmes a starting point for developing sustainable tourism requirements
- Serve as basic guidelines for education and training bodies, such as hotel schools and universities
- Demonstrate leadership that inspires others to act

The GSTC criteria has been designed by considering a set of uniform industry standards for the networked industry. The GSTC industry criteria have been captured with sets of well defined indicators for the service providers namely the tour operators, hotel and accommodation industry etc.

Table-3: GSTC Industry Criteria

Section	GSTC Industry Criteria	Implication
A- Demonstrate effective sustainable management	A1 Sustainability management system	The organization has implemented a long-term sustainability management system that is suitable to its size and scope, addresses environmental, social, cultural, economic, quality, human rights, health, safety, risk and crisis management issues and drives continuous improvement.
	A2 Legal compliance	The organization is in compliance with all applicable local, national and international legislation and regulations including, among others, health, safety, labour and environmental aspects.
	A3 Reporting and	The organization communicates its sustainability

	communication	policy, actions and performance to stakeholders, including customers, and seeks to engage their support.	
	A4 Staff engagement	Staff are engaged with development and implementation of the sustainability management system and receive periodic guidance and training regarding their roles and responsibilities in its delivery.	
	A5 Customer experience	Customer satisfaction, including aspects of sustainability, is monitored and corrective action taken.	
	A6 Accurate promotion	Promotional materials and marketing communications are accurate and transparent with regard to the organization and its products and services, including sustainability claims. They do not promise more than is being delivered.	
	A7 Buildings and infrastructure	Planning, siting, design, construction, renovation, operation and demolition of buildings and infrastructure	
	A8 Land water and property rights	Acquisition by the organization of land and water rights and of property is legal, complies with local communal and indigenous rights, including their free, prior and informed consent, and does not require involuntary resettlement.	
	A9 Information and interpretation	The organization provides information about and interpretation of the natural surroundings, local culture, and cultural heritage, as well as an explanation of appropriate behaviour while visiting natural areas, living cultures, and cultural heritage sites.	
	A10 Destination engagement	The organization is involved with sustainable tourism planning and management in the destination, where such opportunities exist.	
	B - Maximize social and economic benefits to the local community and minimize negative impacts	B1 Community support	The organization actively supports initiatives for local infrastructure and social community development. Examples of initiatives include education, training, health and sanitation and projects which address the impacts of climate change.
		B2 Local employment	Local residents are given equal opportunities for employment and advancement, including in management positions.
B3 Local purchasing		When purchasing and offering goods and services, the organization gives priority to local and fair trade suppliers whenever these are available and of sufficient quality.	
B4 Local entrepreneurs		The organization supports local entrepreneurs in the development and sale of sustainable products	

		and services that are based on the area's nature, history and culture.
	B5 Exploitation and harassment	The organization has implemented a policy against commercial, sexual or any other form of exploitation or harassment, particularly of children, adolescents, women, minorities and other vulnerable groups.
	B6 Equal opportunity	The organization offers employment opportunities, including in management positions, without discrimination by gender, race, religion, disability or in other ways.
	B7 Decent work	Labour rights are respected, a safe and secure working environment is provided and employees are paid at least a living wage. Employees are offered regular training, experience and opportunities for advancement.
	B8 Community services	The activities of the organization do not jeopardize the provision of basic services, such as food, water, energy, healthcare or sanitation, to neighbouring communities.
	B9 Local livelihoods	The activities of the organization do not adversely affect local access to livelihoods, including land and aquatic resource use, rights-of-way, transport and housing.
C - Maximize benefits to cultural heritage and minimize negative impacts	C1 Cultural interactions	The organization follows international and national good practice and locally agreed guidance for the management and promotion of visits to indigenous communities and culturally or historically sensitive sites in order to minimize adverse impacts and maximize local benefits and visitor fulfilment.
	C2 Protecting cultural heritage	The organization contributes to the protection, preservation and enhancement of local properties, sites and traditions of historical, archaeological, cultural and spiritual significance and does not impede access to them by local residents.
	C3 Presenting culture and heritage	The organization values and incorporates authentic elements of traditional and contemporary local culture in its operations, design, decoration, cuisine, or shops, while respecting the intellectual property rights of local communities.
	C4 Artefacts	Historical and archaeological artefacts are not sold, traded or displayed, except as permitted by local and international law.
D - Maximize benefits to the environment and minimize	D1 Conserving resources	Environmentally preferable purchasing Efficient purchasing Energy conservation Water conservation

negative impacts	D2 Reducing pollution	Greenhouse gas emissions Transport Wastewater Solid waste Harmful substances Minimize pollution
	D3 Conserving biodiversity, ecosystems and landscapes	Biodiversity conservation Invasive species Visits to natural sites Wildlife interactions Animal welfare Wildlife harvesting and trade

5. Ethno-cultural sustainability measurement

While measuring sustainability for the tourism industry as a whole, the major focus is given on economic and environmental sustainability. Ethno-cultural sustainability has received very little attention, though, the ethno-cultural attributes of a destination lures a broad spectrum of travelers and hence demands preservation (Saastamoinen 2005; UNESCO 2010; Culture 21 2011; Chan et al. 2012; Daniel et al. 2012). However, these social and cultural dimensions are not easy to define or measure, and their inclusion in planning is not well developed (Colantonio 2007; Magis and Shinn 2009). Consequently, there is a need to interpret policy and practice from different landscape contexts, to choose suitable indicators (Lammerts van Bueren and Blom 1997) and basic methods for monitoring (Antonson et al. 2010; Mikusinski et al. 2012). Several studies have been made to generate measureable indicators to assess the impact of ethno-cultural assets on overall tourism performance (Axelsson et al, 2013; Andersson et al. 2012; Marinoni et al. 2009; Zetterberg 2009). Ethno-cultural environment becomes more relevant in the context of rural tourism as the rural destinations are more often the hubs of the ethno-cultural repositories.

Based on some of the social and cultural criteria defined in early conventions (UNESCO 1972, 2003), new themes from international policies and scholarly work (compiled from Council of Europe 2000; Saastamoinen 2005; Colantonio 2007) and emerging from the Rio+20 process (Culture 21, 2011), Axelsson et al. (2013) proposed a battery of items to measure ethno-cultural sustainability:

Table-4: Ethno-cultural sustainability measurement criteria

Ethno-cultural sustainability measurement criteria		
Past criteria	Present criteria	Emerging criteria
Cultural heritage in terms of human built objects landscapes and combined man and nature systems	Cultural heritage such as in terms of practices representations, expressions, knowledge, skills, and instruments, objects, artefacts and cultural spaces associated with practices, including tradition, identity, values, cultural diversity, spirituality, and esthetics	Tools and skills needed to understand and transform the world towards sustainability, including but not limited to literacy, creativity, critical knowledge, sense of place, empathy, trust, risk, respect, and recognition

The ethno-cultural preservation initiatives are extremely rare and the performance indices are still in the stage of incubation. Researchers across the world are putting an effort to design a uniform measurement criteria. Earlier to Axelsson et al. (2013), a number of researchers tried to design a measurement scale on cultural sustainability (Table-5):

Sl. No.	Indicators	Scholarly reference
1	Cultural vitality, diversity and conviviality, Social capital	Putnam (2000), Mercer (2002), Magis and Shinn (2009)
2	Cultural landscape	Vos and Meekes (1999), On~ate et al. (2000), Nohl (2001), Palang and Fry (2003)
3	Cultural heritage	Palang and Fry (2003)
4	Cultural access, participation, consumption	Mercer (2002)

Ethno-cultural preservation initiatives in rural destinations must be evaluated to ascertain its vibrancy and practices. Although GSTC has prescribed a standardised set of criteria to assess the cultural sustainability, certain indigenous issues must be incorporated to fit the scale into the perspective and context.

6. Conclusion

The economic impact of tourism is visible through three interrelated routes i.e. direct, indirect and induced effects. Direct impacts are those impacts that occur as a direct result of tourism activities i.e. tourist spending, employment by the tourism sector and taxes paid by tourist

activities. Indirect impacts occur due to the effect of tourism activities on other economic sectors i.e. hotels purchasing goods from retailers or sourcing food from producers. Induced effects are the changes in economic activity that occur from households benefitting from the tourism sector i.e. tourism employees paying taxes or spending money on local goods and services. These impacts and the structure of the tourism sector determine the sectors economic impact on a country. The physical impact of tourism can be segregated into:

(a) Tourism Development: The construction of tourism infrastructure (including facilities such as hotels, restaurants and recreation facilities) can lead to land degradation (i.e. soil erosion) and the loss of biodiversity and wildlife habitats. Tourism can also lead to increased deforestation whilst development on marine localities can cause changes in coastlines and currents, negatively affecting local fauna and flora (UNEP, 2014).

(b) Tourism Activities: Tourism activities can also lead to negative on the environment. Such activities include trampling damage from trekking trails where trekkers cause damage to vegetation and soil which in turn can lead to a loss of biodiversity. Other impacts such as those from marine activities (boat anchoring, sport fishing and scuba diving) can damage the environmental integrity of tourism areas (Sunlu, 2003). Interaction with local wildlife can also increase stress to local wildlife as well as the degradation of land i.e. by using safari trucks to track wildlife (UNEP, 2014).

The environmental impacts of tourism are harder to effectively quantify due to a limited availability of data on impacts. Tourism greenhouse gas emission data is available, however it is nearly a decade old (2005) and there is limited data on other environmental impacts of the sector such as waste, deforestation, land degradation etc. Anecdotal evidence does however suggest that tourism can have negative environmental impacts, as demand for the sector increases so does demand for travel, in turn increasing GHG emissions. Similarly, tourists tend to use larger amounts of resources (water, energy) than local people, which can be problematic where these resources are scarce.

The ethno-cultural impacts of tourism do not have substantial visible manifestations. The impact is felt with the diminishing practice of transgenerational craft/ folk art practices and increased level of enculturation. However, tourism can be instrumental to reverse this trend by showcasing the ethno-cultural practice and ensuring its preservation.

Considering the broad-spectrum depreciative impacts of tourism on economy, ecology and ethno-cultural landscapes it is only but obvious that the industry requires a vibrant policy guideline and a robust evaluation framework to ensure sustainability. The GSTC provides us with an exhaustive list of parameters which essentially captures the initiatives of the tourism

service providers in ensuring sustainability. But frameworks and parameters alone cannot ensure sustainability until it follows a governed practice. Parameters and indicators are signals of important trends and changes and can, to certain extent, predict risks associated with destinations. Ease-of-doing-sustainable-tourism-business (EoDSTB) should be addressed by the Ministry of Tourism (MoT) and NITI Aayog. In addition a mechanism of data collection pertaining to region-wise sustainable initiatives should be devised as the present state of relevant data availability is extremely poor. Sustainability indices should be aligned with the Human Development Indices to get a comprehensive idea of the impact of tourism business. Rural destinations normally have pristine, yet vulnerable, environment. Sustainable tourism models are targeted to uplift rural communities, hence, creation of modern infrastructure will be pivotal towards attracting tourists to rural destinations. Rural accommodation, namely homestays, may be encouraged to reduce the impact of new concrete infrastructure. One of the major issues in tourism is the management of carrying capacity. The fragile rural eco-system often suffers adversely from hyper foot-fall. MoT should ensure location-specific action strategies can be formulated to implement the Sustainable Tourism Criteria for India (STCI) which can be embedded in the national sustainable development goals. Above all, a constant monitoring and performance evaluation is required at regular interval to get an idea of progressive impact of tourism on sustainability of destinations on economic, environmental and ethno-cultural grounds.

Reference

Andersson, K., P. Angelstam, R. Axelsson, M. Elbakidze, and J. Toˆrnblom. 2012. Connecting municipal and regional level planning: Analysis and visualization of sustainability indicators in Bergslagen, Sweden. *European Planning Studies*. doi: 10.1080/09654313.2012.722943.

Antonson, H., Gustafsson, M. & Angelstam, P. (2010). Cultural heritage connectivity. A tool for EIA in transportation infrastructure planning. *Transportation Research Part D* 15: 463–472.

Axelsson, R., Angelstam, P., Degerman, E, Teitelbaum, S. Andersson, Elbakidze, K. M. & Drotz, M. K. (2013) Social and Cultural Sustainability: Criteria, Indicators, Verifier Variables for Measurement and Maps for Visualization to Support Planning, *AMBIO* 2013, 42, 215–228 doi:10.1007/s13280-012-0376-0

CII & YES Bank (Strategic Government Advisory) (2017). Sustainable Tourism in India: Initiatives and Opportunities. Accessed from : <https://cii.in/PublicationDetail.aspx?enc>

Colantonio, A. (2007). Social sustainability: An exploratory analysis of its definition, assessment methods metrics and tools. Oxford: EIBURS Working Paper Series.

Council of Europe. 2000. European Landscape Convention. Treaty Series no. 176. Firenze: Council of Europe.

Culture 21. (2011). Lobbying for culture as the 4th pillar of sustainable development in the process of the Rio20 summit. Agenda 21 for culture. United Cities and Local Governments—Committee on culture.

Chan, K.M.A., Guerry, A.D., Balvanera, P., Klain, V., Satterfield, T., Basurto, X., Bostrom, A. & Chuenpagdee, R. et al. (2012). Where are cultural and social in ecosystem services? A framework for constructive engagement. *BioScience* 62, 744–756.

Daniel, T.C., A. Muhar, A. Arnberger, O. Aznar, J.W. Boyd, K.M.A. Chan, R. Costanza, T. Elmqvist, et al. (2012). Contributions of cultural services to the ecosystem services agenda. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 109: 8812–8819.

Lammerts van Bueren, E. & Blom, E. (1997). Hierarchical framework for the formulation of sustainable forest management standards. Principles, criteria, indicators. AH Leiden: Backhuys Publishers.

Magis, K. & Shinn, C. (2009). Emergent principles of social sustainability. In *Understanding the social dimension of sustainability*, ed. J. Dillard, V. Dujon, and M.C. King, 15–44. New York and London: Routledge.

Marinoni, O., Higgins, A., Hajkowicz, S. & Collins, K. (2009). The multiple criteria analysis tool (MCAT): A new software tool to support environmental investment decision making. *Environmental Modelling Software* 24, 153–164.

Mercer, C. (2002). *Towards cultural citizenship: Tools for cultural policy and development*. Stockholm: The Bank of Sweden Tercentenary Foundation & Gidlunds förlag.

Mikusin'ski, G., Blicharska, M., Antonson, H, Henningsson, V. Go'ransson, G., Angelstam, P. & Seiler, A. (2012). Integrating ecological, social and cultural dimensions in the implementation of the Landscape Convention. *Landscape Research*. doi:[10.1080/01426397.2011.650629](https://doi.org/10.1080/01426397.2011.650629).

Nohl, W. (2001). Sustainable landscape use and aesthetic perception preliminary reflections on future landscape aesthetics. *Landscape and Urban Planning* 54, 223–237.

On˜ate, J.J., Andersen, E. Peco, B. & Primdahl, J. (2000). Agri-environmental schemes and the European agricultural landscapes: The role of indicators as valuing tools for evaluation. *Landscape Ecology* 15: 271–280.

Palang, H., & Fry, G. (2003). *Landscape interfaces: Cultural heritage in changing landscapes*. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Putnam, R.D. (2000). *Bowling alone: The collapse of and revival of American community*. New York: Simon and Schuster.

Saastamoinen, O. (2005). Multiple ethics for multidimensional sustainability on forestry? *Silva Carelica* 49: 37–53.

Strategic Government Advisory (SGA), YES BANK. *Smart Cities: Fostering Sustainable Tourism in U.P.* New Delhi: YESBANK Ltd, 2017.

Sunlu, U (2003). Environmental Impacts of Tourism” in *Local Resources and Global Trades: Environments and Agriculture in the Mediterranean Region* Camarda, D & Grassini, L (eds.), 2003

UNEP (2014). Tourism’s Three Main Impact Areas. accessed on 18/01/2019 at: <http://www.unep.org/resourceefficiency/Business/SectoralActivities/Tourism/TheTourismandEnvironmentProgramme/FactsandFiguresaboutTourism/ImpactsOfTourism/EnvironmentalImpactsTourismsThreeMainImpactAreas/tabid/78776/Default.aspx>

UNESCO. (1972). Convention concerning the protection of the world cultural and natural heritage. Adopted by the General Conference at its seventeenth session. 16 November 1972 Paris, France. Paris: UNESCO, accessed on 18/01/2019 from whc.unesco.org/uploads/activities/documents/activity-562-4.pdf

UNESCO. (2003). Cultural landscapes: The challenges of conservation. Proceedings of the workshop, 11–12 November 2002, Ferrara, Italy. UNESCO World Heritage Papers, no. 7. Paris: UNESCO, accessed on 18/01/2019 from https://whc.unesco.org/documents/publi_wh_papers_07_en.pdf

UNESCO. (2010). *The power of culture for development*. Paris: UNESCO,

Vos, W.&Meekes, H. (1999). Trends in European cultural landscapedevelopment: Perspectives for a sustainable future. *Landscape and Urban Planning* 46: 3–14.

World Tourism Organization (1993) *Health Information and Formalities in International Travel (Tourist health information, Health insurance, and assistance in International Travel, Health Formalities and Vaccinations)* Madrid, WTO.

World Tourism Organization (1995). *Pilot study on indicators for the sustainable management of tourism: Villa Gesell and Peninsula Valdes, Argentina*. Buenos Aires: Secretaria de Turismo Argentina and Madrid:WTO.

World Tourism Organization. (1996). *Sustainable Tourism in Black Sea Coastal Zones*. Madrid: WTO. World Tourism Organization, World Travel and Trade Council, Earth Council (1996). *Agenda 21 for the Travel and Tourism Industry*, accessed from: <http://www.world-tourism.org/sustainable/publications.htm>, on 29/01/2019.

World Tourism Organization (2000). Workshop on sustainable tourism indicators, Beruwala, Sri Lanka: final report. Madrid: WTO, accessed from sdt.unwto.org/sites/all/files/docpdf/thailand_0.pdf, on 28/12/2018

World Tourism Organization (2001). Workshop on sustainable tourism indicators for the islands of theMediterranean, Kukljica, Island of Ugljan, Croatia: final report., Madrid: World Tourism Organization, accessed from sdt.unwto.org/sites/all/files/docpdf/croatia.pdf, on 18/12/2018

World Tourism Organization. (2001). Global Code of Ethics for Tourism. Madrid: WTO. (www.worldtourism.org/code_ethics/eng.html, accessed on 18/12/2018.

World Tourism Organization. (2002). Seminar on Planning, Development and Management of Ecotourism in Africa. (2002). Final report. Madrid: WTO, accessed from <https://www.gdrc.org/uem/eco-tour/Final-Report-WES-Eng.pdf> on 18/12/2018.

World Tourism Organization. (2002). Voluntary initiatives in Tourism: Worldwide Inventory andComparative Analysis of 104 Eco-labels, Awards and Self-Commitments. Madrid: WTO, accessed from <https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284405091> on 04/02/2019

World Tourism Organization. (2003). Sustainable Development of Ecotourism: A Compilation of GoodPractices in SMEs. Madrid: WTO, accessed from <https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/abs/10.18111/9789284406210>, on 29/01/2019.

Zetterberg, A. (2009). Network based tools and indicators for landscapeecological assessments, planning, and design. Licentiate thesis.Stockholm: KTH Royal Institute of Technology.

Chapter-3

Development and validation of a scale to measure visitors' travel motive and behavioural pattern in response to sustainable initiatives to preserve ethno-cultural heritage: A case of rural Crafttourism

Introduction

Perennial and transgenerational practice of local and traditional crafts have been recognized as factor a-priori to segmental differentiation of destinations. Inadequate research effort has been observed to understand and analyze the cognitive involvement of visitors in response to sustainable initiatives to preserve local indigenous heritage. Rural destinations having potential to leverage economic condition through tourism activities rely heavily on behavioural outcome of the visitors. The behavioural patterns are reflected in decisions to repeat visits, endorse destinations, advocacy, increased share-of-wallet etc. Academic researchers, for a long time, devoted much of their efforts in identifying the travel motives too. Motivation to travel has been recognized as a cognitive urge, often conceptualized as a socio-psychological phenomenon, which stimulates visitors to undertake journeys to specific destinations (Cohen, 1974, Crompton & McKay, 1997; Fodness, 1994). Empirical evidences justifying tourist motivation pointed out that destination preference franchised by visitors are predominantly determined by the magnitude of perceived satisfactory experience (McIntosh et al., 1995; Crompton & McKay, 1997; Fodness, 1994). Researchers, namely Pearce (1993), McIntosh et al. (1995), Nicolau and Mas (2006) and many others emphasised that assessing visitor motivation is critical in gaining an understanding of visitor behaviour and they went on to assert that the exploration of theoretical perspectives of visitor motivation should yield positive research outcomes in the context of travel behaviour, travel pattern and travel preference. Vassiliadis and Fotiadis(2008) identified a four factor construct for visitors' motivation to travel museums. Tourist motivation, therefore, has received considerable attention of researchers in tourism literature, however, the understanding of motivation has not been expanded to the process of destination-specific acculturation-in-practice namely role-reversal of visitors with reference to traditional crafts.

Changing paradigms of tourism is witnessing the emergence of experiential travelling where visitors are getting integrated with the patronization and practice of destinations' cultural and heritage-based outputs, may be more suitably represented as an expanded and dynamic acculturation stigma. Learning and participating have emerged as a critical element of travel with crafts as a central focus (Shushma, 2012). As an element of cultural celebrations, handicrafts can be used to enhance the attractiveness of the destination for non-local visitors, develop community image, raise funds for special, civic or charitable projects, provide opportunities for the community to deal with fine arts, help to preserve and revitalize local cultures and traditions, provide important leisure activity outlets, build social cohesion and provide opportunities for family members to strengthen their bounds, foster civic pride and cohesion (Weaver & Robinson, 1989; Janiskee, 1980; Getz 1991; Liang, Illum & Cole, 2008; Getz, 2008). As Long et al., (1990) argue, rural communities strive to enhance the local tourism industry to attract non-residents to the community with the expectation to boost the economy.

Past research works observed that visitors are involved in pro-destination activity namely positive referrals once they are satisfied with the destination they visited (Kotler et al., 2010). Therefore it becomes imperative for the destination marketer to ensure visitor satisfaction by improving the experience of the visitors associated with the destination visited (Pike, 2008). Researchers have also pointed out that destination bonding can be a useful input in understanding the criticality in satisfaction-loyalty relationship (Yuksel, Yuksel and Bilim (2010). Research inputs are available in the context of emotional bonding with destination and destination loyalty. Adequate insights of visitor integration with local craft production and its probable direct and moderating impacts on visitors' cognitive aspects and consequent behavioural manifestations have not been explored at all.

2. Literature review

2.1 Ethno-cultural sustainability and cultural capital

As defined in the Bruntland Report (WCED, 1987), sustainable development meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. It is a process of continual and ongoing planning, monitoring and controlling (Nelson et al., 1993). Until recently, sustainable development has been framed largely in terms of global environmental concerns, and the local perspective is frequently seen as subordinate to the global (Overton & Scheyvens, 1999). Others contend that the spatial dimension is also

conspicuously absent in many definitions of sustainable development (Kreutzwiser, 1993). Ecological and economic constraints are considered the key factors in guiding any effort toward sustainability (Prugh et al., 2000; Bryden, 1994), which explains, generally, why ecological and economic perspectives have dominated the literature (Overton & Scheyvens, 1999). Social and cultural perspectives have tended to be bypassed in the research. The notion of economic sustainability is based on conventional models of economic development of industrialization, resource extraction and sustained growth in material consumption, as a means to improve the wellbeing of society and sustainable livelihoods. This perspective places economic analyses at the center of the sustainability equation. Proponents of this view either do not recognize the environment as a factor or they believe that it can be turned into a tradable product or a commodity. Such a perspective is considered paradoxical as such models are seen 'to impose severe pressures on the environment through resource depletion, waste disposal or disturbance of natural ecosystems' (Redclift, 1984: 56). The search for sustainable development from the environmental, or ecological, perspective puts emphasis on the natural environment and ecosystems and 'seeks to minimize growth, preserve the natural environment and seek stability' (Adams, 1995: 94). This perspective sees 'current patterns of human activity and resource use as inherently unsustainable and points to the ways humans are rapidly destroying key ecosystems and species' (Overton & Scheyvens, 1999: 7). It places the environment at the center of the sustainability debate.

Flora (2001) argues that one must deal with people first (human capital) and relationships (social capital) before efforts are made to enhance the other capitals. Her preposition supports the notion that a community's people and their relationships must be the key variables in any model for sustainability. There is a burgeoning literature on social capital (OECD, 2001; Lin et al., 2001; Baron et al., 2000; Cohen & Prusak, 2001; Coleman, 1988; Wall, 1996) and human capital (OECD, 2001; Seltzer, 1999; Ferlenger & Mandle, 2000; Fukuyama, 1995; Mincer, 1993; Mankiew et al., 1992; Keohane et al., 1999). According to the Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2001), human capital is 'embodied in individuals; it grows through use and experience, both inside and outside employment, as well as through informal and formal learning, but it tends to depreciate through lack of use and with age'. The concept of human capital encompasses the knowledge, skills, competencies and attributes embodied in individuals that facilitate the creation of personal, social and economic wellbeing. Skills and competencies are largely acquired through learning and experience, but may also reflect innate capacities (OECD, 2001). Hancock (1999) refers to

human capital as consisting of healthy, well-educated, skilled, innovative and creative people who are engaged in their communities and participate in governance. Social capital is a relatively new term and its meaning is not universally agreed upon or accepted. Some describe it as ‘the social networks that constitute our civic society’ (Putnam, 1993; Campbell & Kelly, 1999). However, it is well-understood that social capital resides in social relationships and as a capital, may be conceived as a resource in which we invest to provide a stream of benefits (OECD, 2001). Social capital is also the product of inherited culture and norms of behavior. It is perceived to be different from human and physical capital in three ways because it: (1) is relational rather than being the exclusive property of an individual; (2) is a public good shared by a group; (3) is produced by societal investments of time and effort. Thus, one might argue that an active volunteer network in a community is a form of social capital.

Natural capital can be divided into two major categories and one hybrid: renewable natural capital, non-renewable natural capital and cultivated natural capital (Prugh et al., 1995) and defined renewable natural capital as living and active, such as forests, flora and fauna and fish, and so on, which can be destroyed or its ability to regenerate can be impaired by overuse and other factors. Ecosystems consist largely of renewable natural capital (Prugh et al., 1995). Non-renewable natural capital, such as fossil fuels and mineral deposits, are passive and such stocks are finite. Cultivated natural capital include agricultural and aquacultural systems, such as tree farms, sod farms, fish ponds and greenhouse nurseries, where some of the components are not manufactured by humans, but are not entirely natural either (Prugh et al., 1995). Finance/built capital refers to financial investment, cash, buildings and other assets, used to create new resources and generate new wealth (Gunn & Gunn, 1991). Flora (2001) argues that for a community to be sustainable there must be a stable balance between these capitals. Finding the common ground among people who have emotional, symbolic or economic identification with a place, whether they live there or not, is essential to making decisions about development and resource use that will enable communities and their resource base to survive and thrive (Flora, 2001). Privileging one form of capital over another can destroy rural communities and agroecosystems (Flora, 2001).

2.2 Culture as Capital

Pierre Bourdieu, a French sociologist, first conceptualized the term cultural capital in *The Forms of Capital* (1973, 1986). He identified three forms of capital – economic, cultural and social, paying special attention to mechanisms of accumulation and conversion (Schurgurensky, 2002). He challenged economic theory for its narrow focus only on economic capital – that which is immediately and directly convertible into money and institutionalized in the form of property rights. Bourdieu (1986) understood capital as power, and along with the economic perspective, this power was also manifested in social and cultural capitals. He saw cultural capital as the habits or cultural practices based on knowledge and demeanors learned through exposure to role models in the family and other environments. Cultural capital theory attempts to construct explanations for things like differential educational achievement in a way that combines a wide range of differing influences. This allows for an extensive range of views, including support of the culture-based approach to understanding achievement. It also brings into focus the question of cultural values and relations to what constitutes knowledge; how knowledge is to be achieved, and how knowledge is validated. According to Bourdieu (1984), the concept of cultural capital includes three states: (1) embodied in the individual, (2) objectified in cultural goods and (3) institutionalized as academic credentials or diplomas (as described by Schugurensky, 2002).

Academic contributors, namely Ray (2001); Bourdieu (1986); Schein (1985); McMercher & du Cros (2002), Jamieson (1992) have also developed a typology of potential community resources available in small rural communities that comprise cultural capital and these include: handicrafts, language, traditions, gastronomy, art and music, heritage resources, the nature of the work environment and technology, religion, education and dress. He suggests that this cultural inventory and analysis process for tourism should assess the full range of cultural resources whether they are tangible or intangible. Further, he stresses that this process of identifying cultural capital for tourism must not concentrate exclusively on the buildings of the community, but must also stress the way of life and cultural traditions, which are important in making a community unique. Although not conclusive, Jamieson (1992) does provide a list of potential resources that might be included in a community's inventory of cultural capital:

1. Historic resources, e.g. sites, buildings, districts, landscapes

2. Tangible and intangible ethnic features, e.g. settlement patterns, languages, lifestyles
3. Natural features, e.g. water, vegetation, dominant landforms
4. Sequences, e.g. sense of entry, clarity of route, visible approaches to dominant features
5. Visibility, e.g. general and targeted views, visual corridor
6. Detail and surfaces, e.g. street furniture, floorscape
7. Ambient qualities, e.g. wind, temperature, fog, noise, smells
8. Visible activities, e.g. people observing people; everyday life and special activities
9. Physical factors, e.g. boundaries, housing types and settlement patterns
10. Daily environment, e.g. corner stores, open spaces where children play
11. Intangibles, e.g. conversations, history, traditions, values, sense of community, sense of security, emotions, and lifestyles

Similar to much physical property in the capital system, cultural capital (Thompson, 1999) is:

- Appropriated by individuals.
- Used by them as a basis for earning income.
- Accumulated by and in families (Cohen, 1989).
- Passed between generations by inheritance (Cohen, 1989).
- Protected by state mechanisms.

2.3 Cultural capital and intangibles

Collins Concise Dictionary (2001) defined ‘intangibility’ as an abstract form incapable of being perceived by touch; impalpable; imprecise or unclear to the mind; saleable but not possessing intrinsic productive value. In modern society, many so-called intangibles goodwill, volunteer work, ideas, space, time and so forth are given value-added status with monetary values, which are included in the production/consumption calculation. The concept of knowledge as an asset has been used as a corporate business strategy. The concept refers to the art of creating value from an organization’s intangible assets (Sveiby, 1998). Cultural knowledge consists of many intangibles: history and landscapes, symbolic meanings, rituals, expressions, social customs and processes, unwritten stories, music and art, cultural cuisine, community idiosyncrasies and characteristics, patterns, folklore and myths, community

identity and sense of place, hospitality, friendliness and so on. A common assumption about older rural communities is that they are typically laden with such intangibles. Many have strong traditions, customs and heritage, and thus have a richer cultural capital content than newer or urban communities, for instance, a long-established coalmining community in Cape Breton, Nova Scotia, an aboriginal community in the North or a small fishing community on the West coast. Generally, such intangibles are exclusive to a particular community, contributing to its uniqueness and identity. Arguably, these intangibles give value, as something that is exclusive and distinct to a specific community, particularly as a potential resource for developing its own specialized tourism product. In contemporary society, according to Cloke (1993), the rural is inescapably bound up in very modern image markets, implicated in the society of the commodity and society of the spectacle, which are social and cultural constructs.

The notion of giving value to intangibles is central to the tourism and service industry. In fact, the bulk of tourism product offerings is comprised of intangible aspects – image, service, goodwill, hospitality, bundling of services with tangible goods and so on. Suppliers of the tourism product use these aspects to add value to their products. Tourism marketers often tend to capitalize on the intangibles of a community's countryside and culture (i.e. bus tour groups viewing local landscapes, flora and fauna), while providing little or no return to the host community (cultural appropriation is discussed in depth in Chapter 8). Thus, such intangibles and other aspects of culture have been converted into commodities to be sold to tourists. Arguably then, culture can be considered a major capital asset in many rural communities (George, 2004).

The economic implications of tourism-craft linkage depends on the effectiveness of the sub-sectors of tourism such as retailing, leisure services etc., to effectively harness the locally produced crafts and artefacts into the tourism market (Saji & Narayanaswamy, 2011). Today, the craftsmen involved in the manufacture process have braced themselves by opening new vistas into the current trend, with drastic changes in their thinking and attitude by producing products according to present market demands (Shariff, 2005). John (2014) conducted an extensive study to identify the revival issues of Channapatna toys, a specialty handicraft product, of Karnataka, India and found that awareness and integration of visitor with the production process can play a pivotal role in the revival process. Craft tourists have been considered to be both source of revenue generation and promotional vehicle for the rural destinations as they are often parts of craft clusters (Pustynick, 2011) and the combination of

earthly rural essence and indigenous craft practice can be an adequate strategic fit for Craftourism. Crompton and McKay (1997) and McIntosh et al. (1995) were of the opinion that heritage and cultural experience imbibe accumulation of knowledge and integrating with the cultural spread. Heritage and cultural motivation can stimulate destination choice and broad-spectrum travel behaviours (Kerstetter et al., 2001) which include participation in local practice, activities and events (Lee & Lee, 2001, Funk & Bruun, 2007. Kim and Eves (2012) considered consumption of local cuisine as one of the significant and potential travel motivations. Urge to explore and seek the novelty was perceived to be triggered by the experience of environment (Loewenstein, 1994). Crompton and McKay (1997) concluded that travel can be considered as a physical involvement towards satisfying a cognitive desire to expand intellectual enrichment by becoming an integral part of the destination.

Travel motivations, other than centering heritage and cultural insights of destinations have also received considerable attention by the researchers. Seeking excitement and indulging in uncertainty has been observed as optimal arousal attitudes in travel context (Mayo and Jarvis, 1981) which has been more specifically presented by Iso-Ahola and Weissinger (1990) as an escapism from daily routine & monotony and participating in something creative and novel. A desire to experience travel through sensory appeals has also found empirical support (Dann and Jacobsen, 2002, Urry, 2002). Push and pull motivations have been categorized by the researchers to play decisive role in travel decisions (Yoon and Uysal, 2005; Dann, 1977). Yoon and Uysal (2005) observed that 'push' motivations are emotional and internal aspects of the individual which lead to travel decisions. Pull motivations are exogenous factors that influence visitors to travel to a destination (Yoon and Uysal, 2005). McGee et al. (1996) emphasized that pull motivations are governed by a destination's attractiveness such as heritage and culture, natural ambience, recreation facilities etc. Nostalgia, novelty and social interaction were identified as critical travel motives by Kassean and Gassita (2013). Travel motivations, a combination of push and pull, culminates in registering emotional bonding of the visitors with the destination. Several studies have indicated that the need for prestige distinctions in the form of 'sense of self-worth', 'sense of accomplishment', 'sense of creative-self' can play as travel motivators (Crompton and McKay, 1997; Dann, 1977; Urry, 2002). According to Dann (1977), travel behaviour can derive cognitive-drives from the desire for ego-esteem and the need to be recognised.

Emotional bonding with destination, as one of the outcomes of travel motivation, has received considerable attention of researchers in contemporary literatures in tourism

perspective. A number of antecedents have been identified to play decisive role in framing emotional bonding of the visitors with the destination visited namely recreation and relaxation (Nawijn et al., 2013), restaurants and dining facilities (Han and Jeong 2013), cultural and ethnic festivals (Grappi and Montanari 2011; Lee et al. 2008), shopping opportunities (Yuksel 2007), theme parks (Ma et al., 2013), and adventure tourism (Faullant et al., 2011). Studies have also emphasized the impact of emotional bonding of the visitors with the destination on motivation to travel (Goossens 2000) and destination preference (Chuang 2007). Researchers have also verified the relationship between the travel motivation and destination loyalty (Baksi and Parida, 2014; Baksi, 2013; Baksi and Parida, 2013; Chi and Qu, 2008; Yoon and Uysal, 2005) not only in terms of repeat visit but also through positive referrals (Bigne et al, 2009; Murray and Howat, 2002; Yoon and Uysal, 2005).

Although contemporary literature revealed adequate empirical support in favour of heritage and culture playing a pivotal role in enhancing visitor motivation, involvement of visitors towards participating in production of crafts and thus manifesting behaviour of role-reversal, has not been studied at all. Visitors' travel motivation has been conceptualized as a multidimensional construct comprised of a number of tested dimensions namely escape from routine, ego satisfaction, sensory appeals, knowledge accumulation etc. The term 'Craftourism' has been coined by the researcher to emphasis on a specific novel pattern of tourism which may significantly affect the visitors' motivation to travel and hence need to be quantified and scaled. Craftourism as a travel motivator may bring changes in behavioural consequences of visitors too. Thus, the specific objective of the study is to develop and validate a scale quantifying Craftoursim as visitors' travel motivator in role reversal and to sample test its impact on behavioural pattern of visitors.

2.1 Theoretical model

A theoretical model incorporating assumed relationship between the major variables, namely, travel motive, behavioural pattern and sustainable initiatives for ethno cultural preservation, in the context of rural tourism, shall churn out a possible triangulation (Fig.1).

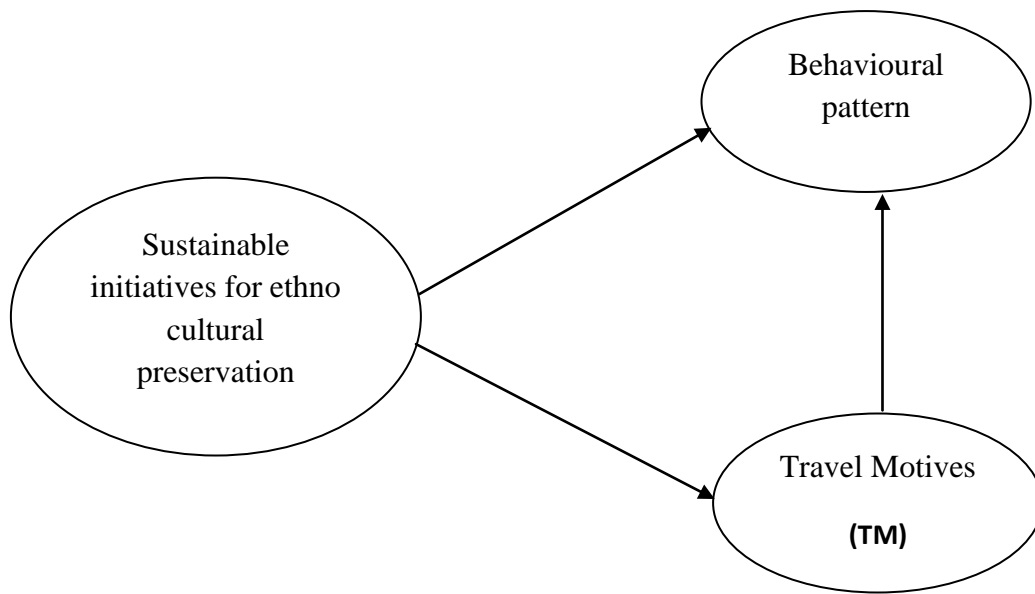


Fig.1: Proposed theoretical model

3. Methodology

3.1 Selection of research sites

The districts of Birbhum, Bankura and Murshidabad in the state of West Bengal, India were chosen as the sites to carry out this research work. Birbhum is recognised as the hub of traditional crafts namely ‘batik work’ (wax-cracks on textile and leather) and ‘kantha work’ (a special type of stitching on textile materials). Other craft practices that namely potteries, textile dying, bamboo works, macramé etc also prevails among thousands of artisans. Murshidabad, situated in the northern part of West Bengal, India is the home of ivory works and bell-metal crafts. Bankura, primarily an arid zone in the south-western part of West Bengal, India is famous for its ‘dokra works’ (sculptures in brass and other alloys) and terracotta sculptures, It is also famous for textile weaving and specifically for a particular type of saree (traditional women-wear) namely ‘baluchari’. Every year millions of visitors flock in these states of handicraft production and participate in the learning and practice of these crafts.

3.2 Item generation and scale development

In order to ensure reliability and validity of the scale the study followed steps that are successfully used in prior studies (Kim and Eves, 2012; Hung and Petrick, 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003) namely a) review of literature to understand the constructs, b) preparing list of items explaining the constructs, c) refining the measurement, and d) developing the final

measurement scale. A primary list of 32 items was identified on the basis of the past studies focusing on handicraft-based tourism and associated travel motivations (Saji & Narayanaswamy, 2011; Shariff, 2005; John, 2014; Grappi and Montanari 2011; Lee et al. 2008; Yuksel 2007; Crompton and McKay, 1997; Dann, 1977; Urry, 2002).

The sustainable initiatives to measure ethno-cultural heritage has been scarce in the literature. This study has used inputs from UNESCO Conventions held in 1972 and 2003, Saastamoinen (2005), Colantonio (2007) and Rio +20 (2011). Cultural sustainability is mainly categorized into two components:

- (i) Material: human-made cultural components, such as architectures, monuments etc; landscapes and human-nature interaction system.
- (ii) Immaterial: cultural heritage such as practices, representations, expressions, knowledge, skills and instruments, objects, artefacts and cultural spaces associated with practices, including tradition, identity, values, cultural diversity, spirituality, and esthetics. Apart from these, critical knowledge for sustainability, sense of place, empathy, trust, risk, respect, and recognition were also considered to quantify sustainable initiatives to measure ethno-cultural heritage.

Representing the abstract nature of cultural sustainability has been quite critical and some of the research efforts that were considered for this study involved:

- (i) Cultural vitality, diversity and conviviality, Concept of social capital (Putnam, 2000; Magis and Shinn, 2009)
- (ii) Cultural landscape (Palang and Fry, 2003)
- (iii) Cultural heritage and ethnic practices (Palang and Fry, 2003)
- (iv) Cultural access, participation and consumption (Mercer, 2002)

Based on the literature inputs and ethno-cultural legacy of the destinations under study a 15 item scale was proposed to quantify the sustainable initiatives for ethno-cultural heritage.

The initial pool of items (32 for travel motive and 15 for sustainable initiatives for ethno-cultural preservation) was used for a pilot study using the focus group interview technique (FGI) to assess the content for ambiguity and lack of clarity. The FGI panel consisted of researchers, academicians and practitioners in the field of tourism. The researcher decided not to assign any pre-existing construct for these items to avoid biasness of response and allowed free analysis. This initial pilot test identified 29 items to measure travel motive and 12 items for the measurement of sustainable initiatives for ethno-cultural preservation.

An exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation was deployed to assess the reliability (DeVellis, 2003) and construct validity (Netemeyer et al., 2003) with a convenience sample size of 250. The sample were chosen from visitors who took active part in practicing and producing crafts in the three destinations selected for the study over the last one year. To assess whether a particular data set is amenable to factor analysis, examination of the strength of the relationship among the items is required (Hair et al., 2006; Bohmstedt & Borgatta, 1981). The items having factor loadings lower than .6 or cross-loaded on more than one factor were discarded. The internal consistency and reliability were proved to be significant as Cronbach's alpha was found to be $>.7$ (Hair et al., 2006). A total of 22 items were significantly loaded across five components (Table-1). EFA explained 73.667% of overall variance and identified five constructs: (Table-1). Bartlett's test of Sphericity (a statistical test for the presence of correlations among the variables) and the KMO (Kaisere Meyere Olkin) measure of sampling adequacy were measured to assess the factorability of the data. The KMO value at .865 exceeds the acceptable minimum value which is .6 (Hair et al., 2006). The Bartlett's test of Sphericity was found to be significant (Chi-square: 621.272, $df= 248$, .000 $p < .00$). The Cronbach's alpha score was .935 confirming the internal reliability of the score. To achieve a more meaningful and interpretable solution, some items which loaded on more than one factor were deleted. During the factor extraction process, 27 out of 29 items were retained.

Table-1: EFA results for Travel Motive

Dimension s assigned	Scale items	Factor load	Mean	SD	α
Cultural experience	I feel proud to learn the techniques of the crafts	.795	5.15	1.28	0.935
	I feel proud to learn the history behind the crafts	.766	5.81	1.44	
	I feel proud to produce crafts hands-on	.860	5.38	1.99	
	I feel proud to be a part in crafts production	.703	4.95	1.49	
	I feel proud to see my products on display for sale	.776	4.81	1.77	
	I feel proud to learn the techniques of craft making	.882	5.13	0.57	
	I feel proud about the experience of being a craftsman	.741	5.51	1.17	
Excitement	I had the scope to impart my own design in the craft	.620	4.50	1.47	0.917
	I had the scope to modify the traditional designs	.699	4.89	1.98	
	I had opportunity to manifest my creative self	.840	4.10	1.66	
	I had the opportunity to create new designs	.910	5.10	1.87	
	I had the opportunity to use the tools to create my own craft	.832	4.36	1.39	
	Participating in the craft practice takes me away from routine	.740	4.26	1.68	
Sensory	I derived immense satisfaction from participating in craft	.707	5.57	1.00	0.894
	I felt relaxed in the environment of learning craft production	.729	4.89	1.12	

appeal	The rural environment of craft making is soothing to the eye	.751	5.47	1.62	
	The earthly smell of the environment of craft making is	.763	5.82	1.76	
	I derived immense satisfaction when I touched the tools and raw materials of the craftsmen to produce crafts of my own	.949	5.27	1.90	
Interpersonal relation	I got a chance, as a craftsman, to interact with buyers	.867	5.14	1.41	0.876
	I was thrilled to observe buyers recognizing me as a craftsman	.820	5.05	1.29	
	The local craftsmen provide satisfactory hospitality	.654	5.37	1.19	
	The local craftsmen provide satisfactory hospitality	.912	5.67	1.78	
	Participating in role-reversal increases friendly bonding	.818	5.11	1.08	
	The local craftsmen are happy to share their selling platform to sell products that we made	.779	5.73	1.11	
Esteem	Experiencing local food enriches me intellectually	.748	5.42	1.29	0.818
	I want to talk about my experience to enact as a craftsman	.659	4.98	1.03	
	I shall advice people to enact in the role of a craftsman	.682	5.01	1.53	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

KMO: .865, Bartlett test of Sphericity: Chi-square-621.272, df= 248,

Sig.: .000

A total of 10 items were significantly loaded across five components (Table-2). EFA explained 67.79 % of overall variance. Bartlett's test of Sphericity (a statistical test for the presence of correlations among the variables) and the KMO (Kaisere Meyere Olkin) measure of sampling adequacy were measured to assess the factorability of the data. The KMO value at .872 exceeds the acceptable minimum value which is .6 (Hair et al., 2006). The Bartlett's test of Sphericity was found to be significant (Chi-square: 471.231, df= 123, .000 $p < .00$). The Cronbach's alpha score was .891 which is significant enough to confirm the internal reliability of the scale. To achieve a more meaningful and interpretable solution, some items which loaded on more than one factor were deleted. During the factor extraction process, 10 out of 12 items were retained.

Table-2: EFA results for Sustainable initiatives for ethno-cultural preservation

Dimensions assigned	Scale items	Factor load	Mean	SD	α
Cultural vibrancy	Destination has rich cultural legacy	.717	4.95	1.11	0.891
	Destination has both material and immaterial cultural resources	.699	4.87	1.42	
	The cultural heritage is well articulated in the local community	.711	5.18	1.17	
	Local community balances cultural aspects with environmental issues	.691	4.17	1.52	
Ethnic vitality	I have spent time trying to find out more about the ethnic group, such as its history, traditions and future orientations	.812	5.62	1.44	
	I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group	.817	5.17	1.88	
	The destination host community reflects ethnic behaviour	.793	5.09	1.71	
Ethno-cultural sharing	The host community takes pride in promoting and sharing their ethno-cultural heritage	.729	4.99	1.09	
	The host community makes clear statement about preserving their ethno-cultural heritage	.735	4.81	1.23	
Access to ethno-cultural repository	The ethno-cultural sites of the destination are well connected	.871	5.64	1.63	
	The ethno-cultural products can be easily collected	.859	5.42	1.45	
	The ethno-cultural aspects are well documented and identified for preservation	.832	5.21	1.21	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

KMO: .872, Bartlett test of Sphericity: Chi-square- 471.231, df= 248,

Sig.: .000

The hypothesized model can now be represented as in Fig.2

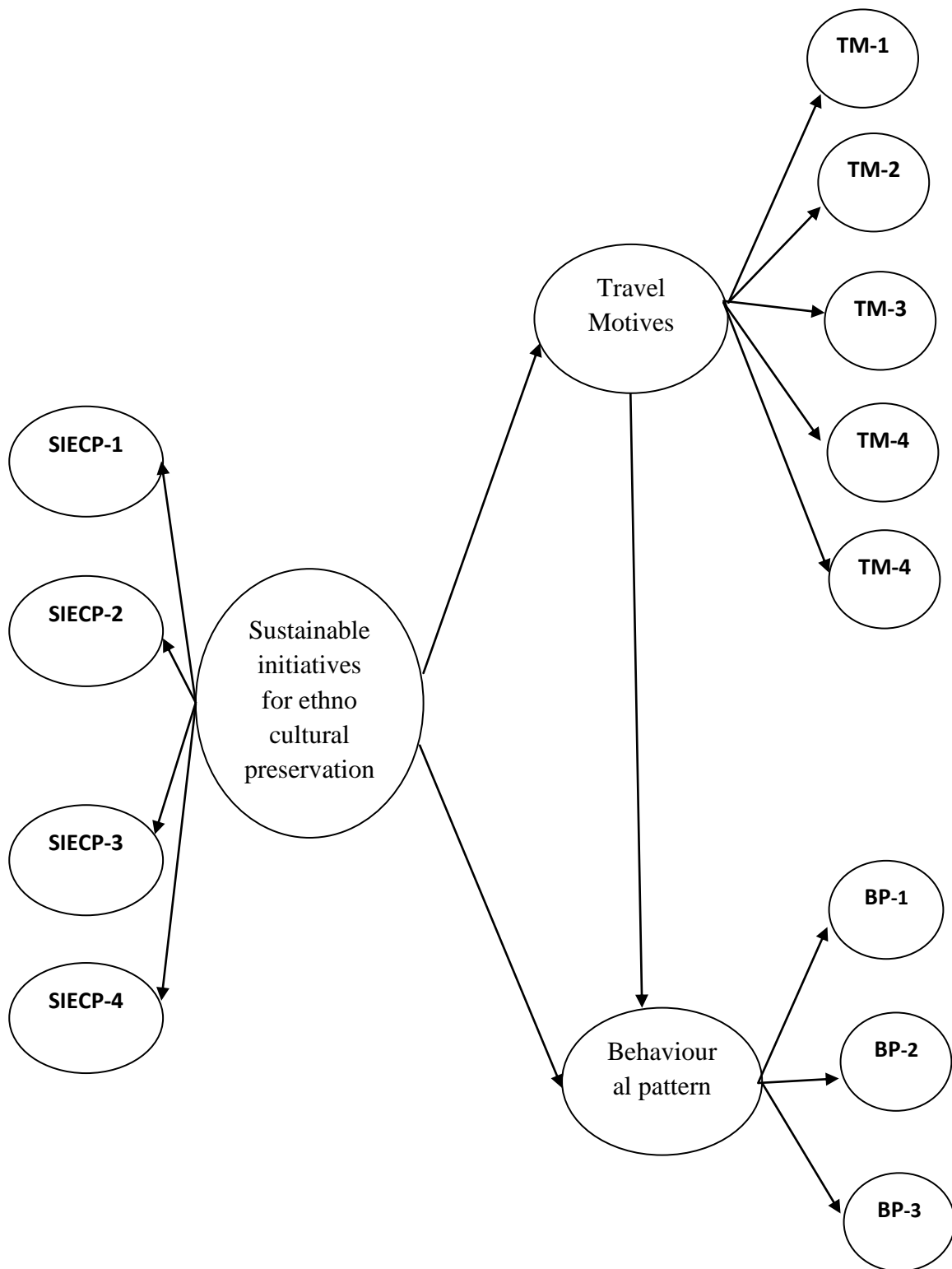


Fig. 2: The hypothesized model

To assess the validity (construct & convergent), reliability and dimensionality of the scale, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988) with the maximum likelihood method was deployed using the LISREL 9.30 software. For this purpose convenience sampling method was adopted and data from three different locales Birbhum (n = 349), Bankura (n = 254), and Murshidabad (n = 225) were collected. The data were collected using the items churned out by EFA in a 7 point Likert scale ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ to strongly agree’. Those visitors who visited these three destinations between December, 2015 to November, 2017 were interviewed.

The response generated across three locations were compared on the basis of five demographic variables namely gender, age, education, income and occupation to assess the probability of response bias using χ^2 analysis (Hung and Petrick, 2010). The results revealed significant difference in age groups ($\chi^2= 31.69$, $p =.000$) and occupation ($\chi^2= 42.33$, $p =.000$). It has been assumed that the probability of response bias is minimal.

CFA was deployed to identify the distribution of latent variables which are supposed to account for the covariance amongst the set of observed variables (Kim and Aves, 2012; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). The magnitude of standardised factor loadings on the latent construct should preferably be greater than .5 in order to ensure a meaningful and interpretable solution of a measurement (Hung and Petrick, 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003). Empirical evidence suggested other goodness of fit indices should be considered apart from χ^2 measure as χ^2 may be influenced by sample size (Hair et al., 2006; Kim and Li, 2009; Kim and Aves, 2012).

The results of the three CFAs using three datasets yielded five dimensions for travel motive and are nomenclated as: 1) experiential learning, 2) creative thrill, 3) sensory gratification, 4) socialization, and 5) self esteem. Three items namely ‘I feel proud about the experience of being a craftsman’, ‘I had the scope to modify the traditional designs’ and ‘The local craftsmen are happy to share their selling platform to sell products that we made’ were discarded as factor loading for these items were below acceptable level (Netemeyer et al., 2003). The sustainable initiatives for ethno-cultural preservation was significantly explained by four dimensions as was identified in EFA (Table-2).

Convergence was established as the factor loadings ($>.6$) were found to be adequate (Kim and Aves, 2012; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). Construct validity of the scale was evaluated by analysing the standardised factor loadings, the critical ratio and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (Kim and Aves, 2012; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). Discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2006) was assessed by obtaining the composite means of the constructs and the correlation was applied to examine the discriminant validity of the measurement (Table-3). The results of CFA with the fit statistics were displayed in Table-4 which was found to exhibit reasonably moderate to good fit with the model for all the three datasets used. The squared-correlation values obtained (Table-5) were significantly lower than .85 which established the discriminant validity Hung and Petrick (2010). Convergent validity, showing internal consistency of the measuring instrument, was established as the average variance extracted (AVE) exceeded the cut-off range of .5. (Kim and Eves, 2012; Fornell and Larcker 1981).

Table-3: CFA results

Scale items	Dataset-1 (Birbhum, n=349)		Dataset-2 (Bankura, n=254)		Dataset-3 (Murshidabad, n=225)	
	SL	AVE	SL	AVE	SL	AVE
Travel Motive (TM)						
<i>Experiential learning (EL)</i>		.81		.80		.80
I feel proud to learn the techniques of the crafts	.823		.811		.804	
I feel proud to learn the history behind the crafts	.798		.783		.801	
I feel proud to produce crafts hands-on	.845		.857		.843	
I feel proud to be a part in crafts production	.821		.819		.824	
I feel proud to see my products on display for sale	.799		.782		.789	
I feel proud to learn the techniques of craft making	.785		.777		.769	
<i>Creative thrill (CT)</i>		.82		.81		.81
I had the scope to impart my own design in the craft	.854		.848		.844	
I had opportunity to manifest my creative self	.833		.829		.820	
I had the opportunity to create new designs	.818		.802		.813	
I had the opportunity to use the tools to create my own	.799		.804		.791	
Participating in the craft practice takes me away from routine	.808		.801		.795	
<i>Sensory gratification (SG)</i>		.78		.77		.78
I derived immense satisfaction from participating in craft making	.768		.777		.763	
I felt relaxed in the environment of learning craft	.798		.782		.791	
The rural environment of craft making is soothing to the	.792		.787		.802	
The earthly smell of the environment of craft making is refreshing	.768		.759		.772	

Use of tools of craftsmen gives me satisfaction	.791		.779		.784	
Socialization (SOC)		.81		.82		.81
I got a chance, as a craftsman, to interact with buyers	.811		.827		.814	
I was thrilled to observe buyers recognizing me as a craftsman	.848		.854		.839	
The local craftsmen provide satisfactory hospitality	.824		.836		.829	
The local craftsmen provide satisfactory hospitality	.816		.822		.812	
Participating in role-reversal increases friendly bonding	.793		.784		.803	
Self esteem (SE)						
Experiencing local food enriches me intellectually	.765	.76	.759	.76	.754	.75
I want to talk about my experience to enact as a craftsman	.782		.789		.775	
I shall advice people to enact in the role of a craftsman	.749		.737		.754	
Sustainable initiatives for ethno-cultural preservation (SIECP)	SL	AVE	SL	AVE	SL	AVE
Cultural vibrancy (CV)						
Destination has rich cultural legacy						
Destination has both material and immaterial cultural resources						
The cultural heritage is well articulated in the local community						
Local community balances cultural aspects with environmental issues						
Ethnic vitality (EV)						
I have spent time trying to find out more about the ethnic group, such as its history, traditions and future orientations and customs.						
I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group						
The destination host community reflects ethnic behaviour						
Ethno-cultural sharing (ECS)						
The host community takes pride in promoting and sharing their ethno-cultural heritage						
The host community makes clear statement about preserving their ethno-cultural heritage						
Access to ethno-cultural repository (AECR)						
The ethno-cultural sites of the destination are well connected						
The ethno-cultural products can be easily collected						
The ethno-cultural aspects are well documented and identified for preservation						

SL – Standard loading, AVE – Average variance extracted

Table-4: Goodness-of-fit indices for the model

Index	Accepted value	Dataset-1 (Birbhum, n=349)	Dataset-2 (Bankura, n=254)	Dataset-3 (Murshidabad, n=225)
χ^2 , df	-----	776.241, 329	474.640, 243	418.277, 235
χ^2/df	<2.0	1.67	1.81	1.76
p value	<.05	.000	.000	.000

RMSEA	<.05 (Kline,	.03	.04	.04
SRMR	<.10 (Hu and Bentler, 1998)	.08	.09	.09
GFI	>.9 (Hu and Bentler, 1998)	.95	.92	.94
AGFI	>.9 (Hu and Bentler., 1998)	.91	.95	.92
NFI	>.9 (Bentler and Bonett, 1980)	.93	.93	.94
CFI	>.9 (Kline et al.,	.95	.90	.91

Table 5: Multiple squared factor correlations

	EL	CT	SG	SOC	SE	CV	EV	ECS	AECR
EL	--								
CT	0.23	--							
SG	0.31	0.41	--						
SOC	0.19	0.28	0.37	--					
SE	0.20	0.25	0.22	0.18	--				
CV	0.18	0.43	0.21	0.16	0.21	--			
EV	0.32	0.41	0.19	0.12	0.29	0.11	--		
ECS	0.28	0.39	0.26	0.15	0.37	0.19	0.23	--	
AECR	0.27	0.33	0.17	0.22	0.25	0.20	0.34	0.33	--

*EL- Experiential learning, CT- Creative thrill, SG- Sensory gratification, SOC- Socialization, SE- Self esteem, CV-Cultural vibrancy, EV-Ethnic vitality, ECS-Ethno-cultural sharing, AECR-Access to ethno-cultural repository

The measurement about behavioural intentions of visitors namely repeat visit (3 items, Baksi & Parida, 2013), positive referrals (4 items, Baksi and Parida, 2013) and share-of-wallet (2 items, Baksi and Parida, 2013). The researcher used the same sample to generate response with regard to their behavioural intention on the basis of the experience about the destinations they visited. The response was generated with a 7 point Likert scale ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ (1) to ‘strongly agree’ (7).

Table-5: EFA for behavioural intention

Dimensions		Factor loading	Mean	SD	α
Positive	I shall be recommending my friends and relatives to invest money in visiting this destination	0.81	5.05	1.28	.923

referrals (BP-1)	I shall say positive things about this destination and scope for role reversal to other people	0.82	5.11	1.36
	I shall recommend this destination to visitors	0.84	5.09	1.34
	I shall encourage my friends and relatives to visit this	0.79	4.97	1.29
Repeat visit (BP-2)	I would have visited this destination within one year time had I not come to join this year	0.77	4.99	1.37
	I would visit this destination even without scope of role reversal associated with it	0.76	5.89	1.47
	I shall visit this destination again in next year	0.81	5.59	1.28
Share of wallet (BP-3)	I shall continue to purchase souvenirs and other products from the destination	0.79	5.56	1.31
	I shall increase my purchase amount in purchasing souvenirs and other products from the destination during my future visits	0.82	5.61	1.42

The hypothesized model was tested using LISREL 9.30. The model was found to converge and the relationships hold good.

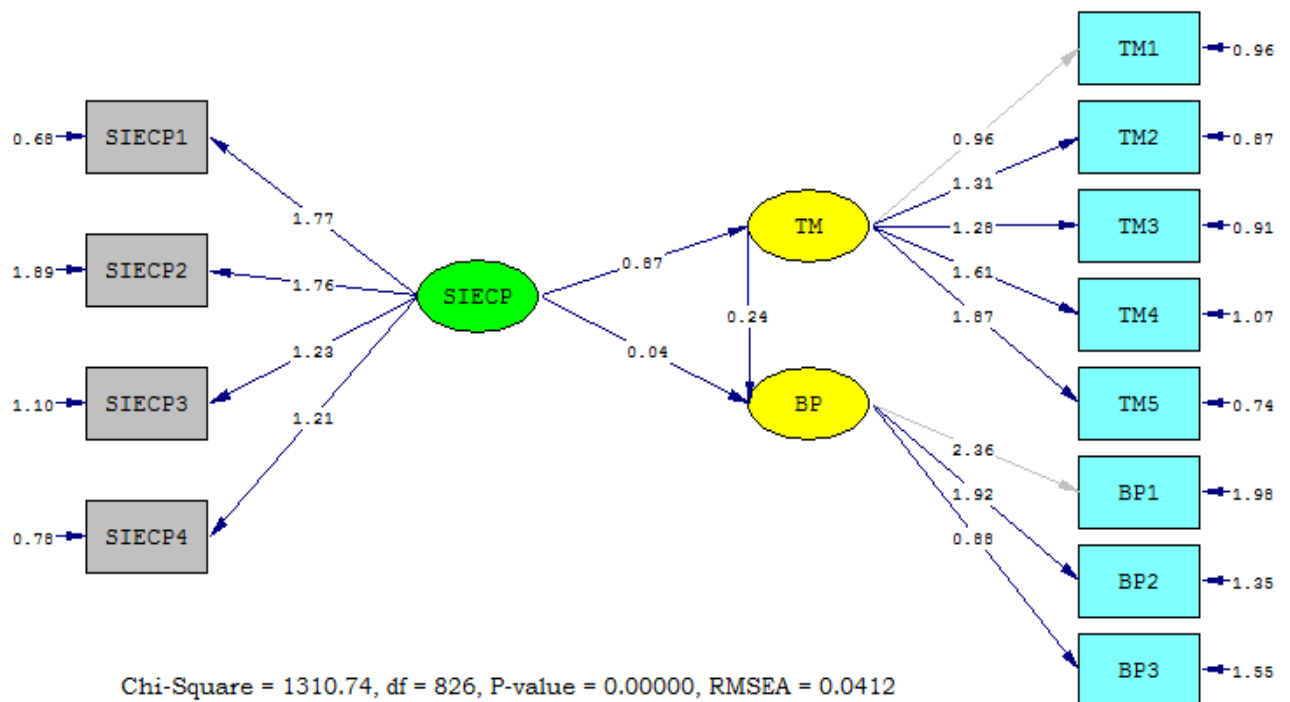


Fig. 3: Tested model

Legends: SIEP – Sustainable initiatives towards ethno-cultural preservation, TM – Travel motive, BP – Behavioural pattern, SIEP1 – SIEP4, TM1-TM5, BP1 – BP3 are latent variables.

The model interpretation

1. Covariance Matrix

	TM1	TM2	TM3	TM4	TM5	BP1
TM1	1.896					
TM2	1.423	2.576				
TM3	1.401	1.770	2.538			
TM4	1.436	2.194	2.075	3.668		
TM5	1.725	2.362	2.251	3.062	4.217	
BP1	0.723	0.986	0.841	0.751	0.760	7.526
BP2	0.559	0.558	-0.044	-0.258	0.446	4.553
BP3	0.660	0.911	0.759	0.902	1.308	1.978
SIECP1	1.380	1.879	2.007	2.611	3.188	0.428
SIECP2	1.298	1.644	1.857	2.315	3.142	1.294
SIECP3	0.930	1.195	1.272	1.446	1.897	-0.332
SIECP4	1.032	1.329	1.376	1.439	2.057	0.434

Covariance Matrix

	BP2	BP3	SIECP1	SIECP2	SIECP3	SIECP4
BP2	5.036					
BP3	1.698	2.322				
SIECP1	0.068	1.135	3.800			
SIECP2	1.371	1.256	3.064	5.006		
SIECP3	0.287	0.848	2.233	2.105	2.615	
SIECP4	0.335	0.816	2.016	2.326	1.620	2.236

Total Variance = 63.436 Generalized Variance = 199.788
 Largest Eigenvalue = 20.488 Smallest Eigenvalue = 0.355
 Condition Number = 27.593

The condition number is large enough to nullify existence of multicollinearity.

2. LISREL Estimates (Maximum Likelihood)

Measurement Equations

TM1 = 0.965*TM, Errorvar.= 0.965 , R² = 0.491
 Standerr (0.103)
 Z-values 9.378
 P-values 0.000
 TM2 = 1.308*TM, Errorvar.= 0.865 , R² = 0.664

Standerr	(0.119)	(0.100)
Z-values	11.002	8.628
P-values	0.000	0.000
TM3 = 1.276*TM, Errorvar.= 0.909 , R ² = 0.642		
Standerr	(0.118)	(0.104)
Z-values	10.824	8.766
P-values	0.000	0.000
TM4 = 1.612*TM, Errorvar.= 1.069 , R ² = 0.709		
Standerr	(0.142)	(0.129)
Z-values	11.344	8.286
P-values	0.000	0.000
TM5 = 1.866*TM, Errorvar.= 0.736 , R ² = 0.825		
Standerr	(0.153)	(0.112)
Z-values	12.160	6.600
P-values	0.000	0.000
BP1 = 2.356*BP, Errorvar.= 1.976 , R ² = 0.737		
Standerr		(0.511)
Z-values		3.869
P-values		0.000
BP2 = 1.919*BP, Errorvar.= 1.353 , R ² = 0.731		
Standerr	(0.193)	(0.341)
Z-values	9.930	3.974
P-values	0.000	0.000
BP3 = 0.879*BP, Errorvar.= 1.549 , R ² = 0.333		
Standerr	(0.110)	(0.168)
Z-values	7.976	9.215
P-values	0.000	0.000
SIECP1 = 1.767*SIECP, Errorvar.= 0.676 , R ² = 0.822		
Standerr	(0.108)	(0.113)
Z-values	16.349	5.980
P-values	0.000	0.000
SIECP2 = 1.764*SIECP, Errorvar.= 1.894 , R ² = 0.622		
Standerr	(0.134)	(0.220)
Z-values	13.138	8.625
P-values	0.000	0.000
SIECP3 = 1.233*SIECP, Errorvar.= 1.096 , R ² = 0.581		
Standerr	(0.0985)	(0.124)
Z-values	12.510	8.858
P-values	0.000	0.000
SIECP4 = 1.207*SIECP, Errorvar.= 0.780 , R ² = 0.651		
Standerr	(0.0887)	(0.0927)
Z-values	13.597	8.420
P-values	0.000	0.000
SIECP3 = 1.233*SIECP, Errorvar.= 1.096 , R ² = 0.581		
Standerr	(0.0985)	(0.124)
Z-values	12.510	8.858
P-values	0.000	0.000
SIECP4 = 1.207*SIECP, Errorvar.= 0.780 , R ² = 0.651		
Standerr	(0.0887)	(0.0927)
Z-values	13.597	8.420
P-values	0.000	0.000

These parameter estimates have been obtained by maximizing the likelihood function L under multivariatenormality. Therefore it is possible to give the log-likelihood values at the

maximum of the likelihood function. It is common the report the value of $-2\ln(L)$, sometimes called deviance, instead of L . The process gives the value $-2 \ln(L)$ for the estimated model and for a saturated model. A saturated model is a model where the mean vector and covariance matrix of the multivariate normal distribution are unconstrained.

3. Log-likelihood Values

	Estimated Model -----	Saturated Model -----
Number of free parameters(t)	27	78
$-2\ln(L)$	3839.378	3528.640
AIC (Akaike, 1974)*	3893.378	3684.640
BIC (Schwarz, 1978)*	3982.968	3943.453

*LISREL uses $AIC = 2t - 2\ln(L)$ and $BIC = t\ln(N) - 2\ln(L)$

AIC is an estimate of a constant plus the relative distance between the unknown true likelihood function of the data and the fitted likelihood function of the model, so that a lower AIC means a model is considered to be closer to the truth. BIC is an estimate of a function of the posterior probability of a model being true, under a certain Bayesian setup, so that a lower BIC means that a model is considered to be more likely to be the true model. Both criteria are based on various assumptions and asymptotic approximations. Each, despite its heuristic usefulness, has therefore been criticized as having questionable validity for real world data. For more assured choice of model, therefore, we fall back on the goodness of fit indices.

4. Goodness-of-Fit Statistics

Degrees of Freedom for (C1)-(C2)	51
Maximum Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square (C1)	310.739 (P =
0.0000)	
Browne's (1984) ADF Chi-Square (C2_NT)	282.784 (P =
0.0000)	
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP)	259.739
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP	207.882; 319.100)
Minimum Fit Function Value	1.523
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0)	1.273
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0	(1.019; 1.564)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.158
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	0.141; 0.175)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	0.000
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)	1.788
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI	(1.534; 2.079)
ECVI for Saturated Model	0.765

ECVI for Independence Model	9.266
Chi-Square for Independence Model (66 df)	1866.192
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.833
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.813
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.644
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.856
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	0.857
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.785
Critical N (CN)	51.558
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	0.343
Standardized RMR	0.107
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.812
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	0.713
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI)	0.531

The goodness of fit indices confirms that the hypothesized model holds good. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was deployed to test the predictive capability of the model about travel motives and behavioural intentions and a possible moderation of travel motive on the link between sustainable initiatives in preserving ethno-cultural heritage and behavioural pattern of the tourists. of the visitors namely ‘repeat visit’ and ‘positive referrals’. The researcher deployed two sets of hierarchical multiple regression analysis (HMRA). The results of the HMRA were tabulated in Table-6, Table-7 and Table-8.

Table 6: Model Summary^c

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.769 ^a	.591	.589	.35267	.591	1195.51	1	824	.000
2	.840 ^b	.705	.701	.33897	.114	1974.00	1	823	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), SIECP

b. Predictors: (Constant), SIECP, TM

c. Dependent Variable: BP

Table-7: ANOVA results

Model		Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.
1	Regression	67.060	1	1195.51	.000 ^b
	Residual	128.112	824		
	Total	195.171	825		
2	Regression	91.060	2	1102.448	.000 ^c
	Residual	84.111	823		
	Total	175.171	825		

Table 8: Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coeff.	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.117	.125		16.936	.000
	SIECP	.354	.024	.379	14.750	.000
2	(Constant)	3.523	.129		27.310	.000
	SIECP	.417	.024	.487	17.375	.000
	TM	.329	.013	.149	25.307	.000

a. Dependent Variable: e-WOM

Model-1 is significant without interaction term. $F = 1195.51, p < .001$

Model-2 is significant with interaction term. $F = 1974.00, p < .001$

Model-2 accounted for significantly more variance than Model-1. Model-2 revealed that 70.50 % of variance in the dependent variable, namely behavioural pattern (BP) of tourists can be jointly attributed to sustainable initiatives for ethno-cultural preservation (SIECP) and travel motive (TM). Model-2 with the interaction effect of SIECP and TM accounted for significantly more variance than SIECP as a standalone variable. R^2 change = .114, $p = .000$, indicated that there is potentially significant and positive moderation of travel motive (TM) on the relationship between sustainable initiatives for ethno-cultural preservation (SIECP) and behavioural pattern (BP) of tourists.

Since we have received potentially significant and positive moderating effects, we decided to run regression on centered terms to examine the effect. To avoid potentially problematic high multicollinearity with the interaction term, the variables were centered and an interaction term between SIECP and TM was created (Aiken & West, 1991). To assess the effects we deploy the ‘PROCESS by Andrew F. Hayes’ in SPSS package. The results are as follows:

Run MATRIX procedure:

```
***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.00 *****
*****
```

```
Model   : 1
        Y   : BP
```

X : SIECP

W : TM

Sample

Size: 828

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

BP

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F(HC0)	df1	df2	p
.7687	.5908	.2434	1195.51	1.0000	824.0000	.0000

Model

coeff	se(HC0)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
constant	2.1170	12.5016	9360.0000	4.7681	5.4734	
SIECP	.3540	.0240	14.750	.0000	.1392	.2354
TM	.4170	.0240	17.375	.0000	.0988	.2813
Int_1	.3291	.0131	25.037	.0000	.0212	.3225

Product terms key:

Int_1 : SIECP x TM

Covariance matrix of regression parameter estimates:

	constant	SIECP	TM	Int_1
constant	.0323	.0076	.0076	.0078
SIECP	.0076	.0020	.0018	.0018
TM	.0078	.0018	.0021	.0021
Int_1	.0018	.0005	.0005	.0001

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

R2-chng	F(HC0)	df1	df2	p	
X*W	.1142	1974.00	1.0000	823.0000	.0000

Focal predict: SIECP (X)
 Mod var: TM (W)

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
 Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce
 plot.

Data for visualizing conditional effect of X on Y

SIECP	TM	BP
-.49	-.37	4.89
.00	-.37	4.79
.49	-.37	4.69
-.49	.00	4.88
.00	.00	4.86
.49	.00	4.84
-.49	.37	4.88
.00	.37	4.93
.49	.37	4.99

***** BOOTSTRAP RESULTS FOR REGRESSION MODEL PARAMETERS *****

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

BP

Coeff	BootMean	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
-------	----------	--------	----------	----------

constant	5.1207	5.1139	.1822	4.7629	5.4796
SIECP	.0519	.0510	.0448	-.1399	.0372
M	.0088	.0067	.0468	-.0970	.0862
Int_1	.0007	.0004	.0113	-.0218	.0221

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

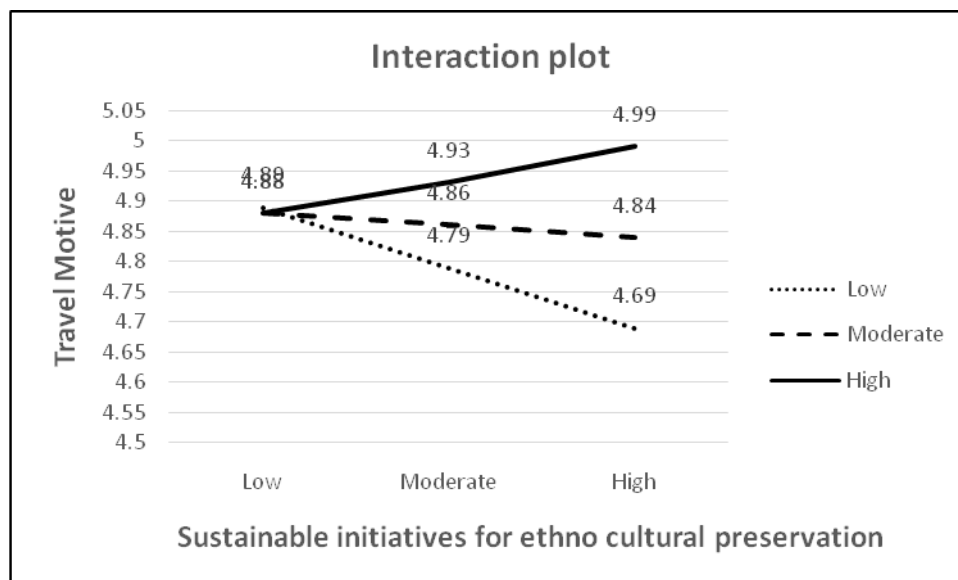
Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output: 95.0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals: 5000

NOTE: A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used.

----- END MATRIX -----

Examination of the interaction plot revealed moderation of travel motive (TM) on the link between sustainable initiatives of ethno-cultural preservation (SIECP) and behavioural pattern of tourists (BP)



Discussion and conclusion

Crafttourism, a niche tourism offer, has been extensively used by the Destination Marketing Organizations to propagate the essence of rich ethno-cultural heritage and the necessity to preserve them as a part of destination attribute. Folk-art, in various forms, are being used to lure tourists in experiential travelling. It serves dual purpose in propagating economic activities and ensure ecological and ethno-cultural sustainability by creating awareness, promotion and interactions.

Researchers considered opportunity to collect local handicrafts as souvenirs to be a significant travel motivator (Mogindol and Bagul, 2014). The craft production process has become a cog in the wheel of cultural shift as visitors are transforming from passive consumption mode to active participation mode (Richards, 2015). Crafttourism can even play a significant role in revival of crafts on the verge of extinction by creating awareness and integrating visitors with the production process as was found by John (2014) in the case of Channapatna toys of Karnataka, India. The travel motive, a psycho-cognitive assimilation of perceptions, has been quantified in this study. The scale development, measurement and validation process embarked upon has its base on the previous successful studies of similar initiatives (Kim and Aves, 2012, Netemeyer et al., 2003). The final scale measuring 'Crafttourism' as a travel motivator has been converged on five dimensions and were named as 'experiential learning', 'creative thrill', 'sensory gratification', 'socialization' and 'self esteem'. The first dimension namely 'experiential learning' was loaded on six items. Earlier studies (Kim et al, 2009; Kerstetter et al, 2001; Lee and Lee, 2001) identified cultural experience and accumulation of destination-based knowledge as two distinct factors, which have been merged into a single dimension in the context of the present study. The second dimension 'creative thrill' was found to be defined by five items. Previous studies emphasized on 'excitement' factor as a possible motivator to travel decisions. Mayo and Jarvis (1981) pointed out participation of visitors in unusual activities or taking unknown risks for excitement. In this study the thrill factor was found associated with unprecedented manifestation of creative skills of the visitors when they found opportunity to enact the role of craftsmen, a case of role-reversal. The third dimension 'sensory gratification' and five items were found useful in defining it. Sensory appeal has received considerable attention from the researchers (Kim and Aves, 2012; Urry, 2001; Dan and Jacobsen, 2002) towards explaining travel experience. The fifth dimension namely 'socialization' actually explains the visitors' motivations as a case of role-reversal whereby the visitor gets to enact as the host craftsmen. The dimension of socialization was discussed earlier as 'interpersonal relationship' (Kim and Aves, 2012) or togetherness (Crompton and McKay, 1997; Steptoe et al, 1995). For the first time the social interaction factor has been identified from the point of

view of role-reversal. The sixth and final dimension was identified as 'self esteem' which loaded on three items and reflected the earlier studies (Kim et al., 2009).

Existing body of literature and research initiatives has remained inconclusive to quantify sustainable initiatives to preserve ethno-cultural heritage. Although, it has been widely acknowledged academically and in several governing forums that sustainability, in broad sense, incorporates preservation of ethno-cultural assets alongwith environmental & ecological resources. The critical dimensions for sustainable initiatives to preserve ethno-cultural heritage, identified for the study are (a) cultural vibrancy, (b) ethnic vitality, (c) ethno-cultural sharing and (d) access to ethno-cultural repository. The study tested the default model and found significant impact of sustainable initiatives of ethno-cultural preservation on the travel motive. It expands the realm of travel motive formation. Theories, thus far, explained travel motive on the ground of physical attributes and infrastructural facilities available at the destination. The travel motive, in later phase, was also researched to include opportunities to collect souvenir and engage in activities. These two motives paved the initial ground to explore indigenous culture, craft and heritage as stimulators to travel motive. Heritage and culture fostered by the host community propagates experiential travelling, and at times, manifests in role-reversal. The rural tourism destinations are embedded in fragile ecosystem unlike the urban counterpart and are seedbeds of folk-art, craft-practice and other ethnographic legacy. The growing affinity of the visitors to interact with this ethno-cultural repository makes it all the more necessary to ensure preservation of the same. The model also revealed that sustainable initiatives of ethno-cultural preservation can impact the post-trip behavioural pattern of the visitors. Visitors with significantly positive perception regarding sustainable initiatives of the destination, such as, ethno-cultural and heritage preservation, environmental awareness and conservation campaign & practices etc., have a strong and positive post-trip behavioural manifestation as their travel motive reinforces the same.

As far as managerial implications of the study are concerned it provides ample indications to the Destination Marketing Organizations (DMOs) to strategise their service offers, specifically for those destinations with proliferative traditional craft practices. DMOs can organise creative workshops for the visitors in a more structured way whereby the visitors can experience the thrill of creative exploration and get an opportunity to socially interact and derive satisfaction. DMOs can also organise exhibition and training programmes for those visitors who are professionally engaged as craftsmen in their own localities, thereby, a

possible economic and business linkage may be established with the local craftsmen and the visitors.

The study has certain limitations with regard to destinations and surveyed groups of visitors. It has been limited to three specific destinations of a state (West Bengal) in India and the visitors group represented a cultural homogeneity. To ensure generalisability, sample may be drawn from culturally diversified population of visitors visiting a wide range of destinations with rich tradition in handicraft practice. 'Crafttourism' may be studied from wider perspectives and may include such variables namely accessibility to destinations, craft-marketing and reach, hospitality, environmental issues etc. The scale is based on self-perception (SP) response. The same measurement can be tried out with importance-rating (IR) scale as there can be discrepancies in response generated between the two (Huang, 2010). Future studies may include, exclude or modify existing item-set measuring 'Crafttourism' to make the scale more robust. The study explored into the cognitive architecture of the visitors and tried to understand their travel motivation on the basis of the opportunity of role-reversal. In future further extrapolations may be taken up to understand whether role-reversal is a critical cognitive differentiator that stimulates behavioural pattern of visitors in the long run. The study provides opportunities to researchers for further extrapolations in the area of travel motivation and to identify new dimensions of 'inclusive tourism'.

References

- Anderson, J., and Gerbing, D. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: a review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103(3), pp. 411-423.
- Baksi, A. K. and Parida, B.B. (2014). Development and validation of Tourism Relationship Management (TRM) framework and assessing its impact on tourism service quality, tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty, *Journal of Tourism*, 14(2), pp.1-21.
- Baksi, A. K. & Parida, B. B. (2013). Impact of green marketing on perceived image and behavioural intentions of consumers: Empirical evidence from restaurant practices, accepted (via email dated: 06-12-2013) for publication in *Tourismos*, Vol.8, Issue 2, pp. 233-258.
- Baksi, A. K. (2013), Moderating impact of Tourism Relationship Management dimensions on tourism service quality, tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty, in *Decision Science Letters*, 3(2), pp.169-186.

Baksi, A. K. & Parida, B. B. (2013), An empirical study to link CRM initiatives with service quality perception, tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty, *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Systems*, 6(2), pp. 64-80.

Baron, C., Field, J. & Schuller, T. (2000). *Social Capital: Critical Perspectives*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Bentler, P.M. and Bonett, D.G. (1980). Significance of tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin*, 88, pp. 588-606

Bigne, J. E., Sanchez, I., and Andreu, L. (2009). The role of variety seeking in short and long run revisit intentions in holiday destinations. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 3(2), 103-115.

Bohmstedt, G., and Borgatta, E. (1981). *Social measurement: Current issues*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Bourdieu, P. (1984). *Distinction: A Social Critique of the Judgment of Taste* (R. Nice, trans.). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. In J. Richardson (ed.) *Handbook of Theory and Research for the Sociology of Education* (pp. 241-258). New York: Greenwood Press.

Campbell, C. & Kelly, M. (1999). *Social Capital and Health*. London: Health Education Authority.

Chi, C. and Qu, H. (2008), examining the structural relationships of destination image, tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty: An integrated approach, *Tourism Management*, 29(4), pp.624-636.

Chuang, S.C. (2007). Sadder but Wiser or Happier and Smarter? A Demonstration of Judgment and Decision Making. *Journal of Psychology*, 141(1), pp. 63-76.

Cohen, D. & Prusak, L. (2001). *In Good Company: How Social Capital Makes Organizations Work*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School.

Cohen, J. (1989). *The Privileged Ape. Lancashire*: Parthenon.

Colantonio, A. (2007). *Social sustainability: An exploratory analysis of its definition, assessment methods metrics and tools*. Oxford: EIBURS Working Paper Series.

Coleman, J. (1988). Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American Journal of Sociology* 94 (3), 95-120.

Cloke, P. (1993). *The countryside as commodity: New spaces for rural leisure*. In S. Glyptis (ed.) *Leisure and the Environment* (pp. 53-65). London: Belhaven.

Crompton, J.L. & McKay, S.L. (1997). Motives of visitors attending festival events. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(2), pp. 425-439.

- Cuccia, T. and Rizzo, I. (2011). Heritage and Tourism: Theoretical and empirical issues, *Tourismos*, Vol.6, No.3, pp. 37-56
- Dann, G. M. (1977). Anomie, ego-enhancement, and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 4, pp. 184-194.
- Dann, G. M., and Jacobsen, J. K. (2002). Leading the tourist by the nose. In G. M. S. Dann (Ed.), *The tourist as a metaphor of the social world* (pp. 209-236). New York: CABI Publishing.
- DeVellis, R. F. (2003). *Scale development: Theory and applications*. London: Sage Publications.
- Faullant, R., K. Matzler, K., and T. A. Mooradian. (2011). Personality, Basic Emotions, and Satisfaction: Primary Emotions in the Mountaineering Experience. *Tourism Management*, 32(6), pp. 1423-1430
- Ferlenger, L. & Mandle, J. (2000). *Dimensions of Globalization*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Flora, C. (2001). *Interactions Between Agroecosystems and Rural Communities*. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press.
- Fodness, D. (1994). Measuring tourist motivation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(3), pp. 555-581.
- Fornell, C., and Larcker, D. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), pp. 39-50.
- Funk, D. C., and Bruun, T. J. (2007). The role of socio-psychological and culture education motives in marketing international sport tourism: a cross-cultural perspective. *Tourism Management*, 28, pp. 806-819.
- Fukuyama, F. (1995). *Trust: The Social Virtues and Creation of Prosperity*. New York: The Free Press.
- George, E.W. (2004). *Commodifying local cultural for rural tourism development: The case of one rural community in Atlantic Canada*. Unpublished dissertation, University of Guelph.
- Getz, D. (2008). Event tourism: Definition, evolution, and research. *Tourism Management*, 29, pp. 403–428.
- Getz, D. (1991). *Festivals, special events, and tourism*. New York, NY: Van Nostrand Reinhold
- Goossens, C. (2000). Tourism Information and Pleasure Motivation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(2), pp. 301-321.

Grappi, S., and F. Montanari. (2011). The Role of Social Identification and Hedonism in Affecting Tourist Re-Patronizing Behaviors: The Case of an Italian Festival. *Tourism Management*, 32(5), pp. 1128-1140.

Gunn, C. & Gunn, H.D. (1991). *Reclaiming Capital*. New York: Cornell University Press.

Hair, J., Black, B., Babin, R., Anderson, R., and Tatham, R. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis* (6th ed.). New York: Prentice Hall.

Han, H., and Jeong, C. (2013). Multi-dimensions of Patrons' Emotional Experiences in Upscale Restaurants and their Role in Loyalty Formation: Emotion Scale Improvement. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 32(March), pp. 59-70

Hancock, T. (1999). People, partnerships and human progress: Building community capital. *Health Promotion International* 16 (3), 275-279.

Hu, L., and P. M. Bentler. (1998). Fit Indices in Covariance Structure Modelling: Sensitivity to Underparameterized Model Misspecification. *Psychological Methods*, 3(4), pp. 424-453.

Huang, S. (2010). Measuring tourist motivation: Do scale matter? *Tourismos*, 5(1), pp.153-162

Hung, K., and Petrick, J. (2010). Developing a measurement scale for constraints to cursing. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37(1), pp. 206-228.

Iso-Ahola, S. E., and Weissinger, E. (1990). Perceptions of boredom in leisure. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 22, pp. 1-17.

Jamieson, W. (1992). Women's role in rural cultural tourism in Western Canada. In W. Nuryanti (ed.) *Universal Tourism: Enriching or Degrading Culture*, 91-99.

Janiskee, B. (1980). South Carolina's harvest festivals: Rural delights for day tripping urbanites. *Journal of Cultural Geography*, 1(1), pp. 96-104.

John, S. (2014). A Study on the role of Tourism in promoting Arts and Crafts – A Case Study on Channapatna Toys, *Proceedings of the Second International Conference on Global Business, Economics, Finance and Social Sciences (GB14Chennai Conference) Chennai, India 11-13 July 2014*, pp. 1-9.

Kassean, H. and Gassita, R. (2013). Exploring tourists' push and pull motivations to visit Mauritius as holiday destination, *Tourismos*, Vol.8, No.2, pp. 39-56

Keohane, N.O., Van Roy, B. & Zeckhauser, R. (1999) *Controlling Stocks and Flows to Promote Quality: The Environment, with Applications to Physical and Human Capital*. Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.

- Kerstetter, D., Confer, J., and Graefe, A. (2001). An exploration of the specialization concept within the context of heritage tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 39, pp. 267-274.
- Kim, Y.G. and Aves, A. (2012). Construction and validation of a scale to measure tourist motivation to consume local food. *Tourism Management*, 33, p.1458-1567
- Kim, Y., and Li, G. (2009). Customer satisfaction with and loyalty towards online travel products. *Tourism Economics*, 15(4), pp. 825-846.
- Kotler, P., Bowen, J.T. and Makens, J.C. (2010). *Marketing for hospitality and Tourism* (3rd edn.), Prentice Hall.
- Lee, Y-K., Lee, C-K. Lee, S-K. and Babin , B. J.. (2008). Festivalscapes and Patrons' Emotions, Satisfaction, and Loyalty, *Journal of Business Research*, 61(1), pp. 56-64
- Liang, Y., Illum, S.F. and Cole, S.T. (2008). Benefits received and behavioral intentions of festival visitors in relation to distance travelled and their origins. *International Journal of Event Management Research*, 4(1), pp. 12-23.
- Lee, C., and Lee, T. (2001). World culture expo segment characteristics. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(3), pp. 812-816.
- Liang, Y., Illum, S. F., and Cole, S. T. (2008). Benefits received and behavioural intentions of festival visitors in relation to distance travelled and other origins. *International Journal of Event Management Research*, 4(1), pp. 12-23.
- Lin, N., Cook, K. & Burt, R. (2001). *Social Capital: Theory and Research*. New York: Aldine de Gruyter.
- Loewenstein, G. (1994). The psychology of curiosity: a review and reinterpretation. *Psychological Bulletin*, 116(1), pp.75-98.
- Long, P. T., Perdue, R. R., & Allen, L. (1990). Rural Resident Tourism Perceptions And Attitudes By Community Level Of Tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(3), pp. 3-9
- Ma, J., Gao, J., Scott, N. and Ding, P. (2013). Customer Delight from Theme Park Experiences: The Antecedents of Delight Based on Cognitive Appraisal Theory. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 42 (July), pp. 359-381
- Magis, K. & C. Shinn. (2009). Emergent principles of social sustainability. In *Understanding the social dimension of sustainability*, ed. J. Dillard, V. Dujon, and M.C. King, 15–44. New York and London: Routledge.
- Mankiew, N.G., Romer, D. & Weil, D.N. (1992). A contribution to the empirics of economic growth. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics* 107, 407-437.
- Mayo, E.& Jarvis, L. P. (1981). *The psychology of leisure travel*. Boston MA: CBI.

- McKercher, B. & du Cros, H. (2002) *Cultural Tourism: The Partnership Between Tourism and Cultural Heritage Management*. New York: The Haworth Hospitality Press.
- McIntosh, R.W., Goeldner, C. R., and Ritchie, J. R. B. (1995). *Tourism principles, practices, philosophies* (7th ed.). New York: Wiley.
- Mercer, C. (2002). *Towards cultural citizenship: Tools for cultural policy and development*. Stockholm: The Bank of Sweden Tercentenary Foundation & Gidlunds förlag
- Mincer, J. (1993). *Studies in Human Capital*. Brookfield, VT: E. Elgar.
- Mogindol, S.H. and Bagul, A.H.B.B.P. (2014). Tourists' perception about an appealing handicraft. *Tourism, Leisure and Global Change*, 1, pp.10-24.
- Murray, D. and Howat, G. (2002). *The relationships among service quality, value, satisfaction, and future intentions of customers at an Australian sports and leisure*, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Nawijn, J., Mitas, O., Lin, Y. and Kerstetter, D. (2013). How Do We Feel On Vacation? A Closer Look at How Emotions Change Over the Course of a Trip. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(2): pp. 265-274
- Netemeyer, R. G., Bearden, W. O., and Sharma, S. (2003). *Scaling procedures: Issues and applications*. London: Sage Publications.
- Nicolau, J. and Mas, F.J. (2006) The influence of distance and prices on choice of destinations: The moderating role of motivations, *Tourism Management*, 27, pp. 982-996
- Palang, H. & G. Fry. 2003. *Landscape interfaces: Cultural heritage in changing landscapes*. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Pearce, R.L. (1993). Defining tourism study as a specialism: A justification and implications. *Teoros International*, 1, pp.25-31
- Pike, S. (2008), *Destination marketing: An integrated marketing communication approach*, Burlington, MA: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Prugh, T.R., Costanza, R., Cumberland, J., Daly, H., Goodland, R. & Norgaard, R.B. (1995). *Natural Capital and Human Economic Survival*. Maryland: ISEE.
- Pustynick, I. (2011). Using craft tourism to maximize revenue for rural hospitality business, <http://ssrn.com/abstract=1749700>, accessed on 12-05-2015
- Putnam, R. (1993). *Making Democracy Work*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Putnam, R.D. (2000). *Bowling alone: The collapse of and revival of American community*. New York: Simon and Schuster.

Ray, C. (2001). Further ideas about local rural development: Trade, production and cultural capital. Working Paper No. 49. Newcastle upon Tyne: Centre for Rural Economy University of Newcastle upon Tyne.

Richards, G. (2015). Developing and Marketing Crafts Tourism, The EUROTEx Project. https://www.academia.edu/5587870/Developing_and_Marketing_Crafts_Tourism, accessed on 12-05-2015

Saji, M. P. & Narayanaswamy, N. (2011). Local Craft Heritage in Contemporary Tourism: The Indian Scenario, *Tourism Development Journal*9(1), pp.34-49.

Saastamoinen, O. (2005). Multiple ethics for multidimensional sustainability on forestry? *Silva Carelica* 49: 37–53.

Schugurensky, D. (2002). Pierre Bourdieu's the Forms of Capital is Published in English. On WWW at http://fcis.oise.utoronto.ca/_daniel_schugurensky/assignment1/1986bourdieu.html.

Schein, E.H. (1985). *Organizational cultural and leadership*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Seltzer, K. (1999). *The Creative Age: Knowledge and Skills for the New Economy*. London: Demos.

Shariff, A. (2005). Toy town changes with new trends, *Deccan Herald*. Published on 2005, March 29.

Shushma, H. (2012). Tourism and handicraft – Exploring the linkages. *Spectrum: A journal of multidisciplinary research*, 1(6), pp. 31-40

Steptoe, A., Pollard, T. M., and Wardle, J. (1995). Development of a measure of the motives underlying the selection of food: the food choice questionnaire. *Appetite*, 25, pp. 267-284.

Sveiby, K. (1998). Intellectual Capital and Knowledge Management. On WWW at <http://www.sveiby.com.au/IntellectualCapital.html>.

Thompson, G.D. (1999) Cultural capital and accounting. *Accounting Auditing & Accountability Journal* 12 (4), 394_442.

UNESCO. 1972. Convention concerning the protection of the world cultural and natural heritage. Adopted by the General Conference at its seventeenth session. 16 November 1972 Paris, France. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO. 2003. Cultural landscapes: The challenges of conservation. Proceedings of the workshop, 11–12 November 2002, Ferrara, Italy. UNESCO World Heritage Papers, no. 7. Paris: UNESCO.

Urry, J. (2002). *The tourist gaze* (2nd ed.). London: Sage.

Vassiliadis, C. and Fotiadis, T.A. (2008). Multiple museum construct motivators—A multivariable analysis with repertory grid analysis (RGS) approach, *Tourismos*, 3(1), pp. 12-35

Wall, E. (1996). Using Social Capital for Measuring Rural Community Health in Southern Ontario. A paper presented at the Annual Meetings for the Rural Sociological Society, August 13_15, Des Moines, Iowa.

Weaver, G.D. and Robinson, L.R. (1989). *Special events: Guidelines for planning and development*. Columbia: University of Missouri.

Yoon, Y. and Uysul, M. (2005), An examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: A structural model, *Tourism Management*, 26(1), pp.45-56.

Yuksel, A. (2007). Tourist Shopping Habitat. Effects on Emotions, Shopping Value and Behaviors. *Tourism Management*, 28(1), pp. 58-69

Yuksel, A., Yuksel, F. and Bilim, Y. (2010), Destination attachment: Effects on Customer satisfaction and cognitive, affective and conative loyalty, *Tourism Management*, 31(2), pp.274-84.

Chapter-4

Entrepreneurship initiatives in community-based rural tourism for sustainable development

1. Introduction

Tourism has the potential to create entrepreneurial opportunities or self-employment which contributes significantly to the overall economic development of the destinations (Sharpley and Forster, 2003; Tao and Wall, 2009; Walpole and Goodwin (2000) and income generation (Briedenhann and Wickens, 2003; Chifamba, 2013; Eshliki and Kaboudi, 2012; Sharpley, 2002; Tao and Wall, 2009). Venture creation not only boost the economic scaffold but also serves as a platform to showcase indigenous culture and craft practices (Ahmed and Jahan, 2013; Cloesen, 2007) and assist the potential entrepreneurs to seek opportunities to develop new tourism products and services (Chiutsi and Mudzengi, 2012).

By engaging in tourism activities, it can reducing the rate of unemployment among the local community (Fons et al., 2011) and thus can substantially reduce the essence of poverty (Fons et al., 2011; Zaei and Zaei, 2013). Akunaay et al., (2003), observed that community participation in the tourism sector is one of the strategies to alleviate poverty. Rural development strategy also identified the tourism sector serves as a major tool for alleviate poverty by emphasizing the rural economy as the engine of economic growth that will stimulate the growth of pro-poor. The poverty rate among people should be eradicated to ensure their quality of life in the good condition. Therefore, the potential of the tourism sector is seen to improve the quality of life and well-being of the community (Aref et al., 2010; Ahn et al., 2002; Fons et al., 2011; Kokkranikal et al., 2010; Liu, 2006; Lordkipanidze et al., 2005; Miller, 2001).

Community-based tourism (CBT) emerged within the alternative tourism discourse as a response

to the issues associated with mass tourism, the perceived need for community involvement in tourism planning and development, and the need for a more sustainable tourism industry (Butler, 1990; Giampiccoli&Saayman, 2014; Murphy, 1985). Interest in community approaches as a means of sustainable development increased further following the 1987

Brundtland Report and the 1992 Rio Summit (Schubert & Láng, 2005). Questions about what sustainability means and for whom still remain inadequately addressed (Mowforth & Munt, 2003).

Tourism growth potential can be harnessed as a strategy for rural development. The development of a strong platform around the concept of rural tourism is definitely useful for a country like India, where almost 74% of the population resides in its 7 million villages. Across the world the trends of industrialization and development have had an urban centric approach. Alongside, the stresses of urban lifestyles have led to a “counter urbanization” syndrome. This has led to growing interest in the rural areas. At the same time this trend of urbanization has led to falling income levels, lesser job opportunities in the total areas leading to an urbanization syndrome in the rural areas. Rural Tourism is one of the few activities which can provide a solution to these problems. Besides, there are other factors which are shifting the trend towards rural tourism like increasing levels of awareness, growing interest in heritage and culture and improved accessibility, and environmental consciousness. In the developed countries, this has resulted in a new style of tourism of visiting village settings to experience and live a relaxed and healthy lifestyle. This concept has taken the shape of a formal kind of rural tourism entrepreneurship. Under this Scheme, thrust will be to promote village tourism as the primary tourism product to spread tourism and its socio-economic benefits to rural and its new geographic regions. Key geographic regions would be identified for development and promotion of Rural Tourism. The implementation would be done through a convergence committee headed by the district collector. Activities like improving the environment, hygiene, infrastructure etc. would be eligible for assistance. Apart from providing financial assistance the focus would be to tap the resources available under different schemes of department of rural development, state governments and other concerned departments of the govt. of India.

The form in which rural tourism is now taking shape can be traced to an International Conference and exhibition on rural tourism in India organised by federation of Indian chambers of commerce and Industry (FICCI) in association with the Udaipur chambers of commerce and Industry in Udaipur (Rajasthan) in 2001. The basic concept of rural tourism was envisaged with benefit accruing to local community through entrepreneurial opportunities, income generation, employment opportunities, conservation and development of rural arts and crafts, investment for infrastructure development and preservation of the environment and heritage. Early movers in adopting the concept of developing and promoting rural tourism have been Rajasthan and Kerala. The outcome of this workshop was a

collaborative effort by the union ministries of tourism & culture, rural development, other nodal agencies and FICCI to plan a 10-year project to market and develop the concept of rural tourism in India. A survey commissioned to A. F Ferguson for the study for the above project estimated that every one million additional visitors to the country could translate into Rs 4300-cr of revenue for the industry. Besides, every one million of additional investment into the tourism sector has the potential of generating 47.5 jobs. And every direct job leads to the creation of another 11 indirect jobs. With the figures in hand the ministry of tourism (MoT) in its national tourism policy, 2002 announced that 'Village tourism will be promoted as the primary tourism product of India to spread tourism and its socio-economic benefits to rural areas'. Direct fallout of this was the endogenous tourism project between the United Nations development programme (UNDP) and the ministry of tourism in 2003. The project focus under the 'Sustainable Livelihood' thematic area will be "to initiate and build upon a number of community level initiatives to address issues of poverty, through group mobilisation around income-generation activities buttressed by skill endowment and credit/resource support issues" (UNDP, 2003).

The 5 broad objectives of this initiative are:

1. To build capacity at the local level.
2. Experiment with location-specific models of community tourism enterprise.
3. Build strong community-private partnerships.
4. Support innovative and promising rural tourism initiatives.
5. Provide inputs to national and state tourism policy.

The project has identified 31 sites in 20 states and has allocated Rs 50 lakh per site for tourism development works. (Ministry of Tourism Government of India)

Rural tourism opens up alternative forms of livelihood and are manifested through rural entrepreneurial ventures. These ventures often showcase the traditional ethno-cultural assets and allow the tourists to experience the vibrant and rich heritage. Rural tourism entrepreneurs are thriving in different rural destinations of India making them an integral part of the larger tourism industry.

Table-1: Rural destinations and traditional practices as entrepreneurial ventures

Sl No.	State	Rural destinations in districts	Entrepreneurial ventures in
1	Assam	Golaghat, Tinsukia, Kamrup, Dhubri	Bamboo crafts, Patta and Moga silk weaving, Terracotta crafts
2	Arunachal Pradesh	East Siang, West Siang	Bamboo cane crafts

3	Andhra Pradesh	Nalgoda, Anantpur, Chittoor, Wrangal, Adilabad	Cotton and silk sarees, Wood craft, Kalamkari works, Scroll paintings, Handloom crafts
4	Bihar	Nalanda, Madhubani	Tusser silk weaving, Madhubani painting
5	Chattisgarh	Bastar, Raipur	Bell metal , Terracotta
6	Delhi	Mubarakpur, Razapur	Minakari
7	Gujarat	Terra, Kucchh, Jamnagar, Navasari	Mirror work,
8	Haryana	Kurukshetra	Dari weaving
9	Himachal Pradesh	Kullu, Kangra	Shawl waeving
10	Jammu & Kashmir	Baramula, Jammu, Srinagar, Anantnag, Udhampur, Rafiabad, Doda, Kupwara, Rajouri	Carpet weaving, Saji crafts, Handloom productions, Kangri and basket making
11	Jharkhand	Amadubi, Kharswan	Pyatkar painting
12	Karnataka	Bellur, Koppal, Kagadu	Stone machinery, Wood Carving, and Musical instruments, Banana Fibre crafts
13	Kerala	Ernakulum, Thiruvananthapuram, Idukki	Boat crafting, Mural painting, Weaving,
14	Madhya Pradesh	Mandla, Ashoknagar, Tikamgarh, Ujjain, Vidisha, Datia, Sehore	Lantana craft, Chanderisarees, Wood and stone craft
15	Maharashtra	Aurangabad, Chinchori	Organic farming, Sufi art & craft
16	Manipur	Thoubal, Tamenglong, Imphal,	Bamboo craft
17	Meghalaya	Jayantia Hills, Garo Hills, Khasi Hills	Bamboo craft
18	Mizoram	Serchchin	Handloom weaving
19	Nagaland	Mokokchung, Zunheboto, Phek, Dimapur	Shawl weaving, Wooden craft, Handloom
20	Odisha	Puri, Mayurbhani, Khurda, Ganjam, Angul	Stone craft, Pattachitra, Applique work, Textile weaving,
21	Puducherry	Alankuppam	Stone craft
22	Punjab	Hoshiarpur, Ropar, Mohali, Amritsar, Chhat	Phulkari embroidery, Glass work, Carpet weaving, Woodcraft
23	Rajasthan	Alwar, Jaipur, Jaisalmir, Barmer	Stone crafts, Lac work, Pepper painting, Gem stone painting, Textile designing
24	Sikkim	East Sikkim, West Sikkim, North Sikkim, Bhanjgyang	Rugs and carpets
25	Tamilnadu	Dharmapuri, Sivaganga, Ramnathpuram, Tirunelveli, Kanchhepuram	Pottery, Palm leaf baskets, Stone carving
26	Tripura	West Tripura, North Tripura, South Tripura	Organic farming
27	Uttarakhand	Almora, Uttar Kashi,	Shawl weaving, Woolen weaving

		Dehradun, Chamoli, Nainital, Rudraprayag	
28	Uttarpradesh	Bareilly, Mathura, Saharanpur, Agra	Ban grass craft, Stone craft
29	West Bengal	Birbhum, Bankura, Nadia, Murshidabad	Terracotta, Silk weaving, Metal crafts, Textile designing, Clay craft, Pottery

Community based rural tourism paves the way for rural entrepreneurship, which, in turn, may play a deterministic role in sustainable development.

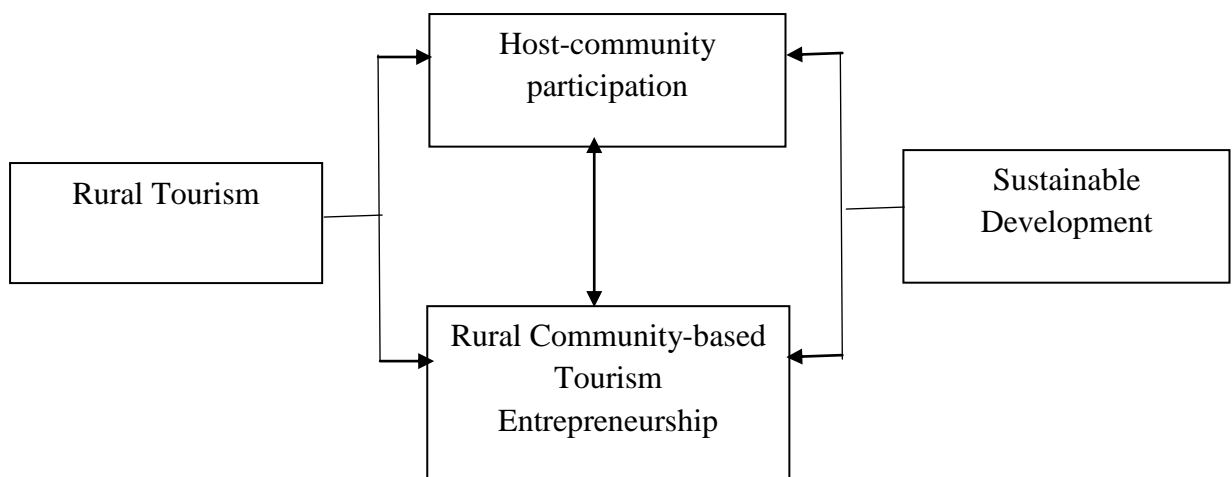


Fig.1: Sustainability framework based on community-based rural tourism

2. Community-based rural tourism

Although sustainable tourism promotes community participation, protection, and improvement of the quality of life for all (France, 1998; Lea, 1988; Roseland, 2005), its top-down approach to distributing empowerment to stakeholders is considered as an obstacle to collaborative community participation (Goodwin and Santilli, 2009; Sebele, 2010). People's participation would highly be determined by the power structure and distribution among the community members, thus rendering the success of any poverty reduction effort dependent on the existing institutional, legal and political framework (Wang and Wall, 2005). Sharing the same goals of sustainability, a new model entitled - the Community-Based Tourism (CBT) became popular in the mid-1990s, reversing the development approach to bottom-up, in an effort to provide real and all-inclusive community participation at all levels of the development (Asker et al, 2010).

The concept of CBT has been defined in various ways focusing on the uniform objective of CBT that it will emphasis is on the issues of sustainability, social equity and environmental responsibility, ensuring that the development provides opportunities for people of different incomes and skills, promotes a better quality of life for all, and protects the environment.

Table-2: Definitions of CBT

Source/ Author	Definition of CBT
WWF International (2001)	A form of tourism “where the local community has substantial control over, and involvement in, its development and management, and a major proportion of the benefits remain within the community.”
Dixey (2005)	Tourism owned and/or managed by communities, that is designed to deliver wider community benefit. Communities may own an asset such as lodge but outsource the management to a tourism company. Alternatively communities may not own the assets on which their tourism enterprise is based (e.g. land, campsite infrastructure inside national parks, national monuments) but are responsible for management and there is an objective of wider community benefit
Goodwin and Santilli (2009)	Tourism owned and/or managed by communities and intended to deliver wider community benefit
Asker et al (2010)	Generally small scale and involves interactions between visitor and host community, particularly suited to rural and regional areas. CBT is commonly understood to be managed and owned by the community, for the community. It is a form of ‘local’ tourism, favouring local service providers and suppliers and focused on interpreting and communicating the local culture and environment
Kibicho(2008)	Empowering local people by generating employment opportunities, thereby improving their incomes and developing their skills and institutions
Zapata et al (2011)	Any business organisational form grounded on the property and self-management of the community’s patrimonial assets, according to democratic and solidarity practices; and on the distribution of the benefits generated by the supply of tourist services, with the aim at supporting intercultural quality meetings with the visitors
Salazar (2011)	Aims to create a more sustainable tourism industry (at least discursively), focusing on the receiving communities in terms of planning and maintaining tourism development
Responsibletravel.com (2013)	Tourism in which local residents (often rural, poor and economically marginalized) invite tourists to visit their communities with the provision of overnight accommodation
Kyrgyz CBT Association (2013)	The practice of providing natural, value-packed travel services that utilize local accommodation, food, music, art, crafts and traditions.

Thailand CBT Institute (2013)	Tourism that takes environmental, social and cultural sustainability into account. It is managed and owned by the community, for the community, with the purpose of enabling visitors to increase their awareness and learn about the community and local ways of life.
SNV-(Netherlands Development Organization) and University of Hawaii (2013)	A type of sustainable tourism that promotes pro-poor strategies in a community setting. CBT initiatives aim to involve local residents in the running and management of small tourism projects as a means of alleviating poverty and providing an alternative income source for community members
World Bank (2013)	Community driven development aims at giving a voice to the stakeholders, involve them in identifying their own needs and the ensuing decision making, encourage them to take responsibility, and mobilize the majority of actors in a given community through a participatory process.

The typical CBT destinations are rural in nature where the indigenous life style, folklore and culture, craft and artefacts, dance and music, cuisine and the natural surroundings become the integral part of CBT products. These products, which are often simple and traditional, constitute an attraction for ideal CBT consumers. These local elements are exotic, novel, natural, soothing and enriching, especially when bundled with the genuine enthusiasm, warmth, and hospitality of the hosts, creating a unique social space for cross-cultural expression and exchange. It may take well-structured and targeted capacity building to empower the community by increasing their awareness about cultural identity, pride, self-confidence, and sense of control, besides providing the new skills and ability to deal with outsiders.

Table-3: CBT products

Single activity or objects daily chores/ production/ products	Culture tours/ walks/ visits/ events/ classes	Nature/ wildlife/ outdoor activities	Significant sites
drumming dance hair braiding craft work handicraft production cookery meal sharing storytelling natural dying bread basket	village tours agriculture tours history tours guided walks school visits language classes seafood event cooking classes	bird watching medicinal use of plants thatching grass herbal tea collection trophy hunting campsite management jungle trekking traditional fishing safaris	hot springs falls rainforest volcanos lakes rivers ancient sites production facilities mountains

pottery		turtles flowers	
		artefact/ craft shopping	

Source: *Community based tourism finding the equilibrium in COMCEC context by Tasci, Semrad and Yilmaz, 2013*

CBT applications in many countries have the common assumption that tourism is adopted because it generates revenue, creates employment, and promotes sectoral growth as well as infrastructural development (WTO, 1997). However, several CBT programmes have failed due to absence of some critical factors such as tangible benefits and employment creation, benefits from the land, management, marketing and entrepreneurial skills, community involvement and participation, sense of ownership of the project amongst the community members, and the lack of local financial resources or heavy reliance on foreign donors. Since each case has unique destination characteristics and stakeholders involved, there are no rigid CBT models that can be applied indiscriminately to all communities.

Table-4: Critical Success Factors (CSFs) for CBT applications

Author/ Source	Critical Success Factors (CSFs) for CBT applications
Dixey (2005)	Market linkages to tourism companies, Proximity to the tourism market, Competitive advantage, Financial management, Visitor handling, Community motivation, Product quality, Community investment
Hiwasaki (2006)	Local community, Participation in decision-making, Partnerships, strengthened institutions, and awareness raising
Kibicho (2008)	Inclusion of stakeholders, Recognition of individual and mutual benefits, Appointment of legitimate convener, Formulation of aims and objectives, Perception that decisions arrived at will be implemented
Goodwin and Santilli (2009)	Social Capital and Empowerment, Local Economic Development, Livelihoods, Conservation/Environment, Commercial Viability, Education, Sense of Place,

	Tourism, Collective Benefits
Asker et al (2010)	<p>The community is already well organized and cohesive, Community members, women, men and youth are, widely involved in decision making processes, and financial management around the CBT, Land ownership and other ‘resource’ issues are clear and well defined, ‘Bottom up desire’, in the community reflected in the facility design, decision-making and management structures, Decision for CBT is made by the community based on informed choice, of impact, options, risk, and outcomes High participation levels, Driver is not purely income generation but also cultural and natural heritage conservation and intercultural learning, The activity is supported by good marketing mechanisms, A strong plan for expansion, and/or to limit visitor numbers in balance with the carrying capacity of the community and environment to avoid adverse effects on both, Strong partnership with local NGOs, relevant government bodies and other supporters, Approaches are contextually and locally appropriate and not just ‘imported’ from other contexts, CBT is part of a broader/wider community development strategy, Linked to visitor education on the value of culture and resources present, Clear zoning of visitor and non-visitor areas, There is good existing infrastructure to access the product</p>
Zapata et al (2011)	<p>Located within a community (i.e. on communal land or with community benefits such as lease fees), Owned by one or more community members (i.e. for the benefit of one or more community members), Managed by community members (i.e. community members could influence the decision making process of the enterprise)</p>
Salazar (2011)	<p>Economically viable: the revenue should exceed the costs, Ecologically sustainable: the environment should not decrease in value, An equitable distribution of costs and benefits among all participants in the activity, Institutional consolidation ensured: a transparent organisation, recognized by all stakeholders, should be established to represent the interests of all community members and to reflect true ownership</p>
Thailand CBT Institute (2013)	<p>Developing based around special elements of local lifestyle, culture, people and nature that community members feel proud of and choose to share with guests, Training locals to prepare and strengthen the community to manage tourism.</p>

Kyrgyz CBT Association (2013)	Relies on participation of local stakeholders, Has to contribute to the local economic development through increasing tourism revenues, Certainly “for-profit,” but its essence is promoting local products and local ownership, Has to develop socially and economically sustainable tourism.
Silva and Wimalaratana (2013)	Undeniable role for the community on cost-benefits sharing principle, Community consultation in tourism related legislations and planning, Projects implemented with the consent and active participation of the community, Community initiated, owned, and managed projects, Community and private/public partnerships, Economically viable and ecologically sound projects, Fair distribution of costs and benefits among involved parties, Institutional consolidation and well-developed institutional environment,, Accountability and transparency of all activities
World Bank (2013)	Ensuring participation at all levels of the community and avoiding the exclusion of marginal groups, Remaining responsive to the priorities of the communities, Establishing a dialogue between the communities and the local government, Ensuring that intermediaries are held accountable to community groups, Be demand oriented, Support policy reforms necessary for the success of a given project undertaken with a community driven approach.

Source: Community based tourism finding the equilibrium in COMCEC context by Tasci, Semrad and Yilmaz, 2013

3. Community-based tourism and entrepreneurship

CBT essentially embeds the concept of entrepreneurship. Community-based tourism entrepreneurship signifies a departure from the conventional tourism planning and management approaches to put local communities at the epicentre of tourism product development and distribution chain. In the past tourism has been largely accepted as an economic sector that has potential to grow the national economies by including poor people as beneficiaries in this growth through working in the industry as cheap sources of labour for the large tourism conglomerates (Kaplinsky and Morris, 2004). Hampton (2005) noted that although local communities are custodians of tourism attractions they are not always involved in decisions about their heritage and cultural sites nor do they receive any meaningful benefits from tourism development. Community-based tourism intervenes to create an

ecosystem whereby the host community becomes an integral part of the tourism entrepreneurship. The community-based tourism entrepreneurship strategy can be propagated through the pro-poor tourism development approaches that fall mainly into 3 categories:

- Increasing access to economic benefits, for example, availing business and employment benefits, training of communities and spreading income to the whole community rather than one individual.
- Addressing negative social and environmental impacts of tourism such as demonstration effect, commodification of culture, loss of land and grazing lands for domestic animals.
- Focusing on policies, processes and partnerships. Focus on policies that remove barriers to poor participation, participation in tourism planning processes, partnerships between the private sector and poor people in developing new tourism products (Scheyvens, 2007).

The philosophy of entrepreneurship through community-based tourism spans over the idea of providing community empowerment. Entrepreneurial ventures using community-based tourism as a platform in the rural context necessarily has a deep sense of understanding of social issues governing the rural community namely resource exploitation, environmental degradation, ethno-cultural dilution, carrying capacity of the destination, alternative form of livelihood, rural-urban migration etc. Community empowerment, therefore, emerges as a major outcome of the entrepreneurial practice which can lead to sustainability in assorted dimensions.

Table-5: Community empowerment

Author/ Source	Elements of Community Success Factors in Community-based tourism (CBT)	Community Empowerment Dimension
Scheyvens, R., Manyara, G.; Jones	<p>1. Income & employment</p> <p>a. Economic benefits through tourism ventures</p> <p>b. Local ownership of businesses, small and medium business enterprises (SMEs)</p> <p>c. Capacity building, training and</p>	Economic empowerment

	<p>entrepreneurship/skills development</p> <p>d. Community assets</p> <p>e. Local employment</p>	
<p>UNEP, Russell, P., Jamal, T.; Stronza, A</p>	<p>2. Community pride & self esteem</p> <p>a. Participation, involvement, collaboration</p> <p>b. Educational & training activities (to identify self needs), having knowledge/information</p> <p>c. Tourist/resident satisfaction</p> <p>d. Protecting local identity</p>	<p>Psychological empowerment</p>
<p>Li, Y., Tosun, C.</p>	<p>3. Community cohesion</p> <p>a. Participation, involvement, collaboration</p> <p>b. Community cohesion, networking, sense of community</p> <p>c. Interaction among stakeholders</p> <p>d. Quality of life</p> <p>e. Respect for local culture and tradition, preservation and showcasing as tourism products</p> <p>f. Tourism resource conservation</p> <p>g. Important role of women in development</p>	<p>Social empowerment</p>
<p>Billington, R.D.; Carter, N.; Kayamba, L., Matarrita- Cascante, D.</p>	<p>4. Shift in power balance</p> <p>a. Participation, involvement, collaboration</p> <p>b. Support from local/national government</p> <p>c. Visionary and passionate leaders</p>	<p>Political empowerment</p>

The principle of sustainable tourism has been argued to have implications in all forms of tourism namely mass tourism, alternative tourism and community-based tourism. However, a careful comparison between the two raises important considerations for the development and management of tourism, ranging from conceptual and theoretical issues to issues of scale and size, as well as the engagement of the public/private sectors and the role of residents in matters of public good and societal well-being. The scale and scope of tourism and the numerous stakeholders that drive sustainable tourism and community-based tourism make it extremely difficult to manage the local to global commons for environmental, social and cultural sustainability. Sustainable tourism is generally conceived of on a larger scale compared to local community. In contrast, community-based tourism has its origins in the local community, focusing on grassroots development through participation, equity and empowerment and emphasizes local enterprises developed through local knowledge and entrepreneurship (Lucchetti, V.G.; Font, X., 2012). One of the major discourses of community-based tourism initiatives lies in the manner they are evaluated for output and performance. It provides a holistic view and expands the realm of evaluation of tourism entrepreneurship by incorporating a qualitative approach in addition to the quantitative taken on by sustainable tourism. In community-based tourism the qualitative indicators in association with the quantitative indicators to monitor and evaluate social sustainability, social and environmental justice, improving well-being of marginalized, disadvantaged groups, racism, gender equity, democratic participation and local control, social cohesion and inclusion of local knowledge.

Tourism Policy of 2002 of Government of India considered the dynamics of rural and community based tourism and introduced the concept of rural tourism to show case the rural life of Indian country side to visitors. Since then the scheme has been implemented in 107 villages across the country and the results have been mixed, but the success stories indicate that wherever successful; host communities involvement was an important factor (Ministry of Tourism, Government of India, 2012). The Himalayan state of Sikkim provides a successful case of community-based tourism where entrepreneurial ventures centering tourism has flourished, thereby, stimulating sustainable development. The physical features of the state include rugged mountains, deep valleys and dense forests consort with raging rivers, lake and waterfalls. The state has the steepest rise in altitude over the shortest distance and has within its 7,096 sq. kms the entire climatic range, from tropical to temperate to alpine. Sikkim covers 0.2 per cent of the geographical area of the country and has tremendous biodiversity

and has been identified as one of the hot spot in the Eastern Himalayas. Sikkim falls under Himalayan bio-geographic zone and Central Himalaya biotic province (Champion and Seth, 1968). The cultural diversity of the state comes from its three major tribes of Lepcha, Bhutia and Nepalese. The Lepchas were the original inhabitants of Sikkim. The Lepchas are predominantly the Buddhists but many of them are also Christians. The Nepalese migrated in large numbers in Sikkim from Nepal. They introduced the terraced system of cultivation. Today, the Nepalese constitute more than 80 per cent of the total population of Sikkim. Nepalese are sub divided into Limboo, Tamang, Chettri, Rai, Gurung, Newars, Sherpa and Bhawan (Chaudhary and Lama, 2014). Tourism plays a significant role in the economy of Sikkim. Ministry of Tourism, Government of India is promoting 11 villages under Rural Tourism project in Lachen in north; Chumbung, Tingchim, ManiramBhanjyang, Rong, SrijungaMartam and Darap in west; Pastenga, Pendam GadiBudang and Tumin in East and Jaubari in South Sikkim. The UNESCO project for the development of Cultural Tourism and Ecotourism in the Mountainous Regions of Central and South Asia is sponsored by the Norwegian Government which aims to promote cooperation between local communities, national and international NGOs, tour agencies in order to involve local populations fully in the employment opportunities and income generating activities that tourism can bring in form of rural tourism and village tourism. The following are the villages supported under UNESCO project Dzongu, Kewzing, Yuksom, Uttarey, Darap, Hee-Bormiok, Lachen, Assangthang, Kabi, Chumbong and Rey Mindu.

In a study involving the Rey Mindu tourism project and Kewzing tourism area (Chaudhary and Lama, 2014), it was revealed that community-based tourism has ensured broad-spectrum engagement of local community in tourism services. The micro and small ventures are targeted not only to market the local productions but these ventures are also used to promote the essence and significance of the Sikkimese ethno-cultural heritage and its preservation. Kewzing Tourism Development Committee (KTDC) is a community tourism project established in the year 2002 with the help of an NGO, Sikkim Development Foundation (SDF). In 2004 ECOSS (NGO based in Gangtok) has formed a committee for promoting community tourism. Rey Mindu tourism project was launched in 2007. The initial tourism activities included receiving guest at the village entrance, i.e., the Buddhist Monastery, taking them to village tour, showing them the farming activities and local living conditions, offering Lepcha cuisine and exposing the visitors to local ethno-cultural practices. A number of small and micro entrepreneurial initiatives were formed starting from guide-service to souvenir shops to eateries. This project is launched with greater care in order to understand the

response of the host community and responses of the host community and the attitude of the visitors. Community-based tourism model has ensured economic, cultural and environmental sustainability in the state of Sikkim.

Community-based tourism has also brought the region of Kadalundi Vallikkunnu Community Reserve(KVCR) of coastal Kerala into the limelight of sustainable development. It was one among the first three community reserves in India declared on 18th October 2007 with the implication that 152 hectares of estuarine area will be preserved. The Kadalundi Vallikkunnu Community Reserve (KVCR) is located on the western side of the northern Kerala in Kozhikode and Malappuram districts on the river mouth of Kadalundi River spreading in the estuary. It extends in Kadalundi of Kozhikode Taluk of Kozhikode district and in Vallikkunnu of Tirurangadi Taluk of Malappuram district. The estuarine is the winter-shrine for a large community of migratory birds. The natural beauty of Kadalundi estuary, mangrove vegetation and the water-rich areas which reflect the coconut palms and nearby trees contribute to its scenic beauty. Being declared as a community reserve did not help the local community to improve their socio-economic condition, though, the scope was there to encash the opportunity arising out of tourist traffic. Therefore the community-based tourism initiatives started to take over from 2010 as local community participated in the tourism process. Local community ensured a balance between the growth and penetration of tourism and vulnerable ecosystem and cultural assets. The estimation of carrying capacity was one such activities. Entrepreneurial ventures started with the concept of homestay as the local community modified their own residence without much civil expansion. KVCR has become a unique model of sustainability through community-based tourism.

The Ladakh Himalayan Home stays program(www.Himalayan-Homestays.com) fosters conservation-based and community managed tourism development in remote settlements, through a process of participatory skills development, capacity building and program ownership. It stands out as a decisive example that seeks to be sensitive to both host and visitor expectations without compromising the aspirations of host communities, while also balancing these concerns with conservation of the area's unique cultural and natural heritage. Villagers decided tourism was an opportunity that had potential and one that was giving them little benefit at the time even though some 5000 visitors were passing through the Park and their settlements. Starting in 2000, with initial assistance from The Mountain Institute and later UNESCO's financial support, villagers and Snow Leopard Conservancy-India Trust (SLC-IT) developed a community based tourism program that would generate income and require minimal capital investment on the part of the villagers (see definition below). For all

participating groups it was an opportunity to develop and demonstrate how an income generating activity such as ecotourism, could be fully integrated with wildlife conservation, and the protection of one of Himalaya's most charismatic and elusive species and an important Ladakhi cultural symbol, the snow leopard. From 17 visitors who stayed with four families in 2002, the number has risen to 700 visitors in 2007 with about 98 families spread across 20 villages in the various regions of Hemis National Park, Sham, Zaskar and Spiti (the latter in Himachal Pradesh). The physical investment in one home stay is about Rs.1500(sheets, buckets, etc.) but the providers have to commit to participate in training and skill development. In the six years since the programme started, homestay incomes have reached an average of over Rs. 12,000/- perhousehold.

Community-based tourism, with an objective to open-up entrepreneurial scope and ensure sustainability, was also initiated in Choti Haldwani in the Nainital district of Uttarakhand district of India. The destination is well known as Jim Corbett's village. In 2001, Choti Haldwani was one of the four villages chosen to implement a community-based tourism (CBT) project. The project titled 'Community Based Tourism in Corbett National Park and Binsar Wildlife Sanctuary (India): A Case Study of Multi stakeholder Tourism Planning for the CBN (Corbett National Park, Binsar Wildlife Sanctuary, Nainital) Landscape' was funded by the LEAD grant, IUCNHimal and relying on resources from local NGOs, operators and communities. The four villages chosen were Kyari, Choti Haldwani, Bhakrakot in Corbett National Park and Dalar in Binsar Wildlife Sanctuary. Appreciative Participatory Planning and Action (APPA) method was adopted to identify the focal tourism operatives and five specific activities were identified: a) Corbett heritage trail, b) homestays, c) guiding services, d) Moti souvenir shop and e) information kiosk. The Corbett Gram Vikas Samiti was formed in 2002 to help implement the project at the village level, to conduct meetings, generate income and help in organising visits of people from coming from outside. The initiative has been a successful one as the revenue generation model based on the five activities identified worked in community's favour.

Facing the issues of illegal poaching in the mangrove forest of the Sundarbans by some local unemployed youth, the Field Director of the Tiger Reserve and WWF India West Bengal State Office initiated various conservation activities that would involve local people – one of the ideas was community based tourism. They invited Help Tourism, a tour operator and destination management consultant, to develop a community-based tourism demonstration project. In 2000, Help Tourism first visited Bali Island, the place which was identified for this intervention. This model project since then has been implemented by Help Tourism and is supported by NGO - Association for Conservation and Tourism (ACT), Sunderbans Tiger Reserve (STR), World Wide Fund for Nature-India West Bengal State Office (WWF), Bali Nature and Wildlife Conservation Society (BNWCS), Wildlife Protection

Society of India (WPSI) and Bali Eco Development Committees. In 2003, 3 cottages were built on 1 ½ acres of land donated to BNWCS, who is also a partner of the project. During the next two years, Help

Tourism built capacities of the local community in regard to hospitality, guiding, cuisine, laundry, etc. To introduce tourists and tourism to the community, Help Tourism devised a strategy of getting in ‘mock tourists’. In 2004-05 (Oct-Mar) they received approximately 235 guests, 642 in 05-06, 900 in 06-07 and over 1300 in 07-08. The initiative not only engaged the local youth in revenue generating activity, but also spread the message of sustainability and biodiversity preservation.

4. Implications for policy formulation

Community-based tourism serves dual purpose. On one hand it engages host community in socio-economic development and ethno-cultural preservation by enabling and empowering them to use local resources and individual capabilities and on the other hand it ensures environmental stability and sustainability. The policy makers should understand the implication of this win-win combination. Community-based tourism should be given a proper direction and policies are required to encourage such initiatives on the entrepreneurial platform. The policy makers should also focus on capacity building programmes as there is a severe geographic heterogeneity in this respect.

While there is a lot of ready infrastructure available for utilization, the local communities need capital to upgrade the existing infrastructure and present a competitive product in the market. One of the major problems faced by the community-based tourism is the lack of appropriate forward and backward linkages that deny the entrepreneurial initiatives to be viable in the long run. Most of the community-based tourism are doing well as long as they are part of sponsored or funded projects and as the project ends the tourism initiatives lack the vibrancy. The policy makers must frame an appropriate sustainability model for the entrepreneurs in tourism sector.

Reference

Ahmed, I & Jahan, N. (2013). Rural Tourism-Prospects in Rustic Bengal, *European Journal of Business and Management* 5(16), 163-172.

Ahn, B., Lee, B & Shafer, C. (2002). Operationalizing sustainability in regional tourism planning: An application of the limits of acceptable change framework, *Tourism Management* 23(1), 1-15.

Akunaay, M., Nelson, F & Singleton, E. (2003). Community Based Tourism in Tanzania: Potential and Perils in Practice. Paper work through tourism Conference. Tanzania. 7-12 December 2003.

Asker, S., Boronyak, L., Naomi, N.& Paddon, M. (2010). Effective Community Based Tourism: A Best Practice Manual. Last viewed on 03/05/2013, on the WWW: <http://www.isf.uts.edu.au/publications/askeretal2010effectivecbt.pdf>.

Aref, F, Gill, S.S& Aref, F. (2010). Tourism Development in Local Communities: As a Community Development Approach, *Journal of American Science* 6(2), 155-161.

Billington, R.D.; Carter, N. & Kayamba, L. (2008). The practical application of sustainable tourism development principles: A case study of creating innovative place-making tourism strategies. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 8, 37–43.

Briedenhann, J & Wickens, E. (2004). Tourism Routes as a Tool for the Economic Development of Rural Areas - Vibrant Hope or Impossible Dream? *Tourism Management* 25(1), 71-79.

Butler, R. W. (1990). Alternative tourism: Pious hope or Trojan horse? *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(3), 40–45.

Chaudhary, M & Lama, R.(2014)Community Based Tourism Development in Sikkim of India—A Study of Darap and Pastanga Villages ,*Transnational Corporations Review*,6:3,228-237,DOI: [10.5148/tncr.2014.6302](https://doi.org/10.5148/tncr.2014.6302)

Chiutsi, S & Mudzengi, B. K. (2012). Community Tourism Entrepreneurship for Sustainable Tourism Management in Southern Africa: Lessons from Zimbabwe, *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences* 2(8), 127-133.

Chifamba, E. (2013). Confronting the Challenges and Barriers to Community Participation in Rural Development Initiatives in Buhera District, Ward 12 Zimbabwe, *Journal of Agricultural Science* 2(7), 138-149.

Cloesen, U. (2007). Entrepreneurship within Rural Tourism: A Private Walkway on Banks Peninsula, New Zealand, *Tourism* 55(1), 81-91.

Dixey, L. (2005). Inventory and Analysis of Community Based Tourism in Zambia. Last viewed on 03/02/2019, on the WWW:

<http://fsg.afre.msu.edu/zambia/resources/PROFIT%20Community%20Tourism%20Survey%20-%20Final%20CBT%20Report.pdf>.

Eshliki, S. A & Kaboudi, M. (2011). Community Perception of Tourism Impacts and Their Participation in Tourism Planning: A Case Study of Ramsar, Iran. ASEAN Conference on Environment-Behaviour Studies, Savoy Homann Bidakara Bandung Hotel, Bandung, Indonesia, 15-17 June 2011. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences* 36, 333-341.

Fons, M. V. S., Fierro, J. A & Patino, M. G. (2011). Rural tourism: A sustainable alternative, *Applied Energy* 88(2), 551-557.

France, L. (1998). Local participation in tourism in the West Indian Islands. In Laws, E., Faulkner, B., and Moscardo, G. (Eds.), *Embracing and managing change in tourism* (pp. 223–224). London: Routledge.

Giampiccoli, A., & Mtapuri, O. (2014). The role of international cooperation in community based tourism. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(4), 638–653.

Goodwin, H., and Santilli, R. (2009). Community-based tourism: A success? Last viewed on 09/12/2018, on the WWW: <http://www.andamandiscoveries.com/press/press-harold-goodwin.pdf>.

Hiwasaki, L. (2006). Community-based tourism: A pathway to sustainability for Japan's protected areas. *Society and Natural Resources*, 19(8): 675-692. doi: 10.1080/08941920600801090.

Jamal, T. & Stronza, A. (2009). Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: Stakeholders, structuring and sustainability. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17, 169–189.

Kibicho, W. (2008). Community-based tourism: A factor-cluster segmentation approach. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(2): 211-231. doi: 10.2167/jost623.0.

Kokkranikal, J., McLellan, R & Bau, T. (2010). Island Tourism and Sustainability: A Case Study of the Lakshadweep Islands, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 11(5), 426-447.

Lea, J. (1988). *Tourism development in the Third World*. London: Routledge.

Li, Y. (2004) Exploring community tourism in China: The case of Nanshan cultural tourism zone. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 12, 175–193.

Liu, A. (2006). Tourism in Rural Areas: Kedah, Malaysia, *Tourism Management* 27(5), 878-889.

Lordkipanidze, M., Brezet, H. & Backman, M. (2005). The Entrepreneurship Factor in Sustainable Tourism Development, *Journal of Cleaner Production* 13(8), 787-798.

Lucchetti, V.G.; Font, X. Community based tourism: Critical success factors. Available online: [www. icrtourism.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/03/OP27.pdf](http://www.icrtourism.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/03/OP27.pdf) (accessed on 10 February 2019).

Manyara, G. & Jones, E. (2007). Community-based tourism enterprises development in Kenya: An exploration of their potential as avenues of poverty reduction. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 15, 628–644.

Matarrita-Cascante, D. (2010). Beyond growth, reaching tourism-led development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37, 1141–1163.

- Miller, G. (2001). The development of indicators for sustainable tourism: results of a Delphi survey of tourism researchers, *Tourism Management* 22(4), 351-362.
- Mowforth, M., & Munt, I. (2003). *Tourism and Sustainability: Development and New Tourism in the Third World* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.
- Murphy, P. E. (1985). *Tourism: A Community Approach*. London: Methuen.
- Responsibletravel.com. (2013). Last viewed on 18/01/2019, on the WWW: <http://www.responsibletravel.com/copy/what-is-community-based-tourism>.
- Roseland, M. (2005). Towards sustainable communities: Resources for citizen and their governments. Gabriola Island: New Society Publishers.
- Russell, P. (2000). Community-based tourism. *Travel and Tourism Annals*, 5, 89–116.
- Salazar, N. (2012). Community-based cultural tourism: Issues, threats and opportunities. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 20(1): 9-22. doi: 10.1080/09669582.2011.596279.
- Schubert, A., & Láng, I. (2005). The literature aftermath of the Brundtland Report ‘Our Common Future’: A scientometric study based on citations in science and social science journals. *Environment, Development and Sustainability*, 7(1), 1–8.
- Scheyvens, R. (1999). Ecotourism and the empowerment of local communities. *Tourism Management*, 20, 245–249.
- Sebele, L.S. (2010). Community-based tourism ventures, benefits and challenges: Khama rhino sanctuary trust, central district, Botswana. *Tourism Management*, 31(1): 136-146. doi: 10.1016/j.tourman.2009.01.005.
- Sharpley, R., & Forster, G. (2003). The implications of hotel employee attitudes for the development of quality tourism: The case of Cyprus. *Tourism Management*, 24(6), 687–697.
- Sharpley, R. (2002). Rural Tourism and the Challenge of Tourism Diversification: The Case of Cyprus, *Tourism Management* 23(3), 233-244.
- Silva, D. A. C. & Wimalaratana, W. (2013). Community Based Sustainable Tourism Development in Sri Lanka: Special Reference to Moneragala District. on the WWW: <http://www.haroldgoodwin.info/PPT/PPTMonaragala.pdf>. (accessed on 03/02/2019)
- Tao, T. C. H and Wall, G. (2009). Tourism as a Sustainable Livelihood Strategy, *Tourism Management* 30(1), 90-98.
- Tasci, A.D.A., Semrad, K. J. & Yilmaz, S.S. (2013) Community based tourism finding the equilibrium in COMCEC context. Retrieved from www.comcec.org on 28/02/2019
- Thailand Community Based Tourism Institute (CBT-I). (2013). Last viewed on 28/02/2019, on the WWW: www.cbt-i.org.

Tosun, C. (2000). Limits to community participation in the tourism development process in developing countries, *Tourism Management*, 21, 613–633.

United Nations Environment Program (UNEP). A Three Year Journey for Sustainable Tourism. Available online at: http://www.unep.org/resourceefficiency/Portals/24147/scp/tourism/activities/taskforce/pdf/TF%20REPORT_FINAL.pdf (accessed on 9 February 2019).

Walpole, J. M & Goodin, H. J. (2000). Local Economic Impacts of Dragon Tourism in Indonesia, *Annals of Tourism Research* 27(3), 559-576.

Wang, Y. & Wall, G. (2005). Sharing the benefits of tourism: a case study in Hainan, China, *Environments Journal*, 33 (1): 41-59.

World Bank. (2013). Regional study on community based tourism in the Caucasus. Last viewed on 28/052/2019, on the WWW:

[http://Inweb90.worldbank.org/eca/eca.nsf/d1e666886eb626e2852567d100165168/780a475bed61c07852568fc005df707/\\$FILE/Regional%20Studies%20on%20Community-Based%20Tourism%20in%20the%20Caucasus.pdf](http://Inweb90.worldbank.org/eca/eca.nsf/d1e666886eb626e2852567d100165168/780a475bed61c07852568fc005df707/$FILE/Regional%20Studies%20on%20Community-Based%20Tourism%20in%20the%20Caucasus.pdf).

Zaei, M. E & Zaei, M. E. (2013). The Impacts of Tourism Industry on Host Community, *European Journal of Tourism Hospitality and Research* 1(2), 12-21.

Zapata, M., Hall, C., Lindo, P. & Vanderschaeghe, M. (2011). Can community-based tourism contribute to development and poverty alleviation? Lessons from Nicaragua. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 14(8): 725-749. doi: 10.1080/13683500.2011.559200.

Chapter-5

Models for Sustainable Tourism and Ethno-cultural Preservation

1. Introduction

Sustainable tourism have been explained with the help of a number of models, most of which have been tested in the global tourism context. The tourism literature has thus far provided no generally accepted theoretical framework(s) through which one may assess progress toward sustainability. Indeed, the few theoretical works that have been offered in this area have been met with skepticism (Collins 2001). Given the highly applied nature of the tourism literature, such skepticism is understandable; formal theoretical models may be viewed as little more than complex mathematical abstractions, whose outcomes are largely driven by ad hoc assumptions. From an economic perspective, however, it is precisely the abstract nature of these models that allows for the provision of insights unavailable through empirical case studies.

The complementary role of theoretical and empirical treatments of sustainability may be seen in the renewable resource literature. For example, the fisheries literature complements a substantial body of empirical work with a theoretical literature illuminating the role of tradeoffs in optimal steady-state outcomes (Clark 1990; Clark, Clarke, and Munro 1979). These formal mathematical models—often denoted bioeconomic models—assist in identifying tradeoffs associated with different variants of sustainability, assessing the optimality of different resource trajectories, and identifying implications for stakeholder groups (Dasgupta and Heal 1974; Johnston and Sutinen 1996; Reed 1984). Although such models are often based on general notions of social outcomes (net economic benefits) and relatively abstract specifications of natural phenomena (e.g. general mathematical specifications of growth functions and carrying capacity), such abstractions allow less obscured focus on fundamental questions of interest.

2. Bio-economic model of Sustainable Tourism: Tourism Optimization Management Model (TOMM)

Kangaroo Island is a pristine wilderness - a place that has offered protection to substantial populations of native Australian animals, a place of beauty and a place of escape. Kangaroo Island is also big and surprisingly diverse. Soaring cliffs, dense bushland, towering sand dunes, wetlands and massive arcs of bone white beach are some of the natural backdrops of the island apart from its rich flora and fauna. As the third largest island off the coast of mainland Australia, Kangaroo Island is more than a day-trip destination. At 155 kilometres long and up to 55 kilometres wide, it covers an area of 4,416 square kilometres.

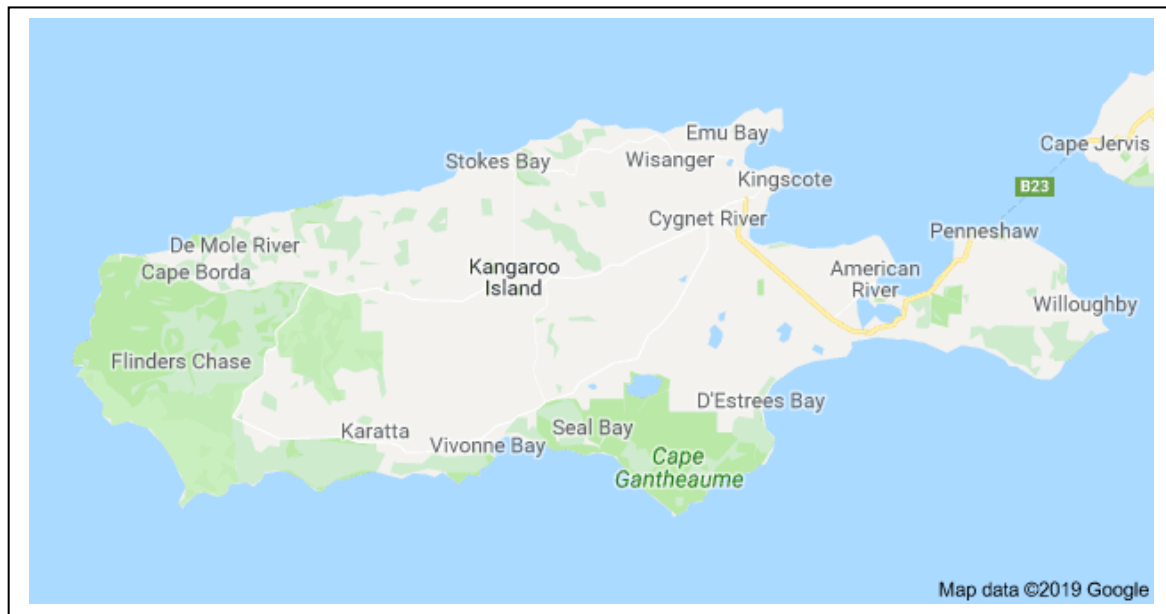


Fig.1: Kangaroo Island

Tourism Optimization Management Model (TOMM) was initially designed to monitor sustainability initiatives pertaining to:

- a) economic condition
- b) tourist traffic
- c) environmental health
- d) tourist experience
- c) health of the host-community.

However, as the project evolved, the focus enlarged to a stature that not only highlights the benefits of tourism, but a project that actually demonstrates that communities and individuals can take action to facilitate attitudinal change to promote more sustainable tourism given sufficient time, energy and resources. To implement TOMM as a comprehensive model to monitor sustainability in non-urban tourism destinations, a committee was formed and an elaborate charter was framed to incorporate:

- a) Sustainability
- b) Conservation and environment
- c) Effective communication
- d) Innovation
- e) Teamwork
- f) Integrity
- g) Commitment
- h) Leadership
- i) Partnership
- j) Persistence
- k) Passion and commitment
- l) Continuous improvement

The approach to TOMM was different from other impact monitoring frameworks such as Visitor Impact Management Model (VIMM) and Limits of Acceptable Change (LAC).

TOMM focuses on an integrated approach to sustainable tourism management and alleviates concern regarding restriction of tourism growth, by:

- a) Avoiding use of the terms ‘impact’ and ‘limits’ which the tourism industry interpret as discouraging growth and thus business;
- b) Focusing on the entire tourism system rather than just its ecological and market components;
- c) Providing for the involvement of all stakeholders, through a partnership approach and grounding the systems within community processes;
- d) Serving a multitude of stakeholders, operating at a regional level over a range of protected area and private land tenures (Twyford, 2001).

A pivotal attribute of the TOMM concept has been the integration of a management response system, which alerts the key stakeholders, including the host-community, about those indicators that are not performing within their acceptable range, or to other issues that require advanced monitoring. This cause and effect & response relationship allows for effective and timely management action. It also results in the evolution of a sustainable tourism model in line with the changes occurring within the island ecosystem. The development of the TOMM required extensive consultation to identify the values of the host-community and natural & ethno-cultural assets of the destination to develop the probable indicators and forms the first

of a three-stage process comprising of a) context analysis, b) monitoring programme and c) management response system (Manidis Roberts Consultants, 1997). The development of the TOMM approach is represented in Fig. 2.

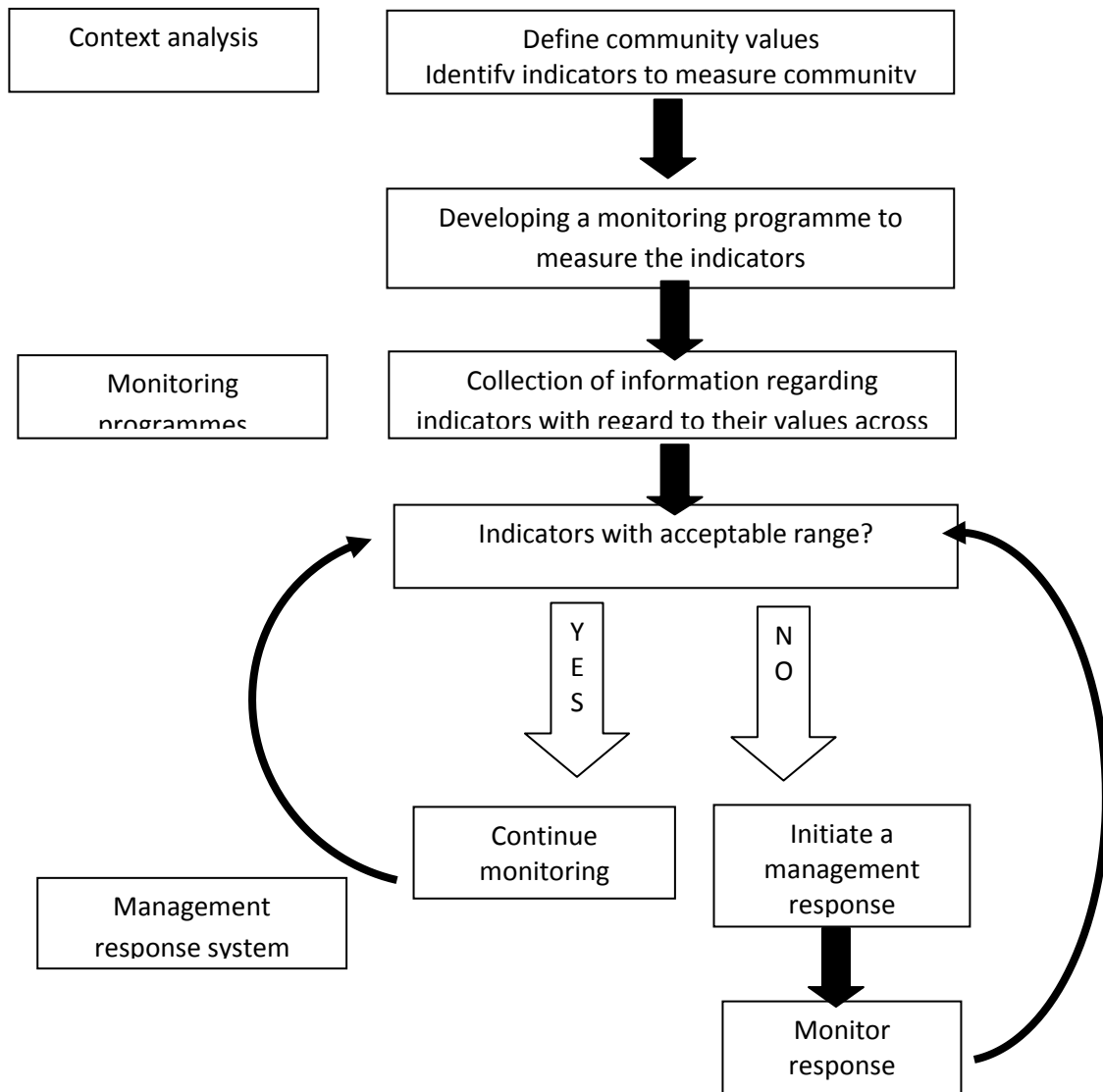


Fig.2: The TOMM approach

(source: Measuring for a sustainable tourism transition: The challenge of developing and using indicators by Miller and Twining-Ward)

a) Context analysis

The context analysis phase analyses the present situation of tourism activity in the destination, including tourist traffic, tourism expansion (in terms of revenue, geographical realm and tourist traffic), tourism products, market opportunities, social and ethno-cultural issues and host-community involvement. Simultaneously, it forecasts a host of alternative scenarios which can be used to develop optimal conditions that tourism should aim to create. These optimal conditions form the foundation of the sustainable tourism indicators. The destination marketers, policy makers, tourism service providers and the host-community can use this scenario-based planning framework to govern the various issues affecting the tourism process, its impact on the environment, social and ethno-cultural aspects and stakeholders and can even manage drastic changes. A destination can use scenarios as follows:

- a) significant increase in tourism demand
- b) significant decrease in tourism demand
- c) significant increase in overseas tourist
- d) increase/ decrease in annual overnight stays and day visits
- e) investment commitment in tourism products
- f) availability of operators in key service areas

These scenarios can be used in combination with available tourism products and host-community involvement to forecast the trends of tourism for a specific destination.

The analysts listed an explicit list of optimal conditions and vis-à-vis indicators (Table-1)

Table-1: TOMM optimal condition and indicators

Condition	Indicators
Environmental	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The majority of the number of visits to the island's natural areas occur in designated visitor service zones • Ecological processes are maintained or improved (where visitor impact has occurred) in areas where tourism activity occurs • Major wildlife populations attracting visitors are maintained and/or enhanced where tourism activity occurs • The majority of tourism accommodation operations have implemented some form of energy and water conservation practice
Economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The majority of visitors stay longer than two nights • The growth of local employment within the tourism industry is consistent • The tourism industry undergoes steady growth in tourism yield • Seasonal fluctuations in the number of visits are limited and relatively smooth

Market opportunity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Operators use market data to assist in matching product with market segment opportunities • There is an integration of business, regional, state and national tourism marketing programmes • A growing proportion of visitors come from the cultural/environmental segments of the domestic and international markets
Experiential	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tourism promotion of natural areas is realistic and truthful to that actually experienced by most visitors • The visitor experience is distinctly different from other destinations • The majority of visitors leave the destination highly satisfied with their experience
Sociocultural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The majority of residents feel they can influence tourism related decisions • Residents feel comfortable that tourism contributes to a peaceful, secure and attractive lifestyle • Residents are able to access nature-based recreational opportunities that are not frequented by tourists

Source: Manidis Roberts Consultants (1997)

Monitoring programme

The monitoring phase of TOMM is quite critical in its success and is developed in accordance with the identified optimum conditions and based upon a series of indicators that enable mapping of current situation to optimal or desired situation. The identified indicators may be assessed using the following criteria:

- a) degree of relationship with actual tourism activity
- b) accuracy of measurement
- c) utility and applicability
- d) availability of data
- e) cost of collecting data and analysis of the same

Considering the optimal conditions an acceptable range is fixed to generate a realistic measurement for the identified indicators based on the information available from various sources. It is a continuous process as the knowledge regarding the indicators keep on enhancing and new measurement ranges are fixed.

The subjective nature of the measurement ranges of TOMM is one of its weak points, however, the purpose is to provide a focus for the monitoring programmes and enable the reporting of impacts within a range as identified to be acceptable by the stakeholders. It is most likely that the measurement ranges will change over time and necessary modifications and adjustments are to be made to make the measurements correct. This approach enables the

host-community to comprehend the changing trends of tourism and allows them to be preemptive. The two major monitoring systems identified for development are (a) visitor exit survey and (b) annual resident survey.

As a case for the Kangaroo Island the analysts listed an explicit list of optimal conditions and vis-à-vis indicators (Table-2)

Table-2: TOMM optimal condition and indicators for Kangaroo Island

Conditions	Indicators
<i>Environmental</i>	
The majority of the number of visits to the island's natural areas occurs in designated visitor service zones	The proportion of Kangaroo Island visitors to the island's natural areas who visit areas zoned specially for managing visitors
Ecological processes are maintained or improved (where visitor impact has occurred) in areas where tourism activity occurs	Net overall cover of native vegetation at specific sites
Major wildlife populations attracting visitors are maintained and/or enhanced where tourism activity occurs	Number of seals at designated tourist sites Number of hooded plover at designated tourist sites Number of osprey at designated tourist sites
The majority of tourism accommodation operations have implemented some form of energy and water conservation practice	Energy consumption/visitor night/visitor Water consumption/visitor night/visitor
<i>Economic</i>	
The majority of visitors to Kangaroo Island stay longer than 2 nights	Annual average number of nights stayed on Kangaroo Island
The tourism industry undergoes steady growth in tourism yield	Annual average growth in total tourism expenditure on Kangaroo Island per number of visitors
The growth of local employment within the tourism industry is consistent	Annual average growth in direct tourism employment
Seasonal fluctuations in the number of visits are limited and relatively smooth	Annual variation in room nights sold between peak and low season
<i>Market opportunity</i>	
Operators use market data to assist in matching product with market segment opportunities	Number of operators using market data in Kangaroo Island and operator plans
There is integration of business, regional, state and national tourism marketing programmes for Kangaroo Island	Number of cooperative marketing campaigns such as joint brochures and advertisements
A growing proportion of visitors come from the cultural/ environmental segments of the domestic and international markets	Proportion of visitors that match ATC cultural/ environmental segmentation profile The number of visits to Kangaroo Island
<i>Experiential</i>	
Tourism promotion of wildlife experiences in	Proportion of visitors who believe their

Kangaroo Island's natural areas is realistic and truthful to that actually experienced by most visitors	experience was similar to that suggested in advertisements and brochures
The visitor experience is distinctly different from other coastal destinations in Australia	Proportion of visitors who believe they had an intimate experience with wildlife in a natural area
The majority of Kangaroo Island visitors leave the island highly satisfied with their experience	Proportion of visitors who were very satisfied with interpretation provided on a guided tour
<i>Sociocultural</i>	
The majority of residents feel they can influence tourism related decisions	The proportion of residents who feel the local community can influence the type of tourism on Kangaroo Island
Residents feel comfortable that tourism contributes to a peaceful, secure and attractive lifestyle	Number of petty crime reports committed by non-residents per annum Number of traffic accidents involving non-residents per annum Proportion of the community who perceive positive benefits from their interactions with tourists
Residents are able to access nature-based recreational opportunities that are not frequented by tourists	Proportion of residents who feel they can visit a natural area of their choice with very few tourists present

Source: Manidis Roberts Consultants (1997)

Management response system

The TOMM management response system assesses the information received from the monitoring programmes and compares these with the optimal conditions fixed for the destination. The interpretation of this information allows the stakeholders to identify problems, areas of opportunity and potential actions required to address these. Trends generated through the indicators are reported through survey results and also visually represented by way of simple charts showing if the optimal condition was met or not.

The management response system is the most important element of the TOMM as it generates tangible evidence of the TOMM process and ensures policy makers, host-community, tourism service providers and individuals are kept informed about the potential tourism impacts.

Although TOMM was developed and first implemented on Kangaroo Island, the progression and effective implementation of management responses have been slow, leading to criticism from some sectors of the community. This has meant TOMM has faced a battle to survive as it has grown, changed shape and concentrated on ways of ensuring its maintenance in the long term. As the issues of resourcing are resolved, the focus will shift from survival to

effective and improved implementation. Table-3 gives us an idea about a comprehensive TOMM reporting system in the context of sustainable tourism of Kangaroo Island, Australia.

Table-3: TOMM Reporting Format

Conditions	Indicators	Acceptable range	Results Please √ or X	Outcome
<i>Environmental</i>				
The majority of the number of visits to the island's natural areas occurs in designated visitor service zones	The proportion of Kangaroo Island visitors to the island's natural areas who visit areas zoned specially for managing visitors		<input type="checkbox"/>	
Ecological processes are maintained or improved (where visitor impact has occurred) in areas where tourism activity occurs	Net overall cover of native vegetation at specific sites		<input type="checkbox"/>	
Major wildlife populations attracting visitors are maintained and/or enhanced where tourism activity occurs	Number of seals at designated tourist sites		<input type="checkbox"/>	
	Number of hooded plover at designated tourist sites		<input type="checkbox"/>	
	Number of osprey at designated tourist sites		<input type="checkbox"/>	
The majority of tourism accommodation operations have implemented some form of energy and water conservation practice	Energy consumption/visitor night/visitor		<input type="checkbox"/>	
	Water consumption/visitor night/visitor		<input type="checkbox"/>	
<i>Economic</i>				
The majority of visitors to Kangaroo Island stay longer than 2 nights	Annual average number of nights stayed on Kangaroo Island		<input type="checkbox"/>	
The tourism industry undergoes steady growth in tourism yield	Annual average growth in total tourism expenditure on Kangaroo Island		<input type="checkbox"/>	

	per number of visitors			
The growth of local employment within the tourism industry is consistent	Annual average growth in direct tourism employment		<input type="checkbox"/>	
Seasonal fluctuations in the number of visits are limited and relatively smooth	Annual variation in room nights sold between peak and low season		<input type="checkbox"/>	
Market opportunity			<input type="checkbox"/>	
Operators use market data to assist in matching product with market segment opportunities	Number of operators using market data in Kangaroo Island and operator plans		<input type="checkbox"/>	
There is integration of business, regional, state and national tourism marketing programmes for Kangaroo Island	Number of cooperative marketing campaigns such as joint brochures and advertisements		<input type="checkbox"/>	
A growing proportion of visitors come from the cultural/ environmental segments of the domestic and international markets	Proportion of visitors that match ATC cultural/ environmental segmentation profile		<input type="checkbox"/>	
	The number of visits to Kangaroo Island		<input type="checkbox"/>	
Experiential				
Tourism promotion of wildlife experiences in Kangaroo Island's natural areas is realistic and truthful to that actually experienced by most visitors	Proportion of visitors who believe their experience was similar to that suggested in advertisements and brochures		<input type="checkbox"/>	
The visitor experience is distinctly different from other coastal destinations in Australia	Proportion of visitors who believe they had an intimate experience with wildlife in a natural area		<input type="checkbox"/>	
The majority of Kangaroo Island visitors leave the island highly satisfied	Proportion of visitors who were very satisfied with		<input type="checkbox"/>	

with their experience	interpretation provided on a guided tour			
<i>Sociocultural</i>				
The majority of residents feel they can influence tourism related decisions	The proportion of residents who feel the local community can influence the type of tourism on Kangaroo Island		<input type="checkbox"/>	
Residents feel comfortable that tourism contributes to a peaceful, secure and attractive lifestyle	Number of petty crime reports committed by non-residents per annum		<input type="checkbox"/>	
	Number of traffic accidents involving non-residents per annum		<input type="checkbox"/>	
	Proportion of the community who perceive positive benefits from their interactions with tourists		<input type="checkbox"/>	
Residents are able to access nature-based recreational opportunities that are not frequented by tourists	Proportion of residents who feel they can visit a natural area of their choice with very few tourists present		<input type="checkbox"/>	

Source: Manidis Roberts Consultants (1997)

One of the challenges for models like TOMM is to generate immediate short-term visible results to satisfy the demands of the stakeholders. TOMM is a long-term monitoring programme whereby reliable information pertaining to sustainability are generated over a period of time.

Such an explicit and extensive integrated monitoring process takes time to gain momentum and stakeholders' confidence.

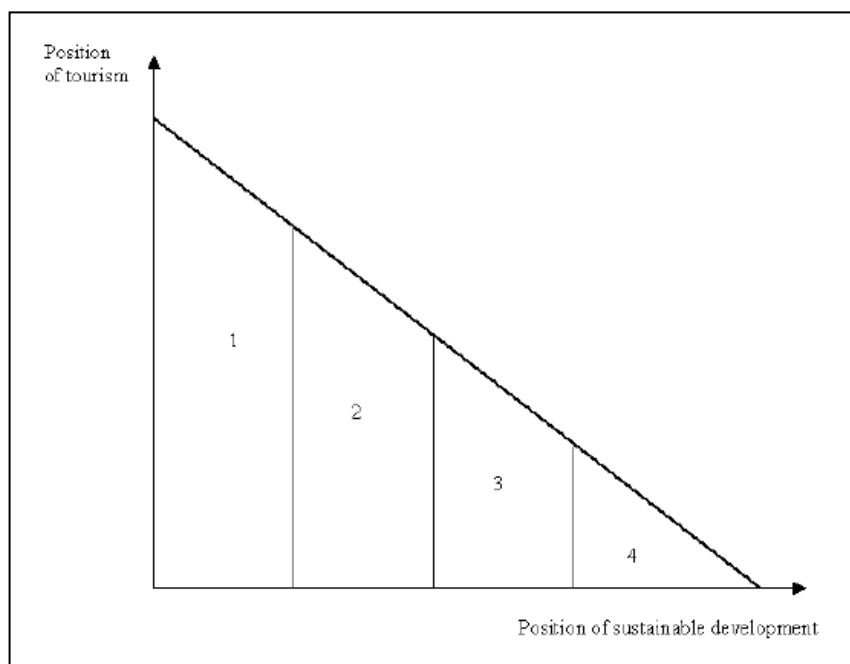
Monitoring methods, indicators and optimal conditions are to be refined to fit the practical reality of implementation. For example, the original TOMM indicators failed to incorporate accurately defined indicators to enable proper reporting, and subsequently, some of the TOMM indicators presently in use for Kangaroo Island, differ from those originally devised. Nevertheless, TOMM is producing valuable results over and above the information reported

through the indicators. This information is being used by key government agencies and policy makers. Implementation of TOMM requires partnerships at multiple levels between governance, community-based environmental groups, host-community and tourism industry representatives.

In the movement towards sustainable tourism, the development of TOMM, with its integrated focus across all stakeholders, the formal management response structure and active implementation and ownership building within the host-community, offers a tangible and practical example of the ongoing development, implementation and testing of a sustainable tourism management model applicable to non-urban (rural) destinations, heritage destinations and communities globally (Jack and Duka, 2004).

3. Auxiliary model of Sustainable Tourism

An auxiliary model concept involving diverse stages of operations of sustainable tourism, in relation to different environment and socio-economic realm was proposed also by C. Hunter (1997, as cited in Mika, 2008). Following a comprehensive analysis of the implications of tourism and degree of sustainable development within diverse destinations, four variants of functioning of tourism within sustainable development were identified namely (a) domination of tourism, (b) tourism determined by product, (c) tourism determined by environmental issue and (d) minimalised tourism. This can be graphically represented as a decreasing function representing relationships between tourism and sustainable development (Fig. 3).



Variant	Position of tourism	Position of sustainable development
1	domination of tourism	Very weak
2	tourism determined by product	Weak
3	tourism determined by environmental issue	Strong
4	Minimalized tourism	Very strong

Fig.3: Variants of functioning of tourism in sustainable development

Limitations in Hunter's model lies in the fact that it excludes the possibility of a mass tourism that would take into account the principles of sustainable development. Therefore, this model undermines the idea of sustainable tourism as the one that takes into account the principles of sustainable development.

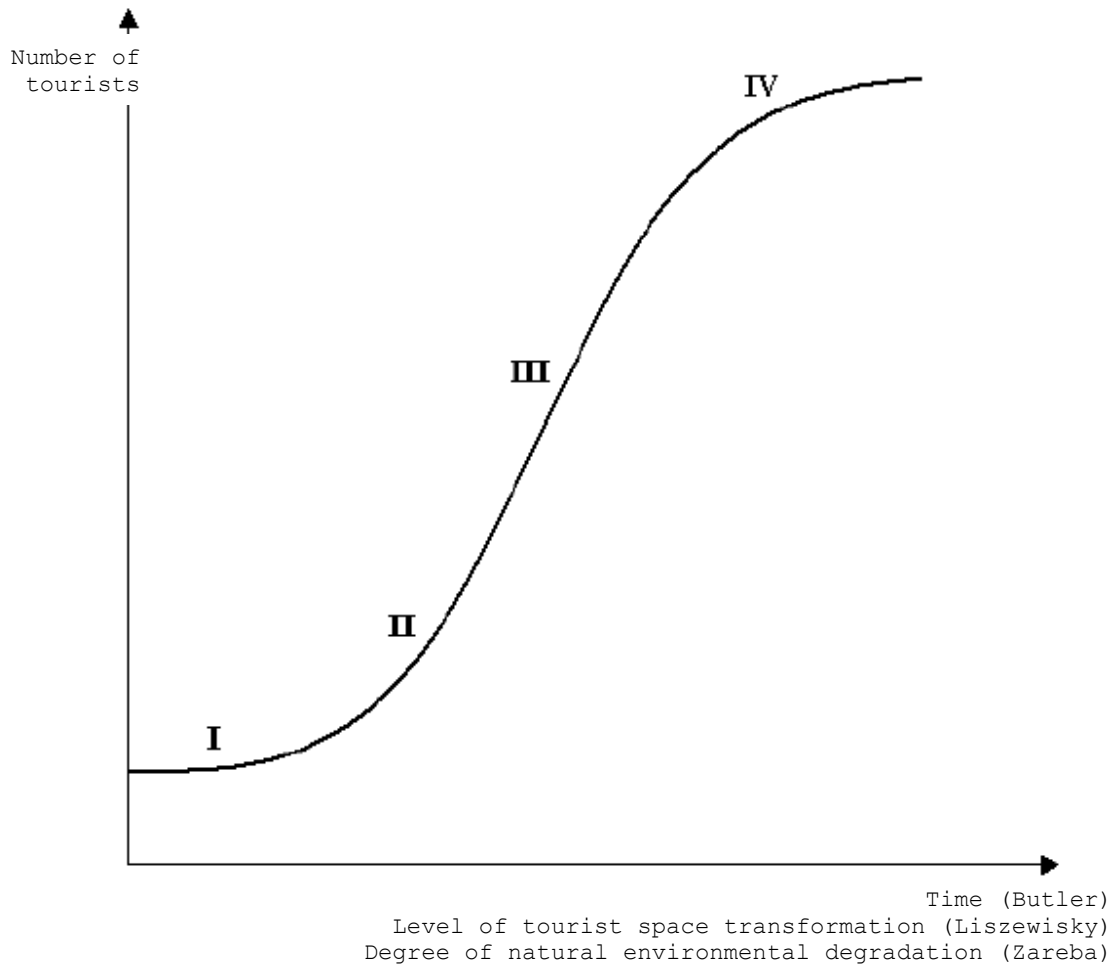
Durydiwka et al. (2010) assumed that the conception of sustainable tourism (ST) focuses on three types of tourism functions, namely, a) natural environment values (ST_{natural}), b) cultural environment values (ST_{cultural}) and c) qualifying skills (ST_{qualifying}). They represented sustainable tourism with the help of a formula as:

$$ST = ST_{\text{natural}} + ST_{\text{cultural}} + ST_{\text{qualifying}} + (ST_{\text{natural}}/k \times ST_{\text{cultural}}/k \times ST_{\text{qualifying}}/k)$$

Where k = correction factor

This formula refers to a holistic conception of sustainable tourism, which means that it should be understood as a combination of various forms of tourism, complemented by common objectives, such as: care for the natural environment, preserving the social and ethno-cultural fabric, limiting the negative effects for host-community, bringing economic benefits to destination and meeting the demands of tourists.

A similar model of sustainable tourism dealing with possibilities of occurrence of undesirable changes can be constructed out of three theoretical models of tourism: a) Tourist Area Life Cycle (TALC) (Butler, 1980), b) Tourist space (Liszewski, 1995), and c) Changes in the natural environment under the influence of tourism (Zaręba, 2010). The curve of dependences occurring between tourist traffic at a specific destination at a given time (Butler), the level of tourist space transformation (Liszewski) and the degree of the environmental degradation (Zaręba) is almost identical. After the analysis of the curve in each model (after simplification) one can distinguish four stages of changes in the direction from the state of the initial balance to the state of a new & modified balance. These four stages are elaborated in Figure 4.



Conception Stage	Tourist Area Life Cycle (TALC) (Butler, 1980)	Tourist space transformation (Liszewski, 1995)	Degree of natural environmental degradation (Zareba, 2010)
I	Exploration	Original balance	Exploration
II	Introduction	Threat	Penetration
III	Development	Degradation	Colonization
IV	Consolidation and stagnation	New balance	Urbanization

Fig.4: Tourism in the function of time, spatial changes, and environmental changes

Butowski (2012) proposed a theoretical (short-term) model of sustainable tourism.

The purpose of the sustainable tourism model construction is to present in a complete and explicit form of the concept in the short-term perspective. Butowski (2012) proposed the model, designed as a theoretical construct, to render in the most complete way the ideas of sustainable tourism, and at the same time to be appropriate for teaching and guiding purposes as well as to constitute a theoretical basis for detailed application models. The model is apprehended to be robust and versatile, i.e. applicable in all conditions, on every destination

and for varied type of tourism. Another condition, which was required in order to meet all the other criteria, was the necessity to use mathematical function dependencies and notation (explicitness of the model). The simplicity of the form, facilitating the understanding of the model, is ensured through limiting the number of variables and consideration of the possibility of occurrence of change of independent variables and their influence on dependent variables (the dynamic factor). It allows to observe, and especially to predict the effects of these changes, in the context of their consequence for sustainable tourism. by the graphic illustration of the model.

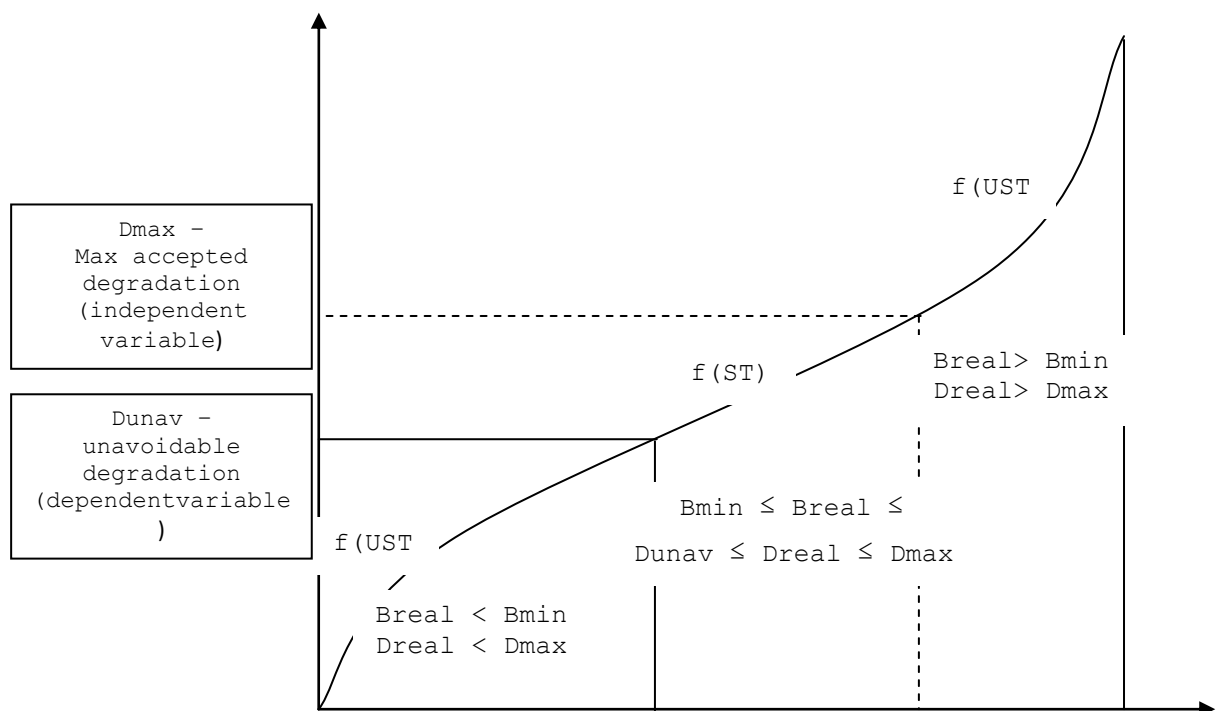


Fig.5: Theoretical (short-term) model of sustainable tourism; source Butowski (2012)

Breal- Real benefits,
Dreal- Actual level of degradation,
Bmin- Minimum benefits expected,
Dmax- Maximum accepted degradation
Dunav- Unavoidable degradation
f(UST)- Unsustainable tourism
f(ST) - Sustainable tourism

Butowski's (2012) model was grounded on certain assumptions.

1. The objective of sustainable tourism is to strive for a balance between tourist activities and community development.
2. Increase in tourism activities is directly proportional to the degradation of destination's physical and cultural environment.

3. An auxiliary assumption has been made regarding reverse dependency between benefits derived by tourists and host community focusing on a mutual and symbiotic balance.

Explanations for the main model

1. Benefits from tourism – benefits acquired by tourists visiting a given reception area and benefits of the local population (including service providers, local governance etc.), resulting from development of tourism:

- min accepted benefits (B_{min}) denotes the minimal accepted level of fulfilling needs of tourists and host community, beneath which the acquired benefits will be evaluated as insufficient.
- max benefits (B_{max}): denotes the maximal accepted (in sustainable tourism conditions) level of fulfilling needs of both tourists and host community.
- real benefits (B_{real}): the real level of benefits acquired by tourists and local community in relation to tourism developing on a given area.

2. Costs of tourism development – degradation of the natural and anthropogenic (social, cultural, economic) environments on a tourist reception area, resulting from developing tourism:

- max accepted degradation (D_{max}): denotes the highest accepted in sustainable tourism (i.e. not resulting in irreversible changes) level of degradation of both environments model graph;
- unavoidable degradation (D_{unav}): denotes the level of unavoidable degradation of both environments resulting from developing tourism; its size is measured with the numerical value of the D_{unav}
- real degradation (D_{real}): the real level of degradation of the natural and anthropogenic environments occurring on a reception area in relation to tourism developing there.

The dependent and independent variables used in the model are:

Table-4: List of dependent and independent variables

Independent variables	Dependent variables
Minimum accepted benefits (B_{min})	Unavoidable degradation (D_{unav})
Maximum accepted degradation (D_{max})	Maximum benefits (B_{max})

4. A proposed theoretical model for sustainable rural tourism and ethno-cultural preservation

Rural tourism offers a different kind of challenge to the tourism industry. The vulnerable ecosystem, rural livelihood, demographic spread and the carrying capacity of the destination play significant role in shaping rural tourism. In addition, the rural destinations are the hub of transgenerational practice of indigenous craft and other ethno-cultural practices. In practice, it was observed that the degree of environmental intervention stimulated by tourism activities in rural destinations are far more compared to the urban counterpart. One of the main reasons for this is the raw and comparatively unadulterated exposure of rural natural environment compared to the surrogated urban natural environment. Due to influx of tourism activities a considerable amount of change is apprehended in the rural ecosystem, rural livelihood, demographic spread and the carrying capacity leading to a strive of maintaining a balance between economic and environmental (both physical and ethno-cultural) interests. The proposed model of rural sustainable tourism is loosely based on Durydiwka et al's (2010). The model focuses on four types of tourism functions: a) values of natural environment, b) values of social environment (perspectives from host community), c) values of ethno-cultural environment, d) the qualifying skills. Each of these functional aspects possess dual dimensional impact probability: (i) reaped benefits (max. and min.) and (ii) extent of degradation (max. and min.). The proposed model can be represented as:

$$SRT = [f(BNV_{max}) + f(BSV_{max}) + f(BEth-Cul_{max}) + f(BQS_{max}) + (BNV_{max}/k + BSV_{max}/k + BEth-Cul_{max}/k + BQS_{max}/k)] - [f(BNV_{deg}) + f(BSV_{deg}) + f(BEth-Cul_{deg}) + f(BQS_{deg}) + (BNV_{deg}/k + BSV_{deg}/k + BEth-Cul_{deg}/k + BQS_{deg}/k)]$$

Where, SRT: Sustainable Rural Tourism
 f(BNV_{max}): maximum benefit values of natural environment
 f(BSV_{max}): maximum benefit values of social environment
 f(BEth-Cul_{max}): maximum benefit values of ethno-cultural environment
 f(BQS_{max}): maximum benefit values of qualifying skills
 f(BNV_{deg}): maximum degradation values of natural environment
 f(BSV_{deg}): maximum degradation values of soviaal environment
 f(BEth-Cul_{deg}): maximum degradation values of ethno-cultural environment

$f(BQS_{deg})$: maximum degradation values of qualifying skills

k: correction factor

The model can be empirically tested in a rural tourist destination for its refinement and application.

5. Conclusion

Notwithstanding the substantial empirical and conceptual literature addressing aspects of sustainability in recreation and tourism (Clarke, 1997; Collins, 1999), there remains no widely accepted definition of sustainable tourism (Swarbrooke 1998). The concept remains subject to substantial confusion, with regard to its both precise implications and the specific patterns of resource use it implies (Collins 1999). This confusion is particularly evident with regard to specific tradeoffs, policies, actions, or indicators that are consistent with notions of sustainable tourism, leading some to suggest that sustainability as a concept may represent more of a guiding fiction or commercial mantra than a meaningful concept (Shumway 1991; McCool, Moisey, and Nickerson 2001; Collins 1999; Clarke 1997). To a significant extent, this may reflect a broader lack of formalism in common definitions of sustainability (Chichilinsky 1997; Tyrrell 1999). Modelling on sustainable tourism, in itself, is a challenge due to its dynamic nature. Thus far, the researchers have proposed static bio-economic models in general without having specific focus on rural tourism. Johnston and Tyrrell (2005) proposed a dynamic model of sustainable tourism. But they also denied the fact that there could be a universal sustainable optimum. Rather, they were of the opinion that sustainability are as good as policy frameworks in its effective implementation forms.

Rural Tourism in India is now one of the niche tourism products which hold good potential to attract upmarket clients who would like to run away from hustle bustle of concrete city life and be in rural environment seeking mental peace. Rural home stays are designed to attract tourists who desire to learn more about the varied life styles and crafts of our many villages. This also creates jobs in villages and thus it brings a halt on the exodus from villages to major cities. This facilitates local talents service in tourism sector as stake holders. Rural Tourism thus fulfils Govt's Objective of diversification of tourism products & create local employment in distant villages. It works out very well for our country and especially boosts tourism industry. Rural Holiday circuits which are now being focused are Hodka, Kachchh District, Gujarat, Kumbalangi, Ernakulam District, Kerala, Aranmula, Pathanamthitta District, Kerala Karaikudi (Chettinad), Sivaganga District, Tamil Nadu Pochampalli,

Nalgonda District, Andhra Pradesh, Banawasi, Uttar Kannada District, Karnataka, Pranpur, Ashok Nagar District, Madhya Pradesh, Naggar, Kullu District, Himachal Pradesh and West Bengal. In view of the expected intervention with the pristine natural environment that exist in these destinations and the rich ethno-cultural heritage that has been carried forward for generations, sustainable rural tourism models will ensure dynamic approach in policy formulation pertaining to preservation and recovery of natural and ethno-cultural assets.

References

Butowski, L. (2012). Sustainable Tourism – A Model Approach, Visions for Global Tourism Industry - Creating and Sustaining Competitive Strategies, Dr. Murat Kasimoglu (Ed.), ISBN: 978-953-51-0520-6, InTech, Available from: <http://www.intechopen.com/books/visions-for-global-tourism-industry-creating-and-sustainingcompetitive-strategies/sustainable-tourism-a-modeling-approach> (accessed on 12/01/2019).

Butler R.W. (1980). The Concept of a Tourist Area Cycle of Evolution: Implication for the Managment of Resources, *The Canadian Geographer*, 25, pp. 151–170

Chichilnisky, G. (1997). What Is Sustainable Development? *Land Economics* 73 (4): 467-91.

Clarke, J. (1997). A Framework of Approaches to Sustainable Tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 5: 224-33.

Clark, C.W., Clarke F.H. and Munro, G.R. (1979) The Optimal Exploitation of Renewable Resource Stocks: Problems of Irreversible Investment. *Econometrica*, 47, 25-47. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1912344>

Collins, A. (1999). “Tourism Development and Natural Capital.” *Annals of Tourism Research* 26 (1): 98-109.

Dasgupta, P. & Heal, G. (1974) The Optimal Depletion of Exhaustible Resources *The Review of Economic Studies*, 41, 3-28

Hunter C. (1997). Sustainable tourism as an adaptive paradigm, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24, 4, pp. 850–867

Jack, E. and Duka, T.J. (2004) Kangaroo Island Tourism Optimisation Management Model: it's easy for you you're an island. In: WTO (ed.) *WTO Signposts for Sustainable Tourism: Guidebook to the Development and Use of Indicators of Sustainable Development for Tourism Destinations*. WTO, Madrid, p. 399.

Jhonston, R. J. & Tyrrell, T. (2005). A dynamic model of sustainable tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43, 1-11

Johnston, J. R. & Sutinen, G. J. (1996). Uncertain Biomass Shift and Collapse: Implications for Harvest Policy in the Fishery. *Land Economics*. 72. 10.2307/3146912.

Manidis Roberts Consultants (1997) *Developing a Tourism Optimisation Management Model*. Manidis Roberts Consultants, Surrey Hills, UK.

McCool, S. R., N. Moisey, and N. Nickerson (2001). "What Should Tourism Sustain? The Disconnect with Industry Perceptions of Useful Indicators." *Journal of Travel Research* 40 (2): 124-31.

Miller, G. and Twining-Ward, L. (2003) *Indicators of Sustainable Tourism*. European Union and University of the South Pacific Public Lecture, Suva, Fiji, 27 August.

Shumway, N. (1991). *The Invention of Argentina*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Singh, J. & Narban, J. S. (2015). Rural Tourism in India – A model of Rural Culture and Heritage, *International Journal of Advance Research and Innovative Ideas in Education*, 1(5), 531-538

Swarbrooke, J. (1998). "Sustainable Tourism Management." New York: CABI Publishing.

Tyrrell, T. J. (1999). "Economic Issues in Environmentally Sustainable Coastal Tourism." Paper presented at the World Congress on Coastal and Marine Tourism, April 26, Vancouver, Canada.

Twyford, K. (2001) Protected area management: principles and practices. In: Worboys, G., Lockwood, M. and De Lacy, T. (eds) *Protected Area Management: Principles and Practices. CD Compendium*. Oxford University Press, South Melbourne.

Conclusion

The development of infrastructure in rural areas having potential for tourism is being supported under the existing scheme of destination development. The objective is to showcase rural life, art, culture and heritage at rural locations and in villages, which have core competence in art & craft, handloom, and textiles as also an asset base in the natural environment. The intention is to benefit the local community economically and socially as well as enable interaction between tourists and local population for a mutually enriching experience. Under this scheme, the thrust is to promote village tourism as the primary tourism product to spread tourism and its socio-economic benefits to rural and its new geographic regions, thereby stopping the exodus from rural to urban areas. The Village Level Council (VLC) is the interactive forum for local community participation in work plan implementation, further supported by other community level institutions. For the visitor, whose expenditure creates revenue for host community service providers, rural tourism adds value through packaged programmes in art & craft imparted by skilled local artisans. Village entertainment groups unveil local history and culture, natural and oral treasures. The visitor thus comes face to face with India's rural traditions. So far, 153 rural tourism projects in 28 States/Union Territories have been sanctioned by the Ministry of Tourism including 36 rural sites where UNDP has supported for capacity building.

The marketing initiatives to showcase rural tourism in India has received considerable attention of the Ministry of Tourism (MoT), Govt. of India. Globally recognized Incredible India brand, now supported by the Ministry's new Explore Rural India sub-brand, is strengthening the visitors' attraction to India as a multiple-interest, all-season destination targeting higher visitor yields. Community participation in rural tourism has been strengthened through the site artisans' structured involvement in Dilli Haat, Mega Craft Mela in cities such as Bhubaneswar, Aurangabad etc., India@60 road show in Singapore and Volvo Ocean Race in Cochin. Wide media 28 Annual Report 2009-10 and trade focus were also given at the World Tourism Mart (WTM) and International Tourism Bourse (ITB), the world's principal tourism forums. At the India@60 event in Singapore, as a unique first-time highlight, eight skilled artisans from four of the Ministry's UNDP-partnered rural tourism locations showcased their site attraction through impressive on-site art & craft demonstration and display. The eight participating artisans, many of those who travelled overseas for the

first time, gained first-hand exposure to international competitive, merchandising and promotional practices. This enabled their extensive direct interface with the tourism trade, consumers, craft stores, corporate organizations, and the media. The artisans from 5 rural tourism sites participated in the Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA) Travel Mart held in September 2008 to showcase their arts & crafts. 15 rural tourism sites have been selected as rural eco-holidays sites for Visit India Year 2009. Under this marketing campaign of Visit India Year 2009 foreign tourists are offered one night stay with breakfast on complimentary basis in any one of the chosen rural eco-holiday site. The booking can be done through the Tour Operators approved by the Ministry of Tourism.

Experiential tourism can be one of the most lucrative offers for the rural tourism. It can stimulate the process of role-reversal. Tourists can actually enact the role of producers of rural tourism-products. Several tourism destinations all over India have handicraft production units. Tourists may be allowed to be a part of the production team by providing their own inputs in terms of design, composition, ideas, sketches, drawings, ingredients etc. This will affirm the bond between the visitors and the host-community and will function as a platform of cultural exchange. Exposure to indigenous culture and heritage will also ensure deep understanding of the significance of the same and propagate ethno-cultural preservation.

Community-based tourism can be an ideal model for sustainable rural-tourism initiative. One of the major caveats with the current community-based tourism frameworks in India (and also many other developing nations) is its dependence on a 'policy interpreter' or an 'implementation agency'. While initial project development and model conceptualization does require these entities to lay out the broad operational strategy and ensure implementation, it has been observed that a majority of these initiatives do not move beyond the 'project' or 'pilot' stage, as the local communities are restricted to the 'product' unable to comprehend the policy dimensions which hampers the ability to create sustainable on-ground businesses. The policy should have a clarified mandate on host-community's role and prerogative in sustaining with the initiatives.

Farmer Producer Organization (FPO) can play a major role in agro-tourism. A successful agro-tourism model can be seen in Maharashtra, India, initiated by Agri Tourism Development Corporation (ATDC). Policies should be framed to develop and promote agricultural tourism (agro-tourism) as a potential vehicle for diversifying and stabilizing rural economies by creating jobs, increasing community income, providing a broader market base for local business, and attracting tourists to the area, thereby supporting the growth of small tourism industries.

With the penetration of technology in rural destinations the tourism initiatives should be operationally upscaled. Policies should be framed to make the appropriate technology available at the service providers' level. There can be agencies and facilitators who can actually assess the need and can facilitate the integration of appropriate technology. Tourism industry has witnessed a paradigm shift as the industry itself strive to reach out to the visitors and communication technology is helping in a big way. Technology may also be used for archiving the heritage and ethno-cultural assets of rural destinations.

Unlike urban tourism, rural tourism service providers lack insight of marketing their products. Training is required to empower the service providers to showcase their offer in a better way. Tourism is a triangulation of destination, visitor and the host-community. In the context of rural tourism the triangulation has serious underpinning of environmental and ethno-cultural issues. The triangulation can be dynamic and sustainable if these underpinnings are used as guiding beacons in designing the rural tourism offers.
