

COASTAL TOURISM IN KERALA: ITS IMPACT ON ECONOMY AND ENVIRONMENT

THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE
COCHIN UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF
THE DEGREE OF

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN
ECONOMICS

UNDER THE FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

by

K. RAJESH

UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF

DR. RAMAKRISHNAN KORAKANDY



**SCHOOL OF INDUSTRIAL FISHERIES
COCHIN UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
COCHIN-16**

DECEMBER 2009



DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the thesis entitled COASTAL TOURISM IN KERALA: ITS IMPACT ON ECONOMY AND ENVIRONMENT is an authentic record of research work carried out by me under the supervision and guidance of Dr. Ramakrishnan Korakandy, Professor and former Director, School of Industrial Fisheries, Cochin University of Science and Technology, Cochin-16, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of Cochin University of Science & Technology, and that no part of this work has been presented for the award of any degree in any other University.

Ernakulam
14.12.2009



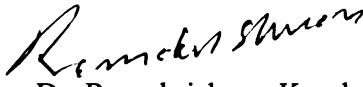
K. Rajesh
(Reg. No. 2452)

School of Industrial Fisheries
Cochin University of Science and Technology
Cochin -682016

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that this thesis entitled COASTAL TOURISM IN KERALA: ITS IMPACT ON ECONOMY AND ENVIRONMENT is an authentic record of the research work carried out by Mr. K. Rajesh (Reg. No. 2452), under my supervision and guidance, at the School of Industrial Fisheries, Cochin University of Science and Technology, Cochin-16, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of Cochin University of Science and Technology under the Faculty of Social Sciences and no part of this work has been presented for the award of any degree in any other University.

Cochin-16
14.12.2009


Dr. Ramakrishnan Korakandy
(Research Guide)
Professor and former Director,
School of Industrial Fisheries
Cochin University of Science and Technology
Cochin -682016

Acknowledgements

I wish to place on record the deep sense of gratitude to Dr. Ramakrishnan Korakandy, Professor and former Director, School of Industrial Fisheries, Cochin University of Science and Technology for suggesting this topic while working as Project Fellow for a major UGC research project on Coastal Zone Management in Kerala under him. I am fortunate enough to have worked with him, since I have found every discussion inspiring and enlightening. I owe him a great deal for sparing his valuable time for going through the manuscript several times and virtually rewriting to give it its present form.

I express my deep sense of gratitude to Prof. (Dr.)B.Madhusoodana Kurup, present Director, School Industrial Fisheries, and to Prof. (Dr.) Saleena Mathew, former Director of the School, Prof. (Dr.) A.Ramachandran, former Registrar, Cochin University of Science and Technology for their encouragement and facilities extended for the present work. I thank Dr. K.T.Thomson, Dr. Harikrishnan, Dr. John Mohan and Dr. Mini Sekharan, members of faculty at the School, for their encouragement. I also thank all the non-teaching staff of the School for their kind assistance to complete this work.

I also acknowledge the receipt of project fellowship and research fellowship from CUSAT during the period from August 2000 to March 2004, which enabled me to undertake this research work at the School of Industrial Fisheries.

I express my sincere thanks to Dr. T.M.Jacob, Sr.Lecturer, Nirmala College, Muvuattupuzha, for statistical analysis of data.

I am grateful to organisations like Planning Board, KITTS and CDS at Trivandrum, CIFT and CMFRI at Cochin and EQUATIONS at Bangalore for allowing me access to their libraries. Library of the School of Marine Sciences at the Lake Side Campus, the library of the Department of Applied Economics and the Central Library of the University were quite useful for me in getting reference material for this work.

Equally, I am very much thankful to my friends, Sunil, Susan, Shaji, Rajesh Babu, Renjith Kanjur, Midhun, Abhilash, Pramod, Santhosh, V. M., Rajesh, K.D. and Joice, V. T., for their timely help and encouragement throughout this work.

Last, but not least, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my parents (Dr. C.K.Nair and Smt. K. Sarojini), my brothers (Dr. K. Rajith and K. Sooraj), my sister in law (Mrs.Soumya Rajith), my cousins (Praveena, Prasanth, Dr. Rekha and Reshmi) and my wife Ramya for their prayers and support for the completion of this work.

Kochi-16

14.12.2009

Rajesh K

Contents

Acknowledgements	i
Contents	iii
List of Figures	vi
List of Tables	vii
List of Appendices	xii
Abbreviations	xiii

Chapters

1. Introduction	1
1.1. Tourism and coastal tourism: concepts and definitions	2
1.2. Rationale of the study	6
1.3. Objectives	7
1.4. Hypothesis	7
1.5. Methodology and data base	8
1.6. Scope of the study	9
1.7. Limitations of the study	9
1.8. Plan of the thesis	11
2. Review of Literature	14
2.1. Introduction	14
2.2. International literature	14
2.3. Indian literature	36
2.4. Tourism studies on Kerala	40
2.5. Summary	43
3. A Profile of Global Tourism Development	45
3.1. Introduction	45
3.2. Trends in global tourism	45
3.3. Globalisation and tourism	66
3.4. Summary	68

4. Development of Tourism in India	69
4.1. Introduction	69
4.2. Foreign tourist arrivals in India	70
4.3. Domestic tourism in India	85
4.4. Tourism infrastructure in India	88
4.5. Human resource development	90
4.6. Indian tourism under five year plans	92
4.7. Summary	101
5. Development of Tourism in Kerala	103
5.1. Introduction	103
5.2. Foreign tourist arrivals and tourism receipts	103
5.3. Domestic tourist arrivals and tourism receipts	112
5.4. Tourism resources of Kerala	119
5.5. Potential tourism products of Kerala	126
5.6. Tourism infrastructure in Kerala	131
5.7. Tourism administration in Kerala	137
5.8. Kerala tourism under five year plans	139
5.9. Marketing of Kerala tourism	141
5.10. The Vision 2025 of Kerala Tourism Department	142
5.11. Summary	143
6. Coastal Tourism in Kerala-An Analysis	146
6.1. Introduction	146
6.2. Coastal tourism in Kerala	146
6.3. Demographic and visitation profile of tourists	156
6.4. Summary	177
7. Economic Impacts of Coastal Tourism in Kerala	179
7.1. Introduction	179
7.2. Measuring economic impacts: a conceptual framework	179
7.3. Survey of tourism enterprises	182
7.4. Local community and economic impacts	190
7.5. Further evidence on economic impacts	199
7.6. Summary	205

8. Environmental Impacts of Coastal Tourism in Kerala	207
8.1. Introduction	207
8.2. Measuring environmental impacts: a conceptual framework	207
8.3. Local community and environmental impacts	209
8.4. Socio-cultural issues of coastal tourism	217
8.5. Further evidence on environmental impacts	219
8.6. Summary	224
9. Planning for Sustainable Development of Coastal Tourism in Kerala	226
9.1. Introduction	226
9.2. Sustainable development of tourism: a conceptual framework	226
9.3. Sustainability issues of coastal tourism in Kerala	229
9.4. Planning for sustainable development of coastal tourism in Kerala	232
9.5. Summary	250
10. Summary of Findings and Conclusion	253
10.1. Summary of Findings	253
10.2. Conclusion	263
Appendices	264
Bibliography	284

List of Figures

No	Title	Page No
Fig. 4.1	Foreign tourist arrivals (FTAs) and foreign exchange earnings (FEEs) in India from 1996 to 2007	72
Fig. 4.2	Growth rate of international tourist arrivals in World, Asia and the Pacific and India (1996 to 2007)	74
Fig. 4.3	Growth rate of international tourism receipts in World, Asia and the Pacific and India (1996 to 2007)	76
Fig. 4.4	Month-wise arrival of foreign tourists to India (2001-2007)	82
Fig. 5.1	Seasonal variation in foreign tourist arrivals in Kerala (2001 to 2007)	110
Fig. 5.2	Zone-wise distribution of foreign tourists in Kerala from 2003 to 2007	111
Fig. 5.3	Seasonal variation in domestic tourist arrivals in Kerala (2001 to 2007)	117
Fig. 6.1	Box Plot diagram of occupation and per capita expenditure	171
Fig. 6.2	Measurement of satisfaction levels of foreign and domestic tourists	172
Fig. 6.3	Multi-dimensional scaling for satisfaction levels of foreign tourists	175
Fig. 6.4	Multi-dimensional scaling for satisfaction levels of domestic tourists	175
Fig. 7.1	Education levels and their correlation with views on economic impacts	199

List of Tables

No	Title	Page No
Table 3.1	International tourist arrivals (region-wise) for selected years between 1950 and 2007	46
Table 3.2	International tourist arrivals (sub region-wise) for selected years between 1990 and 2007	48
Table 3.3	International tourism receipts (region-wise) for selected years between 1950 and 2007	50
Table 3.4	International tourism receipts (sub region-wise) for 2006 and 2007	51
Table 3.5	International tourist arrivals of top 10 performing countries of the world (2006 and 2007)	56
Table 3.6	International tourism receipts of top 10 performing countries of the world (2006 and 2007)	57
Table 3.7	International tourist arrivals and tourism receipts of nations of European region (2006 and 2007)	59
Table 3.8	International tourist arrivals and tourism receipts of nations of Asia and the Pacific region (2006 and 2007)	60
Table 3.9	International tourist arrivals and tourism receipts of nations of Americas (2006 and 2007)	61
Table 3.10	International tourist arrivals and tourism receipts of nations of Africa (2006 and 2007)	62
Table 3.11	International tourist arrivals and tourism receipts of nations of Middle East (2006 and 2007)	62
Table 3.12	Region-wise details of outbound tourists for selected years between 1990 and 2007	64
Table 3.13	Forecast of international tourist arrivals (region-wise)	65
Table 4.1	FTAs and FEEs in India from 1996 to 2007	70
Table 4.2	Share of India in international tourist arrivals of World and Asia and the Pacific region (1996-2007)	73
Table 4.3	Share of India in international tourism receipts of World and Asia and the Pacific region (1996 to 2007)	75
Table 4.4	Top ten source countries for FTAs in India in 2007	77

Table 4.5	Major source countries (first 8 in 2007) of FTAs in India from 1981 to 2007	78
Table 4.6	Major source countries (from 9 th to 15 th in 2007) of FTAs in India from 1981 to 2007	79
Table 4.7	Mode of travel for FTAs in India (1996-2007)	80
Table 4.8	Port of entry for FTAs in India (1996-2007)	81
Table 4.9	Month-wise data of FTAs in India (2001-2007)	82
Table 4.10	Distribution of FTAs to top 10 performing states in India (2004-2006)	84
Table 4.11	Domestic and foreign tourist visits in India (1996-2007)	86
Table 4.12	State-wise distribution of domestic tourist visits in India from 2001 to 2007	87
Table 4.13	Number of approved hotels and room availability in India (2006 and 2007)	88
Table 4.14	Occupancy rates in hotel accommodation by domestic and foreign tourists (2006 and 2007)	89
Table 4.15	State-wise number of recognised tour operators in India (2007)	89
Table 4.16	Allocation for tourism under Five Year Plans in India	94
Table 5.1	FTAs in Kerala and India and the percentage share of Kerala (1980-2007)	104
Table 5.2	Growth in FTAs in Kerala and India (1996-2007)	105
Table 5.3	FEEs from tourists in Kerala and India (1996-2007)	106
Table 5.4	Performance of top 15 foreign tourism generating markets of Kerala (2005-2007)	107
Table 5.5	Month-wise FTAs in Kerala (2001-2007)	109
Table 5.6	District wise FTAs in Kerala (2003-2007)	111
Table 5.7	Domestic tourist arrivals in Kerala and India (1996-2007)	113
Table 5.8	Earnings of Kerala from tourism (2001-2007)	113
Table 5.9	Ratio of FTAs to domestic tourist arrivals in Kerala from 2001 to 2007	114
Table 5.10	State of origin of domestic tourists in Kerala (2004-05 to 2006-07)	115
Table 5.11	Month-wise domestic tourist arrivals in Kerala (2001-2007)	116
Table 5.12	District -wise distribution of domestic tourists in Kerala (2003-2007)	118
Table 5.13	Riverine resources in Kerala	120
Table 5.14	Wildlife sanctuaries, national parks, bird sanctuaries and hill stations in Kerala	121
Table 5.15	District-wise distribution of area under mangroves in Kerala	122
Table 5.16	Arts/folk performances of Kerala	123
Table 5.17	Major local festivals of Kerala	124
Table 5.18	Number of approved health centres and <i>grihastalis</i> in Kerala (2008)	125

Table 5.19	Road network in Kerala	132
Table 5.20	Airports in Kerala	133
Table 5.21	Availability of accommodation in Kerala (2001 and 2006)	134
Table 5.22	District-wise distribution of tourist accommodation in Kerala (2002)	135
Table 5.23	District-wise status of new home stay scheme (2007)	136
Table 5.24	Allocation of funds for tourism under Five Year Plans in Kerala	140
Table 5.25	International acclaims for Kerala Tourism	141
Table 6.1	Length of the coastline of Kerala (district-wise)	147
Table 6.2	Potential beaches for tourism development in Kerala	151
Table 6.3	District-wise distribution of estuaries and backwaters of Kerala	152
Table 6.4	Major and minor boat races of Kerala	155
Table 6.5	Origin of foreign and domestic tourist arrivals to the coastal tourism spots of Kerala (2006-07)	158
Table 6.6	Distribution of age of foreign and domestic tourists of coastal tourism spots of Kerala (2006-07)	159
Table 6.7	Educational qualification of foreign and domestic tourists of coastal tourism spots of Kerala (2006-07)	159
Table 6.8	Occupational categorisation of domestic and foreign tourists of coastal tourism spots of Kerala (2006-07)	160
Table 6.9	Income class of tourists visiting coastal tourism spots of Kerala (2006-07)	161
Table 6.10	Source of information for tourists about Kerala (2006-07)	161
Table 6.11	Mode of transport used by tourists visiting coastal tourism spots in Kerala (2006-07)	162
Table 6.12	Entry points of foreign and domestic tourists to coastal tourism spots in Kerala (2006-07)	163
Table 6.13	Frequency of tourists' visits to Kerala (2006-07)	164
Table 6.14	Motivation of tourists visiting coastal tourism spots in Kerala (2006-07)	164
Table 6.15	Facilitation of trips of tourists (2006-07)	165
Table 6.16	Major attractions of tourists (2006-07)	166
Table 6.17	Demand for accommodation units (2006-07)	167
Table 6.18	Expenditure pattern of tourists in the coastal tourism spots of Kerala (2006-07)	168
Table 6.19	Major heads of expenses of tourists in the coastal tourism spots of Kerala (2006-07)	168

Table 6.20	Visitation profile (days of stay) of tourists (2006-07)	169
Table 6.21	ANOVA test on education, occupation and tourist expenditure	170
Table 6.22	Mean deviations of satisfaction levels of tourists (2006-07)	174
Table 7.1	Place of origin of workers in the accommodation units (2006-07)	184
Table 7.2	Place of origin of workers in the non-accommodation sector (2006-07)	186
Table 7.3	Number of respondents showing positive economic impacts of coastal tourism development	191
Table 7.4	Number of respondents showing negative economic impacts of coastal tourism development	192
Table 7.5	Mean score of responses on positive economic impacts of coastal tourism (location-wise)	195
Table 7.6	Mean score of responses on positive economic impacts of coastal tourism (occupation-wise)	195
Table 7.7	Mean score of responses on positive economic impacts of coastal tourism (education-wise)	196
Table 7.8	Mean score of responses on negative economic impacts of coastal tourism (location-wise)	196
Table 7.9	Mean score of responses on negative economic impacts of coastal tourism (occupation-wise)	197
Table 7.10	Mean score of responses on negative economic impacts of coastal tourism (education-wise)	198
Table 7.11	Forward and backward linkages of tourism industry	200
Table 7.12	Expenditure pattern for foreign and domestic tourists	203
Table 7.13	Tourism multipliers for Kerala	204
Table 8.1	Number of respondents showing positive environmental/socio-cultural impacts of coastal tourism development	210
Table 8.2	Number of respondents showing negative environmental, socio-cultural impacts of coastal tourism development	211
Table 8.3	Mean score of responses on positive environmental/socio-cultural impacts of coastal tourism (location-wise)	213
Table 8.4	Mean score of responses on positive environmental/socio-cultural impacts of coastal tourism (occupation-wise)	214
Table 8.5	Mean score of responses on positive environmental/socio-cultural impacts of coastal tourism (education-wise)	214

Table 8.6	Mean score of responses on negative environmental/socio-cultural impacts of coastal tourism (location-wise)	215
Table 8.7	Mean score of responses on negative environmental/socio-cultural impacts of coastal tourism (occupation-wise)	216
Table 8.8	Mean score of responses on negative environmental/socio-cultural impacts of coastal tourism (education-wise)	216
Table 9.1	Sustainability issues of coastal tourism in Kerala	229

List of Appendices

No	Title	Page No
Appendix 1.1	Glossary of coastal tourism	264
Appendix 3.1	WTO member nations (region-wise) as on December 2008	267
Appendix 3.2	Alternative forms of tourism	269
Appendix 6.1	Questionnaire 1: Tourist survey	272
Appendix 7.1	Questionnaire 2: Survey on accommodation units	276
Appendix 7.2	Questionnaire 3: Survey on non-accommodation units	280
Appendix 7.3	Questionnaire 4: Survey on local community	282

Abbreviations

APEC	: Asia Pacific Economic Council
CEPUNEP	: Caribbean Environment Programme of United Nations Environment Programme
CRZ	: Coastal Regulation Zone
CSD	: Commission on Sustainable Development
EIA	: Economic Impact Assessment
EU	: European Union
FEE	: Foreign Exchange Earnings
FTA	: Foreign Tourist Arrivals
FYP	: Five Year Plan
GATS	: General Agreement on Trade in Services
GOI	: Government of India
GOK	: Government of Kerala
IATA	: International Air Travelling Agency
ICZM	: Integrated Coastal Zone Management
ILO	: International Labour Organisation
IMF	: International Monetary Fund
ITDC	: India Tourism Development Corporation
IUCN	: International Union for Conservation of Nature
MDS	: Multi-Dimensional Scale
MICE	: Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibitions
NGO	: Non Governmental Organisations
NTAC	: National Tourism Advisory Council
OECD	: Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
OMRN	: Ocean Management Research Network
PATA	: Pacific Area Travel Association
PATWA	: Pacific Asia Travel Writer's Association
RT	: Responsible Tourism
SAP	: Structural Adjustment Programme
SEZ	: Special Economic Zone
SPSS	: Statistical Package for Social Sciences
STD	: Sustainable Tourism Development
STZ	: Special Tourism Zone

TCMP	: Tanzania Coastal Management Partnership
TCS	: Tata Consultancy Service
TERI	: Tata Energy Research Institute
TNC	: Transnational Corporations
TQM	: Total Quality Management
TSA	: Tourism Satellite Account
UK	: United Kingdom
UN	: United Nations
UNCSD	: United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development
UNEP	: United Nations Environment Programme
UNEP/CBD	: United Nations Environment Programme Convention on Biological Diversity
UNESCAP	: United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
UNWTO	: United Nations World Tourism Organisation
USA	: United States of America
UT	: Union Territory
VFR	: Visiting Friends and Relatives
WTO	: World Trade Organisation
WTTC	: World Travel and Tourism Council
WWF	: World Wildlife Forum

Chapter 1

Introduction

Development of tourism has been given a high priority in the economic development programmes of the country since 1980s. The state of Kerala, which is now stylised as 'God's own Country' in the global tourist map, has also accorded it a major position in order to reorient its economic development utilising its natural green environment. Accordingly, development of tourism in all its variety including "beach tourism", "back water tourism", "village tourism", "ecotourism", "adventure tourism", "monsoon tourism", "heritage tourism", etc., is being promoted in the state.

Development of tourism was given the high priority in Kerala anticipating its contribution to the economic development of the state, particularly to domestic employment, earnings, foreign exchange, and its contribution to accelerated economic growth. It is, however, alleged that the contribution of tourism sector to the economic development of the state is not commensurate with the quantum of investment made by the state and the industry. Moreover, the impacts of tourism on the socio-economic, cultural and environmental front of the state are also reported to be not quite favourable. Lately, the Coastal Regulation Zone notification by the Government of Kerala in 1996 has further cast a shadow of doubt on the sustainability of tourism development in the state, particularly of coastal tourism. Notwithstanding all these, decision makers in the industry and administration, both at the central and the state levels, are going ahead with the programmes for intensive development of tourism in the state as part of the global networking in the wake of liberalisation and privatisation of the global economy. The prevailing situation in the sector certainly demands a closer examination.

1.1. Tourism and coastal tourism: concepts and definitions

The concept of tourism has been defined in many ways and there is no agreement on the definition of tourism (Amelung, *et al.*, 1999, p.4). According to United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), tourism is defined as “an activity of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited” (UNWTO, 2001). It refers to all activities of visitors, including both “tourists” (overnight visitors¹) and “same day visitors”².

Another definition of tourism was put forward by Mathieson and Wall. According to them tourism is “the temporary movement of people to destinations outside their normal place of work and residence, the activities undertaken during their stay in those destinations and the facilities created to cater to their needs” (Mathieson and Wall, 1982, p.1).

The UNWTO described three forms of tourism in 1994 in its Recommendations on Tourism Statistics, i.e., domestic, inbound and outbound tourism (Wikipedia, 2006). The term domestic tourism involves residents of the given country travelling only within that country. Inbound tourism, is the tourism of non-resident visitors within the economic territory of reference. Outbound tourism is the tourism of resident visitors outside the economic territory of the country of

¹ WTO defined overnight visitors as visitors who stay at least one night in a collective or private accommodation in the place visited (UNWTO, 2007).

² WTO defined same day visitors as visitors who do not spend the night in a collective or private accommodation in the place visited (UNWTO, 2007).

reference. The sum total of inbound and outbound tourism is known as international tourism.

Though the broad definition of tourist includes overnight visitors and same day visitors, Government of India defined tourist, as a visitor who stays at least one night in a collective or private accommodation in the country visited (GOI, 2004, p.147). This definition is adopted for the purpose of this thesis.

Conceptualising tourism as an industry infers the production and sale of a common product. Tourism is however, not a single, tangible product. It is composite in nature. O'Fallon (as quoted by Berno and Bricker, 2001, p.6) distinguishes three distinct tourism 'products': the tourism experience, the place of the product and tourism products (O'Fallon, 1994). The tourism experience (the macro level product) comprises all that the tourist sees, uses and experiences as part of his tourist encounter. The place of product is the tourist destination as the point of consumption of certain components of the tourism experience. Finally, tourism product refers to the individual products such as accommodation, attractions, restaurants and souvenirs (*Ibid*).

But, tourism does not comprise of a single type of business. Instead, as suggested by Likorsh and Jenkins, tourism comprises three kinds of businesses or 'trades': (1) the primary trades, which are most commonly associated with tourism (e.g., transport, tour companies, travel agencies, accommodation units, catering facilities and attractions); (2) the secondary trades that support tourism, (e.g., retail shopping, banks and insurance, entertainment and leisure activities, personal services); and (3) the tertiary trades which provide the basic infrastructure and support

for tourism (e.g., public sector services, food and fuel, manufacturing) (Likorsh and Jenkins, 1997, p.8).

Tourism comprises a range of tangible and non-tangible products. Tourists purchase a number of tangible inputs (e.g., airline seats, hotel room, meals, etc.). They also purchase intangible products as part of their experience (e.g., scenery, climate, friendliness of the host population, heritage, etc.). But the purchase of the product does not entitle the tourist to own the product, but only to use it for a prescribed period. Another distinction of the tourism product is that it is immobile. Tourism cannot be taken to the consumer; the tourist must be taken to the product.

Swarbrooke (1999, p.23) identifies six main stakeholder groups having interest in tourism activities:

- 1) The public sector, which includes supra-governmental bodies such as the European Union (EU), national governments, local authorities and quasi-governmental organisations (such as national tourism organisations)
- 2) The tourism industry
- 3) Voluntary sector organisation, which includes pressure groups such as tourism concern and tourism professional bodies such as the International Association of Travel Agents (IATA)
- 4) The host community, who reside at the tourism destination and as a result form part of the tourism 'product'
- 5) The media, which includes both travel and non-travel media
- 6) The tourist

For the achievement of tourism goals, these stakeholders should work as partners and co-operation among them is a pre-requisite. Milne observes that these

stakeholder groups, from the community to the international level, have different goals in terms of tourism development (Milne, 1998, p.35). Berno and Bricker narrate this complexity as follows: critical decisions about tourism development are made at local, national, regional and international levels (Berno and Bricker, 2001, p.7). This global-local nexus can result in competition for limited resources, issues of (in) equity and distribution, and the need to balance the costs and benefits of various actions (Milne, 1998, p.42). This wide scale of participants and their varying needs make the problems extremely complex especially in those areas which are either densely populated or activity oriented, or both, for example coastal regions (Pearce, 1989, p.15).

The significance of tourism and recreation is often most evident in the coast. Coastal tourism is the sum of activities relating to the travel and stay over by people visiting the coastal zone. Coastal tourism developments comprise developments and activities conducted upon land immediately adjacent to the shoreline, coastal wetlands, estuaries and tidal waters and associated marine waters. Tourist activities are considered coastal tourism activities when they are based on or utilize coastal or marine resources, either natural or man made, or located within the coastal strip (TCMP, 2001, p.5).

Pearce considered coastal tourism as the most significant form of tourism, with domestic and international tourist flows in many countries dominated by visitors seeking the eternal lure of the sun, sea and surf (Pearce, 1989, p.2 and it was also quoted by Stewart, 1993, p.201). Coastal tourism brings up popular images of resorts at the seaside with white sandy beaches lined with coconut palms and crystal-clear waters (Huttche, *et al.*, 2002, p.1). Travel literature and business brochures have

helped to promote the image of the three 'S's that coastal tourism usually offers - sun, sea and sand (*Ibid*, p.1). According to Dobias, coastal tourism resources include white sand beaches, coral reefs, near shore waters and island scenery (Dobias, 1991, p.396). Zee notes that coastal tourism products include coastal tourism resources and the related tourism facilities (Zee, 1992, p.1). Pearce suggests that coastal tourism development is primarily concerned with providing access and accommodation (Pearce, 1989, p.59).

In summing up this section, it is noted that even though there are differences in the definition of tourism, the description of coastal tourism focus on the coastal area, (the interface between the sea and the land) and the facilities of the coastal region which are vital components of coastal tourism development in any region. In this study, the term coastal region encompasses not only the region lying close to the sea, but also its extensions through the large system of estuaries and backwaters far into the inland of Kerala. Hence, this study defines coastal tourism of Kerala as the composite of beach tourism and backwater tourism.

1.2. Rationale of the study

The fact that the governments have invested so much for the development of tourism in the state makes its sustainability a social and economic necessity. However, the belief that the contribution of tourism to the state's economy is not commensurate with the investment and the alleged adverse ecological and environmental impacts has created a situation where the sustainability of this sector is suspected. Notwithstanding this scenario, the state has very little information on the precise impacts of tourism, particularly coastal tourism on the economy and the environment of Kerala. Sustainable development of tourism in the coastal belt of

Kerala legitimately demands an in depth study of its impact on economy and environment of the region. The present study is an attempt in this direction. It is expected to fill the gap in information needed for planned and controlled development of tourism in the state.

1.3. Objectives

The overall objective of this study is to find out the nature of coastal tourism development in Kerala. Specifically the study aims to:

- i. Identify the resource base for coastal tourism development
- ii. Analyse the various components of coastal tourism in Kerala.
- iii. Study the economic impacts of coastal tourism in Kerala.
- iv. Study the environmental impacts of coastal tourism in Kerala.
- v. Find out whether coastal tourism development in Kerala is sustainable.
- vi. Provide suggestions for the sustainable development of coastal tourism in Kerala.

1.4. Hypothesis

Major hypotheses of this study are given below.

- i. This study holds that the tourism resource base of Kerala coast can support a sustainable tourism sector.
- ii. Development of coastal tourism has brought about both positive and negative economic impacts on the coastal community.
- iii. Development of coastal tourism has also similarly produced both positive and negative environmental impacts on the local community.

- iv. The controversy over the implementation of tourism programmes reflect the intra-use and inter-use conflicts in the use of natural resources along the coast of Kerala.
- v. Sustainable development of coastal tourism in Kerala demands a new approach with strategic planning for sustainable development.

1.5. Methodology and data base

The methodology followed in this study is both descriptive and analytical to find out the nature of coastal tourism development, major components of coastal tourism, economic and environmental impacts of coastal tourism, emerging trends in tourism demand and the sustainable development of coastal tourism in Kerala. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for statistical analysis. A description of methodology followed to study the demographic and visitation profile of coastal tourists and the economic and environmental impacts are given in chapter six, seven and eight respectively.

Both primary and secondary data have been collected to study the impact of coastal tourism in Kerala. Primary data have been collected by interviewing the stakeholders in tourism industry, based on standard questionnaires (appendix 6.1, 7.1, 7.2 and 7.3). Respondents were selected on a random basis. The interview was conducted during the period from October 2006 to March 2007 at four important coastal tourism spots of Kerala, viz., Kovalam, Varkala, Alappuzha and Fort Kochi. The details of the respondents are furnished while presenting the data and discussion.

The secondary data have been mostly extracted from the official publications of United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), Government of India (GOI) and Government of Kerala

(GOK). For brevity of presentation, instead of reproducing the data tables as such, data relevant to the point under discussion only have been reproduced. The emphasis was on finding out the trends and futuristic view, from the past. To avoid bias in interpretation of data, statistical analysis has been resorted to, the details of which are furnished along with presentation and discussion of data. Most of the data were presented in tables. Curves, bar charts, pie diagrams, spider graphs, box plot diagrams, multi-dimensional scaling, etc., were also used to illustrate the data.

1.6. Scope of the study

The study is predominantly exploratory in nature, which gives a bird's eye view of this sector. The study area is limited to the political limits of Kerala state and is focused on that part of geographical region known as the coastal plains of Kerala. The focus of this study is predominantly to trace the development and potential for coastal tourism, the economic and environmental impacts of coastal tourism and to suggest a strategy for the sustainable development of beach tourism and backwater tourism in Kerala. It is also worth while to note that the major focus of the study was to look at the economic impact of visiting tourists from outside the state and it has not considered the impact of travel expenditure and other expenses of residents and the 'same day visitors'.

As a background to the study of coastal tourism, a detailed analysis of tourism development at the global, national and regional (state) level is also made.

1.7. Limitations of the study

Some of the limitations of the study are indicated below.

- i. Profitability of the tourism enterprises, which a neo-classical approach, might expect is not much in this study. This can be, however, justified

on the ground that this study has concentrated on the employment, income and multiplier effects of the sector and the environmental impacts to assess its sustainability.

- ii. The reluctance of the respondents of large concerns, especially of accommodation units, in revealing financial matters, to some extent, has limited the range of analysis with respect to the economic impact of tourism.
- iii. To measure the economic impacts, the commonly used methods are visitor spending surveys, analysis of secondary data from government economic statistics, input-output models and multipliers (Frechtling, 1994a). Due to financial and time constraints, this research work did not carry out the input-output analysis or multipliers. However, some of the findings of a previous study by Tata Consultancy Service (TCS) made for the Government of Kerala in 2000 (TCS, 2000) have been made use of to supplement the findings of this study, particularly the economic impacts of tourism in Kerala.
- iv. Due to the constraints, which have been mentioned earlier, the sample size of the study was limited to 240 tourists (120 each of domestic and foreign), 33 accommodation units, 60 non-accommodation units and 100 respondents from the local community (25 from each locations). However, statistical tools like t-test and ANOVA tests have been used to ensure the validity of samples, findings and observations.
- v. Information from small and unorganized agencies engaged in tourism related activities like mobile vendors (ice cream vendors, ground nut

vendors, balloon vendors, etc.) though important, could not be properly assessed as the views and reactions of these respondents were not sufficiently informative.

Notwithstanding these limitations, this study could adequately describe the fundamental changes and impacts that the tourism sector has brought to the coastal economy and environment of the state.

1.8. Plan of the thesis

The thesis is presented in 10 chapters including this introductory chapter. This chapter introduced the concepts and definitions of tourism and coastal tourism, the rationale of the study, objectives, hypotheses, methodology and data base, scope of the study and limitations of the study. The plan of the thesis is also furnished in this chapter.

Chapter two presents the review of literature. It is presented in three sections, namely international, national and state level literature. The review of international literature is done in two subsections - general tourism and coastal tourism, both of which highlight the advancements in coastal tourism research.

The third chapter traces the development of tourism as an industry worldwide. It has reviewed the growth of international tourist arrivals and tourism receipts. It has also identified the global tourism zones and studied the inter-zonal and intra-zonal disparities in growth and explained vision 2020 of global tourism. The role of major international organisations taking interest in tourism is also described. A section on the effect on globalisation on tourism is also included in this chapter.

Chapter four discusses tourism development in India. A detailed review on inbound tourism is made in this chapter. The concept of domestic tourism is elaborated on the basis of cultural tourism being practiced in India. A brief review of tourism infrastructure and the facilities for human resource development for tourism sector is also given in this chapter. The impact of policies and schemes for tourism growth under Five Year Plans are also critically evaluated.

The development of tourism in Kerala is explained in chapter five. A detailed analysis of foreign and domestic tourist arrivals in Kerala is made in this chapter. Apart from these, the natural resources which would serve as attractions for tourists, the cultural resources such as art forms, temples and historical monuments, etc. are also discussed in this chapter. Lacuna in providing the required infrastructure, the marketing of Kerala tourism, the tourism vision of Kerala Tourism Department and the regulatory support to mitigate the negative impacts of tourism are also pin pointed.

Chapter six presents the two components of coastal tourism, i.e., beach tourism and backwater tourism of the state. A detailed analysis of survey results on demographic and visitation profile of tourists is given in this chapter to understand the emerging trends in coastal tourism demand.

The seventh chapter narrates the economic impact of tourism in the region. The backward and forward linkages of tourism in the economy of the region are critically evaluated. A review of the economic impact study conducted for the Government of Kerala is also given in this chapter.

Chapter eight provides the results of analysis of environmental impacts of tourism. This chapter primarily analyses the reaction of local communities to tourism

projects. The chapter also gives a brief description of the adverse affects of tourism developments at Kumarakom and Bekal.

Chapter nine outlines the strategies to be adopted for the sustainable development of tourism in Kerala coast.

Chapter ten gives the summary of findings of the various chapters and the conclusions.

Chapter 2

Review of Literature

2.1. Introduction

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

2.2. International literature

The international literature on tourism is quite extensive and well developed (Jafari and Graburn, 1991, p.1). Earliest writings were works sharing the experience of the adventurous voyages taken up by spirited travellers exploring new land and new people, with a missionary zeal. The industrial revolution provided better facilities and comforts for travel and prompted the travels related to trade, exchange of goods and activities related to it. The pilgrims, scholars and missionaries who accompanied the tradesmen gave picturesque descriptions about the places visited. These writings kindled the interest of many others to seek knowledge and pleasures and lured them to undertake travel. This travel phenomenon grew up slowly and got

evolved into the business of tourism. Naturally, the new business of tourism had problems appended to it, and needed the attention of academics to analysis and suggest corrective actions which later became a major source of global literature. The isolated national efforts taken up in the early stages got converged into international efforts because of the wide and vivid set of populations involved. Thus, the development of literature on tourism is intertwined with the long history of tourism itself.

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

2.2.1. Literature on general tourism

Adams (1990) described the conflicts between the western social system and the traditional conservative social system of development.

Khan, *et al.* (1990) conducted a study to analyse the economic significance of tourism in Singapore by estimating the multiplier effects of tourist expenditure on total output, income, value addition and employment.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Cukier-Snow and Wall (1993) argued that the prospects of tourism employment might be viewed differently in developed and developing countries.

Dahl (1993) examined the beginnings of tourism development in Pohnpei, a volcanic island in the tropical Pacific, where tourism related issues were magnified.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Prosser (1994) explained the social change and growth in international tourism.

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

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

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

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

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

Pandey, *et al.* (1995) conducted a case study to understand the nature of the effects of tourism on the local culture, environment and economy of Nepal.

Towner (1995) argued that more attention should be paid to tourism's past in non-western societies and cultures and to the more ordinary and routine practices of a wider cross-section of the population.

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

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

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

Nickerson (1996) explained the tourists' behaviour based on Motivation-Opportunity-Ability Approach.

Ryan and Kinder (1996) studied tourism and tourists visiting prostitutes as both being examples of 'liminal' behaviour, i.e. behaviour undertaken by those operating at social thresholds, and argued that it is not an added component of tourism, but a form of behaviour quite consistent with the motivations that underlie much of tourism.

Tosun and Jenkins (1996) gave an account of decentralized approaches to tourism development in Turkey and argued that participation in the planning and implementation of tourism development should be encouraged at community level which would make the plans more relevant to local needs.

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

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

Jager, *et al.* (1997) developed a conceptual model on the basis of Motivation-Opportunity-Ability theory.

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

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

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

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

Thornton, *et al.* (1997) studied the behaviour of tourist parties while on holiday and argued that the role of children was under-researched and undervalued

and suggested the need for theories sensitive to the influence of group decision-making and the ability of children to influence group behaviour.

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

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

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

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

Amelung, *et al.* (1999) stressed the need of an integrated approach and proposed a research framework supporting an integrated approach. They emphasised the need to devise a system for classification of different types of tourism. As a

structuring tool for analysing the phenomenon of tourism, they used the Pressure-State-Impact-Response (PSIR) method. On the pressure side, several driving forces were identified. The state covers the technological, economic, demographic, institutional, political, cultural and environmental situation. This situation serves as an input for the psycho-social forces which are studied using Motivation-Opportunities-Abilities Concept. On the impact side, the economic, environmental and socio-cultural consequences of tourism are dealt with. The synthesis of the various impacts dealt with provides the response side.

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

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

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

Page (1999) made a comparative study of tourism development in three African nations, namely Mauritius, South Africa and Zimbabwe.

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

Stynes (1999) prepared guidelines to present examples of different approaches to estimate the economic impacts of tourism.

United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development (UNCSD, 1999a) report to the Secretary General of United Nations briefly explained the economic, social and environmental policy challenges for the tourism industry, governments and international community.

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

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

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

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

Wall and Ross (1999a) examined the gap between ecotourism theory as revealed in the literature and ecotourism in practice as indicated by its own site applications.

Wall and Ross (1999b) evaluated the relationship between people, resources and tourism in North Sulawesi, Indonesia, essentially as required for successful ecotourism.

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

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

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

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2000) summarised the efforts that have been made in the past decade to develop new methods, like Tourism Satellite Accounts, to analyse tourism and tourism related employment, to standardise and ensure the relevance of tourism statistics, to increase

consistency between the various systems in place at the international level and to create awareness among member countries of the implementation of such tools and how the results should be interpreted.

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

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

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

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

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

Aguayo, *et al.* (2001) put forward an econometric model of service sector development and impact of tourism in Latin American countries.

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

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

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

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

Kline (2001) discussed the concepts of nature-based tourism, ecotourism and sustainable tourism and provided a general overview of research and issues and suggested potential areas for future research.

Kreag (2001) identified both the positive and negative impacts of tourism under seven categories namely, economic, environmental, social and cultural, crowding and congestion, services, taxes and community attitude.

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

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

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

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

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

Davies and Cahill (2002) prepared a discussion paper, which explained the various environmental implications of the tourism industry.

Department of Environmental Studies of University of Aegean (2002) conducted a study to evaluate the carrying capacity and its practical measurement and its efficient application in European tourist destinations.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Divisekera (2003) suggested a demand model for international tourism based on the consumer theory of choice and applied this to the demand for tourism in Australia by USA, UK, Japan and New Zealand and their chosen alternative

destinations. It gave substantial new information on the effects and sensitivity of economic parameters on international tourism.

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

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

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

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

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

Yunis (2003) discussed the importance of sustainable practices in tourism industry.

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

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

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

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

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

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

The above review of general literature on global tourism reveals that the global literature is extensive and fast growing. The international literature is vast and diverse covering a wide range of issues and concepts such as international tourism demand, tourism receipts, tourism promotion strategies, positive and negative impacts

of tourism development, pro-poor tourism, wildlife tourism, VFR tourism, eco tourism, sustainable tourism and growth of tourism promoting organisations like WTO, WTTC and IATA. Another important point that has emerged out of this review is the interest shown by the various international organisations such as Asia Pacific Economic Council (APEC), United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP), International Labour Organisation (ILO), Organisation for Economic Cooperation for Development (OECD), United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) and World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) in the activities of international tourism.

2.2.2. Literature on coastal tourism

Though the study on coastal tourism is a subset of studies on general tourism, the same has been given an exclusive treatment in this section as coastal tourism forms the focus of this research work. It is one among the many types of tourism such as mountain tourism, eco tourism, cultural tourism, etc. According to Pearce, however, it is the most significant form of tourism. The domestic and international tourist flow in many countries is dominated by visitors seeking the sun, sand and the sea (Pearce, 1989). The coast, with its beaches, dunes, coral reefs, estuaries and coastal waters, has always been a natural playground. Coastal environments provide open space, opportunity for leisure, relaxation, contemplation and physical activity. Emerging recreation-oriented life styles in developed countries and the rapid expansion of tourism facilities in developing countries have placed considerable strain on coastal resources and in many cases intensified conflicting pressures on them. The situation in coastal environment is particularly complex because of the often

conflicting legislation associated with the interface of both terrestrial and marine systems. This situation emphasises more studies in this direction. Though there are quite a large number of studies on various aspects of tourism in general, there is only limited published material on coastal tourism and most of these have appeared after 1990 (Gill, 2003, p.1). Some of the notable studies are reviewed in the following paragraphs.

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

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

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

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

Kenchington (1993) gave an overview of the development of recreational activities and identified a number of relationships between environmental conditions

and human impacts associated with tourism. He argued that in the long-term interests of the environment and all usage sectors, coastal and shallow marine environment and resource management should be conducted on a multiple-use strategic basis.

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

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

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

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

The Caribbean Environment Programme Technical Report of United Nations Environment Programme (CEPUNEP, 1997) explained the various impacts and best management practices with an overview of tourism and coastal resources degradation

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

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

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

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

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

Hall (2001) reviewed the trends in coastal tourism research, particularly those related to environmental impacts.

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

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

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

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

Harriott (2002) categorised the marine tourism impacts as ecological, social and cultural. The specific types of marine tourism impacts noted were coastal tourism development (island-based), tourism infrastructure (marine-based), boat-induced damage, water-based activities and wildlife interactions.

Huttche, *et al.* (2002) prepared a sustainable coastal tourism handbook for Philippines, which explained the use of practical tools like carrying capacity, EIA, etc. for the integrated coastal zone management to avoid unnecessary environmental and social problems associated with tourism development.

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

Gill (2003) prepared a note on coastal tourism by including the contributions of those who took active participation in Ocean Management Research Network (OMRN) National Conference.

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

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

2.3. Indian literature

The Indian literature on tourism is very few. The accounts left by the Greek writers who accompanied Alexander, Arab travellers and traders like Sulaiman and Al Masudi and the Buddhist Pilgrims Hiuen-Tsang and Fa-hien show that the prosperity and culture of India attracted foreign traders, conquerors and pilgrims from time

immemorial. Ptolemy gave one of the earliest geographical accounts of India in the second century A.D. Notwithstanding the existence of such early works and the writings of later travellers, the attempt in this section is to review only the tourism related writing of the last four decades.

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

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

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

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

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

Ojha (1982) analysed the satisfaction level among the foreign tourists and found that the extreme dearth of infrastructure facilities as the dominant factor which hindered repeated visits to India by foreigners.

Srivastava (1983) estimated the growth rate of tourist arrivals in India for the period between 1951 and 1981 and observed the paradox between the five fold increase in the Indian share of world tourism market and the poor percentage share (0.3) of world tourists coming to India by the end of the same period.

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

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

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

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

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

Singh (1997) presented the contribution of education/training bodies, world over, and their status in a developing country like India, where conditions are more complex. She enumerated and highlighted the wide range of problems that need serious consideration to overcome India's problems of surplus skilled work force.

Wilson (1997) gave an account of paradoxes of tourism in Goa, which is often referred to as a classic example of the evils of tourism development.

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

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

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

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

Tata Energy Research Institute (TERI, 2002) explained how the coast provides an interesting and unique site for understanding the complexity of the linkages between social and natural system with special emphasis on coastal tourism in Goa. It noted that, along with the globalising of tourism, changes in local political, economic, social and legal institutions over time, such as capital inflows in the form of remittance income, democratic institutions, new tenurial laws and changes in common property systems played a major role in the homogenisation of ecosystems in the study villages.

Noronha (2004) made a study on the policy in India that relates to the management of resources on the coast. According to her, all problems that are encountered in coastal policy fall into three major domains of coastal policy problems: (i) those that relate to resource use conflicts, (ii) those that relate to resource depletion and (iii) those that relate to pollution or resource degradation. Policies for developments that relate to the coast have to be sensitive to these three problems. Using this as an analytical lens, this paper examines Indian policy in relation to the developments in Goa, a coastal state of India, which is famous internationally for its coastal tourism. The paper argues that the absence of an integrated holistic approach to policymaking and a failure to link the process of policy-making with the substance of policy results in outcomes that are inferior viewed within a sustainability framework.

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

2.4. Tourism studies on Kerala

The studies relating Kerala tourism are much less in number. The National Council for Applied Economic Research made one of the pioneering works in this area (GOI, 1975). It made a cost-benefit analysis of investment in different classes of accommodation for tourists with special reference to the integrated Kovalam Beach Resort Project.

Government of Kerala (GOK, 1989) conducted a study to identify the crucial areas, which required special attention of the Department of Tourism for the planned promotion and provision of tourism related infrastructure in Kerala.

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

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

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

Kumar (1998) conducted a study on foreign tourists visiting Kerala to find out the influences of their demographic profiles on the selection of Kerala as a destination and found that the psychological factors have influenced their visit and spending pattern during their visit.

Government of Kerala (GOK, 1999) explained the concept of ecotourism, ecotourism resources, potential of ecotourism in Kerala and ecotourism policy guidelines of India.

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

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

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

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

2.5. Summary

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

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

A review of the Indian literature on tourism found that the major issues discussed in them included the general trend in the growth of Indian tourism, the poor infrastructure and accommodation facilities, absence or weak tourism development

policy of the central Government and the restraining influence of foreign exchange controls on tourism in the earlier years.

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

Chapter 3

A Profile of Global Tourism Development

3.1. Introduction

The peace and prosperity witnessed by the post World War II population (independent nations) nourished an unhindered growth of tourism. Many countries stimulated tourism development to enhance their national economic growth. Uncontrolled growth of tourism however, leads to baneful economic and ecological consequences. It may be the economic leakages from the higher order consumer demands of the tourists or it can be the detrimental effect by the over use or abuse of the environment which leads to these consequences. This chapter examines the growth in global tourism in terms of tourist arrivals and tourism receipts. The following section analyses international tourism data with special emphasis on spatial variation in growth. Region-wise, sub region-wise and country-wise variations have been found out and the best performers in tourism business were identified. The social, cultural and economic factors that influenced the growth have been indicated, along with the role played by international organisations in promoting tourism. The last section gives the summary of the findings of this chapter.

3.2. Trends in global tourism

The objective of this section is to describe the status of international tourism. This will be done by presenting tourism developments over time using WTO's Tourism Statistics (UNWTO, 2008a). The generating forces (macro level influences on tourism) will be examined to explain the striking changes in tourism industry.

3.2.1. International tourist arrivals

WTO's tourism statistics are published in *Tourism Highlights* released annually on the occasion of World Tourism Day (September, 27). *Tourism Highlights* provide a consolidated set of data and trends for international tourism in the year prior to its date of publication. Information on short term tourism data and trends are available in World Tourism Barometer at www.unwto.org/facts/eng/barometer.htm (UNWTO, 2008b). Instead of giving country wise data, WTO publishes consolidated data region-wise and sub region-wise. Six regions are recognized; Europe, Asia and the Pacific, South Asia, Americas, Africa and Middle East. The countries coming under each region are named in appendix 3.1. Data on international tourist arrivals,¹ region-wise, for selected years between 1950 to 2007 are given in table 3.1.

Table 3.1: International tourist arrivals (region-wise) for selected years between 1950 and 2007

Year	Africa	Americas	Asia and the Pacific	Europe	Middle East	World
	(million)					
1950	0.5	7.5	0.2	16.8	0.2	25.3
1960	0.8	16.7	0.9	50.4	0.6	69.3
1970	2.4	42.3	6.2	113.0	1.9	165.8
1980	7.2	62.3	23.0	178.5	7.1	278.1
1990	15.2	92.8	56.2	265.6	9.6	439.5
2000	28.3	128.1	110.5	393.9	24.2	687.0
2001	29.1	122.1	115.7	395.2	24.5	686.7
2002	30.0	116.7	124.9	407.0	28.5	707.0
2003	31.6	113.1	113.3	407.1	29.5	694.6
2004	34.5	125.7	144.2	424.4	36.3	765.1
2005	37.3	133.5	155.4	441.5	39.0	806.8
2006	41.4	135.8	167.0	462.2	40.9	847.0
2007	44.4	142.5	184.3	484.4	47.6	903.0

Source: UNWTO, (2006), p.8 and UNWTO, (2008a), p.3

¹ The contribution of South Asia is not shown separately. In certain analysis, due to the very small figure, UNWTO merge the contribution of South Asia with the Asia and the Pacific region.

Table 3.1 shows that the international tourist arrivals grew from 25.3 million in 1950 to 903.0 million in 2007. The maximum arrivals were recorded for the European region, 16.8 million in 1950 and 484.4 million in 2007. This was followed by Americas which recorded 7.5 million in 1950 and 142.5 million in 2007. Asia and the Pacific region (which included arrivals for South Asia) started at a meagre number of 0.2 million in 1950, but recorded 184.3 million in 2007. Other regions Middle East and Africa also recorded similar trend in international tourist arrivals. The data clearly show wide disparity in tourist arrivals among the tourism regions.

International tourist arrivals grew from 25.3 million in 1950 to 439.5 million in 1990 showing about 17 times enhancement over a span of 40 years. Between 1990 and 2007 it almost doubled to reach 903.0 million. Up to 1990 Asia and the Pacific, Africa and Middle East regions recorded comparatively lower number of tourist arrivals but the performance of these regions, thereafter, improved very much. Though the share is less in the global tourism market, the African region (15.2 million to 44.4 million) and the Asia and the Pacific region (56.2 million to 184.3 million) recorded about 3 times increase, whereas the Middle East region recorded about 5 times (9.6 million to 47.6 million) increase in international tourist arrivals between 1990 and 2007. At the same time, Americas and the Europe, the dominant regions in international tourist arrivals marked only about 1.5 times (92.8 million to 142.5 million) and 2 times (265.6 million to 484.4 million) increase respectively.

The disparity in international tourist arrivals at sub regional levels, for selected years between 1990 and 2007 is presented in table 3.2.

Table 3.2: International tourist arrivals (sub region-wise) for selected years between 1990 and 2007

Regions / Sub regions	1990	1995	2000	2005	2006	2007	Market Share (%) 2007	Change (%) (07/06)	Average annual growth (%) (00-07)
	(million)								
Europe	262.6	311.3	393.5	440.3	462.2	484.4	53.6	4.8	3.0
Northern Europe	28.6	35.8	43.7	52.8	56.4	57.6	6.4	2.2	4.0
Western Europe	108.6	112.2	139.7	142.4	149.5	154.9	17.1	3.6	1.5
Central/ Eastern Europe	31.5	60.6	69.4	87.8	91.5	95.6	10.6	4.5	4.7
Southern/ Mediterranean Europe	93.9	102.7	140.8	157.3	164.8	176.2	19.5	7.0	3.3
Asia and the Pacific	52.6	77.6	103.2	146.5	157.9	174.5	19.3	10.5	8.6
North-East Asia	26.4	41.3	58.3	87.5	94.3	104.2	11.5	10.6	8.6
South-East Asia	21.1	28.2	35.6	48.5	53.1	59.6	6.6	12.2	7.6
Oceania	5.2	8.1	9.2	10.5	10.5	10.7	1.2	1.7	2.2
South Asia	3.2	4.2	6.1	8.1	9.1	9.8	1.1	7.1	7.5
Americas	92.8	109.0	128.2	133.4	135.8	142.5	15.8	4.9	1.5
North America	71.7	80.7	91.5	89.9	90.6	95.3	10.6	5.2	0.6
Caribbean	11.4	14.0	17.1	18.8	19.4	19.5	2.2	0.1	1.9
Central America	1.9	2.6	4.3	6.4	7.1	7.7	0.9	9.6	8.6
South America	7.7	11.7	15.3	18.2	18.7	19.9	2.2	6.4	3.9
Africa	15.2	20.1	27.9	37.3	41.4	44.4	4.9	7.4	6.9
North Africa	8.4	7.3	10.2	13.9	15.1	16.3	1.8	7.9	6.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	6.8	12.8	17.7	23.3	26.3	28.2	3.1	7.1	6.9
Middle East	9.6	13.7	24.4	37.8	40.9	47.6	5.3	16.4	10.0
World	436.0	536.0	683.0	803.0	847.0	903.0	100.0	6.6	4.1

Source: UNWTO, (2008a), p.3

Table 3.2 shows that in 2007, within European region the maximum international tourist arrivals were recorded in Southern/Mediterranean Europe (176.2 million) which accounted for 19.5% of the global tourist arrivals. The minimum was recorded in Northern Europe (57.6 million), making 6.4% of the global tourists. Within the Asia and the Pacific region, North East Asia sub region was the best

performer with 104.2 million tourist arrivals which accounted for 11.5% of global tourist arrivals. Among the sub regions in Americas, North America had the lion share of global tourists (94.3 million), claiming 10.6% of the global share. The global growth rate was 4.1% for the period 2000-07.

Between 2006 and 2007, an amazing growth rate of 6.6% was recorded in the international tourist arrivals. The growth rate was the highest in Middle East (16.4%), followed by Asia and the Pacific (10.5%), Africa (7.4%) and South Asia (7.1%), American region (4.9%) and European region (4.8%).

The table also shows the market share of international tourist arrivals in 2007. Europe (53.6%) and Americas (15.8%) together bagged 69.4% indicating their strength in the global tourism market. All through the periods for which data are given in table 3.2, the same pattern is observed. This indicates the maturity of these tourism markets. Sub region-wise, the performance (market share) of South Asia (1.1%) was the least followed by Africa (4.9%) and Middle East (5.3%) indicating that tourism activities in these regions are in their infancy.

3.2.2. International tourism receipts

For many destinations, visitor expenditure on accommodation, food and drink, local transport, entertainment, shopping, etc. is an important pillar of their economies, creating much needed employment opportunities for development. Destination countries count receipts from international tourists as export earnings. Table 3.3 shows the international tourism receipts for selected years between 1950-2007.

Table 3.3: International tourism receipts (region-wise)² for selected years between 1950 and 2007

Year	Africa	Americas	Asia and the Pacific	Europe	Middle East	World
	(US \$ billion)					
1950	0.1	1.1	0.0	0.9	0.0	2.1
1960	0.2	2.5	0.2	3.9	0.1	6.9
1970	0.5	4.8	1.2	11.0	0.4	17.9
1980	3.4	24.7	11.2	61.6	3.5	104.4
1990	6.4	69.3	46.5	142.9	5.1	270.2
2000	10.5	130.8	90.2	232.5	17.6	481.6
2001	11.5	119.8	92.9	227.5	18.1	469.9
2002	12.0	113.5	101.4	241.9	19.4	488.2
2003	16.1	114.2	98.4	283.4	22.5	534.6
2004	19.2	132.0	129.5	328.5	25.5	634.7
2005	21.5	144.6	140.8	348.3	27.6	682.7
2006	24.6	154.1	156.5	376.9	29.9	742.0
2007	28.3	171.1	188.9	433.4	34.2	856.0

Source: UNWTO, (2006), p.2 and UNWTO, (2008a), p.3

It can be seen from the table that international tourism receipts increased from US\$ 2.1 billion in 1950 to US \$ 856.0 billion in 2007. The maximum receipts were recorded by the European region, US \$ 0.9 billion in 1950 and US \$ 434.4 billion in 2007. This was followed by Americas which recorded US \$ 1.1 billion in 1950 and US \$ 171.1 billion in 2007. Asia and the Pacific region (which included arrivals for South Asia also) which had no receipts in 1950, recorded US \$ 188.9 billion in 2007. Other regions, i.e., Middle East and Africa, also recorded similar trends in international tourism receipts. The data clearly show wide disparity in tourism receipts among the different regions.

Receipts from international tourism (sub region-wise), in billion US\$ for 2006 and 2007, are presented in table 3.4.

² The contribution of South Asia is not shown separately. UNWTO merged the contribution of South Asia with the Asia and the Pacific region.

Table 3.4: International tourism receipts (sub region-wise) for 2006 and 2007

Region	2006	2007	Market Share (%) 2007
	(US \$ billion)		
Europe	376.9	433.4	50.6
Northern Europe	60.3	69.7	8.1
Western Europe	131.6	149.1	17.4
Central/Eastern Europe	38.2	48.3	5.6
Southern/Mediterranean Europe	146.9	166.4	19.4
Asia and the Pacific	145.3	175.5	20.5
North-East Asia	75.2	89.2	10.4
South-East Asia	43.6	54.0	6.3
Oceania	26.6	32.3	3.8
South Asia	11.2	13.4	1.6
Americas	154.1	171.1	20.0
North America	112.5	125.1	14.6
Caribbean	21.7	22.6	2.6
Central America	5.5	6.3	0.7
South America	14.4	17.2	2.0
Africa	24.6	28.3	3.3
North Africa	8.7	10.3	1.2
Subsaharan Africa	15.9	18.0	2.1
Middle East	29.9	34.2	4.0
World	742.0	856.0	100.0

Source: UNWTO, (2008a), p.4

Table 3.4 shows that as in the case of international tourist arrivals, Europe ranked first in tourism receipts, by receiving US\$ 434.3 billion (50.6 %) in 2007, followed by the Asia and the Pacific with a receipt of US\$ 175.5 billion (20.5%). Americas received US\$ 171.1 billion (20.0%) during 2007. In Europe the sub region of Southern/Mediterranean Europe claimed US\$ 161.4 billion as tourism receipts which accounted for 19.5% of global receipts. The sub region of Western Europe also performed well by claiming US\$ 149.1 billion which accounted for 17.4% of global tourism receipts. In Asia and the Pacific region, the North-east Asia sub region received US\$ 89.2 billion which was 10.4% of the global receipts. In Americas, North-American sub region took the lion share of tourism receipts by claiming US\$

125.1 billion (14.6%) of global receipts. Other sub regions received comparatively less.

A similar trend in sub region-wise tourism receipts was observed for 2006 also. The international tourism receipts showed an increase from US\$ 742.0 billion in 2006 to US\$ 856.0 billion in 2007 (about 15% increase). But this increase in dollar terms may not be true in real terms due to the devaluation of the US dollar against several world currencies and in particular Euro, in 2007 (UNWTO, 2008a, p.5).

It may be noted that Americas with only 15.8% share of international tourist arrivals have obtained a 20% share from international tourism receipts during 2007. It may be due to the fact that the geographical vastness of the region compels the foreign tourists to prolong their stay there.

Data presented in tables 3.1 to 3.4 clearly establish the remarkable growth in international tourism achieved in the past. The data also reflect the emergence of new destinations in Africa and Asia, both of which represent developing countries.

The remarkable growth rate in tourist arrivals and tourism receipts can be attributed to the technological, economic, social, cultural, ecological, institutional and political developments of the post World War II era. The impact of modern transport technology, especially in aviation field, has brought about a completely new meaning to travel and tourism. With the tremendous increase in speed, safety and comfort provided by new aircrafts, there is noticeable increase in the long distance, intercontinental and intra-regional tourism. The steady fall in cost of travelling, especially flying, resulted in increased traffic. The 'package holiday' introduced by

the air transport enables the tourists to perform their journey at rates substantially below the normal rates. Simultaneous developments in computer and communication technology increase the efficiency in data processing, lowering the need for administrative personnel and made information on travel possibilities more accessible.

Economic development and tourism development occur in parallel fashion. Rising per capita income coupled with increasing prosperity gave a higher purchasing power and an increase in discretionary income to a large majority of people. This made tourism and travel accessible to many. Increased mobility as a result of use of motorcar for travel is yet another economic factor which is responsible for growth of tourism in Europe and North America. Economic crisis lowers discretionary income. The crisis episodes are reflected in tourism numbers as shown by Amelung, *et al.* with respect to the oil crisis of 1979 (Amelung, *et al.* 1999, p.13). Neto observes that September 2001 terrorist attack in United States has affected the tourist flow worldwide (Neto, 2003b, p.213). WTO (UNWTO, 2009) and various media reported that the recent financial crisis (2008-09) severely affected the flow of international tourists.

The social causes of rapid growth of tourism can be linked with new attitudes towards travel and leisure. Traditionally considered as a luxury, travel now is considered to be a normal activity and an indispensable part of life styles and consumption patterns of a large majority of people enjoying a higher standard of living. The present day tourist is having a different kind of background than a traveller of the past. His ideas about travel are quite different as he comes from an informed social background. His tastes and preferences are much more varied. A

large number of people are now going abroad to participate in a variety of activities like business meetings, shopping, mountaineering, water skiing, trekking, winter sports and the like.

In many countries, the state plays a leading role in promoting tourism for their citizens. One way is to provide paid holidays. The term 'social tourism' is coined to describe the practice of the state helping the citizens who would not be able to meet the cost otherwise to undertake tours. Social tourism is to help the citizens who cannot save enough to pay for travel and accommodation.

Combined with this, there was a very positive image of tourism development conveyed by the World Bank and other institutions like United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO)³, World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC)⁴, Pacific Area Travel Association (PATA)⁵, International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO)⁶, International Air Transport Association (IATA)⁷, International Hotel and

³ World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) was established in the year 1975 with headquarters at Madrid, integrating the tourism activities of the world. In 1994, WTO proposed a road plan, called 'Silk Road Project' connecting 22 countries of the world. The present UNWTO Secretary-General is Mr. Francesco Frangialli.

⁴ World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) is a global forum comprising the Presidents, Chairpersons and CEOs of companies involved in the travel and tourism industry. Established in 1990, with headquarters in London, this private organisation works with governments around the world, helping to realise the full economic impact of tourism.

⁵ The Pacific Area Travel Association (PATA) was organized in Hawaii in 1951 as a non-profit Organisation to develop, promote and facilitate travel to and within the Pacific area.

⁶ International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO) was established on 4th April, 1947 as a specialized agency of the UN for a common purpose of promoting civil aviation on a global scale, with its headquarters at Montreal, Canada.

⁷ International Air Transport Association (IATA) was officially set up in the year 1945 (Both IATA and ICAO are the leading international agencies looking after various aspects of world aviation industry, including various problems and their solution in the civil air transport.)

Restaurant Association (IHRA)⁸, International Hotels and Environment Initiative (IEHI)⁹, etc. to fund/facilitate tourism projects. The efforts of all these associations and the cut-throat competition in the industry had further helped to develop the scope of travel/tourism even to space tourism¹⁰. Appendix 3.2 gives the alternative forms of tourism/tourism development.

Amelung, *et al.* point out the influence of political instability on tourism. Countries with wars going on and countries with a great potential of war are not suitable tourism destinations. The Middle East provides a good example of this phenomenon. Whereas tourism development in East Asia and the Pacific, and Americas is fairly steady, tourism development in the Middle East fluctuates considerably over time. One typical example is the instability created by Gulf War in the early 1990s which shows a marked drop in tourism arrivals and tourism receipts in 1991 (Amelung, *et al.* 1999, p.16).

Mill and Morrison observe that fashion has a major influence on tourism. Further, the authors report the popularity of sunbathing. In the nineteenth century a sun-tan was associated with a working man's life, and people favoured a white tan. In today's Western culture, having a sun-tan indicates wealth because 'travelling to the sun' is supposed to be done by the richer people. This made sunbathing very

⁸ International Hotel and Restaurant Association (IHRA) is based in Paris with a number of national associations, individual operators and hotel schools as members.

⁹ International Hotels and Environment Initiative (IEHI) is a non-profit programme of the Prince of Wales Business Leaders Forum, headquartered in London.

¹⁰ In April 2001, Dennis Tito flew to space as the first space tourist, followed by Mark Shuttleworth in the year 2002 and Gregory B. Bessent in the year 2005.

popular and prompted Westerns travel to sun, sea and sand (Mill and Morrison, 1985, p.65).

3.2.3. Top ten performers in global tourism

Table 3.5 presents the data on the performance of top ten countries in international tourist arrivals for 2006 and 2007.

Table 3.5: International tourist arrivals of top 10 performing countries of the world (2006 and 2007)

Rank in 2007	Countries	2006	2007	Change (%) 2007/2006
		(million)		
1	France	78.9	81.9	3.8
2	Spain	58.2	59.2	1.7
3	USA	51.0	56.0	9.8
4	China	49.9	54.7	9.6
5	Italy	41.1	43.7	6.3
6	UK	30.7	30.7	0.1
7	Germany	23.5	24.4	3.9
8	Ukraine	18.9	23.1	22.1
9	Turkey	18.9	22.2	17.6
10	Mexico	21.4	21.4	0.3
	Total	392.5	417.3	6.3
	World	847.0	903.0	6.6
	Percentage of top ten countries	46.3	46.2	-2.2

Source: UNWTO, (2008a), p.5

Table 3.5 clearly shows that the international tourist arrival is dominated by the European countries. Among the top ten performers in international tourist arrivals identified by WTO for 2007, seven belong to Europe (France, Spain, Italy, UK, Germany, Ukraine and Turkey), two belong to Americas (USA and Mexico) and one belongs to Asia and the Pacific (China). China is the only Asian country and Mexico, the only Latin American country which are placed in the list of top 10 countries in international tourism.

Table 3.6 explains the performance of top ten countries in international tourism receipts for 2006 and 2007.

Table 3.6: International tourism receipts of top 10 performing countries of the world (2006 and 2007)

Rank in 2007	Countries	2006	2007	Change (%) 2007/2006
		(US \$ billion)		
1	USA	85.7	96.7	12.8
2	Spain	51.1	57.8	13.1
3	France	46.3	54.2	17.0
4	Italy	38.1	42.7	11.9
5	China	33.9	41.9	23.5
6	UK	33.7	37.6	11.6
7	Germany	32.8	36.0	9.8
8	Australia	17.8	22.2	24.7
9	Austria	16.6	18.9	13.5
10	Turkey	16.9	18.5	9.7
	Total	372.9	426.5	14.4
	World	742.0	856.0	15.4
	Percentage of ten top countries	50.3	48.8	-3.0

Source: UNWTO, (2008a), p.5

Although the relative ranks of these countries have changed slightly, eight out of the top ten countries in the list of international tourist arrivals and international tourism receipts are the same. In terms of their earnings, these countries, however, could retain their respective ranks in both the years (2006 and 2007). The major difference between the two lists of top ten is that Ukraine and Mexico which were among the top ten in international tourist arrivals have been replaced by Australia and Austria in the list of top ten in international tourism receipts.

Comparing the two tables, it appears that France holds number one position ahead of Spain and the USA in tourist arrivals. The same three countries appear in the top three positions in the ranking of tourism receipts (table 3.6), but with the USA ranking first and France, third and Spain maintaining second rank in both the lists.

This highlights the fact that the USA attracts a greater share of higher spending long haul tourists than its European competitors which rely more on short haul tourism. China, fourth in arrivals remains fifth in terms of receipts, while the opposite holds for Italy. The UK and Germany rank sixth and seventh in both the lists. Eight to tenth places in terms of arrivals are taken by Ukraine, Turkey and Mexico while Australia, Austria and Turkey close the top ten in terms of tourism receipts. None of the countries from South Asia is present in any of the two tables. It can be seen that these 10 nations which constitute only 6.25% of 160 member WTO, shared among themselves 46.2% of international tourist arrivals (417.3 million out of 903 million) and about 50% of international tourism receipts (426.5 billion US\$ out of 856 billion US\$) in 2007. The nearness of the source markets together with the experience they have gained in the management of this service industry further explains the excellent performance of the top ten.

Regarding source regions, Amelung, *et al.* point out that for Europe and Americas, the major source is their own regions; 87% for Europe and 75% for Americas. But for South Asia, only 24% of international travellers are from South Asia (Amelung, *et al.* 1999, p.18). This might be attributable to the fact that Europe is more developed than South Asia. A developed nation can act as a tourist generating nation as well as a tourist destination, while the undeveloped and developing countries tend to act as destinations for the most part (*Ibid*, p.18).

3.2.4. Spatial distribution of global tourism

From tables 3.1 to 3.4, it has been observed that there is wide difference in tourism business among the international tourism regions of the world. Tourism businesses have concentrated in the two regions of Europe and Americas, from the

very beginning. Country-wise data on international tourism (arrivals as well as receipts) within each region are presented in tables 3.7 to 3.11 to bring out the spatial variation in tourism business within the regions.

Intra-regional variation in Europe is presented in table 3.7. According to UNWTO, 45 countries are included in this region (appendix 3.1). UNWTO did not include all 45 countries in table 3.7 (it considered the data of 26 nations only, because, the contributions from other 19 nations were not significant).

Table 3.7: International tourist arrivals and tourism receipts of nations of European region (2006 and 2007)

Sl.No	Countries	International tourist arrivals (thousand)				International tourism receipts (US\$ million)		
		2006	2007	Change % (2007/ 2006)	Share (%) 2007	2006	2007	Share (%) 2007
		(thousand)				(US\$ million)		
1	France	78,900	81,900	3.8	16.9	46345	54228	12.5
2	Spain	58,190	59,193	1.7	12.2	51,122	57795	13.3
3	Italy	41,058	43,654	6.3	9.0	38130	42651	9.8
4	UK	30,654	30,677	0.1	6.3	33695	37617	8.7
5	Germany	23,498	24,420	3.9	5.0	32801	36029	8.3
6	Ukraine	18,936	23,122	22.1	4.8	3485	4597	1.1
7	Turkey	18,916	22,248	17.6	4.6	16853	18487	4.3
8	Austria	20,269	20,766	2.5	4.3	16643	18887	4.4
9	Other (18) countries	121,457	126,300	4.0	36.9	95301	111583	37.6

Source: UNWTO, (2008a), p.5

Of the 45 countries belonging to this region, three countries, viz., France, Spain and Italy shared about 38.1% in tourist arrivals and 35.6% in tourism receipts, where as 18 countries (not listed in the table) shared 36.9% of tourism arrivals and 37.6% of tourism receipts. The lowest six performers in terms of international tourist arrivals and international tourist receipts, among the 26 countries of Europe, in 2007

were Bulgaria (1.1%), Czech Republic (1.4%), Belgium (1.5%), Switzerland (1.7%), Hungary (1.8%) and Croatia (1.9%) (UNWTO, 2008a, p.5).

Table 3.8 presents data on international tourist arrivals and tourism receipts in Asia and the Pacific region.

Table 3.8: International tourist arrivals and tourism receipts of nations of Asia and the Pacific region (2006 and 2007)

Sl. No	Countries	International tourist arrivals				International tourist receipts		
		2006	2007	Change % (2007/2006)	Share (%) 2007	2006	2007	Share (%) 2007
		(thousands)				(US\$ million)		
1	China	49,913	54,720	9.6	29.7	33949	41919	22.2
2	Australia	5,064	NA	NA	0.0	17,840	22244	11.8
3	Malaysia	17,547	20,973	19.5	11.4	10424	14047	7.4
4	Hong Kong	15,822	17,154	8.4	9.3	11638	13766	7.3
5	Thailand	13,822	14,464	4.6	7.8	13401	15573	8.2
6	Macao	10,683	12,945	21.2	7.0	9828	NA	NA
7	Japan	7,334	8,347	13.8	4.5	8469	9334	4.9
8	Singapore	7,588	7,957	4.9	4.3	7194	8664	4.6
9	India	4,447	4,977	11.9	2.7	8634	10729	5.7
10	Other (19) countries	34,761	42,792	23.1	23.3	35160	52658	27.9

Source: UNWTO, (2008a), p.6

From table 3.8, it can be seen that China topped the list by sharing 29.7% of tourist arrivals and 22.2% of tourism receipts. The 19 countries of the region (not listed in the table) could bag only 23.3% of arrivals and 27.9% of receipts in 2007 (UNWTO, 2008a, p.6). Apart from China, other important performers of the region in tourism receipts were Australia (11.8%), Malaysia (7.4%), Hong Kong (7.3%) and Thailand (8.2%). South Asia region, to which India belongs to, is normally treated as a separate region. Since no other country other than India has shown any visible impact on international tourism (UNWTO, 2008a, p.6), the data on India has been presented along with Asia and the Pacific region by UNWTO.

The intra-regional variation in Americas is presented in table 3.9.

Table 3.9: International tourist arrivals and tourism receipts of nations of Americas (2006 and 2007)

Sl.No	Countries	International tourist arrivals				International tourism receipts		
		2006	2007	Change % (2007/2006)	Share (%) 2007	2006	2007	Share (%) 2007
		(thousand)				(US\$ million)		
1	USA	50,977	55,986	9.8	39.3	85720	96712	56.5
2	Mexico	21,353	21,424	0.3	15.0	12,177	12901	7.5
3	Canada	18,265	17,931	-1.8	12.6	14632	15486	9.0
4	Brazil	5,017	5,026	0.2	3.5	4316	4953	2.9
5	Argentina	4,173	4,562	9.3	3.2	3344	4313	2.5
6.	Other (19) countries	36,061	37,565	4.2	26.4	33915	36772	21.6

Source: UNWTO, (2008a), p.6

Data presented in table 3.9 show that the USA topped the countries in the region of Americas in international tourist arrivals (39.3%) as well as tourism receipts (56.5%). Mexico followed the USA in arrivals (15.0%) and Canada in receipts (9.0%). Other 18 countries (not listed in the table) could serve 26.4% of tourists and claim 21.6% of receipts.

Country-wise data on tourist arrivals and tourism receipt of African region are given in table 3.10. Though there are 48 nations in this region, UNWTO considered the contribution of only 25 nations. The contribution of African region to global tourist arrivals was only 4.9% in 2007 (table 3.1), and much of this was divided among the three countries, viz., South Africa (20.5%), Morocco (16.7%) and Tunisia (15.2%). Among the other noted countries of the region, Algeria (3.9%), Mauritius (2.0%), Swaziland (2.0%) and Zambia (2.0%) were respectively in the fourth to seventh positions among the top 25 nations in 2007 on the basis of international tourist arrivals.

Table 3.10: International tourist arrivals and tourism receipts of nations of Africa
(2006 and 2007)

Sl. No	Countries	International tourist arrivals				International tourism receipts		
		2006	2007	Change % (2007/2006)	Share (%) 2007	2006	2007	Share (%) 2007
		(thousand)				(US\$ million)		
1	S.Africa	8,396	9,090	8.3	20.5	7875.0	8418.0	29.8
2	Morocco	6,558	7,408	12.9	16.7	5967.0	7264.0	25.7
3	Tunisia	6,550	6,762	3.2	15.2	2275.0	2555.0	9.0
4	Algeria	1,638	1,743	6.4	3.9	215.0	N.A.	N.A.
5	Mauritius	788	907	15.1	2.0	1007.0	1299.0	4.6
6	Swaziland	873	870	-0.4	2.0	74.0	N.A.	N.A.
7	Zambia	757	897	18.5	2.0	110.0	N.A.	N.A.
8	Other (18) countries	15,809	16,753	5.9	37.7	7079.0	N.A.	N.A.

Source: UNWTO, (2008a), p.6

The other 18 countries (not included in the table) could get a share of 37.7% only.

In the Middle East region, though there are 12 nations, UNWTO compiled data from only nine nations.

Table 3.11: International tourist arrivals and tourism receipts of nations of Middle East (2006 and 2007)

Sl. No	Countries	International tourist arrivals				International tourism receipts		
		2006	2007	Change % (2007/2006)	Share (%) 2007	2006	2007	Share (%) 2007
		(thousand)				(US\$ million)		
1	Saudi Arabia	8,620	11,531	33.8	24.2	4961.0	5228.0	15.3
2	Egypt	8,646	10,610	22.7	22.3	7591.0	9303.0	27.2
3	Syrian Arab Rep.	4,422	4,566	3.3	9.6	2025.0	N.A.	N.A.
4	Jordan	3,547	3,431	-3.3	7.2	2060.0	2312.0	6.8
5	Other (5) countries	15,695	17,495	11.5	36.7	13244.0	N.A.	N.A.

Source: UNWTO, (2008a), p.8

Among the countries of table 3.11, Saudi Arabia (24.2%) and Egypt (22.3%) shared the maximum of tourist arrivals, while the remaining seven countries of the

region obtained more or less equal shares. For tourism receipts, Egypt (27.2%) topped the list followed by Saudi Arabia (15.3%).

The region-wise report further shows that in absolute values, the performance of all the regions is increasing.

Clearly, South Asia, to which region India belongs to, have yet to gain the status of an attractive tourism destination in the global tourism market. The vast majority of developing and underdeveloped nations of Africa and South Asia received only a very small fraction of the global tourism spending. This situation can be closely related to the demographic transition theory of Cooper, *et al.* (Cooper, *et al.* 1993). The demographic transition theory uses four phases to describe changes in population during a country's development:

- 'High stationary phase' with high birth rates, high death rates, with a low stable population. This phase applies to most undeveloped countries.
- 'Early expanding phase', as a consequence of improved health care, where death rates fall, resulting in rapid population growth. The country starts functioning as a tourist destination, though no tourists are generated.
- 'Late expanding phase', where death rates have fallen and birth rates also start falling. The end of this phase parallels the economic drive to maturity. The country starts functioning as a tourist generator.
- 'Low stationary phase', as the low birth rates, low death rates and a high stable population. This phase applies to most developed countries.

(Cooper, *et al.* 1993 as quoted by Amelung, *et al.* 1999, p.14)

The spatial pattern of distribution of international tourism underlies the fact that unless and until the local economy is developed to maintain 'the late expanding

phase' with low death and low birth rate, economic benefit through tourism development will not be achievable to low income countries.

3.2.5. Outbound tourism

The data presented on outbound tourism in table 3.12, give an insight into the tourist generating markets of the world. As in the case of inbound tourism (table 3.1), the three regions, Europe, Asia and the Pacific and Americas generated the major share (92.3%) of outbound tourists. In all these regions, outbound tourism exceeds inbound tourism (compare tables 3.2 and 3.12) by slight margins, more or less nullifying the 'export' effect of tourism, as the expenditure of outbound tourists are considered as 'imports' in tourism parlance. About 80% of the international travel takes place within these regions (UNWTO, 2008a, p.9).

Table 3.12: Region-wise details of outbound tourists for selected years between 1990 and 2007

Regions	1990	1995	2000	2005	2006	2007	Market share	Change (%) 2007/2006	Average annual growth rate
	(in million)								
Europe	252.7	311.4	399.2	455.3	475.2	502.0	55.6	5.6	3.3
Asia and the Pacific	58.9	86.2	113.9	154.0	165.9	181.9	20.1	9.6	6.9
Americas	99.8	108.4	131.0	135.8	142.8	149.7	16.6	4.8	1.9
Africa	9.9	12.8	16.3	21.8	24.9	26.7	3.0	7.3	7.4
Middle East	8.2	9.6	13.8	22.6	24.3	27.8	3.1	14.3	10.6
Origin not specified	6.6	7.5	9.2	13.9	14.2	15.2	1.7	7.1	7.4
World	436.0	536.0	683.0	803.0	847.0	903.0	100.0	6.6	4.1

Source: UNWTO, (2008a), p.9

In terms of source markets, international tourism is still largely concentrated in the industrialized countries of Europe, the Americas and Asia and the Pacific. The Middle East countries have shown substantial increase in outbound tourism from 8.2

million in 1990 to 27.8 million in 2007, recording an average annual increase of 10.6%, against a global average of 4.1% (UNWTO, 2008a, p.9).

3.2.6. Vision 2020 of global tourism

Tourism Vision 2020 of the World Tourism Organisation is a long-term forecast and assessment of the development of tourism up to the year 2020. The vision gave a forecast for 25 years making 1995 as the base year. Forecast of international tourist arrivals is given in table 3.13.

Table 3.13: Forecast of international tourist arrivals (region-wise)

Region	Base Year	Forecasts		Average annual growth rate (%)	Share (%)	
	1995	2010	2020	1995-2020	1995	2020
	(in million)					
Africa	20.0	47.0	77.0	5.5	3.6	5.0
Americas	109.0	190.0	282.0	3.9	19.3	18.1
East Asia/Pacific	81.0	195.0	397.0	6.5	14.4	25.4
Europe	338.0	527.0	717.0	3.0	59.8	45.9
Middle East	12.0	36.0	69.0	7.1	2.2	4.4
South Asia	4.0	11.0	19.0	6.2	0.7	1.2
Total	565.0	1006.0	1561.0	4.1	100.0	100.0

Source: UNWTO, (2008b), p.9

The vision 2020 forecasted an international tourist arrival of 1006 million by 2010 and 1561 million by 2020, from the 1995 level of 565 million.

The growth rates, for the period 1995 to 2020 projected for Middle East (7.1%), East Asia and the Pacific (6.5%), South Asia (6.2%) and Africa (5.5%) were found to be higher than the world average growth rate (4.1%). Europe was expected to maintain its position as the number one in tourism business, but its share might decline from 60% of 1995 to 46% in 2020. It is important to note that WTO data include business travel and currently this item accounts for almost 15% of international arrivals (UNWTO, 2008b, p.9).

3.3. Globalisation and tourism

The impact of globalisation on tourism has not been understood fully. The increase in flows of trade and investment with progressive liberalisation and integration between countries has been fundamental factors in the growth of tourism. These processes lead to the growth of business travel, which, in turn, entails the expansion of leisure and recreation tourism. According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO), globalisation will give rise to increased migration pressures in the years ahead (ILO, 2001, p.25).

International Monetary Fund (IMF) has included tourism as part of its Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs). The SAPs open up the local economy to foreign investments and multinational corporations, while eliminating subsidies and protection to local industries. Under IMF-World Bank prescriptions, tourism is classified as an export product. With its capacity to earn billions of dollars, tourism is being promoted by IMF-WB as a means for Third World Countries to repay their debts to them (Equations, 2002, p.158). Third World Governments have, therefore, tried to fulfil their commitments to these SAPs by large-scale investments in tourism-related ventures.

The General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) became part of the “New World Trade Order” under the aegis of the World Trade Organisation as established by the Uruguay Round in 1994. The World Trade Organisation’s General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) sets a framework for future liberalisation of service trade. It develops rules and disciplines that apply both to specific sectors (e.g. tourism, transport, energy) and the modes of supply of the services rendered (e.g.

cross-border, commercial presence in another country). The objective is to open up service market and prevent World Trade Organisation member governments from changing their domestic regulations to introduce new barriers to entry into these specific sectors and modes (Denman, 2001).

In February 2000, World Trade Organisation members entered into a new round of multilateral negotiations on services, mandated by GATS. Tourism is one of the major areas of economic activity covered under the World Trade Organisation's General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS). In order to generate much needed foreign exchange revenues, 120 member countries made commitments to facilitate market access and foreign direct investment in tourism. To sum up, GATS claims that it makes easier for big travel and tourism transnational corporations to invest in the local tourism business of third world countries and to transfer staff from one country to anywhere in the world. But the existence of GATS is feared to adversely affect the sustainability of tourism development. Williams summarised the negative impacts of the GATS as: (i) the GATS would allow foreign companies to merge or take over local companies. This is a threat to indigenous-owned and operated sustainable tourism initiatives, (ii) the GATS would allow upward pressure on the exchange rates with implications for real wages, the price of land and other resources as well as for traditional exports such as agriculture, mining and fishing, (iii) domestic regulations/rules may impact governments' use of taxation policies to prevent de-industrialisation and de-agriculturalisation. With liberalisation, governments may not be able to impose commodity taxes to increase the welfare effects of tourism, (iv) governments will not be able to mitigate or limit the impact of the outflow of repatriated earnings of Foreign Direct Investment, which will result in reduced

welfare, and (v) GATS may prove detrimental to eco and heritage tourism development (Williams, 2002, p.13).

3.4. Summary

This chapter noted the remarkable growth in international tourist arrivals and international tourism receipts. It found that the tourism activities were still concentrated in the developed nations of Europe and Americas, and Asia and the Pacific regions. Maturity of the tourism sector in Europe and Americas was indicated by the high tourist arrivals and tourism receipts and the steady growth rates. The remarkable growth rate in tourist arrivals and tourism receipts are attributed to the technological, economic, social, cultural, ecological, institutional and political developments of the post World War II era. The dominance of countries of Europe and Americas was noted in the case of outbound tourism also. The Tourism Vision of the WTO outlined in this chapter noted a bright future for international tourism in the coming years. This chapter also recognised the adverse consequences of globalisation on tourism. It further pointed out that the inclusion of tourism as a part of IMF's Structural Adjustment Programmes and World Trade Organisation's General Agreement on Trade in Services are likely to affect the sustainability of tourism, especially in developing countries. The next chapter is an attempt to showcase the tourism development in India.

Chapter 4

Development of Tourism in India

4.1. Introduction

The robust growth recorded by international tourism during the post World War II period was seen in Chapter three. It was also noted that international tourism was predominantly concentrated in industrialised nations. The under-developed and least developing nations of Asia, Africa and Latin America had only a very small role to play. With the liberalisation of world trade and removal of restrictive policies, expansion of tourism activities to least developed and developing countries is being encouraged, the impacts of which are yet to be evaluated. Owing to the conflicts of interests of the stakeholders of this business, the argument for and against tourism development in under-developed and least developing nations is likely to continue. It is considered appropriate in this context to evaluate the status of Indian tourism. The following section discusses the status of Indian tourism in terms of foreign tourist arrivals in India, which is followed by a discussion on foreign exchange earnings from tourism. The status of Indian tourism in relation to global tourism and regional tourism is discussed in the next section and a review of markets for Indian tourism is given in the following section. This chapter further discusses the mode of travel of foreign tourists to India, their entry points, seasonality in their visits and the state-wise distribution of tourist visits. The relative position of domestic tourism and the infrastructure developed to support this industry are also presented. A detailed analysis of tourism development in India under Five Year Plans is also made, which is followed by a summary of this chapter.

4.2. Foreign tourist arrivals in India

The Ministry of Tourism, Government of India, publishes the data on tourism periodically. The foreign tourist arrival data are being collected from disembarkation cards (GOI, 2008a, p.7). The estimates of foreign exchange earnings from tourism is estimated by the Reserve Bank of India as part of balance of payment statistics based on a sample survey of foreign exchange transactions through authorised dealers. The statistics of domestic tourist visits are obtained from the state/UT governments through a monthly return (*Ibid*, p.67)

Table 4.1 presents the data on foreign tourist arrivals (FTAs) in million and foreign exchange earnings (FEEs) from tourism in million US\$ in India for the period from 1996 to 2007, along with percentage changes over the previous years.

Table 4.1: FTAs and FEEs in India from 1996 to 2007

Year	FTAs (million)	% change over the previous year	FEE from Tourism in India (US\$ million)	% change over the previous year
1996	2.3	7.7	2832.0	9.6
1997	2.4	3.8	2889.0	2.0
1998	2.4	-0.7	2948.0	2.0
1999	2.5	5.2	3009.0	2.1
2000	2.7	6.7	3460.0	15.0
2001	2.5	-4.2	3198.0	-7.6
2002	2.4	-6.0	3103.0	-3.0
2003	2.7	14.3	4463.0	43.8
2004	3.5	26.8	6170.0	38.2
2005	3.9	13.3	7493.0	21.4
2006	4.5	13.5	8634.0	15.2
2007	5.1	14.3	10729.0	24.3

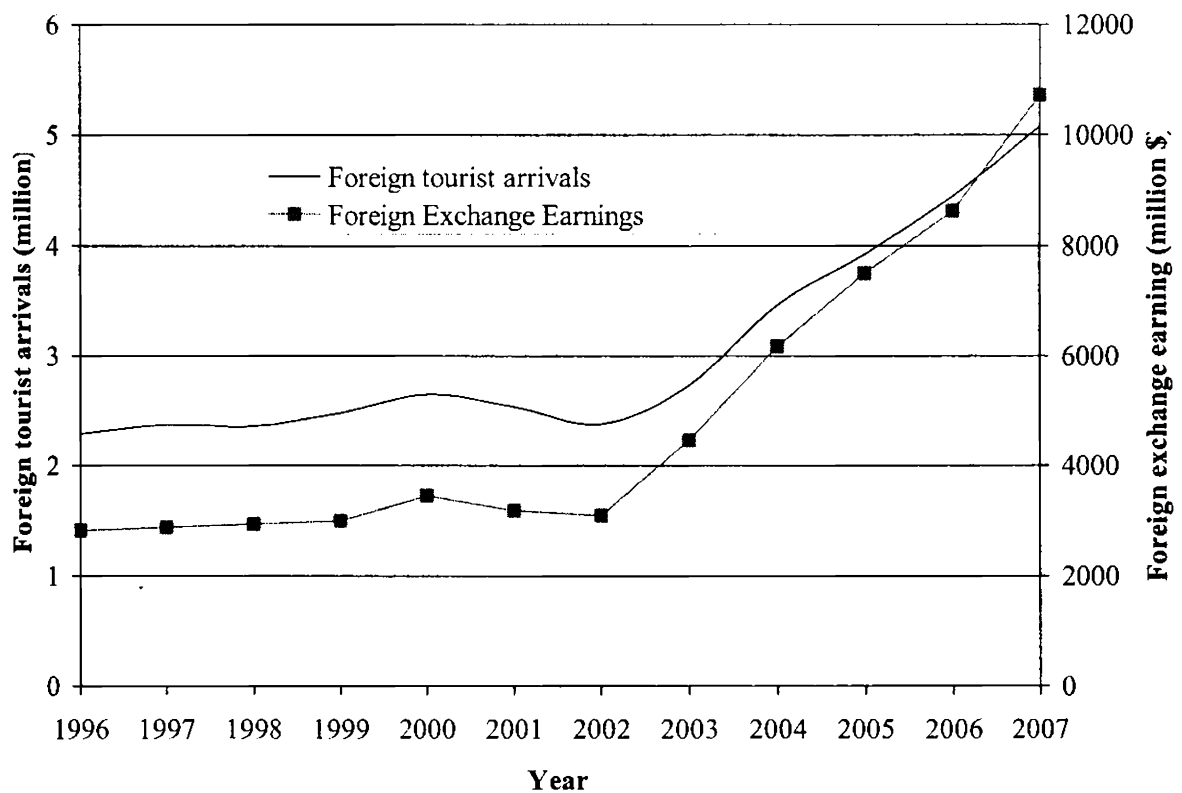
Source: GOI, (2008a), p.7 and p.45

From table 4.1, it can be seen that the foreign tourist arrivals to India increased from 2.3 million in 1996 to 5.1 million in 2007. Although the overall growth in tourist arrival was impressive, the growth rate was irregular. Foreign tourist arrivals increased during 1996, 1997, 1999, 2000 and 2003-2007, as compared with the previous years. There was decrease in the number of FTAs for the years 1998, 2001 and 2002 when compared with the previous years. The consistent growth recorded from 2003 (2.7 million) to 2007 (5.1 million) is quite impressive and gives an average growth rate of 16.4%, which surpassed the expectations of even WTO, which had forecasted a growth rate of 6.2% for South Asia region (UNWTO, 2008b, p.10).

With respect to foreign exchange earnings (in million US\$) from tourism business in India, the growth was more impressive. Tourism receipts increased from US\$ 2832 million in 1996 to US\$ 10729 million in 2007. An increase in FEE is observed during the whole period except 2001 and 2002, when a decrease was observed in the case of FTAs as well. Between 1996 and 2002, the growth rate fluctuated between -3 % and 15%. In the year 1998, when a reduction of 0.7% was observed in FTAs, a 2% increase of FEE was recorded. Between 2003 and 2007 the FEEs increased from US\$ 4463 million to US\$ 10729 million, registering an average annual increase of 28.5%.

The general trend in foreign tourist arrivals and foreign exchange earnings are shown in figure 4.1.

Fig. 4.1: Foreign tourist arrivals (FTAs) and foreign exchange earnings (FEEs) in India from 1996 to 2007



Source: GOI, (2008a), p.7 and p.45

Foreign tourist arrivals (FTAs) and foreign exchange earnings (FEEs) in India exhibited an upward trend from 1996 to 2007, except for the years 2001 and 2002 as shown in figure 4.1. It is also clear that the increase in foreign exchange earnings is faster than the increase in foreign tourist arrivals.

In this context it is interesting to look at the share of India in the tourist arrivals of World, Asia and the Pacific. The share of India in international tourist arrivals in the world and in Asia and the Pacific region for the period 1996 to 2007, along with the number of FTAs in India is given in table 4.2

Table 4.2: Share of India in international tourist arrivals of World and Asia and the Pacific region (1996-2007)

Year	International tourist arrivals (in million)		FTAs in India (million)	% share of FTAs in India	
	World	Asia and the Pacific		World	Asia and the Pacific
1996	572.40	90.40	2.29	0.40	2.53
1997	596.00	89.70	2.37	0.40	2.65
1998	614.30	89.40	2.36	0.38	2.64
1999	637.40	98.80	2.48	0.39	2.51
2000	684.40	110.60	2.65	0.39	2.40
2001	684.70	115.80	2.54	0.37	2.19
2002	704.70	124.90	2.38	0.34	1.91
2003	692.20	113.20	2.73	0.39	2.41
2004	761.40	144.10	3.46	0.45	2.40
2005	803.00	155.30	3.92	0.49	2.52
2006	847.00	167.00	4.45	0.53	2.66
2007	903.00	184.30	5.08	0.56	2.76

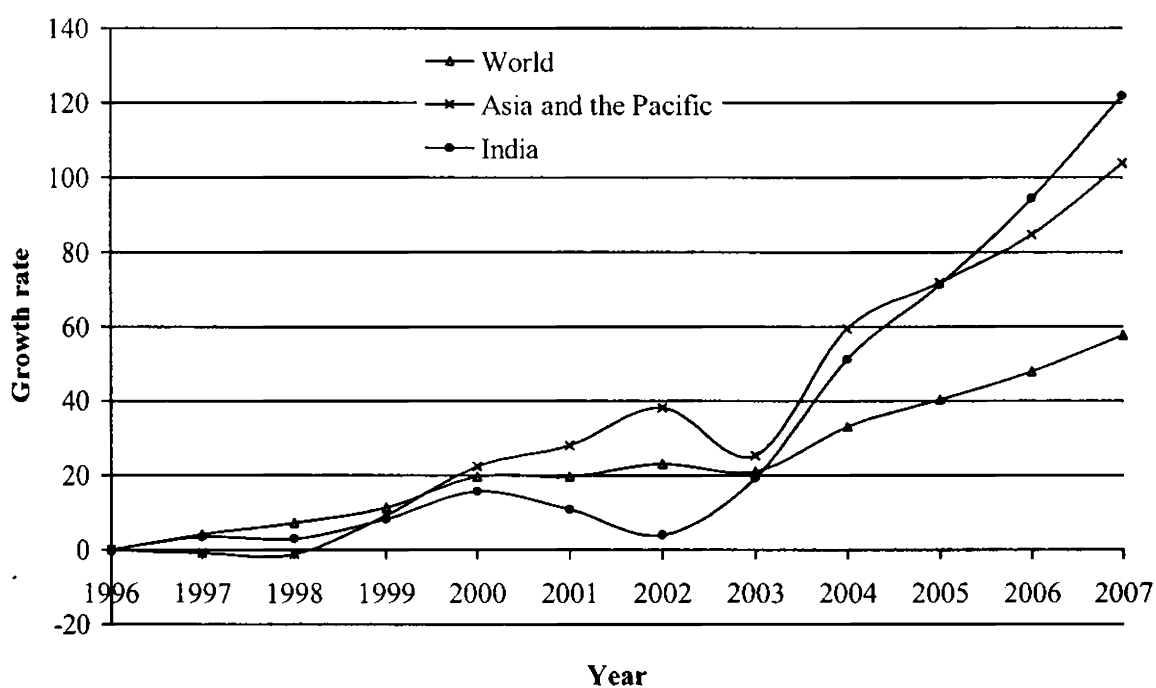
Source: GOI, (2008a), p.50

From table 4.2 it can be seen that the share of India in international tourist arrivals increased from 0.40 % in 1996 to 0.56% in 2007. Its share in Asia and the Pacific region increased from 2.53% to 2.76% during the same period.

The table also shows that the FTA in India increased from 2.29 million in 1996 to 5.08 million in 2007 reflecting an increase of 121.8%, when global tourist arrivals increased from 572.4 million to 903.0 million and Asia and the Pacific tourist arrivals increased from 90.4 million to 184.3 million, marking an increase of 57.8% and 103.8% respectively in the two cases. The higher percentage growth in FTA in India is an indicator of its evolving development.

Figure 4.2 depicts the percentage increase in international tourist arrivals in World, Asia and the Pacific region and India from 1996 to 2007.

Fig. 4.2: Growth rate of international tourist arrivals in World, Asia and the Pacific and India (1996 to 2007)



Source: UNWTO (2008a), GOI, (2008a)

It is clear from figure 4.2 that from 2003 onwards, a sharp increase is noted in the growth rate of FTAs in India and Asia and the Pacific region, but the growth rate in India was much higher than that of Asia and the Pacific region. The greater growth rate of India has definitely contributed to the higher growth rate achieved by Asia and the Pacific region in the recent past (UNWTO, 2008a, p.6).

India's share in international tourism receipts (in billion US\$) against the world receipts and the Asia and the Pacific region's receipts from 1996 to 2007 is presented in table 4.3. From table 4.3, it can be seen that international tourism receipts increased from US\$ 438.3 billion in 1996 to US\$ 856 billion in 2007 (an approximate two fold increase), but India's receipts increased from US\$ 2.8 billion in 1996 to US\$ 10.7 billion in 2007 (an approximate four fold increase).

Table 4.3: Share of India in international tourism receipts of World and Asia and the Pacific region (1996 to 2007)

Year	International tourism receipts (US \$ billion)		FEE in India (US \$ million)	% share of India in	
	World	Asia and the Pacific		World	Asia and the Pacific
1996	438.30	84.80	2832.00	0.65	3.34
1997	441.80	82.20	2889.00	0.65	3.51
1998	444.10	72.10	2948.00	0.66	4.09
1999	457.30	79.00	3009.00	0.66	3.81
2000	474.10	85.20	3460.00	0.73	4.06
2001	462.20	88.00	3198.00	0.69	3.63
2002	480.10	96.30	3103.00	0.65	3.22
2003	527.20	93.50	4463.00	0.85	4.77
2004	629.00	123.90	6170.00	0.98	4.98
2005	680.00	134.60	7493.00	1.10	5.57
2006	742.00	156.50	8634.00	1.16	5.52
2007	856.00	188.90	10729.00	1.25	5.68

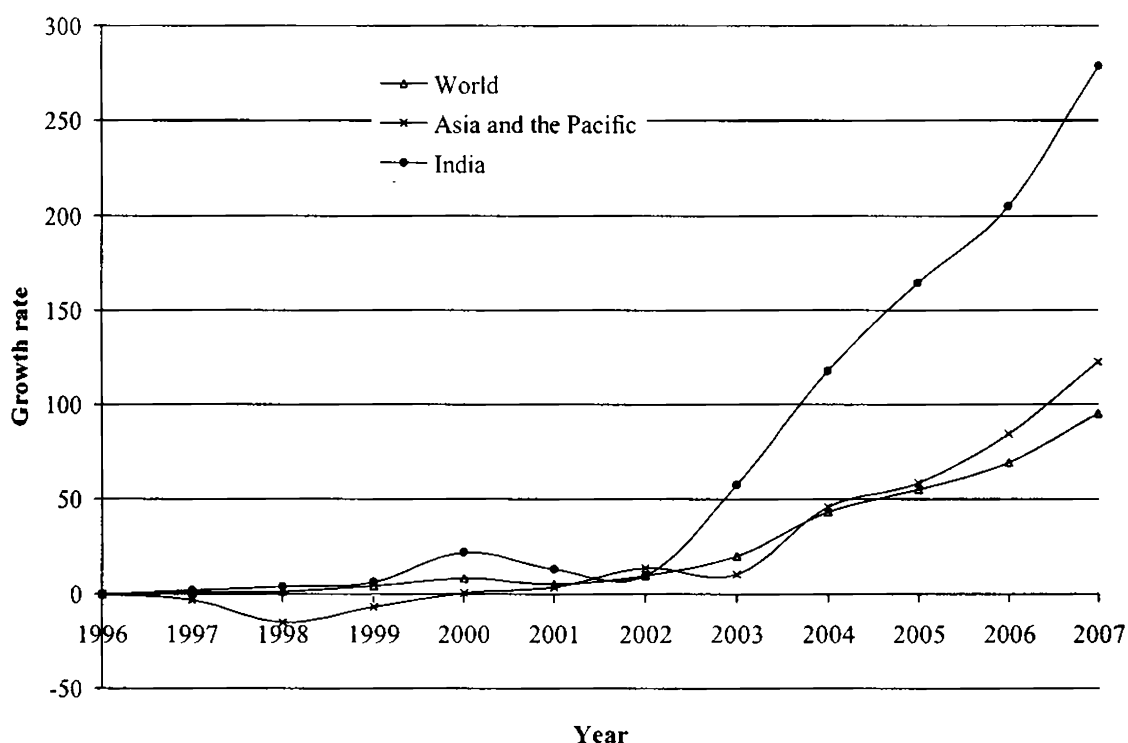
Source: GOI, (2008a), p.54

India's share in world tourism receipts increased from 0.65% in 1996 to 1.25% in 2007 showing that the tourist's expenditure in India is higher than the world average. This increase in tourism receipts can be attributed to relatively higher tourist expenditure in India, most probably due to the predominance of long haul foreign tourists.

The international tourism receipts in Asia and the Pacific region increased from US\$ 84.8 billion in 1996 to US\$ 188.9 billion in 2007, an approximate two fold increase, whereas, India's share in the regional receipts grew from 3.34% in 1996 to 5.68% in 2007 showing that the growth of international tourism in India was at a faster rate than in Asia and the Pacific region.

Figure 4.3 depicts the percentage increase in international tourist receipts in World, Asia and the Pacific region and India from 1996 to 2007.

Fig. 4.3: Growth rate of international tourism receipts in World, Asia and the Pacific and India (1996 to 2007)



Source: UNWTO, (2008a)

From figure 4.3, it is clear that a sharp increase in FEEs is noted in the case of India from 2002 onwards. The performance of Asia and Pacific region is better than that of world tourism.

The list of top ten source countries, which have generated tourists for India in 2007, is given in table 4.4. These countries contributed 3.27 million FTAs and shared 64.4% of the FTAs in India in 2007. Of the ten countries, the USA and the UK shared 16% each, followed by Bangladesh with 9% share. Canada, France, Sri Lanka and Germany shared approximately 4% each. Japan and Australia had a share of 3% each. Malaysia contributed 2%.

From the data it is clear that FTAs are dominated by long haul travellers from USA, UK, Canada, France, Germany, Japan and Australia.

Table 4.4: Top ten source countries for FTAs in India in 2007

Sl.No	Source Country	FTAs (million)	% share
1	USA	0.799	15.73
2	UK	0.796	15.67
3	Bangladesh	0.480	9.45
4	Canada	0.208	4.10
5	France	0.205	4.03
6	Sri Lanka	0.204	4.02
7	Germany	0.184	3.62
8	Japan	0.146	2.86
9	Australia	0.136	2.67
10	Malayasia	0.113	2.22
Total of top 10 countries		3.271	64.37
Others		1.810	35.63
All Countries		5.081	100.00

Source: GOI, (2008a), p.33

Though the countries like USA, UK, France, Germany, Canada, Japan and Australia are contributing major share of India's international tourism arrivals, India's distance from these affluent tourist markets of the world act as a constraint on India's tourism industry. India's neighbours are not affluent and hence our tourism from neighbouring countries is not much.

FTAs from the top 15 source countries of Indian tourism for the period 1981 to 2007 are detailed in tables 4.5 and 4.6. The top eight countries (ranked in 2007) providing foreign tourists (FTAs) to India are UK, USA, Bangladesh, Canada, France, Sri Lanka, Germany and Japan as given in table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Major source countries (first 8 in 2007) of FTAs in India

from 1981 to 2007

Rank in 2007→	USA	UK	Bangla-Desh	Canada	France	Sri Lanka	Germany	Japan
Year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1981	82052	116684	192509	25358	57272	75842	55471	29032
1982	86806	120772	205410	25991	59267	76143	50885	29103
1983	95847	136823	213832	29857	50158	81716	52120	26662
1984	95651	124205	247543	25135	47148	75449	48930	29566
1985	95920	119544	272350	29022	44091	69063	45738	30573
1986	125364	160685	204260	39837	65948	75631	64811	36402
1987	134876	166590	185296	37677	64432	74351	72300	46240
1988	122888	200509	200617	37498	69799	70640	77543	49244
1989	134314	229496	213451	40306	78001	67680	78812	58707
1990	125303	235151	225566	41046	79496	68400	71374	59122
1991	117332	212052	251260	36142	69346	70088	72019	46655
1992	152288	244263	246589	43386	74304	71935	84422	60137
1993	158159	274168	277565	47800	70694	76898	83340	49616
1994	176482	300696	282271	56441	73088	89009	85352	63398
1995	203343	334827	318474	63821	82349	114157	89040	76042
1996	228829	360686	322355	74031	93325	107351	99853	99018
1997	244239	370567	355371	78570	91423	122080	105979	99729
1998	244687	376513	339757	80111	97898	118292	93993	89565
1999	251926	345085	414359	82892	85891	120072	85033	73373
2000	348292	432644	414437	84013	100022	129193	83881	98159
2001	329147	405472	431312	88600	102434	112813	80011	80634
2002	348182	387846	435867	93598	78194	108008	64891	59709
2003	410803	430917	454611	107671	97654	109098	76868	77996
2004	526120	555907	477446	135884	131824	128711	116679	96851
2005	611165	651803	456371	157643	152258	136400	120243	103082
2006	696739	734240	484401	176567	175345	154813	156808	119292
2007	799062	796191	480240	208214	204827	204084	184195	145538

Source: GOI, (2008a), pp.33-34

Table 4.6 gives details of FTAs from remaining seven countries (ranked in 2007). The countries are Australia, Malaysia, Pakistan, Italy, Singapore, China (main land) and South Korea.

Table 4.6: Major source countries (from 9th to 15th in 2007) of FTAs in India from 1981 to 2007

Rank in 2007→	Australia	Malayasia	Pakistan	Italy	Singapore	China (mainland)	South Korea
	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Year							
1981	20940	26458	233553	28503	17950	1371	2665
1982	23395	26552	222574	29791	19026	2107	4110
1983	23436	25796	206413	27947	21252	1716	3139
1984	24546	22993	110706	23570	19204	1386	3078
1985	22047	23265	150126	23187	18485	2247	3939
1986	33264	26209	166766	38548	24189	1533	1767
1987	32883	28480	135220	41151	26380	1705	2990
1988	31462	29635	150052	47612	27565	2099	3572
1989	30443	33120	185410	50751	29377	2727	3895
1990	30076	34278	151642	49194	32570	3089	3986
1991	22700	30617	190128	41129	28363	3476	3967
1992	26646	35201	186325	51138	35039	4778	5171
1993	28795	35334	44622	40315	40223	5157	4791
1994	33142	40762	42146	43510	44157	5833	7227
1995	36150	50039	42981	53015	48632	5111	9831
1996	48755	53370	41810	49910	47136	5613	16173
1997	50647	60401	45076	53854	52004	7369	15392
1998	57807	47496	44057	54058	54328	4312	16321
1999	73041	52613	42538	50677	53310	6487	19188
2000	53995	60513	54902	50419	46612	14420	23411
2001	52691	57869	52762	41351	42824	13901	27150
2002	50743	63748	2946	37136	44306	15422	29374
2003	58730	70750	10364	46908	48368	21152	35584
2004	81608	84390	67416	65561	60710	34100	47835
2005	96258	96276	88609	67642	68666	44897	49895
2006	109867	107286	83426	79978	82574	62330	70407
2007	135925	112741	106283	93540	92908	88103	84583

Source: GOI, (2008a), pp.34-35

Table 4.5 and 4.6 make clear that the tourist inflow to India from almost all these countries increased from 1981 to 2007, except, from Pakistan. In the case of Pakistan, the number of tourists decreased from 186325 in 1992 to 44622 in 1993. This reduction in tourist inflow led to 2946 FTAs in 2002. From 2003 onwards it started to show some notable increase. It is also worthwhile to note that the tourist inflow from most of these nations like USA, UK, Canada, France, Japan, Australia,

Malaysia, Italy, Singapore and South Korea had marked a reduction in 1991 compared to the previous year. This can be attributed to the economic crisis and the political instability of India during that period.

Table 4.7 presents data on the mode of travel of foreign tourists to India, between 1996 to 2007.

Table 4.7: Mode of travel for FTAs in India (1996-2007)

Year	% of tourists arrived by		
	Air	Sea	Land
1996	98.5	0.1	1.4
1997	98.5	0.0	1.5
1998	98.5	0.0	1.5
1999	98.4	0.0	1.6
2000	98.5	0.0	1.5
2001	87.1	0.9	12.0
2002	81.9	0.6	17.5
2003	83.1	0.5	16.4
2004	85.6	0.5	13.9
2005	86.5	0.4	13.1
2006	87.1	0.6	12.3
2007	88.4	0.6	11.0

Source: GOI, (2008a), p.16

From table 4.7 it can be seen that for most years, some 82% to 98% of the foreign visitors depended on air traffic to reach India. The use of sea route was negligible. However, the percentage of visitors who travelled by road to reach India varied from 11 to 18% from 2001 onwards. This is perhaps due to the increased flow of tourists by road from Bangladesh (from 1999 onwards) and from Pakistan (from 2004 onwards).

Table 4.8 gives details of the entry point of foreign visitors to India. In tune with the mode of travel they used, the entry points were mostly (68.5%) the international airports of Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai and Kolkata. Other points of entry

include airports like Bangalore, Thiruvananthapuram, Kochi, Kozhikode, etc. along with the land borders of India with Bangladesh, Nepal, Bhutan, Pakistan and Afghanistan.

Table 4.8: Port of entry for FTAs in India (1996-2007)

Year	% of FTAs				
	Mumbai Airport	Kolkata Airport	Chennai Airport	Delhi Airport	Others
1996	29.3	2.9	11.3	35.1	21.4
1997	33.6	3.4	13.1	39.7	10.2
1998	33.4	3.4	12.7	39.9	10.6
1999	33.5	3.4	13.6	38.6	10.6
2000	34.0	3.5	13.8	38.2	10.5
2001	26.7	4.4	12.0	33.7	23.2
2002	25.4	3.9	11.5	28.6	30.6
2003	24.1	3.7	10.5	30.8	30.9
2004	25.1	3.3	10.3	32.2	29.1
2005	24.4	3.0	9.9	31.8	30.9
2006	23.3	2.8	9.8	32.0	32.1
2007	23.8	3.0	10.3	31.4	31.5

Source: GOI, (2008a), p.20

The higher percentage (23% to 32%) of FTAs in “others” from 2001 onwards may be read along with the data in table 4.7, where a substantial increase in road travel was indicated from 2001 onwards.

4.2.1. Seasonality of Indian tourism

The seasonal (month-wise) distribution of FTAs in India for the period 2001 to 2007 is presented in table 4.9.

From table 4.9, it can be seen that, the maximum number of foreign tourists arrived in India in the month of December (except for 2001, when the maximum was recorded in January). The minimum number of foreign tourist arrivals was recorded for the month of May (except for 2002, when the minimum was recorded in June).

Table 4.9: Month-wise data of FTAs in India (2001-2007)

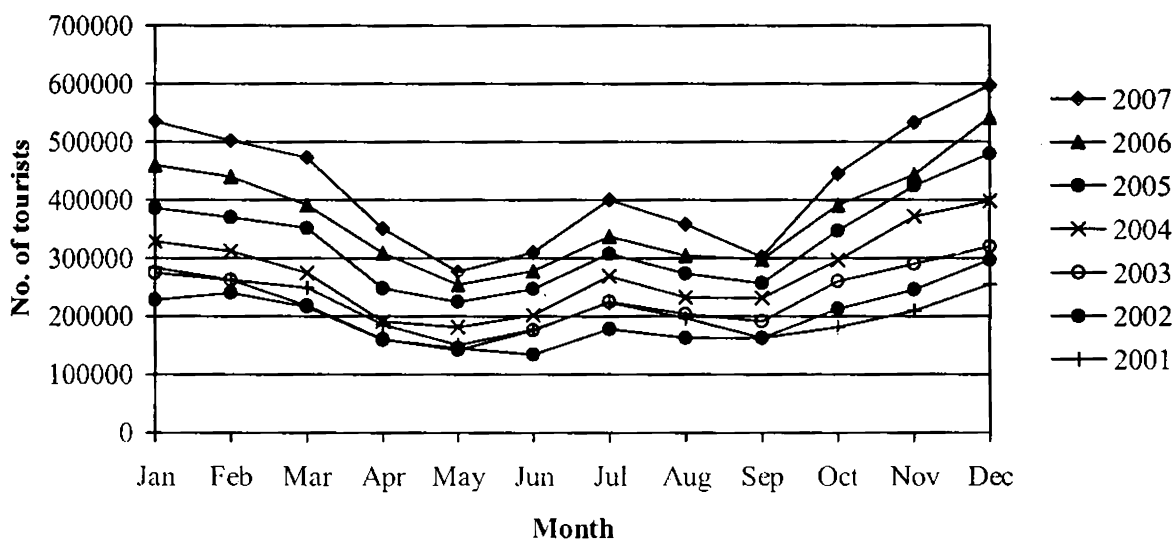
Month	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
January	283750	228150	274215	328115	385977	459489	535631
February	262306	241133	262692	312333	369844	439090	501692
March	248965	216839	218473	274214	352094	391009	472494
April	185338	159789	160941	191532	248416	309208	350550
May	151098	144571	141508	181716	225394	255009	277017
June	176716	134566	176324	202244	246970	278370	310364
July	224432	178231	225359	269518	307870	337332	399866
August	196517	162594	204940	232647	273856	304387	358446
September	162326	163089	191339	231584	257184	297891	301892
October	181605	213267	260569	296372	347757	391399	444564
November	209685	245661	290583	371828	423837	442413	532428
December	254544	296474	319271	398263	479411	541571	596560
Total	2537282	2384364	2726214	3464472	3918610	4447167	5081504

Source: GOI (2004), p.12 and (2008a), p.11-12

The difference between the minimum (151098) and maximum (283750) was only 132652 in 2001, whereas this difference between minimum (277017) and maximum (596560) increased to 319543 in 2007.

Month-wise arrival of foreign tourists to India for the period 2001 to 2007, is depicted in figure 4.4.

Fig. 4.4: Month-wise arrival of foreign tourists to India (2001-2007)



Source: GOI, (2004) p.12 and (2008a), p.11-12

From the figure 4.4 it is clear that the maximum FTAs were recorded in November, December and January, corresponding to the coolest months in India. The minimum number of FTAs in all the years was observed in the months of April, May and June, corresponding to the hottest months in India. As majority of FTAs are of European origin, these periods may be related to their 'hard' weather and 'mild' weather, respectively. This seasonality in foreign tourist's flows to India has tremendous influence on the occupancy rates of hotel accommodations and the utility of other facilities specifically meant for FTAs. It is a matter of concern for tourism development in India to minimize the seasonal variation in tourist inflow.

4.2.2. State-wise distribution of visits of foreign tourists in top performing states

International tourists generally regard India as a place where one can enjoy all types of tourism at a single trip. Aggressive advertising campaign like "Incredible India" by the Government has also had its impact in changing India's image from that of a land of 'snake charmers' and sparking new interest among overseas travellers (Singh, 2001, p.147). Almost all states in India declared tourism as an industry and adopted it as a strategy for development with different marketing slogans: like 'God's own country' by Kerala, 'Soul of India' by Orissa, 'Kohinoor of India' by Andhra Pradesh, etc. It shows the level of competition among these states.

This section analyses the state wise distribution of foreign tourist visit to top 10 states in India (table 4.10). It may be noted that the number of visits¹ shown in this table is of the foreign tourists arrived as shown in table 4.1. The difference

¹ Tourist arrivals and tourist visits are different in the case of foreign tourists. Foreign tourist arrivals are recorded from disembarkation cards as they first enter India. Data on foreign tourist visits are collected by the statistical wing in the departments of the state/UT Governments when they visit states/UTs. As individual foreign tourists may visit more than one state/UT, the count of tourist visits will be higher than that of foreign tourist arrivals.

between the data in table 4.1 and table 4.10 is that the former is based on arrivals in India, and the latter is based on the visits to the respective state/UTs.

Table 4.10: Distribution of FTAs to top 10 performing states in India (2004-2006)

Rank in 2006	State/UTs	2004	% share in 2004	2005	% share in 2005	2006	%share in 2006
1	Delhi	839,574	10.04	1511893	15.20	1974836	16.81
2	Maharashtra	1218382	14.57	1449875	14.57	1712302	14.57
3	Uttarpradesh	1037243	12.41	1174597	11.81	1328974	11.31
4	Tamil Nadu	1058012	12.66	1179316	11.85	1319501	11.23
5	Rajasthan	971772	11.62	1131164	11.37	1220164	10.39
6	West Bengal	775694	9.28	895639	9.00	998029	8.50
7	Andhra Pradesh	501019	5.99	560024	5.63	669617	5.70
8	Karnataka	530225	6.34	545225	5.48	505524	4.30
9	Kerala	345546	4.13	346499	3.48	428534	3.65
10	Goa	363230	4.34	336803	3.39	380414	3.24
	Total for top 10	7640697	91.38	9131035	91.78	10537895	89.70
	Others	729581	8.62	818641	8.22	1210331	10.30
	Total	8360278	100.00	9949676	100.00	11748226	100.00

Source: GOI, (2008a), p.68

From table 4.10, it can be seen that Delhi, Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and Rajasthan get the maximum number of foreign tourists. Raj Ghat, Red Fort, India Gate, Qutab Minar, National museum, etc. are some of the major attractions of Delhi. Most of the visitors to Taj Mahal (Agra) also stay at Delhi. Apart from being the commercial capital of India, Bombay also has attractions like, Gateway of India, Prince of Wales Museum, Jahangheer Art Gallery and Marine Drive. Apart from these, the oldest caves at Ajanta and Ellora also encourage many people to Maharashtra. Himalayas act as the backbone of Uttar Pradesh tourism along with its famous temples at Varanasi (Kasi), Madhura, Ayodhya and Saranath. Rajaputs palace of Rajasthan helps them to develop Rajasthan as the capital of cultural tourism in India. The capital of West Bengal itself encourages many scholars and business people to that state. Ancient temples and cultural arts are the focal areas of Tamil

Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka tourism. Kerala and Goa offer some of the world's best beaches to the foreign tourists. It can be seen that foreign tourist visits are greatly influenced by the mode of travel and port of entry to India (tables 4.8 and 4.9) as the states very near to airports of Delhi, Mumbai and Chennai get the maximum foreign tourist visits.

4.3. Domestic tourism in India

The study so far covered only the foreign tourists. But in any studies on impact of tourism, domestic tourists also should be included as there is no notable difference in the behaviour of tourists at tourist destinations. The size of domestic travel is estimated to be ten times as large as the size of international travel (Ceballos-Lascurian, 1996). However, this ratio differs regionally and nationally. Amelung, *et al.* report that the ratio of international travel to domestic travel is 1:13 in North America while it is 1:7 in Europe (Amelung, *et al.* 1999, p.10). This wide difference in the ratio was attributed to the geographical size of the countries covered by the two regions. While countries of North America are vast in size, those of Europe are small in size. An attempt is made in this section to find out the size of the domestic tourists in India in comparison to foreign tourists.

The data for this study are derived from the tourism statistics collected by the Statistical Wing in the Departments of state/UT governments. The statistics are based on the monthly returns collected from hotels and other accommodation establishments. The information is collected using specific formats, and aggregate centre-wise statistics are sent to the market research division of the ministry. Most of the states/UTs have been furnishing information on domestic and foreign tourist visits as well as number of nights spent by them. However, there are certain data gaps as

some states were not furnishing complete information as required to tabulate data on an all-India basis (GOI, 2008a, p.67). The data are presented in 4.11. As explained in footnote 1 of section 4.2.2, the data on foreign tourist visits have been given in the table (instead of foreign tourist arrivals). The ratio of foreign to domestic tourist was worked out based on tourist visit data.

Table 4.11: Domestic and foreign tourist visits in India (1996-2007)

Year	Tourist visits		Ratio* (Foreign: Domestic)	Total	Annual % growth rate	
	Foreign	Domestic			Foreign	Domestic
1996	5030342	140119672	1:28	145150014	8.4	2.5
1997	5500419	159877208	1:29	165377627	9.3	14.1
1998	5539704	168196000	1:30	173735704	0.7	5.2
1999	5832015	190671034	1:33	196503049	5.3	13.4
2000	5893542	220106911	1:37	226000453	1.1	15.4
2001	5436261	236469599	1:44	241905860	-7.8	7.4
2002	5157518	269598028	1:52	274755546	-5.1	14.0
2003	6708479	309038335	1:46	315746814	30.1	14.6
2004	8360278	366267522	1:44	374627800	24.6	18.5
2005	9949676	391948589	1:39	401898265	19.0	7.0
2006	11747914	462310177	1:39	474058091	18.1	18.0
2007	13230839	526564364	1:40	539795203	12.6	13.9

Source: GOI, (2008a), p. 67

* Ratio is calculated by the investigator

From table 4.11 it is clear that the domestic tourists visits increased from 140.1 million recorded in 1996 to 526.6 million recorded in 2007. At the same time, the visits of foreign tourists increased from 5.0 million in 1996 to 13.2 million in 2007.

Annual growth rate in domestic tourist visits, though irregular, was generally above the growth rate recorded for foreign tourist visits (except from 2003 to 2006). The ratio of foreign tourist visits to domestic tourist visits furnished in the above table varies from 1:28 to 1:52. This shows that domestic tourism is a strong pillar of Indian tourism industry.

The total number of tourist visits furnished in the table revealed that Indian tourism industry had to manage nearly 540 million tourists in 2007, a number equal to half the number of total population in India. This emphasises the need for developing appropriate policies and suitable strategies.

Table 4.12 furnishes information on the state-wise distribution of domestic tourist visits in India for the period 2001-2007.

Table 4.12: State-wise distribution of domestic tourist visits in India from 2001 to 2007

Rank in 2007	State/UT	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	% share in 2007
		(lakh)							
1	Andhra Pradesh	52.5	60.5	74.1	88.6	93.5	111.7	127.9	24.3
2	Uttar Pradesh	68.8	71.5	80.0	84.3	95.4	105.5	116.3	22.1
3	Tamil Nadu	23.8	39.9	40.2	42.8	43.2	58.4	71.1	13.5
4	Karnataka	14.1	8.7	11.2	25.9	30.5	36.2	37.8	7.2
5	Rajasthan	7.8	8.3	12.5	15.4	18.8	23.5	25.9	4.9
6	Uttarakhand	9.6	10.6	10.8	14.7	14.2	16.7	19.8	3.8
7	Maharashtra	8.5	9.8	11.3	14.1	14.3	16.9	19.3	3.7
8	West Bengal	4.9	8.8	11.3	13.8	13.6	15.8	18.6	3.5
9	Madhya Pradesh	4.9	4.9	5.9	7.4	7.1	11.1	13.9	2.6
10	Gujarat	8.3	5.7	7.6	8.3	9.5	11.9	13.5	2.6
	Others	33.3	40.9	43.9	46.7	35.7	54.6	62.6	11.8
	Total	236.5	270.0	309.0	366.0	392.0	462.0	527.0	100.0

Source: GOI, (2004), p.48-49 and (2008a), p.69

The states are ranked according to the top 10 positions in 2007. Andhra Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and Tamil Nadu share nearly 60% of the domestic tourist visits, followed by Karnataka (about 7%). The rank list given in table 4.13 is quite different from the rank list given in table 4.11 (state-wise distribution of foreign tourist visits). This shows that the motivation of a foreign tourist is different from that of a domestic tourist. Domestic tourists normally prefer visits to pilgrimage centres and cultural attractions, whereas the foreign tourist visits are mostly in search of leisure and recreation. The absence of Kerala and Goa in table 4.13 supports this

statement (only these two states are offering beach and coastal tourism as a special tourism product). Still, some states like Andhra Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka and West Bengal are common in both the lists.

4.4. Tourism infrastructure in India

Indian tourism industry provides facilities to a large number of domestic and foreign tourists and their total number was nearly 540 million in 2007. The success of any tourism economy depends on its infrastructure facilities available at each destination. Table 4.13 gives details of the number of approved hotels and room availability in India during 2006 and 2007.

Table 4.13: Number of approved hotels and room availability in India (2006 and 2007)

Category	Number of hotels		Number of rooms	
	2006	2007	2006	2007
One Star	46	53	1435	1774
Two Star	217	231	5823	6637
Three Star	477	587	20342	24496
Four Star	111	116	7354	7584
Five Star	71	81	8470	9792
Five Star Deluxe	86	93	20943	20110
Apartment Hotel	5	5	334	461
Heritage Hotel	67	83	2211	2450
Unclassified	133	175	8924	10415
Total	1213	1425	75836	83781

Source: GOI, (2008a), p.83

The data in table 4.13 show an increasing trend in the case of approved hotels and number of rooms. The number of approved hotels increased from 1213 in 2006 to 1425 in 2007 marking an increase of 10.3% and the number of rooms increased from 75836 in 2006 to 83781 in 2007 marking an increase of 10.5%.

Table 4.14 describes the occupancy rates (in percentage) of hotel accommodation by domestic and foreign tourists during 2006 and 2007.

Table 4.14: Occupancy rates in hotel accommodation by domestic and foreign tourists (2006 and 2007)

Type of Hotel	Domestic tourists		Foreign tourists		Total	
	2006	2007	2006	2007	2006	2007
	%					
1 Star	16.9	32.0	5.2	35.2	22.1	67.2
2 Star	22.3	41.3	5.6	22.3	22.9	63.6
3 Star	49.3	56.9	13.5	18.4	62.8	75.3
4 Star	54.4	39.2	27.0	18.1	81.4	57.3
5 Star	34.0	32.6	48.8	38.6	82.8	71.2
5 Star Deluxe	42.0	20.0	45.5	22.8	87.5	42.8
Heritage	16.1	16.1	32.3	16.3	48.4	32.4
Others	49.4	62.5	5.3	15.0	54.7	77.5
Overall	34.7	34.5	25.7	25.1	60.4	59.6

Source: GOI, (2008a), p.107

From table 4.14, it is clear that the category “others” absorbed the highest number of tourists, which is mainly because of the domestic tourists. It is indirectly showing the existence of strong VFR tourism in India. The majority of foreign tourists preferred five star facilities (38.6%), followed by the single star (35.2%) in the year 2007.

A detailed list on state-wise number of recognised tour operators, travel agencies, tourist transport operators, adventure tour operators and domestic tour operators in India for the year 2007 is given in table 4.15.

Table 4.15: State-wise number of recognised tour operators in India (2007)

State	Tour operators	Travel agents	Tour transport operators	Adventure tour operators	Domestic tour operators
Andhra Pradesh	6	12	2	--	--
Arunachal Pradesh	1	--	--	--	--
Assam	4	--	--	--	--
Bihar	2	2	--	--	--
Goa	14	4	--	--	--
Gujarat	5	8	2	--	--
Haryana	5	4	--	--	--
Jammu & Kashmir	6	1	--	--	2
Karnataka	7	23	13	--	2

Kerala	18	4	19	--	--
Madhya Pradesh	1	2	--	--	--
Maharashtra	43	71	10	1	3
Nagaland	1	--	--	--	--
Orissa	5	--	--	--	--
Punjab	--	4	2	--	--
Rajasthan	5	2	--	--	--
Tamil Nadu	23	45	22	--	4
Uttar Pradesh	9	5	3	--	--
Uttarakhand	--	1	--	1	--
West Bengal	5	15	1	--	--
Andaman & Nicobar	--	2	--	--	--
Chandigarh	--	1	1	--	--
Delhi	272	119	59	15	2
Pondicherry	1	4	1	--	--
Total	433	329	135	17	13

Source: GOK, (2009a), p. 106

Table 4.15 shows the presence of 433 tour operators, 329 travel agents, 135 tour transport operators, 17 adventure tour operators and 13 domestic tour operators in India. The majority of these units are found located in Delhi.

4.5. Human resource development

To meet the demand for trained manpower in the hospitality industries, the Ministry of Tourism continues to actively pursue its endeavour through its institutions of India Tourism Development Corporation, Indian Institute of Tourism & Travel Management, Institute of Hotel Management, Food Craft Institutes, etc.

4.5.1. India Tourism Development Corporation

The India Tourism Development Corporation (ITDC) was set up at New Delhi in 1966 to develop tourism infrastructure and promote India as a tourist destination. The ultimate objective of ITDC was to provide western comforts to international visitors. The ITDC played a major role as a catalyst in developing a modern superstructure (e.g., The Ashoka group of hotels) for international tourists.

4.5.2. Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel Management (IITTM)

IITTM was established as a registered society in 1983 at New Delhi under the Ministry of Tourism with the objective of developing and promoting education, training and research in the field of travel and tourism. In August 1992, the Institute was shifted to Gwalior and is now functioning from its own campus at Govindpuri, Gwalior. Since 1995-96, the IITTM started a full-time one-year Diploma programme in Tourism Management (DTM) with the approval of All India Council of Technical Education (AICTE), New Delhi. In the year 1995, the National Institute of Water Sports was also incorporated in the IITTM. In 1996-97, Eastern Regional Centre of the IITTM at Bhubaneswar was established with the same DTM programme. From the academic year 2007-08, the IITTM started another centre in Delhi. At present, the IITTM is running four regular courses leading to the award of Post-Graduate Diploma in Management, covering the following fields: Travel and Tourism, Service Sector, International Business, and Tourism and Leisure (GOI, 2008a, p.117).

4.5.3. Hotel Management and Catering Institutes

There are 21 Central Government and six State Government sponsored Institutes of Hotel Management, seven private Institutes of Hotel Management and six Food Craft Institutes offering specialized courses in Hotel Management and Catering Technology in the country (GOI, 2008a, p.118). The Institute of Hotel Management (IHM) offers M.Sc. in Hospitality Administration, B.Sc. in Hospitality and Hotel Administration and P.G. Diploma and other Certificate Courses. The Food Craft Institutes (FCIs) offer one and a half year Diploma Programmes in Food Production, Food and Beverages, House Keeping Operation, Front Office Operation and Bakery and Confectionery. All these Institutes are affiliated to the National Council for Hotel

Management and Catering Technology (NCHMCT) at the apex level which regulates academics for all the Institutes. The M.Sc. and B.Sc. Programs are offered in collaboration with Indira Gandhi National Open University and certification is jointly carried out. Certification for all other diploma and certificate courses is done by the NCHMCT.

4.6. Indian tourism under five year plans

It was only in the 1940s that the British Government of India started to consider tourism seriously as a source of revenue. A Committee was appointed in 1945, under the chairmanship of Sir John Sargent, which reported that tourism could be a veritable money-spinner and recommended the formation of a separate organisation to promote tourism. In 1948, the new Government of independent India formed an ad hoc Tourist Traffic Committee and in 1949, a separate Tourist Traffic branch was set up in the ministry of Transport (Singh, 2001, p.143). Since then, successive governments have attempted to promote both domestic and international tourism (*ibid*, p.143). It was on 1st March 1958 that a separate Tourism Department was created in the Ministry of Transport to deal with all matters concerning tourism. By the Presidential order, dated 14th March 1967, the Department of Aviation and Tourism which was under the Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation was transformed into a separate ministry designated as the Ministry of Tourism and Civil Aviation with two constituent departments, (i) Department of Tourism and (ii) Department of Civil Aviation. The Ministry was put under the charge of a separate Minister.

Ministry of Tourism and Civil Aviation and the Department of Tourism are the nodal agencies for the formulation of national policies and programmes

and for the coordination of activities of various Central Government Agencies, State Governments/UTs and the private sector for the development and promotion of tourism in the country. The role of the Department of Tourism has been to coordinate and supplement the efforts of the state/U.T. governments in the development of tourism through central financial assistance, to catalyse private investment, strengthen promotional and marketing efforts and to provide trained manpower resources. There were 21 field offices of the Department of Tourism in India and 18 in other countries to undertake both developmental and promotional activities. While the overseas offices were in constant contact with tourists, travel intermediaries and media to promote tourism in India, the field offices in India provide facilitation services to tourists and coordinate with state Governments for tourism infrastructure development.

The first Five Year Plan (FYP) launched in the year 1951 did not make any specific allocation for tourism (1951-56). This was highlighted by the Planning Commission way back in 1955. India ranked tourism as 269th in its priority list of industries – lower than the development of light-houses (Kakkar, 2003, p.1). During this period, the Government established tourism promotion offices in India as well as abroad. Foreign tourist arrivals registered a compound growth of 8.6% per annum. Foreign exchange earnings from tourism grew by 10% per annum (Selvam, 1993, p.1).

The plan allocation for tourism during the entire five year plan periods is shown in table 4.16.

Table 4.16: Allocation for tourism under Five Year Plans in India

Five Year Plans	Total outlay (Rs. crore)	Tourism (Rs. crore)	Percentage share of Tourism
I Plan (1951- 56)	1,960	NIL	0.00
II Plan (1956-61)	4,600	3.36	0.07
III Plan (1961-66)	7,500	8.00	0.11
Annual Plans (1966-69)	6,757	10.00	0.10
IV Plan (1969-1974)	15,902	36.00	0.23
V Plan (1974-79)	39,304	75.00	0.19
Annual Plans (1978-80)	12176	28.00	0.23
VI Plan (1980-1985)	97,500	187.00	0.19
VII Plan (1985-1990)	1,80,000	394.00	0.18
Annual Plan (1990-92)	1,37,034	173.00	0.13
VIII Plan (1992-1997)	4,34,100	806.00	0.27
IX Plan (1997-2002)	8,59,200	2481.00	0.29
X Plan (2002-2007)	16,18,460	4602.00	0.29
XI Plan (2007-2012)	36,44,718	5556.00	0.15

Source: Ramachandrudu (1997), p.150, GOI (2005) and (2008b), p.52, and George, (2003), p.56

The table, although, showing a progressive increase in the allocation for tourism development during the plan period, the percentage share of tourism during the whole plan period was quite insignificant ranging from 0.10% to 0.29%.

During the second FYP (1956-61), an allocation of Rs.3.36 crore was made. Emphasis was laid on providing essential facilities at important tourism centres. A separate Department of Tourism at the centre was also established.

During the third FYP (1961-1966) tourism got an allocation of approximately Rs. 8 crore, which was 0.11% of the total plan outlay. During this period, a 2% growth in foreign tourists arrivals (FTAs) and 10% growth in foreign exchange earnings (FEE) were recorded (Selvam, 1993, p.1).

During the three annual plans (1966-69), the plan allocation was Rs.10 crore. A separate Ministry of Tourism and Civil Aviation was created. The India Tourism

Development Corporation was established during this period. The foreign tourist arrivals recorded a 6% growth rate during this period (*Ibid*, p.1).

The fourth FYP (1969-74) envisaged more importance for integrated development of tourism to attract more 'destination traffic' as against 'transit traffic'. An outlay of Rs.36 crore was allocated, from which Rs.11 crore was allotted to ITDC. Emphasis was laid on providing accommodation, transport and recreation facilities. Providing loans to hotel industry in the private sector, loans for the purchase of tourist vehicles by private operators and integrated development of selected centres were the thrust areas. Foreign tourist arrivals registered 15 per cent compound annual growth during this plan period (Selvam, 1993, p.2).

During the fifth FYP (1974-79), the outlay increased to Rs.75 crore and the main emphasis was placed on promoting international tourism, development of hotels and transport facilities, development of select hill and beach resorts and spreading tourist traffic evenly throughout the country, as far as possible. Towards the end of the period covered by the fifth FYP, the concept of 'Resort Tourism' was taken up by developers, especially in the states of Kerala, Jammu and Kashmir, Goa and Himachal Pradesh, where tourism was more consistently incorporated into state plans (Singh, 2001, p.143).

The sixth FYP (1980-85) laid emphasis on consolidation of gains through efficient marketing and integration and coordination. An outlay of Rs.187 crore was made in the plan, out of which Rs.115.46 crore was allotted to states. Centres of tourist importance to both domestic and foreign tourists were jointly developed by the state and central Governments. The Planning Commission recognised tourism as an industry by June 1982, and the first Indian Tourism Policy was formulated. Further, to

augment tourism infrastructural facilities, an investment to the tune of Rs.5100 crore in Indian railways and Rs.2252 crore in the Airways and Rs.4625 crore in the roadways were decided upon (Selvam, 1993, p.2).

The seventh FYP (1985-90) accorded the status of industry to tourism. An outlay of Rs.394 crore was earmarked, which included Rs.187.48 crore for the states. Importance of domestic tourism was recognised during this period. The plan acknowledged that private investment in the tourism sector should be encouraged and public investment should be focused on development of support infrastructure only. According to Chathopadhyay, the Seventh Plan made use of the new Travel Circuit Approach as an instrument of regional development policy (Chathopadhyay, 1995). The idea was to develop selected tourist circuit centres, which were popular with tourists, instead of spreading limited resources thinly over a large number of centres. Sustained efforts were made for the development of Buddhist pilgrimage tourism for which great potential existed. Further, the Government played its part in developing domestic (or social) tourism by providing an optional allowance for travel during leave, which it had offered to its employees and their families, usually taken during summer vacation or other holidays. During this period, it was common for the railways to announce 'special trains' to meet the unusually high passenger demand.

The Tourism Development Finance Corporation was set up in 1987 with a corpus fund of Rs. 100 crore to provide financial assistance for setting up or for development of tourism related activities and services which include hotels, tourist centre development, etc.. Until then, the Industrial Development Bank of India, Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation of India and other commercial banks financed the sector on commercial lines.

In 1990 the liberalisation process of Civil Aviation took off with the Cargo Open Skies Policy. This allowed international airlines to operate cargo flight without any restrictions and to charge rates without any reference to the ministry concerned. During the time of annual plans for the period 1990-92, an amount of Rs. 173 crore was allocated for tourism development. Celebration of the year 1991 as 'Visit India Year' could not reap much benefit due to political instability and Gulf war. The Government announced the period 1990-2000 as 'Tourism Decade' in achieving a major breakthrough in international tourism (Punia, 1994, p.6).

In the eighth FYP (1992-1997), Rs.806 crore was allocated, which was 0.27% of the total plan outlay. The eighth Plan document makes a special mention that the future expansion of tourism should be achieved mainly by private sector participation. The thrust areas as enumerated in the Plan included development of selected tourist places, diversification from culture related tourism to holiday and leisure tourism, development of trekking, winter sports, wildlife and beach resort tourism, exploration of new source markets, restoration of national heritage projects, launching of national image building, providing inexpensive accommodation in different tourist centres, improving service efficiency in public sector corporations and streamlining of facilitation procedures at airports. In April 1993, the Government announced measures aimed at export promotion. The existing Export Promotion of Capital Goods Scheme (EPCG) was extended to tourism and related services. Against the existing 35%, the tourism sector need pay only an import duty of 15% on capital goods import, subject to an export obligation of four times the cargo, insurance and freight (CIF) value of imports with an obligation period of five years. This came as a boon to the hotel industry. The cost of construction had also come down by 20%. In March

1994, the monopoly of the national carriers over the scheduled air transport services was ended and a competitive environment was created in the air transport service sector.

During the ninth FYP (1997-02), the allocation was enhanced to Rs.2481 crore. A national strategy for the development of tourism was discussed with all stakeholders in 1997. The strategy focused on the role of government in tourism and on the introduction of regulatory measures to facilitate social, cultural and environmental sustainability. Ecotourism and heritage tourism got priority in tourism development plans.

The tenth FYP (2002-07) allocation was almost two times the allocation of ninth plan, and was Rs.4602 crore. The plan recognised the vast employment generating potential of tourism and the role it could play in furthering the socio-economic objectives of the nation. In order to give greater impetus to the development and promotion of tourism, the Ministry of Tourism constituted a National Tourism Advisory Council (NTAC) in 2002. In the same year, the Department of Tourism formulated a new National Tourism Policy. The objective was to harness tourism's economic benefits to a large segment of the population throughout the country as also to project its vast and varied art, culture, heritage and natural resources before the world in a meaningful way. Seven key areas were identified to provide the requisite thrust to tourism development in the country. These are - *Swagat* (Welcome), *Soochana* (Information), *Suvidha* (Facilitation), *Suraksha* (Safety), *Sahyog* (Cooperation), *Samrachana* (Infrastructure Development) and *Safai* (Cleanliness) (GOI, 2002, p.1).

In the eleventh FYP (2007-2012), total allocation for tourism is Rs.5556 crore. This Plan proposed six key strategic objectives (GOI, 2007, p.25) for both foreign and domestic tourism development in India, viz.,

- a. Positioning and maintaining tourism development as a national priority activity
- b. Enhancing and maintaining the competitiveness of India as a tourist destination
- c. Improving India's existing tourism products further and expanding these to meet new market requirements
- d. Creation of world class infrastructure
- e. Developing strategies for sustained and effective marketing plans and programmes, and
- f. Developing human resources and capacity building of service providers.

According to the plan proposal, the ultimate objective of the eleventh Five Year Plan is to achieve 10 million international visitors and 760 million domestic tourists by the year 2012.

The major problem with the above analysis of five year plan for tourism is the prevailing gap between plan allocation and implementation. As the progress report of the tenth Plan shows, only 38% of the projects sanctioned between 2002 and 2007 have been completed by the Tourism Ministry (Anon., 2007a). According to the same report, under the scheme of assistance for large revenue generating projects, a new plan was introduced during the tenth Plan, where the progress has been even more dismal. Out of an allocation of Rs.40 crore in 2006-07, only Rs.1.02 crore or 2.5%



has been spent. The scheme was introduced to develop large projects such as convention centres, luxury trains and cruise terminals.

The growth in infrastructure like accommodation has not kept pace with the spurt in tourism growth. Even at the turn of the millennium, the estimated gap in hotel accommodation was around 30,000 rooms (GOI, 2008c, p.422). This gap has widened because of the time lag between growth in tourism and infrastructure taking shape. These factors, however, tend to accentuate an impression in the travel industry about India being a high cost destination. To erase this image, the Ministry of Tourism initiated a scheme of Paying Guest Accommodation in pursuance of the National Action Plan for Tourism in 1992. The idea behind the scheme was to supplement the availability of accommodation and provide both domestic and international tourists affordable and hygienic places to stay. The scheme was transferred to the state governments in 1995. The scheme has not taken off except in a few states and the Ministry is reported to be considering its revival to meet the shortage in budget accommodation.

According to UNESCAP report, the infrastructure for tourism in India comprises not only on site facilities such as hotels, restaurants etc., but also all forms of transport and common infrastructure and basic amenities (UNESCAP, 2001b, p.15). Indian airports are said to lag behind in international standards in many respects. Domestic air travel is also considered expensive compared to neighbouring countries. Hotel tariff in India is also very high, which makes it difficult for hoteliers to construct budget hotels (*ibid*, p.16).

India is considered to have one of the highest tax regimes in comparison to similar destinations. The WTTC, in its Status Report on India, underline the

“unscientific and unthinking approach to one of the country’s premier economic sectors (that) cuts across both Central and State policies and acts as a deterrent for tourism growth” and calls for the evolving of a “uniform taxation system conducive to tourism growth” (GOI, 2004). The inefficiency of tourism department’s overseas outlets is also indicated (Pradhan, 1998).

According to the tenth Five Year Plan document, absence of consensus on the role of tourism, lack of priority to tourism on account of unappreciated potential, relatively low levels of investment, lack of interest on the part of the state governments and unprofessional and ad hoc approaches are found to act as barriers to the tourism sector in India (GOI, 2004). Apart from these, the major problem that the sector is facing is the bad image due to cheating, fleecing and maltreatment of tourists. India is considered as one of the unsafe destinations by the international tourists. The fact that foreign tourists are sometimes physically harassed, robbed and even murdered cannot be denied. There are also reports of exploitation of international travellers by some unauthorized tour operators. One cannot deny occurrence of such incidences in a vast country like India. But even if a very small number of such cases get publicised through the media (eg: Anon., 1990) they tarnish the country’s image. The issue relating to the safety and security of tourists is important enough to be addressed urgently as any incident relating to these issues will have an adverse effect on foreign tourist arrival and domestic tourist movement.

4.7. Summary

This chapter first of all discussed the trend in the flow of international tourists to India and foreign exchange earnings. Though India’s performance in terms of FTAs and FEEs is improving, it is too little compared to the other tourism developed

economies of the world. The growth rate of tourism in India was, however, more than that of the world as well as that of Asia and the Pacific region. It further discussed the major source countries of FTAs in India. Among them the developed nations like USA, UK, Canada and France and the neighbouring countries like Sri Lanka and Bangladesh are found as the major contributors. A brief review of tourism performance of states in India made clear that Delhi, Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Rajasthan, West Bengal, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Kerala and Goa are the major destinations of foreign tourists. Air traffic is the major mode of travel for the foreign tourists and cities like Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai and Kolkata act as the major port of entry for them.

The analysis of domestic tourism showed that it is a strong pillar in the tourism structure of India. States like Andhra Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Rajasthan and Maharashtra, were the major performers of domestic tourism in India. The ratio between foreign and domestic tourist visits in India is found to be increasing at a fast rate. The current ratio is very high when compared to the situation in developed economies of the world.

It also appears from the discussion that although the infrastructure for tourism in India is increasing, it is not sufficient to meet the growing requirements of the sector. It also noted the presence of institutions for human resource development. A review of the allocations for tourism under Five Year Plans showed that this sector received very little attention as reflected in the meagre percentage of total plan allocation. The next chapter is an attempt to explain the nature and profile of tourism development in Kerala.

Chapter 5

Development of Tourism in Kerala

5.1. Introduction

Kerala, which is now stylized as 'God's Own Country' has emerged as the most acclaimed tourist destination in the country. Ayurveda, Beaches, backwaters, warm weather, hill stations, waterfalls, wild life, year round festivals and the diverse flora and fauna make Kerala a unique destination for tourists. The State Government has given a high priority to this sector as an important source of revenue for the state's coffer. In this chapter, an attempt is made to analyse the performance of tourism sector in Kerala. The first part of this chapter discusses the tourist arrivals and tourism receipts with respect to both foreign and domestic tourists, along with their spatial and seasonal variation. The tourism generating markets for Kerala are also discussed. It is followed by a description of tourism resources, potential tourism products, infrastructure facilities and the details of Government efforts through FYP schemes for promotion of tourism activities. The successful marketing efforts taken by Kerala and the salient features of Kerala Tourism Vision are also highlighted to display the policy commitment of the Government. It is followed by a summary of this chapter.

5.2. Foreign tourist arrivals and tourism receipts

Statistics on tourism in Kerala is compiled by the Department of Tourism, Government of Kerala, based on data collected from accommodation units spread all over Kerala. Up to September 1989, data on accommodation were collected only from four locations, namely, Kovalam, Thiruvananthapuram, Thekkady and Kochi. From October 1989 onwards, seven more centres namely Kollam, Alappuzha,

Kottayam, Thrissur, Guruvayoor, Palakkad and Kozhikode were also included in the list of locations (GOK, 1994). From September 1998 onwards, accommodation data are being collected from all the 14 districts of Kerala.

5.2.1. Foreign tourist arrivals in Kerala

Data on foreign tourist arrivals (FTAs) in Kerala for the period 1980-2007 are furnished in table 5.1. For a comparison, data on FTAs in India and the percentage share of Kerala for the same period are also furnished.

Table 5.1: FTAs in Kerala and India and the percentage share of Kerala (1980-2007)

Year	FTAs (lakh)		% share of Kerala
	Kerala	India	
1980	0.216	8.001	2.7
1981	0.245	8.531	2.9
1982	0.245	8.602	2.9
1983	0.252	8.847	2.9
1984	0.243	8.525	2.9
1985	0.423	8.369	5.1
1986	0.508	10.796	4.7
1987	0.518	11.637	4.5
1988	0.521	12.400	4.2
1989	0.630	13.372	4.7
1990	0.661	13.300	5.0
1991	0.693	12.361	5.6
1992	0.906	14.347	4.9
1993	0.952	14.426	6.6
1994	1.046	18.864	5.5
1995	1.430	21.237	6.7
1996	1.769	22.879	7.7
1997	1.824	23.741	7.7
1998	1.899	23.586	8.1
1999	2.022	24.819	8.2
2000	2.099	26.494	8.0
2001	2.088	25.373	8.2
2002	2.326	23.616	9.9
2003	2.946	27.523	10.7
2004	3.455	34.575	10.0
2005	3.465	39.186	8.8
2006	4.285	44.472	9.6
2007	5.158	50.815	10.2

Source: GOK, (1994), p.33, (2000), p.27 and (2009a), p.55 and 83

Table 5.1 shows that FTAs in Kerala increased from 0.216 lakh in 1980 to 5.158 lakh in 2007, thus exhibiting a remarkable growth during the last three decades. When compared with the number of FTAs in India during the same period, it can be seen that Kerala's average share was less than three percent till 1984. Between 1985 and 1990, Kerala's average share was found to be around five percent. Between 1990 and 2000 it increased to about eight percent. From 2001 to 2007, it further increased to 10.2%.

It may be interesting in this context to look at the comparative growth rate in FTA in Kerala and India. Table 5.2 presents growth rate in FTAs in Kerala and India for the period 1996-2007.

Table 5.2: Growth in FTAs in Kerala and India (1996-2007)

Year	Kerala		India	
	FTAs (lakh)	% of variation over previous year	FTAs (million)	% of variation over previous year
1996	1.77	--	2.29	--
1997	1.82	3.15	2.37	3.5
1998	1.90	4.12	2.36	-0.4
1999	2.02	6.44	2.48	5.2
2000	2.10	3.84	2.62	5.7
2001	2.08	-0.53	2.54	-3.3
2002	2.33	11.37	2.38	-6.9
2003	2.95	26.68	2.75	14.7
2004	3.46	17.28	3.46	26.7
2005	3.47	0.28	3.92	13.3
2006	4.29	23.70	4.45	13.5
2007	5.16	20.37	5.08	14.3

Source: GOK, (2003), p.17 and (2009a), p.55 and p.73

The table shows that the annual increase in FTAs in Kerala was much above the rate of increase noted for India. A negative growth rate in FTAs was observed for India in 1998, 2001 and 2002. The growth rate of FTAs in Kerala was higher than that of India for all years except 1997, 2000, 2004 and 2005. The data clearly show that

Kerala has a steady flow of foreign tourists and is likely to improve its position in the future.

It can be further noted from table 5.2 that the period 2003-2007 was a period of excellent performance for the tourism sector with growing FTAs in India, and Kerala could indeed derive greater benefit by enhancing its share of foreign tourist arrivals, except in the year 2005 following the Tsunami of December 2004.

5.2.2. Foreign exchange earnings from tourism in Kerala

Details of foreign exchange earnings (FEE) from tourism in Kerala and India for the period 1996 to 2007 are furnished in table 5.3.

Table 5.3: FEEs from tourists in Kerala and India (1996-2007)

Year	Kerala		India		% share of Kerala
	FEE (Rs. crore)	% change over the previous year	FEE (Rs. crore)	% change over the previous year	
1996	196.38	23.70	10046	9.60	2.00
1997	273.20	39.12	10511	2.00	2.60
1998	302.08	10.57	12951	2.00	2.30
1999	416.07	37.74	12951	2.10	3.20
2000	525.30	26.25	15626	15.00	3.40
2001	535.00	1.85	15064	-7.60	3.60
2002	705.67	31.90	20729	-3.00	3.40
2003	983.37	39.35	27944	43.80	3.50
2004	1266.77	28.82	33123	38.20	3.80
2005	1552.31	22.54	33123	21.40	4.70
2006	1988.40	28.09	39025	15.20	5.10
2007	2640.94	32.82	44360	24.30	6.00

Source: GOK, (2000), p.26 and p.59 and (2009a), p.65 and p.79

Table 5.3 shows that the FEEs from tourism in Kerala increased from Rs.196.38 crore in 1996 to Rs.2640.94 crore in 2007, showing a near 14 fold increase within a period of 12 years. The table also shows that the percentage increase recorded by Kerala is higher than that of India in most of the years. Even in the worst

years of 2001 and 2002, when India had a negative growth rate, Kerala had shown a positive and higher growth rate. More interestingly, the percentage share of Kerala in the foreign exchange earning of India from tourism showed a steady increase from 2.0% recorded in 1996 to 6.0% in 2007. This increase is lower than the increase in percentage share shown in FTAs (table 5.2) which was 7.7% in 1996 and 10.2% in 2007. It is inferred that the foreign tourists' expenditure in Kerala is less than foreign tourists' average expenditure in India.

5.2.3. Tourism markets for Kerala

Information on source markets of FTAs in Kerala is furnished in table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Performance of top 15 foreign tourism generating markets of Kerala (2005-2007)

Rank in 2007	2005		2006		2007		
	Nationality	Tourist arrivals	Nationality	Tourist arrivals	Nationality	Tourist arrivals	% share in 2007
1	U.K.	70423	U.K.	91,033	U.K.	120890	23.44
2	Maldives	32967	U.S.A.	40409	France	48137	9.33
3	France	27791	France	37923	U.S.A.	39433	7.64
4	U.S.A.	27453	Maldives	29687	Germany	35848	6.95
5	Germany	22861	Germany	24649	Maldives	22642	4.39
6	Italy	10020	Italy	14197	Italy	18052	3.50
7	Australia	9962	Australia	12460	Switzerland	16097	3.12
8	Switzerland	8742	Switzerland	10690	Australia	14622	2.83
9	Netherlands	7554	Netherlands	10488	Netherlands	12738	2.47
10	Canada	7527	Canada	8780	Canada	10492	2.03
11	Japan	6055	Spain	6981	Sweden	10173	1.97
12	Sri Lanka	4741	Japan	6954	Bangladesh	8773	1.70
13	Spain	4595	Saudi Arabia	6213	Saudi Arabia	8560	1.66
14	Sweden	4593	Sweden	6207	Spain	8176	1.59
15	Israel	3161	Sri Lanka	5787	U.A.E.	8174	1.58
	Total	248445	Total	312458	Total	382807	74.20
	Others	98054	Others	116076	Others	133001	25.78
	Grand total	346499	Grand total	428534	Grand total	515808	100.00

Source: GOK, (2009a), p.62

The top 15 markets are given in the order of their ranking in 2007 along with their percentage contribution for the same year. The countries ranked up to 10 which

contribute to FTAs in Kerala for the years 2005, 2006 and 2007 are the same, i.e., UK, France, USA, Germany, Maldives, Italy, Switzerland, Australia, Canada and Sweden. Some of the notable features in the relative position of FTAs in Kerala during these three years are; (i) Japan and Sri Lanka which were there in 2005 and 2006 were replaced by Bangladesh and UAE in 2007, (ii) Israel, which was there in 2005, was replaced by Saudi Arabia in 2006 and 2007.

The top 15 countries contributed nearly 74.2% of total FTAs in Kerala in 2007. The list is topped by UK which contributed 23.4% of FTAs in Kerala. Except Maldives, which is a close neighbour to Kerala, all countries consistently appearing in the rank list are the developed nations of Europe, Americas and East Asia and the Pacific.

When the data in table 5.4 are compared with the list of top 10 countries supplying FTAs to India, (tables 4.6 and 4.7) USA is dominating in India's FTAs. Canada had a better ranking in Indian list than in Kerala's list. France, Germany and Italy have a better ranking in Kerala's list, though Italy is not there among the top 10 in India's FTA list. Bangladesh (3rd), Sri Lanka (6th) and Japan (8th) in India's list are out of the top 10 list of Kerala. Malaysia, which is having the 9th rank in Indian list, is not there even in the top 15 of Kerala.

From the information furnished above, it is clear that Kerala's tourism efforts are focusing on the most affluent long haul tourists of Europe, Australia and America.

5.2.4. Seasonality in foreign tourist arrivals in Kerala

Seasonal fluctuation in the arrivals of foreign tourists is quite visible from the data presented in table 5.5.

Table 5.5: Month-wise FTAs in Kerala (2001-2007)

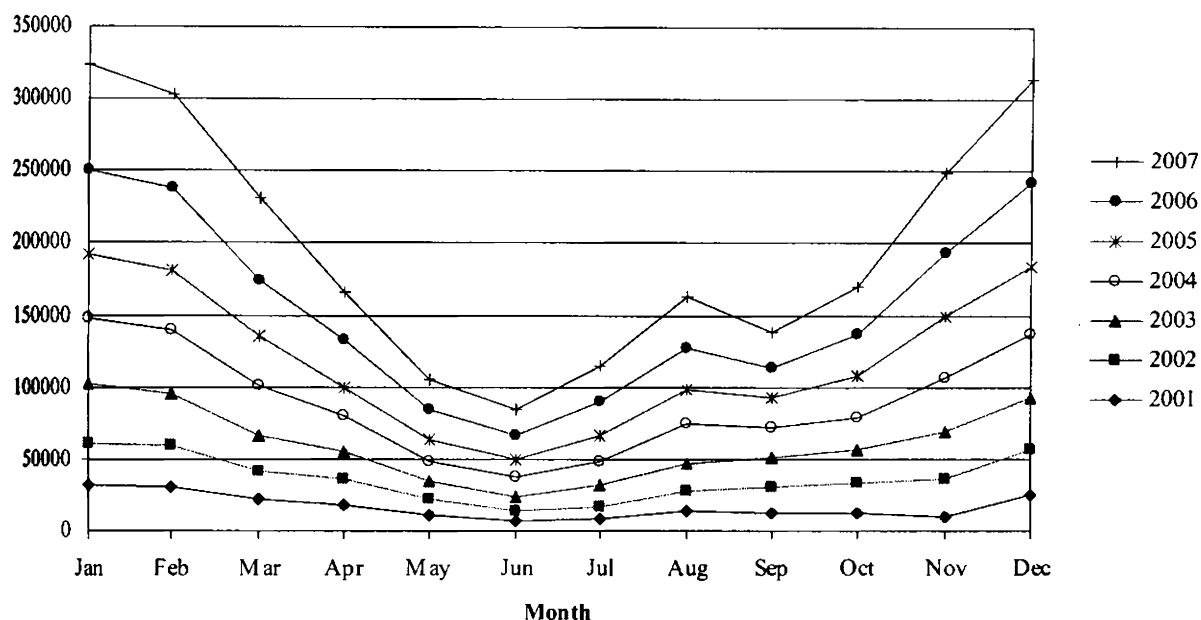
Month	FTAs							Monthly % in 2007
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	
January	31625	29440	41845	45630	43345	58858	72814	14.1
February	30862	29105	36163	43418	41314	56530	66131	12.8
March	21957	19246	25261	35006	33479	39584	56151	10.9
April	17868	18028	20106	23546	20191	32377	34487	6.7
May	10653	10794	12675	14870	14919	20470	21098	4.1
June	6571	6610	10820	12734	13239	16209	18262	3.5
July	7747	8581	14824	17228	17593	23578	25199	4.9
August	13611	14226	19240	27341	24398	28821	35563	6.9
September	12913	17808	20253	21203	20064	21888	24708	4.8
October	11913	20744	24702	22160	28068	28681	33534	6.5
November	10310	26190	32165	38118	42324	44421	55647	10.8
December	24322	31792	36567	44392	47565	57177	72214	14.0
Total	208830	232564	294621	345546	346499	428534	515808	100.0

Source: GOK, (2009a), p.55

From table 5.5, it can be seen that the maximum number of foreign tourists arrived in Kerala in the month of January (except for 2002 and 2005, where maximum was recorded in December). The minimum number of foreign tourist arrivals was recorded for the month of June. The difference between the minimum (6571) and maximum (31625) was 25054 in 2001 whereas this difference between minimum (18262) and maximum (72814) increased to 54552 in 2007.

The percentages for different months have been presented only for 2007, and in other years also the same pattern was seen with insignificant changes. Majority of the foreign tourists prefer to visit Kerala during November to March of every year. The percentage share in the month of January was 14.1%, which was followed by December with 14%. The months of May and June marked the lowest percentage of foreign tourist arrivals to the state. Month-wise arrival of foreign tourists to Kerala for the period 2001 to 2007 is depicted in figure 5.1.

Fig. 5.1: Seasonal variation in foreign tourist arrivals in Kerala (2001 to 2007)



Source: GOK, (2009a), p.55

The significant observation from the data is the appearance of a 'lean' season in the months of May, June and July and a 'peak' season in the months of November, December, January, February and March. Tourist's number in other months is moderate. The consistent occurrence of 'lean' periods and 'peak' periods causes 'seasonality' in the trade, and efforts are needed to reduce its negative impact on investments, especially hotel accommodation for the tourists.

5.2.5. Spatial distribution of FTAs in Kerala

The spatial distribution (district- wise) of foreign tourists in Kerala for the period 2003-2007 is given in table 5.6. The two districts, Thiruvananthapuram and Ernakulam received the maximum number of foreign tourists in all the years reported here; these districts claimed nearly 70% of total foreign tourists. Other districts, next in the line, are Idukki (9%), Alappuzha (8%) and Kottayam (5%) together claiming another 22%, leaving only 8% share to the remaining nine districts. The presence of foreign tourists is barely visible in the northern districts of Kerala.

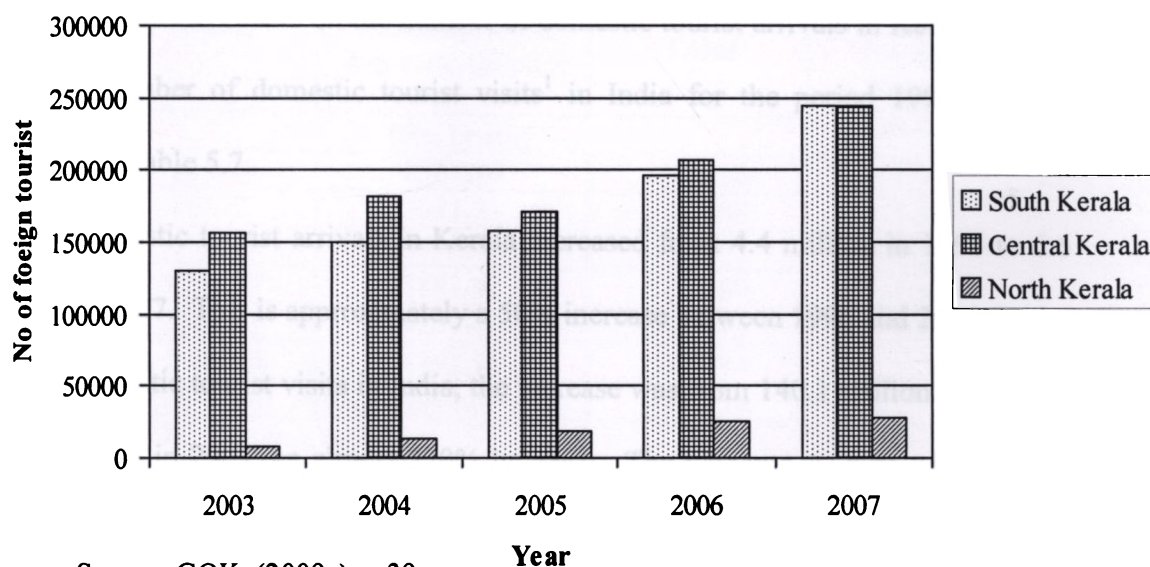
Table 5.6: District-wise FTAs in Kerala (2003-2007)

Sl.No	Districts	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	% in 2007
South Kerala							
1	Thiruvananthapuram	94835	103558	119940	151578	193924	37.60
2	Kollam	8620	8242	6813	7918	8854	1.72
3	Pathanamthitta	287	330	349	346	547	0.11
4	Alappuzha	26157	38024	30274	36407	40463	7.84
	Total	129899	150154	157376	196249	243788	47.26
Central Kerala							
5	Kottayam	21897	23517	20017	26543	27358	5.30
6	Ernakulam	99987	109344	108773	131767	165125	32.01
7	Idukki	31831	46031	39378	44583	46463	9.01
8	Thrissur	2667	2658	2421	4142	4645	0.90
	Total	156382	181550	170589	207035	243591	47.23
North Kerala							
9	Palakkad	661	947	801	809	615	0.12
10	Malappuram	1402	3129	5115	7109	9766	1.89
11	Wayanad	621	749	942	2611	4093	0.79
12	Kozhikode	3529	4702	8420	11154	10020	1.94
13	Kannur	1438	2516	2090	2730	3067	0.59
14	Kasragod	689	1799	1166	837	868	0.17
	Total	8340	13842	18534	25250	28429	5.51
	Total Kerala	294621	345546	346499	428534	515808	100.00

Source: GOK, (2009a), p.39

Figure 5.2 depicts the zone-wise (South Kerala, Central Kerala and North Kerala) distribution of foreign tourists for the period 2003-2007.

Fig. 5.2: Zone-wise distribution of foreign tourists in Kerala from 2003 to 2007



Source: GOK, (2009a), p.39

While analysing the visiting pattern of foreign tourists in the state, it is seen that tourism development in the state is concentrated in a few districts like Thiruvananthapuram, Ernakulam, Alappuzha and Idukki, which supply major tourism products. However it indirectly points to the pattern of development of tourism in Kerala. The tourist's preference (demand side) is also influenced by the market promotion activities of the state which is focusing more on the most affluent long haul tourists of Europe and Americas. It may also be influenced by the cultural and natural attractions of the region. There is, however, some imbalance in the tourism development within the state. Though the southern districts performed well in terms of number of tourist arrivals as well as in the presence of accommodation units, the northern districts of Kerala are yet to develop tourism facilities. The state has to further work out strategies to meet the competition from neighbouring states in this context.

5.3. Domestic tourist arrivals and tourism receipts

5.3.1. Domestic tourist arrivals in Kerala

The data available on the number of domestic tourist arrivals in Kerala against the total number of domestic tourist visits¹ in India for the period 1996-2007, is presented in table 5.7.

Domestic tourist arrivals in Kerala increased from 4.4 million in 1996 to 6.6 million in 2007. This is approximately a 50% increase between 1996 and 2007. In the case of domestic tourist visits in India, the increase was from 140.1 million in 1996 to 526.6 million in 2007, an almost 270% increase. The percentage share of Kerala in

¹ When the GOI analyse the data on domestic tourism, they used the word 'visit' to denote tourist arrivals. The states in India, use the term 'arrivals', to include people from both resident states and other states.

all India domestic tourist arrivals which was between 3.1 and 2.3 during 1996-2000, decreased to 1.3 in 2007.

Table 5.7: Domestic tourist arrivals in Kerala and India (1996-2007)

Year	Domestic tourist arrivals (million)		% share of Kerala in India	% increase over previous year	
	Kerala	India		Kerala	India
1996	4.4	140.1	3.1	12.5	2.5
1997	5.0	159.9	3.1	11.1	14.1
1998	4.5	168.2	2.7	-9.5	5.2
1999	4.9	190.7	2.6	9.1	13.4
2000	5.0	220.1	2.3	2.0	15.4
2001	5.2	236.5	2.2	4.5	7.4
2002	5.6	269.6	2.1	6.3	14.0
2003	5.9	309.3	1.9	5.4	14.6
2004	6.0	366.3	1.6	1.7	18.5
2005	5.9	391.9	1.5	-0.4	7.0
2006	6.3	461.8	1.4	5.5	17.8
2007	6.6	526.6	1.3	5.9	14.0

Source: GOK, (1998), p.11 and (2009a), p.64 and p.95

5.3.2. Tourism receipts in Kerala

The earnings of Kerala from domestic and foreign tourists in Rs. crore for the period 2001-2007 are presented in table 5.8.

Table 5.8: Earnings of Kerala from tourism (2001-2007)

Year	F E E	Earnings from domestic tourists	Total	Ratio of foreign to domestic earnings
	(Rs. crore)			
2001	535.00	2561.16	3096.16	1:4.7
2002	705.67	3011.31	3716.98	1:4.3
2003	983.37	3492.68	4476.05	1:3.6
2004	1266.77	3881.92	5148.69	1:3.0
2005	1552.31	4281.42	5833.73	1:2.8
2006	1988.40	4891.94	6880.34	1:2.5
2007	2640.94	5978.65	8619.59	1:2.3

Source: GOK, (2009a), p.65

The total revenue generated by the tourism industry increased from Rs.3096.16 crore in 2001 to Rs.8619.59 crore in 2007 showing an almost three fold increase within in a span of six years. The ratio of earnings from foreign tourist and domestic tourist arrivals also has been calculated and presented in the table. From the data, it can be seen that in Kerala the ratio is getting reduced continuously. This means that in the tourism earnings of Kerala, the relative contribution of foreign tourists (i.e., the export component) is increasing year after year with continuous increase in FTAs in Kerala. The data on the ratio of foreign tourist arrivals to domestic tourist arrivals in Kerala are furnished in table 5.9.

Table 5.9: Ratio of FTAs to domestic tourist arrivals in Kerala from 2001 to 2007

Year	Number of tourists		Ratio of foreign to domestic tourists
	Foreign	Domestic	
2001	208830	5239692	1:25
2002	232564	5568256	1:24
2003	294621	5871228	1:20
2004	345546	5972182	1:17
2005	346499	5946423	1:17
2006	428534	6271724	1:15
2007	515808	6642941	1:13

Source: GOI, (2007), p.4 and GOK, (2009a), p.55 and p.83

The table shows that the ratio of foreign tourists to domestic tourists is showing a regular decline from 1:25 to 1:13 between 2001 and 2007, which implies that the FTAs in Kerala is increasing faster than domestic tourists which contributed to a significant rise in FEEs.

5.3.3. Domestic tourism markets of Kerala

The origin (source) of domestic tourists as percentage of total domestic tourists visited Kerala during 2004-2005, 2005-2006 and 2006-2007 is presented in table 5.10.

Table 5.10: State of origin of domestic tourists in Kerala (2004-05 to 2006-07)

State of origin	% of domestic tourist visits			Average for 2004-05 to 2006-07
	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	
Tamil Nadu	27.6	25.7	36.2	29.83
Karnataka	15.1	12.6	15.8	14.50
Maharashtra	15.3	13.9	12.4	13.87
Andhra Pradesh	8.7	11.4	9.7	9.93
Delhi	7.3	6.1	3.7	5.70
Gujarat	4.5	3.3	3.9	3.90
Madhya Pradesh	2.9	3.0	2.4	2.77
West Bengal	3.9	2.3	2.1	2.77
Uttar Pradesh	1.4	3.3	2.0	2.23
Goa	1.6	1.6	3.2	2.13
Bihar	1.2	1.4	2.0	1.53
Rajasthan	1.4	1.8	1.5	1.57
Punjab	1.1	1.6	1.4	1.37
Other states	7.8	12	3.8	7.87
Total	100	100	100	100

Source: GOK, (2009a), p.159

The maximum tourists were from the neighbouring states of Tamil Nadu and Karnataka. Tamil Nadu topped the list with 25.6 to 36.2% contribution with an average of 29.8% for 2004-07, followed by Karnataka, contributing to an average of 14.5% tourist arrivals. Maharashtra (13.9%) and Andhra Pradesh (9.93%) also contributed substantially. Kerala received tourists also from far off places like Delhi (5.7%), Gujarat (3.9%), West Bengal (2.7%), Uttar Pradesh (2.2%), Bihar (1.53%), Madhya Pradesh (2.7%), Rajasthan (1.57%) and Punjab (1.3%). Main attractions of these tourists were beaches and back waters, culture/pilgrim centres and wild life (GOK, 2009a, p.164).

5.3.4. Seasonality in domestic tourism

Data on month-wise distribution of domestic tourist arrivals in Kerala for the period 2001-2007 is furnished in table 5.11.

Table 5.11: Month-wise domestic tourist arrivals in Kerala (2001-2007)

Month	Number of domestic tourist arrivals						
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Jan	472377	471608	511396	523145	499698	532748	588620
Feb	399215	387550	427116	451420	432673	469363	501204
Mar	396320	382452	400503	422727	428235	457435	485722
Apr	498856	499217	514213	503583	500005	522408	557785
May	479515	537429	566603	561503	562616	610241	639712
Jun	383196	406500	450537	440469	445652	467879	502224
Jul	396805	406622	421346	508893	467532	478701	478781
Aug	428291	488050	469920	489182	483490	511198	535309
Sep	432608	466928	496977	457398	485205	517659	529847
Oct	427181	472056	513082	516386	519239	543876	555721
Nov	442386	494481	526578	522746	552523	556297	618908
Dec	482942	555363	572957	552730	569555	603919	659108
Total	5239692	5568256	5871228	5972182	5946423	6271724	6642941

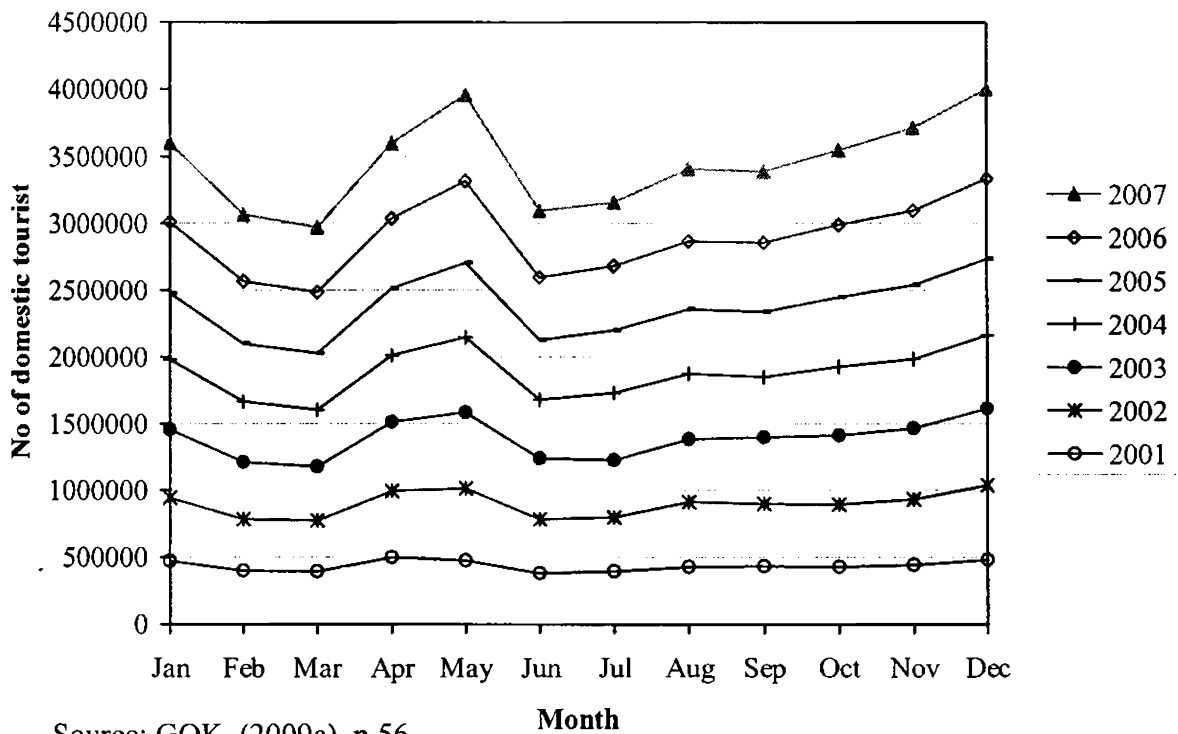
Source: GOK, (2009a), p.56

A clear-cut seasonality, as observed in the case of foreign tourist visits, was not observed in this case. Domestic tourism however seems to be slightly influenced by the vacation of children, who have their summer vacation in April-May and Christmas vacation in December. Also, there are several holidays in India, during Dusra, Deepavali, Christmas and Onam. Railways run many special trains to manage the heavy traffic requirements during the holidays/summer vacation.

Figure 5.3 shows the seasonality of domestic tourism in Kerala.

It appears from figure 5.3 that there is no significant seasonality except a mild upswing in April-May and September-December especially since 2004. This higher number of domestic tourists can compensate the relatively lower number of foreign tourists (seasonality in FTAs) observed in figure 5.1. This necessitates the need for a well defined tourism planning in the state so that the tourist stakeholders can reduce the problem emerging from seasonality to a some extent.

Fig. 5.3: Seasonal variation in domestic tourist arrivals in Kerala (2001 to 2007)



Source: GOK, (2009a), p.56

5.3.5. Spatial variation in domestic tourist arrivals

District-wise distribution of domestic tourist visits to Kerala for the period 2003-2007 is presented in table 5.12. The distribution differs greatly from the spatial distribution pattern exhibited in foreign tourist visits (table 5.6). Thrissur tops the districts with 23% domestic tourists during 2007. This can be attributed to the presence of famous Guruvayoor temple in the district. The colourful Thrissur 'pooram' also may be attracting thousands of admirers over there. A similar concentration was observed in Ernakulam district, where Cochin city, the backwaters and the beaches might attract many leisure seekers.

**Table 5.12: District -wise distribution of domestic tourists in Kerala
(2003-2007)**

District	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	Proportion to total in 2007
South Kerala						
Thiruvananthapuram	865048	855787	837211	866712	948579	14.28
Kollam	101890	100729	98227	122998	145524	2.19
Pathanamthitta	68014	64640	59328	57032	60988	0.92
Alappuzha	172119	185906	173626	179115	170731	2.57
Total	1207071	1207062	1168392	1225857	1325822	19.96
Central Kerala						
Kottayam	162779	163084	164909	196284	189411	2.85
Emakulam	1001938	1043479	1025944	1080591	1109644	16.70
Idukki	420960	482283	473772	515182	505229	7.61
Thrissur	1390491	1378118	1327856	1398014	1546576	23.28
Total	2976168	3066964	2992481	3190071	3350860	50.44
North Kerala						
Palakkad	271169	256015	266837	300674	315591	4.75
Malappuram	295102	297203	306431	303844	313200	4.71
Wayanad	202909	187701	191184	225923	256190	3.86
Kozhikode	461814	498931	553363	550694	570832	8.59
Kannur	319338	323645	333855	351309	375255	5.65
Kasragod	137657	134661	133880	123352	135191	2.04
Total	1687989	1698156	1785550	1855796	1966259	29.60
Grand total	5871228	5972182	5946423	6271724	6642941	100.00

Source: GOK, (2009a), p.57

As both these districts belong to central Kerala, this zone dominated with 50% domestic tourist arrivals during 2007. Distribution to other districts is more or less equal, except for Thiruvananthapuram attracting about 15% domestic tourist arrivals, followed by Kozhikode (9%), Idukki(8%) and Kannur (6%). Pathanamthitta is reported to be having the least share in domestic tourist arrivals (0.09%). But in fact, Pathanamthitta receives annually lakhs and lakhs of pilgrims, especially in the months of December and January, and they spend more than one night in the premises of the Sabarimala Sastha temple. As they are not 'accommodated' in any approved hotels, they are not considered as domestic tourists, thus exposing a weakness in the system of defining tourists.

5.4. Tourism resources of Kerala

Nowhere in India, except Kerala, a tourist can experience such a geographical diversity within the smallest area. Kerala, located on the South-western coast of India, bounded on the north and northeast by Dakshina Kannada, Kudagu and Mysore districts of Karnataka state, on the east by the Nilgris, Coimbatore, Madurai, Ramanathapuram and Thirunelveli districts of Tamil Nadu, on the south by the Kanyakumari district of Tamil Nadu and on the west by the Arabian Sea, has an area of 38,863 sq.km. It is a narrow strip of land, with about 600 km of coastal length and a maximum of about 120 km breadth at the centre, both ends tapering to a breadth of 30 kms. Geographically, the state is divided into three regions of high land, midland and low land. The high land region is the ghat region, at elevations ranging from 500m to 1800m from the sea level, with an average elevation of 900m and is clad with natural forests, and plantations of tea, coffee and cardamom. The high ranges and wooded valleys have some of the finest hill stations in the country and 14 wildlife sanctuaries. The midland is at elevation from 100m to 500m from the sea level and is spotted with hills and valleys. This is the most fertile and productive area used for the cultivation of rubber, black pepper, cashew nut, coconut, vegetables and paddy. The low land is at elevations less than 100m from the sea level and is decorated with paddy fields, coconut palms, backwaters and the beaches.

Ayurveda, Beaches/Backwaters and Canals are known as the ABC of Kerala tourism. In addition to its coastal area and resources (which are explained in chapter six) hill stations, wild-life and bird sanctuaries, forests, exciting trekking trails, sacred pilgrim centres, colourful festivals, traditional art forms, pilgrimage centres, heritage

spots, etc. function as its tourism attractions. The resources relevant for tourism development in the state are identified and discussed below.

5.4.1. Riverine resources in Kerala

The riverine resources of the state consist of 41 west flowing and three east flowing rivers. Among these, 11 rivers have a length of more than 100 kms. The name and length of the rivers of Kerala are given in table 5.13.

Table 5.13: Riverine resources in Kerala

Sl. No.	Name of the river	Length (kms)	Sl. No.	Name of the river	Length (kms)
1	Manjeshwar	16	23	Bharathapuzha	209
2	Uppala	50	24	Keecheri	43
3	Shiriya	65	25	Puzhakkal	29
4	Mogral	33	26	Karuvannur	48
5	Chandragiri	104	27	Chalakkudi	144
6	Chittari	25	28	Periyar	244
7	Nileshwar	46	29	Muvattupuzha	120
8	Kariangode	64	30	Meenachil	67
9	Kavvayi	22	31	Manimala	91
10	Perumba	40	32	Pamba	176
11	Ramapuram	19	33	Achankoil	128
12	Kuppam	80	34	Pallikkal	42
13	Valapattanam	112	35	Kallada	120
14	Anjarakkandy	52	36	Ithikkara	56
15	Thallassery	28	37	Ayroor	17
16	Mahe	54	38	Vamanapuram	80
17	Kuttiadi	73	39	Mamom	27
18	Korapuzha	40	40	Karamana	67
19	Kallayi	22	41	Neyyar	56
20	Chaliyar	168	42	Kabini*	8 (285) **
21	Kadalundi	130	43	Bhavani *	8 (217) **
22	Tirur	48	44	Pambar *	5 (31)**

Source: GOK (2006)

* east flowing rivers ** total length in brackets

None of these rivers are 'major' rivers as per national norms and all these rivers except Chaliyar, Bharathapuzha, Periyar and Pamba (medium rivers) are small

ivers. The many dams and reservoirs built along these rivers are tourist attractions in the state.

5.4.2. Native flora and fauna

Bird sanctuaries, wild life centres, mangroves, etc. contribute to the native flora and fauna of the state. Table 5.14 gives details of wildlife sanctuaries, national parks and major hill stations of the state.

Table 5.14: Wildlife sanctuaries, national parks, bird sanctuaries and hill stations in Kerala

Sl. No.	Wildlife sanctuaries	District	Nearest coastal city (distance)
1	Neyyar wildlife sanctuary	Thiruvananthapuram	Thiruvananthapuram (30 kms)
2	Peppara wildlife sanctuary	Thiruvananthapuram	Thiruvananthapuram (48 kms)
3	Shenduruny wildlife sanctuary	Kollam	Kollam (84 kms)
4	Periyar Tiger Reserve	Idukki	Kochi (176 kms)
5	Idukki wild life sanctuary	Idukki	Kochi (174 kms)
6	Chinnar wildlife sanctuary	Idukki	Kochi (166 kms)
7	Chimmini wildlife sanctuary	Thrissur	Thrissur (26 kms)
8	Peechi-Vazhani wildlife sanctuary	Thrissur	Thrissur (19 kms)
9	Parambikulam wildlife sanctuary	Palakkad	Thrissur (164 kms)
10	Wayanad wildlife sanctuary	Wayanad	Kozhikode (110 kms)
11	Aralam wildlife sanctuary	Kannur	Kannur (45 kms)
National Parks			
1	Eravikulam national park	Idukki	Kochi (135)
2	Silent valley national park	Palakkad	Thrissur (98 kms)
Bird sanctuary			
1	Kumarakam	Kottayam	Kochi (78 kms)
2	Thattakkad bird sanctuary	Ernakulam	Kochi (68 kms)
Major Hill stations			
1	Munnar	Idukki	Kochi (118 kms)
2	Wagamon	Idukki	Kochi (135 kms)
3	Ranipuram	Kasragod	Kasragod (80 kms)

Source: GOK (1999), pp.17-69

Table shows that the state has 11 wildlife sanctuaries and two national parks, one bird sanctuary and three major hill stations.

The mangrove ecosystems in the coastal areas of Kerala also support a variety of flora and fauna. The mangrove refers to any of dozens of species of tree capable of living in salt water and salty soil regimes. This ecosystem provide valuable physical habitat for a variety of aquatic fauna. Waterfowl and shorebirds are well known inhabitants of this system. The total area of mangrove resources in the state is 1924 ha. The district-wise distribution of area under mangroves is given in table 5.15.

Table 5.15: District-wise distribution of area under mangroves in Kerala

Sl.No	Districts	Area (ha.)	%
1	Thiruvananthapuram	195	10.13
2	Kollam	376	19.54
3	Alappuzha	79	4.10
4	Kottayam	340	17.67
5	Ernakulam	453	23.54
6	Thrissur	26	1.35
7	Kozhikode	24	1.25
8	Kannur	375	19.49
9	Kasragod	56	2.91
	Total	1924	100.00

Source: GOK, (2002a), p.136

Table 5.15 makes clear that the bulk of the mangrove areas of Kerala are located in Ernakulam (23.54%), Kollam (19.54%), Kannur (19.49%) and Kottayam (17.67%) districts.

5.4.3. Cultural attractions of Kerala

The cultural environment which is a by-product of human civilisation is a major attraction for tourists. The cultural attractions of Kerala coast are briefly described in the following sub-sections.

5.4.3.1. Heritage sites and historical area

The state has an abundance of heritage sites and historical areas. In fact, every locality is having its own history, but it seems that most of these heritage/historical sites are neglected or abandoned. Very few of them are now protected and promoted to attract tourists, like Bekal Fort, Kannur Fort, Kappad pillar (monument of the arrival of Vasco de Gama), Kaladi, the birthplace of Adi Sankaracharya, St. Francis church at Fort Kochi, Fort and light house at Thangassery (Kollam), Fort at Anjuthengu and *mandapam* at Shankumukham beach.

5.4.3.2. Ethnic art forms/performances of Kerala

A list of Kerala arts/folk performances is summarised in table 5.16.

Table 5.16: Arts/folk performances of Kerala

Sl.No.	Category	Art forms
1.	Temple arts	<i>Koodiyattam, Koothu, Kathakali, Krishnanattam, Padakam, Yakshaganam, Ottamthullal, Parayan thullal</i>
2.	Folk dances	<i>Thiruvathirakkali, Kummi, Oppana, Margam Kali</i>
3.	Ritualistic performances	<i>Poorakkali, Theyyam, Thottam, Thira, Padayani, , Thirayattam, Kolam thullal, Kanyarkali, Tholpavakoothu, Kurathi Natakam, Kakkarissi Natakam, Kolkkali, Duff Muttu, Ayyappan Theeyattu, Poothanum Thirayum, Mudiyyattu, Kummatti, Pulikali, Chavittu natakam</i>
4.	Folk Music/ Musical instrument	<i>Nagam pattu, Kalamezhuthu pattu, Mappila pattu, Vadakkan pattu, Chenda, Panchavadhyam, Pandimelam, Edaykka, Sopana Sangeetham</i>
5.	Classical dance	<i>Mohiniyattam, Bharathanatyam and Kuchupudi</i>
6.	Martial art	<i>Kalaripayattu</i>

Source: Compiled by the investigator on the basis of the information collected from the Folklore Akademi, Kannur.

The state is the birthplace of arts like *Kathakali, Ottamthullal* and performances like *Kalaripayattu*.

5.4.3.3. Cultural institutions

The major cultural institutions of Kerala include Kerala Kalamandalam at Cheruthuthi, Thunjan Parambu at Tirur, Hill Palace at Tripunithura, Kerala History Museum at Ernakulam, Kerala Sangeetha Nataka Academy at Thrissur, Kerala Folklore Academy at Kannur and Natyakala Sangham at Kottakkal.

5.4.3.4. Festivals of Kerala

A detailed list of major local festivals with district- wise categorisation is given in table 5.17.

Table 5.17: Major local festivals of Kerala

Sl.No	Districts	Major local festivals
1	Thiruvananthapuram	Attukal <i>Pongala</i> (March), <i>Chandanakudam Mahotsvam</i> at Beemapally (March)
2	Kollam	Kollam <i>Pooram</i> (April)
3	Pathanamthitta	<i>Mandalapooja</i> and <i>Makaravilakku</i> at Sabarimala (Dec-Jan), Maramon Convention at Kozhencherry (Feb)
4	Alappuzha	<i>Chirappu Mahotsavam</i> (December), <i>Edathuwa Perunnal</i> (May), <i>Chackulathukavu Pongala</i> (December)
5	Kottayam	<i>Erumeli Petta Thullal</i> (Dec-Jan), <i>Vaikathashtami</i> (Nov/Dec), <i>Ettumanoor Ezharapponnana</i> (Feb/Mar), <i>Manarcad Perunnal (Ettunombu Perunnal)</i> (Sept. 1-8)
6	Idukki	<i>Chitra Pournami</i> at Mangala Devi Temple (March)
7	Ernakulam	<i>Malayattoor Perunnal</i> (Mar/Apr), <i>Chottanikkara Makam Thozhal</i> (Mar/Apr), <i>Tripunithura Athachamayam</i> (Aug/Sep), <i>Thiruvairanikulam Nadathurappu utsavam</i> (Jan), <i>Aluva Sivaratri</i> (Jan/Feb), <i>Edappaly Perunnal</i> (May)
8	Thrissur	<i>Thrissur Pooram</i> (Apr/May), <i>Utralikkavu Pooram</i> (Mar/April), <i>Guruvayoor Ekadasi</i> (Nov), <i>Arattupuzha Pooram</i> (Mar/Apr)
9	Palakkad	<i>Kalpathi Ratholsavam</i> (Nov), <i>Nenmara Vallanki Vela</i> (Feb/Mar), <i>Pattambi Nercha</i> (Jan/Feb)
10	Malappuram	<i>Kondotty Nercha</i> (Mar), <i>Kottakkal Pooram</i> (Mar/Apr), <i>Kadambuzha Prathishtadinam</i> (Dec.)
11	Kozhikode	<i>Malabar Mahotsavam</i> (Jan/Feb), <i>Kaliyatta Maholtasavam</i> , <i>Pisharikavu</i> , <i>Quilandy</i> (Mar)
12	Wayanad	<i>Valliyurkavu Bhagavathy Temple festival</i> (Feb/Mar)

13	Kannur	<i>Theyyam</i> festivals at various temples(Dec-May), Kottiyoor <i>ulsavam</i> (May/Jun/July), Payyanur Temple <i>Aradhana</i> (Mar), Parassinikkadavu <i>vellatam</i> (Apr/May)
14	Kasragod	<i>Theyyam</i> at various <i>tharavads</i> and shrines(Oct-May), Madiyan Kovilakam <i>Pattulsavam</i> (Jan)

Source: Compiled by the investigator (2008-09) from district tourism brochures

Kerala is generally regarded as the land of festivals. *Onam* and *Vishu* are the most important festivals of Kerala. Apart from that, the state celebrate national festivals like Deepavali, Pooja, Sree Krishnana Jayanthi and international festivals like Christmas, Easter, Bakrid, etc.

5.4.4. Approved health centres and *Grihastalis*

The health care institutions (excluding the Government and Private hospitals) in the state are many and increasing. Government monitors the functioning of these institutions by providing approval certificates. The number of approved health centres and *grihastali*² are given in table 5.18.

Table 5.18: Number of approved health centres and *grihastalis* in Kerala (2008)

SI No	Districts	Health Centres	<i>Grihastali</i>
1	Thiruvananthapuram	20	2
2	Kollam	6	0
3	Pathanamthitta	2	0
4	Alappuzha	6	11
5	Kottayam	13	13
6	Idukki	2	0
7	Ernakulam	12	9
8	Thrissur	6	0
9	Palakkad	3	2
10	Malappuram	0	1
11	Kozhikode	4	1
12	Wayanad	1	0
13	Kannur	1	0
14	Kasragod	0	1
	Total	76	40

Source: GOK, (2009a), p.102

² *Grihastali*'s are excellent accommodation options with modern amenities arranged in traditional homes in authentic Kerala life style.

The table shows the presence of 76 health centres, of which 20 are in Thiruvananthapuram district, 13 in Kottayam district and 12 in Ernakulam district. There are also 40 *grihasthali*'s of which 13 are in Kottayam district and 11 in Alapuzha district.

From the above description of tourism resources of the state it is clear that, the tourists have the option to enjoy the cool climate of the high ranges, or familiarise with the rare flora and fauna of the ever green forests by travelling 80 to 150 kms from the coastal cities. While utilising its resources fully and effectively, the state can develop a unique model for tourism development. A list of potential tourism products of the state is briefly explained in the next section.

5.5. Potential tourism products of Kerala

Among the Indian states, Kerala became the forerunner in introducing new concepts like Eco tourism. After an Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) study by Kerala Forest Research Institute, the Government of Kerala commissioned an exclusive project at Thenmala, in the Western Ghats. This is the first of such centre in India. Recently, the Department of Tourism has initiated a Village Tourism project at Kumbalangi, located very close to Kochi City, to develop a model tourism village. The potential tourism products of the state, which can be developed along with beach and back water tourism (which are explained in chapter six), are given below.

5.5.1. Adventure tourism

As in Himachal Pradesh and Goa, where Government promotes adventure tourism (Anon., 2009a), the state of Kerala offers ample scope for aero, aqua and terrestrial adventure tourism activities. Apart from ensuring physical fitness and recreation, adventure tourism activities provide a broader outlook to life. Keeping

this in mind, many companies arrange adventure sports and outdoor activities for their employees to encourage team work and to reduce stress. The biggest advantage of adventure tourism is that it is closer to nature. As for water sports, many water bodies in the state are ideal for boating, kayaking, zorbing, speed boat cruises and power-sailing. Trekking can be done along the Western Ghats.

5.5.2. Business Tourism

Business executives and technocrats have to travel to different places on account of their business. Such visits can be for installation of equipment, inspection of goods, attending business meetings, conferences, participation in travel fairs and exhibitions, marketing of products, etc. Since the opening of the Indian economy for overseas investments, this became a growing segment in India since 1991. Techno-park at Thiruvananthapuram and Info-Park at Kochi already attract more business travellers to these cities. The proposed Smart City Project, Vallarpadam Container Terminal, etc. of Cochin city will further enhance the business tourists to Kerala.

5.5.3. Eco tourism

Hills, island in the sea, walk on the nature trail, etc., are the places where new breed of tourists are keen to visit because many people are looking for clear water, clean air and clean beaches. Quite distinct from the resort tourists, the wanderlust tourists like to move around lesser known places, unknown places, meet new people, experience environment, see and appreciate unusual customs, traditions, festivals and local food. They like to travel to destinations where pollution is nil and are activity oriented to get maximum excitement, natural environment and adequate facilities. Adventure tourism and eco tourism can be developed side by side.

5.5.4. Educational tourism

The internationally renowned Universities of the state, like Cochin University of Science and Technology, attract people from many countries, especially Africa and Middle East. The upcoming World Class University and Central University of the state will further attract foreign students to the state.

5.5.5. Film tourism

As film tourism means attracting tourists to visit the destinations being featured in films, the state can directly encourage film tourism in the state. Already, the spots like Bekal Fort, Muzhappilagod beach, Athirampally water falls, Alappuzha back waters, etc. were featured in many Bollywood, Tollywood and Kollywood movies. The Government of Kerala can utilise this as an opportunity to encourage movie industry of different parts of India to the state. Since, Hindi, Telugu, and Tamil movies have huge market potential in Americas, European, African and South East Asian nations, these films can work as 'brand ambassadors' of Kerala tourism, that ultimately increase the tourist flow to Kerala.

5.5.6. Health tourism (Ayurveda/yoga)

India has an ancient healing system called Ayurveda (knowledge of life). This system combines naturopathy with various natural therapies which is very invigorating. Yoga lessons are added in these therapies. These have no side effects but are rejuvenating. All around the World there is now a greater interest in this Indian Traditional Medical System. In tourism marketing, this rejuvenation package has been added by Kerala. Quite a number of resorts with Ayurveda packages have been developed in coastal areas.

5.5.7. Incentive travel

The service sector in the state is getting prominence and incentive tour sector has emerged as a popular means of rewarding the employees for special achievements and contributions by several, business houses, especially Multinational Companies, Insurance Companies, Banks, Pharmaceutical firms, Engineering Houses, etc. The employees are given free tickets or holiday packages to selected destinations by the company. The executives also get holidays on company account and sometimes, it is given for the whole family with attractive packages including shopping vouchers.

5.5.8. Pilgrimage tourism

Around 40% of the state's population is either Muslims or Christians and the rest Hindus. All religions have their place of worship in Kerala. Among this, Sri Kadambuzha *Bhagavati* temple at Kadambuzha, Sri Krishna temple at Guruvayur, Sri Padmanabha Swamy temple at Thiruvananthapuram, Sri Ayyapa temple at Sabarimala, St.Thomas Church at Malayattoor, etc. attract many people. In 2004, Malayattoor was declared as an 'international pilgrimage centre' (Mathrubhumi Year Book, 2009, Vol.3, p.38). The existence of different religious institutions and the harmony among the people of the state, guaranteed the scope for pilgrimage tourism in Kerala. The idea of visiting four temples in a single day during the month of Ramayana, popularly known as '*naalambala darshanam*,' which include visit to Sree Rama Swami Temple at Triprayar, Sree Koodalmanikya temple (Bharatha temple) at Iringalakkuda, Lakshmanaperumal temple at Thirumoozhikkulam and Sathrugnaswami temple at Payammal, encourages thousands of people during month of *Karkkidaka* (July/August). These temples are located in Thrissur and Ernakulam districts. Similarly, during the times of '*vavu*' (a lunar ritual of Kerala held four times

in a year of which '*karkkidaka vavu*' is the most important among the four), many people visit the temples (which are situated either on the river side or seaside) like Parasurama temple at Thirumullavaram, Sri Jagannadha temple at Varkala, Siva temple at Aluva, Navamukunda temple at Thirunavaya, etc. which further shows the potential for religious tourism in the state.

5.5.9. Rural tourism

Rural tourism has been identified as one of the priority areas for development of tourism. The rural tourism experience should be attractive and sustainable for the host community. The rural experience must capture the uniqueness of the Kerala village with its traditional way of life and livelihood, against the backdrop of rural India. It must also provide tourism facilities in terms of accessibility, accommodation, sanitation and security, etc. Sustainable tourism activity in the rural area must harmonise well with host community. While benefiting the community economically, it must stand with the social fabric and improve the quality of life in the village.

5.5.10. Social/root tourism

'Come back to your root and explore the country of your origin' was actively promoted by the Central Government since the beginning of the Eighth Five Year Plan. Both the nation and the state have a good number of people settled overseas, popularly known as Non Resident Indians (NRIs) and they have strong family ties in Kerala, especially those who have been separated from their friends and relatives due to work or other reasons. Many of them visit the state for social functions like marriage, birthday functions, festivals, etc. They travel to discover their roots and get themselves familiarised with the environment in which their ancestors had lived. UK,

USA, Canada, South Africa, Singapore, Malaysia etc. were targeted to attract NRI's visit to India and Kerala.

5.5.11. Sports tourism (water based/land based)

A number of countries and destinations have high-class facilities for certain kind of sports activities and they become destinations by virtue of those specific sports. People who are interested in such sports rush towards those destinations. Austria and France are known for Ski holidays; South Africa, Scotland and Portugal are popular for Golf holidays; Red Sea area and Maldives are known for Scuba diving. In the same way, Kerala can also offer various facilities for sports tourism. Golfers, especially Japanese are keen to visit those countries where golfing facilities are available. Kochi offers excellent opportunity for such golfing holidays.

5.5.12. Wild-life tourism (Bird sanctuary, wild life sanctuary, National parks)

Viewing wildlife in its natural environment is very popular and of special interest to tourists. Tourists are attracted to forests and wildlife parks by their desire to be with nature and to have glimpse of different animals in their natural habitat. Groups of such tourists also include bird watchers. The list of wild life centres that can be easily accessed from coastal regions has been furnished in table 5.14.

5.6. Tourism infrastructure in Kerala

Infrastructure is a very critical component of the tourism system. The details of infrastructure available can be described under two categories, i.e., transportation and accommodation.

5.6.1. Transportation systems

5.6.1.1. Roads

The road network in Kerala is well developed. Table 5.19 gives details of the road network in Kerala.

Table 5.19: Road network in Kerala

Sl No	National highways	Connecting places in Kerala	Distance (in km)
1	NH-17	Thalappady-Edappally	420.8
2	NH-47	Valayar-Kaliyikkavila	416.8
3	NH-47A	Wellington Island-Kochi Bypass	6.0
4	NH-49	Bodimettu-Kochi	167.6
5	NH-208	Kollam-Aryankavu-Thirumangalam	81.3
6	NH-212	Kozhikode-Kallingal	117.6
7	NH-213	Kozhikode-Palakkad	125.3
8	NH-220	Kollam-Theni	190.3
Major State highways in Kerala			
1	SH-1 (MC Road)	Thiruvananthapuram –Angamaly	240.0
2	SH-2	Thiruvananthapuram –Chenkotta	72.0
3	SH-4	Kollam-Chenkotta	95.0
4	SH-8	Punaloor-Muvattupuzha	153.0
5	SH-13	Kottyam-Kumily	105.0
6	SH-16	Aluva-Munnar	114.0
7	SH-19	Munnar-Kumily	105.0
8	SH-21	Chalakkudy-Anamala Road	86.0
9	SH-22	Kodugallor-Shornur	70.0
10	SH-24	Kozhikode-Palakkad Road	140.0
11	SH-28	Kozhikode-Nilambur Rroad	103.0
12	SH-34	Quilandy-Edavanna Road	97.2

Source: Mathrubhumi Year Book, Vol.3, (2009), p.111

The road density in the state is 446 km/100 sq km and it is far ahead of the national average of 74.9 km/100 sq km (GOK, 2009b, p.228). The National Highways in Kerala is 2.3% of the national length and is spread over a length of 1524 kms in eight stretches (*Ibid*, p.229). The number of state highways is around 60 in number and they cover 4137 kms. Apart from these, there are district roads, and panchayat roads in Kerala, and it is the only state in India which connects all its panchayat's through roads.

5.6.1.2. Railways

The railway's of the state comes under Thiruvananthapuram, Palakkad and Madurai divisions of Southern railway. Its total length is 1148 km, out of which meter gauge covers 111.14 km. From Thiruvananthapuram and Ernakulam, the state has direct rail connections to all major cities of India. With the completion of the Konkan railway in 1998, the travel time from Kerala to Mumbai is reduced by 18 hours.

5.6.1.3. Air travel

At present three airports, which attained international status are functioning in Kerala. The first airport in Kerala was established at Thiruvananthapuram in the year 1935 and its full fledged operations started in the year 1977-78. The details of airports in Kerala are given in table 5.20.

Table 5.20: Airports in Kerala

Sl.No	Airports in Kerala	Year of starting operations	Year of obtaining international airport status
1	Thiruvananthapuram	1935	1991
2	Kochi (Nedumbassery)	1994	1999
3	Kozhikkode (Karipur)	1988	2006

Source: Mathrubhumi Year Book, Vol.3, (2009), p.117

It is also worth while to note that there are five corporations and 53 Municipalities in the state (Mathrubhumi Year Book, vol.3, p.49). The distance between most municipalities may be below 30 kms. Kerala may be the only state in India, which can claim this advantage. This unique feature, along with other infrastructure facilities, helps the tourist to reach each and every corner of the state.

5.6.1.4. Water transport

The state of Kerala, with numerous backwaters, is one of the states in India, where waterways are successfully used for commercial inland water transport. The transportation is mainly by country craft and passenger vessels. There are 41 navigable rivers in Kerala. The total length of the inland waterways in the state is 1687 kms (GOK, 2009b, p.246). The major waterway of the state is known as the West-coast Canal system. The West-coast canal can be divided into three parts, i.e., from Hosdurg to Kottappuram (323 km), Kottappuram to Kollam (168 km) and from Kollam to Kovalam (68 km).

5.6.2. Accommodation units in Kerala

The Tourism Department provides accommodation in 24 guest houses and the Kerala Tourism Development Corporation has 12 hotels, nine motels and four *Yatri Niwases*. A large number of classified (star category) and non-classified (non-star category) hotels are also present in the state providing accommodation to the tourists.

The details of availability of accommodation facility in classified hotels in Kerala during 2001 and 2006 are given in table 5.21.

Table 5.21: Availability of accommodation in Kerala (2001 and 2006)

Type of accommodation	Number of hotels		Number of rooms	
	2001	2006	2001	2006
5 star deluxe	1	1	93	100
5 star	6	5	594	288
4 star	9	12	571	826
3 star	39	154	2094	4252
2 star	34	60	848	1154
1 star	24	6	728	170
Heritage	7	20	112	673
Total	127	258	5040	7463

Source: GOK (2002b and 2007)

Table 5.21 makes clear that the number of hotels in Kerala increased from 127 in 2001 to 258 in 2006, which account to a growth of 103% within a span of five years. During the same period, the number of rooms increased from 5040 to 7463, marking a growth of 48%. The distribution of accommodation facility is, however not uniform among the districts. Most of these facilities are concentrated in the southern districts of Kerala. Table 5.22 gives the district wise distribution of tourist accommodation in Kerala.

Table 5.22: District-wise distribution of tourist accommodation in Kerala (2002)

Sl.No	District	Number of hotels on the basis of category						
		5 star Deluxe	5 Star	4 Star	3 Star	2 Star	1 Star	Heritage
1	Thiruvananthapuram	0	1	3	10	6	3	2
2	Kollam	0	0	0	3	1	0	0
3	Alappuzha	0	0	0	2	3	1	1
4	Pathanamthitta	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
5	Kottayam	0	0	0	3	5	1	2
6	Idukki	0	1	2	6	7	3	1
7	Ernakulam	2	2	4	17	9	6	2
8	Thrissur	0	0	0	8	1	1	1
9	Palakkad	0	0	0	3	1	2	0
10	Malappuram	0	0	0	0	2	1	0
11	Kozhikode	0	1	1	4	2	1	0
12	Wayanad	0	0	0	0	2	0	0
13	Kannur	0	0	0	3	1	1	0
14	Kasragod	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
Total		2	5	10	60	41	21	9

Source: GOK, (2003), p.27

From the table 5.22, the dominance of Ernakulam and Thiruvananthapuram districts is clear in the case of tourist accommodation facilities. It can also be seen that the positions of Pathanamthitta, Malappuram, Wayanad and Kasragod districts are very poor compared to the other districts of Kerala. Apart from classified

accommodation units, many unclassified hotels also offer accommodation facilities to tourists. In addition to these, at many places like the Kuttanad region of Alappuzha and at Fort Kochi (Ernakulam), Idukki, Thiruvananthapuram and Kottayam, visitors are offered home stay facilities. Table 5.23 provides information on district-wise status of new home stay scheme.

Table 5.23: District-wise status of new home stay scheme (2007)

Sl.No	District	No. of approved home-stay applications	No. of home stays as per classification		
			Diamond	Gold	Silver
1	Thiruvananthapuram	33	7	14	12
2	Kollam	16	11	3	2
3	Pathanamthitta	8	2	5	1
4	Alappuzha	47	9	14	24
5	Kottayam	81	24	26	31
6	Idukki	100	12	28	60
7	Ernakulam	69	16	28	25
8	Thrissur	18	9	7	2
9	Palakkad	16	5	3	8
10	Malappuram	13	3	5	5
11	Kozhikode	5	0	3	2
12	Wayanad	13	0	4	9
13	Kannur	8	1	0	7
14	Kasragod	2	1	1	0
	Total	429	100	141	188

Source: GOK, (2009a), p.102

From table 5.23 it can be seen that number of approved home-stays applications received by the Tourism Department is about 429 in 2007. It is also worthwhile to note that most of these applications were received from Idukki, Kottayam and Ernakulam districts of central Kerala, followed by Alappuzha and Thiruvananthapuram districts of South Kerala.

5.7. Tourism administration in Kerala

5.7.1. Department of Tourism

After the formation of Kerala State in 1956, the erstwhile Travancore State Guest Department and the Hospitality Department of Cochin State were combined as "Tourist Department" in 1958. However, the functions of the Department were confined to running of guest houses, upkeep of residential bungalows of ministers and providing hospitality and other arrangements for VVIPs. It was only during the seventh FYP that tourism promotion activities found a place in the functioning of the Department of Tourism. Although the Department continues to handle the hospitality function of the state, more emphasis is now given to promotion, planning and development of tourism. Kerala was the first state in India to declare tourism as an industry in 1986, and the Department was first renamed as Tourist Department and then as Department of Tourism in 1989.

The Department of Tourism has three major functions, namely, 1) Tourism Development, 2) Hospitality Management of the State Government and 3) Estate office duty. Department of Tourism is also directly involved in infrastructure and destination development in less developed areas of the state to attract others to invest in these areas. The budget pattern underwent a sea change by the 1990s to provide more for tourism development (GOK, 2002c, p.9). The activities under tourism development can be broadly classified into three, namely, i) marketing and promotion ii) planning and development and iii) support to other agencies.

Along with the Department of Tourism, the other main public sector agencies involved in the development of tourism consist of the Kerala Tourism Development Corporation (KTDC), Tourist Resort (Kerala) Ltd. (TRKL), Bekal Resort

Development Corporation (BRDC), Directorate of Eco Tourism, and District Tourism Promotion Councils (DTPCs). The Kerala Institute of Tourism and Travel Studies (KITTS), Kerala Institute of Hospitality Management Studies (KIHMS) and State Institute of Hospitality Management (SIHM) give necessary manpower training in the field of tourism (GOK, 2009a). The Department of Forests, Irrigation and Archaeology support tourism related activities in their areas of jurisdiction in a limited way.

5.7.2. The District Tourism Promotion Councils (DTPCs)

District Tourism Promotion Councils with District Collector as Chairman and selected peoples representatives and officials as members coordinate the development of less known tourist centres within the districts. This has led to enhance focus on tourism in the districts. They are constantly improving the quality of tourism products and services through surveys and other modes of data collection. The DTPCs also monitor and supervise the levels of sanitation in tourist areas. Other related activities of DTPCs are the creation of awareness of the facilities and services in their specific areas as well as the development of tourism clubs and the dissemination of tourism specific information.

5.7.3. Kerala Tourism Development Corporation (KTDC)

Kerala Tourism Development Corporation is actively participating in building up basic infrastructure needed for the development of tourism in the state. It operates star hotels, budget hotels, motel *Araams*, *Yatri Nivases*, restaurants and beer parlours, and manage central reservation systems and conducted tours.

5.7.4. Tourist Resort (Kerala) Ltd. (TRKL)

Tourist Resort (Kerala) Ltd. is formed as a subsidiary company of KTDC and is engaged in implementing the projects such as investment in joint venture

companies, land bank projects, etc. The Department of Tourism had already established tie-ups with Taj Group of Hotels at many destinations through TRKL and has also a similar collaboration with Oberoi Group.

5.7.5. Bekal Resort Development Corporation (BRDC)

The Bekal Resort Development Corporation is formed to develop Bekal as a planned tourist destination of international standard. About 100 acres of land has been acquired by the Corporation by now. Private sector is being invited for dispensing six sites for construction of resorts.

5.7.6. Directorate of Eco-Tourism

The Directorate of eco-tourism is charged with the responsibility of developing and creating new eco-tourism destinations throughout Kerala. It is also active in the development and maintenance of wild life sanctuaries as tourist attractions.

5.7.7. Kerala Institute of Tourism and Travel Studies (KITTS), Kerala Institute of Hospitality Management Studies (KIHMS), Institute of Hotel Management and Catering Technology (IHMCT) and State Institute of Hospitality Management

These institutes impart quality education and hands on training to travel and tourism professionals of tomorrow.

5.8. Kerala tourism under five year plans

From the second five year plan onwards the state began to allocate funds for the development of tourism. Table 5.24 shows the state plan allocation for tourism during the Five Year Plan periods.

Table 5.24: Allocation of funds for tourism under Five Year Plans in Kerala

Five Year Plans	Total plan Outlay	Outlay on tourism	% share of tourism
	(Rs. lakh)		
I Plan (1951-56)	2590	00.0	0.00
II Plan (1956-61)	8701	12.8	0.20
III Plan (1961-66)	17000	50.0	0.30
Annual Plans (1966-69)	14254	31.0	0.20
IV Plan (1969-74)	25840	50.0	0.20
V Plan (1974-79)	56896	71.0	0.10
Rolling Plan (1978-80)	39296	130.0	0.30
VI Plan (1980-85)	155040	675.0	0.40
VII Plan (1985-90)	210000	900.0	0.40
Annual Plans (1990-92)	144200	650.0	0.45
VIII Plan (1992-97)	546000	2922.0	0.51
IX Plan (1997-2002)	1610000	14000.0	0.87
X Plan (2002-2007)	2400000	82600.0	4.20
XI Plan (2007-2012)	4442500	53430.0	0.12

Source: GOK, (1989), George, (2003), p.57 and Anon., 2007b

The state's first development plan did not pay any attention to tourism. In the second FYP an amount of almost Rs.13 lakh was provided for tourism sector. This provision went up to Rs. 50 lakh in the third and fourth plan and Rs. 71 lakh in the fifth plan. A sharp increase to Rs. 675 lakh was made during the sixth plan. During the seventh plan, it was stepped up to Rs. 900 lakh, and during the eighth Plan it was raised to Rs. 29.22 crore. The amount was further increased to Rs.140 crore during the ninth plan and to Rs.1011 crore during the tenth plan of the state. However, plan allocation for tourism as a percentage of state plan remained less than 0.5% till the eighth plan. It was mentioned earlier that only in 1986 tourism was declared as an industry and certain concessions/ incentives offered for investment in this sector. From June 1998 onwards, a Tourism Guidance Cell had started functioning at the Directorate to have face-to-face interactions with those who propose to invest in the tourism sector. For promoting effective marketing of tourism, various measures such as media advertisement, printing and distribution of multi-colour brochures,

hospitality to travel writers, conducting festivals, participating in National and International fairs and festivals, etc. were also adopted by the Department of Tourism.

5.9. Marketing of Kerala tourism

National and international acclaims achieved by the state show that the 'Kerala model tourism' is highly appreciable. In the global tourism market, the state itself is projected as a unique tourism destination centre. The official web site of the Department of Tourism, Government of Kerala, (www.keralatourism.org) launched on 24th December 1998 is reported to have received above two million hits, over 60,000 visitors and 2,50,000 page views a month (GOK, 2003, p.9). Table 5.25 shows some of the international acclaims obtained by Kerala Tourism.

Table 5.25: International acclaims for Kerala Tourism

1	"One of the 10 paradises of the world" by the National Geographic Traveller in its Millennium Issue
2	"One of the 100 great trips for the 21 st Century" by Travel and Leisure
3	"One of the 10 hotspots for the millennium" by Emirates Inflight Magazine
4	"Where India flows at a relaxed pace", by the New York Times
5	"Where the smart traveller goes" by Financial Times
6.	"State of Enlightenment" by National Geographic Traveller
7.	"Partner State" by World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC)
8	"One of the ten love nests in India" by 'Cosmopolitan'
9.	"One of the six destinations of the millennium" by 'Khaleej Times'
10.	"One of the 50 must see destinations of a lifetime" National Geographic Traveller ³
11.	'SMART TRAVEL ASIA' selected Kerala as it's 3 Best Tourism Destination
12.	Kerala is one of the three top finalists in WTTC's Tourism For Tomorrow International Destination Competition
13.	Kerala's tourism promotional film was acknowledged in Berlin with the Golden City Gate Award (ITB Berlin) as the Best Tourism Film
14.	Kerala was awarded the PATA Grand Award for <i>ZERO WASTE</i> in the 'Environment' category. PATA also conferred Gold Awards for Kumbalangi Tourism Village and the book <i>Ayurveda-Mantra</i> of Niramaya.
15.	UNESCO awarded Kerala its Asia Pacific Heritage Award for heritage conservation in 2006

Source: GOK, (2001b), p.9 and (2003), p.14-15 and (2009a), p.26

³ Kerala was the only Indian destination that featured in it other than the Taj Mahal in the World Wonders section.

Kerala was the first state in India to be accorded the status of 'Partner' state of the WTTC (WTTC, 2003 and Anon., 2000). Internationally, Kerala tourism receives much recognition from WTTC, PATA, PATWA, etc. The selection of Kerala as one of the 50 'must see destinations of a lifetime' by National Geographic Traveller, and one of the 10 'Paradises of the World' by the National Geographic Traveller in its Millennium Issue, etc. are some of the 'golden feathers' for Kerala tourism.

Nationally, Kerala has been awarded the best performing state award for the years 1999, 2000, 2001, 2004, 2006 and 2007 for achieving rapid growth, development and advancement in the tourism sector. Other recognitions include Most Eco-friendly Destination (2002), Most Tourist Friendly International Airport (2002), and Most Innovative Use of Information Technology Award (2001 & 2004). The best maintained Tourist-friendly wildlife sanctuary award for Thekkady (2004), the Best Eco-friendly projects for zero waste at Kovalam and Thennala (2004), the Best Tourism Village-Aranmula (2007) and the best Tourism Website-www.keralatourism.org. (2007), etc., clearly show the quality of performance of the marketing side of Kerala Tourism.

5.10. The vision 2025 of Kerala Tourism Department

In order to speed up the tourism developmental activities, Government of Kerala prepared a master plan, "Tourism Vision 2025" in 2002. The goals listed in the vision document were proposed to be achieved by adopting a multi-pronged inter-departmental strategy which would be supervised by an apex body with Chief Minister as chairman and ministers and secretaries of departments of Tourism, Forest, Irrigation, Power, Revenue, Public Works, Local Self Government, Industry, Finance, Culture and Transport, and Planning Board Vice Chairman, Tourism Director and

two nominated tourism experts as members to discuss the inter-sectoral issues in developing tourism (GOK, 2001a, p.1). Espousing “Conserve, Culture and Promote Tourism” as the vision slogan, the vision statement proposes to “develop Kerala, the ‘God’s own country’ into an up market, high quality tourist destination through optimal utilization of resources with emphasis on conserving and preserving the heritage and environment, and enhancing productivity, income, creating employment opportunities and alleviating poverty and thus making tourism the most important sector for the socio-economic development of the state (*Ibid*)

The targets set in the Tourism Vision 2025 include increasing earnings from tourism at 10% annually, achieving an annual rate of growth of 7% in foreign tourists arrivals and 9% growth in domestic arrivals, creating employment opportunities for 10000 every year, adding 200 hotel rooms in star categories every year and innovating and promoting at least one new tourism product or destination every year. The advocates of Kerala tourism are quite optimistic and their hopes are supported by the reports prepared by WTTC. According to WTTC, Kerala would triple its current level of travel and tourism economy employment from 6,93,000 to 2 million in 2012. (Anon., 2003a). The success of the Vision, however, will depend upon how the benefits of the activity reach the common people of Kerala.

5.11. Summary

This chapter analysed the performance of tourism sector in Kerala. The analysis of foreign tourist arrivals in the state showed the remarkable performance of Kerala in comparison with India. The FEE from tourism also exhibited an outstanding growth rate. The marketing of Kerala tourism was found to focus on the affluent long haul visitors of Europe and America. Seasonality which is a

characteristic of national tourism was found to be common in the case of foreign tourist arrivals although it was mild in the case of domestic tourist arrivals.

The distribution of foreign tourists within the state was found to be uneven between districts. Foreign tourists were barely visible in northern districts, which is indicative of the unbalanced development of tourism in the state. The flow of domestic tourists was found to show an increasing trend with the nearby states like Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh and far off states like Delhi contributing much to the domestic tourist inflow to the state. A lower ratio of foreign tourists and domestic tourists which is characteristic of tourism developed nations of Europe is found to prevail in Kerala as well.

A review of tourism resources of Kerala made in this chapter noted the importance of the riverine resources, flora and fauna, wild life sanctuaries, cultural art forms, ethnic art forms, festivals of Kerala, cultural institutions, health care institutions, etc. It also noted the potential for the state to develop alternative forms of tourism like adventure tourism, business tourism, eco-tourism, educational tourism, film tourism, health tourism, incentive travel, pilgrimage tourism, rural tourism, social/root tourism, sports tourism, wild life tourism, etc., which can provide quality tourism and attract the more concerned traveller truly interested in the destination. This type of tourism is supposed to minimise the negative socio-cultural and environmental effects, optimise economic benefits derived from it and contribute to the improvement in the standard of living of the local community.

This chapter also noted the development in infrastructure for tourism in the form of transport, accommodation, etc. It also observed that the successful marketing of Kerala tourism products in affluent markets has helped in winning several

accolades for Kerala. A brief review of the administration of tourism activities in Kerala undertaken during the Five Year Plan periods found significant improvements in the institutional set up, notwithstanding the limited budgetary support till the eighth plan. The state's recent tourism development initiatives are found reflected in the Vision 2025 of Kerala Tourism. The next chapter makes an analysis of coastal tourism development in Kerala.

Chapter 6

Coastal Tourism in Kerala-An Analysis

6.1. Introduction

In the preceding three chapters, the profile of tourism in terms of tourist arrivals and tourism receipts were discussed at the global, national and state level. Various elements of tourism, including the policies and strategies of the central and state governments were also highlighted. The stage is now set to discuss the most important element of the tourism activity in the state, i.e., coastal tourism. This chapter starts with a description (definition) of coastal tourism in Kerala. A detailed analysis of beach tourism and backwater tourism, the two major components of coastal tourism, are discussed in the next two sections. Following this, the findings of the survey conducted among the tourists to understand their place of origin, economic and social profile, demographic and visitation pattern, etc. were presented. The last section gives a summary of this chapter.

6.2. Coastal tourism in Kerala

Tourism is a process involving tourists, places they visit and activities they involve into. Coastal tourism, therefore, is tourism brought to bear on the coastal environment and its natural and cultural resources. It takes place along the shore and in the water immediately adjacent to the shorelines. In this study, the term coastal region encompasses not only the region lying close to the sea, but also its extensions through the large system of estuaries and backwaters far into the inland of Kerala. Hence, this study defines coastal tourism of Kerala as the composite of beach tourism and backwater tourism.

6.2.1. Beach tourism in Kerala

The Kerala coast is 590 km long, lying in the direction of North-Northwest to South-South east, with many special features like sea cliffs formed by the action of waves on the coast. Distributed on the coast, there are long patches of sandy beaches. The coast line itself acts as the major resource for coastal tourism development in the state. Nine out of fourteen districts of Kerala have coast line. Table 6.1 shows details of district wise coastline.

Table 6.1: Length of the coastline of Kerala (district-wise)

District	Length of Coastline (km.)	Coast line % to total
Kasragod	70	11.8
Kannur	82	14.0
Kozhikode	71	12.0
Malappuram	70	11.8
Thrissur	54	9.2
Ernakulam	46	7.8
Alappuzha	82	13.9
Kollam	37	6.3
Thiruvananthapuram	78	13.2
TOTAL	590	100.00

Source: GOK, (2005)

It is apparent from table 6.1 that the maximum length (14 %) of coast line is present in Alappuzha and Kannur districts and the minimum (6.3%) in Kollam district. There are nearly 200 village panchayats, 11 municipalities and four corporations located along the coast facing the sea or backwaters and about 30% of the population of Kerala live in the coastal zone, which has a high population density (GOI, 2006, p.5). Apart from this, the coastal area has been the centre for many economic activities like agriculture, aquaculture, fishing, fish processing industry, coir industry, chemical industry, mining and tourism. Beaches and backwaters are the major attractions of the tourists in these areas.

According to the Department of Tourism, there are five major beaches in Kerala, namely, Kovalam, Varkala, Fort Kochi, Kappad and Bekal (GOK, 2003, p.2). The spot wise description of major beaches is given below.

6.2.1.1. Kovalam

It was Kovalam that put Kerala in the tourism map of the world. The British holiday seekers discovered this village by the sea in the early 1930s. Situated on the coast of Arabian Sea, Kovalam beach is 14 kms south of Thiruvananthapuram. Kovalam, one of India's internationally renowned beach resorts, consists of three successive crescent shaped natural bays, namely, the Samudra beach, the Eve's beach and the Lighthouse beach. The southernmost, known as the Lighthouse Beach, is the most popular of the three. Kovalam offers accommodation to suit all budgets. Vizhinjam Rock Cave and Marine aquarium, Thiruvallam Parasurama temple, Pozhikkara beach, etc. are the other nearby attractions of Kovalam.

6.2.1.2. Varkala

Varkala is one of the most recent discoveries of tourists and is 41 kms north of Thiruvananthapuram city. The beach, however, is only about 500 metres long. Varkala is a seaside resort, a spa and an important Hindu centre of pilgrimage. A quiet, secluded stretch of sand, the Papanasam Beach in Varkala, is known for its mineral springs and rocky cliffs. The 2000 year old Sree Janardhana Swamy Temple and the health care centres are the other attractions here.

6.2.1.3. Fort Kochi

The eventful history of this city began when a major flood in 1341 AD threw open an estuary at Kochi, till then a land locked region, turning it into one of the finest natural harbours in the world. Kochi thus became a haven for seafaring visitors

from all over the world and became the first European township in India where the Portuguese settled in the 15th century. The Dutch wrested Fort Kochi from the Portuguese in 1663 AD and later the British took over the town in 1795. During 1660s, Fort Kochi peaked in stature as a prime commercial centre and its fame spread far and wide - variously as a rich trade centre, a major military base, a vibrant cultural hub, a great ship building centre, a centre for Christianity, and so on. The result of these cultural influences is seen in the many examples of Indo-European architecture that still exist here. Today, centuries later, the city is home to nearly thirteen communities.

The tourist attractions of Fort Kochi are the Vasco Da Gama Square, Santa Cruz Basilica, St.Francis Church and Bastion Bungalow. The Santa Cruz Basilica, a church built originally by the Portuguese and elevated to a Cathedral by Pope Paul IV in 1558, was spared by the Dutch conquerors who destroyed many Catholic buildings. Later the British demolished the structure and Bishop Dom Gomez Vereira commissioned a new building in 1887. Consecrated in 1905, Santa Cruz was proclaimed a Basilica by the Pope John Paul II in 1984. Fort Kochi is also the home to one of India's oldest churches, the St.Francis Church. Another important fact about the church is that Vasco Da Gama, who died in 1524, was buried here before his mortal remains were returned to Portugal 14 years later.

Apart from these architectural splendours, the Chinese fishing nets and an array of restaurants serving fresh seafood are popular among the tourists. Records say that the Chinese fishing nets were first set up between 1350 AD and 1450 AD. Vasco Da Gama Square, the narrow promenade that parallels the beach, is the best place to watch the nets being lowered and pulled out of the sea mouth.

6.2.1.4. Kappad

This is a historic beach, 16 kms north of Kozhikode, where Vasco Da Gama landed in 1498, with 170 men in three vessels. A monument on the beach commemorates this historic event. The rock studded beach is locally known as Kappakadavu. An interesting feature of the landscape is the sprawling rock that protrudes into the sea. The temple on the rock is believed to be 800 years old.

6.2.1.5. Bekal

Bekal is at Kasragod, the northern district of Kerala. The beach is also famous for its Portuguese Fort. Bekal was planned to be developed into an international tourist resort by the year 2000. The developmental activities are yet to be completed.

Among the beaches mentioned above, only Kovalam and Varkala are developed into full-fledged tourist spots of the state. The number of tourists who prefer to stay at Fort Kochi is less due to the lack of infrastructure facilities. Moreover, this beach is not as clean as Varkala or Kovalam. Kappad also is recognised, but the presence of tourists is negligible. Bekal has already been recognised, but development is at a slow pace.

Apart from these, there are many minor/potential beaches through out the state. Among these, Sankumukham and Veli beaches in Thiruvananthapuram, Mararikkulam beach in Alappuzha, Cherai beach in Ernakulam, Kozhikode beach in Kozhikode, Muzhappilangad beach in Kannur and Valiyaparamba beach in Kasragod districts, already attract many tourists. Muzhappilangad, the only drive in beach in Kerala, was featured in many Malayalam and Tamil movies, further increasing the curiosity of the tourists. Table 6.2 shows the list of potential beaches of Kerala.

Table 6.2: Potential beaches for tourism development in Kerala

District	Beaches	Features
Thiruvananthapuram	Poovar South	Wide beach, backwater
	Pulinkudi	Rocky cliff, extensive stable beach
	Pozhikkara	Beach, where backwater meets the sea
	Sankumugham	Beach, archaeological sites, palace, park
	Veli	Tourist village, backwater, beach tourism, park
	Papanasam	Cliff, beach, mineral spring, temple
Kollam	Edava	Barrier beach and backwater at close proximity, coconut groves
	Kappil	Barrier beach, extensive backwater, coastal road
	Paravur Pozkikkara	Pozhi, temple, coconut groves
	Mundakkal	Park, extensive stable beach
	Thirumullavaram	Bay, beaches, coconut groves, temple, pond
	Palliyamthuruth	Uninhabited island (inlet) with beautiful backwater surroundings
Alappuzha	Alappuzha	Extensive stable beach, pier, suitable for recreational fishing
	Mararikkulam	Wide beach
Ernakulam	Cherai	Extensive beach, backwater, frontage park
Thrissur	Thalikkulam	Wide beach
	Chavakkad	Wide beach
Malappuram	Vallikkunnu	Wide beach
Kozhikode	Kozhikode	Wide beach
Kannur	Muzhappilangad	Wide beach, cliffs
	Meenkunnu-Payyambalam	Extensive beach
	Ezhimala	Promontory and pocket beaches
Kasragod	Valiyaparamba	Wide beach with sea and backwater
	Pallikkara	Fort on cliff, wide beaches around, backwater at the vicinity
	Kottikkulam	Promontory and pocket beaches around

Source: Compiled by the investigator (2008) from district tourism brochures

A nearby place of Muzhappilangad, Dharmadam *thuruthu* (a small island in the sea, at a walk-able distance from the land at the time of low tide) also is a potential place for coastal tourism development.

6.2.2. Backwater tourism in Kerala

A major feature of the coastal region of Kerala is the presence of a large number of backwaters and canals. These water bodies are locally known as *kayals*. There are three major *kayals* in the southern part of the state, the Vembanad *Kayal*, the Ashtamudi *Kayal*, and the Chetuva *Kayal*. They have access to the Arabian Sea through bar mouths and are, therefore, also called the "backwaters". These backwaters, stretching irregularly along the coastline, support a wealth of marine and freshwater life due to tidal incursion and excursion containing rich nutrients from the Arabian Sea. They have ecological significance as they connect the river system with the sea, act as ecological buffer zone, and support excellent fish fauna as well as other renewable aquatic resources. The state has an estimated area of 46128.94 ha of estuaries and backwaters spread over 10 districts. Table 6.3 shows the district-wise distribution of estuaries and backwaters of Kerala.

Table 6.3: District-wise distribution of estuaries and backwaters of Kerala

Districts	Sl. No	Name	Area (ha.)	% of total area
Thiruvananthapuram	1	Poovar <i>kayal</i>	30.93	
	2	Poonthura <i>kayal</i>	97.59	
	3	Veli <i>kayal</i>	22.48	
	4	Kadinamkulam <i>kayal</i>	346.88	
	5	Anchuthengu <i>kayal</i>	521.75	
	6	Edava-Nadayar <i>kayal</i>	157.65	
			Total	1177.28
Kollam	7	Paravoor <i>kayal</i>	662.46	
	8	Ashtamudi <i>kayal</i>	6424.15	
	9	Kayamkulam <i>kayal</i>	140.58	
			Total	7227.19
Alappuzha	10	Kayamkulam <i>kayal</i>	1511.75	
	11	Poomeen <i>kayal</i>	3.39	
	12	Vadakkal <i>kayal</i>	1.46	
	13	Chethi <i>kayal</i>	4.11	
	14	Arthingal <i>kayal</i>	5.96	
	15	Pozhikal <i>kayal</i>	20.41	
	16	Vettakkalchal <i>kayal</i>	27.10	

	17	Vembanad <i>kayal</i>	10661.23	
		Total	12235.39	26.52
Kottayam	18	Vembanad <i>kayal</i>	2926.77	6.34
Ernakulam	19	Vembanad <i>kayal</i>	2257.89	
	20	Kochi <i>kayal</i>	7503.80	
		Total	9761.69	21.16
Thrissur	21	Azhikode <i>kayal</i>	82.02	
	22	Kodungalloor <i>kayal</i>	613.81	
	23	Chettuva <i>kayal</i>	713.87	
		Total	1409.70	3.05
Malappuram	24	Puthuponnani	150.83	
	25	Ponnani <i>kayal</i>	757.19	
	26	Poorapuzha	62.98	
	27	Kadalundi <i>kayal</i>	323.56	
		Total	1294.56	2.81
Kozhikode	28	Kadalundi <i>kayal</i>	83.85	
	29	Beypore <i>kayal</i>	783.74	
	30	Kallai Puzha	160.13	
	31	Korapuzha	1038.08	
	32	Payyoli puzha	26.70	
	33	Kottapuzha	584.12	
	34	New Mahe puzha	88.28	
		Total	2764.90	5.99
Kannur	35	Mahe	91.89	
	36	Dharmadam <i>kayal</i>	359.06	
	37	Valapattanam	3077.64	
	38	Palakkode	598.25	
	39	Cheruvathur	30.58	
		Total	4157.42	9.01
Kasragod	40	Cheruvathur	1123.12	
	41	Nileswaram	824.69	
	42	Chittari <i>kayal</i>	89.33	
	43	Bekal <i>kayal</i>	43.37	
	44	Kappil Pozhi	2.22	
	45	Neebil <i>kayal</i>	22.47	
	46	Chandragiri	575.81	
	47	Mogral puthur	89.74	
	48	Kumbala	221.54	
	49	Suvarnagiri	6.22	
	50	Manjeswaram	158.41	
	51	Thalappady	17.12	
		Total	3174.04	6.88
		Total Kerala	46128.94	100.00

Source: GOK,(1993), p.21

The maximum area of estuaries and backwaters of the state is located in Alappuzha district, with 26.52% of the total area. It was followed by Ernakulam (21.16%), Kollam (15.67%), Kannur (9.01%), Kasragod (6.88%) and Kozhikode (5.99%) districts. Among the various estuaries and backwaters, the Vembanad *kayal*, spread over the three districts of Alappuzha, Kottayam and Ernakulam, held 34.34 % of the total area. The backwaters of Kochi formed about 16.26 % of the total area. The Ashtamudi *kayal* in Kollam district constituted about 13.92 % of the total area.

The major problem of coastal tourism development of Kerala is that there is no interconnecting waterway transport existing in the state (GOK, 2009b, p.245). The present Government of Kerala announced that the steps were being taken to make the Kovalam-Neeleswaram waterway operational in two years (Anon., 2007c). It would give a boost to the existing backwater tourism in the state. The main attractions of tourists in the backwaters other than the natural beauty are houseboats and boat races.

6.2.2.1. House boats

The houseboats developed from the traditional *kettuvallams* used for transporting goods in earlier days through the backwaters and canals of Kerala, have now become the central attraction of backwater tourism in the state. Houseboats are traditional boats made from the trunk of *Anjili* tree with a number of rooms. The epitome of luxury, they have all the facilities for staying in the night. Houseboats became major attractions especially in Alappuzha, Kollam and Ernakulam districts. In Alappuzha alone, it was reported that more than 100 houseboats drift through its estuaries (Anon, 2002a). But during the field survey (2006-07), it has been revealed that around 400 houseboats are operating in Vembanadu *Kayal* alone. The Kollam and Alappuzha District Tourism Promotion Councils offer long distant boat trips.

The Tourism Department launched a Green Palm Certification scheme in 2002 for houseboats in order to maintain the environmental quality of the surroundings. To get the Green Palm certification, the house boats should meet the standards set by Tourism Department (Anon, 2002b). They should provide scientifically designed septic tanks and bio-chemical tanks to discharge solid wastes and sewage. Energy sources like solar power should be used for alternative lighting.

6.2.2.2. Boat races of Kerala

The snake-boat race popularly known as ‘*vallamkali*’ is an important event related to backwater tourism. There are four major boat races in Kerala. During the time of Onam festival, many District Tourism Promotion Councils and local clubs organise boat races. The major and minor boat races of Kerala are listed in table 6.4.

Table 6.4: Major and minor boat races of Kerala

SI No	Major Boat races of Kerala
1.	Champakulam Moolam Boat Race, Champakulam, Alappuzha
2.	Payippad Boat Race, Payippad, near Harippad
3.	Aranmula Boat Race, Pathanamthitta
4.	Nehru Boat Race, Punnamada <i>Kayal</i> , Alappuzha
Minor Boat races of Kerala	
1.	Alappuzha Tourism Development Council Boat Race, Alappuzha
2.	Rajiv Gandhi Boat Race, Pulinkunnu, Alappuzha
3.	Neerattupuram Boat Race, Alappuzha
4.	Kumarakom Boat Race, Kottayam
5.	Karuvatta Boat Race,
6.	Kavanattinkara Boat Race
7.	Kumarakom Arpookara Vanitha Boat Race
8.	Kottayam Mahatma Boat Race
9.	Thazhathangadi Boat Race, Kottayam
10.	Kottappuram Boat Race, Kodungallur
11.	Kumaranasan Smaraka Jalotsvam, Pallana, Thiruvananthapuram
12.	Indira Gandhi Boat Race, Ernakulam
13.	Kandassamkadavu Boat Races, Thrissur
14.	Korappuzha Boat race, Kozhikode
15.	Kariangode Boat race, Kasragod

Source: GOK, 2004.

The natural and cultural resources of the coast of Kerala are vast. As the geographical width of the state is only around 120 kms and considering beach tourism and backwater tourism as the focal area of tourism development in the state, it can further develop coastal tourism by using the other resources like rivers, blue- green mountain ranges, wild life sanctuaries, historical monuments, temples, churches and mosques, etc. The pleasant climate, with no extremities of weather conditions, also favours tourism development. Most of the days are sunny and the sky will be clear except for the rainy days during June to September.

Kerala coast, with a rich endowment of natural attractions of varying importance, can definitely claim economic benefits in terms of income and employment through the sustainable development of tourism activity in the state. Having understood the enormous potential for coastal tourism development, it is important to make an analysis of demographic and visitation profile of tourists to understand the emerging trends in demand for coastal tourism of the state.

6.3. Demographic and visitation profile of tourists

6.3.1. Objectives of the survey

The objectives of the survey were:

- i. to understand the demographic profile and the visitation profile of the domestic and foreign tourists of coastal tourism spots
- ii. to study the expenditure pattern of domestic and foreign tourists in coastal tourism spots, and
- iii. to study the level of satisfaction of tourists with regard to the tourist facilities in the state.

6.3.2. Methodology

In accordance with the objectives of the study, four important coastal tourism spots of Kerala, namely Kovalam, Varkala, Alappuzha and Fort Kochi were selected for the study. Thirty foreign tourists and thirty domestic tourists (from outside Kerala) from each spot were interviewed at random over a period of six months from October 2006 to March 2007, coinciding with the peak tourist season in coastal tourism spots. A structured and validated questionnaire was used to interview the tourists (appendix 6.1). The investigator himself interviewed the tourists by visiting each spot once in every month. Children below the age of 15 were excluded from the interview.

The following section presents the demographic and visitation profiles of the tourists.

6.3.3. Survey results

The tourist survey results are presented under various headings to cover variety of information ranging from nationality, age, education, occupation, etc. to income, mode of transport, entry points, frequency of visit, motivations for the tour and so on.

6.3.3.1. Distribution of tourists by country/state of origin

Table 6.5 shows the distribution of international/ foreign tourists by country of origin and domestic tourists by the state of origin. Most of the foreign tourists to Kerala coast arrived from UK (25%) followed by Germany (15%). Spain, France and USA contributed 7.6 % each. Australia (5.6%) Singapore (5.6%) and New Zealand (5.0%) were next in order.

Table 6.5: Origin of foreign and domestic tourist arrivals to the coastal tourism spots of Kerala (2006-07)

Foreign Tourists		Domestic Tourists	
Country of origin	%	State of origin	%
UK	25.0	Tamil Nadu	15.8
Germany	15.0	Maharashtra	13.3
Spain	7.6	Andhra Pradesh	11.7
USA	7.6	Karnataka	9.2
France	7.6	Goa	7.5
Australia	5.6	West Bengal	7.5
Singapore	5.6	Punjab	7.5
New Zealand	5.0	Delhi	6.7
Canada	3.4	Assam	5.8
Others	17.6	Other states	15.0
Total	100.0	Total	100.0

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

The major contributors to “others” are the Asian countries of Maldives, Malaysia and Singapore. Tourists from Africa, Middle East and North Pacific regions (Japan, Korea and China) were not met with. The above observations compare well with the data compiled by the Department of Tourism, Government of Kerala, which was presented in table 5.4.

Among the domestic tourists, maximum number of tourists was from Tamil Nadu (15.8%). The neighbouring state of Karnataka contributed 9.2% of tourists. The tourists from next near neighbouring states of Maharashtra (13.3%), Andhra Pradesh (11.7%) and Goa (7.5%) were also of sizeable numbers. Delhi contributed 6.7%. West Bengal and Punjab excelled the performance of Delhi by contributing 7.5% each. About 5.8% tourists were from Assam. The trend observed is similar to the findings of Government of Kerala, reproduced in table 5.10.

6.3.3.2. Distribution by age

The age-wise distribution of foreign and domestic tourists in Kerala coast is furnished in table 6.6. About 88.3% of foreign tourists and 89.2% of domestic tourists

belonged to the age group of 18-60. The age group of 18 to 50 covered 72.5% foreign tourists and 73.4% of domestic tourists. The respondents ranged in age from 17 to 68, but the number of tourists below the age of 18 and above the age of 60 was small in both categories.

Table 6.6: Distribution of age of foreign and domestic tourists of coastal tourism spots of Kerala (2006-07)

Age	% of tourists	
	Foreign	Domestic
Below 18	4.2	2.5
18-30	31.7	36.7
31-50	40.8	36.7
51-60	15.8	15.8
Above 60	7.5	8.3
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

6.3.3.3. Educational qualification of foreign and domestic tourists of coastal tourists spots of Kerala

Data on educational status of tourists visiting Kerala coast, presented in table 6.7 show that the majority of foreign (82.2%) and domestic (71.9%) tourists were graduates or of still higher qualification. Only 7.6% of foreign tourists and 9.4% of domestic tourists had an education below the Pre-Degree level.

Table 6.7: Educational qualification of foreign and domestic tourists of coastal tourism spots of Kerala (2006-07)

Educational Qualifications	% of tourists	
	Foreign	Domestic
Schooling	7.6	9.4
Pre-Degree	10.2	18.8
Graduation	45.8	36.8
Post graduation	25.4	29.1
PG and above	11.0	6.0
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

6.3.3.4. Occupation of tourists

Data on occupation of tourists visiting coastal tourism spots of Kerala are presented in table 6.8.

Table 6.8: Occupational categorisation of domestic and foreign tourists of coastal tourism spots of Kerala (2006-07)

Occupation	% of tourists	
	Foreign	Domestic
Students	17.2	14.0
Govt. servants	9.5	25.4
Self employed	19.8	29.8
Professionals	37.9	18.4
Executives	6.9	7.9
Retired persons	8.6	4.4
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: Field survey (2006-07)

The data show that 37.9% of foreign tourists were professionals. About 19.8% were self-employed and 17.2% were students. Government servants constituted 9.5% and executives 6.9%. Retired persons formed 8.6% of the foreign tourist population. Among the domestic tourists, professionals were 18.4%, self employed, 29.8%, students, 14.0%, Government servants, 25.4%, executives, 7.9% and retired persons, 4.4%.

A higher percentage of Government employees were found among domestic tourists than in foreign tourists. Professionals dominated the foreign tourist group.

6.3.3.5 Annual income of tourists

The percentage distribution of foreign and domestic tourists of the coastal tourism spots of Kerala in various income groups is presented in table 6.9. About 20% of foreign tourists visiting the coast have annual income above US\$ 50,000. The annual income of 66.6% of foreign tourists is above US\$ 20,000. Foreign tourists with annual income of less than US \$ 20,000 constituted only 23% of foreign tourists.

It may be noted from table 6.8, that 17% of foreign tourists were students and this may be contributing to the relatively high occurrence of tourists of below US \$ 10000 annual income among the foreign tourists.

Table 6.9: Income class of tourists visiting coastal tourism spots of Kerala (2006-07)

Foreign tourists		Domestic tourists	
Income level (US \$)	%	Income level (Rs.)	%
Below 10000	9.2	Below 100000	6.6
10001-20000	14.2	100001-200000	19.1
20001-30000	10.8	200001-300000	24.2
30001-40000	13.3	300001-400000	17.5
40001-50000	22.5	400001-500000	22.3
50001 and above	20.0	Above 500000	10.1

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

About 10% of the domestic tourists had annual income above Rs.5,00,000. Nearly 74% of them had annual income above Rs.2,00,000. Only 6.6% of the domestic tourists had annual income below Rs.1,00,000.

6.3.3.6. Source of information for tourists about Kerala

Data on source of information for tourists visiting coastal tourism spots of Kerala are presented in table 6.10.

Table 6.10: Source of information for tourists about Kerala (2006-07)

Sources	% of tourists	
	Foreign	Domestic
Internet	36	13
Television	2	3
Books and Journals	16	7
Friends & Relatives	13	48
Tour Guides	27	21
Information from previous visits	6	8
Total	100	100

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

Data presented in table 6.10 indicate that for foreign tourists, the internet was the most important source (36%) of information about Kerala. They also made use of the tour guides (27%). Books and journals (16%) and friends and relatives (13%) also contributed to their knowledge about Kerala. About 6% of tourists collected information about Kerala during their previous visits to India. However, for the domestic tourists, the major source of information was friends (48%). Internet, television, travel guides, etc. provided information to the remaining percentage of tourists.

6.3.3.7. Mode of transport to Kerala

The particulars regarding the mode of travel used by foreign and domestic tourists to reach coastal tourism spots of Kerala are furnished in table 6.11.

Table 6.11: Mode of transport used by tourists visiting coastal tourism spots in Kerala (2006-07)

Mode of transport	Foreign Tourists		Domestic Tourists	
	Number of tourists	%	Number of tourists	%
Rail	27	22.50	73	60.83
Air	58	48.33	26	21.67
Bus	17	14.17	5	4.17
Ship	3	2.50	0	0.00
Taxi	13	10.83	12	10.00
Others	2	1.67	4	3.33
Total	120	100.00	120	100.00

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

The mode of travel used by foreign tourists to reach Kerala included air (48.3%), rail (22.5%), bus (14.2%), taxi (10.8%) and ship (2.5%). For domestic travellers rail (60.8%) and air (21.7%) were the main mode of travel to Kerala. Taxi and bus transport accounted for 14.2%. The relatively high percentage in the use of train and road by foreign tourists indicates that they are reaching the air terminals outside the state and from there come to Kerala by train/taxi/bus.

6.3.3.8 Entry point for the tourists to coastal tourism spots in Kerala

Data on entry points of tourists to coastal tourism spots in Kerala is furnished in table 6.12.

Table 6.12: Entry points of foreign and domestic tourists to coastal tourism spots in Kerala (2006-07)

Entry Point	% of tourists	
	Foreign	Domestic
Thiruvananthapuram	25.8	10.0
Kochi	23.3	22.5
Kozhikode	2.6	3.4
Mangalore	9.2	10.8
Palakkad	15.8	34.2
Iritty (Kannur)	2.5	0.8
Kumily (Idukki)	5.8	5.8
Parassala (TN border)	15.0	12.5
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

The entry points at Thiruvananthapuram, Kochi and Kozhikode are predominantly for travellers by air. Mangalore and Palakkad allow the entry of travellers by train. Iritty allows travellers by road from Karnataka to cross the border. Kumily and Parassala are the gateways to Kerala by road from Tamil Nadu. About 49.1% of foreign tourists entered Kerala through Thiruvananthapuram and Kochi, which are the major airports of the state. Other important entry points for foreign tourists were Palakkad (15.8%) and Mangalore (9.2%). Parassala witnessed the entry of 15% of foreign tourists and Kumily 5.8%. Majority of the domestic tourists (34.2%) entered through Palakkad. Other important entry points for domestic tourists were Kochi (22.5%), Parassala (12.5%), Mangalore (10.8%) and Thiruvananthapuram (10%). Kumily accounted for 5.8 %. The relative number of travellers reaching Kerala through these entry points corresponds to the mode of transport utilised (table 6.11).

6.3.3.9. Frequency of visits to Kerala

Data on frequency of visits are furnished in table 6.13. For 63.1% of foreign tourists, it was their first visit to Kerala. For another 20% of them, this was their second visit. Percentages of foreign tourists who visited Kerala thrice and more than thrice were 7.3% and 9.6%, respectively. In the case of domestic tourists, 44% were visiting Kerala for the first time, 22% were enjoying their second visit and 12% their third visit, while 22% of the domestic tourists had visited Kerala more than thrice.

Table 6.13: Frequency of tourists' visits to Kerala (2006-07)

Frequency of visit	% of tourists	
	Foreign	Domestic
First visit	63.1	44
Second visit	20.0	22
Third visit	7.3	12
More than three	9.6	22
Total	100.0	100

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

6.3.3.10. Motivation for tour

The tourists who were interviewed during the survey revealed that they had more than one motivation for visiting Kerala. The responses obtained were analysed by totalling all the motives expressed by the tourists (table 6.14).

Table 6.14: Motivation of tourists visiting coastal tourism spots in Kerala (2006-07)

Motivation (Purpose)	% of tourists	
	Foreign	Domestic
Leisure, Recreation and Holidays	90.8	68.3
Visiting Friends and Relatives	25.8	39.2
Business and Profession	30.0	20.8
Health Treatment	11.9	9.1
Religion/Pilgrimage	8.3	25.8

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

About 91% of foreign tourists and 68% of domestic tourists informed that they came to Kerala mainly for recreation or pleasure along with other motives. About

26% of foreign tourists and 39% of domestic tourists had visiting their friends and relatives in their agenda with other motives. Business was the motive for 30% of foreign tourists and 20.8% of domestic tourists, along with other motives. Nearly 12% of foreign tourists and 9% of domestic tourists came for health care. Nearly 26% of domestic tourists had religion/pilgrimage as their motive, whereas only 8% of foreign tourists stated this as a motive.

6.3.3.11. Facilitation of trips

Facilitation of trips of both foreign and domestic tourists is given in table 6.15. About 76% of the foreign tourists arranged their tour programme by themselves. Approximately 17 % arranged their travel through tour and travel agents. Nearly 7% came with the help of their friends.

Table 6.15: Facilitation of trips of tourists (2006-07)

Facilitation	% of tourists	
	Foreign	Domestic
Tour by themselves	76	78
Assisted by travel agents	17	11
Assisted by friends and relatives	7	11
Total	100	100

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

Table 6.15 made clear that among domestic tourists, 78% arranged the tour programme by themselves, 11% sought the help of tour/travel agents and 11% came with the help of their friends and relatives.

6.3.3.12. Attractions for the tourists

Each of the 14 places specified in the questionnaire has its own specific attractions. Thus Kovalam, Varkala, Alappuzha, Kumarakom, Fort Kochi, Kappad and Bekal are known for beach/backwater tourism; Thekkady and Munnar for wildlife tourism; Thiruvananthapuram city and Kochi city for cultural tourism; Kottakkal for health care (Ayurvedic treatment) tourism, and Guruvayoor for pilgrimage tourism.

As in the case of motives, tourists had more than one place of attraction. Table 6.16 gives the information on the major attractions for the tourists.

Table 6.16: Major attractions of tourists (2006-07)

Tourist Spots	% of tourists	
	Foreign	Domestic
Kovalam	83.0	59.0
Varkala	61.0	21.0
Alappuzha	46.0	32.0
Kumarakom	20.0	18.0
Fort Kochi	73.0	69.0
Kappad	0.0	3.0
Bekal	3.0	6.0
Kochi City	58.0	81.0
Thiruvananthapuram City	42.0	45.0
Guruvayur	6.0	31.0
Kottakkal	5.0	3.0
Thekkady	27.0	26.0
Munnar	24.0	29.0
Thrissur	11.0	15.0
Others	48.0	49.0

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

About 83% of foreign tourists had visited/ or would visit Kovalam, 61% visited Varkala, 73% visited Fort Kochi, and 46% visited Alappuzha. Foreign visitors also visited Kochi city (58%) and Thiruvananthapuram city (42%) in large numbers. Next in order are Thekkady (27%) and Munnar (24%). Kumarakom which is gaining importance as a backwater tourism spot is yet to gain the needed publicity and only 20% of the foreign tourists had put Kumarakom in their visit plan. The tourism spots of Kappad (0%) and Bekal (3%) are yet to attract foreign tourists. Fort Kochi (69%) and Kochi city (81%) are the most preferred tourist attractions for domestic tourists and are followed by Kovalam (59%) and Thiruvananthapuram city (45%). Next in preference is Guruvayur (31%). Munnar (29%) and Thekkady (26%) are also attractions to domestic tourists. About 5% of the foreign tourists and 3% of the

domestic tourists had plans to visit Kottakkal for Ayurvedic treatment. It may be noted that the respondents were primarily oriented towards the recreational/pleasure centres of tourism as the survey was confined to the coastal tourism spots of Kerala.

6.3.3.13. Demand for accommodation units

The percentage distribution of tourists in various classes of accommodation units is furnished in table 6.17.

Table 6.17: Demand for accommodation units (2006-07)

Classification of accommodations	% of tourists	
	Foreign	Domestic
5 and 4 Star	13.3	15.0
3 Star	22.5	27.5
2 Star	10.0	8.3
1 Star	12.5	6.7
Home Stay	18.3	1.5
Friends and Relatives	4.2	19.3
Others	19.2	21.7
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

About 13.3% of foreign tourists and 15% of domestic tourists preferred 5 and 4 star category accommodation. Bulk of the tourists preferred other category (1, 2 and 3 star) of accommodations; approximately 45% of foreign tourists 42.5% of domestic tourists stayed in such accommodations. Home stays were preferred only by foreign tourists (18.3%). A higher percentage of domestic tourists (19.3%) found accommodation with friends and relatives.

6.3.3.14. Expenditure of Tourists

The ultimate objective of all tourism promotion is to encourage the expenditure of tourists in many ways. The per day expenditure in Kerala was estimated at Rs.682/- for domestic tourists and Rs.1,764/- for foreign tourists by the Tourism Department (TCS, 2000). Table 6.18 presents the data obtained from the present field survey.

Table 6.18: Expenditure pattern of tourists in the coastal tourism spots of Kerala (2006-07)

Expenditure per day (Rs.)	% of tourists	
	Foreign	Domestic
Up to 500	8.4	14.2
501-1500	14.2	19.2
1501-3000	19.2	33.4
3001-5000	17.5	15.8
5001-8000	28.2	14.2
8001 and above	12.5	3.3
Total	100.0	100.0

Survey: Field Survey (2006-07)

Table 6.18 shows that about 58 % of foreign tourists spent more than Rs.3000 per day. About 19% of foreign tourists spent between Rs.1501 and Rs.3000 per day. The average expenditure of foreign tourists is worked at Rs.3878 per day. Among domestic tourists, only 33% spent above Rs.3000 per day. About 53% spent between Rs.501 and Rs.3000. Average expenditure per day for domestic tourists was calculated at Rs.2234. While comparing the government data (TCS, 2000) with the survey data it is clear that the expenditure incurred in the state has increased by 120 % and 228% in the case of foreign and domestic tourists respectively within a span of seven years from 2000 to 2007.

6.3.3.15. Major heads of expenditure

The objective of tourism development programme is to encourage tourists to spend more money in the region. Table 6.19 gives details of expenditure of tourists.

Table 6.19: Major heads of expenses of tourists in the coastal tourism spots of Kerala (2006-07)

Major heads	% of tourist expenditure	
	Foreign	Domestic
Accommodation	40.6	36.2
Food and beverages	21.9	18.7
Travel	10.3	14.2
Shopping	13.2	18.4
Spices	4.2	4.6
Others	9.8	7.9
Total	100	100

Source: Field survey (2006-07)

Table 6.19 makes clear that nearly 41% of the foreign tourist's expenditure was on accommodation, and another 22% on food and beverages. For domestic tourists also these were major items of expenditure; 36% on accommodation and 19% on food and beverages.

6.3.3.16. Visitation profile of tourists

According to the Government of Kerala, a foreign tourist would like to spend 16.74 days and domestic tourist 8.55 days in Kerala (TCS, 2000). Visitation profile of tourists from the present study is given in table 6.20. From the table 6.20 it is clear that while considering the mean value of tourist's stay at various destinations, Kovalam stood first with a mean of 4.2 (foreign: 5.2 and domestic: 2.4), followed by Kochi city with 4.1 (foreign: 4.0 and domestic: 4.2). If the median score is considered, Kochi stood first with 3, and the rest of the places like Kovalam, Alappuzha, Varkala, Kumarakom, Fort Kochi, Munnar and Thrissur fall in the favourite list with a median of 2.

Table 6.20: Visitation profile (days of stay) of tourists (2006-07)

Tourists spots	Mean			Median		
	Foreign	Domestic	Total	Foreign	Domestic	Total
Kovalam	5.2	2.4	4.2	4.0	2.0	2.0
Varkala	2.9	1.6	2.5	2.0	1.0	2.0
Alappuzha	2.5	2.0	2.3	2.0	1.0	2.0
Kumarakom	3.0	2.1	2.6	3.0	2.0	2.0
Fort Kochi	2.5	1.8	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.0
Kappad	1.0	0.0	1.0	1.0	0.0	1.0
Bekkal	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.0	1.0
Kochi City	4.0	4.2	4.1	2.0	3.0	3.0
Thiruvananthapuram City	2.0	1.7	1.9	2.0	1.5	2.0
Guruvayoor	1.0	1.4	1.3	1.0	1.0	1.0
Kottakkal	26.5	14.7	21.4	30.0	20.0	20.0
Tekkady	1.9	1.2	1.5	2.0	1.0	1.0
Munnar	2.3	1.8	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
Thrissur	1.9	1.6	1.8	2.0	2.0	2.0
Others	3.1	2.5	2.8	2.0	2.0	2.0

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

Mean and median score of Kottakkal, was too high i.e., 21.4 and 20, but this does not mean that Kottakkal is the most favourite destination. It is because the stay of the tourist is mainly for Ayurvedic treatment (and as far as the results obtained in this study, the number of tourists visiting Kottakkal is much less compared to other tourist spots of Kerala).

6.3.3.17. Occupation, educational qualification and tourist expenditure

Here an attempt is made to find out the association of expenditure pattern of tourists with their educational qualification and occupation. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is used to explain the variation in per capita expenditure by tourists. The factors considered are country, education, occupation and their interaction effects. Table 6.21 explains the ANOVA tests. Since the P value is less than the significance level, one can conclude that according to this model, occupation, country and education, education and occupation and country, education and occupation have significant effect on per capita expenditure.

Table 6.21: ANOVA test on education, occupation and tourist expenditure

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	151.966(a)	51	2.980	1.910	0.001
Intercept	3865.418	1	3865.418	2477.287	0.000
Country	7.910	1	7.910	5.069	0.026
Education	25.992	5	5.198	3.332	0.007
Occupation	17.854	6	2.976	1.907	0.082
Country * Education	2.010	4	0.502	0.322	0.863
Country * Occupation	6.179	6	1.030	0.660	0.682
Education * Occupation	37.565	19	1.977	1.267	0.210
Country * Education* Occupation	24.901	10	2.490	1.596	0.111
Total	12280.468	237	(a) R Squared, Significant at 0.05 significance level,		
Corrected Total	440.630	236			

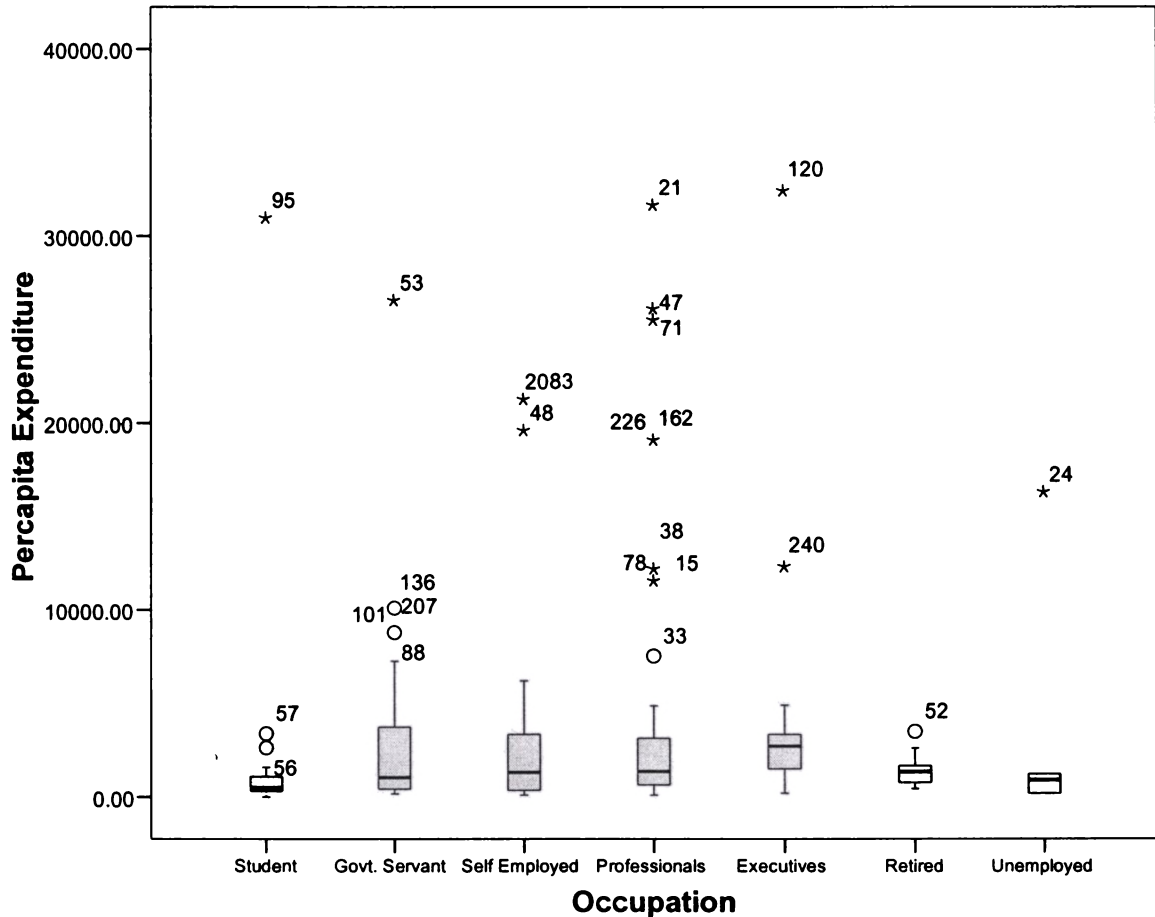
(Sig. value is also termed as P (probability) value).

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

6.3.3.17.1. Box plot diagram

The relationship between occupation and expenditure of the tourists can be indicated with the help of Box Plot¹ diagram. It is given in figure 6.1.

Fig. 6.1: Box Plot diagram of occupation and per capita expenditure



Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

¹ In descriptive statistics, a box plot is a convenient way of graphically depicting the five number summary, which consists of the smallest observation, lower quartile (Q1), median, upper quartile (Q3) and the largest observation; in addition the box plot indicates which observations, if any, are considered unusual, or outliers.

Interpreting a Box Plot diagram

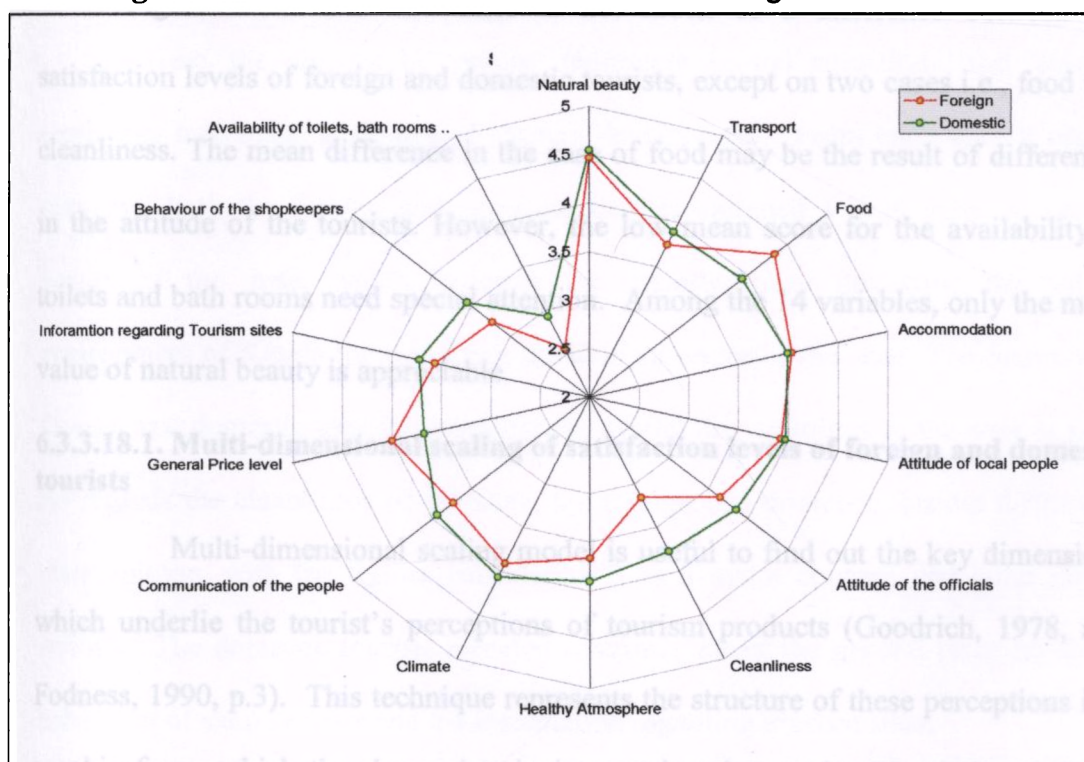
1. The box itself contains the middle 50% of the data. The upper edge of box indicates the 75th percentile of the data set, and lower hinge indicates the 25th percentile. The range of the middle two quartiles is known as the inter-quartile range.
2. The line in the box indicates the median value of the data.
3. If the median line within the box is not equidistant from the hinges, then the data is skewed.
4. The ends of the vertical lines or 'whiskers' indicate the minimum and maximum data values, unless outliers are present in which case the whiskers extend to a maximum of 1.5 times the inter-quartile range (Netmba, 2007)

The diagram shows that there is no relationship in the per capita expenditure of the tourists with their occupation. In almost all categories like students, Government servants, self-employed, professionals and executives, there are people who spend more amount of money. The extreme values in the diagram represent those people who spend more amount of money. The numbers in the diagram are the identification number (data entry number) of the tourists who incurred the expenditure.

6.3.3.18. Satisfaction levels of tourists

In order to attract tourists, it is very important to ensure the satisfaction levels of tourists. In figure 6.2, a spider chart² is used to indicate the satisfaction levels.

Fig. 6.2: Measurement of satisfaction levels of foreign and domestic tourists



Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

² A spider chart is a two dimensional chart of three or more quantitative variables represented on axes starting from the same point. The relative position and angle of the axes are uninformative. According to Vavra (1997) in spider chart each vector represents a variable i.e. satisfaction level.

In this study 14 variables, namely natural beauty, transport, food, accommodation, attitude of local people, attitude of the officials, cleanliness, healthy atmosphere, climate, communication of the people, general price level, information regarding tourism sites, behaviour of shop keepers and availability of toilets and bath rooms were considered. The satisfaction levels with respect to each variable were measured and presented. Each axis in this spider chart represents one variable. The mean scores of satisfaction levels of both foreign and domestic tourists are plotted on the axis. The mean scores obtained and marked in the vectors were then joined together to form ellipsoids to understand the differences in the satisfaction levels of foreign and domestic tourist's visits to Kerala.

Figure 6.2 shows that there is not much of a difference between the satisfaction levels of foreign and domestic tourists, except on two cases i.e., food and cleanliness. The mean difference in the case of food may be the result of differences in the attitude of the tourists. However, the low mean score for the availability of toilets and bath rooms need special attention. Among the 14 variables, only the mean value of natural beauty is appreciable.

6.3.3.18.1. Multi-dimensional scaling of satisfaction levels of foreign and domestic tourists

Multi-dimensional scaling model is useful to find out the key dimensions which underlie the tourist's perceptions of tourism products (Goodrich, 1978, and Fodness, 1990, p.3). This technique represents the structure of these perceptions in a graphic form, which thereby assists in interpreting the results (Kruskal and Wish, 1978). In the questionnaire, respondents were asked to rate on a five point scale on the fourteen variables (section 6.4.3.18). Mean deviation of satisfaction levels of tourists are given in table 6.22.

Table 6.22: Mean deviations of satisfaction levels of tourists (2006-07)

Attributes	Foreign tourists		Domestic tourists	
	Nature	People	Nature	People
Natural beauty	2.0149	0.0700	2.1177	-0.0771
Transport	0.2383	0.3268	0.4605	0.2931
Food	1.4929	-0.2078	0.0008	1.8841
Accommodation	0.8436	0.2041	0.5904	0.7054
Attitude of local people	0.6259	0.4560	0.6760	0.1342
Attitude of the officials	-0.3713	-0.4978	0.0456	-0.2909
Cleanliness	-1.5838	-1.2586	0.0116	-0.7085
Healthy atmosphere	-0.2408	-0.6859	0.5160	-1.1144
Climate	0.7605	-0.1469	0.7319	-1.0354
Communication of the people	0.0075	-0.7584	0.0231	0.4146
General price level	0.8278	0.5324	-0.7920	0.3708
Information regarding tourism sites	-0.2197	0.2909	-0.0393	-0.0674
Behaviour of the shopkeepers	-1.3164	1.1874	-0.7390	-0.3840
Availability of toilets, bath rooms	-3.0794	0.4879	-3.6033	-0.1246

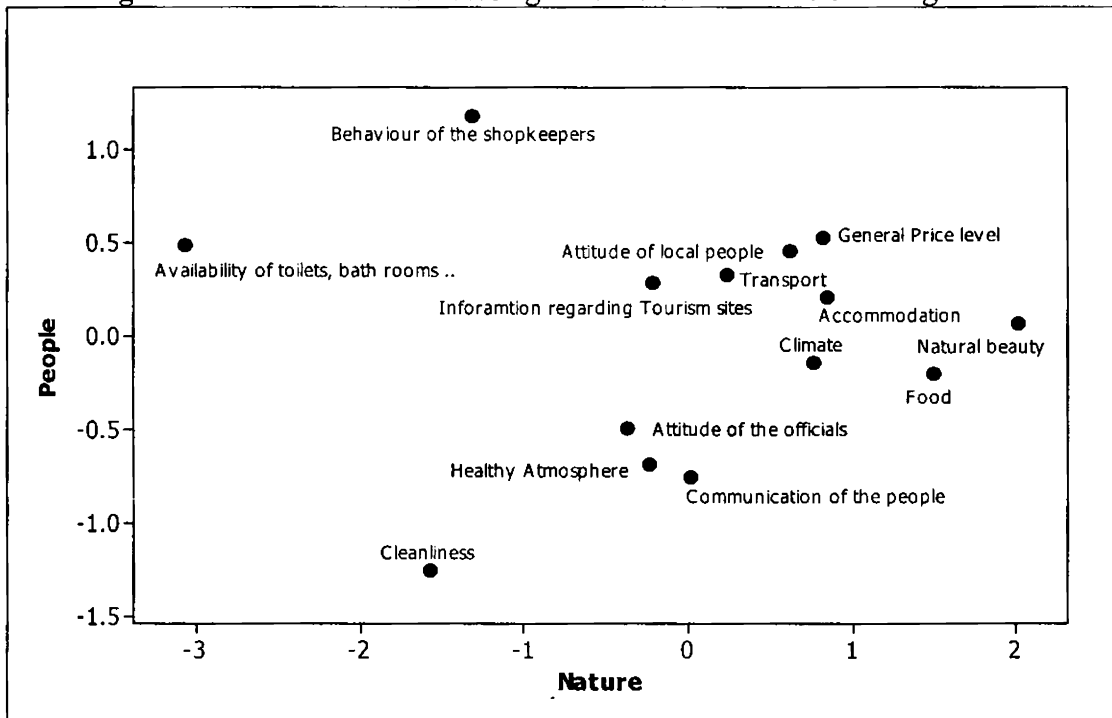
Source: Filed Survey (2006-07)

Here, the dimensions 'nature' represents natural attractions, and 'people' represents man-made attributes of tourism development. From table 6.22 it can be seen that both the foreign and domestic tourists assigned a high value to natural beauty of the state, which indicates the importance of protecting the natural environment of Kerala for sustaining the tourism sector of the state. The response of foreign and domestic tourists regarding the availability of toilets in the state is poor. As regards the cleanliness of the state, the foreign and domestic tourists differed in their opinion, with the former considering it as a major concern and latter not so serious. The domestic tourists reported adversely about the general price level, the behaviour of shop keepers and the information regarding tourism sites.

For a visual understanding of the perceptions, the data are reproduced in figure 6.3 for foreign tourists and in figure 6.4 for domestic tourists. The figures give a

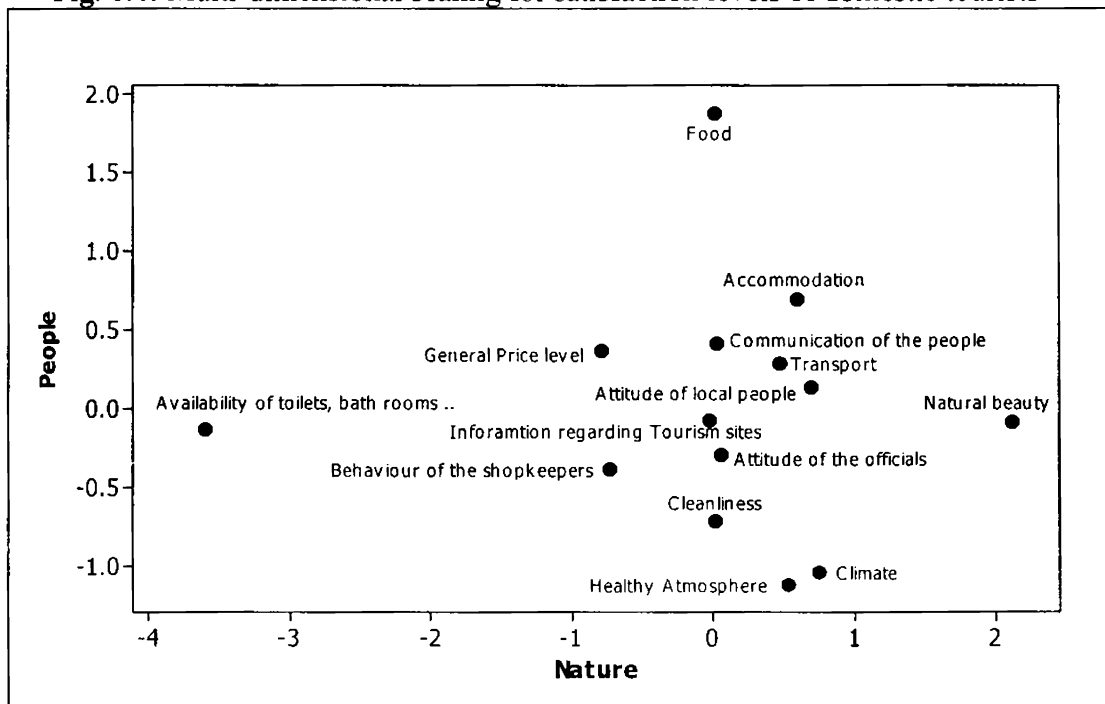
spatial display of fourteen attributes in the study in two dimensions as obtained from the Multi-dimensional scale (MDS) model.

Fig. 6.3: Multi-dimensional scaling for satisfaction levels of foreign tourists



Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

Fig. 6.4: Multi-dimensional scaling for satisfaction levels of domestic tourists



Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

With regard to satisfaction levels, Wilson observes that the foreign tourists visiting India are well aware of the litter and garbage problems in public places, poor standards of hygiene in many of the restaurants, primitive toilet facilities in the wayside refreshment shops and abuse of sanitation. However, they visit India because of the persuasion of their friends who visited India earlier. The powerful attractions and incentives to tourists include the near perfect climate, cloudless skies, cheap accommodation, variety of food and drinks, enjoyable beaches, friendly local people and a general lack of harassment (Wilson, 1997). Visitors anticipate that services and facilities will be bad. After all, dirt, poverty, time-consuming bureaucracy and general chaos are all part of common foreign perception of daily life of India. So they get a better treatment than expected unlike the experiences from other destinations like Caribbean, where 'paradise imagery' is the prime marketing strategy, but the tourists are harassed on the beaches and roads (Wilson, 1997).

6.3.3.19. Difficulties faced by tourists

The public response towards strikes/*hartals* is quite negative in Kerala, as it leads to much economic loss to the state. About 21.7% of the foreign tourists and 18.3% of the domestic tourists complained that they were affected by different types of strikes in Kerala. It was also found that 14.2 % of foreign tourists and 8.3% of domestic tourists were affected because of holidays. Most of the museums were reported closed on Mondays/Tuesdays. From local to state levels, strikes were common in Kerala. According to Mathrubhumi News Paper (Anon., 2007d) there were six state-wide *hartals* and 200 regional *hartals* in Kerala during the period 2000 to 2007.

6.4. Summary

The underlying assumption of the study was that coastal tourism acts as the backbone of Kerala tourism, and keeping this in mind, a detailed review of the two components of coastal tourism of the state i.e., beach tourism and backwater tourism was made in this chapter. An analysis of the coastal tourism resources of the state identified the presence of major and minor beaches for development of beach tourism and the presence of backwater resources; house boats, boat races (*vallam kali*), etc. for the development of backwater tourism. This section also observed one of the major short comings of backwater tourism development in Kerala, i.e., the lack of interconnectivity of water transport in the state.

This chapter further gave a lengthy analysis of the demographic and visitation profile of tourists to understand the emerging trends in coastal tourism demand in the state. The major coastal tourism generating countries for the state are UK, Germany, Spain, USA and France. A study of the demographic profile of coastal tourists showed that the majority of both foreign and domestic tourists were middle aged (31-50 years), highly educated (graduation and above) and well placed (professionals, government servants). The annual income of majority of foreign tourists was above US\$ 20,000 and that of domestic tourists above Rs.2,00,000. For foreign tourists, internet was found to be the main source of information about Kerala. For domestic tourists, the main source of information was friends and relatives. The majority of foreign tourists were found to reach Kerala by air and domestic tourists by rail. Thiruvananthapuram and Kochi were the main entry points for the foreign tourists, whereas Palakkad and Kochi were the main entry points for domestic tourists. A small percentage of tourists made more than two visits to Kerala. 'Leisure and

recreation' was the main motive for travel for both the foreign and domestic tourists and their most favourite locations are the coastal tourism spots. A study of the expenditure pattern of domestic and foreign tourists showed that there was significant difference in the expenditure by the two categories. The per capita daily expenditure calculated was Rs.3878 for foreign tourists and Rs.2234 for domestic tourists. The major items of expenditure for both foreign and domestic tourists were accommodation, food and beverages.

The demand for home stay was found to be high among foreign tourists and friends and relatives providing accommodation to a good percentage of domestic tourists. Strikes, *hartals* and unexpected holidays in Kerala were reported to have affected many of the tourists during their trips.

The analysis of the satisfaction levels revealed that both foreign and domestic tourists attributed their satisfaction to the natural beauty of the state, which indicated the importance of protecting the natural environment of Kerala for sustaining tourism development of the state. The next chapter is an attempt to assess the economic impacts of coastal tourism development in Kerala.

Chapter 7

Economic Impacts of Coastal Tourism in Kerala

7.1. Introduction

Advocates of tourism, whether mass tourism or special interest tourism, focus their arguments on its benefits mainly on the economic front. Academic discussion on the economic impacts of tourism mostly revolves round the benefits, specifically in terms of employment, income, foreign exchange earnings and regional development. This chapter is an attempt to identify and quantify the economic impacts of coastal tourism in Kerala. It starts with a brief explanation of the conceptual framework of measuring economic impacts. This is followed by a discussion of the results of field survey conducted to understand the employment pattern and income generation from tourism in some of the well established coastal tourism spots of Kerala. The relevant findings of a study by the Tata Consultancy Service for the Department of Tourism, Government of Kerala relating to the economic impacts of tourism are also presented as further evidence on the impact of tourism in Kerala. The last section presents the summary of this chapter.

7.2. Measuring economic impacts: a conceptual framework

Economic impact analyses highlight the positive and negative economic impacts which an activity produces in a given socio-economic environment. A variety of methods ranging from pure guesswork to complex mathematical models are used to estimate tourism's economic impacts (Stynes, 1997).

Tyrrel and Johnston observe that the economic impact analysis tracks and aggregates monetary payments as they move through a regional economy, measuring the transfer of payments from one group or sector to others. This analysis seeks to estimate changes in regional spending, output, income and/or employment associated with tourist policy, events, facilities or destinations (Tyrrel and Johnston, 2006, p.3).

According to Frechtling, economic impact analysis traces the flow and analyse secondary spending associated with tourism activity in a region to identify changes in sales, tax revenues, income and jobs due to tourism activity. Economic impact studies conducted in smaller geographical areas usually concentrated solely on visitors, that is, non-residents entering the area on a trip away from home. The objective in such studies is to measure the economic contribution of outsiders to the community, and covers both the benefit and cost of tourism (Frechtling, 1994a, p.362). The principal methods employed are visitor spending (travel expenditure) surveys, analysis of secondary data from government economic statistics, economic base models and multipliers (Frechtling, 1994b, p.366).

The travel expenditure estimation method consists of a survey of selected travellers, either while travelling or in their homes (*Ibid*, p.368). The results from questions on expenditure can then be projected to produce estimation of business receipts in various types of business (*Ibid*, p.368).

The concept of multiplier as used in tourism impact studies was derived from a desire to summarise the amount of change in some economic benefit variable (output, income, employment, etc.) generated by a given amount of tourism spending in an area (Flecher and Archer, 1991, p.32). Among the different types of multipliers, the commonly used are output, income and employment multipliers.

Referring to the employment and income multiplier effects of coastal tourism in Kerala, Korakandy observes that any expenditure by the government or the industry in the sector will create new demand for inputs and services leading to new factor incomes, and the spending of these incomes by recipients will work as the spring board for the first round of multiplier effects, and this process of working of the multiplier will continue as long as recipients of new income spend their income. In addition to this effect of initial investment in tourism by Government and industry, the direct spending by tourists during their stay in the state will also create new demand for various goods and services, which will in turn lead to another wave of income/employment generation and multiplier effects, as described above. Over and above this, tourism development can also lead to the expansion of producer's goods industry, which will further accelerate the process of growth in the economy. It all, however, depends on the level and pattern of tourist spending in the course of their visit and how much of that spending flows or circulates in the local economy. Any leakage of that income from the local income stream is likely to retard the process of growth. In simple terms, the benefits the local community (economy) receives from tourism expansion will vary very much depending upon the extent of demand for local goods and services placed by the tourists (Korakandy, 2005, p.276).

Archer noted the following factors as affecting the size of tourism's economic impact on an area, *viz.*, (i) the initial volume of tourist expenditure, (ii) supply constraints in the tourist area, (iii) the size of the tourist area, (iv) value added in the first round of expenditure, (v) tourism industry linkages with the other sectors in the economy, and (vi) leakages (Archer, 1982).

Quoting Samuelson and Nordhaus, Stynes reported four major techniques to measure the economic impacts of tourism, *viz.*, (i) observation, (ii) controlled experiments, (iii) analysis based on prior assumptions about how individuals and firms act and react to one another, and (iv) statistical analysis through sample surveys and secondary data (Stynes, 1997)

To capture the economic impacts of coastal tourism in Kerala, the present study identified three stakeholders of tourism in the state, i.e., accommodation units, non-accommodation units and the local community. The findings of this survey are further supplemented using the data derived from an earlier economic impact study conducted by the Tata Consultancy Service (TCS) for the Government of Kerala.

7.3. Survey of tourism enterprises

As observed earlier, the specific objective of the survey was to understand the economic impacts of coastal tourism development, or the dynamics of tourism related business, with special reference to the facilitating units (accommodation and non-accommodation units), their ownership pattern, income generation, employment potential, nature of human resources employed, demand for local inputs, etc. To estimate the facilities available, accommodation units (classified and un-classified hotels), and non-accommodation units (restaurants, handicrafts shops and tour operators) were surveyed with a pre-designed questionnaire (appendix 7.1. and 7.2). The survey covered 33 accommodation units (Kovalam-15, Varkkala-6, Alappuzha-7 and Fort Kochi-5) and 60 non-accommodation units/other business enterprises (restaurants -15, cool bar and snacks bar -7, travel and tour operators-5, house boats-3, health/rejuvenation units- 4, handicraft shops-18 and hand weave shops-8) located in four locations (Kovalam-24, Varkala-13, Alappuzha-12 and Fort Kochi-11). About

100 respondents from the local community (25 from each location) were also surveyed to understand their views on the coastal tourism development in the state.

For the purpose of this study, the tourism enterprises were mainly categorized under two headings: accommodation units/hotel and non-accommodation units/other business enterprises.

7.3.1. Accommodation units/hotels

Among the accommodation/hotel units studied 6% were established before 1990. About 55% started functioning during 1990-2000 period. The remaining hotels were established after 2000. The growth of tourism in Kerala and increase in the number of tourists are the reasons attributed to the increase in the number of hotel units. The percentage distribution of hotels in various category were, four star-3%, three star-12%, two star 18%, single star 12% and unclassified 55%. Almost all hotel units were trying to upgrade their existing facilities to face the stiff competition in the supply market. About 45% of hotels belong to private single/partner ownership, and 24% belongs to Private Limited companies. Nearly 80% of hotels were using their own networking system for marketing and 30% of them used to give advertisements in newspaper/ magazines/ internet.

On an average, foreign tourists account for 20-70% of occupancy and domestic tourists for 40-70% of occupancy. During peak seasons most of the units had 70-90% occupancy by foreign tourists. At the peak season, foreign tourists were preferred to domestic tourists. About 40% of accommodation units were either providing or assisting state or national level conducted tourists. Nearly 82% of accommodation units were maintaining restaurants and only 20% of them were having attached bars. The rooms are facilitated with telephone, television, etc. Most

of them provide laundry services. Beauty saloons are available only in 18% of hotels, where as more than 60% of hotels claimed that they provide health care and massage facilities. Most of these units accept credit cards. Most of the star hotels suffer from the problem of seasonality of tourist visits. To reduce their losses, accommodation units provide discounts during off season.

In the case of accommodation units, altogether there were 462 employees engaged in 33 units with an average employment of 14 persons per unit. Table 7.1 shows the number of employees based on their place of origin.

Table 7.1: Place of origin of workers in the accommodation units (2006-07)

Place of origin	Number of workers	%
Panchayat (local area)	38	8.2
District (excluding the panchayat)	90	19.3
State(excluding the district)	140	30.3
Country (excluding the state)	143	31.0
Foreign	51	11.2
Total	462	100.0

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

Table 7.1 shows that the least participation was from the local area and it is worthwhile to note that the number of foreign workers (mainly Nepalese, who don't need passport in India) was more than the locals. The presence of employees from other parts of the state and from outside the state is at very high percentage. This is mainly because of the unavailability of trained personnel within the local area or the state's inability to provide capacity building especially to develop training for local people. It was also observed from the field survey that the local people were mainly engaged in either security job or cleaning work or were engaged in low income earning sectors.

Salary of the workers in accommodation units ranged from Rs.2000 to Rs.12,000 per month. About 36% were receiving their highest salary up to Rs.3,000. Some 45% of workers were getting between Rs.3001-7000. Nearly 17% of the workers were getting salary of Rs.7,001-10,000 per month. Only 2% of the employees received a salary of Rs.10,001 to Rs.12,000 per month. About 11% of the employees were foreign and 29% were from other states. Only 60% belonged to the state. About 30% of the employees were from the same district, and 11% were from the same panchayat/locality.

Among the accommodation units, 3% depend purely on their own chain services for raw materials. About 12% of them were getting 60-80% raw materials through their own networking system. Another 15% of them were getting 20-40% of the products directly from outside the state. For water supply, 64% of units were having their own well/bore well and 36% of them were having connections provided by the municipality/corporation. Public water supply was irregular, and therefore, 12% of them heavily depended on private water tanker service.

Tourism's capability to generate employment is unquestionable. The results of field survey, established this point. But, considering the sustainability criteria, it is important to ensure that local participation in the sector is visible. The analysis of accommodation units shows that, it is generating employment, but the people from outside the state are getting most of the benefit out of it. During the time of globalisation, it is not easy to assure the job to local people, even though it is essential for the sustainability of the sector. Increasing the extent of public-private partnership ventures in the tourism sector can perhaps enhance the local participation in the activity.

7.3.2. Non-accommodation units/ other business enterprises

The majority of sample units were handicrafts and hand-weave shops. This is because of their predominance in the study area. All the sample stations are thickly populated, and one cannot easily distinguish the demand from local residents and tourists. About 60% of the enterprises started their operations after 2000. Nearly 52% of the organisations were owned by single proprietorship or partnership. Government organisations are almost absent in this area. Except handicrafts/hand-weave shops and health/rejuvenation centres, all others depend on local market or nearest city for their raw material. About 20% of the units depend fully on the neighbouring states for their supply. Around 50% of the units received 50-80% of their requirements from neighbouring states. The initial capital investment of the non-accommodation units ranged from Rs.50,000 to 20 lakh. About 55% of them revealed that their working capital ranged from Rs.20,000 to eight lakh.

The employment generation in this sector is very low; altogether it was noted to be 254 (full time + part time¹), showing an average of 4.23 persons per unit. Table 7.2 gives details of place of origin of the workers.

Table 7.2: Place of origin of workers in the non-accommodation sector (2006-07)

Place of origin	Number of workers (full time+part time)	%
Panchayat (local area)	37 (26+11)	14.6
District (excluding the panchayat)	44 (32+12)	17.3
State(excluding the district)	51 (44+7)	20.1
Country (excluding the state)	83 (73+10)	32.7
Foreign	39 (34+5)	15.3
Total	254	100.0

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

¹ The term part time indicates persons employed only during the peak tourist season

Table 7.2 shows the general trend of employment generation in the non-accommodation sector. One reason for this low level of employment is that the owners themselves are working as employees. They employ part-time workers if needed (This feature is observed mainly in the non-accommodation sector than in the accommodation sector). At the time of survey (2006-07), 45 people were observed as working part-time. The increased demand for tourism should automatically enhance the demand for workers, and there will be always preference for technically skilled and well experienced labourers/workers; especially in the case of restaurants and health/rejuvenation centres. In the case of restaurants, most of the employees are found to be from Nepal. Since, Nepalese do not need passport to enter India there is an increased flow of labourers from this country to the tourism sector of the state. In these sectors, the role of local people or people from the same district is found limited to marginal jobs or those jobs which offer only low wages. As stated earlier, it shows the state's failure to develop the capacity building for the local community. People from outside states dominate this sector (32.7%) because most of the handicrafts/hand weave units were run by people from outside Kerala and they employee mainly people from other states, due to low wages or other reasons.

Salary of 63% of workers ranged from Rs.1000 to Rs.4000 per month. Out of these, 44% were receiving their highest salary of Rs.3,000. Only 2% of the employees received a salary of Rs.10,000/- per month. For the rest of the workers (35%) maximum monthly salary ranged between Rs.3001-5000. About 14% of the workers were foreign, mostly from Nepal. Another 25% of the workers were from other states. The remaining 61% of the workers were from Kerala, of which, 34 % were from the same district and 14% from the same locality.

The number of customers per day ranged from 10 to 60 during the lean season. Handicrafts shops reported that for them it ranged from 0 to 10. About 84% of the units were operating throughout the year. During the peak season, number of customers ranged from 20 to 250. For handicrafts/hand-weaves and health care and rejuvenation units, the per day customers in the peak season ranged between 5 and 20. Regarding the previous day's collection reported, the minimum collection was Rs.300. The previous day's collection of 31% of the firms ranged between Rs.300-1000. About 34.3% of the firms collected between Rs.1001-5000 and 21.7% of these firms collected between Rs.5001-10,000 and 11% collected between Rs.10,001-20,000: Only 2% belonged to the category, which collected between Rs.20,000 to 25,000.

When the tourism sector increases the size or scale of tourist operations, new revenues are injected into the economy. The above findings on accommodation and non-accommodation units of coastal tourism sector primarily highlight the dominance of private sector in tourism sector of the state. The pattern of private investment made in this sector indicates huge potential for business in coastal tourism. The fact that nearly 39% of the hotel/accommodation units were established during 1990-2000 and 54% of them started functioning since 2000, is a clear indication of the prospect of this sector. Similar trend was observed among the non-accommodation units as well, where 60% of the enterprises started their operations after 2000. The increasing construction activities and modification of the existing business units seen during the time of field survey, also point to the business potential of these sectors. It is also worthwhile to note here that new local revenue generation may occur initially because of the capital construction process, but the major continuing impact is usually a result

of increased expenditures by tourists, and through the sale of raw materials and other inputs to the suppliers of tourism services. Kerala being one of the major consumer states in India, the state heavily depends on neighbouring states for raw materials and hence the chances of leakages of revenue are high. The field survey (2006-07) also revealed that the non-accommodation units heavily depended on the neighbouring states for raw materials. Unless planned carefully, the benefits of tourism development in Kerala will be transferred to the neighbouring states.

According to the study conducted by WTTC, tourism alone generated 378,584 direct jobs in 2003 in Kerala economy, which will come around 3 % of the total employment in the state (WTTC, 2003, p.16). Since travel and tourism touches all sectors of economy, its real impact is even greater. It was estimated to have produced 788,600 jobs directly and indirectly, or 6.2 % of total employment during the same period. By 2013, this is estimated to grow to more than 2.2 million jobs, about 15.0 % of total employment (*Ibid*, p.16).

The employment potential of accommodation/hotel units is found to be more compared to the non-accommodation units. This can be attributed to the fact that these units, apart from employing the front office staff and room service personnel also employ different categories of people such as cook, suppliers, bar boys, beautician, drivers, security, etc. These units also operate throughout the year by attracting customers even during the lean seasons by allowing concession rates. The non-accommodation units, on the other hand, do not expect a 'crowd' of tourists even in the tourist seasons and employ only limited number of persons. Another reason for this low level of employment is that the owners themselves work as self employed personnel.

It is clear from the above analysis that local community received comparatively limited benefits in terms of employment and demand for local inputs (raw-materials), thus affecting the sustainability of the sector. As already observed, the local community benefited least in terms of employment from the accommodation and non-accommodation units, while people from outside the locality (including people from outside the country) is found to benefit more. It was also noted that much of the raw material used by the tourism enterprises was brought from neighbouring states and even from outside the country. This in other words indicates the leakage of income from the state, and the un-sustainability of tourism activity in the coastal area. It is ironical that in the era of globalisation when economic efficiency is the prime concern, local employment and local participation has become the major causality threatening the sustainability of the sector.

To further verify these findings another field survey was conducted among the local community (in the same centres) seeking their opinion regarding the economic impacts of coastal tourism.

7.4. Local community and economic impacts

The impacts studies were made by interviewing 25 local representatives from each of the four coastal tourism spots, namely, Kovalam, Varkala, Alappuzha and Fort Kochi. The interview was based on pre-designed questionnaire (appendix 7.3). The investigator himself interviewed the respondents, selected at random during March 2007 at the four locations. The respondents' impacts assessment was graded into five classes: very high, high, medium, low and nil and the same was recorded. As

an initial examination of the reliability² of the measurement scales for five constructs proposed in this study, the Cronbach's³ alpha coefficients were calculated in SPSS 15. It was 0.964 for 6 items (positive economic impacts) and 0.950 for 9 items (negative economic impacts). A five point Likert scale was used as the response format with assigned values ranging from 1=nil to 5=very high. The mean values obtained were subjected to t-test and ANOVA test to bring out the significant difference between the variables. The entire study is based on 5% significance level.

The responses obtained from the survey were summarised in tables 7.3 and 7.4.

Table 7.3: Number of respondents showing positive economic impacts of coastal tourism development

Sl No	Variables	Very High	High	Medium	Low	Nil
1	Improves infrastructure facilities, (i.e., roads, bridges, transportation facilities, communication facilities)	47	41	12	0	0
2	Creates new business opportunities	35	26	36	3	0
3	Availability more facilities and range of choices	32	29	32	7	0
4	Better standard of services by shops, restaurants, and other commercial centres	33	28	32	7	0
5	Increase in income and standard of living	36	24	37	3	0
6	Value appreciation of local resources	39	21	34	3	2
	Total	222	169	183	23	2
	Total score/values	1110	676	549	49	2

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

² Reliability is the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable. It is the extent to which the measurement is random error-free and produces the same results on repeated trials (De Vellis, 1991; Gable and Wolf, 1993)

³ It is generally recommended that a measurement scale having a Cronbach's coefficient above 0.70 is acceptable as an internally consistent scale so that further analysis can be possible. However, if the scale has a coefficient alpha below 0.70, the scale should be examined for any sources of measurement errors such as inadequate sampling of items, administration errors, situational factors, sample characteristics, number of items, and theoretical errors in developing a measurement scale (Gable and Wolf, 1993)

From table 7.3, it can be noted that the positive economic impacts of tourism, such as improvement in infrastructure facilities (88%); creation of new business opportunities (61%); availability of more facilities and range of choices (61%); improvement in the standard of services in service sector (61%); value appreciation of local resources (60%) and increase in income and standard of living (60%), were generally recognized by the community.

Local communities are equally bothered about the negative economic impacts of coastal tourism development in Kerala, and their responses are summarised in table 7.4.

Table 7.4: Number of respondents showing negative economic impacts of coastal tourism development

Sl No	Variables	Very High	High	Medium	Low	Nil
1	Increases the price of goods and services	42	20	31	7	0
2	Increases price of land and housing	36	20	38	6	0
3	Increases cost of living	38	20	32	10	0
4	Jobs are of low wages	26	17	32	25	0
5	Seasonal tourism creates high-risk and under or unemployment issues	33	15	24	28	0
6	Water shortages	8	17	36	39	0
7	Exclusion of locals from natural resources	19	22	24	34	1
8	Neglect of non-tourist recreation facilities	11	23	33	33	0
9	Shortage of goods and services	2	24	29	42	3
	Total	215	178	278	225	4
	Total score/values	1075	712	834	450	4

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

The table shows that the major concerns of the local community include increase in the price of goods and services (62%), increases in the price of land and housing (56%), increase in the cost of living (58%) and job risks associated with the seasonality of tourism (48%).

It is also clear from table 7.4 that some of the other negative economic impacts, such as jobs getting only lower wages (43%), water shortages (25%), exclusion of locals from natural resources (41%), neglect of non-tourist recreation facilities (34%) and shortage of goods and services (26%) were reported by only about one-third of the local community.

The analysis of tables 7.3 and 7.4 made clear that the local community strongly felt the presence of both positive and negative economic impacts in their region.

7.4.1. T-test for economic impacts of coastal tourism

Six parameters were considered to measure the positive economic impacts on the locality. A t-test was conducted to measure the respondent's agreement or disagreement with a particular statement. Since there are 6 parameters, and it is a 5 point Likert scale, the maximum score for positive economic impact is 30 and the minimum is 6. The centre value/test value is 18 (t value obtained is 11.39 with degrees of freedom 99). The total score is 2386 (table 7.3) and the mean value is 23.86 (with standard deviation 5.10 and standard error 0.51). Since the mean value is higher than the centre value, one can conclude that the opinion regarding the positive economic impact is very strong among the local community.

Since there are 9 parameters to measure the negative economic impacts, and it is a 5 point Likert scale, the maximum score for negative economic impact is 45 and the minimum is 9. The centre value/test value is 27 (t value obtained is 4.7 with degrees of freedom 99). The total score is 3075 (table 7.4) and the mean value is 30.75 (with standard deviation 7.97 and standard error 0.797). Since the mean value is

higher than the centre value one can conclude that the opinion regarding the negative economic impact is very strong among the local community.

This situation, where the opinion of local community on both positive and negative economic impacts is divided, indicates the evolving response of the community to coastal tourism development in the state, which in other words reflects the complex dynamics of coastal tourism in Kerala.

7.4.2. ANOVA test of economic impacts of tourism

To ascertain the divergence of opinion among the respondents, the local community is subdivided into various groups on the basis of location, occupation and education levels. The 100 respondents interviewed in the study belonged to four locations (Kovalam, Varkala, Alappuzha and Fort Kochi) and seven occupation groups. The number of respondents, occupation-wise was: students- 9, government servants- 17, self-employed-14, professionals- 14, business executives- 23, retired people- 8 and unemployed 15. Grouping based on educational status gave 5 groups: up to 10th standard- 25, 12th standard- 20, graduate- 27, post graduate- 23 and above post graduation-5. Mean scores obtained by each group were worked out and were subjected to ANOVA. The mean values and the ANOVA results are discussed in the following sections.

7.4.2.1. Positive economic impacts (category-wise)

The location-wise mean values of positive economic impacts are given in table 7.5.

Table 7.5: Mean score of responses on positive economic impacts of coastal tourism (location-wise)

Location	Number of respondents	Mean ± SE
Kovalam	25	23.60 ± 1.061
Varkala	25	23.36 ± 1.169
Alappuzha	25	24.36 ± 0.97
Fort Kochi	25	23.92 ± 0.51

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

ANOVA table

Classification	Sum of Squares	Df	F	Sig.
Between Groups	14.030	3	0.175	0.913
Within Groups	2563.360	96		
Total	2577.390	99		

Location-wise, Alappuzha marked the highest score with 24.36. This was followed by Fort Kochi (23.92), Kovalam (23.60) and Varkala (23.36). There was no significant difference between the locations.

Occupation-wise means are given in table 7.6.

Table 7.6: Mean score of responses on positive economic impacts of coastal tourism (occupation-wise)

Economic Impacts	Number of respondents	Mean± SE
Students	9	28.67±1.23
Government servant	17	24.12±0.53
Self Employed	14	29.00±0.68
Professionals	14	27.86±1.15
Business executives	23	23.00 ± 18.3
Retired	8	23.00±1.65
Unemployed	15	20.80 ± 0.68

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

ANOVA table

Classification	Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1125.420	5	14.572	0.000
Within Groups	1451.970	94		
Total	2577.390	99		

The table shows that the students, self employed people and professionals indicated very high positive impacts, where as unemployed did not acknowledge the positive economic impacts. The difference among the groups is significant.

Education-wise means are given in table 7.7.

Table 7.7: Mean score of responses on positive economic impacts of coastal tourism (education-wise)

Education	Number of respondents	Mean ± SE
Upto 10 th	25	19.44±0.61
12 th	20	21.00±0.99
Degree	27	26.07±0.91
P.G.	23	27.30±0.59
Above PG	5	28.60±0.51

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

ANOVA Table

Classification	Sum of Squares	Df	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1079.424	4	15.414	0.000
Within Groups	1481.566	95		
Total	2560.990	99		

The table shows that the educational levels and the responses towards positive impacts of tourism are positively related. The difference among the groups is significant.

7.4.2.2. Negative economic impacts (category-wise)

With respect to negative economic impacts (location-wise) Alappuzha had the minimum score of 28.3 and Kovalam the maximum score with 32.6 (table 7.8).

Table 7.8: Mean score of responses on negative economic impacts of coastal tourism (location-wise)

Locations	Number of respondents	Mean
Kovalam	25	32.6000±1.41
Varkala	25	31.1200±1.65
Alappuzha	25	28.3200±1.64
Fort Kochi	25	30.9600±1.65

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

ANOVA table

Classification	Sum of Squares	Df	F	Sig.
Between Groups	237.710	3	1.257	0.294
Within Groups	6053.040	96		
Total	6290.750	99		

The difference between the two stations may be due to the fact that Kovalam has experienced the negative impacts of tourism development for a longer period than Alappuzha. The difference among the groups is not significant.

Table 7.9 provides occupation-wise means of negative economic impacts of coastal tourism. The self employed, professionals and the government servants rate the negative impacts as low (with mean values 23.4, 26.2 and 27.8) whereas the unemployed persons rate negative economic impact as very high (36.03). The difference between the groups is significant.

Table 7.9: Mean score of responses on negative economic impacts of coastal tourism (occupation-wise)

Occupation	Number of respondents	Mean±SE
Students	20	33.90±1.82
Government servant	17	27.82±1.44
Self Employed	14	23.43±1.68
Professionals	14	26.29±1.22
Retired	8	31.88±2.87
Unemployed	27	36.04±1.25

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

ANOVA table

	Sum of Squares	Df	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2138.356	5	9.681	.000
Within Groups	4152.394	94		
Total	6290.750	99		

Table 7.10 provides education-wise means of negative economic impacts of coastal tourism.

Table 7.10: Mean score of responses on negative economic impacts of coastal tourism (education-wise)

Education	Number of respondents	Mean±SE
Upto 10 th	25	37.40±1.186
12 th	20	33.00±1.46
Degree	27	28.00±1.36
Post Graduation	23	26.70±1.35
PG and above	5	22.00±3.52

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

ANNOVA table

Classification	Sum of Squares	Df	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2171.880	4	12.523	.000
Within Groups	4118.870	95		
Total	6290.750	99		

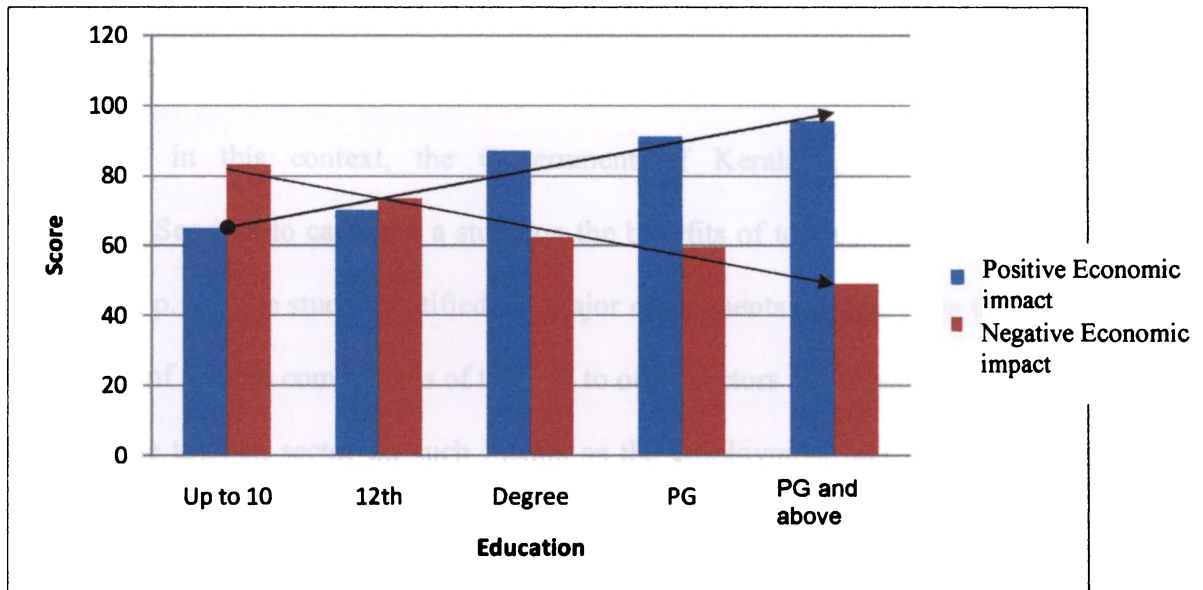
The table shows that the respondents who are 12th standard and below felt that the negative impacts were very high whereas respondents with degree and higher qualification did not see the negative impacts as bad as perceived by the 12th standard and below group. The difference between the groups is significant.

7.4.3. Association between opinion on economic impacts and education levels

To find out the relationship between educational status of the respondents and their opinion on positive economic impacts and negative economic impacts, a correlation analysis was also done. The value of correlation coefficient was -0.585, which implied that, as the level of education increased, the perception regarding positive economic impacts increased and that of negative impacts decreased.

Figure 7.1 shows the correlation between education levels and the views on economic impacts.

Fig. 7.1: Education levels and their correlation with views on economic impacts



Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

Figure 7.1 shows that as the level of education increases, the positive opinion on economic impacts also increases and with lower level of education (12th standard and below) the negative impacts dominate the opinion.

7.5. Further evidence on economic impacts

Tourism planning and development has to be conceived in the context of the overall development of the area, as it involves balancing the conflicting needs of multiple interest groups. A development plan has to be integrated with the local economy so that its results are tangible in the improvement of the material and social conditions of the people. Such integration is vital in tourism development to ensure the active participation of the local people in the development of tourism and in the preservation of the delicate ecology of the region so that tourism is not viewed as a necessary evil.

The tourism sector not only provides direct employment and income benefits to the major stakeholders but also creates linkages which provide similar benefits to a host of other sectors and people. This is why governments prefer sectors with the highest internal linkages as the best option for investment.

It is in this context, the Government of Kerala appointed M/s.Tata Consultancy Services to carry out a study on the benefits of tourism sector in Kerala (TCS, 2000, p.1). The study identified the major components of tourism in the state, the linkages of various components of tourism to other sectors in the economy and the effects of the tourism sector on such factors as the employment and income of the state.

The study, utilising the input-output (IO) tables relevant to the state of Kerala published by the Central Statistical Organisation (CSO) and the expenditure data of tourists obtained from a comprehensive primary survey worked out the forward and backward linkages, multipliers of output, income and employment for the tourism sector of the state.

The coefficients for forward (sales) and backward (purchase) linkages provided in the report as annexure 3-B is reproduced in table 7.11.

Table 7.11: Forward and backward linkages of tourism industry

Sl No	Industries	Backward Linkages	Forward Linkages
1	Food crops	1.71	1.75
2	Cash crop	1.40	2.76
3	Plantation and other crops	1.49	2.46
4	Animal husbandry	1.58	1.98
5	Forestry and logging	1.18	1.99
6	Fishing	1.29	1.05
7	Coal and lignite	1.82	2.46
8	Crude petroleum, natural gas	1.24	2.97
9	Iron ore and other minerals	1.34	1.82

10	Sugar	2.20	1.14
11	Food products excluding sugar	2.35	1.28
12	Beverages	2.21	1.06
13	Tobacco products	2.03	1.04
14	Cotton textiles	2.39	1.65
15	Other textiles	2.51	1.83
16	Textile products including wearing	2.39	1.32
17	Furniture and fixtures-wooden	1.84	1.32
18	Wood and wood products except furniture	1.79	1.03
19	Paper, paper products and newsprint	2.72	2.64
20	Printing and publishing	2.33	1.18
21	Leather and leather products	2.46	1.33
22	Plastic and rubber products	2.32	1.54
23	Petroleum and coal tar products	1.87	2.66
24	Inorganic and organic heavy chemicals	2.48	2.77
25	Fertilizers	2.64	1.59
26	Paints, varnishes and lacquers	2.64	1.38
27	Pesticides, drugs, other chemicals	2.46	3.8
28	Cement	2.39	1.19
29	Non metallic mineral products	2.33	1.29
30	Basic metal industry and foundries	2.67	5.35
31	Metal products except machinery	2.53	2.34
32	Agricultural implements and industrial machinery	2.37	1.39
33	Other machinery except food and textiles	2.46	1.80
34	Electrical, electronic machines appliances	2.22	1.76
35	Rail transport equipment	2.10	1.60
36	Other transport equipment	2.32	1.56
37	Miscellaneous manufacturing	1.98	1.57
38	Construction	2.15	1.73
39	Electricity	2.18	5.13
40	Gas and water supply	1.89	1.24
41	Railway transport services	1.95	2.23
42	Other transport services	1.86	3.29
43	Storage and warehousing	1.56	1.06
44	Communication	1.39	1.46
45	Trade	1.54	5.55
46	Hotels and restaurants	2.15	1.20
47	Banking	1.35	2.89
48	Insurance	1.23	1.65
49	Education and research	1.19	1.01
50	Medical and health	2.19	1.23
51	Other services	2.11	3.44

Source: GOK, (2001a)

The table shows the presence of forward⁴ and backward⁵ linkages of nearly 51 activities, the value of which ranged from 1.01 to 5.55. The forward linkages were found to be high with respect to trade, electricity, transport services, banking, basic metal industry and foundries. The backward linkages were found to be high with respect to paper, paper products and newsprint, basic metal industry, foundries, etc.

With the help of forward and backward linkages, both the direct and the indirect impacts on final demand were further computed. As the CSO data do not label any sector as “tourism”, the TCS study conducted an in-depth analysis of the sectors influenced by the tourist demand and their subsequent impacts on the rest of the economy by incorporating a specific delineation of economic linkages between and among the various sectors of the economic system.

From the tourist survey, the TCS studied the expenditure profile of the tourists. ‘Tourism’ often is a major ‘export’ of a region or nation, though no commodities are being physically exported. Instead, tourists travel to a destination to consume tourism services and the resulting payment flow into the destination is much the same as for other export sectors. This injection of income becomes a source of income and employment for people involved directly in providing tourism services, and indirectly supports other sectors of the economy as the newly created income is spent in the purchase of other goods and services produced in the region. These additional economic benefits are known as ‘secondary’ or ‘indirect’ economic impacts. The processes of describing and estimating the extent of these primary and

⁴ The forward linkages imply that the expenditure on a product increases production in sectors where the commodity is used as input.

⁵ Backward linkages imply that every product draws on inputs from an array of industries (TCS, 2000).

secondary income flows is commonly called “multiplier analysis” (Archer, 1973 and 1976, Liu and Var, 1982; and Milne, 1987). The industries impacted by tourist expenditure are given in table 7.12.

Table 7.12: Expenditure pattern for foreign and domestic tourists

Sl No.	Industries	Domestic (F1)	Foreign (F2)
1	Plantation and other crops	1.13	1.74
2	Animal husbandry	0.04	0.03
3	Forestry and logging	0.03	0.13
4	Food products excluding sugar	3.09	4.10
5	Beverages	1.83	2.19
6	Tobacco products	0.18	0.25
7	Cotton textiles	0.46	2.51
8	Other textiles	0.46	1.98
9	Textile products including wearing	1.02	3.75
10	Wood and wood products	0.25	2.72
11	Paper, paper products and newsprint	0.12	0.76
12	Printing and publishing	0.37	1.39
13	Leather and leather products	0.20	0.75
14	Plastic and rubber products	0.32	0.33
15	Pesticides, drugs, other chemicals	1.48	0.99
16	Metal products except machinery	0.08	0.56
17	Electrical, electronic machinery and appliance	0.11	0.49
18	Rail equipments	0.00	0.00
19	Other transport equipments	0.01	0.07
20	Miscellaneous manufacturing	1.39	2.83
21	Railway transport services	3.93	2.11
22	Other transport services	8.99	7.81
23	Communication	1.96	2.98
24	Trade	6.07	6.17
25	Hotels and restaurants	57.36	43.62
26	Medical and health	1.26	1.68
27	Other services	7.81	8.05

Source: GOK, (2001a)

From table 7.12 it can be seen that 27 sectors were influenced directly by tourism activities. Hotels and restaurants were the activities most influenced by spending by both foreign and domestic tourists. Other activities, which benefited more from tourist spending are transport services including railways, trade, food

products (excluding sugar) and other services. Textile products including wearing seem to have been benefited from foreign tourist expenditure.

Based on the 27 sectors mentioned above, the TCS has prepared tourism multipliers for the state, which is given in table 7.13.

Table 7.13: Tourism multipliers⁶ for Kerala

	Multiplier types	Domestic	Foreign	Total
Output	Open (Type I) Model	2.068	2.078	2.069
	Closed (Type II) Model	8.684	9.654	8.831
Employment	Open (Type I) Model	4.62	2.41	4.62
	Closed (Type II) Model	15.77	11.95	15.19
Income	Open (Type I) Model	1.39	2.32	1.54
	Closed (Type II) Model	5.29	7.15	5.57

Source: GOK, (2001a), p.58

The output multiplier for Kerala is 2.07 for open model and it is 8.83 for the closed one. It implies that every rupee one of tourist expenditure of tourist expenditure generates a total output of Rs. 2.07 in the open model of the economy due to direct and indirect impacts and Rs. 8.83 in the closed model, due to direct, indirect and induced impacts.

According to the TCS, the type I employment multiplier for Kerala is 4.62 and Type II employment multiplier is 15.19 (TCS, 2000, p.51). This means that for every one unit of employment generated in the economy due to tourist expenditure, there arises 4.6 additional employment due to the direct and indirect impacts in the economy as a whole and 15.19 number of jobs due to direct, indirect and induced linkages.

⁶ The tourism 'multiplier' is typically defined as the ratio of total income or expenditure changes (including the initial tourism induced changes) in a region to the changes in income or expenditures directly attributable to tourism.

It may be noted in this context that the comparatively higher value of the output and employment multiplier of the sector as observed here is no guarantee that the benefits of this development are equitably shared by the local community, as much of the inputs used in the sector and employment generated by the sector are found to have their origin from outside the state as found in the case studies reported earlier.

The income multiplier for tourism in Kerala is found to have a lower value for both open model and closed model as compared to output and employment multiplier. The values are 1.54 and 5.57 respectively. It is probably due to the lack of industries in the state and a high labour cost. For the most part, the raw material produced in the state are processed in the neighbouring states. These are then imported back to the state as finished goods. Hence, the value addition in the economy is low. Another reason behind the lower value of the income multiplier is that the expenditure of tourists is largely on commodities manufactured outside the state.

7.6. Summary

As a first step to the study of economic impacts of coastal tourism in Kerala, this chapter gave an outline of the conceptual framework to measure the economic impacts. The major methods noted are visitor spending (travel expenditure) surveys, analysis of secondary data from government economic statistics, economic base models and multipliers. The survey on accommodation units and non-accommodation units made to measure the economic impacts of coastal tourism brought out the following facts: (i) accommodation units provided an average employment of 14 persons per unit and non-accommodation units, about 4 persons per unit. (ii) The monthly salary of employees in the accommodation units ranged between Rs.2000

and Rs.12,000, with the majority falling in the range of Rs.2000-7000. The monthly salary of employees in the non-accommodation units ranged from Rs.1000 to Rs.10000, with the majority getting a salary varied from Rs.1000 to Rs.4000. (iii) a good percentage of the employees were from outside the state and the country. (iv) a large percentage of the accommodation and non-accommodation units were depending on outside the state for their raw material. (iv) seasonality was found to be a critical factor affecting tourism business in Kerala.

An assessment of the local community's perception on positive and negative economic impacts of coastal tourism in Kerala made in this chapter revealed a statistically significant difference of opinion among the groups indicating the complex dynamics of coastal tourism development in the state.

The relevant findings of a study by TCS for the Department of Tourism, Government of Kerala, presented as further evidences on the economic impact of coastal tourism in Kerala indicated the presence of high output and employment multiplier and a low income multiplier. The presence of a high output and employment multiplier along with low income multiplier is feared to be the consequence of high dependence of the tourism sector of the state on outside sources for labour and raw material. It may be noted while concluding this section that the above observed facts have a significant bearing for the sustainability of coastal tourism in Kerala. The next chapter is an attempt to analyse the environmental impacts of coastal tourism in Kerala.

Chapter 8

Environmental Impacts of Coastal Tourism in Kerala

8.1. Introduction

Tourism in Kerala is being promoted as an economic development strategy for rural communities based upon arguments of its direct and indirect benefits. Tourism promoters, however, do not readily acknowledge the environmental impacts and the resulting social costs that the local communities will suffer when they bring tourism into their area. This chapter is an attempt to describe the environmental impacts of coastal tourism development in the state. The following section gives a conceptual framework for measuring environmental impacts. The next section reports the result of the field study conducted to understand the local community's reaction towards the environmental impacts, both positive and negative, following coastal tourism development in Kerala. This is followed by a brief discussion on the environmental and socio-cultural issues of coastal regions of Kerala as revealed in previous studies. Some further evidence on the environmental impacts of coastal tourism as felt at Bekal and Kumarakom are also noted in this chapter. This is followed by a summary of this chapter.

8.2. Measuring environmental impacts: a conceptual framework

Environmental impact studies on tourism generally include the social, cultural, physical and environmental changes accompanying tourism development. Measuring environmental impacts is important because people's support for tourism development depends upon their attitudes towards environmental changes (Jurowski, *et al.* 1997). Gursoy, *et al.* noted that the values and preferences of people for

preservation and utilization of tourism resources may vary (Gursoy, *et al.* 2002). An environmental assessment determines the impacts of a proposed action on the environment, generally including changes in social, cultural, physical and ecological systems.

Many of the earlier global studies on tourism have urged the need for addressing environmental concerns in tourism development planning (Dasman, *et al.* 1973; Bosselman, 1980). In most of the studies on the environmental impacts of tourism, the focus appeared to be primarily on such factors as the resiliency of the ecosystem, the intensity of site development and use, and the commitment and involvement of local stakeholders. The complexity of interactions between different components of the environment, however, makes measurement of the environmental impacts of tourism difficult (Williams, 1994, p.427).

Five main techniques of environmental impact analysis for tourism-related studies have been identified in the literature, viz., ad hoc procedures, overlay techniques, matrices, networks and checklists (Williams, 1994, p.428). Ad hoc procedures involve assembling a team of specialists to identify impacts in their areas of expertise. Overlay approaches involve the use of well-established techniques frequently employed in land-use planning and landscape architecture (Mc Harg, 1969). Matrix approaches to environmental impact assessment incorporate both a list of project activities and a checklist of potentially impacted environmental elements (Leopold, 1971). Network approaches to environmental impact assessment examine the secondary and tertiary effects associated with project actions. Checklist approaches involve the use of a master list of different types of environmental impacts typically associated with various kinds of physical developments.

The present study has adopted the checklist approach. The checklist approach marks the responses of individuals studied using a Likert scale. A similar approach was adopted by Dunlap, *et al.* (Dunlap, *et al.*, 2000).

8.3. Local community and environmental impacts

The variables noted for studying the environmental impacts of this study are taken from Kreag (Kreag, 2001) and UNEP (UNEP, 2002) on tourism. The study was conducted along with the assessment of economic impacts (described in section 7.3).

From each of the four coastal tourism spots, namely, Kovalam, Varkala, Alappuzha and Fort Kochi, 25 local respondents were interviewed during March 2007, based on the pre-designed questionnaire (question numbers 7 and 8 of appendix 7.3). The respondents' impacts assessment was graded into five classes: very high, high, medium, low and nil. As an initial examination of the reliability for the measurement scales for five constructs proposed in this study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated in SPSS 15. It was 0.958 for 8 items (positive environmental/socio-cultural impacts) and 0.925 for 18 items (negative environmental/socio-cultural impacts).

A five point Likert scale was used as the response format with assigned values ranging from 1=nil to 5= very high. The mean values obtained were subjected to t-test and ANOVA test to bring out the significant difference between the variables. The entire study is based on 5% significance level.

The number of respondents showing positive environmental/socio-cultural impacts of coastal tourism development in Kerala is given in table 8.1.

Table 8.1: Number of respondents showing positive environmental/socio-cultural impacts of coastal tourism development

Sl No	Variables	Very High	High	Medium	Low	Nil
1	Protection of natural environment or prevention of further ecological damage	17	36	28	19	0
2	A 'clean industry' image	17	44	21	18	0
3	Improvement of the area's appearance	26	45	22	7	0
4	Preservation of historical buildings and monuments	24	32	34	10	0
5	Promotes cultural exchange	17	36	39	8	0
6	Improves understanding of different communities	21	31	31	17	0
7	Greater tolerance of social differences	16	35	36	10	3
8	Increases the availability of recreation facilities and opportunities	24	27	36	10	3
	Total	162	286	247	99	6
	Total values (scores)	810	1144	741	198	6

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

The respondents do have a strong perception regarding positive environmental and socio-cultural impacts of tourism (table 8.1), as was in the case with positive economic impacts (table 7.1). The majority of respondents acknowledged positive impacts such as, protection of natural environment or prevention of further ecological damage (53%), a 'clean' industry image (61%), improvement of the area's appearance (71%), preservation of historical buildings and monuments (56%), promotion of cultural exchange (53%), improvement in understanding of different communities (52%), greater tolerance of social differences (51%) and increase in the availability of recreation facilities and opportunities (51%).

The number of respondents showing negative environmental/socio-cultural impacts of coastal tourism development in Kerala is given in table 8.2.

Table 8.2: Number of respondents showing negative environmental/socio-cultural impacts of coastal tourism development

Sl No	Variables	Very High	High	Medium	Low	Nil
1	Pollution of					
	a. Air	0	0	0	0	4
	b. Water	0	0	1	22	77
	c. Noise	0	0	5	19	76
	d. Solid waste	2	21	37	34	6
2	Destruction of the environment (Flora and fauna, etc.)	0	6	13	18	30
3	Social or cultural problems like					
	a. Crime	7	36	41	14	2
	b. Conflict between host and guest	7	24	46	21	2
	b. Drugs	8	32	41	12	2
	c. Prostitution	8	22	41	18	2
	d. Smuggling	5	30	32	13	3
	e. Increased drinking/alcoholism	13	19	50	17	2
	f. Gambling	5	18	40	12	4
	g. Child labour	8	16	51	12	5
	h. Overcrowding	15	15	45	25	0
	i. Unwanted life style changes	14	17	49	18	2
4	Loss of open space	10	20	22	35	2
5	Feeling of loss of control over community's future (Caused by outsider development)	10	20	12	9	49
6	New building styles fail to "fit" community	15	29	8	32	14
	Total	127	325	534	331	282
	Total values (scores)	635	1300	1602	662	282

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

It is evident from table 8.2 that around 45% of respondents reacted vehemently on the negative environmental and socio-cultural impacts of tourism. The major environmental/socio-cultural impacts noted in the table are pollution of air, water, noise, dumping of garbage, destruction of sand dunes, increasing crime, increased alcoholism, prostitution, over-crowding, loss of open space, unwanted-life style changes, practice of nudity and drugs and corrosion of local cultural values.

Many of these issues are found to be prevalent as indicated by the number of respondents against them.

8.3.1. T-test for environmental/socio-cultural impacts

A t-test was conducted to measure the respondent's agreement or disagreement with a particular statement. Eight parameters were considered to measure the positive environmental/socio-cultural impacts on the locality. The minimum point obtained is eight and the maximum is 40, which would give a centre value/test value of 24 (t value obtained as 11.81 with degrees of freedom 99). The total points scored for positive environmental/socio-cultural impacts are 2899 (table 8.1) which gives a mean value of 28.99 (with standard deviation 6.76 and standard error 0.676) for the 100 respondents. Since the mean value is higher than the centre value, the response on positive environment/socio-cultural impacts is very strong among the local people.

Eighteen parameters were considered to measure the negative environmental/socio-cultural impacts on the locality. For the 18 variables studied, the minimum value obtained is 18 and the maximum 90. Therefore, the centre value/test value is 54 (t value obtained as -7.14 with degrees of freedom 99). The total points scored for negative impact is 4481 (table 8.2), which give a mean value of 44.81 (with standard deviation 11.10 and standard error 1.11) for the 100 respondents. Since, the mean value is lower than the centre value, the opinion on negative impacts is not strong among the local community.

8.3.2. ANOVA test on environmental/socio-cultural impact assessment of coastal tourism

To ascertain the divergence of opinion among the respondents, the local

community is subdivided into various groups on the basis of location, occupation and education levels. The 100 respondents interviewed in the study belonged to four locations (Kovalam, Varkala, Alappuzha and Fort Kochi) and seven occupation groups: students- 9, government servants- 17, self-employed-14, professionals- 14, business executives- 23, retired people- 8 and unemployed 15. Grouping them based on educational status gave 5 groups. Up to 10th std- 25, 12th std- 20, graduate- 27, post graduate- 23 and above post graduation-5. In order to find out the group-wise variability in the response on environmental impacts, the group-wise means of different categories were worked out and ANOVA was carried out. The group-wise means and the results of ANOVA are given in the following sections.

8.3.2.1. Positive environmental/socio-cultural impact assessment (category-wise)

Table 8.3 gives location-wise means of positive environmental/socio-cultural impacts.

Table 8.3: Mean score of responses on positive environmental/socio-cultural impacts of coastal tourism (location-wise)

Location	Number of respondents	Mean±SE
Kovalam	25	27.92±1.35
Varkala	25	28.96±1.41
Alappuzha	25	30.24±1.40
Fort Kochi	25	28.84±1.29

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

ANOVA Table

Classification	Sum of Squares	Df	F	Sig.
Between Groups	68.27	3	0.490	0.690
Within Groups	4460.72	96		
Total	4528.99	99		

The data show the lowest mean score of 27.92 for Kovalam and the highest mean score of 30.24 for Alappuzha. The ANOVA test (table 8.3) did not show any significant variation in the mean scores of the locations.

Table 8.4 gives occupation-wise means of different groups of positive environmental/socio-cultural impacts

Table 8.4: Mean score of responses on positive environmental/socio-cultural impacts of coastal tourism (occupation-wise)

Occupation	Number of respondents	Mean
Students	20	25.50±1.10
Government servant	17	33.70±1.05
Self Employed	14	29.92±0.67
Professionals	14	32.78±1.50
Retired people	8	28.75±3.40
Unemployed	27	23.29±0.68

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

ANOVA table

Classification	Sum of Squares	Df	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2305.545	5	19.494	0.000
Within Groups	2223.445	94		
Total	4528.990	99		

It is clear from table 8.4 that the self employed people, professionals and government servants rated tourism's positive environmental effects as high, while students and unemployed people rated it as low. The ANOVA test shows the significant variation among the groups. Table 8.5 gives the education-wise means of response of positive environmental/socio-cultural impacts.

Table 8.5: Mean score of responses on positive environmental/socio-cultural impacts of coastal tourism (education-wise)

Education	Number of respondents	Mean±SE
Upto 10 th	25	23.08±0.93
12 th	20	25.60±1.36
Degree	27	31.81±1.08
Post Graduation	23	33.43±0.91
PG and above	5	36.40±1.17

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

ANOVA table

Classification	Sum of Squares	Df	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2047.424	4	19.595	0.000
Within Groups	2481.566	95		
Total	4528.990	99		

Table 8.5 shows that people with degree and above qualification agree with the positive environmental and socio-cultural impacts of tourism, while people with 12th standard and below education do not agree with the presence of positive impacts. The differences between the groups are significant.

8.3.2.2. Negative environmental/socio-cultural impact assessment (category-wise) of coastal tourism

Table 8.6 presents the location-wise means for the score obtained on negative environmental and socio-cultural impacts.

Table 8.6: Mean score of responses on negative environmental/socio-cultural impacts of coastal tourism (location-wise)

Location	Number of respondents	Mean
Kovalam	25	49.84±2.37
Varkala	25	47.68±1.99
Alappuzha	25	40.24±2.43
Fort Kochi	25	46.52±1.65

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

ANOVA table

Classification	Sum of Squares	Df	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1274.91	3	3.732	0.014
Within Groups	10931.60	96		
Total	12206.50	99		

Table 8.6 shows a significant variation in the mean values of the four locations with the maximum value for Kovalam (49.8) and minimum for Alappuzha (40.2). It may be noted that tourism was being practised for a longer period at Kovalam than at other places and the local community at Kovalam is well aware of the negative environmental/socio-cultural issues.

Table 8.7 gives the mean values of various groups based on occupation.

Table 8.7: Mean score of responses on negative environmental/socio-cultural impacts of coastal tourism (occupation-wise)

Category	Number of respondents	Mean ± SE
Students	20	49.20±1.42
Government servant	17	39.29±1.14
Self Employed	14	43.78±2.91
Professionals	14	39.00±2.06
Retired people	8	43.25±3.41
Unemployed	27	52.96±2.39

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

ANOVA table

Classification	Sum of Squares	Df	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3091.76	5	7.192	0.0
Within Groups	8081.55	94		
Total	11173.30	99		

From table 8.7, it can be seen that there are significant differences in the mean values of the different groups. The students and the unemployed persons viewed the negative impacts as very strong. However, government servants and professionals considered the negative impacts as not very serious.

Table 8.8 presents mean values based on educational groups.

Table 8.8: Mean score of responses on negative environmental/socio-cultural impacts of coastal tourism (education-wise)

Education level	Number of respondents	Mean±SE
Up to 10 th	25	50.12±2.16
12 th	20	52.35±2.76
Degree	27	41.67±1.88
Post Graduation	23	42.30±1.89
PG & above	5	41.80±1.90

Source: Field Survey (2006-07)

ANOVA table

Classification	Sum of Squares	Df	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2139.65	4	5.048	0.001
Within Groups	10066.9	95		
Total	12206.5	99		

Table 8.8 shows significant differences in the mean values of negative environmental and socio-cultural impacts among different groups based on levels of

education. People with lower levels (12th standard and below) of education strongly believed that the negative impacts were very high, while the groups with higher levels of education were slightly tempered in their view.

8.4. Socio-cultural issues of coastal tourism

As in the case of economy, tourism has impacts, both positive and negative, on the local society and its cultural patterns. Considerable socio-cultural impacts result from socio-economic differences between residents and tourists, whether of the same or different cultural backgrounds. Positive socio-cultural effects of tourism are the encouragement of cross-cultural exchange, introduction of the country to foreigners and to international tourism, education of the people about their own country and provision of opportunities for recreation (Cooper and Ozdil, 1992, p.382). Tourism can also improve the standard of living and conserve cultural sites, traditional arts and crafts, customs, etc. In some cases, tourism even revitalizes cultural patterns (which might otherwise disappear without it) and renews the sense of pride that residents take in their culture as they observe tourists appreciating it.

Most people think that tourism has helped in the rediscovery of lost folk traditions. They believe that tourism has revived and promoted many fairs and festivals. The festivals like Onam, snake boat race, elephant march, etc. have got new celebrity and zeal largely due to participation, interest and encouraging attitude of tourists. The preservation and conservation of many old monuments has become possible due to their tourist importance. Such monuments include some palaces, art galleries and many temples. The funds provided by visitors have helped in their maintenance and up-gradation. Tourism has encouraged local arts and crafts. Today

many small scale village industries, crafts, handlooms and artistic objects are prepared only for tourists (e.g. Aranmula *kannadi*, Payyannur *pavithra mothiram*, etc.).

On the negative side, the exclusion of local fishermen and their families from the beaches and their traditional occupations not only leads to economic but also social conflicts (inter-use conflicts). Communal tensions already exist and hostility would increase if families were displaced and cut off from their traditional occupations. Situations like these also lead to resentment and even hostility toward tourists.

The study conducted by the Equations (Equations, 2003, Romiti, 2005, p.21) points to the existence of child sex tourism in Kerala, especially at Kovalam. Jayasree referring to the social problems at Kovalam notes that the people from outside Kovalam are not willing to marry the people of Kovalam. According to her, the local community gains nothing beyond this image. More than that, she complains that sex trade is flourishing in Kovalam and unlike other areas, in Kovalam, men are involved more than women in sex businesses as sex workers (Jayasree, 2001, p.3).

There is also the fear of 'cultural pollution' among groups of local communities. Often, displays of cultural patterns such as dances and ceremonies are perceived as degrading culture and commoditizing it (Tosun, 2002, p.244). This is particularly the case when ceremonies or dances with religious meaning or connections with certain festivals are taken out of their traditional context to make it available to tourists. The culture of Kerala is deeply rooted in religion. Therefore, if religious rituals and performances are made use of for the entertainment of tourists, commercialization of cultural aspects becomes a cause of concern.

Though the performance of *kathakali*, *theyyam*, etc. (or other performing arts) add to the source of income for the respective group of artists and their institutions and thereby help to maintain and spread the art, commoditisation of these art forms would cause damage to these art forms, as they are ritualistic than exhibitionistic. Similarly, package tourists interested only on relaxation on the beach, enjoying the warm climate, sand and sea are not concerned with the local culture and tend to disregard local standards of behaviour, dress code and moral values (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). Their open display of western life style, which is often amplified by the very fact of being on holiday, leads to undesirable demonstration effect on the local people, particularly the young.

8.5. Further evidence on environmental impacts

Nandakumar and Muralikrishna blame tourism for violations of Coastal Regulation Zone (CRZ) rules in Kerala. They point out that the Bekal Project, which is yet to be completed, have committed more than a dozen of CRZ violations in connection with infrastructure development, i.e., construction of roads, compound walls, resorts, etc. (Nandakumar and Muralikrishna, 1998, p.65). When the present mode of tourism development is progressing in the state, these issues will rise further. For example, at Kovalam and Varkala coast, the hotels and other business units are spread around three kilometres through out the beach. Lack of planning is physically visible in these tourist spots. Construction of huge buildings spoiled the beauty of coastal spots.

Considering the present state of the Kerala coast, it is obvious that many of the attractive areas of the coast are thickly populated and the town/cities continue to dump sewage and other effluents directly into coastal waters. Beaches and

backwaters are contaminated by urban sludges and sewage. In addition to these, the industrial effluents, which include toxic and dangerous chemicals, are also thrown into the coastal waters. Motor boats and ships leave oil and petroleum effluents into the coastal waters. The negative impacts of tourism, especially what is described as mass tourism or package tourism on the ecology/environment of the pristine back waters and coastal waters is further illustrated by the examples at Kumarakom and Bekal.

8.5.1. Bekal tourism Project

Bekal was identified by Government of India in 1992, as a special tourism area (STA) for integrated tourism development (Romiti, 2005, p.30). The project claims that the basic thrust of the project is sustainable tourism and is being considered in terms of the socio-economic sustainability and environmental sustainability. The high potential of beach tourism makes Bekal relevant as a new beach resort.

Bekal, a village situated on the coast of Kasragod is virtually undeveloped and has no industrial activity. Characteristics of the area include low cliff, stretches of white sandy beaches, numerous estuaries and backwaters providing a unique and beautiful environment. The region is rich in tradition and folklore. The strategy of the project was specified as creation of eco-friendly structures that merge with the surroundings, a well-developed drainage system, sufficient supply of fresh water, wide and well constructed roads and other infrastructure essential for generating and sustaining tourist's flow. The original plan was to develop and sell 278 hectares of land.

Unfortunately, the project was conceived without any consultation with local communities. The area is thickly populated. About 2000 families will be affected by displacement, thousands of fishermen and people involved in the fishing industries as well as tobacco cultivators and agricultural labourers will be denied the earning of their livelihood. Public facilities such as schools, temples, churches and mosques will be closed down. Bekal Project was forced upon the local people and they are afraid of the development as has happened in other areas of mass tourism, where, undesirable social effects have emerged resulting in the erosion of cultural values. There will be no 'pristine' Malabar village left after implementation of the project. The feeling among the local population is that local identity is being destroyed for the pleasure of small elite. NGOs opposed the project on the ground that 'tourism project does not come under the purview of the public purpose because it is neither at the instance of the public nor for the benefit of community' (Romiti, 2005, p.32). Further they argued that implementation of the project is a violation of the fundamental rights guaranteed by the Constitution as it denies job to traditional fishermen. The recent proposals like, Special Tourism Zones,¹ etc. further increases the doubts among the public.

¹ The proposal was put forward by the National Tourism Advisory Council (2006) along the lines of Special Economic Zones in 2006. The main features of the scheme includes the following:

- STZs are to be located in tourist destinations, cities, along the coastline
- The Government should provide single window clearance for setting up of these zones
- 100% tax exemption for a period of 10 years
- Each STZ should be able to provide 2,000 to 3,000 hotel rooms
- Facilities for shopping, entertainment
- Exemption from import duty on capital goods
- Withdrawal of luxury tax, lower value-added tax, etc.
- Exclusive tourism zones for non-resident Indians (NRIs) or elite world tourist zones for high-end global tourists.

(Compiled from Anon., 2007e).

Bekal has potential for development through other means than tourism. The area is rich in agriculture (coconut, rice and tobacco cultivation) and has good fishing grounds. High priced marine products and export of labour to Gulf countries from this area earn substantial foreign exchange. Bekal is the only tobacco cultivating area in Kerala and produces very good quality of it. The campaign launched by NGOs against the project has significantly changed the attitude and objective of the developers.

8.5.2. Kumarakom

Kumarakom is on the banks of Vembanad *kayal*. Kumarakom village is situated 10 km west of Kottayam town and it forms a part of the Kottayam district. It was a renowned bird sanctuary and home to 91 species of local and 50 species of migratory birds. Kumarakom had a number of mangrove species of which three were unique to Kumarakom. The mangrove forests are also the feeding and breeding grounds for numerous species of fish. Blessed with backwaters and pristine environment, Kumarakom is known for its *Kayal*, *Kuil* and *Karimeen* (Lake, Bird and Fish).

Tourism development in Kumarakom is a relatively recent phenomenon with the village receiving significant number of tourists only by the end of the 1990s. Kumarakom gained much attention when the *Taj Group* opened its heritage resort in 1989 (Padmanabhan, 2006). The presence of *Taj*, being one of the leading hotel chains in India, prompted further private sector investment in Kumarakom (*Ibid*). Tourism development activity in the region boosted further with the visit of the then Prime Minister A. B. Vajpayee in the year 2000. His popular ‘Musings from Kumarakom’ has created much hype among tourists (Kerala Tourism Watch, 2009).

Kumarakom *panchayat* at present has eight big resorts contributing to 580 beds. There are seven small resorts and more than 20 lodges and home-stay facilities contributing to another 100 beds. The *panchayat* is earning Rs.20 lakh per year as tax from the industry and it claims that tourism industry's revenue comes to around Rs.30 crore per year in this small destination (Kerala Shastra Sahitya Parishad, 2003)

The arrival of tourism industry was well received by the local people initially with the land value increasing many fold in the potential areas for tourism ventures. Local farmers offered their agricultural land and paddy fields for tourism construction at exorbitant prices. Though the conversion of land reduced the agricultural yield and employment, the temporary employment opportunity in the construction sector and the relatively higher wages earned, made the local workers happy. But all was not well in the years that followed.

The sector appointed 80% of employees from outside. Most of the local workers lost their traditional jobs. A study conducted by EQUATIONS in 2000, "*Women's participation in tourism development*" revealed that most of the labourers lost their traditional occupations. Women and agricultural labourers displaced from the lands converted for tourism could not be compensated with alternative jobs. The contract labourers appointed by the tourism industry did not have job security and were terminated at any time without assigning any reason. Although these workers are eligible for minimum wages, they are paid at much lower rates (Kerala Tourism Watch, 2009). Clustering of resorts on the banks of Vembanad *Kayal* denied access to local people involved in fishing and shell collection. The increased number of speed boats, motor boats and house boats plying as part of tourism development has resulted in the damage of fishing nets of the community. Tourist resorts had gone to

the extent of privatizing and appropriation of *Kayal*, without any consideration of the regulations of the panchayat. Natural banks covered by mangroves were converted to granite walls. Bright light from hotels prevent birds' migration from other areas. Wastes from hotels and houseboats are dumped into *Kayal*. Tourism contributed nothing to the infrastructure of the region (*Ibid*).

The local groups and other civil society organisations raised concern on the impacts of tourism through an innovative approach of '*kudumbayogam*', with discussions at the level of individuals in the community. Local authorities were forced to take action-GPS mapping of the area was done in 2000. A detailed data base was prepared on the biophysical and socio-economic status of the panchayat. Land use pattern was defined in July 2002. Motivated by the knowledge on the powers and functions of the panchayat, the members came up with a people's Charter and Draft guidelines on sustainable tourism for Kumarakom. A functional committee on tourism as per Section 163(1) of the Kerala Panchayat Act was set up to monitor tourism activities. Further, people's forum watched the performance of this Committee.

8.6. Summary

As a starting point to assess the environmental impacts of coastal tourism in Kerala this chapter identified the predominant techniques followed in the literature, viz., ad hoc procedures, overlay techniques, matrices, networks and checklists. Using the checklist approach this chapter studied the positive and negative environmental impacts of coastal tourism in Kerala. An analysis of positive environmental/socio-cultural impacts showed statistically significant differences in the view of the local community based on their occupation and levels of education. An analysis of

negative environmental/socio-cultural impacts also showed the presence of statistically significant differences in the local community based on their location, occupation and levels of education. It is, however, worth noting here that the number of respondents (12th standard and below) believing in the negative environmental impacts of coastal tourism and their mean score (as shown in table 8.8) and the total score of negative environmental impacts reported by all groups (as shown in table 8.2) are quite significant, having relevance to the sustainability of coastal tourism in Kerala.

The major socio-cultural issues noted in this chapter are inter-use conflicts, sex-tourism, cultural pollution and commoditisation of art forms.

Further evidences on environmental impacts reported in this chapter included major violations of CRZ rules in the state and the dislocation of indigenous communities and environmental degradation at Bekal and Kumarakom.

It may be noted in concluding this section that the above noted environmental impacts have significance for planning for the sustainable development of coastal tourism in Kerala. The next chapter is an attempt to present a framework for planning for sustainable development of coastal tourism in Kerala.

Chapter 9

Planning for Sustainable Development of Coastal Tourism in Kerala

9.1. Introduction

In order to make coastal tourism development in Kerala sustainable, an integrated strategy for tourism planning is essential. The objective of this chapter is to outline the components of this strategy. As a starting point, this chapter presents a conceptual framework of sustainable development of tourism which is followed by a recapitulation of the main sustainability issues of coastal tourism in Kerala. This is followed by a discussion of the various components of the strategy for the sustainable development of coastal tourism in Kerala. The last section provides the summary of this chapter.

9.2. Sustainable development of tourism: a conceptual framework

Tourism is generally regarded as a 'smokeless' service oriented industry. The notion 'smokeless' became popular and helped the rapid spread of this industry. Its immense potential to generate earning, create employment, promote development of backward regions, reduce regional disparities in income and employment, strengthen linkages among many sectors of the national economy and help alleviate poverty is indisputable and therefore tourism is considered to be an important vehicle for economic development. However, with the full-fledged development of mass tourism at the global level in the 1970s, it was realized that this industry was also capable of creating various adverse results in terms of environmental, social and economic conditions. This necessitated the shift to the concept of Sustainable Tourism Development (Neto, 2003a, p.2).

The concept of 'sustainable development' was first discussed in the 1960s with the advent of the green movement (WCED, 1987, p.43). As a result of the global policies set forth in the Brundtland Commission Report entitled *Our Common Future* in 1987 and the subsequent United Nations Conference on Environment and Development held at Rio de Janeiro in 1992, popularly known as "The Earth Summit", sustainability emerged as a key issue in development. The adoption of Agenda 21¹ at the Earth Summit further elaborated and expressed the sustainable approach. In the late 1980s and early 1990s, tourism academics and practitioners also began to consider the implications of sustainable development for their own industry (Berno and Bricker, 2001, p.3). The World Tourism Organisation defined sustainable tourism referring to tourist activities "leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems" (Neto, 2003a, p.6).

The concept sustainability has three interconnected aspects: economic, environmental and socio-cultural. According to UNEP, sustainability implies permanence and hence sustainable tourism implies optimum use of resources, including biological diversity; minimisation of ecological, cultural and social impacts, and maximization of benefits of conservation to local communities (UNEP, 2002). It also refers to the management structures that are needed to achieve this. In brief, sustainable tourism combines conservation principles with tourism development.

¹ Agenda 21 is a comprehensive programme of action adopted by 182 Governments to provide a global blueprint for achieving sustainable development. Travel and tourism is the first industry sector to have launched an industry specific action plan based on agenda 21 (UNEP, 2002).

Sustainable tourism is often discussed as synonymous with ecotourism, although ecotourism is only one among the various forms of tourism. According to the principles of sustainability, all forms of tourism should be sustainable. According to the charter for Sustainable Tourism by the World Conference on Sustainable Tourism, held at Lanzarote on 27-28 April 1995, the following are the principles to ensure sustainable tourism development.

- Be ecologically bearable in the long term, as well as economically viable, and ethically and socially equitable for local communities.
- Be integrated with the natural, cultural and human environment; it must respect the fragile balances that characterize many tourist destinations along the coast.
- Consider its effects on the cultural heritage and traditional elements, activities and dynamics of each local community.
- Encourage the participation of all actors, both public and private, and should be based on efficient co-operation mechanisms at all levels: local, national, regional and international.
- Support quality criteria, both for the preservation of the tourist destination and for the capacity to satisfy tourists.
- Be fully integrated into and contribute positively to local economic development and serve effectively to improve the quality of life of all people.
- Promote measures that permit a more equitable distribution of the benefits and burdens.

- Encourage the adoption and implementation of codes of conduct conducive to sustainability by the principal actors involved in tourism, particularly the industry.

One can add more points to the above recommendations based on their state, but sustainability lies in the implementation of these points.

9.3. Sustainability issues of coastal tourism in Kerala

Sustainability issues of coastal tourism in Kerala as observed from the present study can be broadly classified as economic, environmental and socio-cultural. Table 9.1 presents the sustainability issues of coastal tourism in Kerala.

Table: 9.1. Sustainability issues of coastal tourism in Kerala

Economic	Environmental	Socio-cultural
1. Low level of local participation in tourism activities	1. Violation of coastal zone regulations	1. Exclusion of local community from beaches/tourism spots
2. Local people getting only marginal jobs/ low wages from tourism sector	2. Pollution of water bodies	2. Existence of prostitution, and child-sex, spoiling the image of the local community
3. Leakages of revenue	3. Waste disposal	3. Commoditisation of culture or art forms
4. Seasonality affecting the tourism business in Kerala	4. Destruction of the natural environment (flora and fauna, etc.)	4. New building styles/ westernisation of styles among people
5. Inequality of tourism development across the state	5. Over exploitation of natural resources	5. Frequent strikes/ <i>hartals</i>

Source: Field survey 2006-07

Table 9.1 shows that the major economic issues are (i) low level of local participation in tourism activities, (ii) local people getting only marginal jobs/ low wages from tourism sector (iii) leakages of revenue, (iv) seasonality affecting the tourism business in Kerala, and (v) inequality of tourism development across the state.

The major environmental issues noted are (i) violation of coastal zone regulations (ii) pollution of water bodies, (iii) waste disposal (iv) destruction of the natural environment (flora and fauna, etc.) and (v) over-exploitation of natural resources.

The major socio-cultural issues noted are (i) exclusion of local community from beaches/tourism spots (ii) existence of prostitution and child-sex, spoiling the image of the local community (iii) commoditisation of culture and art forms (iv) new building styles/ westernisation of styles among people and (v) frequent strikes/*hartals*.

The low level of local participation in tourism activities seems to be due to the lack of requisite skills in the hotel and accommodation sector. The employment of local community was predominantly in low-paid positions of security, cleaners, etc.

Leakage in revenue is a major issue faced by almost all destinations of coastal tourism in Kerala. It arises from import of equipment for construction and consumer goods required by tourists, repatriation of profits earned by foreign investors, etc. The amount of leakage of revenue indicates the weak backward linkages of tourism with other sectors of the economy.

Employment in the tourism sector is affected by the seasonal pattern of tourism activity that characterises many destinations that are heavily dependent on tourism. Concentration of tourism activities in certain districts (southern districts), will cause over exploitation of resources in those districts and neglect of other districts with unequal development posing a threat to the sustainability of the sector.

Over exploitation of the natural resources of the coast for tourism development is a major concern. The unchecked construction of tourism facilities spoils the pristine beauty of these areas. Erosion from tourism facilities and

infrastructures built too close to the coast also contribute to beach destruction and coastal degradation. Surprisingly, the Tourism Department is found to consider the CRZ rules as a major constraint for tourism development in the state (GOK, 2001a).

General cleanliness of tourism spots of coastal and other areas of Kerala is found to be very poor. The treatment and disposal of liquid and solid wastes, including those by the tourism industry is a serious problem. With untreated effluents flowing into the surrounding water bodies and the sea and the resulting water pollution, the flora and fauna of the environment are destroyed and the tourism environment shattered. The fact that backwater tourism is causing pollution of the backwaters is reported even recently by the New Indian Express when it noted that “so many houseboats merrily continue to play in the Alappuzha waters, causing even more pollution” (Anon., 2009b).

Over exploitation of resources is another threat to the sustainability of this sector. One example can be pointed out from Alappuzha, where the actual number of house boats in the Vembanadu *kayal* is exceedingly large leading to over crowding and over-use of the environment.

The major socio-cultural issues mentioned earlier, viz., exclusion of local community from beaches/tourism spots, existence of prostitution and child-sex spoiling the image of the local community, commoditisation of culture and art forms, new building styles/ westernisation of styles among people and the frequent strikes/*hartals*, etc. are critical at Kovalam and Varkala impairing the image of tourism in the state.

9.4. Planning for sustainable development of coastal tourism in Kerala

Planning for sustainable tourism in general is the process of decision making that relate to the future of destination regions, attractions and services (Gunn, 1988, p.16; Inskip, 1991; Mill and Morrison, 1985). It is a dynamic and vital process of identifying objectives as well as defining alternative methods and actions to achieve the objectives that are already in place. Additionally, it includes an evaluation of selected methods and actions (Hudman and Hawkins, 1989). Mathieson and Wall suggest that tourism planning is related to not only the components of tourism, but also the interrelationship among these components (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). Planning is a complex process involving a consideration of diverse economic, social and environmental structures. Similarly, tourism planning is a process of comprehensive evaluation and analysis of related issues, including not only the determination of goals, but also the development of alternative methods/actions to further decision making. Particularly, Gunn says 'tourism planning as a concept of viewing the future and dealing with anticipated consequences is the only way that tourism's advantages can be obtained. Tourism planning must be strategic and integrative' (Gunn, 1994, p.22). Murphy also pointed out that tourism planning should fit within existing systems and should be used in urban and regional development strategies (Murphy, 1985).

While planning for the sustainable development of coastal tourism in Kerala, this study proposes that the following components be given top priority, viz., a) study the carrying capacity of coastal tourism, b) decentralisation of development, c) public-private partnership, d) capacity building, e) promotion of responsible tourism,

f) integration of coastal tourism with coastal zone management, and g) precautionary approach, which can be used as planning tools for sustainable development of coastal tourism development in Kerala.

9.4.1. Study the carrying capacity of coastal tourism

The term carrying capacity refers to the number of individuals who can be supported in a given area within natural resource limits, and without degrading the natural, economic and socio-cultural environment for present and future generations (Global Development Research Centre, 2009).

The carrying capacity of a tourist destination is a concept that is necessary for a sustainable tourism development. A community's tourism carrying capacity defines the upper limit to an acceptable tourist population within which sustainability is maintained. Beyond this, resources are over-exploited, infrastructure is stressed, and the future of the community is at risk (Burke, *et al*, 2001; Garrod and Wilson, 2003). World Tourism Organisation defined tourism carrying capacity as "the maximum number of people that may visit a tourist destination at the same time, without causing destruction of the physical, economic, socio-cultural environment and an unacceptable decrease in the quality of visitors satisfaction" (Coast Learn, 1999). Middleton and Chamberlain define it as "the level of human activity an area can accommodate without the area deteriorating, the resident community being adversely affected or the quality of visitors' experience declining" (*Ibid*).

There are different forms of carrying capacity referred in tourism, such as, physical carrying capacity, economic carrying capacity, social carrying capacity, ecological carrying capacity, etc.

Physical carrying capacity is a measure of the spatial limitations of an area and is often expressed as the number of units that an area can physically accommodate (MacLeod and Cooper, 2005). In the case of an individual tourist attraction, physical carrying capacity refers to the maximum number that can fit on the site at any given time and still allow people to be able to move.

Economic carrying capacity is the extent to which a tourist destination is able to accommodate tourist functions without the loss of local activities (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). This seeks to define the extent to which an area can be altered before the economic activities that occur in the area are affected adversely (Rees, 1992).

Social carrying capacity is essentially a measure of crowding tolerance. It has been defined as "... the maximum visitor density at which recreationists still feel comfortable and uncrowded" (De Ruyck, *et al.*, 1997, p. 822). Beyond this density, in the absence of additional changes, visitor numbers start to decline. The social carrying capacity can, however, be influenced by factors such as the recreational infrastructure, visitor attitudes, and socio-cultural norms. Reduced visitor enjoyment and increased crime are also indicators of when the social carrying capacity has been exceeded.

Ecological carrying capacity defined as "the stress that an ecosystem can withstand, in terms of changing visitor numbers or activities, before its ecological value is unacceptably affected" (MacLeod and Cooper, 2005).

As many of the economic, environmental and socio-cultural issues of coastal tourism in Kerala have their genesis in the un-planned approach to development without studying the carrying capacity of the area and the sector, it is essential that

further development of the sector should be based on a detailed analysis of the potential economic, environmental and socio-cultural resources of the coast.

9.4.2. Decentralised development of tourism

An alternative form of development, with decentralisation as its focus, has been suggested in order to overcome the potential problems that may ensue from a centralised form of development. Decentralisation involves a transfer of authority to perform some service to the public, from an individual or an agency in central Government to some other individual or agency, which is closer to the public to be served (Turner and Hulme, 1997). Smith describes this concept as “the delegation of power to lower levels in territorial hierarchy, whether the hierarchy is one of Governments within a state or offices within a large-scale organisation. Thus, decentralisation refers to territorially-based delegation not to purely functionally based delegation” (Smith, 1985, p.1). Although slightly different definitions of the concept exist in the literature, these definitions share the key notion that decentralisation involves power transference from upper Governmental levels to lower levels or functionally designed bodies. It is important to note that decentralisation does not imply that all authority should be delegated. The central Government may retain a core of functions over essential national matters and ultimately has the authority to redesign the system of Government and to discipline or suspend decentralisation units that are not performing effectively. However, how extensive this core of central Government functions should remain is a major ideological and intellectual debate of the late twentieth century (Turner and Hulme, 1997, p.154).

India has three tiers of Government, within a structure of co-operative federalism. The first tier is the central Government, the second is the state Government and the third tier is the village level within the state, known as the panchayat system. The responsibility for development including tourism lies more and more with local authorities, as governance structures become more decentralised. Thus, decentralisation can be effectively used as a tool for environmental conservation while developing tourism (Noronha, 2004, p.65).

However, Noronha reminds that “as many important policies that have an effect on sustainable tourism development, such as zoning, environmental regulations, licensing, and economic incentives are often not in the hands of local authorities, acting within the framework of national policies and strategies will not be effective” (Noronha, 2004, p.65). At the same time, local authorities are credited to become the privileged partners in sustainable tourism development efforts as they can negotiate and mediate among businesses, NGOs, and local communities in tourism destinations.

Another dimension of decentralisation is regarding the type of tourism that could be developed in the state. Construction of buildings throughout the coastal area need not encourage tourist visit in future. According to Poser, “there is no need to build hotels primarily of up-market standards and expensive tastes for the foreign tourist. This is what they find all over the world. What they want to experience is the native typical architecture and ambience of a place. The focus therefore should be on providing a range of medium, standard accommodation with an ethnic touch with the emphasis on clean and hygienic facilities” (Poser, 1998). This reason can be attributed to the increase in the demand for home stay facilities especially in

Kuttanadu areas of Alappuzha by the foreign tourists who visit Kerala. Expanding the decentralisation process may increase the flow of tourists to the rural areas.

At any particular destination, a tourist is spending much on food and for accommodation. In the case of food, at present, the state is suffering 50% shortage in supply, and is depending heavily on neighbouring states (Malayala Manorama Yearbook, 2001). When the tourists' inflow increases, it ultimately leads to the 'leakage' from our tourist revenue. A major advantage of decentralised development is that it can ensure local participation and thereby contribute to local employment, income, protection of environment and culture and prevent the leakage of income from the area.

A few strategies that can be suggested to promote local participation are encouraging,

- (i) the substitution of imported food items by local cuisine like,
 - a. potato chips by banana chips and roasted cashew
 - b. imported beverages by tender coconuts and drinks/beverages from locally available fruits.
 - c. beer/toddy by sweet toddy
- ii) the employment of local labour
- iii) home stays
- iv) local tourism enterprises
- v) 'special interest tourism', i.e., visit of people coming for medication, healthcare, health rejuvenation, academic interests, learning dances, music or any other socio-cultural aspects.

- vi) local handicraft sales outlets which will promote the sale of locally made handicrafts and woodcrafts
- vii) availability of spices and plantation products at the site for sale to tourists
- viii) the houseboats of tourists to move through canals amidst the traditional settlements/villages which will provide a cultural and natural linkage to the tourism experience.

The Kerala village tourism development scheme launched by Government of Kerala on 6th June 2007, with a vision, “My Village, a Tourism Friendly Village”, is part of an attempt to decentralise tourism development in the state. Under this scheme, resources will be allocated to local self Government institutions to design and implement tourism projects. Projects being supported under this scheme include development of basic amenities in places of natural interest, expansion of village squares, adventure tourism products, preservation of heritage properties and heritage areas and so on. To begin with, 140 villages were to be selected for assistance. The scheme will help take tourism related activities to all parts to the state. Tourism Department will provide financial assistance to the extent of 50% of the cost of each project, subject to a maximum of Rs.10 lakhs. The project is only at the preparation stage, and is likely to take time for implementation.

Tourism services are perishable and cannot be stored for periods of peak demand. Decentralised development of tourism can be used as a tool to solve the problem of seasonality to an extent. Seasonality means the tendency of tourist flows to become concentrated during relatively short periods of the year. Therefore, “one has to be pragmatic in planning and creating critical minimum mass required to provide quality tourism and make the destination successful, as overbuilding can be

not only costly but also self-defeating” (Kamra, 2001). In order to make Kerala a full time tourist destination, the Department of Tourism is trying to promote certain activities like ‘monsoon tourism’ (Anon., 2001). Monsoon tourism can be promoted in selected villages, which are easily accessible. Kerala is also famous for Ayurvedic treatment, and the monsoon season is suitable for this treatment. So, encouraging monsoon tourism along with the health tourism will give a slow but steady flow of tourists round the year across the state.

It is also worth noting here that the move to encourage foreign direct investment in tourism development needs to be reviewed. This move may not be suitable for coastal areas where availability of land is a real problem. Foreign investment naturally provides job to foreigners and employment opportunities for the locals will be denied (as seen from the field survey). Moreover, the repatriation of income and profit by foreigners will be adding to the problem of leakage of income from the domestic economy.

9.4.3. Strengthening of public-private partnerships

The term ‘public sector’ covers the whole range of public organisations, from national Government, ministries and departments to Government business enterprises and local Government and local communities. Just as tourism has been identified as important by many Governments, economically and politically, the public sector (Government) involvement was also considered as very important for the sustainable growth and development of the tourism industry (Elliott, 1997). The public sector makes up a core component of the tourism industry. Many tourism products are based on public assets such as the natural and cultural environments. A key role of the public sector is to provide basic infrastructure, essential services, destination

management and marketing, innovation, training and education (*Ibid*). These are important components in developing a sustainable and profitable travel and tourism industry. Governments also provide the policy and planning framework for environmental protection and heritage management and set strategies to encourage the private sector to take the issue of sustainability seriously (Swarbrooke, 1999).

Private enterprises provide the basic tourism products, facilities and essential services, such as: accommodation, transport, restaurants, retail trade, various attractions and even experiences (De Lacy, *et al.*, 2002, p.3). This sector ranges from large vertically and horizontally integrated global corporations such as tour companies, airlines and hotel chains, to tiny, remote local family businesses, such as craft shops and lodges. The private sector, therefore, plays an essential role in the development and management of tourism and must be equally involved with national, regional and local Government, in the management and sustainable development of tourism (*Ibid*).

However as noted by Swarbrooke, “until recently, the travel and tourism industry has been hesitant in establishing public/private partnerships, because of the very competitive market within which it operates. Industry has been reluctant to participate in public policy objectives, in case they are required to do anything that will increase their costs, or otherwise reduce their competitiveness” (Swarbrooke, 1999). Contrary to this situation, public/private tourism partnerships can do quite the opposite and produce benefits. They represent a pooling of knowledge, expertise, capital and other resources from various stakeholders (Bramwell and Lane, 2000). There is now a gradually growing awareness of the benefits of partnerships. They ensure consistency within a framework and act as an effective agent for planning,

management, problem solving and change, and therefore enhance rather than reduce the competitive advantage of the tourism product (UNCSD, 1999a).

Whatever be the tourism objective, starting from economic development, poverty reduction, protected area management, conservation, cultural development or social justice, the travel and tourism industry is now beginning to realise the power of collaboration and partnerships. Most important are the partnerships between local community and the tourism industry, which provide opportunities for community involvement and participation in tourism (De Lacy, *et al.*, 2002, p.3).

The major problem with the tourism development in the state is that much revenue is not generated from the various investments made by the state in the tourism industry. Veli, Peechi, Malampuzha etc. are glaring examples (Anon., 2003b). The main reason behind this is utter negligence on the part of the authorities, which resulted in lack of maintenance activities and negligible flow of tourists and income. Encouraging more public-private partnership programmes in the tourism development of the state will help to reduce these issues.

Public-private partnership as conceived above is absolutely needed for sustaining the development of coastal tourism in Kerala. Public-private partnership is needed for infrastructure development including development of accommodation, transport, site development, other amenities, etc. As in other sectors where the state administration is facing financial constraints, the tourism sector which needs considerable funding for diversification of its programmes also needs public-private partnership. A programme of public-private partnership is also essential for waste-management, prevention of pollution and protecting the tourism environment.

9.4.4. Capacity-building for tourism development

The term 'capacity-building' often refers to assistance which is provided to entities, usually developing country societies, which have a need to develop a certain skill or competence, or for general upgrading of performance ability. Many international organisations often provide capacity building as a part of their programmes of technical cooperation with their member countries. Bilaterally funded entities and private sector consulting firms and non-Governmental organisations also have capacity building services. Chapter 37 of Agenda 21 of the UNCED makes clear the nature and importance of capacity building (UNEP, 2002, p.10). The chapter entitled 'National Mechanisms and International Cooperation for Capacity-Building' notes that:

- The ability of a country to follow sustainable development paths is determined to a large extent by the capacity of its people and its institutions as well as by its ecological and geographical conditions.
- Specifically, capacity building encompasses the country's human, scientific, technological, organisational, institutional and resource capabilities.
- A fundamental goal of capacity building is to enhance the ability to evaluate and address the crucial questions related to policy choices and modes of implementation among development options, based on an understanding of environmental potentials and limits and of needs as perceived by the people of the country concerned. As a result, the need to strengthen national capacities is shared by all countries.

- The overall objectives of endogenous capacity building in this programme area are to develop and improve national and related sub-regional and regional capacities and capabilities for sustainable development (*Ibid*, p.11).

Referring to the capacity-building exercise, the Global Development Research Centre notes that capacity building is much more than training (Global Development Research Centre, 2008) and includes the following:

- Human resource development, the process of equipping individuals with the understanding, skills and access to information, knowledge and training that enables them to perform effectively.
- Organisational development, the elaboration of management structures, processes and procedures, not only within organisations but also the management of relationships between the different organisations and sectors (public, private and community).
- Institutional and legal framework development, making legal and regulatory changes to enable organisations, institutions and agencies at all levels and in all sectors to enhance their capacities.

Tourism operators often like to invest in local training and capacity-building as a way of contributing to long-term business development. The international examples illustrate four broad types of investment; (i) staff training; (ii) training for local entrepreneurs and tourism businesses; (iii) support for local schools and education; and (iv) awareness-raising among the local community for shared planning and consultation (Meyer, *et al.*, 2004, p.1).

The increased demand for tourism should automatically enhance the demand for workers, and there will be always preference for technically skilled and well

experienced labour. If the local area is incapable of meeting this demand, ultimately the chance will go to outsiders. Therefore, the state Government should develop capacity building (training facilities) to make available sufficient number of skilled workers from the local area. For a tourism-based economy to sustain itself in local communities, the residents must be willing partners in the process (TERI, 2002, p.13). Their attitudes toward tourism and perceptions of its impact on community life must be continually assessed (Allen, *et al.*, 1988).

In the prevailing economic, environmental, socio-cultural and institutional setting, it is apparent that Kerala should consider capacity building as quite essential for building infrastructure, amenities, human resource development, conservation of natural resources, preservation of socio-cultural resources, etc. Capacity building can be effectively used to increase the carrying capacity of the state.

9.4.5. Promotion of responsible tourism

Responsible Tourism (RT) is a tourism management strategy embracing planning, management, product development and marketing to bring about positive economic, social, cultural and environmental impacts (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 2003, p.2). The 2002 Cape Town Declaration on Responsible Tourism in Destinations defines Responsible Tourism as follows: “responsible tourism is a tourism, which (i) minimises negative economic, environmental and social impacts, (ii) generates greater economic benefits for local people and enhances the well being of host communities, (iii) improves working conditions and access to the industry, (iv) involves local people in decisions that affect their lives and life chances, (v) makes positive contributions to the conservation of natural and cultural heritage embracing diversity, (vi) provides more enjoyable experiences for tourists

through more meaningful connections with local people, and a greater understanding of local cultural, social and environmental issues, (vii) provides access for physically challenged people, and (viii) is culturally sensitive, encourages respect between tourists and hosts, and builds local pride and confidence” (Cape Town Declaration on Responsible Tourism, 2002).

The need for responsible tourism arises primarily from the point of view of minimizing the negative economic, environmental and social consequences of tourism development. While it seeks to promote local participation for enhancing economic benefits to the local community and protect the natural and cultural environment for attracting tourists, it also mandates the diverse stakeholders to carry out their operations in a responsible manner with a view to sustain the activity in the long run. It covenants all stakeholders, including the administration, to protect and promote the interests of the local community, including women, children and the physically challenged. It also makes binding for the tour operators and the administration to provide safety and security to the tourists. As a tool for sustainable coastal tourism development, it should help in minimising the intra-use and inter-use conflicts in the sector.

It is worth noting in this context that the practice of responsible tourism can be successful only with the active cooperation of governments, local bodies, local communities, NGOs, tourists and tourism business operators.

The second International Conference on Responsible Tourism in Destinations was held on 21-23 March 2008 in Kochi, Kerala. The responsible tourism initiative in the state is being implemented on a pilot basis by the Department of Tourism in

Kovalam, Kumarakom, Thekkady and Wayanad. State level and destination level RT committees were formed to co-ordinate activities in triple bottom line area (economic, social and environmental). The committees ensure the participation of local bodies, industries, local community, Kudumbasree units and Government. Self-help groups under the Kudumbasree supply local produce to hotels, resorts, home-stays and restaurants at these destinations on demand in the peak tourism season. Local produces are sourced from other local self-help groups, homestead farmers or farmer groups.

In the initial stages, priority was given to the economic issues. The demand assessment of products in the hotels was done by KITTS and the Kudumbasree agreed on the supply side from local resources. The next step was to stimulate the production, procurement and supply process. Mass mobilization, enlisting of products, supply calendar, distribution of seeds and fertilizers through Kudumbasree and Harithasree were implemented to encourage the cultivation and production at concerned destination panchayaths. To stabilize the hotel supply and sales, Activity groups (Procurement & supply) and *Samrudhi* groups (open sale - RT shop) were also formed. Panchayaths took the initiative to check the price and quality of the products by establishing Price Fixing Committee and Quality Committee. In order to ensure professional expertise and assistance in implementing the RT activities, the Government of Kerala appointed Great India Tourism Planners and Consultants (GITPAC) International as the technical agency for the management and co-ordination of responsible tourism phase-I after a competitive bidding process.

Unfortunately, the project could not reap benefits even after two years of its inception as indicated by various media reports. The New Indian Express reported very recently that in Kovalam "...it took nearly two years for it to provide a sales-cum-storage space for the products developed by the locals. And by the time, the outlet was sanctioned, the Tourism Department had asked the RT Cell to shut down. In Kovalam, production has come to a standstill. The Kudumbasree units enlisted for the RT initiative have failed to meet the supply and quality requirements of the hotels and resorts in the area.....the efforts to transform Kovalam into a 'zero-tolerance zone for child abuse' will be the biggest casualty. Earlier, when the Cell was functional, it at least ensured that anti-child abuse posters were put up all over Kovalam. Now there is no one to do even that" (Anon., 2009c). Therefore, there is a pressing need to revitalise the Responsible Tourism scheme by the Department of Tourism.

9.4.6. Integration of coastal tourism with coastal zone management

As defined by Knecht and Archer ICZM is "a dynamic and continuous process of administering the use, development and protection of the coastal zone and its resources towards common objectives of national and local authorities and the aspiration of different resource user groups" (Knecht and Archer, 1993). Sorenson considers that "integrated management provides policy direction and a process for defining objectives and priorities and planning development beyond sectoral activities. It adopts a system perspective and multi-sectoral approach which takes into account all sectoral interests and stakeholder interests, and deals with economic and social issues as well as environmental issues" (Sorenson, 1993).

As Clark puts it, “a major purpose of ICZM is to coordinate the initiatives of the various coastal economic sectors towards long term optimal socio-economic outcome, including resolution of use conflicts and beneficial trade offs. This integrated multiple-sector approach is designed to coordinate and jointly guide the activities of two or more economic sectors in planning and management.....This supports a programmatic goal to optimise resource conservation, public use and economic development....The integrated approach to ICZM is particularly essential for effective multiple use approaches. The concept of greatest yield from the best multiple-use plan takes into view that specific resource systems are always components of a larger ecological system that contains many other resources with economic and social values.....Also taken into account is the fact that component resource systems naturally tend to be highly integrated and dependent upon one another. In summary, in no other part of the earth, an integrated, multi-sectoral resource planning and management are more needed than at the coast” (Clark, 1996, pp.40-41).

As the coastal zone of the state is the arena for multiple activities like fisheries, aquaculture, agriculture, mining, manufacturing (coir, cashew processing, fish processing, fertilizers and chemicals), ports and harbours, inland water transport, urban development and tourism, intra-use and inter-use conflicts within and between the industries/activities have cropped up. As the sustainability of coastal tourism is very much depending on the coastal resource base, minimising the conflicts between various coastal activities by harmonising the interests of the different sectors is quite essential. This harmonisation of interests, however, calls for an ICZM approach.

Any further development of tourism in the coast will have to be integrated with coastal zone management to make coastal tourism sustainable.

9.4.7. Need for a precautionary approach

According to Raffensperger and Tickner, the precautionary principle is a moral and political principle which states that if an action or policy might cause severe or irreversible harm to the public or to the environment, in the absence of a scientific consensus that harm would not ensue, the burden of proof falls on those who would advocate taking the action (Raffensperger and Tickner, 1999). The principle has been regarded as the most notable anticipatory policy existing in international law, with particular application for environmental problems caused by humans (Gollier, *et al.*, 2000). Touted as an effective method of protecting the environment and mankind from technologically-induced hazards, the principle embodies the perception that preventative action reduces safety concerns and long-term costs (Rogers, *et al.*, 1997).

A globally accepted definition of the principle is given in Principle 15 of the Rio Declaration which notes that, "in order to protect the environment, the precautionary approach shall be widely applied by states according to their capabilities. Where there are threats of serious or irreversible damage, lack of full scientific certainty shall not be used as a reason for postponing cost-effective measures to prevent environmental degradation" (UNEP, 2008). This definition is important for several reasons. First, it explains the idea that scientific uncertainty should not preclude preventative measures to protect the environment. Second, the use of "cost-effective" measures (economic and social costs) indicates that costs can be considered (Wikipedia, 2008).

The precautionary principle advises caution to prevent adverse consequences. It attempts to balance the social, ecological, and economic effects of tourism. It is all about taking action now to avoid possible environmental or economic or social damages when the scientific evidence for acting is inconclusive but the potential damage could be great.

The need for taking a precautionary approach is quite compelling while implementing any plan for the sustainable development of coastal tourism in Kerala. Chapters six, seven and eight had made clear that the tourism resources, activities and issues of Kerala coast are quite diverse and complex. With the prevailing low level of local participation, low income (leakage of income), environmental/socio-cultural issues, etc. any further expansion of coastal tourism activity in the state has to take a precautionary approach as prescribed above. This is particularly the case in view of the uncertainty of the consequences of many of the actions and the limited information available to decision makers, be it in the state Government or in other institutions.

9.5. Summary

This chapter gave an outline of the strategy for planning for sustainable development of coastal tourism in Kerala. As a starting point, it outlined the concept of sustainable development in the context of tourism. The major sustainability issues of coastal tourism in Kerala were classified as economic, environmental and socio-cultural.

The major components of the strategy for planning for sustainable development of coastal tourism in Kerala outlined seven major elements, viz., study the carrying capacity of coastal tourism, decentralised development, public-private

partnership, capacity building, responsible tourism, integration with coastal zone management and precautionary approach.

The carrying capacity of a tourist destination is a concept that is necessary for a sustainable tourism development. A community's tourism carrying capacity defines the upper limit to an acceptable tourist population within which sustainability is maintained.

Decentralised tourism development is considered as an effective tool to prevent the over-exploitation of local resources and to ensure the participation of local community in coastal tourism development and thereby contribute to local employment, income, protection of environment and culture and prevent the leakage of income from the area.

Public-private partnership is considered to promote infrastructure development including development of accommodation, transport, site development, other amenities, etc. A programme of public-private partnership is also essential for waste- management, prevention of pollution and protecting the tourism environment.

Capacity building is considered essential for building infrastructure, amenities, human resource development, conservation of natural resources, preservation of socio-cultural resources, etc.

Responsible tourism is considered essential for minimising the negative economic, environmental and social consequences of tourism development and the intra-use and inter-use conflicts in the tourism sector. It covenants all stakeholders, including the administration, to protect and promote the interests of the local community, including women, children and the physically challenged. It also makes

binding for the tour operators and the administration to provide safety and security to the tourists.

Integration of coastal tourism with coastal zone management is also suggested to minimise the conflicts between various coastal activities by harmonising the interests of the different sectors. It is quite essential for the sustainability of coastal tourism in the state which depends on the coastal resource base of the state.

A pre-cautionary approach is suggested to ensure local participation, prevent leakage of income, protect the natural environment, custom, tradition and culture of the local community, with further development of coastal tourism in Kerala. The next chapter gives the summary of findings and conclusion of this study.

Chapter 10

Summary of Findings and Conclusion

10.1. Summary of findings

Chapter one outlined the theme and background of the study, the conceptual framework (definitions) of tourism and coastal tourism. It also noted the need for the study, its objectives, hypotheses, methodology and data base, scope of the study and the limitations of the study. The plan of the thesis was also presented in this chapter.

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

An overview of the studies on coastal tourism, world-wide, pointed to the growing importance attached to coastal tourism development and the emerging environmental and social issues and the need for developing new strategies for

mitigating the negative impacts. Proactive planning and involvement of local communities in planning and implementation of corrective/preventive actions were also recognised.

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

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

The third chapter noted the remarkable growth in international tourist arrivals and international tourism receipts. It found that the tourism activities were still concentrated in the developed nations of Europe and Americas, and Asia and the Pacific regions. Maturity of the tourism sector in Europe and Americas was indicated by the high tourist arrivals and tourism receipts and the steady growth rates. The remarkable growth rate in tourist arrivals and tourism receipts are attributed to the technological, economic, social, cultural, ecological, institutional and political developments of the post World War II era. The dominance of countries of Europe and Americas was noted in the case of outbound tourism also. The Tourism Vision of the WTO outlined in this chapter noted a bright future for international tourism in the coming years. This chapter also recognised the adverse consequences of globalisation

on tourism in developing countries. It further pointed out that the inclusion of tourism as a part of IMF's Structural Adjustment Programmes and World Trade Organisation's General Agreement on Trade in Services were likely to affect the sustainability of tourism, especially in developing countries.

The fourth chapter began with a discussion of the trend in the flow of international tourists to India and foreign exchange earnings. Though India's performance in terms of FTAs and FEEs is improving, it is too little compared to the other tourism developed economies of the world. The growth rate of tourism in India was, however, more than that of the world as well as that of Asia and the Pacific region. It further discussed the major source countries of FTAs in India. Among them the developed nations like USA, UK, Canada and France and the neighbouring countries like Sri Lanka and Bangladesh are found as the major contributors. A brief review of tourism performance of states in India made clear that Delhi, Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Rajasthan, West Bengal, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Kerala and Goa were the major destinations of foreign tourists. Air traffic is the major mode of travel for the foreign tourists and cities like Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai and Kolkata act as the major port of entry for them.

The analysis of domestic tourism showed that it was a strong pillar in the tourism structure of India. States like Andhra Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Rajasthan and Maharashtra, were the major performers of domestic tourism in India. The ratio between foreign and domestic tourist visits in India is found to be increasing at a fast rate. The current ratio is very high when compared to the situation in developed economies of the world.

It also appears from the discussion that although the infrastructure for tourism in India is increasing, it is not sufficient to meet the growing requirements of the

sector. It also noted the presence of institutions for human resource development. A review of the allocations for tourism under Five Year Plans showed that this sector received very little attention as reflected in the meagre percentage of the total plan allocation.

The fifth chapter analysed the performance of tourism sector in Kerala. The analysis of foreign tourist arrivals in the state showed the remarkable performance of Kerala in comparison with India. The FEE from tourism also exhibited an outstanding growth rate. The marketing of Kerala tourism was found to focus on the affluent long haul visitors of Europe and America. Seasonality which is a characteristic of national tourism was found to be common in the case of foreign tourist arrivals although it was mild in the case of domestic tourist arrivals.

The distribution of foreign tourists within the state was found to be uneven among the districts. Foreign tourists were barely visible in northern districts, which was indicative of the unbalanced development of tourism in the state. The flow of domestic tourists was found to show an increasing trend with the nearby states like Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh and far off states like Delhi contributing much to the domestic tourist inflow to the state. A lower ratio of foreign tourists and domestic tourists which is characteristic of tourism in developed nations of Europe is found to prevail in Kerala as well.

A review of tourism resources of Kerala made in this chapter noted the importance of the riverine resources, flora and fauna, wild life sanctuaries, cultural art forms, ethnic art forms, festivals of Kerala, cultural institutions, health care institutions, etc. It also noted the potential for the state to develop alternative forms of tourism like adventure tourism, business tourism, eco-tourism, educational tourism,

film tourism, health tourism, incentive travel, pilgrimage tourism, rural tourism, social/root tourism, sports tourism, wild life tourism, etc., which would provide quality tourism and attract the more concerned traveller truly interested in the destination. This type of tourism is supposed to minimise the negative socio-cultural and environmental effects, optimise economic benefits derived from it and contribute to the improvement in the standard of living of the local community.

This chapter also noted the development in infrastructure for tourism in the state in the form of transport, accommodation, etc. It also observed that the successful marketing of Kerala tourism products in affluent markets has helped in winning several accolades for Kerala. A brief review of the administration of tourism activities in Kerala undertaken during the Five Year Plan periods found significant improvements in the institutional set up, notwithstanding the limited budgetary support till the eighth plan. The state's recent tourism development initiatives are found reflected in the Vision 2025 of Kerala Tourism.

The sixth chapter made a detailed review of the two components of coastal tourism of the state, i.e., beach tourism and backwater tourism. An analysis of the coastal tourism resources of the state identified the presence of major and minor beaches for development of beach tourism and the presence of backwater resources; house boats, boat races (*vallam kali*), etc. for the development of backwater tourism. This section also observed one of the major shortcomings of backwater tourism development in Kerala, i.e., the lack of interconnectivity of water transport in the state.

This chapter further gave a lengthy analysis of the demographic and visitation profile of tourists to understand the emerging trends in the coastal tourism demand in the state. The major coastal tourism generating countries for the state are UK,

Germany, Spain, USA and France. A study of the demographic profile of coastal tourists showed that the majority of both foreign and domestic tourists were middle aged (31-50 years), highly educated (graduation and above) and well placed (professionals, government servants). The annual income of majority of foreign tourists was above US\$ 20,000 and that of domestic tourists above Rs.2,00,000. For foreign tourists, internet was found to be the main source of information about Kerala. For domestic tourists, the main source of information was friends and relatives. The majority of foreign tourists were found to reach Kerala by air and domestic tourists by rail. Thiruvananthapuram and Kochi were the main entry points for foreign tourists, whereas Palakkad and Kochi were the main entry points for domestic tourists. A small percentage of tourists made more than two visits to Kerala. 'Leisure and recreation' was the main motive for travel for both the foreign and domestic tourists and their most favourite locations were the coastal tourism spots. A study of the expenditure pattern of domestic and foreign tourists showed that there was significant difference in the expenditure by the two categories. The per capita daily expenditure calculated was Rs. 3878 for foreign tourists and Rs.2234 for domestic tourists. The major items of expenditure for both foreign and domestic tourists were accommodation, food and beverages.

The demand for home stay was found to be high among foreign tourists, and friends and relatives providing accommodation to a good percentage of domestic tourists. Strikes, *hartals* and unexpected holidays in Kerala were reported to have affected many of the tourists during their trips.

The analysis of the satisfaction levels revealed that both foreign and domestic tourists attributed their satisfaction to the natural beauty of the state, which indicated

the importance of protecting the natural environment of Kerala for sustaining the tourism development of the state.

The seventh chapter analysed the economic impacts of coastal tourism in Kerala. As a starting point this chapter gave an outline of the conceptual framework to measure the economic impacts. The major methods noted were visitors spending (travel expenditure) surveys, analysis of secondary data from government economic statistics, economic base models and multipliers. The findings of the survey on accommodation units and non-accommodation units made to measure the economic impacts of coastal tourism in Kerala brought out the following facts: (i) accommodation units provided an average employment of 14 persons per unit and non-accommodation units, about 4 persons per unit. (ii) The monthly salary of employees in the accommodation units ranged between Rs.2000 and Rs.12,000, with the majority falling in the range of Rs.2000-7000. The monthly salary of employees in the non-accommodation units ranged from Rs.1000 to Rs.10000, with the majority getting a salary varying from Rs.1000 to Rs.4000. (iii) a good percentage of the employees were from outside the state and the country. (iv) a large percentage of the accommodation and non-accommodation units were depending on outside sources (outside the state) for their raw material. (v) seasonality was found to be a critical factor affecting tourism business in Kerala.

An assessment of the local community's perception on positive and negative economic impacts of coastal tourism in Kerala made in this chapter revealed a statistically significant difference of opinion among the groups indicating the complex dynamics of coastal tourism development in the state.

The relevant findings of a study by TCS for the Department of Tourism, Government of Kerala, presented as further evidences on the economic impact of

coastal tourism in Kerala, indicated the presence of high output and employment multiplier and a low income multiplier. The presence of a high output and employment multiplier along with low income multiplier is feared to be the consequence of high dependence of the tourism sector of the state on outside sources for labour and raw material, which the TCS study probably did not make explicit.

It may be noted that the above observed facts have a significant bearing for the sustainability of coastal tourism in Kerala.

Chapter eight of this study assessed the environmental impacts of coastal tourism in Kerala. As a first step, this chapter identified the predominant techniques found in the literature to assess the environmental impacts of tourism viz., ad hoc procedures, overlay techniques, matrices, networks and checklists. Using the checklist approach this chapter studied the positive and negative environmental impacts of coastal tourism in Kerala. An analysis of positive environmental/socio-cultural impacts showed statistically significant differences in the opinion of the local community based on their occupation and levels of education. An analysis of the negative environmental/socio-cultural impacts also showed the presence of statistically significant differences in the view of the local community based on their location, occupation and levels of education. It is, however, worth noting here that the number of respondents (12th standard and below) believing in the negative environmental impacts of coastal tourism and their mean score and the total score of negative environmental impacts reported by all groups are quite significant, having relevance to the sustainability of coastal tourism in Kerala.

The major socio-cultural issues noted in this chapter were inter-use conflicts, sex-tourism, cultural pollution and commoditisation of art forms.

Further evidences on environmental impacts reported in this chapter included major violations of CRZ rules in the state and the dislocation of indigenous communities and environmental degradation at Bekal and Kumarakom.

The above noted environmental impacts have significance for planning for the sustainable development of coastal tourism in Kerala

Chapter nine of this study gave an outline of the strategy for planning for sustainable development of coastal tourism in Kerala. As a starting point, it outlined the concept of sustainable development in the context of tourism. This chapter also noted the major sustainability issues of coastal tourism in Kerala which were grouped as economic, environmental and socio-cultural.

The major components of the strategy for planning for sustainable development of coastal tourism in Kerala outlined seven major elements, viz., carrying capacity, decentralised development, public-private partnership, capacity building, responsible tourism, integration of coastal zone management and precautionary approach.

The carrying capacity of a tourist destination is a concept that is necessary for a sustainable tourism development. A community's tourism carrying capacity defines the upper limit to an acceptable tourist population within which sustainability is maintained.

Decentralised tourism development is considered as an effective tool to prevent the over-exploitation of local resources and to ensure the participation of local community in coastal tourism development and thereby contribute to local employment, income, protection of environment and culture and prevent the leakage of income from the area.

Public-private partnership is considered to promote infrastructure development including development of accommodation, transport, site development, other amenities, etc. A programme of public-private partnership is also essential for waste- management, prevention of pollution and protecting the tourism environment.

Capacity building is considered essential for building infrastructure, amenities, human resource development, conservation of natural resources, preservation of socio-cultural resources, etc.

Responsible tourism is considered essential for minimising the negative economic, environmental and social consequences of tourism development and the intra-use and inter-use conflicts in the tourism sector. It covenants all stakeholders, including the administration, to protect and promote the interests of the local community, including women, children and the physically challenged. It also makes binding for the tour operators and the administration to provide safety and security to the tourists.

Integration of coastal tourism with coastal zone management is also suggested to minimise the conflicts between various coastal activities by harmonising the interests of the different sectors. It is quite essential for the sustainability of coastal tourism in the state which depends on the coastal resource base of the state.

The precautionary approach is suggested to ensure local participation, prevent leakage of income, negative impacts on the natural environment, custom, tradition and culture of the local community, all accompanying further development of coastal tourism in Kerala.

10.2. Conclusion

This study found that the resource base of Kerala coast can support a sustainable tourism sector. The study also found that coastal tourism has produced both positive and negative economic as well as environmental impacts. The statistical tests made in this regard showed significant differences of opinion regarding the positive and negative economic and environmental impacts of coastal tourism in Kerala.

The major economic threat to the sustainability of coastal tourism in Kerala emanates from the low level of local participation, low wages, poor demand for local inputs (raw materials), leakage of income, seasonality of tourism and uneven development across the state.

The major environmental issues that plague the sustainability of coastal tourism in Kerala are over-exploitation of the natural resource base, pollution of water bodies (inter-use conflicts), waste dumping, etc.

The major socio-cultural issues affecting the sector are exclusion of local community from beaches/tourism spots (intra-use conflicts), existence of prostitution and child-sex, commoditisation of culture and art forms, new building styles/westernisation of styles among people and frequent strikes/*hartals*.

Sustainable development of coastal tourism in Kerala demands a strategic planning approach with major components like assessment of carrying capacity, decentralised development, public-private partnership, capacity building, responsible tourism, integrating coastal zone management and precautionary approach.

Appendices

Appendix 1.1 Glossary of coastal tourism

1. **Accessibility:** Access can be by air, land or sea, but needs to be safe, reliable and of good value for the money.
2. **Accommodations:** Accommodation is a term used to encompass the provision of bedroom facilities on a commercial basis within the hospitality/tourism industry (Jafari, J., 2000, p.2). Accommodations can range from basic composites /home stays to luxury hotels.
3. **Attractions:** Attractions can be divided into two categories: natural and cultural. Natural attractions include wildlife, beaches, forests, geological formations, or other natural resources that could be of interest to tourists. Cultural attractions include historical or archaeological sites, performing arts, traditional lifestyles or other cultural or human resources that could be of interest to tourists.
4. **Coastal Tourism:** Coastal tourism is defined as the sum total of beach tourism and backwater tourism.
5. **Coastal Zone:** The coastal zone is the interface where the land meets the ocean, encompassing shoreline environments as well as adjacent coastal water. Its components can include river deltas, coastal plain, wet lands, beaches and dunes, reefs, mangrove forests, lagoons and other coastal features.
6. **Domestic tourism:** It is the tourism of resident visitors within the economic territory of the country of reference.
7. **Economic impacts:** Economic impacts include both positive (employment, income, foreign exchange earnings, etc. to forward and backward linkages, multiplier and accelerator effects) and negative (potential increase in local prices, leakages of tourism revenue, etc.) impacts on the local and national economy.

(Appendix 1.1 contd.)

8. Environmental impact: It means the effect on the natural resource base that local populations depend on for their livelihoods.
9. Environmental Impact Assessment: An environmental impact assessment predicts the impacts of a proposed action on the environment, generally including changes in social, cultural, economic, biological, physical and ecological systems (Stynes, 1997, p.6)
10. Social impact: It refers to the positive aspects (cross-cultural exchange, stimulation to improve living standards, preservation of cultural heritage, etc.) and negative aspects (conflict in traditional societies, dislocation of local residents, seasonal unemployment, growth in crime, drugs, gambling and prostitution, conflict over land use, demonstration effect, etc.) of tourism development (Crandall, 1994, p.415). It can be attributed to a variety of factors, such as the increased exposure to mass media (television, news papers, etc), western values and ideas that creep into the host populations and, due to the urbanisation of rural areas in general.
11. Tourism activities: Tourism comprises the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited.
12. Tourism demand: Tourism is by nature a demand phenomenon. Visitor consumption is the basic component of the demand approach.
13. Tourism industry: Any establishment which directly or indirectly facilitates the tourist's needs or whose principal productive activity is tourism.

(Appendix 1.1 contd.)

14. **Tour operators:** Tour operators are businesses that combine two or more travel services (e.g., transport, accommodation, meals, entertainment and sightseeing) and sell them through travel agencies or directly to final consumers as a single product (called a package tour) for a price.
15. **Tourism units:** Basic tourism units refer to the individuals/households, which provide tourism services and can therefore be addressed in surveys as statistical units.

Appendix 3.1
WTO member nations (region-wise) as on December 2008

1. Africa

1	Algeria	17	Ethiopia	33	Niger
2	Angola	18	Gabon	34	Nigeria
3	Benin	19	Gambia	35	Rwanda
4	Botswana	20	Ghana	36	Sao Tome and Principe
5	Burkina Faso	21	Guinea	37	Senegal
6	Burundi	22	Guinea-Bissau	38	Seychelles
7	Cameroon	23	Kenya	39	Sierra Leone
8	Cape Verde	24	Lesotho	40	South Africa
9	Central African Republic	25	Madagascar	41	Sudan
10	Chad	26	Malawi	42	Swaziland
11	Congo, Democratic Republic	27	Mali	43	Togo
12	Côte d'Ivoire	28	Mauritania	44	Tunisia
13	Congo	29	Mauritius	45	Uganda
14	Djibouti	30	Morocco	46	Tanzania
15	Equatorial Guinea	31	Mozambique	47	Zambia
16	Eritrea	32	Namibia	48	Zimbabwe

2. Americas

1	Argentina	10	Dominican Republic	19	Panama
2	Bahamas	11	Ecuador	20	Paraguay
3	Bolivia	12	El Salvador	21	Peru
4	Brazil	13	Guatemala	22	United States of America
5	Canada	14	Haiti	23	Uruguay
6	Chile	15	Honduras	24	Venezuela
7	Colombia	16	Jamaica		Netherlands Antilles*
8	Costa Rica	17	Mexico		Puerto Rico*
9	Cuba	18	Nicaragua		* Associate Members

3. Asia and the Pacific

1	Australia	8	Lao People's Democratic Republic	15	Thailand
2	Brunei Darussalam	9	Malaysia	16	Timor-Leste
3	Cambodia	10	Mongolia	17	Viet Nam
4	China	11	North Korea		Hong Kong*
5	Fiji	12	Papua New Guinea		Macao, China*
6	Indonesia	13	Philippines		
7	Japan	14	South Korea		* Associate Members

(Appendix 3.1 contd.)

4. Europe

1	Albania	17	Israel	33	Russian Federation
2	Andorra	18	Italy	34	San Marino
3	Armenia	19	Kazakhstan	35	Serbia
4	Austria	20	Kyrgyzstan	36	Slovakia
5	Azerbaijan	21	Latvia	37	Slovenia
6	Belarus	22	Lithuania	38	Spain
7	Bosnia and Herzegovina	23	Macedonia	39	Switzerland
8	Bulgaria	24	Malta	40	Tajikistan
9	Croatia	25	Moldova	41	Turkey
10	Cyprus	26	Monaco	42	Turkmenistan
11	Czech Republic	27	Montenegro	43	Ukraine
12	France	28	Netherlands	44	United Kingdom
13	Georgia	29	Norway	45	Uzbekistan
14	Germany	30	Poland		Flemish Community of Belgium*
15	Greece	31	Portugal		Madeira*
16	Hungary	32	Romania		*Associate member

5. Middle East

1	Bahrain	6	Lebanon	11	Syrian Arab Republic
2	Egypt	7	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	12	Yemen
3	Iraq	8	Oman		
4	Jordan	9	Qatar		Palestine (Observer)
5	Kuwait	10	Saudi Arabia		

6. South Asia

1	Afghanistan	4	India	7	Nepal
2	Bangladesh	5	Islamic Republic of Iran	8	Pakistan
3	Bhutan	6	Maldives	9	Sri Lanka

Source: UNWTO website (2009)

Appendix 3.2

Alternative forms of tourism

A list of alternative forms of tourism is given below in the alphabetical order. The differences occur mainly due to the 'product differentiation' of tourist destination. Some destinations have only a single feature and some have many. Moreover, most of these forms of tourism are only operationally differentiated, for example: Armchair tourism and virtual tourism or war tourism and dark tourism, etc. Some forms of tourism encompass many dimensions. For example, nature tourism is frequently used synonymously with terms such as eco, sustainable, green, alternative and responsible tourism. Sports tourism, adventure tourism, wine tourism, medical tourism, etc. are generally considered as part of niche tourism.

1. Adventure tourism, Antarctic tourism, anthropological tourism, appropriate tourism, armchair tourism (virtual tourism) and ayurvedic tourism,
2. Back water tourism, back-packers tourism, beach tourism and business tourism
3. Coastal tourism, cruise tourism and cultural tourism or cultural heritage tourism
4. Dark tourism (disaster tourism)
5. Eco tourism, educational tourism and ethnic tourism
6. Farm tourism, fertility tourism, festival tourism and film tourism (pop-culture tourism)
7. Garden tourism
8. Health tourism, Himalayan tourism
9. Inclusive tourism (for people with disabilities) and island tourism
10. Mass tourism, marine tourism and MICE tourism (Meetings, Incentives, Conference and Exhibitions), monsoon tourism and mountain tourism
11. Nature tourism and niche tourism
12. Pilgrimage tourism
13. Responsible tourism, root tourism (social tourism) and rural tourism/village tourism

(Appendix 3.2 contd.)

14. Science tourism, shopping tourism and sports tourism

15. VFR tourism (Visiting friends and relatives)

16. War tourism, wilderness tourism, wild-life tourism, wine tourism and winter tourism

Sex tourism, gay tourism, drug tourism, (e.g., to use drugs in Amsterdam), etc. are also related with tourism, but omitted deliberately, as these are generally considered as evils of tourism development. Anti-tourism is a 'generic term for adverse criticism of tourists and tourism' (Jafari, 2000, p.27). The terms domestic tourism, foreign tourism, international tourism, inbound tourism, internal tourism, national tourism, outbound tourism, etc. are mainly used to differentiate the tourists on the basis of their origin and stay, mainly for statistical purposes. Definitions of some of the terms are given below.

Appropriate tourism emphasises small-scale development, recognition of needs other than those of material consumption and preservation of the quality and stability of both natural resources and human resources (Jafari, 2000, p.27)

Armchair tourism and virtual tourism are the forms of tourism in which travelling physically is not involved, but exploration of the world through internet, books, or television is suggested (Wikipedia, 2007).

Cultural heritage tourism involves not only tangible or visible heritage such as sites, colours, materials, and settlement patterns, but also intangible heritage such as societal structures, traditions, values, and religion (Endresen, 1999, p.2).

Dark tourism includes travel to sites associated with death and suffering, such as the scene of the Hiroshima disaster, or to the sites of disasters (Disaster tourism) (Wikipedia, 2007).

Eco tourism is defined as low impact nature tourism which contributes to the maintenance of species and habitats either directly through a contribution to conservation and/or indirectly by providing revenue to the local community sufficient for local people to value, and therefore protect, their wildlife heritage area as a source of income (Goodwin, *et al.* 1997, p. 15).

(Appendix 3.2 contd.)

Film tourism: Sometimes called movie-induced or film-induced tourism or pop-culture tourism, is defined as a tourist visit to a destination or attraction as a result of the destination's being featured on television, video, or the cinema screen (Hudson and Ritchie, 2006, p.387).

Mass tourism could develop with improvement in technology which allowed the transport of large number of people in a short span of time to places of leisure interest, and greater number of people began to enjoy the benefits of leisure time. (Wikipedia, 2007)

Nature, or nature-based, tourism encompasses all forms of tourism - mass tourism, adventure tourism, low impact tourism, ecotourism - which use natural resources in a wild or undeveloped form - including species, habitat, landscape, scenery and saline and freshwater features. Nature tourism is travel for the purpose of enjoying undeveloped natural areas or wildlife. Nature tourism involves the marketing of natural landscapes and wildlife to tourists. National parks and protected areas are one of the primary resources for nature tourism (Goodwin, *et al.* 1997, p. 15).

Niche tourism : It is physical activity or sports oriented tourism that includes adventure tourism such as mountaineering and hiking (tramping); backpacker tourism, sport travel to do skiing, scuba diving or see a sports event (e.g., FIFA World Cup); and extreme tourism for people interested in risky activities (Wikipedia, 2007)

Pro-poor tourism (PPT) is a tourism that generates net benefits for the poor. PPT is not a specific product or sector of tourism, but an overall approach. Rather than aiming to expand the size of the sector, PPT strategies aim to unlock opportunities for economic gain, other livelihood benefits, or engagement in decision making for the poor (Ashley, *et al.*, 2001, p.3).

Appendix 6.1
Questionnaire 1: Tourist survey

Survey conducted by K.Rajesh, Research Scholar, School of Industrial Fisheries, Cochin University of Science and Technology, Kochi-682 016. Phone: 0484 2354711, email: mailtokrajesh@gmail.com

Location :

1. Name of the respondent :

2. Age Group :

Age group	Y< 18yrs	18-30	31-50	51-60	Y >60
Put √ mark					

3. Name of your nationality

	Nationality	State or region
Foreigners		
Domestic tourists	INDIAN	

4. Educational qualifications :

Upto 10 th Std	Pre Degrees(12 th)	Graduation	Post Graduation	PG and above/PhD

5. Occupation of the respondent:

Student	Govt servant	Self employed	Professional (specify)	Executive	Retired person

6. Annual Income (in dollar terms for foreign and rupee terms for domestic tourists)

Income (F)	Below 10000	10001-20000	20001-30000	30001-40000	40001-50000	Above 50000
Income (D)	Below 10,0000	100001-200000	200001-300000	300001-400000	400001-500000	Above 500000
Put √ mark						

7. How did you come to know about Kerala? (Put √ mark)

Web sites		Television	Books and Journals	Friends and Relatives	Tour guides	Information from previous visits
Kerala Tourism Official	Other sites					

(Appendix 6.1. contd.)

8. Which mode of transport did you use to reach Kerala? (Put \checkmark mark)

Hired vehicle (Specify)	Rail	Air	Bus	Ship	Taxi	Any other (specify)

9. Which is your entry point in Kerala: (Put \checkmark mark)

TVM	Kochi	Kozhikode	Mangalore	Palakkad	Iritty (Kannur)	Kumily (Idukki)	Parasala (TN Border)	Others

10. Number of members in your group :

Male	Female	Children (below 18 yrs)

11. Your visitation profile (Approximate duration/days of this visit)

India	Kerala

12. Are you on a trip to: (Put \checkmark mark)

Leisure, recreation & holidays	Visiting friends & relatives	Business and professional	Health treatment	Religion/ Pilgrimages	Others (specify)

13. Whether you availed the facility of conducted tour?

If yes, what is the type package and amount?

14. Whether any travel guide/tourism guide is accompanying you? If not, how do you understand Kerala better?

15. What are the places in Kerala that you have visited/planning to visit during this trip?

(Please put \checkmark mark)

Places	Kovalam	Varkala	Alappuzha	Kumarakom	Fort Kochi	Kappad	Bekal	Kochi City
Days								
Places	TVM	Guruvayoor	Kottakkal	Thekkady	Munnar	Thrissur	Other places (specify)	
Days								

(Appendix 6.1. contd.)

16. Your visitation profile (Approximate duration of this visit)

Places	Kovalam	Varkala	Alappuzha	Kumarakom	Fort Kochi	Kappad	Bekal	Kochi City
Days								
Places	TVM	Guruvayoor	Kottakkal	Thekkady	Munnar	Thrissur	Other places (specify)	
Days								

17. What is the type of accommodation that you have availed of? (Please put $\sqrt{\quad}$ mark)

5 star	4 Star	3 star	2 star	1 star	Homestay	Friends & Relatives	Others (specify)

18. Please indicate your expenditure pattern for one day (preferably yesterday)

One day expenditure (Preferably yesterday's) In Rupee terms			
Items	Amount	Items	Amount
1. Accommodation		6. Shopping (specify the items)	
2. Food		a. Handicrafts	
a. food from the hotel		b. Hand-weaves	
b. Food on site		c. Spices (specify)	
c. Beverages		i. Any other (specify)	
d. Tea/coffee		ii.	
e. Jucies/softdrinks		ii.	
f. Coconut		iv.	
3. Travel		7. Communication	
a. Air ticket		8. Books and Journals	
b. Rail fare		9. Other expenses	
c. Bus/taxi			
d. Local transport (to the tourist site)			
4. Medicine			
5. Entertainment			

19. Mark your level of satisfaction about this destination centre:

Level of satisfaction	Very good	Good	Moderate	Bad	Very bad
Natural Beauty					
Transport					
Food					
Accommodation					
Attitude of local people					
Attitude of officials					
Cleanliness					
Healthy atmosphere					
Climate					
Communication of the people					
Any other (specify)					

(Appendix 6.1. contd.)

20. How did you feel the following elements during your visit in Kerala?

Mark your level of satisfaction	Very good	Good	Moderate	Bad	Very bad
General Price level					
Information regarding tourism sites					
Behaviour of shop keepers					
Availability of toilets, bathrooms, etc. at the sites					
Any other (specify)					

21. Have you ever faced difficulties in Kerala due to any strike?

Yes/No. If yes, specify the time:

22. Whether your visiting profile/schedule in Kerala was affected by any holidays?

Yes/No If yes, specify:

23. Have you ever been in Kerala as a tourist?

If yes, when, and which were the places visited during that trip? :

If yes, what are the changes you feel now as compared to the previous visit?

Positive/Negative:

Explain :

24. Which country/state and destinations you like the most & why?

Destination	State	Country

Because:

25. Do you have plan to visit Kerala again

26. Do you recommend Kerala to your friends /relatives for their tour?

If yes, any specific destination?

Appendix 7.1
Questionnaire 2: Survey on accommodation units

Survey conducted by K.Rajesh, Research Scholar, School of Industrial Fisheries, Cochin University of Science and Technology, Kochi-682 016. Phone: 0484 2354711, email:mailtokrajesh@gmail.com

Location :

1. Name of the unit :

2. Year of commencement of the establishment

3. Category with star status

4. a. Ownership pattern (Please give \checkmark mark wherever necessary)

Single	Partnership	Public Ltd Co.	Private Ltd. Co.	Others (specify)

b. Organized or unorganized sector?

5. How the organisation is approaching/canvassing tourists?

Own networking system:

Advertisement in Newspapers/Magazines/Internet:

Other methods (if yes, specify):

6.a. Mark the percentage of annual tourists arrivals to the organisation

Off season (specify the time)		Peak season (specify the time)	
Foreign	Domestic	Foreign	Domestic

b. Mark whether the tourist inflow to the organisation **increase (I), Decrease (D) and the Percentage of variation** (Put \checkmark mark)

Year	Foreign		Domestic			
	I/D	Percentage variation	Within the state		From outside the state	
			I/D	Percentage variation	I/D	Percentage variation
1997-98						
1998-99						
1999-00						
2000-01						
2001-02						
2002-03						
2003-04						
2004-05						
2005-06						
2006-07						

(Appendix 7.1 contd.)

7. Whether you have any conducted tour programmes? Yes/No

If yes, specify, State/National/International and the activities:

8. Apart from accommodation what are the other activities that you are providing to the tourists?

Sl.No	Facilities	Yes	No
1	Restaurant		
2	Attached bar		
3	Information services		
4	Entertainment and recreation		
5	Shopping		
6	Swimming pool		
7	Conference facility		
8	Banking & credit card		
9	Beauty saloon		
10.	Laundry		
11.	Health and massage		
12	Others (specify)		

9. Percentage of occupancy during off-season and the peak season

Year	Off Season	Peak season	Total Capacity
1997-98			
1998-99			
1999-00			
2000-01			
2001-02			
2002-03			
2003-04			
2004-05			
2005-06			
2006-07			

10. Whether off season discount is given: Yes/No

a) If yes, what percentage :

b) From which period (month) :

11. What was the (a) initial investment of this company? :

a. Mark whether the expenditure to the organisation **increase, decrease and the percentage of variation** (Put \checkmark mark)

Year	I/D	Percentage of variation
1997-98		
1998-99		
1999-00		
2000-01		
2001-02		
2002-03		
2003-04		
2004-05		
2005-06		
2006-07		

(Appendix 7.1 contd.)

12. Mark whether the number of workers in the organisation **increase (I), Decrease (D) and the Percentage of variation** (Put $\sqrt{\quad}$ mark)

Year	No. of persons						Total number of workers
	Full time			Part-time			
	I	D	%	I	D	%	
1997-98							
1998-99							
1999-'00							
2000-'01							
2001-'02							
2002-'03							
2003-'04							
2004-05							
2005-06							
2006-07							

13. How many persons are currently working here?

Type of job	Regular	Seasonal
Full time		
Part time		

14. What is the salary range of the workers in this organisation

Type of job	Regular	Seasonal
Full time		
Part time		

15. Among the present workers, how many are from:

This Panchayat/ municipality/corporation	This District	This State	Outside The state	Foreigners (if any)

16. Total turnover of last year?

17. Do you think that the tax rate in this sector is high? :

18. What are your suggestions to the existing tax rate in Kerala:

19. Major source of raw materials

Sources	Mark the % of the supply
From own chain services	
Local market	
Local/nearest city (specify the name)	
Outside the state (specify the place)	
Outside the country	
Total	100%

20. Specify, major source for,

Water	Fish	Rice

(Appendix 7.1 contd.)

21. What are the measures taken by the organisation to prevent environmental pollution?

No plastic anywhere	
Water recycling	
Solar energy	
Rain water harvesting	
Paper reuse	
Any other (specify)	

22. Whether you are following any environmental norms like GREENGLOBE or WTTC?

Yes	No	No idea

23. Whether you consider the following elements are either lacking or hindering further development of the organisation?

Sl.No	Elements	Yes	No	No idea
1	Attitudes of local people			
2	Availability and cost of land			
3	Availability of qualified personnel			
4	Interference by the officials			
5	Environmental restriction			
6.	Any other (specify)			

24. Are you satisfied with the present tourism policy of the Government of Kerala? If not, what are the policy improvements that you are expecting from the Government?

Appendix 7.2
Questionnaire 3: Survey on non-accommodation units

Survey conducted by K.Rajesh, Research Scholar, School of Industrial Fisheries, Cochin University of Science and Technology, Kochi-682 016. Phone: 0484 2354711, email:mailtokrajesh@gmail.com

Location :

1. Name and year of the establishment :
2. Nature of ownership :

Proprietorship	Partnership	Cooperative Society	Government Units	Others (specify)

3. Category (Put \surd mark)

Restaurant alone	
Cool bar & snacks bar	
Travel & Tour	
Houseboats	
Health/Rejuvenation	
Handicrafts	
Hand-weaves	
Others (Specify)	

4. What are the major sources of your raw materials/ supply of the products?

Sources	Mark the % of the supply
From own chain services	
Local market	
Local/nearest city (specify the name)	
Outside the state (specify the place)	
Outside the country	
Total	100%

5. Initial capital investment in Rs. :
6. Mark whether the annual investment expenditure incurred by this organisation is increasing or decreasing

Year	Increase	Decrease	Percentage of variation
1996-97			
1997-98			
1998-99			
1999-00			
2000-01			
2001-02			
2002-03			
2003-04			
2004-05			
2005-06			
2006-07			

(Appendix 7.2 contd.)

7. What is the amount of current year's expenditure :

8. How many persons have been/are working here?

Year	Full time	Part time
1996-97		
1997-98		
1998-99		
1999-00		
2000-01		
2001-02		
2002-03		
2003-04		
2004-05		
2005-06		
2006-07		

9. What is the salary range of workers in this organisation

Type of job	Regular	Seasonal
Full time		
Part time		

10. Among the present workers how many are from,

Local	District	State	Country	Foreigners (if any)

11. Average per day customers

Off season (Specify the time)		Peak season (Specify the time)	
Lowest	Highest	Lowest	Highest

12. Range of average receipts in Rs. :

Off season		Peak season	
Lowest	Highest	Lowest	Highest

13. Amount of previous days receipts?

14. Whether the organisation is operating throughout the year? : Yes/ No

If no, the period of operations in month :

15. Do you think that the tax rate in this sector (for your organisation) is high?

Yes/No

16. Are you satisfied with the present tourism policy of the Government of Kerala? If not, what are the policy improvements that you are expecting from the Government?

Appendix 7.3

Questionnaire 4: Survey on Local community

Survey conducted by K.Rajesh, Research Scholar, School of Industrial Fisheries, Cochin University of Science and Technology, Kochi-682 016. Phone: 0484 2354711, email:mailtokrajesh@gmail.com

Location :

1. Name of the respondent :
2. Occupation :
3. Education :
4. What are your major sources of income :
5. What are the positive economic impacts of tourism development in your locality? (Put \checkmark Mark)

Sl No	Variables	Very High	High	Medium	Low	Nil
1	Improves infrastructure facilities, (i.e., roads, bridges, transportation facilities, communication facilities)					
2	Creates new business opportunities					
3	Availability of more facilities and range of choices					
4	Better standard of services by shops, restaurants, and other commercial centres					
5	Increase in income and standard of living, if yes, the details:					
6	Value appreciation of local resources					
7	If any other, specify					

6. What are the negative economic impacts of tourism development in your locality? (Put \checkmark Mark)

Sl No	Variables	Very High	High	Medium	Low	Nil
1	Increases the price of goods and services					
2	Increases price of land and housing					
3	Increases cost of living					
4	Jobs may pay low wages					
5	Seasonal tourism creates high-risk and under or unemployment issues, if yes, specify					
6	Water shortages					
7	Exclusion of locals from natural resources					
8	Neglect of non-tourist recreation facilities					
9	Shortage of goods and services					
10	If any other, specify					

(Appendix 7.3 contd.)

7. What are the positive environmental and socio-cultural impacts of tourism development in your locality? (Put \checkmark Mark)

Sl No	Variables	Very High	High	Medium	Low	Nil
1	Protection of natural environment or prevention of further ecological decline					
2	A 'clean industry' image					
3	Improvement of the area's appearance					
4	Preservation of historical buildings and monuments					
5	Promotes cultural exchange					
6	Improves understanding of different communities					
7	Greater tolerance of social differences					
8	Increases the availability of recreation facilities and opportunities					
9	If any other, specify					

8. What are the negative environmental and socio-cultural impacts of tourism development in your locality? (Put \checkmark Mark)

Sl No	Variables	Very High	High	Medium	Low	Nil
1	Pollution of					
	a. Air					
	b. Water					
	c. Noise					
	d. Solid waste					
2.	Destruction of the environment (Flora and fauna, etc.)					
3.	Social or cultural problems like					
	a. Crime					
	b. Conflict between host and guest					
	b. Drugs					
	c. Prostitution					
	d. Smuggling					
	e. Increased drinking/alcoholism					
	f. Gambling					
	g. Child labour					
	h. Overcrowding					
	i. Unwanted life style changes					
4.	Loss of open space					
5.	Feeling of loss of control over community's future (Caused by outsider development)					
6.	New building styles fail to "fit" community					
7.	If any other, specify					

9. Are you satisfied with the tourism policy of Government? Do you have any suggestions or improvements for the given policy?

If yes, specify.

Bibliography

- Adams, K.M., 1990, 'Cultural Commoditization in Tana Toraja, Indonesia', *Cultural Survival Quarterly*, 14(1), 31-34.
- Agardy, M.T., 1993, 'Accommodating Ecotourism in Multiple Use Planning of Coastal and Marine Protected Areas', *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 20(3), 219-239.
- Agarwal, S., 1997, 'The Resort Cycle and Seaside Tourism: An Assessment of its Applicability and Validity', *Tourism Management*, 18(1), 65-73.
- Agarwal, S., 2002, 'Restructuring Seaside Tourism: The Resort Lifecycle', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1), 25-55.
- Aguayo, E., Exposito, P. and Lamelas, N., 2001, 'Econometric Model of Services Sector Development and Impact of Tourism in Latin American Countries', *Applied Econometrics and International Development*, 1(2), 1-10.
- Allen, L.R., Long, P.T., Perdue, R.R. and Kiehlbach, S., 1988, 'The Impact of Tourism Development on Resident's Perception of Community Life', *Journal of Travel Research*, 27(1), 16-21.
- Amelung, B., Beers, P.J., Rotmans, J., Asselt, I. M. and Hogervorst, J., 1999, *Global Tourism: Towards an Integrated Approach*, Maastricht University. (It can be downloaded from www.icis.unimaas.nl/publ/downs/99_08.pdf).
- Anon., 1990, *Women Harassed on Tours in Asia*, The New York Times, dated 28/01/1990.
- Anon., 2000, *World Tourism Council Picks Kerala as 'Partner State'*, The Indian Express, dated, 19/09/2000.
- Anon., 2001, *Plan to Promote Monsoon Tourism in the State*, The Hindu, dated 6/08/2001.
- Anon., 2002a, *Backwater Tourism Takes a Front Seat in Kerala*, The Indian Express, dated 26/03/2002.
- Anon., 2002b, *Houseboats Becoming Eco-friendly*, The Indian Express, dated 22/10/2002.
- Anon., 2003a, *God's Own Tourism*, The Indian Express, dated 21/05/2003.
- Anon., 2003b, *Report of the Tourism Centres: Veli, Peechi and Malabhuzha*, Asianet News, dated 21/03/2003.
- Anon., 2007a, *Tourism Money Misses Target*, The Economic Times, dated 7/06/2007.
- Anon., 2007b, *Kerala Cabinet Nod for Eleventh Plan Outlay*, The Hindu, dated 25/01/2007.
- Anon., 2007c, *National Waterway III Inaugurated in Kerala*, The Hindu, dated 21/11/2007.
- Anon., 2007d, *Keralathil Hartalukal 200*, Mathrubhumi News Paper, dated 21/07/2007.

- Anon., 2007e, *Borrowing SEZ idea, Centre Starts Working on Special Tourism Zones*, The Indian Express, dated 7/11/2007.
- Anon., 2009a, *Adventure Tourism Needs a Boost Tourism Train*, The Hindu, dated 6/08/2009.
- Anon., 2009b, *Private Firm Roped in to Set Up Sewage Treatment Plant*, The New Indian Express, dated 28/11/2009.
- Anon., 2009c, *Tale of Two Destinations*, The New Indian Express, dated 28/11/2009.
- APEC and WTTC, 1998, *The Economic Impact of Travel and Tourism Development in the APEC Region*, World Travel and Tourism Council, London.
- Archer, B., 1973, 'The Impact of Domestic Tourism', *Banger Occasion Paper in Economics-2*, University of Wales Press, Cardiff.
- Archer, B., 1976, 'The Anatomy of a Multiplier', *Regional studies* 10(1), 71-77.
- Archer, B., 1982, 'The Value of Multipliers and Their Policy Implication', *Tourism Management*, 3(4), 236-241.
- Ashley, C., Goodwin, H. and Roe, D., 2001, *Pro-poor Tourism Strategies: Making Tourism Work for the Poor*, Overseas Development Institute, International Institute for Environment and Development and Centre for Responsible Tourism, London.
- Bala, U., 1990, *Tourism in India: Policy and Perspective*, Arushi Prakashan, New Delhi.
- Berno, T. and Bricker, K., 2001, 'Sustainable Tourism Development: The Long Road from Theory to Practice', *International Journal of Economic Development*, 3(3), 1-18.
- Bhatia, A.K., 1994, *Tourism Development: Principles and Practices*, Sterling Publications Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi.
- Blain, C., Levy, S.E. and Ritchie, J.R.B., 2005, 'Destination Branding: Insights and Practices from Destination Management Organisations', *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(4), 328-338.
- Bosselman, F., (ed.), 1980, *In the Wake of the Tourist Managing Special Places in Eight Countries*, The Conservation Foundation, Washington DC.
- Boyd, W, S. and Butler, R.W., 1996, 'Managing Ecotourism: An Opportunity Spectrum Approach', *Tourism Management*, 17(8), 557-566.
- Bramwell, B. and Lane B., 2000, *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships – Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, Channel View Publications, Sydney.
- Brass, J.L., 1997, *Community Tourism Assessment Handbook*, Western Rural Development Center, Utah State University, Logan.
- Buckley, P.J. and Klemm, M., 1993, 'The Decline of Tourism in Northern Ireland-The Causes', *Tourism Management*, 14(3), 184-194.

- Buhalis, D., 2000, 'Marketing the Competitive Destination of the Future', *Tourism Management*, 21(1), 97-116.
- Burke, L., Kura, Y., Kassem, K., Revenga, C., Spalding, M. and McAllister, D., 2001, *Pilot Analysis of Global Ecosystems: Coastal Ecosystems*, World Resources Institute, Washington.
- Cape Town Declaration on Responsible Tourism, 2002, website, www.icrtourism.org/Capetown.shtml, accessed on 16/04/2002.
- Ceballos-Lascurian, H., 1996, *Tourism, Ecotourism and Protected Areas*, The World Conservation Union (IUCN) and the International Ecotourism Society, Gland.
- Ceballos-Lascurian, H., 2001, *Integrating Biodiversity into the Tourism Sector: Best Practice Guidelines*, a Report to UNEP/UNDP/GEF/BPSP, Programme of International Consultancy on Eco-tourism, Mexico.
- CEPUNEP, 1996, *Status of Protected Area Systems in the Wider Caribbean Region*, CEP Technical Report No.36 (It can be downloaded from www.cep.unep.org/pubs/Techreports/tr36en/index.html).
- CEPUNEP, 1997, *Coastal Tourism in the Wider Caribbean Region: Impacts and Best Management Practices*, CEP Technical Report No.38 (It can be downloaded from www.cep.unep.org/pubs/Techreports/tr38en/index.html).
- Chathopadhyay, K., 1995, *Economic Impact of Tourism Development: An Indian Experience*, Kanishka Publishers, New Delhi.
- Chen, J.S., 2003, 'Market Segmentation by Tourists' Sentiments', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(1), 178-193.
- Chris Choi, H. and Sirakaya, E., 2005, 'Measuring Residents' Attitude towards Sustainable Tourism: Development of Sustainable Tourism Attitude Scale', *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(5), 380-394.
- Clark, J.R., 1996, *Coastal Zone Management Handbook*, Lewis Publications, New York.
- Coast Learn, 2009, website, www.biodiversity.ru/coastlearn/tourism-eng/concapacity.html, accessed on 26/10/2009.
- Coccosis, H. and Parpairis, A., 2000, 'Tourism and the Environment: Some Observations on the Concept of Carrying Capacity'. In *Tourism and the Environment: Regional Economic, Cultural and Policy Issues*, Briassoulis, H. and Stralten J.V., (eds.), Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht.
- Cooper, C.P. and Ozdil, I., 1992, 'From Mass to Responsible Tourism: The Turkish Experience', *Tourism Management*, 13(4), 377-386.
- Cooper, D., Fletcher, J., Gilbert, D. and Wanhill, S., 1993, *Tourism: Principles and Practice*, Pitman Publishing, London.

- Crandall, 1994, 'The Social Impact of Tourism on Developing Regions and Its Measurement'. In *Travel, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, (2nd edition) Ritchie, J.R.B. and Goeldner, C.R., (eds.), John Wiley and Sons Inc., New York.
- Cukier-Snow, J. and Wall, G., 1993, 'Tourism Employment: Perspectives from Bali', *Tourism Management*, 14(3), 195-201.
- Dahl, C., 1993, 'Tourism Development on the Island of Pohnpei (Federated States of Micronesia): Sacredness, Control and Autonomy', *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 20(3), 241-265.
- Dasman, R.F., Milton, J.P. and Freeman, P.H., 1973, *Ecological Principles of Economic Development*, John Wiley & Sons, Inc. New York.
- Davies, T. and Cahill, S., 2002, *Environmental Implications of the Tourism Industry*, Discussion Paper 00-14, Resources for the Future, Washington.
- De Lacy, T., Battigin, M., Moore, S. and Noakes, S., 2002, *Public-Private Partnerships for Sustainable Tourism: Delivering a Sustainability Strategy for Tourism Destination*, APEC Tourism Workshop, Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation, Singapore City.
- De Ruyck, Soares, A.G. and MacLachlan, A., 1997, 'Social Carrying Capacity as a Management Tool for Sandy Beaches', *Journal of Coastal Research*, 13(1), 822-830.
- De Vellis, R. F., 1991, *Scale development: Theory and Applications*, Sage Publications, Newbury Park, CA.
- Denman, R., 2001, *Guidelines for Community-based Ecotourism Development*, WWF International, Gland.
- Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 2003, *Responsible Tourism Handbook: A Guide to Good Practice for Tourism Operators*, Ministry of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, Johannesburg.
- Department of Environmental Studies, 2002, *Defining, Measuring and Evaluating Carrying Capacity in European Tourism Destinations*, University of the Aegean, Athens.
- Digance, J., 2003, 'Pilgrimage at Contested Sites', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(1), 143-159.
- Diken, B. and Laustsen, C.B, 2004, 'Sea, Sun, Sex and the Discontents of Pleasure', *Tourist Studies*, 4(2), 99-114.
- Divisekera, S., 2003, 'A Model of Demand for International Tourism', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(1), 31-49.
- Dixon, J., Hamilton, K., Pagiola, S. and Segnestam, L., 2000, *Tourism and the Environment in the Caribbean: An Economic Framework*, Discussion Draft, Report No.20453-LAC, Environment Department, World Bank, Washington.

- Dobias, R.J., 1991, 'Management of Coastal Tourism Resources at Ban Don Bay, Surat Thani Province, Thailand'. In *Towards an Integrated Management of Tropical Coastal Resources*, Chou, L.M. and Chua, T.E., et al. (eds.), ICLARM Conference Proceedings 22, Penang.
- Dobson, S., (ed.) 2002, *Policy Directions for Coastal Tourism*, Simon Fraser University, Vancouver.
- Dunlap, R. E., Van Liere, K. D., Mertig, A. G., and Jones, R. E., 2000, 'Measuring Endorsement of the New Ecological Paradigm: A Revised NEP Scale', *Journal of Social Issues*, 56(3), 425-442.
- Eagles, P.F.J., Bowman, M.E. and Tao, T.C., 2001, *Guidelines for Tourism in Parks and Protected Areas of East Asia*, International Union for Conservation of Nature, Gland.
- Eagles, P.F.J., McCool, S.F. and Haynes, C.D., 2002, *Sustainable Tourism in Protected Areas: Guidelines for Planning and Management*, IUCN, Gland.
- Elliott, J., 1997, *Tourism: Politics and Public Sector Management*, Routledge, New York.
- Endresen, K., 1999, *Sustainable Tourism and Cultural Heritage*, NWHO, Oslo.
- Equations, 2002, *Indigenous Peoples, Wildlife and Ecotourism: Emerging Issues and Trends*, Equations, Bangalore.
- Equations, 2003, website, www.equitabletourism.org/stage/index.php, accessed on 6/6/2003.
- European Commission, 2000, *Towards Quality Coastal Tourism: Integrated Quality Management of Coastal Tourist Destinations*, Enterprise Directorate-General Tourism Unit, Brussels.
- Faulkner, B. and Valerio, P., 1995, 'An Integrative Approach to Tourism Demand Forecasting', *Tourism Management*, 16(1), 29-37.
- Fletcher, J.E. and Archer, B.H., (1991), 'The Development and Application of Multiplier Analysis'. In *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management*, Cooper, C.P., (ed.), Belhaven Press, London.
- Fodness, D., 1990, 'Consumer Perceptions of Tourist Attractions', *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(1), 3-10.
- Frechtling, D.C., 1994a, 'Assessing the Economic Impacts of Travel and Tourism-Introduction to Travel Economic Impact Estimation'. In *Travel, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, (2nd edition), Ritchie, J.R.B. and Goeldner, C.R., (eds.), John Wiley and Sons Inc., New York.
- Frechtling, D.C., 1994b, 'Assessing the Economic Impacts of Travel and Tourism-Measuring Economic Benefits'. In *Travel, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, (2nd edition) Ritchie, J.R.B. and Goeldner, C.R., (eds.), John Wiley and Sons Inc., New York.

- Frechtling, D.C., 1999a, 'The Tourism Satellite Account: Foundations, Progress and Issues', *Tourism Management*, 20(1), 163-170.
- Frechtling, D.C., 1999b, 'Economic Impact Models'. In *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook* (2nd edition), Witt, S.F. and Montinho, L., (eds.), Prentice Hall, New York.
- Gable, R. K. and Wolf, M., 1993, *Instrument Development in the Effective Domain* (2nd edition), Kluwer Academic Publishers, London.
- Garrod, B. and Wilson, J.C., (eds.), 2003, *Marine Ecotourism: Issues and Experiences*, Channel View Publications, Sydney.
- George, P.O., 2003, *Management of Tourism Industry in Kerala*, PhD Thesis, submitted to the Mahatma Gandhi University, Kottayam.
- Gill, A., 2003, 'Coastal Tourism: Workshop Backgrounders', *Ocean Management National Conference*, Simon Fraser University, Vancouver.
- Global Development Research Centre, 2008, website: www.gdrc.com, accessed on 12/4/2008.
- Global Development Research Centre, 2009, website, <http://www.gdrc.org/uem/footprints/carrying-capacity.html>, accessed on 16/8/2009.
- GOI, 1975, *Cost Benefit Study of Tourism*, National Council for Applied Economic Research, Government of India, New Delhi.
- GOI, 1984, *A Survey of Foreign Tourists in India 1982-83*, Indian Statistical Organization, Government of India, Calcutta.
- GOI, 2002, *Draft of National Tourism Policy*, Ministry of Tourism, Government of India, New Delhi.
- GOI, 2004, *India Tourism Statistics, 2003*, Market Research Division, Ministry of Tourism, Government of India, New Delhi.
- GOI, 2005, website of Planning Commission, <http://planningcommission.gov.in/plans/planrel/fiveyr/8th/vol1/8ch5.htm>, accessed on 11/04/2005.
- GOI, 2006, *Local Governance in Kerala: Status Paper*. Administrative Staff College of India, Hyderabad.
- GOI, 2007, *Report of the Working Group on Tourism-11th Five Year Plan (2007-12)*, Ministry of Tourism, Government of India, New Delhi.
- GOI, 2008a, *Tourism Statistics 2007*, Ministry of Tourism, Government of India, New Delhi.
- GOI, 2008b, *Eleventh Five Year Plan 2007-12. Inclusive Growth*, Vol.I, Planning Commission, Government of India, New Delhi.
- GOI, 2008c, *Annual Report 2007-08*, Ministry of Tourism, Government of India, New Delhi.

- GOK, 1989, *Report of the Task Force on Tourism*, State Planning Board, Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.
- GOK, 1993, *Kerala Fisheries: An Overview 1992*, Department of Fisheries, Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.
- GOK, 1994, *Tourist Statistics 1986-93*, Department of Tourism, Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.
- GOK, 1998, *Tourist Statistics 1997*, Department of Tourism, Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.
- GOK, 1999, *Ecotourism in Kerala*, Department of Public Relations, Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.
- GOK, 2000, *Tourist Statistics 1998*, Department of Tourism, Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.
- GOK, 2001a, *Tourism Vision 2025*, Department of Tourism, Government of Kerala Thiruvananthapuram.
- GOK, 2001b, *Tourist Statistics 1999 & 2000*, Department of Tourism, Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.
- GOK, 2002a, *Master Pan Fish Book 1*, (Data on the Water Resources for the Development of Inland Fisheries in Kerala), Department of Fisheries, Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.
- GOK, 2002b, *Tourist Statistics 2001*, Department of Tourism, Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.
- GOK, 2002c, *Report of the Committee on Industry and Information Technology*, State Planning Board, Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.
- GOK, 2003, *Tourist Statistics 2002*, Department of Tourism, Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.
- GOK, 2004, website, www.kerala-tourism-houseboats.com/festivals-arattupooram-pattu/boat-race-vallomkali/boatrace-kerala.shtm, accessed on 6/04/2004.
- GOK, 2005, website, www.fisheries.kerala.gov.in/glance.htm, accessed on 20.03.2006.
- GOK, 2006, 'Kerala Government - General Features', (Retrieved on October 12, 2006 from Kerala Government Official website, It can be downloaded from www.kerala.gov.in/knowkerala/generalfeatures.htm).
- GOK, 2007, *Tourist Statistics 2006*, Department of Tourism, Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.
- GOK, 2009a, *Kerala Tourism Statistics 2007*, Department of Tourism, Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.

- GOK, 2009b, *Economic Review 2008*, State Planning Board, Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.
- Gollier, C, Julien, B. and Treich, N., 2000, 'Scientific Progress and Irreversibility: An Economic Interpretation of the Precautionary Principle', *Journal of Public Economics*, 75, 229-253.
- Goodrich, J.N., 1978, 'A New Approach to Image Analysis Through Multidimensional Scaling', *Journal of Travel Research*, 16(1), 3-7.
- Goodwin, H.J., Kent, I.J., Parker, K.T. and Walpole, M.J., 1997, *Tourism, Conservation & Sustainable Development: Volume I, Comparative Report*, Unpublished, Durrell Institute of Conservation and Ecology, University of Kent, Canterbury.
- Gunn, C. A., 1994, *Tourism Planning* (2nd edition), Taylor and Francis, New York.
- Gunn, C. A., 1998, *Tourism Planning: Basics, Concepts and Cases* (3rd edition), Taylor and Francis, New York.
- Gursoy, D., Jurowski, C. and Uysal, M., 2002, 'Resident Attitudes: A Structural Modelling Approach,' *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1), 79-105.
- Hall, C.M., 2001, 'Trends in Ocean and Coastal Tourism: The End of the Last Frontier?', *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 44(9-10), 601-618.
- Harriott, V.J., 2002, *Marine Tourism Impacts and their Management on the Great Barrier Reef*, Technical Report No 46, Cooperative Research Centre: Reef Research Centre, Townsville.
- Harrison, D., 1994, 'Tourism and Prostitution: Sleeping with the Enemy?- The case of Swaziland', *Tourism Management*, 15(6), 435-443.
- Holden, A., 2003, 'In Need of New Environmental Ethics for Tourism?', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(1), 94-108.
- Hudman, L.E. and Hawkins, D.E., 1989, *Tourism in Contemporary Society: An Introductory Text*, Prentice Hall, New Jersey.
- Hudson, S. and Ritchie, J.R.B., 2006, 'Promoting Destinations via Film Tourism: An Empirical Identification of Supporting Marketing Initiatives', *Journal of Travel Research*, 44(2), 387-396.
- Hughes, H.L., 1994, 'Tourism Multiplier Studies: A More Juicious Approach', *Tourism Management* 15(6), 403-406.
- Huttche, C.M., White, A.T. and Flores, M.M., 2002, *Sustainable Coastal Tourism Handbook for the Philippines*, Coastal Resource Management Project of the Department of Environment and Natural Resources and the Department of Tourism, Cebu City.
- ILO., 2001, *Human Resource Development, Employment and Globalization in the Hotel, Catering and Tourism Sector*, International Labour Organization, Geneva.

- Inman, C., Ranjeva, J.P., Segura, G., Mesa, S.N. and Andrea, Y. P., 1998, *Destination: Central America A Conceptual Framework for Regional Tourism Development*, Latin American Centre for Competitiveness and Sustainable Development, Turrilba. (It can be downloaded from <http://www.incae.ac.cr/EN/clacds/nuestras-investigaciones/pdf/cen603.pdf>).
- Inskeep, E., 1991, *Tourism Planning: An Integrated and Sustainable Development Approach*, Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York.
- Jacob, T.G., 1993, *Tales of the Tourism from Kovalam*, Odyssey, Thiruvananthapuram.
- Jafari, J. and Graburn, N.H.H., 1991, 'Introduction: Tourism and Social Science', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 18(1), 1-11.
- Jafari, J., 2000, *Encyclopaedia of Tourism*, Routledge, London.
- Jager, W., Van Asselt, M.B.A., Rotmans, J., Vlek, C.A.J. and Costerman Boodt, P., 1997, *Consumer Behaviour: A Modelling Perspective in the Context of Integrated Assessment of Global Change*, Globo Report Series No. 17, National Institute for Public Health and the Environment, Bilthoven.
- James, P.C., 2001, *Economic Impact of Tourism in Idukki District*, MPhil Thesis, Dept. Applied Economics, Cochin University of Science and Technology, Cochin.
- Jayasree, A.K., 2001, 'Tourism and Women: Lessons from Kovalam', (Retrieved on October 25, 2001 from *THRANI Centre for Crisis Control*, It can be downloaded from <http://www.thrani.com>).
- Johnson, M., 1995, 'Czech and Slovak Tourism-Patterns, Problems and Prospects', *Tourism Management*, 16(1), 21-28.
- Joppe, M., 1996, 'Sustainable Community Tourism Development Revisited', *Tourism Management*, 17(7), 475-479.
- Jurowski, C., Uysal, M. and Williams, D. R., 1997, 'A Theoretical Analysis of Host Community Resident Reactions to Tourism', *Journal of Travel Research*, 36(2), 3-11.
- Kakkar, A., 2003, 'Tourism', *Annual Capital Market Review-'03*, Bombay Stock Exchange, Bombay.
- Kamalakshy, M.V., 1996, *Hotel Industry in Kerala with Special Reference to Tourism*, PhD Thesis, School of Management Studies, Cochin University of Science and Technology, Cochin.
- Kamra, K.K., 2001, *Tourism: Theory, Planning and Practice*, Indus Publications, New Delhi.
- Kenchington, R., 1991, 'Tourism Development in the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park', *Ocean & Shoreline Management*, 15(1), 57-78.
- Kenchington, R., 1993, 'Tourism in Coastal and Marine Environments-A Recreational Perspective', *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 19(1), 1-16.

- Kerala Shastra Sahitya Parishad, 2003, *Tourism Janakeeya Badal*, Kerala Shastra Sahitya Parishad, Thiruvananthapuram.
- Kerala Tourism Watch, 2009, website: <http://www.keralatourismwatch.org/> accessed on 5/08/2009.
- Khan, H., Seng, C.F. and Cheong, W.K., 1990, 'Tourism Multiplier Effects on Singapore', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17(3), 408-418.
- Kline, J.D., 2001, *Tourism and Natural Resource Management: A General Overview of Research and Issues*, Gen. Tech. Rep. PNW-GTR-506, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Portland.
- Knecht, R.W. and Archer, J., 1993, 'Integration in the US Coastal Management Program', *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 21(1-3), 183-200.
- Korakandy, R., 2000, *Recreational Fisheries Development in Kerala*, Daya Publishing House, Delhi.
- Korakandy, R., 2005, *Coastal Zone Management-A Study of the Political Economy of Sustainable Development*, (in two volumes), Kalpaz Publications, Delhi.
- Krause, G.H., 1995, 'Tourism and Waterfront Renewal: Assessing Residential Perception in Newport, Rhode Island, USA', *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 26(3), 179-203.
- Kreag, G., 2001, *The Impacts of Tourism*, Minnesota Sea Grant, University of Minnesota.
- Krippenhorf, J., 1997, *The Holidaymakers: Understanding the Impact of Leisure and Travel*, Heinemann, London.
- Kruskal, J.B. and Wish, M., 1978, *Multidimensional Scaling*, Beverly Hills, London.
- Kumar, A.M.K., 1998, *Psychographic and Demographic Profiles of Foreign Tourists Visiting Kerala with Special Reference to Spending Pattern*, PhD Thesis, Department of Applied Economics, Cochin University of Science and Technology, Cochin.
- Lawrence, T.B., Wickins, D. and Phillips, N., 1997, 'Managing Legitimacy in Ecotourism', *Tourism Management*, 18(5), 307-316.
- Lego, R., and Shaw, R.N., 1992, 'Convergent Validity in Tourism Research: An Empirical Analysis', *Tourism Management*, 13(4), 387-393.
- Leopold, L.B., 1971, *A Procedure for Evaluating Environmental Impact*, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington.
- Liang, K. and Wood, N., 2001, *The Impact of the Tourism Sector on the Vermont Economy 1999-2000*, The Department of Community Development and Applied Economics, University of Vermont, Burlington.
- Likorsh, L.J. and Jenkins, C.L., 1997, *An Introduction to Tourism*, Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford.

- Lindberg, K. and Johnson, R.L., 1997, 'The Economic Values of Tourism's Social Impacts', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(1), 90-146.
- Lindberg, K., 1999, Economic Aspects of Ecotourism, In *Ecotourism: A Guide for Planners & Managers* (Volume 2), Lindberg, K., Wood, E. and Engeldrum, D., (eds.), Ecotourism Society, Bennington.
- Liu, J. and Var, T., 1982, 'Differential Multipliers for Accommodation Sector', *Tourism Management*, 3(3), 177-187.
- Louise, C., 1994, 'The Social Impact of Tourism on Developing Regions and its Measurement'. In *Travel, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, (2nd edition), Ritchie, J.R.B. and Goeldner, C.R., (eds.), John Wiley and Sons Inc., New York.
- Mac Leod, M. and Cooper, J.A.G., 2005, 'Carrying Capacity in Coastal Areas'. In *Encyclopedia of Coastal Science*, Schwartz, M.L., (ed.), Springer, New York.
- Malayala Manorama Year Book, 2001, '*Manorama Yearbook-2001*', Malayala Manorama, Kottayam.
- Mathieson, A. and Wall, G., 1982, *Tourism: Economic, Physical, and Social Impacts*, Longman, London.
- Mathrubhumi Year Book, 2009, *Mathrubhumi Year Book Plus-2009*, Vol.I-III, Mathrubhumi, Kozhikode.
- Mc Harg, I.L., 1969, *Design with Nature*, Doubleday, New Jersey.
- McCabe, S., 2005, 'Who is a Tourist: A Critical Review', *Tourist Studies*, 5(1), 85-106.
- Meyer, D., Ashley, C. and Poultney, C., 2004, *Business Implementation of Pro-Poor Tourism*, Brief No. 6, Business Implementation of Pro-Poor Tourism Series, Department for International Development, Johannesburg (It can be downloaded from www.pptpilot.org.za).
- Mill, R.C. and Morrison, A.M., 1985, *The Tourism System: An Introductory Text*, Prentice Hall, New Jersey.
- Miller, M.L. and Auyong, J., 1991, 'Coastal Zone Tourism: A Potent Force Affecting Environment and Society', *Marine Policy*, 15(2), 75-99.
- Miller, M.L. and Auyong, J., 2003, *Proceedings of the World Congress on Coastal and Marine Tourism, 1999*, Institute of Marine Affairs, University of Washington, Vancouver.
- Miller, M.L., 1993, 'The Rise of Coastal and Marine Tourism', *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 20(3), 181-199.
- Milne, S., 1987, 'Differential Multipliers', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 14(4), 499-515.
- Milne, S., 1998, 'Tourism and Sustainable Development: Exploring the Global-Local Nexus'. In *Sustainable Tourism: A Geographical Perspective*, Hall, C.M. and Lew, A.A., (eds.), Longman Essex, UK.

- Moscardo, G., Pearce, P., Green, D. and O'Leary, J.T., 2001, 'Understanding Coastal and Marine Tourism Demand from Three European Markets: Implications for the Future of Ecotourism', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 9(3), 212-227.
- Murphy, P.E., 1985, *Tourism: A Community Approach*, Methuen, New York.
- Nandakumar, D. and Murali Krishna, 1998, *Mapping the Extent of Coastal Zone Regulation Violations of the Indian Coast*, A Report Prepared for the National Fish Workers Forum, Thiruvananthapuram.
- Naqshband, G., 1980, 'Integration of Tourism and Environment', *Eastern Economist*, 75(24), 1297-3000.
- Netmba, 2007, website, www.netmba.com/statistics, accessed on 7/11/2007
- Neto, F., 2002, 'Sustainable Tourism, Environmental Protection and Natural Resource Management: Paradise on Earth?', *International Colloquium on Regional Governance and Sustainable Development in Tourism-Driven Economies*, 20-22 February, Cancun, United Nations, New York.
- Neto, F., 2003a, 'A New Approach to Sustainable Tourism Development', *ST/ESA/ 2003/ DP/ 29, DESA Discussion Paper No.29*, Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations, New York.
- Neto, F., 2003b, 'A New Approach to Sustainable Tourism Development: Moving Beyond Environmental Protection', *Natural Resources Forum*, 27(3), 212-222.
- Nickerson, N.P., 1996, *Foundations of Tourism*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Noronha, L., 2004, 'Coastal Management Policy: Observations from an Indian Case', *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 47(1-2), 63-77.
- O'Fallon, C.E., 1994, *The Role of Central Government in Tourism: A Public Choice Perspective*, Unpublished PhD thesis, Lincoln University.
- Oberio S., 1978, 'Role of Travel Agents in the Promotion of Tourism', *Capital*, 181(4523), 1052-1054.
- OECD, 2000, *Measuring the Role of Tourism in OECD Economies*, Organization of Economic Co-operation for Development, Paris.
- Ogilvie, F.W., 1933, *The Tourist Movement: An Economic Study*, Staples, London.
- Ojha, J.M., 1982, Selling Benign Tourism: Case References from Indian Scene, *Tourism Recreation Research*, 7(1), 23-24.
- Orams, M., 1999, *Marine Tourism: Development, Impacts and Management*, Routledge, New York.
- Padmanabhan, P.G., 2006, *Kumarakom: An Insider's Introduction*, Learners Book House, Kottayam.

- Page, S., 1999, *Tourism and Development: The Evidence from Mauritius, South Africa and Zimbabwe*, Overseas Development Institute, London. (It can be downloaded from www.odi.org.uk/IEDG/Publications/finalpage.pdf).
- Pandey, R.N., Chettri, P., Kunwar, R.R. and Ghimire, G., 1995, *Case Study on the Effects of Tourism on Culture and the Environment in Nepal*, UNESCO, Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok.
- Pearce, D., 1989, *Tourism Development*, (2nd edition), Longman Scientific and Technical, London.
- Pearce, D.G. and Schott, C., 2005, 'Tourism Distribution Channels: The Visitors Perspective', *Journal of Travel Research*, 44(8), 50-63.
- Pongsirirushakun, A. and Naewmalee, K., 2003, *An Analysis of Foreign Tourist Expenditure in Thailand*, AT10 Research Conference, Thailand.
- Poria, Y., Butler, R. and Airey, D., 2003, 'The Core of Heritage Tourism,' *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(1), 238–254.
- Poser, D.J., 1998, *The Tourism Development of Kerala (India)*, Hebron, Germany
- Pradhan, A., 1998, 'Indian Tourism-Glorious Legacy', *The Sunday Pioneer on Holiday*, 27th September, 1998.
- Pretes, M., 2003, 'Tourism and Nationalism', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(1), 125–142.
- Prideaux, B., 2000, 'The Resort Development Spectrum-A New Approach to Modelling Resort Development', *Tourism Management*, 21(3), 225-240.
- Prosser, R., 1994, 'Societal Change and Growth in International Tourism'. In *Ecotourism: A Sustainable Option?*, Cater, E. and Lowman, G., (eds.), John Wiley and Sons, Chichester.
- Punia, R.K., 1994, *Tourism Management*, APH Publishing, New Delhi.
- Raffensperger C. and Tickner, J. (eds.), 1999, *Protecting Public Health and the Environment: Implementing the Precautionary Principle*, Island Press, Washington DC.
- Ramachandrudu, G., 1997, *Health Planning in India*, APH Publishing, New Delhi.
- Ravibhushan, K., 1998, *Coastal Tourism and Environment*, Ashish Publishing House, New Delhi.
- Rees, W., 1992, 'Ecological Footprints and Appropriated Carrying Capacity: What Urban Economics Leaves Out', *Environment and Urbanization*, 4(1), 121–130.
- Richter, L. K., 1989, *The Politics of Tourism in Asia*, University of Hawaii Press, Honolulu.

- Rogers, M., Sinden, J. and De Lacy, T., 1997, 'The Precautionary Principle for Environmental Management: A Defensive Expenditure Application', *Journal of Environmental Management*, 51(4), 343-360.
- Romiti, C., 2005, *Kerala: A Travellers Delight*, Equations, Bangalore.
- Roy, A.M., 1970, 'Bridging the Information Gap for Attracting Foreign Tourists', *Capital*, 165(4137), 793-795.
- Ryan, C. and Kinder, R., 1996, 'Sex, Tourism and Sex Tourism: Fulfilling Similar Needs?', *Tourism Management*, 17(7), 507-518.
- Ryan, C., 1993, 'Crime, Violence, Terrorism and Tourism-An Accidental or intrinsic Relationship?', *Tourism Management*, 14(6), 173-183.
- Samuelson, P.A. and Nordhaus, W.D., 1989, *Economics*, 13th ed., Mc Graw-Hill Book Company, New York.
- Saveriades, A., 2000, 'Establishing the Social Tourism Carrying Capacity for the Tourist Resorts of the East Coast of the Republic of Cyprus', *Tourism Management*, 21(2), 147-156.
- Scheyvens, R., 1999, 'Ecotourism and the Empowerment of Local Communities', *Tourism Management*, 20(2), 245-249.
- Scheyvens, R., 2002, 'Backpacker Tourism and Third World Development', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1), 144-164.
- Selvam, M., 1993, 'Tourism under Plans', *Blue Supplement to the Monthly Commentary*, Indian Institute of Public Opinion, New Delhi.
- Sharma, D.S., 1978, 'How Banks Can Help Tourism', *The Banker*, 26(6), 11-13.
- Singh, R., 1986, *Kerala: The Spice Coast of India*, Thomas and Hudson, London.
- Singh, S., 1997, 'Developing Human Resources for the Tourism Industry with Reference to India', *Tourism Management*, 18(5), 299-306.
- Singh, S., 2001, 'Indian Tourism: Policy, Performance and Pitfalls'. In *Tourism and the Less Developed World: Issues & Case Studies*, Harrisson, G., (ed.), CABI, Wallingford.
- Sinha, P.C., (ed.), 1998, *Geography and Structure of Tourism and Travel*, Anmol Publications, New Delhi.
- Smeral, E. and Witt, S.F., 1992, 'The Impacts of Eastern Europe and 1992 on International Tourism Demand', *Tourism Management*, 13(4), 368-375.
- Smith, B. C., 1985, *Decentralisation: The Territorial Dimension of the State*, Georgian University, Georgia.
- Sorensen, J., 1993, 'The International Proliferation of Integrated Coastal Zone Management Efforts', *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 21(1-3), 129-148.

- Srivastava, K.K., 1983, 'Tourism in India', *Yojana*, 27(10), 7-9.
- Stewart, M.C., 1993, 'Sustainable Tourism Development and Marine Conservation Regimes', *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 20(3), 201-217.
- Stynes, D.J., 1997, *Economic Impacts of Tourism: A Handbook for Tourism Professionals*, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois. (It can be downloaded from <http://www.msu.edu/course/prr/840/econimpact/>)
- Stynes, D.J., 1999, *Guidelines for Measuring Visitor Spending*, Michigan State University, Michigan.
- Stynes, D.J., 2001, *Economic Importance of Tourism to Marquette County*, Michigan University, Michigan.
- Sudheer, S.V., 1993, *Tourism Problems and Prospects*, Sage Publications, New Delhi.
- Swarbrooke, J., 1999, *Sustainable Tourism Management*, CABI, Wallingford.
- TCMP, 2001, *Tanzania Coastal Tourism Situation Analysis*, Working Document 5057, Tanzania Coastal Management Partnership Group, Tanzania.
- TCS, 2000, *Economic Benefits of Tourism Sector in Kerala*, Report submitted to the Department of Tourism, Government of Kerala, Unpublished, Thiruvananthapuram.
- TERI, 2002, *Coastal Tourism, Environment and Sustainable Local Development*, Tata Energy Research Institute, New Delhi.
- Thornton, P. R., Shaw, G. and Williams, A.M., 1997, 'Tourist Group Holiday Decision Making and Behaviour: the Influence of Children', *Tourism Management*, 18(5), 287-297.
- Tisdell, C., 1997, 'Tourism Development in India and Bangladesh: General Issues, Illustrated by Ecotourism in the Sunderbans', *Tourism Recreation Research*, 22(1), 26-33.
- Tohamy, S. and Swinscoe, A., 2000, *The Economic Impact of Tourism in Egypt*, Working Paper No.40, The Egyptian Centre for Economic Studies, Cairo.
- Tosun, C. and Jenkins, C.L., 1996, 'Regional Planning Approaches to Tourism Development: The case of Turkey', *Tourism Management*, 17(7), 519-531.
- Tosun, C., 2000, 'Limits to Community Participation in the Tourism Development Process in Developing Countries', *Tourism Management*, 21(6), 613-633.
- Tosun, C., 2002, 'Host perceptions of Impacts: A Comparative Tourism Study', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1), 231-253.
- Towner, J., 1985, 'The Grand Tour: A Key Phase in the History of Tourism', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 12(3), 297-333.
- Towner, J., 1995, 'What is Tourism's History?', *Tourism Management*, 16(5), 339-343.

- Turner, M. and Hulme, D., 1997, *Governance, Administration and Development: Making the State Work*, Macmillan Press Ltd, Houndmills.
- Tyrrel, T.J. and Johnston, R.J., 2006, 'The Economic Impacts of Tourism: A Special Issue', *Journal of Tourism Research*, 43(1), 3-7.
- Ummat, R.C., 1979, 'Fostering Tourism-Why Dither?', *Eastern Economist*, 73(16), 796-804.
- UNCSD, 1999a, *Tourism and Sustainable Development*, Department of Economic and Social Council, Commission on Sustainable Development Seventh Session, Economic and Social Council, United Nations, New York.
- UNCSD, 1999b, *The Global Importance of Tourism*, Department of Economic and Social Council Commission on Sustainable Development Seventh Session, Economic and Social Council, United Nations, New York.
- UNEP, 2002, *Capacity Building for Sustainable Development: An Overview of UNEP Environmental Capacity Development Initiatives*, United Nations Environment Programme, Nairobi.
- UNEP, 2008, website, [www.unep.org/Documents. Multilingual/ Default.asp?document/ID=78&articleID=1163](http://www.unep.org/Documents/Multilingual/Default.asp?document/ID=78&articleID=1163), accessed on 12.06.2008.
- UNEP/CBD, 1999, *Development of Approaches and Practices for the Sustainable Use of Biological Resources, Including Tourism*, United Nations Environment Programme Convention on Biological Diversity, Montreal.
- UNEP/CBD, 2001, *Report of the Workshop on Biological Diversity and Tourism*, United Nations Environment Programme Convention on Biological Diversity, Montreal.
- UNESCAP, 1999a, *Emerging Issues and Developments at the Regional Level: Transport, Communications, Tourism and Infrastructure Development*, Draft Plan of Action for Sustainable Tourism Development in the Asian and Pacific Region, United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok.
- UNESCAP, 1999b, *Opportunities and Challenges for Tourism Investment: A case study of the Republic of Korea and reports from selected countries in Asia and the Pacific*, Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific Tourism Review No.21, United Nations, New York.
- UNESCAP, 2001a, *Promotion of Investment in Tourism Infrastructure*, United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, United States, New York.
- UNESCAP, 2001b, *Managing Sustainable Tourism Development*, Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific Tourism Review, No.22, United Nations, New York.
- UNESCAP, 2001c, *Plan of Action for Sustainable Tourism Development in the Asian & Pacific Region (1999-2005)-A Progress Report*, United Nations, New York.

- UNWTO, 2000, *Sustainable Development of Tourism: A Compilation of Good Practices*, United Nations World Tourism Organisation, Madrid.
- UNWTO, 2001, *Compendium of Tourism Statistics* (2001 edition), United Nations World Tourism Organisation, Madrid.
- UNWTO, 2006, *Tourism Highlights 2006*, United Nations World Tourism Organisation, Madrid.
- UNWTO, 2007, website on tourism statistics, <http://www.unwto.org/statistics/index.htm>, accessed on 6/05/2007.
- UNWTO, 2008a, *Tourism Highlights 2008*, United Nations World Tourism Organisation, Madrid.
- UNWTO, 2008b, *World Tourism Barometer*, United Nations World Tourism Organisation, Madrid.
- UNWTO, 2009, website: www.unwto.org, wto-tourism.org, assessed on 4/15/2009.
- Vavra, T.G., 1997, *Improving your Measurement of Customer Satisfaction*, The American Society for Quality, Milwaukee, WI.
- Vijayakumar, B., 1995, *Sustainable Development of Ecotourism in Kerala*, PhD Thesis, Department of Future Studies, University of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.
- Wall, G. and Ross, S., 1999a, 'Ecotourism: Towards Congruence between Theory and Practice', *Tourism Management*, 20(1), 123-132.
- Wall, G. and Ross, S., 1999b, 'Evaluating Ecotourism: The Case of North Sulawesi, Indonesia', *Tourism Management*, 20(6), 673-682.
- Wall, G. and Towner, 1991, 'History and Tourism', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 18(1), 71-84.
- Ward T., Butler, E. and Hill, B., 1998, *Environmental Indicators for National State of The Environment Reporting – Estuaries and the Sea, Australia: State of The Environment* (Environmental Indicator Reports), Department of the Environment, Canberra.
- WCED, 1987, *Our Common Future*, Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Wikipedia, 2006, website: <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tourism>, accessed on 26/04/2006.
- Wikipedia, 2007, website: <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tourism>, accessed on 16/8/2007.
- Wikipedia, 2008, website: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Precautionary_principle, accessed on 16/04/2008.
- Williams, M., 2002, 'The Political Economy of Tourism Liberalization: Gender and the GATS', *Occasional Paper Series on Gender, Trade and Development*, International Gender Trade Network, Washington.

- Williams, P.W., 1994, 'Frameworks for Assessing Tourism's Environmental Impacts'. In *Travel, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, (2nd edition), Ritchie, J.R.B. and Goeldner, C.R., (eds.), John Wiley and Sons Inc., New York.
- Wilson, D., 1997, 'Paradoxes of Tourism in Goa', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(1), 52-75.
- Witt, C.A. and Muhlemann, A.P., 1994, 'The Implementation of Total Quality Management in Tourism: Some Guidelines', *Tourism Management*, 15(6), 416-424.
- Wong, P.P., 1998, 'Coastal Tourism Development in Southeast Asia: Relevance and Lessons for Coastal Zone Management', *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 38(2), 89-109.
- Wootton, G. and Stevens, T., 1995, 'Business Tourism: A Study of the Market for Hotel-Based Meetings and its Contribution to Wales's Tourism', *Tourism Management*, 16(4), 305-313.
- WTTC, 2003, *Kerala: The Impact of Travel and Tourism on Jobs and the Economy*, World Travel and Tourism Council, London
- Yunis, E., 2003, 'The Importance of Sustainable Practices in the Tourism Industry', Paper Presented at the *International Conference on RES for Island, Tourism and Water, Desalination*, 26-28 May, 2003, Crete.
- Zee, D., 1992, *Interpretation as Input into Land Evaluation for Recreation*, the International Institute for Geo-Information Science and Earth Observation, Enschede.
- Zhang, J., 2001, 'Analysis of Coastal Tourism with the Aid of Remote Sensing', paper presented at the 22nd *Asian Conference on Remote Sensing*, National University of Singapore, Singapore city.
- Zhou, D., Yanagida, J.F., Chakravorty, U. and Leung, P.S., 1997, 'Estimating Economic Impacts from Tourism', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(1), 76-89.