ROLE OF ALTERNATIVE TOURISM IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF VILLAGES IN KERALA WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO NATURE-TOURISM, ECO-TOURISM AND ENDOGENOUS TOURISM PROJECTS

Thesis submitted to
Cochin University of Science and Technology
for the award of the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
under the Faculty of Social Sciences

by

DHANYA BABU V.

Reg No: 3718

under the supervision of Dr. MOLI P. KOSHY

Professor& Director



SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT STUDIES COCHIN UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY COCHIN- 682022 August 2017

Role of Alternative Tourism in the Development of Villages in Kerala with Special Reference to Nature-Tourism, Eco-Tourism and Endogenous Tourism Projects

Ph.D. Thesis under the Faculty of Social Sciences

Author

Dhanya Babu V.

Research Scholar School of Management Studies Cochin University of Science and Technology Kochi - 682022

Supervising Guide

Dr. Moli P. KoshyProfessor& Director
School of Management Studies
Cochin University of Science and Technology
Kochi - 682022

School of Management Studies Cochin University of Science and Technology Kochi – 682022

August, 2017



School of Management Studies Cochin University of Science and Technology Kochi-682022

Dr. Moli P. Koshy Professor & Director

Certificate

Certified that the thesis entitled "ROLE OF ALTERNATIVE TOURISM IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF VILLAGES IN KERALA WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO NATURE-TOURISM, ECO-TOURISM AND ENDOGENOUS TOURISM PROJECTS" is the record of bona fide research work done by Ms. DHANYA BABU V., under my supervision. The thesis is worth submitting for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Cochin - 682022 Dr. Moli P. Koshy
Date: Research Supervisor

DHANYA BABU V. [Reg. No. 3718]

Ph. D. Research Scholar (Part -Time) School of Management Studies Cochin University of Science and Technology Cochin - 682 022

Declaration

I, Dhanya Babu V., hereby declare that the thesis entitled "ROLE OF ALTERNATIVE TOURISM IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF VILLAGES IN KERALA WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO NATURE-TOURISM, ECO-TOURISM AND ENDOGENOUS TOURISM PROJECTS" is a record of bona fide research work done by me under the supervision of Dr. Moli P. Koshy, Professor & Director, School of Management Studies, Cochin University of Science and Technology.

I further certify that the thesis has not previously formed the basis for the award of any Degree/Diploma/Associateship/Fellowship or other similar title of recognition.

Cochin	
Date:	Dhanya Babu V.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I have received the support, encouragement and help from various quarters during the course of my Ph.D. work. It is a pleasant task to express my thanks to all those who contributed in many ways throughout the study and made it an unforgettable experience.

To commence with, I pay my obeisance to GOD, the Almighty, to have bestowed upon me good health, enthusiasm, inspiration and zeal.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my research guide Dr. Moli P. Koshy, for her excellent guidance, care and patience. I am grateful to her for providing me with a conducive atmosphere to do my research work. Despite her busy schedule, she devoted her time to review the progress of my work, made necessary corrections and gave her valuable suggestions. She had always been with me, with a motherly touch, whenever I needed it the most. Her constant guidance, cooperation and support have always kept me going ahead. I feel privileged to be associated with a person like her during my life.

I remember with profound respect and deepest admiration, the generous help and cooperation extended me by Dr. Mary Joseph T., former Director, School of Management Studies, CUSAT.

Special thanks are due to Dr. Manoj Edward, Assistant Professor, School of Management Studies, CUSAT and member of my Doctoral Committe, who helped me a lot with his valuable suggestions.

With profound gratitude, let me acknowledge the immense support given by Dr. K. B. Pavithran and Dr. M.Bhasi, former directors of SMS CUSAT.

I express my heartfelt gratitude and obligation to Dr. K. Krishnan Namboothiri, Professor, Department of Management Studies, CUSAT, for his valuable corrections and thought-provoking pieces of advice.

I tender my sincere gratitude to all the respected faculty members in the Department of Management Studies, CUSAT, for their valuable and timely assistance.

My warm appreciation is due to the librarians at the School of Management Studies, CUSAT, who provided me the necessary facilities to carry out the literature review in a good manner.

I express my heartfelt gratitude and obligation to all the non-teaching staff members in the Department of Management Studies, CUSAT, for their valuable assistance and encouragement.

I gratefully acknowledge the financial assistance in the form of a research fellowship, offered by CUSAT.

I owe my gratitude to Dr. Vasanthakumari P., Associate Professor, NSS College, Ottappalam, who willingly devoted her time to assist and guide me, whenever needed.

I gratefully acknowledge Dr. Sunanda C., Assistant Professor, Department of Statistics, College of Veterinary & Animal Sciences, Pookot, for her timely assistance with appropriate statistical analysis.

I would like to thank Professor (Retd) C. G. Vijayanathan, Department of English, Maharajas College, Ernakulam, with whose help, I could present the thesis in a good form. He has devoted a lot of time in formatting the entire thesis.

Words are short to express my deep sense of gratitude towards Ms. Sabira, Ms. Heera, Ms. Athena and Mr. Paul, fellow research scholars, SMS, CUSAT, for their valuable help and support during the framing of this thesis.

Words fail me to express my appreciation to my most dear friends Ms. Preetha, Ms. Shyni and Ms. Sangeetha for their support, generous care and motivation.

I owe a great deal of appreciation and gratitude to the library staff at the Centre for Development Studies, Thiruvananthapuram for extending me the facilities to collect literatures.

My sincere thanks and deep sense of indebtedness are due to members of the staff at the Kerala Institure of Tourism and Travel Studies, Thiruvanathauram for providing me with a stimulating atmosphere to collect literatures.

I would like to thank all the people who have devoted their precious time and willingly extended their patient cooperation during the collection of the primary data for the research.

I gratefully acknowledge Mr. Pauli Manjali, Educare, Thrissur for his help in printing and bringing the manuscript into its final form.

I feel a deep sense of gratitude to my father Mr. V. S. Babu and mother Dr. Kamalakshi M.V., who helped me to form part of my vision and taught me the good things that really matter in life. Their advice and encouragement still provide me with persistent inspiration for my journey in this life. My mother has been a living role model to me, taking up new challenges every day, tackling them all with grit and determination and struggling to come out victorious. It's her vigour and hunger to perform in adverse situation, which have inspired me to strive for excellence and nothing less.

Words prove an inadequate medium to write down my indebtedness to my husband Mr. Nishand P. D. for his staunch support, assistance and constant encouragement, to complete my Ph.D. tenure. He stood as an embodiment of sacrifice and patience and helped me to overcome all academic and personal hurdles in my life.

I extend my deepest love and affection to my brother Seehari and his wife Divya who have extended their sincere help in every walk of the Ph.D. journey.

My acknowledgement will never be complete without a special mention of my precious daughters Nainika and Jyothika who have adjusted a lot during my busy schedules. I consider myself the luckiest person in the world to have such a supportive family, standing behind me with their love and support.

Besides this, several people have knowingly and unknowingly helped me in the successful completion of this thesis. I am deeply indebted to each and every one of them.

Dhanya Babu V.

CONTENTS

Chapter	1		
INTRODUC			
	1.1	Introd	luction1
	1.2		rch problem9
	1.3		ficance of research1
	1.4		rch objectives
	1.5		rch hypotheses
	1.6		nitations of the study
	1.7		nization of the study
Chanton	9		
Chapter		EW AND	A CONCENTIAL EDAMEWORK
LIIENAIUN			CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
			tion1
	2.2 10	ourism	Definition of terminal
			Definition of tourism 2
		2.2.2	Cohen's typology of tourists
		2.2.3	Advantages of tourism 24
			Economic impacts of tourism
			Employment benefits from tourism
			Tourism impacts-Social Exchange Theory
		2.2.7	$\boldsymbol{\mathcal{U}}$
			Studies on tourism
	2.3 A		ve tourism
			Features of alternative tourism
			Studies on alternative tourism
	2.4 St		ble tourism
		2.4.1	Features of sustainable tourism
		2.4.2	Requirements for the development of sustainable 49
			tourism
		2.4.3	Studies on sustainable tourism
	2.5 E	co-tour	ism
		2.5.1	Objectives of eco-tourism
		2.5.2	Benefits of eco-tourism
		2.5.3	Eco-tourism paradigm
			Types of eco-tourism
			Studies on eco-tourism
	26C		nity based tourism

2.6.1	Studies on community based tourism	51
		52
		54
		55
2.9.1		7
2.9.2		8
2.9.3		0
2.9.4		0
	ϵ	1
		2
	1	- 2
	1	- 2
		- 2
2.10 Other ty	1	73
		13
		73
	ϵ	13
		'4
_,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,		15
2.10.5	\mathbf{j}	7
		7
		8
2.10.8	$oldsymbol{\mathcal{E}}$	79
		9
	1	0
2.10.1		80
		31
	1	32
	J 1	32
	1	3
2.11.0	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	33
	1	34
		34
		35
2.12 Gaps in	, and the second	36
		36
		37
		9
)1
		1
		_

	2.14.2 Njarakkal	92
	2.14.3 Thenmala	93
	2.14.4 Pulpally (Kurava-Island)	95
	2.14.5 Kumbalangi	96
	2.14.6 Aranmula	97
	2.15 Chapter conclusion	98
Chapter	3	
	OGY	
	3.1 Introduction	99
	3.2 Research objectives	99
	3.3 Research hypotheses	99
	3.4 Operational definitions	102
	3.4.1 Alternative tourism	102
	3.4.2 Tourism village	102
	3.4.3 Nature-tourism village	102
	3.4.4 Eco-tourism village	102
	3.4.5 Endogenous Tourism Project village	102
	3.4.6 Development	102
	3.4.7 Economic development	103
	3.4.8 Social development	103
	3.4.9 Infrastructural development	103
	3.4.10 Tourist satisfaction	103
	3.5 Research design	103
	3.5.1Research instrument	104
	3.5.2 Sampling	104
	3.5.2.1 Population.	104
	3.5.2.2 Sample inclusion criteria	105
	3.5.2.3 Sample size	105
	3.5.2.4 Sampling approach	105
	3.5.3 Data collection	106
	3.5.3.1 Sources for data collection	106
	3.5.3.2 Primary data used for the study	106
	3.6 Data analysis	107
	3.6.1 Statistical tools used	108
	3.7 Chapter conclusion	108

Chapter 4 ANALYSIS AND	FINDINGS	
4.1	Introduction	
4.2	2 Profile of the different categories of tourism service	
	providers	
	4.2.1 Age	
	4.2.2 Gender	
	4.2.3 Occupation	
	4.2.4 Educational background	
	4.2.5 Monthly income	
4.3	3 Analysis of the feedback from the tourism service providers	
	4.3.1 Reasons that hindered the education	
	4.3.2 Household amenities	
	4.3.3 Ownership status of house	
	4.3.4 Type of house roofing	
	4.3.5 Toilet facility in the house	
	4.3.6 Type of waste disposal	
	4.3.7 Electrification status of the house	
	4.3.8 Reasons for joining tourism-related job	
4.4	Profile of the homestay owners	
	4.4.1 Age	
	4.4.2 Gender	
	4.4.3 Grade of the homestay	
	4.4.4 Prior occupation	
	4.4.5 Educational back ground	
	4.4.6 Monthly income	
4.5	5 Analysis of the feedback of the homestay owners	
	4.5.1 Reasons that hindered education	
	4.5.2 Household amenities	
	4.5.3 House status	
	4.5.4 Type of house roofing	
	4.5.5 Toilet facility	
	4.5.6 Type of waste disposal	
	4.5.7 House electrification status	
	4.5.8 Reasons for starting homestay	
4.6	6 Profile of the tourists	
	4.6.1 Age	
	4.6.2 Gender	
	4 6 3 Tourist- category	

	4.6.4 Nationality	144
	4.6.5 Educational qualification	146
	4.6.6 Occupation	147
	4.6.7 Monthly income of foreign tourists	
	4.6.8 Monthly income of domestic tourists	149
	4.6.9 Factors that prompted tourists to visit tourism villages	150
	4.7 Testing of hypotheses	151
	4.8 Chapter conclusion.	193
Chapter	5	
•	DN, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION	
ווטטטטטוע	5.1 Introduction	195
	5.2 Benefits of tourism to the local residents in villages	193
	5.3 Profile of the homestay owners	201
	5.4 Profile of the tourists	202
	5.5 Motivating factors for the tourists to visit different tourism	203
	villages	203
	5.6 Role of alternative tourism in the development of villages	205
	5.6.1 Economic development after promotion of tourism in	205
	the villages	
	5.6.2 Social development after promotion of tourism in the	207
	villages	
	5.6.3 Infrastructural development after promotion of tourism	209
	in the villages	
	5.7 Satisfaction of tourists about the facilities in tourism villages	210
	5.8 Recommendations	211
	5.8.1 Enhancing economic development	211
	5.8.2 Improving social development	
	5.8.3 Increasing infrastructural development	
	5.8.4 Improving tourist satisfaction	
	5.9 Scope for further research	
	5.10 Conclusion	213
REFERENC	ES	215
ANNEXURE		253

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1	Poverty Statistics in India	2
Table 1.2	Change in preferences regarding travel patterns of the tourists	6
Table 2.1	Cohen's typology of tourists	24
Table 2.2	Types of impacts of tourism industry	27
Table 2.3	Comparison between mass tourism and alternative tourism	41
Table 2.4	Different objectives of eco-tourism	52
Table 2.5	Benefits of eco-tourism	53
Table 2.6	Characteristics of the hard and soft eco-tourism	54
Table 2.7	Selected national criteria for rural settlements	68
Table 2.8	Central financial assistance for ETP villages in Kerala	76
Table 2.9	Snapshot of Kerala	87
Table 2.10	Financial assistance for tourism in Kerala	89
Table 2.11	Trends in domestic & foreign tourist arrivals to Kerala	90
Table 2.12	Foreign exchange earnings and total revenue from tourism in Kerala	91
Table 2.13	Tourism statistics in Kumarakom	92
Table 2.14	Tourism statistics in Njarakkal	93
Table 2.15	Tourism statistics in Thenmala	95
Table 2.16	Tourism statistics in Kurava island	96
Table 2.17	Kumbalangi Endogenous Tourism Project	97
Table 3.1	Sample villages chosen for the study	107
Table 3.2	Reliability of dimensions	107
Table 4.1	Distribution of tourism service providers based on age groups	110
Table 4.2	Distribution of tourism service providers based on gender	111
Table 4.3	Distribution of tourism service providers based on present occupation	112
Table 4.4	Distribution of tourism service providers based on prior occupation	112
Table 4.5	Distribution of tourism service providers based on educational background	115

Table 4.6	Income from prior and present occupations of tourism service providers	116
Table 4.7	Average rank for each reason which hindered the education of tourism service providers	117
Table 4.8	Prior and present household amenities owned by tourism service providers	118
Table 4.9	Prior and present house status of the tourism service providers	120
Table 4.10	Prior and present type of house roofing of tourism service providers	121
Table 4.11	Prior and present toilet facility in the houses of tourism service providers	122
Table 4.12	Prior and present system of waste disposal of tourism service providers	123
Table 4.13	Prior and present house electrification status of the tourism service providers	125
Table 4.14	Comparison of different reasons for joining a tourism-related job	126
Table 4.15	Distribution of homestay owners based on age groups	127
Table 4.16	Distribution of homestay owners based on gender	128
Table 4.17	Distribution of homestay owners based on grade of homestay	129
Table 4.18	Distribution of homestay owners based on their prior occupation	130
Table 4.19	Distribution of homestay owners based on educational back ground	131
Table 4.20	Monthly income before and after starting homestay	132
Table 4.21	Average rank for each reason which hindered the education of homestay owners	133
Table 4.22	Household amenities before and after starting homestay	134
Table 4.23	House status before and after starting of the homestay	136
Table 4.24	Type of house roofing before and after starting homestay	137
Table 4.25	Toilet facility in the house before and after starting homestay	138
Table 4.26	Type of waste disposal before and after starting homestay	139
Table 4.27	Electrification of house before and after starting homestay	140

Table 4.28	Comparison of different reasons for starting homestays in different villages	141
Table 4.29	Distribution of tourists based on age groups	
Table 4.30	Distribution of tourists based on gender	143
Table 4.31	Distribution of tourists based on tourist category	144
Table 4.32	Distribution of tourists based on nationality	145
Table 4.33	Distribution of tourists based on educational status	146
Table 4.34	Distribution of tourists based on occupation	147
Table 4.35	Distribution of foreign tourists based on monthly income in US dollars	148
Table 4.36	Distribution of domestic tourists based on monthly income	149
Table 4.37	Different factors that prompted the tourists to visit a tourism village	150
Table 4.38	Perceptions of respondents regarding economic development	152
Table 4.39	Comparison of the perceptions of people in tourism villages about their economic development	154
Table 4.40	Economic development vs. age	157
Table 4.41	Economic development vs. gender	159
Table 4.42	Economic development vs. occupation	161
Table 4.43	Economic development vs. education	163
Table 4.44	Economic development vs. income	164
Table 4.45	Perceptions of respondents regarding social development	165
Table 4.46	Comparison of the perceptions of respondents in tourism villages about their social development	169
Table 4.47	Social development vs. age	170
Table 4.48	Social development vs. gender	172
Table 4.49	Social development vs. occupation	173
Table 4.50	Social development vs. education	175
Table 4.51	Social development vs. income	177
Table 4.52	Perceptions of respondents regarding infrastructural development	178

Table 4.53	Comparison of the perceptions of respondents about the infrastructural developments in the villages	180
Table 4.54	Perception of tourists about their satisfaction on different attributes in tourism villages	181
Table 4.55	Comparison of satisfaction about the facilities in different tourism villages	188
Table 4.56	Overall satisfaction of the tourists vs. age	189
Table 4.57	Overall satisfaction of the tourists vs. gender	190
Table 4.58	Overall satisfaction of the tourists vs. nationality	190
Table 4.59	Overall satisfaction of the tourists vs. education	191
Table 4.60	Overall satisfaction of the tourists vs. occupations	192

LIST OF FIGURES

Fig. 2.1	Different types of tourist attractions	18
Fig. 2.2	Tourist motivation process	19
Fig. 2.3	Concept map showing the connections between the tourists and the different categories of product suppliers in the tourism industry	19
Fig. 2.4	Model of the tourist flow.	20
Fig. 2.5	Magic pentagon showing the dimensions of tourism development	21
Fig. 2.6	Relation between eco-tourism and sustainability	51
Fig. 2.7	Eco-tourism paradigm	54

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ASHA Association for Social and Health Advancement

BPL Below Poverty Line

CBT Community Based Tourism

CIS Commonwealth of Independent States

CUSAT Cochin University of Science and Technology

DMRT Duncan's Multiple Range Test

DTPC District Tourism Promotion Council

EFA Exploratory Factor Analysis
ETP Endogenous Tourism Project

GDP Gross Domestic Product GoI Government of India

GPS Global Positioning System

IDMS Integrated Disease Management System

ILO International Labour Organisation

IUCN International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources

KSIDC Kerala State Industrial Development Corporation

LDCs Least Developed Countries

MAF Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries MDGs Millennium Development Goals

MoT Ministry of Tourism

MTI Medical Tourism Sector of India MTSL Medical Tourism Service Loyalty MTSQ Medical Tourism Service Quality NGO Non-Governmental Organisation

OECD Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

OSEM Ontario Society of Environmental Management

PATA Pacific Asia Travel Association
PATH People Assessing Their Health

PPT Pro Poor Tourism

REAL Rewarding, Enriches the spirit, provides Adventure and Learning

RTM Responsible Tourism Management

RTMSA Responsible Tourism Manual for South Africa

RTS Rural Tourism Scheme

SAARC South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation

SME Small and Medium Sized Enterprises SPSS Statistical Package for Social Science

ST-EP Sustainable Tourism for the Elimination of Poverty

STZ Special Tourism Zone
TAM Tourism Appraisal Model

TEAP Tsunami Emergency Assistance Program
TEPS Thenmala Ecotourism Promotion Society
TFCI Tourism Financial Corporation of India

UNCTAD United Nations Conference on Trade and Development

UNDP United Nations Development Programme

UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

UNRISD United Nations Research Institute for Social development

UNWTO United Nations World Tourism Organization
USDA United States Department of Agriculture

WCED World Commission on Environment and Development

WSSD World Summit on Sustainable Development

WTO World Tourism Organisation

WTTC World Travel and Tourism Council

WWF World Wildlife Fund

ABSTRACT

Kerala, the green state of India, popularly known as "God's Own Country", has emerged as an undisputed tourism hotspot in India. With its pristine beaches, sylvan surroundings and backwaters, Kerala has always been an enigma to the visitors from far and near. Alternative tourism means forms of tourism that set out to be consistent with natural, social and community values and which allow both hosts and guests to enjoy positive and worthwhile interaction and shared experiences. The Government of India is actively promoting multiple varieties of alternative tourism. In the state of Kerala, there are many villages that are blessed abundantly with natural beauty and are promoting different types of alternative tourism.

The objectives of the study are to make a comparative study on the impact of nature-tourism, eco-tourism and Endogenous Tourism Projects in Kerala on the economic, social and infrastructural developments of the villages and to determine the satisfaction of tourists regarding the tourism facilities available in the villages under study. Data were collected from the three types of tourism villages in Kerala that are famous for promoting alternative tourism: nature-tourism, eco-tourismand Endogenous Tourism Project (ETP). The sampling frame consists of six villages in Kerala and 300 tourism service providers, 120 homestay owners and 180 tourists were selected as the sample for the study. The study showed that tourism has played a pivotal role in providing economic, social and infrastructural developments in the different destinations under study. The developments - economic, social and infrastructural - differ in the sample villages. The satisfaction level of the tourists regarding the facilities available at different tourism villages, also differs.

'Kumarakom', which is a nature-tourism village, ranks first in respect of the three parameters ie, social development, infrastructural development and satisfaction level of tourists, out of the four parameters considered for the study. As regards the other factor economic development, 'Kumarakom' has the second rank. 'Kumbalangi', which is an Endogenous Tourism Project, competes with 'Kumarakom' securing second rank in social development and infrastructural development. In respect of tourist satisfaction, 'Kumbalangi' has third rank, the second rank being secured by 'Thenmala', an eco-tourism village. The success of the ETP project initiated in 'Kumabalangi' village in 2003 is well reflected here. 'Njarakkal'the nature-tourism developing category village - has the fourth position in terms of all the parameters mentioned above, except in tourist satisfaction, where it has the fifth position. But the achievement of 'Njarakkal' is worth mentioning, as the developmental efforts in this village started much later (2011) than in those villages below its rank, ie. 'Aranmula' (2005) and 'Pulpally' (2004). It can be inferred from the above findings that 'Aranmula' (ETP project) and 'Pulpally' (Eco-tourism project) are less successful than 'Njarakkal'. This shows that there are some inadequacies in these tourism villages. If these inadequacies are appropriately and effectively remedied with the active support from the government and the various stakeholders of tourism promotion, these villages also can be turned into successful tourism projects.



	1.1	Introduction
	1.2	Research problem
IIts	1.3	Significance of research
Conte	1.4	Research objectives
	1.5	Research hypotheses
	1.6	Limitations of the study
	1.7	Organization of the study
,		

1.1. Introduction

Kerala, the green state of India, popularly known as "God's Own Country" (term coined by The Kerala State Tourism Development Corporation), has emerged as the undisputed tourism hotspot in India. With its pristine beaches, sylvan surroundings and backwaters, Kerala has always been an enigma to visitors from far and near. It is a leading tourism destination in India (DOT., 2017). A leader is the one who knows the way, goes the way and shows the way to his followers. The state has been recognized as a trendsetter in the Indian tourism segment. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has listed it as one of the ten "must see" spots in the world. The National Geographic Traveller, in a landmark issue in 2000, rated Kerala, in the "Paradise Found" category and as one of the "50 great places of a lifetime" (Jubin, Hari, Anoop and Ravikrishnan, 2008). It has been accorded the status of a partner state by the World Travel and Tourism Council in recognition of its potentiality in the Kerala tourism sector. Kerala has tremendous potential for promoting tourism in the state, which, in turn, will provide employment, increase business and earn foreign exchange for the country.

India is faced with striking contrasts. It has the world's largest luxury market in the world and, at the same time, it is home to 800 million poor people of the world (Michael, 2002). India is a developing nation and has to address many challenges. The problems of poverty in rural and urban areas, more particularly amongst the backward classes, are due to lack

of access for the poor to basic services like education, health, sanitation etc. India's overall development is not possible without developing the rural areas. The main causes of poverty were found to be the lack of adequate employment opportunities and limited access for the poor to the international markets. Even as Indian economy has been expanding, the inequalities between the haves and the have nots have become much wider. The annual report published in 2016 by the Reserve Bank of India presents the percentage-wise statistics of those Below Poverty Line (BPL) for each State or Union Territory in India.

Table 1.1 Poverty Statistics in India

State/Union	No. of Persons	Poverty line (Rs./	No. of Persons	Poverty line	No. of Persons
State/ Union Territory	(Thousands) Rural	month (Rural)	(Thousands) Urban	(Rs./ month (Urban)	(Thousands) Combined
All India	2,16,658	816	53,125	1,000	2,69,783
Andaman & Nicobar Islands	4	-	0	-	4
Andhra Pradesh	6,180	860	1,698	1,009	7,878
Arunachal Pradesh	425	930	66	1,060	491
Assam	9,206	828	921	1,008	10,127
Bihar	32,040	778	3,775	923	35,815
Chandigarh	0	-	234	-	235
Chhattisgarh	8,890	738	1,522	849	10,411
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	115	-	28	-	143
Daman and Diu	0	-	26	-	26
Delhi	50	1,145	1,646	1,134	1,696
Goa	37	1,090	38	1,134	75
Gujarat	7,535	932	2,688	1,152	10,223
Haryana	1,942	1,015	941	1,169	2,883
Himachal Pradesh	529	913	30	1,064	559
Jammu & Kashmir	1,073	891	253	988	1,327
Jharkhand	10,409	748	2,024	974	12,433

State/Union	No. of Persons	Poverty line (Rs./	No. of Persons	Poverty line	No. of Persons	
State/ Union Territory	(Thousands) Rural	month (Rural)	(Thousands) Urban	(Rs./ month (Urban)	(Thousands) Combined	
Karnataka	9,280	902	3,696	1,089	12,976	
Kerala	1,548	1,018	846	987	2,395	
Lakshadweep	0	-	2	1	2	
Madhya Pradesh	19,095	771	4,310	897	23,406	
Maharashtra	15,056	967	4,736	1,126	19,792	
Manipur	745	1,118	278	1,170	1,022	
Meghalaya	304	888	57	1,154	361	
Mizoram	191	1,066	37	1,155	227	
Nagaland	276	1,270	100	1,302	376	
Odisha	12,614	695	1,239	861	13,853	
Puducherry	69	1,301	55	1,309	124	
Punjab	1,335	1,054	982	1,155	2,318	

Source: RBI Report, 2016

We have to delineate the gap between the actual incomes and the standard poverty line income. The challenge before us is to transform the informal sector into the main driver of the income-enhancing and life-fulfilling opportunities for employment, selfemployment and entrepreneurship. Agriculture provides job opportunities for a major part of the work force in India. Agriculture alone cannot sustain the growing population in the villages. Tourism is an area which can bring in a lot of employment opportunities and uplift the down-trodden phase of Indian villages. These villages are blessed with a lot of natural attractions that can be projected to the tourists. India is a fine example of assimilation of the ancient and the modern, the past and the present, and the old and the new; from action to relaxation, India has it all (ITO, 2001:50). The government emphasizes that India can provide a journey that engages the five senses, rejuvenates the mind and soul, and leads to self-discovery and self-fulfillment. The important message contained in this theme is that the country offers a myriad of experiences, ". . . an enlightened holiday that enables the tourist to go back as a better human being" (Kant, 2003). Today, India has become the spiritual destination of the world; seekers visit India from all over the world in search of peace, contentment and happiness (ITO, 2001: 53).

Travel and tourism is a major foreign exchange earner for India, and the government has given organizations in this industry an export house status. Kerala is the pioneer in India to identify the economic potential of tourism and to develop it in consonance with the overall socio-economic development programmes of the state (DOT., 2016). Tourism is one of the alternatives for developing the economy of the state of Kerala in the context of limited prospects and scope of the manufacturing sector, problems in agriculture and traditional sector, and uncertainties facing the expatriate employment in the Middle East and the Gulf countries. By integrating tourism with other developmental activities, and promoting the participation of the host community in tourism centers, the state has set a strong footing for inclusive growth of tourism for achieving sustainability. Now, tourism has emerged as a more powerful catalyst for economic development than the manufacturing, construction and service industries (Jubin et al., 2008: 441).

The Planning Commission of India in the Eleventh Plan document has commented that tourism is the largest service industry in the country. Its importance lies in being an instrument for economic development and employment generation, particularly in the remote and backward areas. The vision of the Government of India, as incorporated in the tourism policy, is to achieve a superior quality of life for India's citizens through tourism, which would provide a unique opportunity for physical invigoration, mental rejuvenation, cultural enrichment and spiritual elevation. The Government has accordingly embarked upon developing tourism in a sustainable and inclusive way through a multi-pronged strategy of augmenting tourism infrastructure, promotion and marketing in domestic and overseas markets, development of accommodation facilities and development of skilled manpower in this sector. The policy and programmes are being oriented to ensure that the development of tourism is environmentally sustainable and there is equitable distribution of benefits of tourism to all its stakeholders (Davesh, 2010: 5).

Alternative tourism is one among the sustainable tourism strategies and it is a Pro-Poor Tourism (PPT) approach in which the overriding goal is to deliver the net benefits to the poor. PPT includes specific mechanisms to enhance the participation and opportunities for the poorer segments of society. Three key components of the PPT approach are:

(a) improved access to the economic benefits of tourism by expanding employment as well as business opportunities for the poor by providing them adequate training to enable

them to maximize these opportunities; (b) measures to deal with the social and environmental impact of tourism development, particularly social exploitation, as well as the excessive pressure on natural resources, pollution generation and damage to ecosystems; and (c) policy reform, by enhancing participation of the poor in planning, development and management of tourism activities pertinent to them, removing some of the barriers for greater participation by the poor, and encouraging partnerships between government agencies or the private sector and the poor people in developing new tourism goods and services (Collins, 1999).

Alternative tourism means forms of tourism that set out to be consistent with natural, social and community values and which allow both hosts and guests to enjoy positive and worthwhile interaction and shared experiences. The features of alternative tourism are as follows: The attempted preservation, protection and enhancement of the quality of the resource base which is fundamental to tourism itself. The fostering and active promotion of development, in relation to additional visitor attractions and infrastructure, with roots in the specific locale and developed in ways that complement local attributes. The endorsement of infrastructure, hence economic growth, when and where it improves local conditions and not where it is destructive or exceeds the carrying capacity of the natural environment or the limits of the social environment whereby the quality of community life is adversely affected. Tourism which attempts to minimize its impact upon the environment, is ecologically sound, and avoids the negative impacts of many large-scale tourism developments undertaken in areas that have not previously been developed. An emphasis on not only ecological sustainability, but also cultural sustainability is made. That is, tourism which does not damage the culture of the host community and encourages a respect for the cultural realities experienced by the tourists through education and organized 'encounters' (Stephen and John, 1999).

Tourism in villages needs a social harmony of host culture and visitor culture. The concept of alternative tourism has a noble cause, as it is another kind of sustainable tourism that exploits resources in rural regions, causes little or no harmful impact, generates increasing benefits to rural areas in terms of rural productivity, employment, improved distribution of wealth, conservation of the rural environment and culture, local people's involvement, and a suitable way of adapting traditional beliefs and values to

modern times. Some of the benefits of promoting tourism in villages are the following: it creates job opportunities, thereby enhancing the quality of life for local residents. New restaurants and cottages can improve the recreation and entertainment opportunities for the local residents. Development of different types of alternative tourism in the villages can give rise to several new economic activities, more demands, competition for services etc. With the wide acceptance of tourism in the villages, these regions will not be the same place as they were in the past.

Table 1.2: Change in preferences regarding travel patterns of the tourists

Criteria	Convention	al Tourism	Alternative tourism		
Criteria	Short term	Long term	Short term	Long term	
Tourists	Small, rapid	Larga narhang	Small, slow	Small,	
Numbers	growth	Large, perhaps	growth	consistent	
Behaviour	Sedentary	Sedentary	Explorer	Explorer	
Location	Limited resorts	Resorts	Communities, households	Widespread, households	
Time	Short	Short, definite	Long, indefinite	Medium, definite	
Contact	Some, economic	Great, shallow	Some, intensive	Intensive	
Similarity	Little	Little	Very little	Very little	
Resource Fragility	Possible pressure	Possible	Little	Pressure	
		ruination	pressure		
Uniqueness	Possible pressure	Possible	Little	Pressure	
	1 ossible pressure	ruination	pressure	11035410	
Capacity	Problem	Probably	Minor	Problem	
	110010111	exceeded	problem		
Economy Sophistication	Some	Developed	None	Very little	
Leakage	Some	Some	May be lots	May be lots	
Political	Some	Little	Most	Some	
Local control	Sume	Little	MIOSI	vulnerable	
Planning extent	Some	Little/reactive	Little	Little	

Source: Stephen, 2014: 189

The present international trend is to visit the natural regions where peace and holistic environment persist (Ramesh, 2015). Urban tourism is always viewed as something 'elite' and is often misconceived. Problems of overcrowding and environmental threats can be solved better by the dispersion of tourists far and wide to the areas promoting different types of alternative tourism. The change in preferences regarding the travel patterns of the international tourists is depicted clearly in Table 1.2.

Promotion of various types of alternative tourism programmes is an effective measure for rural development and for raising the standard of living of the rural folk. Though this sector might be new to India, internationally it has been well recognized and is considered an important part of rural economy. In European countries, it was started as early as 1950. Tourism activity in rural areas has remarkably increased since the 1970's in all developed countries. This has played a key role in the development of some rural zones which were economically and socially depressed. In most Western countries, rural tourism has been present for quite a long time. In fact, written evidence exists since the 19th century about the increasing interest displayed by the middle and the upper class tourists in visiting the rural zones (Dernoi, 1991). In France, agrotourism started in 1950 and today nearly 2.8% of the farmers (about 20,000 farmers) offer their services to tourists interested in rural tourism. Likewise, in Spain, it started in the eighties and the country has nearly 7,000 rural resorts, comprising 50,000 beds for people interested in visiting the countryside. In the United Kingdom, rural tourism started in the mid-seventies, and today it is a strategic force in the rural economy. In Europe, 2-5% farmers are directly or indirectly engaged in rural tourism. According to United States Department of Agriculture (USDA), tourism in rural areas is becoming increasingly important to the US economy. In India, rural tourism was started in the mid-nineties, when some entrepreneurs and some NGOs began exploring the possibilities of rural tourism. One of the pioneers in this field is M.R Morarks Rural Research Foundation. It first trained villagers in the Shekhawati region of Rajastan, encouraged them for organic farming and introduced the concept of farm ecotourism and heritage conservation in 1995. The foundation trained villagers in the basics of the hospitality industry and then promoted the Shekhawati arts and culture abroad to attract the foreign tourists. The result was impressive. Within a decade, the inflow of tourists increased seven to ten times (Vijay, 2010:31).

The rural tourism initiative has been launched at 166 sites across India to showcase the country's rich tradition of art, culture, cuisines, handicrafts and textiles as a unique tourism experience. The objective is to revive these languishing traditions by providing backward linkages (through capacity building) and forward linkages (by creating demand through marketing avenues) so that the benefits of tourism accrue to rural economy (Davesh, 2010: 6). The Government of India provides the necessary support in terms of hardware component, wherein essential infrastructure gaps are filled up, and software component, wherein the capacity of the village community is built up for improving the service delivery and augmentation of incomes of the villagers. The commissioned rural tourism sites have witnessed a quantum increase in foreign and domestic tourist arrivals and the consequent increase in income levels which have empowered the local community, including women.

After the encouraging results of the initial efforts made by the pioneering NGOs and entrepreneurs, the Government of India has realized what rural tourism can offer to the world. It has decided to promote rural tourism to the maximum. The policy makers now accept that rural tourism is a major vehicle for generating employment and promoting sustainable livelihood. The Tourism Ministry, in partnership with the UNDP (United Nations Development Programme) launched a Rural Tourism Scheme in 2002 to showcase the cultural heritage of India and to leverage this opportunity to generate livelihood opportunities for the rural communities (Equations, 2008). The Endogenous Tourism Project (ETP) of UNDP and the Ministry of Tourism (MoT) selected 30 NGOs and four grama panchayats spread over 20 states for the rural tourism promotion. The project promoted people's institutions and developed skills for hospitality and marketing in 36 cities of the 139 rural tourism destinations. The project was not only globally recognized, but also received the "World Leading Responsible Tourism Project" award. In 2006, Samodh in Rajastan and Kumbalangi in Enakulam district of Kerala State received the National Award for the best tourism site. In 2007, Aranmula in Kerala received the coveted PATA (Pacific Asia Travel Association) gold award for cultural tourism (Vijay, 2010:33). The long list of the receipt of tourism awards shows the overwhelming response to the rural tourism industry and also highlights the seriousness shown by the Indian Tourism Ministry in taking up the challenge.

Rural India has much to offer to the world. As it is rich in the traditions of arts, crafts and culture, it can emerge as an important tourist spot. People in the developed world who love to acquire knowledge about traditional ways of life, arts and crafts will be tempted to visit rural India, if the concept of rural tourism is marketed well. The Indian Association of Tour and Travel Operators - the umbrella organization of the country's tour and travel operators - has also come in support of village tourism and asked its operators to market village destinations abroad in various forms, including farm tourism, eco-tourism and adventure tourism.

The three types of alternative tourism that are selected in this study are nature-tourism, eco-tourism and Endogenous Tourism Project (ETP). Nature-tourism means travel to natural areas, which conserves the environment and improves the welfare of local people. It is a type of tourism based on the natural attractions of an area. Examples include bird watching, photography, camping, fishing etc. Eco-tourism signifies travel to fragile, pristine, and usually protected areas that strives to be low impact and (often) small scale. It helps to educate the traveller, provides funds for conservation, directly benefits the economic development of local communities, and fosters respect for different cultures. Endogenous Tourism Project is undertaken by The Ministry of Tourism, Government of India and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in partnership with local implementing NGOs. The project aims to develop selected rural destinations in India as rural tourism villages. The aim of the project is to offer the tourists a unique experience and give the community a sustainable livelihood in the form of tourism.

1.2: Research problem

More than 70% of India's population lives in the villages (Census, 2011a). The major challenges before our policy makers are to draft policies to eliminate poverty, generate employment and develop the infrastructure in the rural areas. In an agrarian country like India, rural development should claim the attention of all sectors of the economy and receive high priority in any programme aimed at national development. India's overall development is not possible without developing the standard of iving of the people in the rural areas. An increase in the per capita income does not necessarily reflect betterment of conditions of the poor. Hence, a direct attack on poverty is needed to eradicate it. Efforts should be made to improve the productivity of the poor for which full employment of the

poor should get the highest priority in the strategies of rural development. A noticeable feature of existing rural poverty is lack of employment in the rural sector. This has only added to the urban influx. For the rural poor, such migration and displacement have mostly meant the loss of an old world without the gain of the new.

Tourism industry in India is economically important and is growing rapidly. Tourism generated Rs.14.02 lakh crore (US\$210 billion) or 9. 6% of the nation's GDP in 2016 and supported 40.343 million jobs, 9.3% of its total employment (WTTC., 2017). Rural tourism is currently the focus of attention throughout the world and is being recognized as an important instrument of growth for the rural economy. If the negligence to Indian villages continues, they will probably remain at the bottom of the spectrum, unvisited because they are too remote. Some villages have unique attractions with powerful symbolic value and still have not come to the limelight. Such villages can be transformed into tourist spots by careful planning and promotion of different types of alternative tourism. Well-managed and focused alternative tourism initiatives might become important steps towards generating a new source of income and employment and, at the same time, fulfil the broader role of breaking down social isolation and will encourage the return of migrated communities back to their villages. As a result, consumer tastes may change and villages that were insufficiently known may become popular.

The Government of India is actively promoting multiple varieties of alternative tourism. Among them, village tourism /rural tourism is a significant type of tourism which is being actively promoted. As India has many villages with their own uniqueness and specialties, there is ample scope for attracting the tourists to these villages, and the inflow of tourists to experience this unique feeling is increasing tremendously. The growing interest of tourists to visit these village tourism areas is a strong indicator of the scope of this type of tourism to bring in a sea change in the scenario of Indian villages by creating huge employment opportunities and assuring increased earnings for villagers. The state of Kerala is abundantly blessed with many villages of natural beauty. Different types of alternative tourism are promoted in these villages. There is a need to analyse the role of alternative tourism in the development of villages in Kerala.

1.3: Significance of research

Tourism is undisputedly an industry which brings in huge revenue to the hosting state and the nation as well. But, apart from the several positive factors of tourism, there are also many negative sides to it. Environmental degeneration, exploitation of natural resources, societal problems etc are a few negative aspects of tourism. Alternative tourism is an answer to many of the questions raised by the negative sides of tourism. Seasonality problem of tourism industry can be solved by promoting different types of alternative tourism, as it is nonseasonal. The trends of industrialization and development have an urban centric approach leading to a regional imbalance in India. Alternative tourism is an effective means for rural development which, in turn, will help to remove the regional imbalance prevailing in the country. It is possible to promote alternative tourism as a primary tourism product to spread tourism and its socio-economic benefits to the rural population. It is a pattern of resource use that aims to meet the human needs, not only in the present, but also in the future, by preserving the environment for coming generations.

The challenge for development is to understand the interrelation among poverty, resources and people. The poor are caught in a vicious downward spiral. They are forced to overuse resources in order to survive; the impoverishment of the environment makes their survival even more difficult and uncertain. Development thinking must take into account the connection between poverty and the environment, as well as the need to empower the local people in relation to local resources and their equitable distribution. Development must be socially as well as environmentally sustainable.

Several reasons can be pointed out to show how tourism development can act as an effective tool for poverty reduction. First, tourism offers considerable employment opportunities for unskilled labour, rural-to-urban migrants and lower-income women. Second, there are considerable linkages with the informal sector, which could generate positive multiplier effects to poorer groups who rely on that sector for their livelihoods. Third, tourism tends to be heavily based upon the preservation of natural capital-such as wildlife and scenery - and cultural heritage, which are often "assets that some of the poor have, even if they have no financial resources" (Ashley, Roe and Goodwin, 2001). Tourism also boosts the export of local products. It is estimated that 15-20% of the total tourist expenditure is spent for gifts, clothing and souvenirs. The extent to which these products are made in the destination area directly affects the local economy. In many

tourist destinations, there are markets that sell local crafts. This provides a source of income for local producers and also creates an interesting shopping experience for tourists (Philip, John & James, 2014). The economic impact of tourism as a whole is commonly known in the form of a multiplier effect. The multiplier effect reflects and expresses the direct link between entries in the economic system – investments - and its outputs in the form of income levels of economic activities of participants. Thus, in a particular manner for tourism, the multiplier effect measures the changes produced in income levels, results employment and balance of payments due to modification of tourist spending (Witt & Witt, 1995).

Focusing on the above concept, the research is targeted at finding out the effectiveness of promotion of alternative tourism in the scenic villages in Kerala in bringing about development. In this study the term "development" signifies the following developmental parameters that can happen in the villages after the promotion of tourism.

- Economic development the change in the economic conditions of villagers after promotion of tourism in the villages.
- Social development- social benefits from tourism, quality of life in local communities, amenities and life support systems etc.
- Infrastructural development the infrastructural changes that happened in the villages after the promotion of tourism.

1.4: Research objectives

- 1. To make a comparative study on the impact of nature-tourism, eco-tourism and Endogenous Tourism Projects in Kerala on the economic, social and infrastructural developments of the villages.
- 2. To determine the satisfaction of tourists regarding the tourism facilities available in the villages under study.

1.5: Research hypotheses

Drawing from the above mentioned objectives of the study, the following research hypotheses were proposed.

H₁: There exists a significant difference in the level of economic development of people in the different types of tourism villages after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

H₂: There exists a significant difference in the level of social development of people in the different types of tourism villages after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

H₃: There exists a significant difference in the level of infrastructural development in the different types of tourism villages after the promotion of tourism.

H₄: There exists a significant difference in the satisfaction level of tourists in the different types of tourism villages regarding the facilities available.

1.6: Delimitations of the study

- 1. The study concentrated only on the economic and social development of the villagers after their involvement in tourism-related jobs and the infrastructural development in the villages after the active promotion of tourism.
- 2. The samples were collected only from three different types of tourism villages, ie, nature-tourism, eco-tourism and Endogenous Tourism projects, while there are a few other types of tourism like heritage tourism which have active presence in some villages in Kerala.
- 3. The negative impacts of tourism are not covered under the study.

1.7: Organization of the study

The thesis on "ROLE OF ALTERNATIVE TOURISM IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF VILLAGES IN KERALA WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO NATURE-TOURISM, ECO-TOURISM AND ENDOGENOUS TOURISM PROJECTS" is organized into five chapters.

Chapter One "Introduction" presents a brief description of the topic, the rationale of the study, statement of the problem, research objectives, research hypotheses and the delimitations of the study.

Chapter Two "Literature Review and Conceptual Framework" provides a review of extant literature in terms of different types of tourism, tourism in Kerala and sustainable development.

Chapter Three "Methodology" dwells on research design, data collection and statistical tools used in the analysis.

Chapter Four "Analysis and Findings" reports the results pertaining to research objectives. Hypotheses are tested and results are presented.

Chapter Five "Discussions, Recommendations and Conclusion" presents the interpretation of the findings, the linkages between them and their implication. The chapter also makes suggestions on the scope for future research.



LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

	2.1	Introduction
	2.2	Tourism
	2.3	Alternative tourism
	2.4	Sustainable Tourism
	2.5	Eco-tourism
	2.6	Community based tourism
	2.7	Studies on nature tourism
<u> </u>	2.8	Studies on medical tourism
8	2.9	Village tourism
	2.10	Other types of tourism
	2.11	Sustainable development
	2.12	Gaps in existing research
	2.13	Brief profile of Kerala
	2.14	Profile of the sample villages chosen for the study
	2.15	Conclusion

2.1: Introduction

A compilation of a variety of relevant literature is made in this segment to sketch the theoretical framework of the research work. The theoretical foundations of the research topic and other related topics are explored through the review of diverse literature. Identification of the most suitable pathway for research approach is drafted by mining through the depository of knowledge base.

2.2: Tourism

Tourism is the act of travel for the purposes of leisure, pleasure or business, and the provision of services for this act. In India we see the origin of the concept of tourism in Sanskrit Literature. Sanskrit literature has three terms derived from the root word "Atana", which means 'going out'. Accordingly, there are three terms which signify the idea of tourism in one way or the other: *Tirthatana*, which means going out and visiting places of religious merit; *Paryatana*, which means going out for pleasure and knowledge

and *Deshatana*, which means going out of the country primarily for economic gains. Travel implies journeys undertaken from one place to another for any purpose, including journeys to work as a part of employment and as a part of leisure. Tourism includes the journey to a destination and also the stay at a destination outside one's usual place of residence and the activities undertaken for leisure and recreation. The principal character in the phenomenon called tourism is the tourist. The term "tourist" is believed to have been derived from the Latin word 'tornus', which means a tool, a circle or a turner's wheel. In the original sense of the word, a tourist is a person who undertakes a circular trip and ultimately comes back to the place from where he set out on his journey (Robert, 2008).

It is often thought that the beginnings of tourism date back to ancient Greece and Rome because we have evidence of tourism from these eras in terms of travel and tourism writing. The earliest recorded tourism in Greece tended to be specialist in nature and related to religious practice; people visited religious festivals and consulted oracles (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). During the Egyptian dynasties, travel for both business and pleasure began to flourish, and hospitality centres were built along major routes and in the cities to accommodate travellers travelling between central government posts and outlying territories (Coltman, 1989). At the height of the Assyrian empire, the means of travel were improved, the roads were improved, and markers were established to indicate distances and directions. Later, the Persians made further improvement to the road systems and developed four-wheeled carriages for transportation. In the modern world, Thomas Cook is regarded as the "father of the tourist trade". On July 5th 1841, he arranged to take a group of about 500 members of his local "Temperance Society" from Leicester London Road railway station to a rally in Loughborough, eleven miles away, having arranged with the rail company to charge one Shilling per person that covered the cost of rail tickets and food for this entire train journey (Gee, Makens & Choi, 1997). Tourism's potential for creating employment, supporting livelihoods and enabling sustainable development is huge, given that it is one of the main sources of foreign exchange income - the principal source for one-third of developing countries and one-half of the world's Least Developed Countries (LDCs), according to the UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD, 2010). There is a growing body of evidence that points out that greening tourism can lead to broad economic, social and environmental benefits for the host countries and their communities (Mill & Morrison 2006, WEF 2009, Klytchnikova & Dorosh 2009). From a broader perspective, tourism resources encompass more than nature's endowment. As a place product, tourism requires three levels of resources: the attractions for tourists, including natural, cultural and purpose-built; the infrastructure and superstructure, to support tourist activities; and the physical and social settings, including the hospitality of the community.

The transformation of these resources into an effective tourism product usually requires the effort of the tourism agencies, in particular of tour operators, travel agents and national tourism organisations, in packaging and promoting the whole destination (Liu, 2003). Roehl & Fesenmaier (1992) classified tourists into three groups based on their perception of risk: risk neutral, functional risk, and place risk. The risk neutral group did not consider tourism or their destination to involve risk. The functional risk group considered the possibility of mechanical, equipment, or organizational problems as the major source of tourism- related risk. The place risk group perceived vacations as fairly risky and the destination of their most recent vacation as very risky.

Natural assets or resources can be classified, according to availability, into four main groups: ubiquities, which exist everywhere; commonalities, which are widely available across many areas; rarities, which occur in very few locations; and uniquities, which occur in one place only (Healey & Ilbery, 1990). Goeldner, Charles, Ritchie, Brent, Mcintosh & Rober (1999) compiled the data on different types of attractions that motivate the tourists towards tourism.

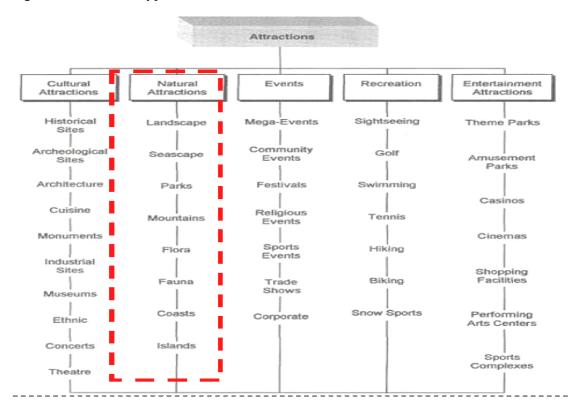
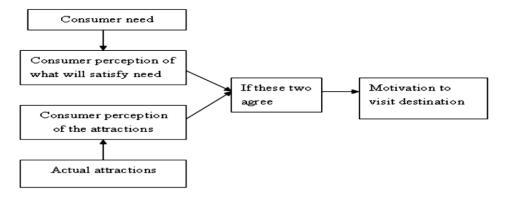


Figure 2.1: Different types of tourist attractions

Source: Goeldner et al. (1999)

Holloway (1994) proposed the motivation process for tourists as follows. Travellers are motivated to satisfy a need, and they have a perception of what will satisfy their need. At the same time, they have a perception of the attractions of the destination and whether the attractions satisfy their needs. If both sides are agreed, travellers are motivated to visit that destination. Figure 2.2 shows the motivation process that affects the decision of a tourist to visit a destination.

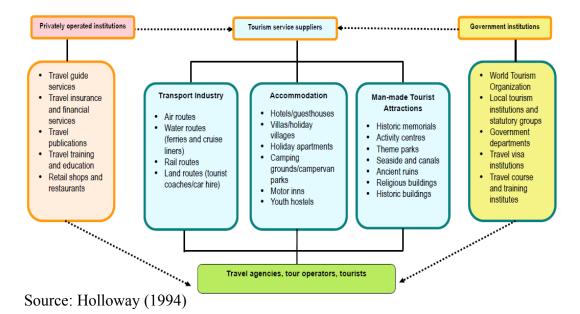
Figure 2.2: Tourist motivation process



Source: Holloway (1994)

The connections between the tourists and the different categories of product suppliers in the tourism industry, narrated by Holloway (1994), are shown in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3: Concept map showing the connections between the tourists and the different categories of product suppliers in the tourism industry



Tourist flows refer to the statistical measure of the volume and direction of the movement of tourists into or out of a destination for a given period of time or as a trend. The push and pull theory can be used to explain the travel patterns of the tourists. Tourist flows are a form of spatial interaction between two areas, the destination area containing a surplus of a commodity, such as tourist attractions (pull factors), and the generating area having a deficit, or demand for that commodity (push factors). The model proposed by Leiper (1990) that describes the tourist flow in a precise way is shown in Figure 2.4.

Traveller-generating region

Transit Route Region

Region

Returning Travellers

Figure 2.4: Model of the tourist flow

Source: Leiper (1990) adopted from Chris et al. (1998)

Müller (1994) proposes that five important dimensions of tourism development exist, together forming the "magic pentagon". This is shown in Figure 2.5.

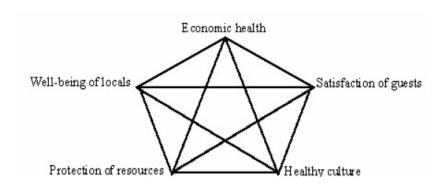


Figure 2.5: Magic pentagon showing the dimensions of tourism development

Source: Müller (1994)

2.2.1: Definition of tourism

The most widely accepted definition for tourism is given by the World Travel Organisation (W.T.O). This was approved by the United Nations Statistical Commission in its twenty-seventh session held from 22nd February to 3rd March 1993. As Per WTO, 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. The term "usual environment" is intended to exclude trips within the place of residence, trips to the usual place of work or education and for daily shopping and other local day-to-day activities. The threshold of twelve months is intended to exclude longterm migration. About the distance travelled, there is no consensus. It varies from at least 40 kms to 160 kms at the most, away from home one way, for any purpose other than commuting to work (WTO, 1995). According to Medlik (2003), the conceptual definition of tourism refers to the broad notional framework, which identifies the essential characteristics, and which distinguishes tourism from similar, often related, but different phenomena. According to Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 1997), tourism is a form of temporary international migration and can, like other types of movement, affect shifts in the distribution of population. It is an accommodating industry that offers a wide range of jobs with diverse human capital requirements in different tourism sectors, and the pay varies considerably (Burns, 1993: 85). It implies travelling, leaving one's home in order to visit other places which, in addition, are often

adapted to tourism and the "tourist gaze" (Cohen, 1995). Tourism is associated with specific locations and settings; it is associated with certain leisurely activities that mark the inversion of ordinary life (Urry, 1990). Tourism is a complex activity comprising travel to and around a destination, for the purpose of "consuming" particular attractions, accommodation and catering, sightseeing, entertainment, specialized and general services (Pearce, 1989).

In the opinion of Dann (1996), tourism is a tautology where tourists merely confirm the discourse which persuaded them to take the trip. Alan, Christine and Brenda (2003) point out that tourism is generally guided by novelty seeking behaviour, there being a consistent tendency to switch destinations rather than to return to a previously visited one. However, tourists travelling for relaxation do demonstrate a higher propensity for repeat visits, as do older age groups who are more likely to return to previously visited places. It is argued by Lee & Cromption (1992: 735) that, in tourism, people are often in search of interesting, thrilling and surprising experiences, and attractions are seen as facilitators for an intangible experience, which is of diverse nature and is dependent upon the outcome of an individual's state of mind resulting from activities undertaken to satisfy one's tourism or cultural needs. Mayo & Jarvis (1981) argue that tourism is a special form of consumption behaviour involving an intangible, heterogeneous purchase of an experiential product. Eugeni (2005) observe that tourism plays a major role in bringing about social change and has a very important economic, productive and cultural influence on the host community. Turner & Ash (1975) support the view that tourism contributes towards the development of the Third World, although it tends to incorporate the worst cultural aspects of the industrialized countries that act as their source markets, thus hindering their progress and development. According to Hasty (2002), tourism may actually contribute to the generation of cross-national anti-colonialism movements. Leiper (1979) invoked a systems approach and defined tourism as the system involving the discretionary travel and temporary stay of persons away from their usual place of residence for one or more nights, excepting tours made for the primary purpose of earning remuneration from points en route. The elements of the system are tourists, generating regions, transit routes, destination regions and a tourist industry. These five elements are arranged in spatial and functional connections.

International Association of Scientific Experts in tourism considers tourism as the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the travel and stay of non-residents, in so far as they do not lead to permanent residence and are not connected with any earning activity (Burkart & Medlik, 1981). Ryan (1991) argues that the impact of tourism on a society is the result of an interaction between the change agent and the inherent strength of the host culture to withstand and absorb the change generators, while retaining its own integrity. Dianne (1999) emphasises that tourism is reliant upon a community's stock of natural and human resources; however, these resources are frequently planned and managed under other statutory and non-statutory planning regimes, such as land use planning, natural resource management and community economic development schemes. Vani (1999) views that the importance of tourism as an area of academic investigation stems from the large contribution that it makes to the national income of several countries and the potential that it offers for generating output and employment growth.

Nevenka (2002: 478) comments that, since tourism is an important contributor to national economies, host countries will find it necessary to take substantial measures to bring their country hit by crisis back onto the market as quickly as possible. He states that peace, safety and security are the conditions sine qua non for the development of tourism. Any threats to the safety of tourists cause a decrease or total absence of activity in an affected destination which, in turn, can negatively influence inbound tourism and divert it to neighbouring destinations as well. Gronroos (1978) observes that tourism, as a part of the service sector, differs from other industries in requiring customers (or users) to "participate" directly both at the production and consumption stages. Go ssling (2002: 285) explains the term 'tourist infrastructure' as spaces that are unable to be used for biological productivity because they are covered with roads, buildings, amusement parks, etc. According to Craik (1995: 83), tourism is a highly competitive business where switching costs are relatively low for tour operators and practically non-existent for the tourists themselves. Therefore, the creation of a sustainable competitive advantage is an essential aspect of the success and profitability of the industry in any country.

2.2.2: Cohen's typology of tourists

One of the earliest and best known is Erik Cohen's (1974) tourist typology who was the first to propose a typology of tourists based upon the sociological theory proposed by Sharpley (2003). This is shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Cohen's typology of tourists

Organised mass tourist	Highly dependent on an 'environmental bubble' created, supplied and maintained by the international tourism industry. Characterised by all-inclusive, fully package holidays. Familiarity dominates; novelty non-existent or highly controlled.
Individual mass tourist	These will use the institutional facilities of the tourism system (scheduled flights, centralised bookings, transfers) to arrange as much as possible before leaving home; perhaps visiting the same sights as mass tourists but going under their own steam.
Explorer	The key phrase here is 'off the beaten track', perhaps following a destination lead given by a travel article rather than simply choosing from a brochure. They will move into the bubble of comfort and familiarity, if the going gets too tough.
Drifter	This type of tourist will seek novelty at all costs, even discomfort and danger. They will try to avoid all contact with 'tourists'. Novelty will be their total goal; spending patterns tend to benefit immediate locale rather than large business concerns.

Source: Sharpley, 2003

2.2.3: Advantages of tourism

MacCannell (1999) proposes that tourism may provide a venue for people to augment their income and for communities to develop their needed infrastructure and to enliven their traditional art forms. Wunder (2000) claims that public benefits are generated by tourism activities through a multiplier effect on the local economy because a local workforce is used in construction and for operating the tourism facilities in a region. Bowen et al. (1991) examine the potential of tourism to promote local agricultural

development, as tourism demand stimulates the production of high value regional specialty foods and local fresh produce and as tourism industry may help boost the export of locally grown specialty products. In the opinion of David et al. (2003), the interplay of tourists and locals during their daily lives determines the nature of a community over the tourism lifecycle. David, Moleam, Ryan & Eric (1999) opines that the development of tourism is a way to make nature reserves economically viable and to provide employment and income for the local population. Ross & Wall (1999) suggest that tourism has the potential to contribute to both conservation and development, and it involves the creation of positive synergetic relationships among tourism, biodiversity and local people through the application of appropriate management strategies. Driver, Brown & Perterson (1991) propose that benefits to the host may include reciprocity, community pride, tolerance, and a stronger sense of ethnic identity. Pitchford (1995) observeed that tourism provides a medium to broadcast the message about itself, its history and its culture to the tourists. Peter & Joanne (2000) state that the residents saw job creation, better incomes, increased civic pride, support for heritage preservation, increased facility provision, and the opportunity to meet new, interesting people as positive benefits of tourism. Renata & Bill (2000) point out that tourism often exerts a positive influence on the provision of recreational facilities and the range of shopping, restaurant, and entertainment facilities for the enjoyment of both, residents and tourists. According to Yiping (2000), tourism is a promoter and accelerator of change; it has a strong effect of integrating the native people into the social, economic, and political life of the mainstream society.

There are many economic and societal benefits to be gained from tourism. Roche (1992) points out that tourism can rejuvenate a physical area, help improve a destination's infrastructure and environmental quality, and be a revenue generator and employment provider. Ludmilla & Alan (2002) argue that without commercial tourism, historically significant but derelict buildings, existing but vanishing craft expertise and esoteric traditional performances might disappear for lack of financial support. Cohen (1986) suggests that tourism can integrate the native participants into the cultural, economic and political life of the majority population. Dwyer, Mellor, Mistilis & Mules (2000) are of the opinion that the prospect of new infrastructure aimed at attracting new tourists is generally widely welcomed as a means of creating additional employment and economic benefits, either directly or indirectly through a multiplier effect. The report published by

the Tourism Task Force (2003) mentions that the perceived potential of tourism has helped to encourage the development of indigenous cultural-tourism in regional and remote areas of Australia so that indigenous communities can capitalise on their local, natural and cultural assets. The WTO (1995) report points out that many countries rely on tourism because it generates revenue, creates employment and promotes private sector growth as well as infrastructural development.

Tourism helps to promote and support conservation, regeneration and economic development as well as to enhance the quality of life of visitors and host communities (Andrew, 2008). It is human-resource intensive, due to the service nature of the industry. It is among the world's top job creators and allows for quick entry into the workforce for youth, women and migrant workers. The wider tourism economy provides, both directly and indirectly, more than 230 million jobs, which represent about 8% of the global workforce. Women make up between 60 and 70 % of the labour force in the industry and half the workers are aged 25 or younger. Tourism creates jobs directly and leads to additional "indirect" employment. It is estimated that one job in the core tourism industry creates about one and a half additional jobs in the tourism-related economy (ILO., 2008). Tourism has many potential benefits for rural areas. It can be an important source of jobs for non-metro communities, especially for those who are economically underdeveloped. As there are many jobs in the tourist industry that do not require advanced training, local residents with few skills can readily work as food servers, retail clerks, and hospitality workers. Tourism not only offers business opportunities to local residents, but also can serve as a vehicle for marketing a place to potential residents and firms, as today's tourist may return later to retire or start a business locally (Frederick, 1992).

Different types of impacts produced by the tourism industry at various levels are clear from Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Types of impacts of tourism industry

Types of impacts	Positive impacts Negative impacts
Economic	1) Contributes to income and standard of living 1) Increases price of goods and services
	2) Improves local economy 2) Increases price of land and housing
	3) Increases employment opportunities 3) Increases cost of living
	4) Improves investment, development and 4) Increases potential for imported labour
	infrastructure spending 5) Cost for additional infrastructure (water, sewer,
	6) Improves public utilities infrastructure power, fuel, medical, etc.) 6) Increases road maintenance and
	7) Improves transport infrastructure transportation systems costs 7) Seasonal tourism creates high-
	8) Increases opportunities for shopping risk, under or unemployment issues
	9) Economic impact (direct, indirect, induced 8) Competition for land with other (higher value) economic uses
	spending) is widespread in the community 9) Profits may be exported by non-local owners
	10) Creates new business opportunities 10) Jobs may pay low wages
Social and	Improves quality of life Excessive drinking, alcoholism,
cultural	2) Facilitates meeting visitors (educational experience) gambling 2) Increased under-age drinking
	3) Positive changes in values 3) Crime, drugs, prostitution
	and customs 4) Increased smuggling 4)

Types of impacts		Positive impacts		Negative impacts
		exchange	5)	Language and cultural effects
		Improves understanding of different communities	6)	Unwanted lifestyle changes
		Preserves cultural identity	7)	Displacement of residents for tourism development
		of host population Increases demand for	8)	Negative changes in values and customs
		historical and cultural exhibits	9)	Family disruption
		Greater tolerance of social differences	10)	Exclusion of locals from natural resources
	/	Satisfaction of psychological needs	11)	New cliques modify social structure
			12)	Natural, political and public relations calamities
Crowding and congestion	1)	Minimizes sprawl	1)	Congestion including interference with other
Congestion	/	Concentrates tourist facilities		businesses
		Old buildings reused for tourism	2)	Overcrowding - exceeding area capacity
		tourism	3)	Conflict
Services		Increases availability of recreation facilities and opportunities	1)	Neglect of non-tourist recreation facilities
		Better standard of services by shops, restaurants and other commerce	2)	Effects of competition
		Improves quality of fire protection	3)	Shortage of goods and services
	4)	Improves quality of police		

Types of impacts	Positive impacts		Negative impacts	
	protection		creases pressure on frastructure	
Taxes	 Additional state a sales tax revenue Lodging tax reveity (or state) 		acreases property taxes	
Community attitude	1) Heightens pride in community	,	eightens community visiveness	
attitude	2) Greater appreciation local resources	/	acreasingly hectic community and personal life	
	3) More facilities and		reates a phony folk culture	
	of choices available 4) More interesting and exciting place to live	and (4) Rower pl	esidents experience sense of sclusion and alienation over anning and development oncerns	
		co	eeling of loss of control over ommunity future (caused by utsider development)	
			ew building styles fail to "fit" ommunity	

Source: Glenn, 2001

2.2.4: Economic impacts of tourism

There is a rich source of literature which emphasises that the tourism industry has potential for economic development in the society. Eagles (2001) and Pitcher, Van & Palmer (1999) have pointed out that tourism can provide development opportunities for remote areas and is capable of providing economic development to the indigenous people. There are two types of income from tourism namely direct income and indirect income. According to Milne (1992), when direct tourism income is spent locally or in the area of the study, indirect and induced effects are generated. Indirect effects occur when firms receiving tourist spending buy supplies and services from other firms in the area. Induced effects are created when personal income from direct and indirect expenditure is spent within the local area. Archer (1982) explains that indirect and induced effects are sometimes called secondary effects. Rodenburg (1980) lists out the objectives of tourism development as increased earnings through employment, increased job opportunities, increased foreign exchange, increased investment, increased production, increased entrepreneurship, increased infrastructure and the minimization of adverse social and cultural effects. Brohman (1996) suggests that foreign exchange accumulation associated with this industry offers the greatest opportunity, but the generation of income, employment, and entrepreneurial activity also makes international tourism a financially attractive policy option for the Third World governments pursuing outward-orientated development strategies. Smith and Jenner (1992) point out that, "the real economic benefit of tourism to any country or community is not revealed by gross foreign exchange earnings but by the proportion retained after deducting the foreign exchange costs of tourism". Tisdell (2000) opines that the contributions made to tourism by economics have basically focused on demand and its forecast, supply-side economic aspects of tourism, issues related to public economics and finance, the economic impact caused by the development of tourism industry, its role in the economic development of countries and regions, its environmental repercussions, and its sustainability.

The contribution of tourism to the local economy is highly important. Tourism's role in the economy is often perceived as being limited to the hospitality industry (cafes, hotels and restaurants), and to outbound and inbound travel agencies and carriers. However, the economic impact of tourism is much greater, since many inputs are needed in order to produce tourism and leisure services, spanning the whole range of farm, agri-food and industrial production, including the production of capital goods as well as construction and public works. Besides, tourism activities also have wider impact on the economy in terms of creating jobs and income for the households through tourists' spending in the local economy. In broad terms, the economic impact of tourism has been defined under three categories. a) Direct impact: it refers to changes in the industries associated directly with visitor spending. b) Indirect impact: it is a multiplier impact through backward and forward linkages. It is about the intermediate consumption for the production of goods and services in the tourism sector. These are goods and services that tourism companies purchase from their suppliers, forming the tourism supply chain. The economic impact of tourism revenue in a country or region can be maximized if the tourism sector procures locally produced goods and services. c) Induced impact: it relates to sales, income or jobs resulting from household spending as a result of income earned from visitor spending (either directly or indirectly). Induced effects also include the consumption of companies that are benefited directly or indirectly from initial expenditure in the tourism sector. The total impact of tourism is the sum of direct impact, indirect impact and induced impact (Stynes, 1997).

2.2.5: Employment benefits from tourism

Lea (1988:15) explains that the tourism industry creates two types of employment namely direct employment and indirect employment. Direct employment refers to those occupations directly derived from and dependent upon tourism and includes employment in accommodation establishments, shops, restaurants, night clubs, bars, government tourism administration, and transport and tour companies. Secondary or indirect employment occurs in sectors supplying the industry and results from increased demand for souvenirs, food products and other such items needed by tourism demand. Paul & Wiwik (1995) have wisely commented that tourism-related employment usually serves to immediately compensate for the unemployment and underemployment typical to many Third World tourism destinations.

2.2.6: Tourism impacts-Social Exchange Theory

Ap (1992) formed a theoretical framework for explaining the residents' attitudes towards tourism development. It is the predominant theoretical base for many studies on impacts

of tourism. This theory suggests that residents evaluate tourism development in terms of expected benefits or costs experienced in return for their services, that is, "social exchange". In other words, residents who perceive personal benefits from tourism development express positive attitude towards it. Social exchange theory has been tested and confirmed by numerous studies in the tourism literature (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Lee & Back, 2003; Perdue, Long & Kang, 1999). King, Pizam & Milman (1993) found that the residents who received economic benefits from tourism were more likely to support tourism development. Perdue, Long & Kang (1995) reported that personal benefits strongly correlated with support for gaming and the positive impacts of gaming such as jobs and recreation opportunities. From a tourism perspective, Andereck et al. (2005) explained social exchange theory as follows. An individual's attitudes toward tourism industry, and the subsequent level of support for its development, will be influenced by his or her evaluation of resulting outcomes in the community. Exchanges must occur to have tourism in a community. Residents must develop and promote it, and then serve the needs of the tourists. Some community residents reap the benefits, while others may be negatively impacted.

2.2.7: Disadvantages of tourism

MacCannell (1999) identifies the disadvantages of tourism as follows. Tourism is an invasion that takes over the host culture and transforms it into a spectacle. The infusion of outside capital takes away local autonomy and places economic power in the hands of the developers and investors. Go"ssling (2002: 300) claims that tourism is fundamentally changing the relationships individuals have with society and nature in a way detrimental to the goals of sustainable development. Urry (1995) states that tourism is increasingly built on the marketing of nature and natural resources, which have become its central elements. According to WWF (1995), tourism allows the use of natural areas (such as remote beaches) which are otherwise of less economic value for these countries, but perfectly meet the demands of this growing industry. Craik (1995: 88) argues that tourism leads to the emergence of a lifestyle that is oriented towards leisure, pleasure and consumption. In the opinion of Ingold (1993), it can be seen as an agent of modernization, which de-contextualizes and dissolves the relationships individuals have with society and

nature, and increases the separation from structures that are the base of sustainable human environmental relations.

2.2.8: Studies on tourism

Batra (1990) in his study on Tourism in Rajasthan-Problems, Potentials and Future Prosects, concluded that there are various snags, impediments and obstacles in the promotion of tourism in the state of Rajasthan in particular, in India in general, some of which were built in nature and some were created by those who were totally unaware of the benefits of tourism. He strongly recommends that tourism activity in Rajasthan must be taken as a dynamic tool for uplifting the social status of our society. Menon (1991) conducted a study on Tourism Management and Administrative Problems in Kerala to bring out the basic issues involved in the field of tourism management and administrative hurdles in the process. The study highlighted that the organisational structure of tourism management lacks integration. He recommended the establishment of a Tourism Board for the State. The study also observed that the resistance to privatization, administrative delay, excessive political interference, ineffectiveness of public sector and disregard of public sentiments and public interests are the obstacles to tourism development in the state. Sudheer (1991) inhis study on Tourism in Kerala: Problems and Prospects, observed that lack of proper planning and implementation was the major hindrance to the growth of tourism in Kerala and that the services provided by the private sector were much superior to the services provided by the government sector. The study found that the tastes of domestic tourists are slightly different from those of foreign tourists and recommended that domestic tourists must be given separate treatment and also observed that there is a need for professionalisation of the tourism department.

Ganesh (1993) in his study on *The Role of State Financial Corporations in Financing Small Industries*, pointed out that the Kerala State Financial Corporation has disbursed more amounts of loans than any other institution and that all the loans are of long term nature. The cost and terms of the loan from the Kerala State Financial Corporation are found to be more attractive. Also, obtaining loans from the Kerala Financial Corporation is found to be a less difficult process. Despite all these positive factors, it is observed that the Kerala Financial Corporation has made less impact on the development of Small Scale Industries in Kerala. Bijendar (1994) in her thesis titled *Problems and Prospects of*

Tourism in Haryana found that the potential of tourism development in any region or country mainly depends on the availability of unique and varied tourist resources. She suggested that close coordination between private and public sector organizations at different levels is the key to the success of tourism development in a region. Gregory (1994) in his dissertation A Study of Tourism Potentiality of Cochin, made an attempt to study the tourism potential of Cochin, and concluded that there is enough scope for tourism attractions in Cochin area, if tapped well.

Kamalakshy (1996) in her thesis titled *Hotel Industry in Kerala with Special References to Tourism* found that the majority of tourists were visiting Kerala for the first time and that too came out of their curiosity. Tourist guidance facilities, tourist information centers, transport facilities and various facilities in hotels remain much below the average expectation of the tourists.

Antony (1997) in his study on The Role of Kerala Tourism Development Corporation in the Promotion of Tourism highlighted how Kerala Tourism Development Corporation could contribute to the development of tourism in the State. Kumar (1998) conducted a study on The Psychographic and Demographic Profiles of Foreign Tourists Visiting Kerala with special reference to Spending Patterns and the study concluded that the demographic profile and life style characteristic of foreign tourists affect their spending patterns in India and Kerala. Brau et al. (2003) attempted to analyze whether specializing in tourism is an appropriate growth strategy for the developing countries. They assessed the relative growth performance of 14 "tourism countries" within a sample of 143 countries, observed during the period 1980-95. Using standard Ordinary Least Square cross-country growth regressions, they show that the tourism countries grew significantly faster than all the other sub-groups (OECD, Oil, DC, small countries) considered in their analysis. They also found that other growth factors like low base value of per capita GDP, high saving/investment propensities or high openness to trade do not significantly contribute to the positive performance of the tourism countries. They point out that tourism specialization is an independent determinant for economic growth.

Kannan (2011) in his thesis made a close look at the food and beverage administration of the luxury hotels in Madurai. The specific objectives of the study are to analyze the trend and growth of tourist arrivals in Madurai, to discuss the profile of the luxury hotels in Madurai, to analyze the food and beverage administration in the luxury hotels in Madurai, to evaluate the preference of food and beverage by sample tourists, to analyze the impact of food and beverage experience during a tour and to offer suitable suggestions to improve food and beverage administration in luxury hotels in the study area. For the purpose of analysis, 500 sample tourists were randomly selected for primary data collection, and all the 500 tourists were post stratified into two categories namely foreign and domestic tourists. The results revealed that a steady increase was found in arrivals of domestic as well as foreign tourists in Tamilnadu and Madurai region. The fluctuation was found to be less in Madurai region compared to Tamilnadu state as a whole, during the period under study. The arrivals of tourists in Madurai was studied by analyzing the variations due to seasonal cyclical irregularity and long term trend. The results revealed that the seasonal variations within a year for arrivals were found to be high. Further it was observed that September to November was an off-season period of arrivals, whereas December to February was the peak period for both domestic and foreign tourist arrivals. He concluded that most of the tourists, especially the foreign tourists have graded Indian food and beverages as delicious and very good. Further, he observed that Indian kitchen was manned with maximum number of staff due to higher volume of work involved and better sale of Indian food and beverages, when compared to other sections.

Eugenio, Morales & Scarpa (2004) examined the impact of tourism on economic growth with an analysis based on a panel data approach, focusing on Latin American countries between 1985 and 1998. The findings show that the tourism sector is a driver of economic growth in medium or low-income countries, though not necessarily in developed countries. Kockelman and Krishnamurthy (2004) proposed a micro-economically rigorous method to characterize travel demand across a great variety of choice dimensions, including trip generation. Their study applied a multivariate negative binomial model for trip demand functions, derived from an indirect, underlying trans logarithmic utility function. Both time and money budgets were incorporated into the model structure via an effective or generalized budget constraint. A nested logit model of trip mode and destination was used to calculate the effective prices for each trip proposed via nested logsum expressions. Manisha (2004) in her thesis tried to study the existing tourism facilities in Saurashtra-Gujarat, to examine the existing tourism patterns, arrivals and use patterns in the state and to assess the existing problems in the way of tourism

development in the state, particularly in terms of tourist information, and publicity awareness aspects. The main factors that were found to be responsible for the low quality of these services in Saurashtra-Gujarat were lack of finances, low standard of education, absence of training institutes leading to shortage of trained staff, manpower shortage, lack of transport services etc. The main suggestions put forward to improve the tourism scenario in the region are: experts in the fields of hotel management and tourism must be associated with all the decision-making bodies of the structure and the Gujarat Tourism Department must have an independent research, development and analysis wing to research tourist demand and tourism structure in Gujarat so as to develop the prospects of tourism in the state.

George (2006) in his thesis tried to create a record on the history of tourism development in Tamilnadu during the post-independence period, to make a review of the plans and policies of the Government of Tamilnadu, to identify the existing problems for tourists in Tamilnadu in the sectors of tourism, to analyse the identified problems and suggest possible measures to have prospective developments for tourism in Tamilnadu, to identify and analyse the problems for the beneficiaries and suggest possible measures for better operation. He found that the main categories of domestic tourists who visit Tamilnadu are the youth and the middle aged persons. The study also showed that the participation of ladies in tourism activities is low. Another important finding was majority of tourists are degree holders and majority of the tourists have their monthly income in the category 'Rs.5,001 - 10,000'. He also noted that *beaches, hill stations, waterfalls, religious sites* and *historical sites* have been ranked as the five best tourist attractions. He pointed out that shortage of hygienic sanitation facilities, non-availability of drinking water, poor service by the service staff and absence of facilities for strolling / walking and boating are major disturbances for the tourists while they visited the beaches.

Joy (2012) in his thesis tried to assess the opinion of tourists and the host community on the facilities provided in the hill destinations in Kerala. He also surveyed the perception of host community on the impact of tourism in the hills of Kerala and also studied the role of promotional agencies in the identification and development of hills as a tourism destination. The study covered a period of ten years from 2001 to 2010. The primary data were collected from tourists, host community and promotional agencies based on three

sets of structured interview schedules. He found that most of the local community opined that tourism creates job opportunities, motivates new business, expands the existing units and also increases the income of the local community. Subash (2012) in his thesis tried to assess the effectiveness of various programmes in the promotion of tourism in Kerala. The study covered a period of ten years from 2001 to 2010. The primary data were collected from officials, tourists and host community based on three sets of pre-tested interview schedules. He found that District Tourism Promotion Council (DTPC) in Kerala undertake a number of programmes for awareness creation, product promotion and provision of amenities at tourist destinations. He also found that these programmes are not found to be effective from the perspective of the tourists and the host community. He concluded that DTPC projects are beneficial to the host community from the sociocultural, economic and environmental point of view.

Raktida (2009) in her thesis tried to identify Indian tourists' demographics and travel patterns, examined Indian tourists' motivation to take the Bangkok area trip, examined the level of importance of information sources, identified the level of satisfaction of Indian tourists on their travel experience of the Bangkok area attributes and examined the intention to return and willingness to recommend the Bangkok area. The findings showed that Indian tourists were motivated to visit the Bangkok area by both push and pull factors. Family and/or friends and the internet were considered important sources in trip decision making. Indian tourists were generally satisfied with the Bangkok area's attributes. They also showed the desire to revisit and recommend Bangkok as a good travel destination. Masudur (2010) in his thesis tried to evaluate the socio-economic impact of tourism development on the local community in Cox's Bazar, Bangladesh. He found that tourism does not contribute in raising crime, gambling, and prostitution in Cox's Bazar. The study also revealed that the local community is totally excluded from the policy formulation process and policy makers do not consider the socio-economic impacts of tourism development on the local community. Local community is benefiting from tourism development but significant scope exists to increase their active participation and equitable benefit-sharing.

Ghialy (2010) in his thesis determined the factors that influence domestic tourism demand in Australia and examined how changes in the economic environment in Australia could

influence this demand. The main findings of the study are as follows: The income elasticity for domestic visitors and interstate trips is negative, implying that Australian households will not choose to travel domestically, when there is an increase in household income. The income variables are positively correlated with domestic business tourism demand, indicating that the demand is strongly responsive to changes in Australia's economic conditions. An increase in the current prices of domestic travel can cause the demand for domestic trips to fall in the next one or two quarters ahead.

Aliv, Nilanjan & Sukanya (2011) tried to explore the role of tourism in promoting local economy, socio-cultural changes and life style of the people residing in and around the tourist locations in West Bengal. The potentiality of tourism in the context of social development in particular and in general is analysed through Tourism Appraisal Model (TAM). They recommend that the Government as well as private agencies, including NGOs intending to promote rural tourism in the state of West Bengal, should ensure sustainable economic development and positive social change in this destination. Hazra (2011) did an inductive research to critically evaluate the application of stakeholder theory for the analysis of tourism destination networks. He explored the dynamics of the relationships among the tourism organisations involved, using the case of Agra, India. This research examined the relationships of power and dependency that exist between individual and group organisations and the way in which they motivate their behaviour towards each other in tourism industry.

Cristiana (2011) in her thesis concentrated on the tourist representations and practices in India by focusing on the case of Varanasi, the Indian pilgrimage city on the banks of the Ganges. She analysed the city's riverfront as the place where tourist, ritual, and day-to-day activities are played out and negotiated, and where the aesthetics of landscape is confronted with the materialities and the practices inherent to this place. She has adopted an ethnographic approach, combining participant observation, interviews and questionnaires, visual methods, and textual analysis of popular tourist literature. Panchal (2012) in her thesis aimed to highlight the relationship between tourism and positive psychology in the context of Asian spa tourism by analysing tourist motivations, the experience of flow and the perceived benefits of spa going. The study involved on-site surveys in India, Thailand and the Philippines. The results of the study showed that the

319 spa-going tourists reported a moderately high propensity to experience flow during a spa treatment, thereby indicating that spa treatments generally provide positive experiences to tourists. It was found that the tourist spa-goers are likely to experience intrinsic rewards from spa treatments. Also, the results suggested that tourists are likely to purchase spa treatments for their future holidays.

Liedewij (2013) tried to find the relationship between community participation and tourism impact satisfaction, by making a comparative study on two communities in Thailand: Mae La Na and Koh Yao Noi. The relationship between local participation and tourism impact satisfaction was found to be remarkable in Mae La Na community and the results concluded that the benefits that tourism brings to the communities are experienced by all members in that community. In the case of Koh Yao Noi community, a relationship between participation and the perceived tourism impact was found. But the effects of tourism were found to be enjoyed only by a part of the community. Reenu (2013) in her thesis mainly tried to analyse the levels of satisfaction about the various aspects and components of tourism for the tourists visiting Punjab. The main findings of the study were that there is no significant improvement between the two types of tourists i.e. packaged tour and non-packaged tour tourists on account of number of nights of stay. The study indicated a significant improvement in the overall satisfaction of respondents of foreign origin and domestic tourists.

2.3: Alternative tourism

Alternative tourism can be broadly defined as forms of tourism that are made to be friendly to the environment and to respect social and cultural values of the communities, and which allow both hosts and guests to enjoy positive and worthwhile interaction and shared experiences (Stephen & John, 1999: 38). Alternative tourism is defined as tourism, where the main attraction for tourists is the physical and cultural environment of the destination and it encompasses both passive cultural sightseeing and active sports activities, responsibly based on an area's social and natural resources (Bramwell & Lane, 1993; Harrison & Husbands, 1996; Komilis, 1993; Mieczkowski, 1995; Middleton & Hawkins, 1998; Scheyens, 1999). Alternative tourism stresses slow sustainable growth, which can allow more sensitivity to local social economic needs, where tourism revenues can be spent in the destination areas for a long-term perspective tourism development

(Dodds & Kuehnel, 2009). The birth of alternative tourism was due to widespread criticism of mass tourism and its negative effects on destination areas. Alternative tourism incorporated soft tourism, small-scale tourism, green-tourism, nature-tourism and integrated tourism. It was hoped to prove consistent with natural, social and community values, as it could have less negative effects on destination areas, environment and population without diminishing positive economic effects (Smith & Eadington, 1992: 3).

Alternative tourism emphasized the idea of preserving social, natural and historical assets of tourist destinations. Hence, it was considered as the main factor in tourism development. As a consequence of alternative tourism, the concept of sustainable tourism was used as the main goal of tourism development. The basic reason behind the rapid growth of alternative tourism is the recognition of the potential for tourism development to produce adverse environmental and social impacts that undermine the long-term attractiveness of the destinations (Moscardo, 2001). The major indication of alternative tourist activities is that "alternative forms of tourism and tourist will have fewer and less severe negative effects on destination areas, environment and their populations without diminishing the positive economic effects" (Smith & Eadington, 1992: 32).

Cater & Lowman (1994) note that alternative tourism comprises small scale, locally owned activities. They suggest that these contrast with mass tourism, which is often characterized by large-scale multinational concerns, which repatriate the profits to offshore countries. Other characteristics of alternative tourism include its minimal negative environmental and social impacts, and it also helps to develop other sectors of the local economy. Finally, alternative tourism fosters the involvement of local people in the decision making process and includes them in the tourism development process. Using these criteria, alternative tourism exceeds from being purely a concern for the physical environment that typifies green tourism, to include economic, social and cultural considerations. Thus alternative tourism can be viewed as synonymous with the concept of sustainable tourism development (Holden, 2000: 137).

2.3.1: Features of alternative tourism

Stephen & John (1999: 20) stated the features of alternative tourism as follows: Preserve, protect and enhance the quality of the resource base and fostering and active promotion of

development, in relation to additional visitor attractions and infrastructure, with roots in the specific locale, and developed in ways that complement local attributes. The endorsement of infrastructure, hence economic growth, when and where it improves local conditions and not where it is destructive or exceeds the carrying capacity of the natural environment or the limits of the social environment whereby the quality of community life is adversely affected. Tourism which attempts to minimize its impact upon the environment, is ecologically sound, and avoids the negative impacts of many large-scale tourism developments undertaken in areas that have not previously been developed. An emphasis is given not only to ecological sustainability, but also cultural sustainability.

Table 2.3: Comparison between mass tourism and alternative tourism

Mass Tourism	Alternative Tourism				
General Features					
Rapid development	Slow development				
Maximizes	Optimizes				
Socially, environmentally, inconsiderate, aggressive	Socially, environmentally, considerate, cautions				
Short term	Long term				
Remote control	Local control				
Unstable	Stable				
Price consciousness	Value consciousness				
Quantitative	Qualitative				
Growth	Development				
Peak holiday periods, seasonal	Staggered holiday periods, not necessarily seasonal				
Capacity for high seasonal demand	Staggered holiday periods, not necessarily seasonal				
Tourism development everywhere	Development only in suitable places				
Tourist	Behaviour				
Large groups	Singles, families, small groups				
Fixed program	Tourists directed				
Spontaneous decisions	Spontaneous decisions				
Comfortable and passive	Demanding and active				

Source: Gartner, 1996, pp 339-340

Brohman (1996) acknowledges that there are five recurring features of alternative tourism. The first is that it involves small scale development, usually within villages or small communities. The second common feature of alternative tourism is that local ownership of businesses is preferred, such as family businesses, instead of multinational corporations. Third, local involvement in the local and regional tourism development planning is encouraged in alternative tourism projects. The fourth characteristic is an emphasis on environmental sustainability. Finally, he states that alternative tourism development should not harm the local culture, but rather respect local traditions and create opportunities for cultural exchange. A comparison between the features of mass tourism and alternative tourism is made in Table 2.3.

2.3.2: Studies on alternative tourism

Yang, Pennington Lori, Donald (1997) discussed the implications and effects of the tourism development scale on natural resources and the environment from the perspective of externalities, strategic business behaviours, energy and resource efficiency, and the pollution detecting and monitoring abilities of environmental administrators. They concluded that small scale development is not necessarily more sustainable or environmentally sound than larger scale development. It is a fallacy that alternative forms of tourism development need to be on a small scale. To be sustainable, scale considerations should be subject to the efficiency principle and the carrying capacity of the environment. If efficiency and carrying capacity are ignored, small scale development as well as large scale development will equally lead to environmental deterioration. Mingyu, Luc, Xioakun & Robert (2009) in their study focused on three mountain communities in the Liming Valley in Northwest Yunnan in China to identify how local farmers adopted tourism and to what extent tourism changed their agricultural practices. It was found that the households that generated more than 50% of their income from tourism did not use this as an opportunity to reduce their agricultural activities. Tourism provided complementary cash for these families to hire seasonal labour which in turn helped to cultivate more land and increase the intensity of cultivation. It was also found that tourism was less likely to stimulate local farmers to adopt more ecological cultivation measures to control soil erosion and water pollution.

Yilmaz and Demircioglu (2009) in their study tried to determine the effect of climate and weather on tourism and recreational activities in the city of Erzurum, Turkey. The people who participated in the survey live in a city, which is a well-known winter sports center and where extreme climatic features in winter are prevalent, and have to experience, at least, an eight-month cold period. The study results showed that they would still prefer the summer season for recreation and tourism, even if they were given full year recreation opportunities. This condition was because of the lack of efficient winter recreation facilities and they suggested that this kind of facilities should be constructed for tourism to be popular in the winter season as well. Loizos (2012) in his paper explored the alternative forms of tourism and discussed the need for defining, developing and for using them. He also explained how and why Spain, Greece, Slovenia and Croatia used alternative forms of tourism. The results showed that Spain, Greece and Slovenia used certain complementary, interfering, alternative forms of tourism strategies for tourism development, while Croatia substituted mass tourism with alternative tourism.

2.4: Sustainable tourism

Sustainable tourism is a major focus in the debate on environmentally integrated tourism development. But existing research shows that sustainability is a complex concept, and one that requires more critical and comprehensive analysis (Butler, 1999; Mowforth & Munt, 2003). Tourism researchers first turned their attention to social and environmental issues almost four decades ago (Allen, Long, Perdue & Kieselbach 1988; Brougham & Butler, 1981; Cater, 1987; Cohen, 1978; Farrell & McLellan, 1987; Liu & Var, 1986; Smith, 1977; Turner & Ash, 1975; Young, 1973). Research using the specific term sustainable tourism, however, commenced barely two decades ago (May, 1991; Nash & Butler, 1990). The ideals that pertain to sustainability were first applied to the tourism industry by the Mexican architect Héctor Ceballos-Lascuráin. In 1983, while heading the Mexican conservation NGO PRONATURA, he coined the term "eco-tourism" to describe his vision of tourism as a way to positively influence environmental conservation and economic development (Jamal, Marcos & Amanda, 2006). By the early 1990s, the idea of sustainability was built into tourism development with an evolving number of conceptualisations and a search for indicators (Blackstock et al., 2008; Clarke, 1997; Miller, 2001; Valentin & Spengenberg 2000). At the same time, the transformation of production and consumption in Western societies towards post-Fordist production supported alternative and green trends in consumption, including the tourism sector. This resulted in a number of new forms and terms such as eco-tourism and responsible tourism which were often seen as more environmentally conscious products (Wheeller, 1993).

Sustainability is a concept that is frequently used in relation with tourism development. While there does not exist a universal definition of sustainability, many scholars agree that sustainable development includes long term positive economic, social and environmental outcomes (Hunter, 1997; UNWTO, 2004a; Goodwin, 2011). In relation to tourism development, sustainability often enters the discussion regarding different forms of tourism and their impacts. Conventional mass tourism, for instance, is known to have many negative environmental and socio-cultural impacts, while, at the same time, the economic benefits are also frequently not enjoyed by the local population (Telfer & Wall, 2000; Torres, 2003; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008).

Butler (1993: 29) defines sustainable tourism as tourism which is developed and maintained in an area in such a manner and at such a scale that it remains viable over an indefinite period and does not degrade or alter the environment in which it exists to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and well-being of other activities and processes. The concept of sustainable tourism, as developed by the World Tourism Organization (WTO) in the context of the United Nations sustainable development process, refers 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" (UN, 2001). Hunter (1997: 850) describes sustainable tourism as 'a set of principles, policy prescriptions, and management methods which chart a path for tourism development such that a destination area's environmental resource base, including natural, built, and cultural features is protected for future development'. The World Tourism Organisation defines sustainable tourism as 'tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities' (UNWTO, 2012).

Sustainable tourism is tourism and associated infrastructures that, both now and in the future, operate within natural capacities for the regeneration and future productivity of natural resources, recognize the contribution that people and communities, customs and lifestyles, make to the tourism experience and accept that these people must have an equitable share in the economic benefits of local people and communities in the host areas (Eber, 1992: 3). It is argued that sustainable tourism needs to be conceptualized in a more comprehensive way so as to appraise meaningfully and critically its interconnectedness with the natural, social and economic elements at multiple scales and time periods (McKercher, 1999). Sustainable tourism therefore can be best construed either as an "adaptive paradigm" (Hunter, 1997) or as "adaptive management" (Farrell & Twining-Ward, 2005), which addresses issues of unpredictability of events, uncertainties about the outcome of events and complexities of scale and times.

Ko (2005) developed a conceptual framework for tourism sustainability assessment based on eight dimensions: political, economic, socio-cultural, production-related aspects, environmental impact, ecosystem quality, biodiversity and environmental policies. Each dimension is assessed on the basis of several quantitative and qualitative indicators which are scaled and clustered to assess the sustainability of a tourist destination. Puppim (2003) presents four types of environmental actions to ensure sustainability in tourism: building institutional capacity, establishment of protected areas, investment in environmental projects (sanitation, water, waste management etc.), and control of private actions. Strategies for managing those impacts are also discussed in detail by WTO (1997). At the policy level, development plans, which include tourism and which set out zones for tourist use, should determine rights of access to areas and consider what sort of activities are suitable for the area. Economic mechanisms such as subsidies could be used to encourage more sustainable practices and provide incomes to protect conservation of the environment. For the development of infrastructures, projects should use minimal impact construction techniques, native species for landscaping and appropriate architecture styles. Infrastructure development should also take into account recycling, waste minimization and energy efficiency programmes.

Cater (1993) identifies three key objectives for sustainable tourism: meeting the needs of the host population in terms of improved living standards both in the short and long term,

satisfying the demands of a growing number of tourists, and safeguarding the natural environment in order to achieve both of the preceding aims. Farrell (1999) highlights the 'sustainability trinity' which aims at the smooth and transparent integration of economy, society and environment. Prosser (1994) highlights four forces of social change that are driving this search for sustainability in tourism: dissatisfaction with existing products, growing environmental awareness and cultural sensitivity, realisation by destination regions of the precious resources they possess and their vulnerability, and the changing attitudes of developers and tour operators.

Bramwell and Lane (1993) praise sustainability as a positive approach intended to reduce the tensions and friction created by the complex interactions between the tourism industry, tourists, the environment and the host communities so that the long-term capacity and quality of both natural and human resources can be maintained. Applying the constant capital rule to tourism, Garrod and Fyall (1998) propose two approaches to sustainable tourism: the macro and micro approaches. The former involves the use of environmental balance sheets to measure sustainability conditions, while the latter entails the use of social cost-benefit analysis at the level of the individual tourism development project. Fossati and Panella (2000) make a distinction between 'strong' and 'weak' sustainability. They argue that the former stresses the importance of irreversibility with regard to certain critical aspects of natural capital, while the latter allows substitution between man-made and natural components.

Payne (1993: 154) suggested that sustainable tourism must be capable of adding to the array of economic opportunities open to people without adversely affecting the structure of economic activity. It ought not to interfere with existing forms of social organization. Finally, sustainable tourism must respect the limits imposed by ecological communities. Coccossis (1996) has suggested that there are at least four ways to interpret tourism in the context of sustainable development: a sectoral viewpoint such as the economic sustainability of tourism, an ecological viewpoint emphasizing the need for ecologically sustainable tourism, a viewpoint of the long-term viability of tourism, recognizing the competitiveness of destinations, and a viewpoint accepting tourism as part of a strategy for sustainable development throughout the physical and human environments. Cooper et al. (2008), Moreno, Salas, Gonzalez & Mora (2010) and Mitchell et al. (2009) have

pointed out that in developing countries, sustainable tourism investment can help to create job opportunities, especially for poorer segments of the population. The move toward more sustainable tourism can increase job creation. Additional employment in energy, water, and waste services and expanded local hiring and sourcing are expected from the greening of mainstream tourism segments.

United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) launched in 2002 the ST-EP (Sustainable Tourism for the Elimination of Poverty) initiative, aimed at reducing poverty levels through developing and promoting sustainable forms of tourism. The Sustainable Tourism for Eliminating Poverty (ST-EP) initiative has identified seven different mechanisms through which the poor can benefit directly or indirectly from tourism: (1) undertaking measures to increase the level of the poor working in tourism enterprises; (2) maximising the proportion of tourism spending that is retained in local communities and involving the poor in the supply process; (3) promoting the direct sales of goods and services to visitors by the poor from informal businesses; (4) establishing and managing more formal tourism enterprises by the poor, either individually or at a community level; (5) using taxes or levies on tourism income or profits with proceeds benefiting the poor; (6) supporting the poor in money or in kind, by visitors or tourism enterprises; and (7) investing in infrastructure that offers local communities the chance to gain new access to available resources (UNWTO 2004b).

Hall (2000) asserts that a sustainable tourism industry requires a commitment by all parties involved in the planning process to sustainable development principles. The long-term integration of social, environmental and economic, as well as cultural and political goals can be attained only through such widespread commitment. The success of sustainable tourism planning depends on existing planning and management functions that guide appropriate developments and the ability to respond to pressure on infrastructure and environments created by the increasing tourism demand (Bramwell & Lane, 2000). Inskeep (1991) argues that the special relationship between tourism and the environment which is based on a unique dependency on natural and cultural resources, requires a balanced approach to maximise the associated benefits and minimise the negative impacts (Dianne & John, 2007).

2.4.1 Features of sustainable tourism

There are some important features of sustainable tourism. Quality: Sustainable tourism provides a quality experience for visitors, while improving the quality of life of the host community and protecting the quality of the environment. Continuity: Sustainable tourism ensures the continuity of the natural resources upon which it is based and the continuity of the culture of the host community, while providing experiences for visitors. Balance: Sustainable tourism balances the needs of the tourism industry, supporters of the environment, and the local community. Sustainable tourism also emphasizes mutual goals and co-operation among visitors, the host community, and the destinations. These goals include the following: improving the quality of life of host communities, preserving the environment and natural resources for future generations, protecting the quality of the environment by maintaining biological diversity and ecological systems and ensuring the cultural integrity and social cohesion of communities to provide a high quality experience for visitors (Moscardo, 2003).

2.4.2: Requirements for the development of sustainable tourism

The development of sustainable tourism needs the following requirements. Tourist resources - natural, historical, cultural and others - are preserved in a way that allows them to be used in the future, whilst benefiting today's society. The planning and management of tourist development are conducted in a way that avoids triggering of serious ecological or socio-cultural problems in the region concerned. The overall quality of the environment in the tourist region is preserved and, if necessary, improved. The level of tourist satisfaction should be maintained to ensure that destinations continue to be attractive and retain their commercial potential. Finally tourism should largely benefit all members of society (Sanchey, 2005).

2.4.3: Studies on sustainable tourism

Weinberg et al. (2002) conducted a study on sustainable tourism in Monteverde, which constitutes a significant part of the protection of Costa Rican forests. They conclude that the eco-tourism business in Monteverde exists as what they call an "eco-tourism treadmill", in which the introduction of market-driven principles into the small eco-tourism-based local economy serves to exponentially enhance the industry, eventually

focusing on the desires of the extra local companies that own the businesses, and marginalizing the locals' interests. In this way, they theorize that eco-tourism will eventually revert to a form of mass tourism. Diana (2009) in her study addressed sustainable tourism in New Zealand in the context of the Chinese inbound visitor market to New Zealand. This research identified that a number of factors do impact on Chinese visitor travel choice and behaviour, such as safety and cleanliness. A large proportion of Chinese visitors also perceived New Zealand to be more than just a reasonably sustainable tourism destination. This indicates that New Zealand's 'clean, green' reputation potentially acts as a key pull factor in the Chinese visitors' holiday making decisions. The results also indicate that current Chinese visitor package tours need to shift focus from being commission-based shopping endeavours to tours that entail aspects that feature the essence of New Zealand and the country's environmentally sustainable position.

Peter (2001) studied the sustainable tourism development in small tourism companies in Ostrobothnia in Finland. The results showed that, on the one hand, there was a positive attitude towards sustainability issues in small tourism companies in Finland, but, on the other hand, most tourism companies have not yet engaged actively in sustainable tourism development processes. It was also found that the small tourism companies want and need external support, but the whole sustainable tourism development process seems to be in jeopardy because the project leaders have no environmental management training.

2.5: Eco-tourism

Eco-tourism is a type of alternative tourism that embraces visiting natural areas, combined with the theoretical responsibility of preserving such environments (Cater, 1993). Ceballos (1983) unbundled eco-tourism as travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas, with the specific objective of studying, admiring and enjoying the scenery and wildlife and any existing cultural manifestations. Some experts suggest that there were two major components that contributed to the emergence of ecotourism. First, eco-tourism is linked to the environmental movement of the 1970's and 1980's. Second, there was a great dissatisfaction with mass tourism due to over-development, environmental pollution, and the invasion of culturally insensitive and economically disruptive foreigners (Honey, 1999; Orams, 1995). This combination of an

increase in environmental awareness and the emerging dissatisfaction with mass tourism led to an increased demand for eco-tourism (Blamey, 2001).

Rymer (1992) defines eco-tourism as 'centered on tourists' desire for immersion in a relatively natural environment in which they and their support facilities have low impact upon the environment. Western (1993) defines eco-tourism as responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the welfare of local people. Boyd et al. (1994) propose that eco-tourism is reliant on natural phenomena in relatively undisturbed sites, such as protected areas. Kutay (1989) suggests that eco-tourism is a nature-tourism activity which directly or indirectly promotes conservation and supports sustainable economic development. Scace (1993) insists that eco-tourism must simultaneously satisfy eight descriptive criteria, including consistency with a positive environmental ethos, biocentrism, enhancement of the resource base, attainment of educational benefits, and conveyance of high informational and emotional dimensions. Tao, Eagles & Smith (2004) in their study have opined that the promotion of eco-tourism is a way to attract more foreigners to visit national parks and understand the ecology of these places. Eco-tourism is defined as a spectrum of nature-based activities that foster visitor appreciation, understanding of natural and cultural heritage and are managed to be ecologically, economically and socially sustainable (Queens Land Eco-tourism plan, 2003-2008). According to Yadghar (2004), rural tourist destination is very fragile in an ecological, social and cultural sense. Many tourists visit rural areas for the purpose of bird and animal watching and to learn about local flora and fauna.

Wallace (1997) points out that local economy is more robust, if it is diverse and if the benefits from eco-tourism are an additional income other than income from other traditional activities. Chris (2000) proposes eco-tourism as a means to deal with negative environmental effects of mass tourism by encouraging small groups to act in environmentally friendly ways. David (1999) claims that active eco-tourism is frequently associated with primary-purpose trips of relatively long duration, specialized "ecolodge"-type accommodations, venues closer to the wilderness end of the spectrum, the provision of minimal facilities and services within these venues, and a high degree of commitment and involvement among the participants.

Boyd, Stephen, Butler & Richard (1996) proposed a structure based on eight components for the identification of opportunities and the management of eco-tourism, something they refer to as the "eco-tourism opportunity spectrum". The components are access, other resource-related activities, attractions offered, existing infrastructure, social interaction, level of skill and knowledge, acceptance of visitor impacts and acceptance of a management regime. Ross and Wall (1999) have made significant contributions towards the research in eco-tourism. They have proposed the flow chart showing the relation between eco-tourism and sustainability as shown in the Figure 2.6.

Figure 2.6: Relation between eco-tourism and sustainability



Source: Ross & Wall (1999: 24)

2.5.1: Objectives of eco-tourism

The objectives of for eco-tourism and its possible indicators made by Ross & Wall (1999) are shown in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Different objectives of eco-tourism

Possible economic, infrastructural and social benefits to local people from ecotourism

Type of benefit	Form of benefit	Examples of indicators	
Economic benefits	Increased employment opportunities (guides, transportation, construction; protected area employees; restaurants, motels, shops, retail, etc.) Entrepreneurship Distribution of tourist revenues	Number of Locals employed in tourism-related employment Number of local entrepreneurs (restaurants, shops, entertainers, accomodations); Ratio of locals to outsiders	
Infrastructure benefits	Access to goods and services Quality/access to health care; education Comminication infrastructure Transportation infrastructure	Distance of nearest town for goods and services including health care/education provisions (Quality of) mail delivery, telephones, electricity supply? Quality of roads, public transportation?	
Social welfare benefits	The indirect benefits of improved infrastructure, ture, and socio-economic status Status of environmental conditions Intercultural appreciation Strengthening of cultural pride heritage	Health and education levels of residents, effects of increased disposable income Nature of local-tourist interactions Locals attitudes towards tourists and tourism Authentic or commodified opportunities to view or experience local culture	

Source: Ross & Wall (1999: 125)

2.5.2: Benefits of eco-tourism

Eco-tourism offers different types of benefits to the society. They are compiled by Ross and Walls (1999) as shown in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5: Benefits of eco-tourism

Objectives for ecotourism and possible indicators

Function	Objective	Examples of variables indicating achievement of objective				
Protection of natural area	Provision of local socio- economic benefits	Increased employment oppurtunities Local distribution of tourism revenues Improved local infrastructure (transportation, communications, access to and provisions of goods and services) Improved access to social benefits (e.g. health care, education) Improved intercultural relations and appreciation (through positive interactions from host and tourist) Local capacity building towards self-sufficiency/ decentralizaton/local empowerment				
Generation of money	2. Provision of environmental education services	Passive and active learning through interpretive services in protected area or ecotourism site Involvement and participation of local communities, committees and schools in environmental education or interpretive services and programs Heightened awareness and nature appreciation (transformative values) for visitors and local residents				
Education	3. Conservation of the natural area	Money generated from tourism revenues to contribute to maintenance, protection and management of natural area and its inhabitants Protection which occurs from concerned participants in ecotourism and conservation (through donations or through active involvement) (Heightened if objectives 1, 2 and 4 are fulfilled)				
Quality tourism	4. Provision of a high-quality experience	If objectives 1–3 are fulfilled				
Local participation	Increased foreign exchange	By receiving international tourists who contribute to the local economy				
	6. Promotion of environment stewardship/ advocacy	Both tourists and local residents support conservation of natural resources because of transformative values nurtured from positive experiences with nature, and by achieving objectives 1-5				

Source: Ross and Wall (1999: 128)

2.5.3: Eco-tourism paradigm

Ross and Wall (1999: 126) proposed the concept of eco-tourism paradigm as follows: In successful eco-tourism, the dynamics between people, resources and tourism are such that each makes positive contributions to the others. This concept is outlined in the Figure 2.7.

Figure 2.7: Eco-tourism paradigm



Source: Ross and Wall (1999: 125)

2.5.4: Types of eco-tourism

Eco-tourism can broadly be classified into hard and soft eco-tourism. Weaver (2002) makes a clear distinction between the characteristics of both hard eco-tourism and soft eco-tourism, as in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6: Characteristics of the hard and soft eco-tourism



Source: Adapted from Weaver (2002)

2.5.5: Studies on eco-tourism

Eagles, Paul, Jennifer, Ballantine & David (1992), in their case study on eco-tourism in Kenya and Costa Rica, found that the eco tourists distrust the typical advertising and consumer information provided by the industry. They, therefore, search for other signs of value, such as word-of-mouth reputation or environmental group accreditation. It was also found that the eco-tourism accreditation schemes provided a higher level of

consumer assurance of quality and, therefore, a higher level of consumer satisfaction than anything else. Eagles and Elke (1994) analysed Canadian ecotour operators' programs for the key features used to advertise their products. They found that national parks, striking natural features, wildlife, interesting flora, specialised outdoor recreation service facilities, knowledgeable guides and service facilities are all used by the ecotour operators to sell the product. Friesen (1995) tried to analyse the tourists' opinions about their visit to Ngorongoro Conservation Area in Tanzania. He found high levels of visitor satisfaction with the park and with the visit experience. He also found that increased use of the area had led to rising concerns about too many safari vehicles, off road driving and poor picnic facilities.

Vijayakumar (1995) in his study on *Sustainable Development of Eco-Tourism in Kerala*, points out that eco-tourism implies an enjoyment of nature's beauty as well as understanding the culture and natural history of the environment. The main emphasis of his study is on the promotion of eco-tourism in Kerala, as it cares for the conservation of eco-tourism, while respecting the environment. Burger (2000) studied the effects of eco-tourism on conserving the land on a landscape scale, particularly the protection of shorebird habitat in Cape May, New Jersey, and on the riverine and riparian ecosystems. He summarised that Cape May County in New Jersey has used eco-tourism as a tool to create local support, particularly from birdwatchers, for the protection of the migratory habitat of shorebirds.

Clem & Clevo (2000) examined the extent of environmental education and its impact on attitudes to conservation of sea turtles and actions by the ecotourists to support such conservation as a result of their visits to Mon Repos Conservation Park (Queensland), an important marine turtle rookery. It was found that a considerable amount of environmental education is obtained by visitors and this has positive and statistically significant impacts on their desire to protect sea turtles and their intended actions to do so. Langholz and Lassoie (2001) conducted a study of private reserves in Costa Rica, many of which were used primarily for eco-tourism. Their main finding was that poaching of animals such as white-tailed deer, peccary, agouti, jaguars, pumas, and ocelots, was a major problem for private reserve owners. Campbell (2002) assessed the political, social, economic, and environmental objectives of eco-tourism in the case-study sites in rural

Costa Rica. The results reflected that, generally, experts in marine turtle biology and conservation were optimistic about eco-tourism as a potential wildlife conservation tool. But, the case studies analysed throughout this article show that environmental, political, and socio-economic benefits of eco-tourism are difficult to achieve in practice.

Farrell and Jeffrey (2002) studied the impacts of tourist arrivals at eco-tourism destinations considering five different protected areas in Costa Rica, as well as three others in Belize in Central America. The study showed that the most prevalent impacts of tourist arrivals in these areas are soil erosion, vegetative cover (canopy) loss, and damage to trees. Bernardo (2004), in his study on Eco-tourism and Sustainable Development in Costa Rica, concluded that there is a paradox of eco-tourism and sustainable development. On one side of the spectrum there is pure eco-tourism, which is founded on the guiding principles of eco-tourism, with practices and policies geared towards sustainability. On the other side, there is watered down eco-tourism, which lacks the true substance that makes eco-tourism sustainable. In this case, economic ambitions usually overshadow the potential social and environmental benefits of eco-tourism. Oliver (2005) made 251 case studies on eco-tourism from the literature, and found that over 50% of eco-tourism case studies were reported from Africa and Central America. He concluded that the overall distribution of eco-tourism case studies did not reflect vertebrate endemism, overall tourism distribution in terms of tourist numbers and receipts. He also stressed that there are significant improvements between continents and habitats with regard to the proportion of sustainable case studies: eco-tourism is perceived to be less sustainable in South America and Asia, and in island and mountain habitats.

Christopher (2005) tried to examine eco-tourism in the Kelabit Highlands, Malaysia, in terms of the sustainability of the industry. The empirical material, which is based on interviews carried out in the field, is analysed within the context of sustainable development theory, in order to examine the central and most critical factors in determining the long-term future of eco-tourism in the Kelabit Highlands, and, in particular, how these factors are likely to affect tourism patterns and the structure of the tourism industry in this region. The central conclusion drawn is that the geographic isolation of the area and the logging of the Kelabit communal forests are the two most critical factors impacting upon the tourism industry in the Kelabit Highlands. Claudette &

Cynthia (2006) in their study on planning for sustainable community-based eco-tourism in Uaxactun, Guatemala, found the lack of local participation as the most significant obstacle impeding Uaxactun's ability to successfully implement sustainable, community-based eco-tourism. They noticed that this lack of participation would hinder the community's ability to adequately plan, evaluate and monitor projects, and are a major flaw shared by many failed eco-tourism programs.

Abhijit (2007) in his thesis on eco-tourism tried to make a critical evaluation of tourism in protected areas in India, using a representative sample for analysis. This study concluded that eco-tourism in sensitive areas cannot be conducted as a purely business venture and offers the following policy recommendations: Protected area managers should partner with local communities and NGOs to integrate eco-tourism with sustainable livelihoods; experts should be consulted on the design of low-impact infrastructure; costs should be modest to balance conservation and community development against access to ordinary citizens; and visitor education should be an integral component to improve visitor experience. Guangming et al. (2008) tried to study the economic benefits of eco-tourism in China by considering the Wolong Nature Reserve for Giant Pandas as a case study. The results showed that a significant inequality exists between the local rural residents and the other types of stakeholders. The rural residents are the primary bearers of the cost of conservation, but the majority of economic benefits (investment, employment, and goods) in three key eco-tourism sectors (infrastructural construction, hotels/ restaurants, and souvenir sales) go to other stakeholders. The results also show that the distribution of economic benefits is unequal among the rural residents inside the reserve. Most rural households that benefit from eco-tourism are located near the main road and potentially have less impact on panda habitat than households far from the road and closer to panda habitats.

Jacobus, Carel & Miriam (2009) studied the Costa Rican experiences with eco-tourism by assessing the positive and negative environmental, economic and social impacts of eco-tourism development at four tourist destinations - Manuel Antonio, Monteverde, Tortuguero and Ascomafor. The analysis reveals that the economic, social and environmental effects of tourism development in Costa Rica are both positive and negative. The important positive aspects of eco-tourism development were the protection

of natural areas and increasing job opportunities. The most important drawbacks of ecotourism development were sewage problems, lack of sufficient waste management, uncontrolled building of tourist facilities and the disintegration of local communities' social and cultural structures.

Roselyne (2009) tried to study the linkages between eco-tourism and the economy from the Kenyan perspective. Research was undertaken in communities adjacent to Masai Mara and Amboseli area in Kenya. The results showed that eco-tourism may generate higher economic returns than other resource activities and secondly, it may benefit local economies, providing an incentive to ensure nearby biodiversity, if sustainably used. Marcos and Jorge (2010) made an evaluation of collaborative strategies for eco-tourism and recreational activities in natural parks of Rio de Janeiro in Brazil. The results suggest that the eco-tourism objective is still far from being reached, and that the collaborative strategies used are not sufficient to compensate for the organizational, material and human limitations that encumber these agencies. It was also concluded that there lacks a strategic vision on the part of the three branches of government involved in the management of these parks, in the sense of viewing eco-tourism in the city's conservation units as a powerful means to foster local sustainable development. Oladi (2010) tried to identify the potential eco-tourism zones within the study area- Abbasabad area, in Veresk, Mazandaran, using Remote Sensing and Geographic Information System. The results of studies on the maps and images showed no potential areas for Class I eco-tourism. But the largest part of the area was identified as suitable for Class I alternative eco-tourism. It was also found that two villages of Abbasabad and Bezmilesh were appropriate for developing as eco-tourism villages and the Abbassabad Veresk forest area was proved to be appropriate to construct a natural forest park.

Ben (2010) in his study on eco-tourism in Rara Avis eco-tourism project in Coasta Rica found that the main driving force for a person to choose an eco-tourism destination is his eagerness to explore a new place and feel like they are experiencing wilderness. It was also found that, despite their experience at Rara Avis, people are still reluctant to spend the time to write about it or pressure their representatives and also to become involved in environmental organizations. Simon, Memory, Pauline & Boycen (2011) tried to evaluate the contribution of eco-tourism to conservation and communities' development, based on

case studies conducted in both South Africa and Zimbabwe respectively. They found that the establishment of consensus on the eco-tourism dynamic will contribute immensely to the crafting of policies which, in turn, will help to institute appropriate frameworks to guide eco-tourism development in Southern Africa. It was also found that the international condemnation of Zimbabwe's land reform programme, compounded with perceptions of poor governance, has a negative impact on Zimbabwe's eco-tourism sector.

Emily (2011) in her thesis investigates the impacts of eco-tourism on the environment of Costa Rica and the factors that allow for a sustainable eco-tourism site. The study concludes that eco-tourism does more good than harm towards the environment. Additionally, the findings highlight good management practices as a predictor of environmental sustainability. Vinodan and James (2011) examined the local economic development of destination communities, especially the tribals, in the forest region through a case study of Parambikulam Tiger Reserve Centre in Kerala, India. The study explores the economic and non-economic benefits enjoyed by the local community members through their active participation in eco-tourism programmes. The findings of the study show that the eco-tourism programmes have helped the local people to reduce their dependence on forest resources for their livelihood. It was also found that the park authorities and communities were keenly following the sustainability measures to preserve the natural and cultural assets in the area. Iftikhar & Daisy (2013) examined the role of eco-tourism in Assam and found that eco-tourism has positive and significant effects on the local and state economy as it increases the livelihood opportunities for the local community. They commented that eco-tourism can be promoted as a poverty reduction strategy because it supports and improves local community economically and socially. Kuuder et al. (2013) tried to study the livelihood enhancement through ecotourism in a case of Mognori eco-village near Mole National Park, Ghana. The study revealed that since the inception of the eco-village project, the community's knowledge of conservation has improved considerably and that some residents earned extra income which enhanced their livelihood. The community's sense of unity, by way of cultural identity, had also improved tremendously and there were no noticeable negative effects of host-guest interactions.

2.6: Community based tourism

Since the 1980's, tourism literature has called for the inclusion and involvement of local communities in tourism as local residents are seen as a key resource in sustaining the product (Anne et al. 2002: 480). Community participation is often regarded as one of the most essential tools, if tourism is to make a substantial contribution to the national development of a country (Lea, 1988: 46). Tosun (2000: 616) asserts that it is a tool aimed at readjusting the balance of power and to reassert local community views against those of the developers or the local authority. Woodley (1993) points out that community participation in tourism ensures that there is sustainability. Through community participation, local people gain benefits from tourism taking place in their locality, develop positive local attitudes and conserve the local resources. Community participation is emphasised at the local level to facilitate physical development and economic returns from the tourism industry (Peter, 1985: 16). It should lead to community economic development which calls for the citizens to shape their local economies by influencing the type of business and employment opportunities in their own backyards (Roseland, 2005). It involves designing development in a way that encourages intended beneficiaries to be at the forefront and participate in their own development, by mobilising their own resources, making their own decisions and defining their own needs (Stone, 1989).

Community participation is a useful tool for educating locals about their rights, laws and political good sense, and, therefore, it is very important for public education (Tosun, 2000: 620). The participation of the local community is important in ensuring that visitors get an unforgettable, pleasant tourist experience by enabling the community to derive benefits from their visits (Peter, 1985: 17). The call for community participation is based on the assumption that participation lessens opposition to development, minimises negative impacts and revitalises the economies (Anne, Robert, Beeton & Leonie, 2002: 485). During the 1950s and 1960s, community development was introduced as an approach to rural development. It was made popular by the United Nations during the same period, as many countries in the less developed world gained independence and got decolonized. The rationale behind community development was to educate the local people and remove the stigma of charity, and involve them in decision-making (Burns,

1993: 90). Unless local residents are empowered, participate fully in decision-making and enjoy the ownership of tourism developments, tourism will not reflect their values and will be less likely to generate sustainable outcomes (Lea, 1988: 30).

Community-based tourism is often recognized as a perfect example of sustainable tourism development. The reason for this is mainly that local community participation in the development and practice of these projects is supposed to be high, and that the whole community benefits from the projects (Brohman, 1996; Hatton, 1999). According to Brohman (1996: 60), community-based tourism development would seek to strengthen institutions designed to enhance local participation and promote the economic, social and cultural well-being of the popular majority. It would also seek to strike a balanced and harmonious approach to development that would stress considerations such as the compatibility of various forms of development with other components of the local economy, the quality of development, both culturally and environmentally; and the divergent needs, interests and potentials of the community and its inhabitants. Hatton (1999) describes CBT as innovative tourism development in local communities, involving individuals, groups, small business owners and local organizations and governments. Through a research, comparing various CBT projects in Asia, he found some patterns: Many of the CBT projects started with the prospect of economic gain; they are frequently led by the initiator, which is often one person or group; cultural heritage as well as natural environment is the main attractions for tourists; CBT creates employment opportunities for marginalized groups; and finally, cooperation between corporations and local communities is stimulated. CBT projects come with risks. Some studies, for instance, find that the revenues gained from CBT are relatively small (Mitchell & Muckosy, 2008; Goodwin, 2006) and sometimes do not even outweigh the costs. CBT projects can also fail because of a lack of access to markets and poor governance. Other researchers have also found limitations to participation of the local community, such as lack of knowledge and resources, and the fact that the local community does not always operate as one group (Koch, 1997; Tosun, 2000; Scheyvens, 2002; Timothy, 1999).

2.6.1: Studies on community based tourism

Zolile and Edward (2003) investigated the origins and current operation of the Amadiba Horse and Hiking Trail, a community-based initiative located on South Africa's Wild

Coast. The study results suggested that the project has been at least partially successful in achieving its goals, but also raises questions about the model of a community-run project being applied in this case, and about the long-term economic sustainability of the project. This case study also highlights a number of key strengths and weaknesses of the community-based or bottom-up model of tourism development. Nazneen (2014) attempted to address the problems and needs of the 'vulnerable section' of handloom sector in the present times and suggests tourism, particularly, Community Based Tourism as an alternative for sustainable growth and development of this part of rural India. The study revealed that Community Based Tourism initiatives in Sualkuchi can play a vital role towards local participatory governance and self reliance. Besides, it can also provide networking and marketing support to village committee for marketing of the tourist site and village produce, as a sustainable livelihood strategy for the weavers to overcome the crises in this sector.

2.7: Studies on nature-tourism

Bricker and Kerstetter (2000), in their study of the nature-based tourism market in the Fiji islands, sought to document whether there are distinct segments of ecotourists, using benefit segmentation to derive four distinct clusters. The study demonstrated that eco tourists are not homogeneous and that they do not respond in the same way to a nature-tourism experience. Michael (2002) in his work documented the policy inferences from valuation studies carried out on nature-based tourism in Namibia. It was found that nature-based tourism in Namibia is not optimally priced and that significant resource rents do exists. Thus efforts are needed to ensure that Namibia's natural assets are priced optimally and that the resource rents are captured.

Anne, Jussi, Pirkko, Anne & Marku (2004) in their study on ecological and social sustainability of nature-tourism investigated the tolerance of vegetation to recreation, by surveying the attitudes of local people towards nature conservation and nature-tourism in northern Finland. The main findings are as follows: Even low levels of recreational activities have obvious effects on vegetation cover and species diversity. Attitudes towards nature conservation are positive as long as the opportunities of local people to continue the use of natural resources are not restricted, while opinions towards nature-tourism are in general positive in the survey areas. To keep nature-tourism at both

ecologically and socially sustainable level, close co-operation between stakeholders, such as administrators, planners, researchers, and local people is required.

Nancy, Hodur, Larry & Kara (2005) in their study tried to examine the present and potential economic impact of nature-tourism in non-metro areas of North Dakota in the USA. This study sought to address these questions through a survey of participants at a birding festival held in central North Dakota. The main findings of the study are: the festival participants were predominantly from out of the state, they were middle-aged, highly educated, and had relatively high income. It was also observed that nature-tourism has increasingly been recognized as an economic development opportunity for rural areas in North Dakota. Desmond (2005) tried to asses the level of participation in agricultural and nature-tourism, identify consumer preferences for agri tourism experiences, assess on-farm spending, and uncover consumer values and habits regarding food and the agricultural system from Sacramento and Yolo Counties in California, utilizing a purchased mailing list. The study results give insight into the prospects for family farmers and ranchers to occupy a niche by offering a unique combination of agricultural products and rural amenities.

Andreas & Christoph (2010) analysed whether biodiversity is enhancing the development process in the developing countries via increasing tourism receipts in a trade-based endogenous growth framework. The main empirical finding is that biodiversity, while being significantly and positively correlated with inbound tourism receipts in the developing countries, has no significant relation with tourist arrivals. This shows that mass tourism is not influenced by biodiversity, whereas individual tourism is influenced by it. Clem (2013) made a comparison of the performance of nature-tourism in three less developed countries-China (focusing particularly on Yunnan Province and especially Xishuangbanna Prefecture), Botswana and the Maldives- through case studies. These case studies indicated that the relative economic importance and types of nature-based tourism differ greatly between developing countries. Overall, nature-tourism is much less important for China than it is for Botswana and the Maldives. Less developed countries with small economies (such as the Maldives and Botswana) have a high level of import leakages from their tourist industry. A large economy, such as that of China, will have less import leakage. The opportunity cost of setting aside protected areas for tourism in

the less arid areas of Botswana was found to be higher and in the Maldives it was found to be low.

2.8: Studies on medical tourism

Ann (2009) in her thesis tried to investigate the impact on the health of local populations spurred by the medical tourism industry in India. The study also explored whether there is a possible increase in life expectancy in areas surrounding medical tourism facilities in India. Ten Indian states are examined in this study based on size, wealth, and health indicators. Five states are host to a leading location of Apollo Hospitals, and five are not. The findings showed that the presence of Apollo Hospital Medical Tourism facilities may lead to increased life expectancy of Indian state populations. Bindu (2010) in her thesis tried to understand the major preferences of health tourists, to identify the socio-economic factors influencing the perception of health tourists and to investigate the major factors influencing the perception of tourists on Ayurvedic health tourism in Kerala. The method used for collecting and gathering data was by using a structured questionnaire. Her major findings are as follows. The socio-demographic profile of the health tourists revealed that there is a domination of male tourists over female tourists with an age group 35 and above. While considering the nationality of the tourists, the majority were the nationals from various countries in Asia, including the domestic tourists of India, followed by the nationals from Europe. The socio-economic profile of the health tourists revealed that highly educated professionals with a high disposable income prefer healthy holidays. However, the tourists were mainly educated professionals drawing a high salary of Rs. 3 lakh and above. The study also showed that considerable number of tourists generally preferred repeated visit to Kerala with an average length of stay of more than a week with an average expenditure of Rs.1,00,000 and above.

Jyotsana (2010) in her dissertation explored the advantages and disadvantages of globalisation of the international healthcare market place facilitated by the General Agreement on Trade in Services, a treaty of the World Trade Organisation, with regard to the Medical Tourism sector of India (MTI). Multiple case studies of the multi-specialty hospitals in India, namely Apollo Hospitals, Fortis-Escorts Healthcare, Max Healthcare and Medanta Medicity have been conducted. The theories of globalisation and health of Appadurai, Gidden and Woodward et al., have been used in this investigation. The study

indicated that available published literature is mostly focussed on the flow of medical tourists from western countries like the UK and the USA to India, whereas primary research showed that the flow is primarily from other catchment areas - the South Asian Association for Regional Co-operation (SAARC), Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) and parts of Africa. A potential gap was observed between the published data and the research conducted.

Paramjeet (2013) in his thesis on medical tourism, tried to study the medical tourist's perceived dimensions of service quality in selected hospitals of Northern India. The main focus was given to areas like the customer aspect in an effort to study the perception of medical tourists on perceived service quality, overall satisfaction, repurchase intentions and propensity to recommend Indian health services and their demographic characteristics and behavioural aspects during their visit. Debata (2013) has done a study on medical tourism service quality and loyalty, based on the study conducted at seven Indian hospitals providing healthcare services to medical tourists in India. The Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was used to identify the underlying dimensions of Medical Tourism Service Quality (MTSQ) and Medical Tourism Service Loyalty (MTSL) for medical tourism in India. The study finally provides some useful guidelines for the decision makers and managers for improving service quality in the Indian medical tourism settings. Sumanth (2013) had tried to study how the attitudes and behaviours of patients towards the concept of medical tourism influenced their decision to become a medical tourist, why medical tourists sought treatment in India, and what were the issues and challenges they faced before coming to India as well as while in India. The main finding of the study was that cost was not the most important reason for the patients to choose India as a medical tourism destination. But, it is the competency of the doctor and the quality of the hospital and healthcare that were the most attracting reasons for the medical tourists.

2.9: Village tourism

Tourism has blossomed into a prosperous, fast-growing activity at an international level. It is a significant factor for economic growth in the developed nations. So it is important to determine whether tourism's growth potential could be harnessed as a strategy for rural

development, thereby benefiting the local community in a sustainable manner. There are a number of tourist attractions in our country that are located in rural areas and are not receiving the benefits stemming from the tourism industry. Such locations can be brought to the main stream of the tourism industry which entails principles of sustainability, responsible tourism and pro-poor tourism. In tourism literature, the word "rural tourism" is also used as a synonym for "village tourism".

Village tourism is a concept in which villages are not simply treated as agricultural granaries. On the other hand, villages are projected to the tourists as natural spaces that provide peace, traditions, heritage and beauty. An organised and sustainable implementation of village tourism strategies in the villages will pave the way for complementing the income of the villagers and also for improving the quality of life of its inhabitants. The key concept of village tourism is rural development, which is primarily about enabling the rural people to deal effectively with rural poverty through the optimal use and management of natural resources. It is a participatory process through which rural people learn over time, through their own experiences and initiatives, how to adapt their indigenous knowledge to the changing world. Village tourism represents an economic opportunity which is independent from land productivity. It is, in fact, an alternative means of subsistence. Therefore, it offers a new use to the territory's geographical resources, the land and the implementation of rural labour force. If well managed, the added value that can be generated is substantial. The special feature that distinguishes this kind of tourism is the fact that it can be managed both by rural communities and original people groups, within a framework of mutual respect. Villagers share with visitors their traditional knowledge and jobs, while they generate incomes which are complementary to those they produce from their daily productive activities.

Village tourism is one type of tourism that has close linkage to two other different forms of tourism, namely sustainable tourism and pro-poor tourism. Sustainable tourism is focussed on making a low impact on the environment and local culture, while helping to generate employment for local people. In sustainable tourism, within destination areas, a triangular relationship between host areas and their habitats and peoples, holiday-makers, and the tourism industry is outlined. Sustainable tourism aims to reconcile the tensions between the three partners in the triangle, and keep the equilibrium in the long run.

Sustainable tourism aims to minimise environmental and cultural damage, optimise visitor satisfaction, and maximise long-term economic growth for the region. It is a way of obtaining a balance between the growth potential of tourism and the conservation needs of the environment (Bramwell & Lane, 1993). Pro-Poor Tourism (PPT) focusses on considering the needs of the poor, while promoting tourism in a region. According to Petric (2003), PPT strategies are meant to deal with increased economic benefits which have outcomes to boost local employment, wages, local enterprise opportunities and creation of collective income sources which include fees payable, revenue received, shares and equities.

Village tourism allows a diversification of components of rural economies, which would otherwise be condemned to disappear, entailing high human and economic costs. It also allows to maintain, to protect and even to enhance our heritage and our patrimony. Rural tourism can make a valuable contribution to rural economies, and provide several potential benefits. A sustainable development of rural tourism is likely to generate job retention and creation, farm support, landscape conservation, support to rural arts and crafts, nature conservation, environmental improvements, and enhanced role for women (Luigi, 2004). In the opinion of Hannigan (1994), declining economic activity, restructuring of the agricultural sector, dwindling rural industrialisation and out-migration of higher educated youth were the reasons for the adoption of tourism as an alternative development strategy for the economic and social regeneration of rural areas in many western countries. Our country can learn from the successful promotion of village tourism strategies adopted in other countries and attract tourists to our scenic and heritage-rich villages. Dra, Jose & Emilio (2012), in their study on The Prospects of Rural tourism in Spain, have found that the tourist sector has the capacity to generate employment and wealth, exploiting the cultural, natural, historic and ethnographic heritage efficiently. They also found that rural tourism resulted in the appearance of new opportunities for these areas and helped the local people with a source of employment and wealth.

2.9.1: Definition of rural area and rurality

There is no universal definition for the term 'rural' as national governments use country specific criteria. Sharpley and Sharpley (1997) suggest population density, size of

settlement, land use and traditional social structures as the main characteristics that help to identify an area as 'rural'. According to the definition given in the Census of India 2001, a rural location is a location with a population of less than 10,000 persons. At the time of the Census, there were 6,38,000 villages in India (Vincent, 1980). Table 2.7 depicts the selected national criteria that are adopted by few major countries to define their rural settlements.

Table 2.7: Selected national criteria for rural settlements

Country	National Criteria For Rural Settlements		
Austria	Towns of fewer than 5,000 people		
Canada	Places of fewer than 1,000 people, with a population density of fewer than 400 per square kilometer		
Denmark	Denmark Agglomerations of fewer than 200 inhabitants		
England and Wales	No definition - but the Rural Development Commission excludes towns with more than 10,000 inhabitants		
France	Towns containing an agglomeration of fewer than 2,000 people living in contiguous houses, or with not more than 200 metres between the houses		
Norway	Agglomerations of fewer than 200 inhabitants		
Portugal	Towns of fewer than 10,000 people		
Switzerland	Towns of fewer than 10,000 people		

Source: Brown and Hall (2000)

2.9.2: Definition of rural tourism

According to Lane (1994), rural tourism should be located in rural areas, functionally rural, rural in scale i.e. usually small-scale, traditional in character, should grow slowly and organically, be connected with local families, and represent the complex pattern of rural environment, economy, history and location. Bramwell and Lane (1994) are of the opinion that rural tourism not only includes farm-based holidays but also comprises special interest nature holidays and eco-tourism, walking, climbing, adventure, sport and

health tourism, hunting and angling, educational travel, arts, heritage and ethnic tourism. Jingming and Lihua (2002) suggest that rural tourism refers to those travelling activities that aim at pursuing natural and humanistic attraction in rural areas. Deqian (2006: 15) argues that rural tourism is a kind of promotion of rural activities and its characteristics are natural and humanistic. It includes customs, scenery, landscape, agriculture and other attractions. Sharpley and Sharpley (1997) point out that rural tourism encompasses a huge range of activities, natural or manmade attractions, amenities, transportation, marketing and information systems. Smith and William (1992) define rural areas as those areas, which lie beyond major towns and cities.

Mahmoudi, Haghsetan & Meleki (2011) opine that the activities that encompass rural tourism are interest in farms, nature, adventure, health, education, arts and heritage. Garrod et al. (2006) define rural tourism as experiencing living history such as rural customs, folklore, local traditions, beliefs, and common heritage. The key parameters that define rural tourism are: it is located in rural areas, functionally rural, based on small-scale and traditional activities and enterprises, relies on the traditional qualities of the countryside, develops slowly under the control of local people and is non-uniform (Blekesaune, Brandth & Haugen, 2010). In Australia, both National and State tourism bodies have described rural tourism as a multi-faceted activity that takes place in an environment outside an urbanized area and represents to the traveller the essence of country life (DOT, 1993: 2). Rural tourism is anything which draws tourists beyond major metropolitan areas (DOT, 1994). It spans both natural and built environments and everyday activities as well as those purposely designed for tourism (DOT, 1995: 5).

The Rural Development Framework, adopted by the South African government in 1997, defined rural areas as sparsely populated areas in which people farm or depend on natural resources, including villages and small towns that are dispersed throughout these areas. In addition, they include large settlements in the former homelands, created by apartheid removals which depend for their survival on migratory labour and remittances (Gwanya, 2010). Macdonald and Jolliff (2003) introduced the concept of cultural rural tourism. It is a concept where rural tourism is focused on a distinct rural community which has its own traditions, heritage, arts, lifestyles, places, and values which have been preserved for generations. When tourists visit these areas, they are well informed about the culture, and

experience folklore, customs, natural landscapes, and historical landmarks. They may also enjoy other things in a rural setting such as nature, adventure, sports, festivals, crafts, and general sightseeing.

2.9.3: Common features of rural areas

In rural areas, most of the space is dominated by fields and pastures, woods, forests, water, mountains and deserts. Only small patches of the landscape will be occupied by human settlement and infrastructure. There are places where most people spend their time in working on farms. Land is relatively abundant and cheap. Transaction cost is high because of long distance and poor infrastructure (Ashley & Maxwell, 2001). Banks and Kallabacher (1980) opine that the rural areas or countrysides include a great variety of cultures, landscapes, nature and economic activities that shape a palette of rural identities. In the opinion of Deqian (2006: 10), rural areas generally suffer high levels of poverty, and are also characterised by lower levels of non-farm economic activity, infrastructural development, and access to the essential services. They may also suffer from depopulation of the able-bodied, and lack of political clout. Rural areas will be dominated by agrarian and forest-based economic activities. They will be, to a large extent, repositories of the natural world and wild-life. Their economies will be strongly influenced by the market for farm and forest products (OECD, 1994).

2.9.4: Significance of rural tourism

Rural tourism is one of the forms of sustainable development that promotes productivity in rural zones, brings about employment, income distribution, preservation of village environment and local culture, which raises the host community's participation and presents appreciable methods that conform to beliefs and traditional values in the new circumstances (Kanaani, 2005). Since the 70's of the 20th century, tourism activity in rural areas has remarkably increased in all the developed countries worldwide, which has played a key role in the development of rural areas that were economically and socially depressed (Perales, 2002). Rural tourism has long been recognized in certain parts of Europe as an effective catalyst for rural socio-economic regeneration for over a hundred years (He, 2003). In Europe rural tourism has been widely encouraged, promoted and relied on as a useful means of tackling the social and economic challenges facing those rural areas associated with the decline of traditional agrarian industries (Wang, 2006). In

countries such as France, Austria, and the United Kingdom, rural tourism already represents a significant factor and has a growing demand (Pevetz, 1991).

2.9.5: Driving forces in rural tourism

Ec-aeidl (1997) opines that the trend toward uniformity of towns and cities creates a desire in the tourist to experience the unique local flavours that rural communities can offer. Globalization and the resultant internationalisation of culture and consumption patterns erode the significance and meaning of national boundaries and the cultural signatures. These result in a reactive response on the part of tourists to experience the remaining vestiges of uniqueness, as the rural communities still preserve the qualities of traditional ways of life (Bartmann & Baum, 1998: 695). The stresses of urban living and the remoteness from the natural environment have created a desire for escape from the monotony of city living. Rural locations offer an idealized release from stress and the opportunity to re-engage with a simpler, quieter way of life that offers rest and relaxation (MAF, 1994: 15). Mieczkowski (1995) points out that the increasing discretionary incomes, greater awareness of the range of experiences, greater mobility through private transport and the accessibility as well as attractiveness of rural destinations have paved the way for the growing popularity of rural tourism. In the opinion of Bartmann and Baum (1998: 697), rural areas are perceived as healthier, offering fresher air, cleaner water and have the opportunity for outdoor recreation. Rural areas offer fresh, and sometimes, specialty foods. An increased interest in heritage can be satisfied through rural tourism, as rural areas are often the repositories of remnant heritage. Streckfuss (1997) asserts that rural tourism is REAL (Rewarding, Enriches the spirit, provides Adventure and Learning).

The New Zealand Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries (MAF, 1994: 20) describes the major attractions of rural tourism as follows: Farmstay, which provides to the tourists bed, breakfast and other meals, accommodation and activities centered on a traditional pastoral farm where the visitor feels part of the family. Countrystays, where there will be bread and breakfast but the focus is on the ambience of the setting with a few farm-related activities. Rural self-catering units, which provide self-contained accommodation in converted shearing sheds, barns, workers cottages, etc. Camp/caravan sites, which contain attractive settings with level sites, suitable access and shade/shelter trees and facilities to

support the visitors. Adventure, in which rural accommodation is linked to some of the specific adventure activities such as bushwalking, rock climbing, horse riding, hunting, etc. Dra et al. (2012), in their study on *The Prospects of Rural Tourism in Spain*, have found that the tourist sector has the capacity to generate employment and wealth by exploiting the cultural, natural, historic and ethnographic heritage efficiently. They also found that rural tourism resulted in the appearance of new opportunities for these areas and helped the local people with a source of employment and wealth.

2.9.6: The impacts of rural tourism

2.9.6.1: Social and cultural impact

Vincent (1980) argues that rural tourism development requires close-knit communities to adapt to the incursion of capitalism in the expansion of tourism, where family independence, traditional values and cultural traditions may be adversely affected. In the opinion of Buton (1998), the role of women in rural tourism has also belatedly attracted interest as a highly seasonal and unstable economic activity, since tourism is one of the few opportunities taken up by women which have also contributed to their marginal status in the rural workforce.

2.9.6.2: Economic impact

The economic impact of rural tourism has been a fruitful area for research among a range of social scientists. Getz and Page (1997) emphasise the role of tourism as a panacea for all the economic and social ills of the countryside. Economic growth, diversification and stabilization through employment creation in trades and crafts, the creation of new markets for agricultural products and a broadening of a regions' economic base are some of the observable impacts of rural tourism (Keyim, Yang & Zhang, 2005).

2.9.6.3: Environmental impact

It is apparent that tourism in rural context displays many of the features which show the symbolic relationship which exists between tourism and the environment. For this reason, it is appropriate to consider the tourism resource base and to emphasise the supply and demand features in relation to the business aspects of rural tourism (Page and Getz, 1997).

2.10: Other types of tourism

2.10.1: Adventure tourism

Adventure tourism has been defined as the deliberate seeking of risk and the uncertainty of outcome (Ewert & Jamieson, 2003). Hall and McArthur (1994) assert that adventure tourism certainly appears to satisfy the tourists' desire to engage in 'at risk' or risk-taking behaviours. Cater (2006) has suggested that the majority of adventure tourism participants do not wish to become injured or face an actual risk of harm to themselves and it is the responsibility of the adventure operators to simultaneously provide safe and exciting experiences. In the opinion of Christiansen (1990), adventure tourism brings together travel, sport and outdoor recreation and it might be considered as a growing subset of tourism. According to Whitlock et al. (1991), mountaineering is just one sector of nature-based tourism and it is an encompassing term that refers to all the myriad forms of tourism that originate as a result of the natural appeal of an area. Watson and Kopachevsky (1994) comment that adventure tourism activities are packaged by different items that are synchronous with the wants, desires and fantasies of risk-loving people. The adventure tourism activities are anchored in a dynamic pattern of image construction and its manipulation.

2.10.2: Agritourism

It is a subset of rural tourism and includes a range of activities, services and amenities provided by farmers and rural people to attract tourists to their area in order to generate extra income for their businesses (Gannon, 1994). In the opinion of Wicks and Merrett (2003), it is a hybrid concept that merges elements of two complex industries namely agriculture and tourism. It opens up new, profitable markets for farm products and services and provides travel experience for the tourists from a large regional market. Privitera (2010) opines that agri-tourism helps to preserve rural lifestyles and landscape and also offers the opportunity to provide "sustainable" or "green" tourism.

2.10.3: Cultural tourism

The WTO (2001) publication states that cultural tourism is about movements of people motivated by cultural intents such as study tours, performing arts, festivals, cultural events, visits to sites and monuments, as well as travel for pilgrimages, enjoyment of the lifestyle of the local people, the local area and what constitutes its identity and character.

It also explains that sustainable cultural tourism development requires tourists to "respect the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities, conserve their built and living cultural heritage and traditional values, and contribute to inter-cultural understanding and tolerance". Ceballos (1987) considers cultural tourism as a subset of eco-tourism and defines it as concerning small groups of tourists seeking to know about and sustain natural environments, and also wishing to learn about the cultures associated with such places and the need to sustain local communities. Craik (1997) mentions that it involves customized excursions into other cultures and places to learn about their people, lifestyle, heritage and arts in an informed way that genuinely represents those cultures and their historical contexts. Kennedy (2002) narrates that cultural tourism includes those things that are chiefly geared towards seeing a people's lifestyle in the past and present. Can-Seng (2002) opines that in cultural tourism, local food, traditions, crafts, performances, and historical sights are packaged into products. Antonia, Martha, Lee, Peter & McCormick (2002) describe cultural tourism as visiting historic or archaeological sites, being involved in community festivals, watching traditional dances or ceremonies, or merely shopping for handcrafted art, which has also the potential to negatively impact the character and traditional culture of small communities. In the opinion of George (2002), cultural tourism shares with nature the narrative of loss in which primitive peoples continue to live closer to nature than in metropolitan civilization.

2.10.4: Endogenous Tourism Project

Endogenous tourism means travel, both domestic and international, not for pleasure alone but also for broadening the visitors' experience platform, where the source of attraction lies within the host community or environment. It attempts to transform attitudes and mindsets, imparting local pride and visitor appreciation of diverse culture, heritage and environment of the region (Muraleedhara, 2007: 30). The planning commission's special group on 'targeting ten million employment opportunities over the Tenth plan period' has earmarked tourism as one of the major priority sectors for driving job creation in the country. The Endogenous Tourism Project-Rural Tourism Scheme (ETP-RTS) is a collaborative effort between the Ministry of Tourism, Government of India (MoT) and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) initiated in 2003 and being implemented currently at 36 sites across the country (Equations, 2008).

Thus the joint Government of India - UNDP Endogenous Tourism Project, seeks to promote local culture and craft-based eco-tourism, for sustainable livelihoods and integrated rural development during the tenth Five Year Plan. UNDP in India links, coordinates and works in partnership with the national government to achieve the global Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as well as assist the Government of India to meet the national objectives articulated in India's Five-Year Plans. The goal of the organization is to help improve the lives of the poorest women and men, who are the most marginalized and disadvantaged in India. In addition, the UNDP also assists the Government of India to achieve sustainable development objectives as well as to meet its international commitments under various multilateral environmental conventions, protocols and agreements (Vishaish, 2011: 11).

2.10.4.1: Objectives of ETP

The principal objective of the project is to support the "rural tourism" initiatives of the GOI as articulated in its National Tourism Policy 2002, through the setting up of alternative models of tourism, running parallel with the conventional tourism models, which would serve to create sustainable livelihood opportunities among low income communities living in rural areas. In addition, there were 5 specific objectives.

1) Build capacity at the local level through the establishment of half a dozen tourism circuits, involving some 20 communities at specific sites where an alternative model of endogenous, community-based sustainable tourism, involving both domestic and international tourists, would be set up on a pilot basis and then tested and evaluated.

2) Experiment with location-specific models of community tourism enterprise engaging in the gamut of activities from construction to operation and marketing, starting with core funds from the project, thereby expanding visitor stay duration and hence, tourism revenue. 3) Build strong community-private partnerships in the tourism sector through an enabling environment for the dynamic participation of local communities/artisans, local/state authorities, NGOs and private entrepreneurs in setting up and sustaining efforts in this area. 4) Support innovative and promising rural tourism initiatives through the establishment of an Incentive Fund to encourage experimentation, replication and dissemination of experiences and practice and compilation of a Register of Innovations. 5) Provide inputs to national and state tourism policy based on a detailed evaluation of the feasibility and sustainability of extending this system nation-wide (Vishaish, 2011: 76).

When material products travel, development occurs in the established market sector only, but when the consumers travel to the production centers, development reaches the remotest places. With this philosophy in mind, the Union Ministry of Tourism (MoT), government of India, adopted the new tourism policy, which positions tourism as the engine of economic growth. MoT launched a scheme of Rural Tourism to give an opportunity to the tourists to explore the unexplored parts of India. MoT partnered with UNDP and the scheme was renamed the Endogenous Tourism Project (ETP) (Simanta, 2010). The Government of India - UNDP have selected Kerala as one of the major centres of Endogenous Tourism Project. Out of 36 centres in India, Kerala has four centres-Kumbalangi, Kalady in Ernakulam district, Aranmula in Pathanamthitta district and Anakara in Idukki district. The ETP scheme is divided into two: Hardware programme and Software programme. The Government of India provides the hardware fund (Rs. 50 lakhs per site) under the Rural Tourism Scheme. UNDP supports the software activities (Rs. 20 lakhs per site) under the Endogenous Tourism Project (Muraleedhara, 2007: 31).

Sebanti & Colleen (2006) tried to analyse how the Association for Social and Health Advancement (ASHA), in collaboration with the Coady International Institute, used the PATH (People Assessing Their Health) process, to increase the capacity of a tribal community in Mukutmanipur, West Bengal as they embarked on Endogenous Tourism Project, a joint initiative of UNDP and Government of India (Ministry of Tourism). The central financial assistance given for rural tourism in ETP projects in Kerala is compiled in Table 2.8.

Table 2.8: Central financial assistance for ETP villages in Kerala

State	Name of Duciest	Infrastructure Components (Rs. In Lakh)			Capacity Building Components (Rs. in Lakh)		
	Name of Project	Year of sanction	Amount sanctioned	Amount released	Year of sanction	Amount sanctioned	Amount released
Kerala	Kumbalangi, Distt. Ernakulam	2003-04	50.00	50.00	2004-05	20.00	16.00
	Arnanmula, Distt. Pathanamthitta	2003-04	50.00	40.00	2004-05	20.00	16.00
	Balaramapuram, Thiruvananthapuram Distt.	2004-05	50.00	40.00	-	-	-
	Kalady, Distt. Ernakulam	2006-07	47.20	37.76	2005-06	20.00	16.00
	Anakkara, Distt. Idukki	2006-07	50.00	40.00	2005-06	20.00	16.00

Source: Complied from the official records of Kerala tourism department

2.10.5: Ethnic tourism

The first use of the term "ethnic tourism" is attributed to Smith (1977), who defined it as tourism "marketed to the public in terms of the 'quaint' customs of indigenous and often exotic peoples". Since then, the concept and its consequences have been extensively discussed, particularly with regard to the links between tourism and ethnicity, and the impacts of ethnic tourism. The terms "aboriginal tourism" and "indigenous tourism" are sometimes employed interchangeably with "ethnic tourism" to refer to essentially the same phenomenon (Mercer, 1995). However, aboriginal tourism or indigenous tourism explicitly involves indigenous people, whereas in ethnic tourism the people on whom the tourism activities are based are not necessarily indigenous.

According to Van den & Keyes (1984) ethnic tourism is a distinctive form of tourism in which the native is not simply "there" to serve the needs of the tourist; he is himself "on show", a living spectacle to be scrutinized, photographed, tape recorded, and interacted with in some particular ways. Wood (1984) suggests that, while cultural tourism involves exposure to a culture in an indirect way, ethnic tourism involves first-hand experience with the practice of another culture to provide tourists with more "intimate" and "authentic" experience.

Yiping (2000) believes that tourists exhibit "a common desire for authenticity, immersion in the cultural and/or physical environment, pursuing environmental and experiential quality" in an attempt to experience novelty and uniqueness as part of the ethnic tourism experience. Harron and Weiler (1992) suggest that ethnic tourism involves first hand experiences with the practices of another culture, particularly with people from the indigenous culture. This definition of ethnic tourism includes traditional and contemporary cultural presentations and performances, thus embracing those which are only partially for tourists as well as those which are wholly for visitors. In the opinion of Robey (1998) the ethnic tourist is said to seek a break from the profane world of workaday life, by entering into an encounter with the sacred world of ethnic otherness.

2.10.6: Farm tourism

Farm tourism is where accommodation for rural tourists is provided on farms. The core activity is in the wider rural area (walking, boating) but the vast majority of visitors are

accommodated on farms, either working farms or farms converted to accommodation facilities. Farm tourism activities can include farm markets, wineries, U-Picks, farming interpretive centers, farm-based accommodation and events, and agriculture-based festivals (Deqian, 2006).

2.10.7: Heritage tourism

Poria, Butler & Airey (2001) identified heritage tourism as a phenomenon actually created by perceptions of the specific site. Richards (1996) argues that heritage tourism can be defined either as a process, or as a product. He suggests that the particular activity has a "sites and museums approach that clearly relates to the product-based approach of tourism". On the other hand, he also formally defines the experiential approach as being more conceptually based, as it "attempts to describe the motive and the meaning attached to cultural types of heritage tourism activity". Fyall and Garrod (1998) define heritage tourism as an economic activity that makes use of socio-cultural assets to attract visitors. Hollinshead (1988) asserts that local traditions and community heritage can serve as attractions and that heritage tourism embraces folkloric traditions, arts and crafts, ethnic history, social customs, and cultural celebrations. Poria et al. (2001) define heritage tourism more narrowly as a phenomenon based on visitors motivations and perceptions rather than on specific site attributes. Zeppal and Hall (1991) also emphasize motivation, and view heritage tourism as based on nostalgia for the past and the desire to experience diverse cultural landscapes and forms.

Michael (2002) is of the opinion that heritage tourism should not be viewed in terms of arbitrary issues, but should take into consideration socio-psychological needs. Uriely, Israeli & Reichel (2002), taking into account local people's religious affiliations, argue that the relationship between the local residents and the heritage presented can influence the locals' attitudes towards development. Hannigan (1994) opines that it includes local features of interest like temples, rural buildings, war remnants, monuments to famous literary, artistic or scientific people, historic remains, archeological sites, traditional parkland etc. Deepak (2001) in his thesis on heritage tourism analysed the perceived levels of authenticity and spending by the visitors to heritage festivals. The economic impact of visitor expenditures upon the host regions in North Carolina (USA) is also analyzed. The festivals studied are Scottish Highland Games, and analyses are based on

survey data collected from Grandfather Mountain Highland Games and Flora Macdonald Highland Games held in North Carolina. Perceived authenticity is measured as the average authenticity rating of events offered at the Games and statistically related to visitor characteristics. Second, visitor expenditures are compared across age and income groups and regressed on other visitor characteristics, including the visitors' experience at the event. Finally, economic impact of total visitor expenditures is estimated with an input-output model that calculates income, output and value-added impacts.

2.10.8: Mass tourism

Hunter (1997) defines mass tourism as a product-led industry, subordinating environmental issues to be concerned as the primary need and to add new products, whilst maintaining the existing ones. According to Kousis (1998), mass tourism projects often entail losing control of natural resources to private, state, and/or supra-state interests, as well as the gradual or immediate disorganization of ecosystems via withdrawals (such as landscape conversions) and additions (like disposal of solid wastes). The results of this disorganization include not only the disruption of biological processes, but also the loss of local people's resource base and the generation of socio-economic and public health risks. Britton and Clarke (1987) view that mass tourism has collaborated in hindering the permanency of local cultures and in spreading processes like prostitution or delinquency.

2.10.9: Pro-poor tourism

Pro-poor tourism is tourism that generates benefits for the poor. Benefits from pro-poor tourism can be a combination of economic, social, environmental and cultural benefits. The aim of pro-poor tourism is to unlock opportunities for the poor, rather than expanding the overall size of the sector. These opportunities include economic gain, other livelihood benefits or participation in decision making (Ashley, Roe & Goodwin, 2001). Nicanor (2001) shows that there is evidence of a successful introduction of the PPT approach by the Namibia Community-based Tourism Association (Nacobta), a non-profit organization that supports the poor local communities. He shows that through PPT approach, it was able to include small entrepreneurs with inadequate skills and provide them access to financial resources.

2.10.10: Responsible tourism

Responsible Tourism Management (RTM) means managing the business in a way that benefits its local community, natural and business environment, and itself (George & Frey, 2010). Concern for sustainable tourism arose from the realisation that mass tourism could have significant negative environmental impacts in destinations, if it was not controlled (Budeanu, 2005). At the 1992 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, it was recognised that tourism would be an important driver in community upliftment. As the debate surrounding sustainable development intensified, South Africa responded with the 1996 White Paper Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa. The White Paper states that for South Africa, responsible tourism was not a luxury but a necessity. During 2001, the Responsible Tourism Manual for South Africa (RTMSA) and the Responsible Tourism Guidelines were developed (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 2002). The first conference on Responsible Tourism was hosted in Cape Town in 2002 prior to the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) held in Johannesburg in the same year. The Responsible Tourism conference led to the 'Cape Town Declaration' where responsible tourism was defined as a three-tiered approach. Firstly, tourism development should increase the quality of life for the surrounding communities. Secondly, it should create better business opportunities, and thirdly it should improve the experiences for tourists (George & Frey, 2010). The 2008 Second International Conference on Responsible Tourism in Destinations in Kerala, India, highlighted the need for increased government and private sector commitment to responsible tourism implementation, the lack of good measurement systems for impact assessment and the necessity for the debate to move towards addressing responsible tourism in a more strategic rather than moralistic manner (Goodwin & Venu, 2008).

2.10.11: Wildlife tourism

Hammit and Cole (1998) point out that the natural resource managers generally have the dual function of conserving wildlife, while simultaneously providing quality recreational experiences. Wildlife tourism experiences provide opportunities to observe and interact with animals that may be endangered, threatened or are rare (Cousins, 2007). In the opinion of Higginbottom (2004), the development of wildlife tourism attractions helps to secure long-term conservation of wildlife and wildlife habitats.

2.11: Sustainable development

The concept of sustainability has its origins in the environmentalism that grew to prominence in the 1970s. The explicit idea of sustainable development was first highlighted by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources in its World Conservation Strategy (IUCN, 1980). Brundtland Report established clear, basic principles for sustainable development, and while not entirely new, it gave strong recognition to the issue of equity, calling for far greater convergence between rich and poor nations in the global system, if stability and sustainability are to be achieved. The Brundtland Commission Report defined sustainable development as 'development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs' (WCED, 1987: 43). The Commission further emphasised that sustainable development is not a fixed state of harmony, but rather a dynamic process of changes which are all in harmony and enhance both current and future potential to meet human needs and aspirations (WCED, 1987: 46).

The World Tourism Organisation prefers the following definition of sustainable development: Sustainable tourism development meets the needs of present tourists and host regions, while protecting and enhancing opportunities for the future. It is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled, while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems (WTO, 2001). Robert, Thomas & Anthony (2005) point out that sustainable development requires the participation of diverse stakeholders and perspectives, with the ideal of reconciling different and sometimes opposing values and goals. It is a journey toward a new synthesis and subsequent coordination of mutual action to achieve multiple values simultaneously and even synergistically. In the opinion of Engel (1990), sustainable development is the kind of human activity that nourishes and perpetuates the historical fulfillment of the whole community of life on earth. Mannion (1991) opines that "sustainable development" has become a catchword for discussion and action because it seems to capture a widespread feeling that "the state of the earth is somewhat precarious".

2.11.1: History of sustainable development

In 1980, the World Conservation Strategy of the International Union for the Conservation of Nature was formed. It argued for conservation as a means to assist development and specifically for the sustainable development and utilization of species, ecosystems and resources (Adams, 1990). Drawing on these, the Brundtland Commission, committed to the unity of environment and development, began its work. The World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) was initiated by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1982, and its report, Our Common Future, was published in 1987. It was chaired by the then Prime Minister of Norway Gro Harlem Brundtland, thus earning the name the "Brundtland Commission" (WCED, 1987: 9). In 1992 the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in Rio de Janeiro (the so-called "Earth Summit") issued a declaration of principles, a detailed Agenda 21 of desired actions, international agreements on climate change and biodiversity, and a statement of principles on forests (Parson & Hass, 1992). Ten years later, in 2002, the commitment to sustainable development was reaffirmed at the World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg, South Africa (The Johannesburg Declaration on Sustainable Development, 2002). In India, the movement in support of environmental concerns and sustainable development really started in the early 1980s, partly influenced by international developments, but mainly due to the devastating effects of the Bhopal gas tragedy in 1984. The Bhopal tragedy was followed by a number of policy statements and legislations in order to meet environmental challenges (Nilmadhab & Aarushi, 2012).

2.11.2: Principles of sustainable development

There are nine principles for sustainable development. 1) Sustainable development requires the promotion of values that encourage consumption standards that are within the bounds of the ecologically possible practices. 2) Meeting essential needs depends in part on achieving full growth potential, and sustainable development clearly requires economic growth in places where such needs are not being met. 3) Though the issue is not merely one of population size but also the distribution of resources, sustainable development can only be pursued, if demographic developments are in harmony with the changing productive potential of the ecosystem. 4) Sustainable development must not endanger the natural systems that support life on earth: the atmosphere, the waters, the

soils, and living beings. 5) Growth has no set limits in terms of population or resource use beyond which lies ecological disaster. 6) Most renewable resources are part of a complex and interlinked ecosystem and maximal, sustained yield must be defined after taking into account the system-wide effects of exploitation. 7) Sustainable development requires that the rate of depletion of non-renewable resources should foreclose as few options as possible. 8) Sustainable development requires the conservation of plant and animal species. 9) Sustainable development requires that the adverse impacts on the quality of air, water and other natural elements are minimized so as to sustain the ecosystem's overall integrity (OSEM, 1989).

2.11.3: Pillars of sustainable development

The objective of sustainable development is to integrate the economic, social, and environmental policies in order to achieve reduced consumption, social equity and the preservation and restoration of biodiversity. Hence it can be seen that the three main pillars of sustainable development are economic development, social development and environmental protection.

2.11.3.1: Economic development

In the opinion of Telce and Schroenn (2006), as tourism is a multidisciplinary activity that involves several industries and draws upon a variety of skills, its benefits are spread over a wide section of society. Sinclair (1998) has highlighted the potential effect of the tourism industry in promoting growth, creating jobs and generating revenue for the government. This economic relationship is known as Tourism Led-Growth hypothesis. According to this hypothesis, international tourism is considered as a potential strategic factor for economic growth and tourist spending as an alternative form of exports to provide foreign exchange earnings (Sinclair & Stabler, 2002). Balaguer and Cantavella (2002) explain the economic significance of tourism as follows: Tourists usually demand main goods and services such as accommodation, food, transportation facilities and entertainment services in the host country. In most developing countries, to satisfy this demand, the current level of production needs to increase. This provides positive effects on the economy like an increase in production, income and employment. Durbarry (2002) points out that the tourism industry may contribute significantly to economic growth,

employment and reduction of poverty, particularly in the countries that suffer from high rates of unemployment and low levels of per capita GDP.

2.11.3.2: Social development

Abusaleh (1999) explains that human development is a process of enlarging people's choices. The most critical choices that people usually make include a long and healthy life, access to knowledge and income, assets and employment for a decent standard of living. But human development concerns more than the formation of human capabilities such as improved health or knowledge. In the opinion of Sen & Jean (1989), the primary aim of the human development paradigm is to focus development thinking more upon the enhancement of people's freedoms, capabilities, and wellbeing. Specifically, the human development approach aims to achieve three goals: i) to make people the ends and not the means of development ii) to refocus attention on what people can be or do rather than what they can produce and iii) to ensure that development policies are aimed at improving people's quality of life, including their health, security, and overall flourishing. Social development includes the processes of change that lead to improvements in human wellbeing, social relations and social institutions, which are equitable, sustainable, and compatible with the principles of democratic governance and social justice (UNRISD, 2011). Social development is the bundle of technological, subsistence, organizational, and cultural accomplishments through which people feed, clothe, house, and reproduce themselves, explain the world around them, resolve disputes within their communities, extend their power at the expense of other communities and defend themselves against others' attempts to extend power (Morris, 2010).

2.11.3.3: Infrastructure development

Gunn (1988) and Inskeep (1991) have cited that the infrastructure base of a country is a potential determinant of the attractiveness of a tourism destination. Infrastructure forms an integral part of the tourism package. For instance, road infrastructure enhances accessibility of tourists to different parts of the destination country, while sound airport infrastructure ensures that tourists' experience a comfortable transition across different countries. Communication infrastructure allows quick and cheap communication between the origin and destination country as well as provides maximum information about the

destination, thereby reducing uncertainty, fear and asymmetric information. Other infrastructure such as water and energy are also believed to result in more reliable services and thus enhance the attractiveness of the destination (Seetanah et al., 2011). Otto & Neo (2000) point out that infrastructure development should comprise three distinct components within the realms of a spatial framework. 1) For economic growth which includes transportation, electricity, telecommunications, commercial and industrial production facilities and agricultural infrastructure, 2) for meeting basic human needs which includes water, sanitation and housing, 3) for poverty alleviation which includes all the above, health infrastructure, educational infrastructure and social facilities.

The role of service infrastructure in creating a product experience is explained by Smith (1994) as: "service infrastructure is housed within the larger macro-environment or physical plant of the destination". He stressed the fact that the level, use, or lack of infrastructure and technology in a destination (for example transportation, water and power supply, use of computer technology and communications among others) are also visible and determining features that can enhance the visitors' trip experience (Crouch & Ritchie, 2000). Kaul (1985) also recognizes the importance of infrastructure, more specifically transport, as an essential component of successful tourism development. Tourism Task Force (2003) of Australia asserts that infrastructure is a big part of the tourist equation. In the opinion of Prideaux (2000), the transport system is responsible for connecting tourism-generating regions to tourism-destination regions as well as for providing transport within the tourism destination.

2.11.3.4: Environmental sustainability

Environment is usually referred to as a key component of tourism. Natural environment is very delicate and needs to be taken care of (Ryan, 2003). Environmental sustainability recognizes that natural resources of the individual community and the world should no longer be viewed as abundant and are, in fact, constantly being depleted. The natural environment must be protected for its own intrinsic value and as a resource for present and future generations (Hwan & Ercan, 2006). The tourism industry can help environment through several ways. Some of them are referred to as follows: Tourism can significantly contribute to environmental protection, conservation and restoration of biological diversity and sustainable use of natural resources. Because of their attractions,

pristine sites and natural areas are identified as valuable, and the need to keep the attraction alive can lead to the creation of wild life or national parks. Tourism has the potential to increase public appreciation of the environment and to spread awareness of environmental problems, when it brings people into closer contact with nature and the environment. This confrontation may heighten the awareness of the value of nature and may lead to environmentally conscious behaviour and activities to preserve the environment (Cooper, Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert & Wanhill, 2005).

2.12: Gaps in existing research

The detailed study of existing literature on the tourism industry revealed that the studies on tourism grew through different facets like economic impact, social impact, cultural impact, problems faced by the locals, issues and problems hindering the development of a region, actions for facilitating tourism, tourism development policies by the Government of India, perceptions of the foreign tourists about India etc. Several studies emphasising the rural tourism industry have been conducted at the national and international levels. But it was observed that no study pertaining to various types of alternative tourism in Kerala focussing on different parameters like economic development, infrastructural development and social development was conducted earlier. Hence, based on the insights got from the tourism literatures, the study focussing on the role of alternative tourism industry in the development of villages in Kerala state has been conducted.

2.13: Brief profile of Kerala

The state of Kerala was constituted in the year 1956, under the States Reorganization Act and it shares boundaries with Karnataka and Tamil Nadu. It is located at the South-West tip of India and is on the top among all the Indian states in terms of different human development indicators. The total population of Kerala is 3,33,87,677 of which 48 % are males and 52 % females. It comes to about 3% of the country's population. The population density of the state is about 859 people per square kilometre and it is three times the national average (Census, 2011b). The snapshot of Kerala is shown in Table 2.9.

Table 2.9: Snapshot of Kerala

Category	Value				
Capital	Trivandrum (Thiruvananthapuram)				
Area in square kilometre	38,863				
Number of revenue divisions	Number of districts- 14 Number of taluks- 63 Number of towns- 520				
Major cities	Trivandrum (Thiruvananthapuram), Kochi (Cochin), Kozhikode (Calicut)				
Population in million	31.8 (2001 census) 33.4 (2011 census provisional estimate)				
Percentage of urban population	47.7% (2011 census provisional estimate)				
Literacy rate	93.9 %				
GDP growth rate	9.7%				
Airports	Trivandrum, Kochi, Kozhikode				
Gross Domestic Product	Rs.1,81,289 crore in 2009-10				
Net per capita income (current prices)	Rs.52,984				

Source: Economic Survey, 2010-11

2.13.1: Significance of tourism industry in Kerala

Kerala, the home land of Ayurveda, is unique for the interesting geographical diversity it possesses within the smallest area possible. This diversity offers tourists a range of attractions and experience such as beaches, backwaters, wildlife sanctuaries, evergreen forests and diverse flora and fauna. Kerala is often projected as the "Green Gateway" to India (Netto, 2004). The principal tourism products in Kerala fall into six major categories: (1) heritage/ cultural/religious sites & events, (2) backwaters, (3) beaches, (4) hill stations, (5) wild life sanctuaries and (6) Ayurveda. A common cord of green environs harmonises them all together to form a *Green Symphony*. Kerala is now considered as a tourism model for other states in India to be emulated for its growth. Tourism industry in the state witnessed considerable growth during the nineties and

beyond and is expected to grow further in the future. Kerala is one of the earliest Indian states to announce industry status for tourism in 1986 and announce various incentives and subsidies to attract investment (Rao & Suresh, 2001).

Tourism is an important engine for Kerala's economic growth. Travel and tourism generated US \$7.2 trillion (9.8% of global GDP) and supported 284 million jobs, equivalent to 1 in 11 jobs in the global economy and in India it generated 23,454,500 jobs directly in 2015 (5.5% of total employment). This includes employment by hotels, travel agents, airlines and other passenger transportation services (excluding commuter services). It also includes, for example, the activities of the restaurant and leisure industries directly supported by tourists (Travel & Tourism Economic Impact India, 2017). In Kerala, tourism contributed to foreign exchange earnings of Rs. 6949.88 Crores in 2015, which recorded an increase of 8.61 % over the previous year. The total revenue (including direct & indirect) from tourism in Kerala during 2015 is Rs. 26689.63 Crores, showing an increase of 7.25% over the last year's figure.

The trend of the modern tourist is oriented towards resilience to nature and many countries are designing strategies and programmes to promote tourism based on experiences derived from nature, culture and society. Local communities across destinations are encouraged in tourism to minimize leakages and maximize linkages of the industry with a view to reaping maximum benefit. Today, tourism is given a due place in the development paradigm of all economies giving specific focus to the concept of sustainable development (Kerala Tourism Policy 2012: 1). The government of Kerala came out with a new policy document titled "Vision 2020" in the year 2000 which is comprehensive and which stressed the sustainability concerns along with tourism growth (Kerala Tourism Statistics, 2007). The main lending institutions like Kerala Financial Corporation (KFC), the Travel Financial Corporation of India (TFCI) and the Kerala State Industrial Development Corporation (KSIDC) have important roles in funding the tourism projects. The state has also adopted many proactive measures to stimulate investment in tourism industry like the system for fast track clearance of tourism projects, subsidies etc (GOI, 1998).

Table 2.10 shows the fund distributed by the central and state governments during the period 2003-2014, for the developmet of various destinations in Kerala.

Table 2.10: Financial assistance for tourism in Kerala

Year	Central assistance (Rs.in Crores)	State assistance (Rs.in Crores)
2003-04	12.39	61.35
2004-05	21.99	69.29
2005-06	48.09	88.02
2006-07	40.89	81.57
2007-08	42.18	83.18
2008-09	44.19	132.89
2009-10	12.81	95.32
2010-11	42.87	145.28
2011-12	23.75	182.49
2012-13	78.26	180.533
2013-14	34.67	214.898

Source: Kerala Tourism department, 2016

2.13.2: Kerala tourism statistics

Over the past one and a half decades or more, the total number of tourists visiting Kerala shows a great increase. The growth in number of both domestic and international tourist arrivals is clear from Table 2.11.

On comparison with the previous year, it is clear that the number of domestic tourist arrivals show increase in all years except during the years 1998 and 2005 and the foreign tourist arrivals show increase in all years except during the years 2001 and 2009. This shows that, with the passage of time, the fame of Kerala tourism is increasing greatly in the domestic and international market. If the number of tourist arrivals increase, it is

highly advantageous for the state and its people because tourism creates many direct and indirect job opportunities and paves the way for the infrastructural development in the tourism circuits.

Table 2.11: Trends in domestic and foreign tourist arrivals to Kerala

Year	Domestic tourists	% Variation	Foreign tourists	% Variation
1998	44,81,714	-9.52	1,89,941	4.12
1999	48,88,287	9.07	2,02,173	6.44
2000	50,13,221	2.56	2,09,933	3.84
2001	52,39,692	4.52	2,08,830	-0.53
2002	55,68,256	6.3	2,32,564	11.3
2003	58,71,228	5.4	2,94,621	26.7
2004	59,72,182	1.7	3,45,546	17.3
2005	59,46,423	-4.3	3,46,499	0.27
2006	62,71,724	5.47	4,28,534	23.7
2007	66,42,941	5.92	5,15,808	20.37
2008	75,91,250	14.28	5,98,929	16.11
2009	79,13,537	4.25	5,57,258	-6.96
2010	85,95,075	8.61	6,59,265	18.31
2011	93,81,455	9.15	7,32,985	11.18
2012	1,00,76,854	7.41	7,93,696	8.28
2013	1,08,57,811	6.53	8,58,143	8.12
2014	1,16,95,411	7.71	9,23,366	7.60
2015	1,24,65,571	6.59	9,77,479	5.86
2016	1,31,72,535	5.67	10,38,419	6.23

Source: Kerala Tourism department, 2016

Table 2.12 shows the yearwise foreign exchange earnings and total revenue generated from tourism during the period 2001-2016. The table shows that the foreign exchange earnings through tourism are constantly increasing in all the years except in 2009. This phenomenon of witnessing a negative trend in foreign exchange earnings in 2009 is undoubtedly due to the effect of global economic crisis which cast a spell on all industries, including the tourism industry. It can be ascertained that the tourism industry is a highly potent source of foreign exchange earnings in Kerala and that the total revenue generated from tourism has a significant role in boosting the Kerala economy.

Table 2.12: Foreign exchange earnings and total revenue from tourism in Kerala

Year	Foreign exchange earnings (Rs .in Crore)	Percentage of increase	Total revenue generated from tourism (Rs. in Crores) (both direct & indirect)	Percentage of increase
2001	535.00	1.85	4,500.00	9.58
2002	705.67	31.90	4,931.00	20.42
2003	983.37	39.35	5,938.00	12.83
2004	1,266.77	28.82	6,829.00	15.01
2005	1,552.31	22.54	7,738.00	13.31
2006	1,988.40	28.09	9,126.00	17.94
2007	2,640.94	32.82	11,433.00	25.28
2008	3,066.52	16.11	13,130.00	14.84
2009	2,853.16	-6.96	13,231.00	0.77
2010	3,797.37	33.09	17,348.00	31.12
2011	4,221.99	11.18	19,037.00	9.74
2012	4,571.69	8.28	20,430.00	7.32
2013	5,560.77	21.63	22,926.55	12.22
2014	6,398.93	15.07	24,885.44	8.54
2015	6,949.88	8.61	26,689.63	7.25
2016	7,749.51	11.51	29,658.56	11.12

Source: Kerala Tourism department, 2016

2.14: Profile of the sample villages chosen for the study

2.14.1: Kumarakom

Kumarakom is the village selected as the nature-tourism top-category village for the study. It is a village blessed with backwaters and pristine environment. It is situated almost 10 km west of Kottayam town and is on the banks of the Vembanad kayal. It has a renowned bird sanctuary which is home to 91 species of local and 50 species of migratory birds. Kumarakom has a number of mangrove species of which three are unique to the place. The mangrove forests also have a good collection of different types of fish. The Kerala Government has come up with the Kerala Tourism (Conservation and Preservation of Areas) Act, 2005 in February 2005. By the Act, the government can declare any area which has or is likely to have the importance of tourism within the State as "Special Tourism Zone" (STZ) and form centralized committees that could decide on the tourism development within the STZ. Kumarakom has been already declared as a STZ, under this

act. The Responsible Tourism project was officially inaugurated in Kumarakom in March 2008. The project helps the natives to reap the benefits of the new industry by offering their products and services to visitors. It also provides opportunities for interaction with tourists, giving the natives exposure to new ideas and cultures, and also gives them a platform for showcasing their talents (Kerala Tourism Department, 2016).

Table 2.13 points out the potentiality of this small village to attract a large number of both domestic and foreign tourists during the period 2002-2015.

Table 2.13: Tourism statistics in Kumarakom

Year	Foreign tourists	Domestic tourists	Total
2002	8,477	12,279	20,756
2003	9,099	27,556	36,655
2004	16,868	30,416	47,284
2005	16,600	33,161	49,761
2006	21,097	48,775	69,872
2007	18,410	35,202	53,612
2008	20,567	55,097	75,664
2009	21,657	2,24,557	2,46,214
2010	26,599	2,45,063	2,71,662
2011	27,654	2,64,689	2,94,201
2012	35,678	2,89,543	3,24,356
2013	34,387	3,13,470	3,47,857
2014	34,961	3,58,886	3,93,847
2015	43,363	3,75,643	4,19,006

Source: Compiled from the records of Kerala Tourism department

2.14.2: Njarakkal

Njarakkal is selected as nature-tourism developing category village in this study. Njarakkal is situated in Vypin island of Ernakulam district and has an area of 18 acre Matsyafed fish farm, where one can enjoy the alluring scenes of brackish water fish farm and can enjoy fishing and eat delicious food. It is a project of the Kerala Fisheries Department and the Tsunami Emergency Assistance Program (TEAP) started in 2009 for uplifting the life of the fishermen community by enhancing fish production, technical

support and promoting tourism in the destination. Here an Integrated Disease Management System (IDMS) has been implemented on an experimental basis in collaboration with the Cochin University of Science and Technology (CUSAT). Fishes like prawn, pearl spot (karimeen), milk fish, mulletts, cat fish etc are important species that are nurtured in the farm and are exported to different parts of the world. Table 2.14 shows the impact of the tourism initiative taken in this magnificent village and its success to attract the tourists within the short span of its operation is evident from the steep increase in the income from tourism

Table 2.14: Tourism statistics in Njarakkal

Year	No. of tourists	Income (Rs.)
2009	6,180	6,18,000
2010	18,750	25,00,000
2011	26,788	42,86,000
2012	26,094	41,75,000
2013	25,500	40,80,000
2014	28,400	44,55,000
2015	31,560	48,79,000
2016	35,890	55,567,00

Source: Collected from the records of Njarakkal Matsyafed office

2.14.3: Thenmala

Thenmala is selected as top-category eco-tourism village in this study. The Thenmala eco-tourism project was started in Kerala in 1999 as an experimental venture initiated by the government by focusing on conservation of environment, local participation, income generation, employment creation and cultural preservation. It is the first planned eco-tourism destination in India. Thenmala in Malayalam means "honey hills". It is so named because of the good quality honey available here. Thenmala is located in Kollam district which is at a distance of 72 km from the state capital. It forms a part of global bio-diversity with rare varieties of flora and fauna. The project seeks to protect ethnic culture

and indigenous craft-based industries for sustainable livelihood and integrated rural development (Jollyamma & Merry, 2011).

Tourism department, Government of Kerala, took steps to give focussed attention to ecotourism in the State. A separate eco-tourism wing was created to give policy support for the development of the eco-tourism destinations in the state. Accordingly, a project for the first planned eco-tourism destination (Thenmala Eco-tourism Project) was formulated in and around Shenduruney Wildlife Sanctuary with the co-operation of departments such as forest, irrigation and tourism. In order to give flexibility in management for the development of this destination, a separate society, the Thenmala Eco-tourism Promotion Society (TEPS) has been constituted. The major objectives of this project are: to develop Thenmala dam and its surroundings as a major tourist destination, to promote eco-tourism on the basis of sound principles of ecological sustainability in the surrounding areas of Thenmala and to have a well-planned tourism destination with emphasis on sustainable tourism development so as to become a model for other destination development programmes.

Thenmala is a small village at the foothills of the Western Ghats and Peppara dam. The Kallada irrigation projects of the State are located here. It is the first planned eco-tourism in India which has incorporated community participation in tourism and executed responsible tourism for socio-economic and environmental empowerment. The famous Schenduruni Wildlife Sanctuary, the most vital resource of Thenmala eco-tourism project, was established around this water body. Thenmala eco-tourism project won the prestigious Pacific Asia Travel Association [PATA] gold award during 2003-04, the National Tourism Award for the most eco-friendly organization in 2001-02 and for the best eco-tourism practices in 2003-04. The World Tourism Organisation (WTO) has incorporated Thenmala eco-tourism project in the publication *Sustainable Development of Eco-tourism; a Compilation of Good Practices in SMES*. It is an excellent credit because, there are about 64 good practices from 47 countries the world over and Thenmala eco-tourism is the only venture that has been included from India (Ajil, 2012).

Table 2.15 shows the growing popularity of this beautiful village in the tourist circuits and its power to generate good revenue from tourism.

Table 2.15: Tourism statistics in Thenmala

Financial Year	No. of tourists	Revenue generated (Rs.)
2000-01	26,148	4,45,437
2001-02	41,161	11,38,839
2002-03	65,075	21,47,985
2003-04	1,18,404	40,44,571
2004-05	1,04,622	35,63,820
2005-06	1,14,443	39,26,430
2006-07	1,20,178	49,54,459
2007-08	1,04,758	46,02,536
2008-09	92,191	48,13,440
2009-10	1,14,714	55,35,195
2010-11	1,30,961	70,50,000
2011-12	-	-
2012-13	-	-
2013-14	-	-
2014-15	1,66,406	-
2015-16	1,47,890	-
2016-17	1,79,594	-

Source: Compiled from Thenmala eco-tourism office.

2.14.4: Pulpally (Kurava-Island)

The eco-tourism developing-category village selected for the study is Kurava island in Pulpally village. *Kuruvadweep* is a 950-acre, 3.8 km² protected river delta on the Kabini River in the Wayanad district of Kerala. Kuruva island is 17 km east of Mananthavady and 10 km north-west of Pulpally, which are the nearby towns in Wayanad District. The main island of Kuruva contains two small fresh water lakes. Several migratory birds are seen here. These islands present a unique eco-system which may be of great interest to nature lovers. The green woods of Kuruva are made fertile by the river Kabani which surrounds this

collection of small islands. Though tourism began to be promoted quite recently in this location, a large number of tourists come to visit this scenic place and it serves as a major source of income for the villagers. Table 2.16 shows the flourishing popularity of this alluring destination and its competency to amass high revenue out of tourism.

Table 2.16: Tourism statistics in Kurava island

Year	No. of adults	No. of children	No. of foreign tourists	Revenue (Rs.)
2004-05	4,608	1,285	-	68,037.50
2005-06	23,241	8,012	-	3,69,985
2006-07	46,552	11,832	-	6,55,535
2007-08	74,426	22,565	-	12,00,076
2008-09	1,16,511	42,559	-	20,53,120
2009-10	1,38,163	59,222	954	27,72,220
2010-11	1,00,841	76,924	748	36,13,860
2011-12	1,44,955	47,913	469	44,34,455
2012-13	2,20,698	71,649	1,060	1,11,52,455
2013-14	1,37,070	26,516	451	60,27,865
2014-15	3,45,765	56,643	1,560	1,45,47,654
2015-16	3,47,458	43,6708	1,745	1,49,43,567

Source: Compiled from the official records of Wayand forest office

2.14.5: Kumbalangi

Kumbalagi is selected as the ETP top-category village in this study. In December 2003, the Kumbalangy Model Tourism Project was started in order to promote the village as an international tourist destination. It is an island-village on the outskirts of Cochin city. The village is 16 km² in area and is 15 kms from the South Railway Station and 45 kms from the Kochi International Airport. It has a vast stretch of backwaters connected by interlocking waterways to the whole of Kerala. It is an ideal getaway location for tourists from all over the world. It has a virgin, calm, quite and tranquil landscape unspoiled by

excessive presence of tourists. Kumbalangi is rich with exotic local cuisines, boat building, manually operated coir looms, fish farms etc.

Table 2.17: Kumbalangi Endogenous Tourism Project

Rationale for selecting the site	Kumbalangi is a small beautiful village in Ernakulam district. The prime occupation of the village is fishing, boat building, agriculture and carpentry. Kumbalangi village is known for its traditional dance, ethnic food, traditional fishing methods and organic food production. Besides it is an excellent place for sunrise and sunset view. It draws a lot of tourists due to the backwaters, Chinese fishing nets, beautiful islands, boating experience etc.
Present status of the infrastructure	Two boat jetties have been constructed to facilitate the shortest linkage to the nearby towns. Thirteen walk ways have been constructed with stone slabs to facilitate easy walk for the villagers and tourists. The beautification of Kumbalangi village entrance has been done.
Estimated earning per host family	Rs.1100-1500/ day
Status of the artisans	Country boat making, different forms of fish net, coir making and coconut processing are the lesser known craft forms in the village. The Kudumbsree or the community development society, has identified them and is planning to integrate these artisans.
Environment safeguard	Training has been provided to the school children on plantation. Mosquito eradication has been taken up. The PRI has banned the usage of plastic bags in Kumbalangi Village and has made it clear to people and visitors that the natural beauty of the place should not be destroyed by any activity or construction.
Linkages with the government department	State Tourism Department, Fisheries and Harbour Management Department, Rural Development, Department of Power and Water.

Source: Mott (2007)

2.14.6: Aranmula

Aranmula is selected as the ETP developing category village for the study. Aranmula village possesses all the attributes of rural Kerala. This village is famous for its metal mirror, whose secrets are known only to two families. Enchanting boat races, Sree Parthasarathy temple, Vaastu Vidya Gurukulam and Kathakali academy are other well known attractions in this village. The local artisans engage in traditional crafts such as the Aranmula metal mirror, mural paintings or the construction of boats for the annual

Palliyodam boat race. This village is fast growing as a centre of Kerala's Vastu architecture, cultural art forms, and traditional crafts. It is an innovative addition to the array of tourism in the State.

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the Government of India have jointly identified this Central Travancore village as one among 32 villages selected for implementing the Endogenous Tourism Project. The Government of India has also identified Aranmula as one of the five rural tourism destinations in the whole country for promoting the Gurukul concept as part of its cultural tourism promotion programme (The Hindu, 2007). Aranmula won the Central Government's National Tourism award 2007. The cultural vivacity of Aranmula, centred upon the Parthasarathy temple and its cultural conglomerate-rich traditional art forms, culture, artifacts, cultural exuberance in the form of boat races, centres of cultural and architectural excellence etc have helped it to secure this prestigious award.

2.15: Chapter conclusion

An effort has been made to understand the existing literature on concepts relevant to the study. Through the careful study of past literatures, the important theoretical arguments in the subject, premises of the research, the paradigms, methodology and policies that were adopted by various researchers could be understood. The research design was finalized from the ideas and visions that were gained, while doing intense review of literatures based on related topics. The variables relating to the topic could be identified and a clear-cut route to proceed with the research work could be obtained.

•

Chapter 3

contents

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Research objectives
- 3.3 Research hypotheses
- 3.4 Operational definitions
- 3.5 Research design
- 3.6 Data analysis
- 3.7 Chapter conclusion

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology employed in the study "ROLE OF ALTERNATIVE TOURISM IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF VILLAGES IN KERALA WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO NATURE-TOURISM, ECO-TOURISM AND ENDOGENOUS TOURISM PROJECTS". The research objectives and research hypotheses are listed. The research design, sampling, data collection procedure and statistical tools used in the analysis are described.

3.2: Research objectives

- 1. To make a comparative study on the impact of nature-tourism, eco-tourism and Endogenous Tourism Projects in Kerala on the economic, social and infrastructural developments of the villages.
- 2. To determine the satisfaction of tourists regarding the tourism facilities available in the villages under study.

3.3: Research hypotheses

Drawing from the above mentioned objectives of the study, the following research hypotheses were proposed.

H₁: There exists a significant difference in the level of economic development of people in the different types of tourism villages after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

 H_{1a} : There exists a significant difference in the level of economic development of people, based on their age, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

H_{1b}: There exists a significant difference in the level of economic development of people, based on their gender, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

 H_{1c} : There exists a significant difference in the level of economic development of people, based on their occupation, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

H_{1d}: There exists a significant difference in the level of economic development of people, based on their education, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

H_{1e}: There exists a significant difference in the level of economic development of people, based on their income, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

H_2 : There exists a significant difference in the level of social development of people in the different types of tourism villages after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

 H_{2a} : There exists a significant difference in the level of social development of people, based on their age, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

H_{2b}: There exists a significant difference in the level of social development of people, based on their gender, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

H_{2c}: There exists a significant difference in the level of social development of people, based on their occupation, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

H_{2d}: There exists a significant difference in the level of social development of people, based on their education, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

H_{2e}: There exists a significant difference in the level of social development of people, based on their income, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

H₃: There exists a significant difference in the level of infrastructural development in the different types of tourism villages after the promotion of tourism.

H₄: There exists a significant difference in the satisfaction level of tourists in the different types of tourism villages regarding the facilities available.

H_{4a}: There exists a significant difference in the satisfaction level of the tourists, based on their age, in the different types of tourism villages, regarding the facilities available.

H_{4b}: There exists a significant difference in the satisfaction level of the tourists, based on their gender, in the different types of tourism villages, regarding the facilities available.

H_{4c}: There exists a significant difference in the satisfaction level of the tourists, based on their nationality, in the different types of tourism villages, regarding the facilities available.

H_{4d}: There exists a significant difference in the satisfaction level of the tourists, based on their education, in the different types of tourism villages, regarding the facilities available.

H_{4e}: There exists a significant difference in the satisfaction level of the tourists, based on their occupation, in the different types of tourism villages, regarding the facilities available.

3.4: Operational definitions

3.4.1: Alternative tourism

Tourism that is promoted in a village that has unique natural endowments, and is capable of beckoning the tourists to imbibe the spectacular experiences which are classified into sub sections like nature- tourism, eco-tourism and Endogenous Tourism Project (ETP) is called alternative tourism. So, alternative tourism is a bipartite process, which is beneficial to the tourists and the villagers as well.

3.4.2: Tourism village

A village that has distinctive natural attributes, where tourism is promoted in an ecofriendly manner and that beckons the tourists to experience the spectacular experiences in it.

3.4.3: Nature-tourism village

A village that is bestowed with natural beauty, which has lake/river as prominent attraction and that offers the tourists the facilities for boating and fishing.

3.4.4: Eco-tourism village

A village in which tourism project is started by the government with the primary concern for the protection of ecology in the region, to incorporate community participation in tourism, preserve the rights of the indigenous people and work in partnership with them to make them empowered.

3.4.5: Endogenous Tourism Project village

A village that is selected by the Government of India as a part of the project aimed at developing selected rural destinations in India into rural tourism villages.

3.4.6: Development

Economic, social and infrastructural advancements that happen in a village, after the promotion of tourism in it.

3.4.7: Economic development

Economic development pertains to the economic growth in the lives of the villagers as a result of the increase in the job opportunities and income levels after the promotion of tourism.

3.4.8: Social development

Social development signifies the benefits for the villagers after the promotion of tourism, which have helped them to remove the social barriers and enabled them to move forward on their path to self-sufficiency. The increase in the capabilities of individuals to improve their social well-being, enhancement of the capacity to transform the relation with others and improved participation of the local people in different developmental activities are considered as the parameters for social development.

3.4.9: Infrastructural development

Infrastructural development implies the improvements that have happened to the basic physical systems of a village, including roads, transportation, hospitals, waste disposal mechanism, pure drinking water facility, electricity etc, after the active promotion of tourism in the villages.

3.4.10: Tourist satisfaction

It refers to the overall satisfaction for the tourists regarding the tourism facilities that are available, in an alternative tourism promoted destination in Kerala.

3.5: Research design

This is a descriptive and cross-sectional study, which included the investigation of samples selected from the people involved in different tourism-related jobs in the alternative tourism destinations in Kerala and the tourists visiting those villages during the period January - March, 2014. The target population for the study was the people involved in different tourism-related jobs and the tourists in the six selected tourism villages in Kerala.

3.5.1: Research instrument

The instruments for data collection were developed after a review of multidisciplinary literature on tourism. Three sets of interview schedules in English were prepared for the people engaged in different tourism-related jobs, homestay owners and the tourists. A feasibility study and preliminary investigation were carried out during the period October-December, 2013. Interviews were conducted with the tourism industry experts and academicians during the preliminary investigation to assess the suitability and relevance of the questions included in the interview schedules. This established the validity of the research instrument. Questions in the interview schedule were designed for both dichotomous questions which had two possible opposing responses and multiple choice questions which had a range of responses. The questions were brief, simple, accurate and arranged in logical order. All the questions were knit to the cord of the research objective in hand. The questions in the interview schedule were arranged in a manner so that the required data for testing the stated hypotheses could be obtained.

The research objectives of studying the economic development, social development of the villagers after the involvement in village tourism activity and the infrastructural development in the village after the promotion of tourism were formulated in accordance with the sustainable development parameters mentioned in the publications "Indicators of Sustainable Development for Tourism Destinations: A Guidebook (2004)" and "Indicators of Sustainable Development: Guidelines and Methodologies (2007)". Hence the questions pertaining to the economic development, social development and infrastructural development were prepared by adopting the indicators specified in the above cited reference books. The questions in the interview schedule for the tourists were also prepared in adherence to the indicators of tourist satisfaction proposed in the WTO publication (2004).

3.5.2: Sampling

3.5.2.1: Population

The target populations for the study were the people involved in different tourism-related jobs and tourists visiting the six selected villages in Kerala during January - March, 2014.

3.5.2.2: Sample inclusion criteria

Certain inclusion criteria were used to select the samples for the study. The first criterion was to select the people involved in different tourism-related jobs. From the six tourism villages in Kerala, those engaged in doing that particular job for a span of 3-6 years were selected. The second criterion adopted was that only those people whose income from the tourism-related jobs (including homestay owners) did not exceed Rs. 35, 000 per month, were selected for the study. The third criterion adopted was to select the tourists (both domestic and foreign) from the villages under study. Those tourists who were willing to cooperate and spend their precious time to answer the questions were selected. The nationalities to be surveyed were not determined prior to data collection.

3.5.2.3: Sample size

In the villages selected for the study, only limited number of people who fulfilled the inclusion criteria was involved in tourism related jobs and in the running of homestays. Similarly the number of tourists who visited these villages and those fulfilling the inclusion criteria were also low. Hence from each village the sample consisted of 50 villagers from different category of jobs related to tourism like transportation providers, agriculturists, traditional cuisine/ catering providers, vendors of local products and handicrafts, local guides etc, 20 homestay owners and 30 tourists. So altogether 300 tourism service providers, 120 homestay owners and 180 tourists were selected as the sample for the study.

3.5.2.4: Sampling approach

Data were collected from the three types of tourism villages in Kerala that are famous for promoting alternative tourism in the three different forms: nature- tourism, eco-tourism and Endogenous Tourism Project (ETP). The villages in each of the three categories were again subdivided into top-category and developing-category based on the chronological order in which tourism promotional efforts were started by the government. Top-category villages are those destinations where the tourism promotional activities began earlier and which were able to secure prestigious awards at the national level which, in turn, helped them to become popular in the national and international tourism markets. Developing-

category villages are those destinations where the tourism promotional activities began later. The three categories of respondents selected for the study from each village were the different categories of tourism service providers, homestay owners and the tourists. The sampling frame consisted of six villages in Kerala. Respective sample units were selected through judgemental sampling from the three categories of respondents in each of the six villages.

3.5.3: Data collection

3.5.3.1 Sources for data collection

The data for the research was collected mainly from two sources

a. Primary sources b. Secondary sources

a) Primary Sources

Primary data related to the research work was collected through interview schedules and personal interviews.

b) Secondary Sources

Secondary data provides a rich source of information. The secondary sources include: publications of institutions and research firms, information from e-resources, magazines, books, brochures, journals, newspaper, statistical abstracts and database archives.

3.5.3.2.: Primary data used for the study

50 tourism service providers who were engaged in different category of jobs related to tourism activities in the village like transportation providers, agriculturists, traditional cuisine/ catering providers, vendors of local products and handicrafts, local guides etc, 20 home stay owners and 30 tourists were selected from each village for collecting the primary data. So in total 300 tourism service providers, 120 homestay owners and 180 tourists were selected for the study from across the six villages. But in the case of Njarakkal village, 20 samples of home stay owners were not available, and hence the required samples were collected by taking into consideration home stay owners in the two

neighbouring villages like Elamkunnapuzha and Mulavukadu which are very much similar in their geographic and demographic profile.

Table 3.1: Sample villages chosen for the study

Type of village	Type of village Type of village starting tourism promotional activity		ETP village/ year of starting tourism promotional activity
Top-category	Kumarakom	Thenmala (Kollam) 1999	Kumbalangi
village	(Kottayam) 1989		(Ernakulam) 2003
Developing-	Njarakkal	Pulpally	Aranmula
category village	(Ernakulam) 2011	(Wayanad) 2004	(Pathanamthitta) 2005

3.6: Data analysis

Data was analysed using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS 21.0). Cronbach's alpha was calculated for the constructs economic development, social development, infrastructural development and tourist satisfaction. Results as shown in Table 3.2 indicate acceptable level of internal consistency. Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.7 indicates reliability of scale (De-Vaus, 2002).

Table 3.2: Reliability of dimensions

Dimensions	Cronbach's alpha
Economic development	0.77
Social development	0.82
Infrastructural development	0.79
Tourist satisfaction	0.84

3.6.1: Statistical tools used

Statistical tools like Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness of FitTest (K-S test), t-test, ANOVA, Duncan's Multiple Range test (DMRT), Wilcoxon signed rank test etc are used for data analysis.

3.7: Chapter conclusion

The research design of this study can be described as being descriptive and cross-sectional. The aim of the study was to find out the role of alternative tourism in the development of villages in Kerala with special reference to nature-tourism, eco-tourism and ETP villages. In doing so, data was collected from the six different villages in Kerala, which promote tourism.



ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

ontents

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Profile of the different categories of tourism service providers
- 4.3 Analysis of the feedback from the tourism service providers
- 4.4 Profile of the homestay owners
- 4.5 Analysis of the feedback of the homestay owners
- 4.6 Profile of the tourists
- 4.7 Testing of hypotheses
- 4.8 Chapter conclusion

4.1: Introduction

The primary data is collected through three different interview schedules from the six selected tourism villages (two villages each from nature-tourism, eco-tourism and Endogenous Tourism Project) in Kerala. The three classes of respondents who are studied in each village are: different categories of tourism service providers, homestay owners and tourists. A profile of these three classes of respondents, based on their key socio-economic parameters, is made to understand the role of alternative tourism in the development of tourism villages in Kerala. Data collected from the samples of tourists from the villages under study is also analysed to know the satisfaction of the tourists about the facilities available in those tourism villages.

4.2: Profile of the different categories of tourism service providers

4.2.1: Age

The age group of the tourism service providers is an important factor that determines the choice of a particular type of job. A division of the respondents based on their age groups is made in Table 4.1 so as to identify the age groups that comprise the major percentage of the respective samples.

Table 4.1: Distribution of tourism service providers based on age groups

Age group	Nature-tourism		Nature-tourism Eco-tourism		ЕТР	
Years	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
< 30	2 (4)	1 (2)	2 (4)	1 (2)	3 (6)	4 (8)
30-40	15 (30)	13 (26)	12 (24)	12 (24)	10 (20)	12 (24)
40-50	14 (28)	18 (36)	10 (20)	17 (34)	15 (30)	17 (34)
50-60	8 (16)	9 (18)	17 (34)	12 (24)	14 (28)	11 (22)
>60	11 (22)	9 (18)	9 (18)	8 (16)	8 (16)	6 (12)
Total	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)

Figure in parentheses is in percentage.

In all the six villages, the majority of the respondents are in the '30-60' age group. This shows that people within the '30-60' age group are actively involved in tourism-related jobs in the six villages.

Respondents in the '< 30' age group were comparatively low in the sample villages, with the highest percentage in 'Aranmula' (8%) and the lowest in both 'Pulpally' and 'Njarakkal' (2%). In the '30-40' age group, the highest percentage is in 'Kumarakom' (30%) and the lowest is in 'Kumbalangi' (20%). In the '40-50' age group, the highest percentage is in 'Njarakkal' (36%) and the lowest is in 'Thenmala' (20%). In the '50-60' age group, the highest percentage is in 'Kumarakom' (16%). In the '>60' age group, the highest percentage is in 'Kumarakom' (22%) and the lowest is in 'Aranmula' (12%).

The '> 60' age group contribute a reasonably good percentage of the selected samples in all the villages under study. It means that even the people in the '>60' age group, find an inherent pleasure and satisfaction in tourism jobs. It can also be noticed that in all the six villages, a very poor participation is found from the side of people in the '<30' age group. Once this category of people gets convinced about the success of people in other age group categories who are employed under tourism, then later they may also be motivated to take up tourism-related jobs.

4.2.2: Gender

The gender-wise classification of the different categories of tourism service providers who are selected from the sample is given in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Distribution of tourism service providers based on gender

C 1	Nature-tourism		Nature-tourism		Eco-to	urism	ET	P
Gender	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula		
Male	39 (78)	40 (80)	37 (74)	41 (82)	40 (80)	38 (76)		
Female	11 (22)	10 (20)	13 (26)	9 (18)	10 (20)	12 (24)		
Total	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)		

Figure in parentheses is in percentage.

The percentage of male tourism service providers was found to be higher than that of females in all the six tourism villages, with the highest percentage in 'Pulpally' (82%) and the lowest in 'Thenmala' (74%). This can be because women, especially in the villages in Kerala, usually prefer to be homemakers due to factors like low education, family tie-ups etc. But, women may get inspired and female participation in tourism-related jobs can increase, once they are convinced about the attractions like the wide scope of job opportunities, employment opportunities in one's own village, good wages and experience of other successful women workers employed in tourism jobs. As a part of the economic empowerment of women, they can be encouraged to take up tourism-related jobs.

4.2.3: Occupation

Tourism requires significant human resources and it creates job opportunities for both skilled and unskilled people. In each tourism village, there are some respondents who were already doing tourism-related jobs, even before the initiatives to promote tourism in their villages were taken. But many of the respondents preferred to take up a tourism-related job, after the tourism promotional efforts were done by the government and the department of tourism. A classification of the respondents on the basis of their present and prior occupations are given in Table 4. 3 and Table 4. 4, so as to find out the priority of jobs that are preferred by the people in the tourism villages, after tourism was actively promoted in their villages.

Table 4.3: Distribution of tourism service providers based on present occupation

Present	Nature-tourism		Eco-to	urism	ETP		
Occupation	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula	
Agriculture	9 (18)	9 (18)	11 (22)	13 (26)	7 (14)	5 (10)	
Artisan	5 (10)	1 (2)	3 (6)	4 (8)	4 (8)	6 (12)	
Fishing	4 (8)	15 (30)	2 (4)	1 (2)	7 (14)	5 (10)	
Traditional art performance	5 (10)	1 (2)	3 (6)	2 (4)	3 (6)	4 (8)	
Hotel	10 (20)	5 (10)	6 (12)	8 (16)	8 (16)	6 (12)	
Tourist guide	3 (6)	0 (0)	3 (6)	0 (0)	2 (4)	1 (2)	
Petty shop	3 (6)	7 (14)	7 (14)	8 (16)	5 (10)	5 (10)	
Sale of local products and handicrafts	2 (4)	2 (4)	5 (10)	6 (12)	3 (6)	10 (20)	
Traditional cuisine provider	3 (6)	4 (8)	3 (6)	4 (8)	6 (12)	3 (6)	
Transportation	6 (12)	6 (12)	7 (14)	4 (8)	5 (10)	5 (10)	
Total	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	

Figure in parentheses is in percentage.

Table 4.4: Distribution of tourism service providers based on prior occupation

Prior	Nature-1	tourism	Eco-to	urism	E	ГР
Occupation	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
Agriculture	4 (8)	3 (6)	6 (12)	5 (10)	4 (8)	2 (4)
Artisan	3 (6)	0 (0)	1 (2)	1 (2)	2 (4)	3 (6)
Fishing	4 (8)	10 (20)	1 (2)	6 (12)	5 (10)	4 (8)
Hotel	6 (12)	3 (6)	4 (8)	4 (8)	5 (10)	4 (8)
Jobless	12 (24)	14 (28)	11 (22)	13 (26)	10 (20)	13 (26)
Labourer	8 (16)	10 (20)	8 (16)	9 (18)	8 (16)	10 (20)
Petty shops	1(2)	5 (10)	5 (10)	5 (10)	3 (6)	3 (6)
Private job	4 (8)	2 (4)	4 (8)	5 (10)	5 (10)	6 (12)
Retired government employee	3 (6)	0 (0)	2 (4)	1 (2)	2 (4)	1 (2)
Traditional art performance	2 (4)	0 (0)	1 (2)	0 (0)	1 (2)	1 (2)
Transportation	3 (6)	3 (6)	4 (8)	3 (6)	2 (4)	3 (6)
Others	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (6)	4 (8)	3 (6)	0 (0)
Total	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)

Figure in parentheses is in percentage.

Comparing Table 4.3 and Table 4.4 some deductions can be made. The percentage of the respondents whose occupation is 'agriculture' shows an increase in all the six villages, the highest percentage increase being in 'Pulpally' (16%) and the lowest in both 'Kumbalangi' and 'Aranmula' (6%). This can be because tourism promotion might have increased the demand for agricultural products in hotels and wholesale shops, which, in turn, resulted in a good source of income for the people who are engaged in it. The percentage of the respondents whose occupation is 'artisan' shows an increase in all the six villages; the highest percentage increase is seen in both 'Pulpally' and 'Aranmula' (6%) and the lowest is seen in 'Njarakkal' (2%). This can be because the tourists get dazzled by the beauty of Kerala handicrafts and buy them to cherish the sweet memory of their Kerala visit. The handicrafts are made by specific sectors of people, who own the legacy of heritage and traditional art skills. They are benefited through tourism and it helps in keeping the community alive without vanishing into oblivion. The percentage of the respondents whose occupation is 'fishing' shows an increase in all the six villages. The highest percentage increase is seen in 'Njarakkal' (10%), followed by 'Kumbalangi' (4%) and in the other four villages, an increase of (2%) is noted. This shows a good demand for fish and other sea food items by the tourists in all the villages under study. It can be inferred that tourism promotion has increased the profitability from fishing because of the increasing number of tourist arrivals. Tourists relish the mouthwatering taste of those items and are willing to buy them even at a high price. So it is highly profitable for the poor people engaged in fishing and sale of marine products.

The percentage of the respondents whose occupation is 'traditional art performance' shows an increase in all the six villages. The highest percentage increase is in both 'Kumarakom' and 'Aranmula' (6%) and the lowest in 'Njarakkal' (2%). Communities that are adept in traditional art forms are few in number and the income from this source is restricted to those specific classes only. Kerala is the homeland of many traditional dance forms, vocal music, instrumental music, martial arts etc. They are visual and emotional treats to the tourists who are ardent lovers of art forms, and some get even inspired to learn them deeply from the maestros by staying in our state. So tourism promotion in the villages is a boon for the communities, for whom art is their livelihood. The percentage of the respondents whose occupation is in 'hotel' shows an increase in all the six villages, the highest percentage increase being in 'Kumarakom' (10%) and the

lowest in 'Thenmala' (4%). This shows that the promotion of tourism has increased the sales in hotels and many people are benefited out of it. The percentage of respondents whose occupation is 'transportation' shows increase in all villages, the highest percentage increase is seen in 'Kumarakom', 'Thenmala', 'Njarakkal' and 'Kumbalangi' (6%) and the lowest percentage in 'Pulpally' (2%). This shows that tourism promotion has resulted in a high demand for tourist transportation. Tourists will keep on moving in order to see different tourist attractions and for that they will depend on comfortable mode of transportation. So it is a good source of income for the transportation providers in the sample villages. The percentage of the respondents, whose occupation is 'petty shop', shows an increase in all the six villages; the highest percentage increase is in 'Pulpally' (6%) and in all other five villages, an increase of 4% is seen. This can also be due to the increased number of tourist arrivals to the villages, after an extensive promotion of tourism.

In all the villages under study, a fairly good percentage of respondents had their present occupation 'traditional cuisine provider', the highest percentage being in 'Kumbalangi' (12%) and the lowest in 'Kumarakom', 'Thenmala' and 'Aranmula' (6%). This also points to the fact that demand for the traditional cuisine by the tourists has opened up a source of income for people in the tourism villages. The percentage of respondents who were 'tourist guide' were comparatively low in all villages; the highest percentage is seen in both 'Kumarakom' and 'Thenmala' (6%) and the lowest in 'Pulpally' and 'Njarakkal' (0%). This can be because both 'Kumarakom' and 'Thenmala' are destinations that have experienced high tourist inflow for more than fifteen years and some people who had good communication as well as interaction skills, might have found opportunity in serving as a 'tourist guide'.

4.2.4: Educational background

Education is an important factor in getting a lucrative job. To find out the role of tourism in opening up good income avenues for the skilled as well as the unskilled villagers, categorization of respondents according to their educational backgrounds is made in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Distribution of tourism service providers based on educational back ground

Educational	Nature-t	ourism	Eco-tourism		ETP	
background	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
Illiterate	10 (20)	9 (18)	5 (10)	6 (12)	4 (8)	6 (12)
LP	5 (10)	4 (8)	9 (18)	8 (16)	7 (14)	3 (6)
UP	11 (22)	8 (16)	13 (26)	16 (32)	11 (22)	10 (20)
SSLC	10 (20)	10 (20)	12 (24)	12 (24)	13 (26)	18 (36)
Pre-degree	6 (12)	4 (8)	7 (14)	2 (4)	6 (12)	10 (20)
Graduation	3 (6)	1 (2)	1 (2)	0 (0)	1(2)	1 (2)
PG	0 (0)	1 (2)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (2)
Professional	3 (6)	2 (4)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (6)	0 (0)
Poly technique/others	2 (4)	11 (22)	3 (6)	6 (12)	5 (10)	1 (2)
Total	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)

Figure in parentheses is in percentage.

In all the villages under study, more than 70% of respondents fall in the 'illiterate', 'LP', 'UP', 'SSLC' and 'pre-degree' categories. This means that tourism is providing very good job opportunities even for people with low educational qualification, which denotes that educational qualification is not a constraint for getting a job under tourism for the local people.

4.2.5: Monthly income

The household income of people is an important element in the measurement of their economic well-being and it acts as a flow that enables consumption and contributes to changes in household wealth. Tabulation of the respondents based on their present and prior monthly income is made in Table 4.6 to figure out the change in their monthly income levels, after promotion of tourism in their villages.

The highest monthly income that the respondents in the six tourism villages were able to earn earlier before the promotion of tourism in those villages was in the category Rs. '12,000-15,000'. But, after the promotion of tourism in their villages, the lowest income group of the various categories of tourism service providers in all the tourism villages are those in the category Rs. '10,000-15,000' and the highest income group are in the category Rs. '30,000-35,000'. The highest percentage of respondents, whose present

income was in the category Rs. '10,000-15,000', was seen in 'Njarakkal' (50%), followed by 'Pulpally' (40%) and the lowest is in 'Kumarakom' (16%). This shows that the majority of the tourism service providers in 'Njarakkal' and 'Pulpally' villages are earning a monthly income of Rs. '10,000-15,000'.

Table 4.6: Income from prior and present occupations of tourism service proviers

	Income	Nature-to	ourism	Eco-to	Eco-tourism		ETP	
	(Rs.)	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula	
	No	12 (24)	14 (28)	11 (22)	13 (26)	10 (20)	13 (26)	
	income							
	< 3,000	5 (10)	8 (16)	6 (12)	12 (24)	10 (20)	11 (22)	
re	3,000- 6,000	9 (18)	10 (20)	8 (16)	8 (16)	9 (18)	12 (24)	
Before	6,000- 9,000	10 (20)	8 (16)	7 (14)	9 (18)	9 (18)	6 (12)	
	9,000- 12,000	8 (16)	7 (14)	10 (20)	6 (12)	7 (14)	4 (8)	
	12,000- 15,000	6 (12)	3 (6)	8 (16)	2 (4)	5 (10)	4 (8)	
	<10,000	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	
	10,000- 15,000	8 (16)	25 (50)	11 (22)	20 (40)	12 (24)	18 (36)	
ı	15,000- 20,000	14 (28)	10 (20)	12 (24)	12 (24)	15 (30)	13 (26)	
After	20,000- 25,000	12 (24)	9 (18)	11 (22)	10 (20)	13 (26)	12 (24)	
	25,000- 30,000	8 (16)	4 (8)	10 (20)	5 (10)	6 (12)	6 (12)	
	30,000- 35,000	8 (16)	2 (4)	6 (12)	3 (6)	4 (8)	1 (2)	

Figure in parentheses is in percentage.

This is a good sign showing the prospects of promotion of tourism in these villages, which are comparatively new entrants in exploring the possibilities of tourism. The respondents in the high income groups Rs. '25,000-30,000' as well as Rs. '30,000-35,000' are found to be the highest in both 'Kumarakom' and Themala (32%), followed by 'Kumbalangi' (20%) and the lowest in 'Njarakkal' (12%). This shows that a good percentage of the tourism service providers in 'Kumarakom', 'Thenmala' and 'Kumbalangi' are able to earn a monthly income in the range Rs. '25,000-35,000'. It may be because these villages have been strongly marketed in the international tourism

markets by the government much earlier and, as a result, a large number of tourists belonging to different economic classes might have opted to come to these serene villages quite a long back.

4.3: Analysis of the feedback from the tourism service providers

4.3.1: Reasons that hindered the education

There are several factors which act as impediments to the education of the tourism service providers. Classification of the respondents on the basis of different factors that curbed their education is made in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Average rank for each reason which hindered the education of tourism service providers

Reasons	Nature-1	ourism	Eco-to	urism	ETP	
Reasons	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
Non availability of schools near to the village	3.6	3.84	3.8	3.62	3.896	4.22
Non availability of colleges near to the village	4.46	4.7	4.56	4.58	4.704	4.90
Difficulties in transport	4.32	4.3	4.12	4.54	4.212	4.00
Low income in the family	1.74	1.64	1.7	1.72	1.632	1.44
Unawareness of prospects of education	3.18	2.48	2.58	2.12	2.468	2.28
Others	3.74	4	4.16	4.38	4.048	4.08

The respondents were asked to rank the different reasons that hindered their education and the responses given by them are tabulated. Average rank is given to each reason and the response for which the average rank is the lowest in a village is the most prominent reason for hindering the education of the people in that particular village. In all the six

tourism villages, it is seen that the most prominent reason that hindered the education of the respondents is the 'low income in the family'. This means that in earlier period, families in the villages had only low income and so it had curbed the education of the people there. So, if the current occupation generated by tourism, provides good economic advancement to the local people, the education of their children and of the forthcoming generations won't be hindered.

4.3.2: Household amenities

Household ownership of different physical assets by the tourism service providers is a proxy indicator of their income. A classification of the respondents based on their prior and present household amenities is made in Table 4.8 to know their economic advancement.

Table 4.8: Prior and present household amenities owned by tourism service providers

	Nature-t	ourism	Eco-to	Eco-tourism		ETP	
Household amenities	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula	
Cooking gas (Prior)	43 (86)	33 (66)	42 (84)	30 (60)	40 (80)	39 (78)	
Cooking gas (Present)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	48 (96)	48 (96)	47 (94)	
Fan (Prior)	50 (100)	48 (96)	49 (98)	44 (88)	48 (96)	46 (92)	
Fan (Present)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	
TV (Prior)	46 (92)	39 (78)	44 (88)	38 (76)	45 (90)	39 (78)	
TV (Present)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	
Telephone (Prior)	41 (82)	38 (76)	39 (78)	32 (64)	37 (74)	36 (72)	
Telephone (Present)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	
Refrigerator (Prior)	34 (68)	39 (78)	35 (70)	28 (56)	43 (86)	34 (68)	
Refrigerator (Present)	50 (100)	45 (90)	48 (96)	37 (74)	48 (96)	46 (92)	
Music system (Prior)	29 (58)	19 (38)	28 (56)	20 (40)	25 (50)	23 (46)	
Music system (Present)	46 (92)	39 (78)	44 (88)	38 (76)	45 (90)	42 (84)	
Mixie (Prior)	44 (88)	35 (70)	42 (84)	29 (38)	40 (80)	38 (76)	

	Nature-t	ourism	Eco-to	urism	ETP		
Household amenities	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula	
Mixie (Present)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	
Grinder (Prior)	29 (58)	21 (42)	27 (54)	19 (38)	26 (52)	20 (40)	
Grinder (Present)	44 (88)	33 (66)	43 (86)	37 (74)	42 (84)	35 (70)	
Microwave oven (Prior)	12 (20)	3 (6)	10 (20)	0 (0)	8 (16)	0 (0)	
Microwave oven (Present)	21 (42)	7 (14)	19 (38)	8 (16)	20 (40)	5 (10)	
Two wheeler (Prior)	34 (68)	31 (62)	32 (64)	28 (56)	33 (66)	27 (54)	
Two wheeler (Present)	47 (94)	41 (82)	46 (92)	39 (78)	45 (90)	44 (88)	
Car (Prior)	25 (50)	6 (12)	23 (46)	8 (16)	19 (38)	10 (20)	
Car (Present)	35 (70)	15 (30)	31 (62)	22 (44)	32 (62)	18 (36)	
Air Conditioner (Prior)	10 (20)	3 (6)	8 (16)	0 (0)	5 (10)	4 (8)	
Air Conditioner (Present)	32 (64)	12 (24)	31 (62)	5 (10)	28 (56)	10 (11)	
Computer (Prior)	18 (36)	4 (8)	13 (26)	8 (16)	12 (24)	10 (20)	
Computer (Present)	38 (76)	30 (60)	37 (74)	29 (58)	36 (72)	31 (62)	
Furniture (Prior)	35 (70)	30 (60)	33 (66)	25 (50)	33 (66)	28 (56)	
Furniture (Present)	44 (88)	39 (78)	42 (84)	38 (76)	43 (86)	40 (80)	
Washing machine (Prior)	20 (40)	12 (24)	18 (36)	8 (16)	15 (30)	10 (20)	
Washing machine (Present)	38 (76)	27 (54)	35 (70)	23 (46)	37 (74)	28 (56)	
Others (Prior)	12 (24)	2 (4)	10 (20)	3 (6)	7 (14)	4 (8)	
Others (Present)	25 (50)	16 (32)	22 (44)	12 (24)	20 (40)	11 (22)	

Figure in parentheses is in percentage.

A comparison between the household amenities owned by the respondents in the six villages under study, before and after taking up their present job, is made. Sixteen categories of household items including 'cooking gas', 'fan', 'television', 'telephone', 'refrigerator', 'music system', 'mixie', 'grinder', 'microwave oven', 'two wheeler', 'car', 'air conditioner', 'computer', 'furniture', 'washing machine' and 'other items' are considered. It was observed that in all the villages, the tourism service providers were able to own more number of household items than they had earlier. This is a clear indication of the fact that the different categories of tourism service providers are benefitted economically after the promotion of tourism in the villages.

4.3.3: Ownership status of house

There is a linear relation between the income of a person and the ownership of a house. Ownership of a house by a person shows that he has either accumulated enough savings to reach a stable plateau in his life, or he has reached a point where his income is secure. So, to know the increase in the ownership of 'own houses' of the respondents, a division of them on the basis of their prior and present house status is made in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Prior and present house status of the tourism service providers

House	Nature-t	Nature-tourism		urism	ЕТР	
Status	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
Before						
Own	34 (68)	29 (58)	33 (66)	26 (52)	32 (64)	27 (54)
Rented	13 (26)	20 (40)	15 (30)	20 (40)	16 (32)	20 (40)
Provided						
by	3 (6)	0 (0)	2 (4)	2 (4)	1 (2)	2 (4)
employer						
Others	0 (0)	1 (2)	0 (0)	2 (4)	1(2)	1 (2)
After						
Own	42 (84)	34 (68)	40 (80)	30 (60)	38 (76)	30 (60)
Rented	7 (14)	16 (32)	10 (20)	19 (38)	12 (24)	20 (40)
Provided						
by	1 (2)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (2)	0 (0)	0 (0)
employer	, ,	, , ,	, , ,		, ,	
Others	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)

Figure in parentheses is in percentage.

House is a basic necessity for a person and owning a house is a matter of his prestige and aspiration. A considerable increase in the percentage of respondents who own a house can be seen in all sample villages, after getting into their present jobs. The percentage increase of own house is the highest in 'Kumarakom' (16%), followed by 'Thenmala' (14%) and the least in 'Aranmula' (6%). This implies that the respondents in the six villages under study are getting good income from their present jobs and that it has helped them to secure a house of their own. This is a strong indicator that denotes that tourist inflow to the villages allows wealth to be injected into the local communities by providing direct jobs to the community - such as tour guides or hotel housekeeping and indirect employment through other industries such as agriculture, food production, retail stores etc.

4.3.4: Type of house roofing

There can be an up-gradation in the type of house of the respondents, if there is considerable increase in their household income. So, in order to learn about the noticeable change in the income level of respondents, a classification of them on the basis of prior and present type of house roofing is made in Table 4. 10.

Table 4.10: Prior and present type of house roofing of tourism service providers

Type of	Nature-to	Nature-tourism		ourism	ETP	
house roofing	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
Prior						
Thatched	4 (8)	8 (16)	5 (10)	10 (20)	3 (6)	6 (12)
Tiled	20 (40)	28 (56)	23 (46)	30 (60)	27 (54)	25 (50)
Concrete	26 (52)	14 (28)	22 (44)	10 (20)	20 (40)	19 (38)
Present						
Thatched	0 (0)	4 (8)	2 (4)	5 (10)	0 (0)	3 (6)
Tiled	14 (28)	25 (50)	20 (40)	28 (56)	22 (44)	22 (44)
Concrete	36 (72)	21 (42)	28 (56)	17 (34)	28 (56)	25 (50)

Figure in parentheses is in percentage.

The type of roofing used for constructing a house shows the strength of the building as well as the security it provides for the inhabitants in the house. The percentage increase of 'concrete house' is the highest in both 'Kumarakom' and 'Thenmala' (20%), followed by

'Kumbalangi' (16%) and the lowest in 'Aranmula' (12%). The percentage decrease of 'tiled house' is the highest in 'Kumarakom' (12%), followed by 'Kumbalangi' (10%) and the lowest in 'Pulpally' (4%).

This can be because, as the tourism promotional efforts started earlier in 'Kumarkom', 'Thenmala' and 'Kumbalangi', the people in these villages were able to earn more income and modify their houses than those in the other three villages. In all the villages under study, there is considerable improvement in the type of house roofing of the respondents, which implies that they were getting good income from their present jobs and so they were able to beautify and transform their houses into modern ones.

4.3.5: Toilet facility in the house

Inadequate sanitation will cause diseases and improving the sanitation facilities will have a significant beneficial impact on the health of household members and the communities as well. Progress in sanitation facilities in the villages is an indicator of improved hygiene and health consciousness of the villagers. So a classification of respondents on the basis of prior and present toilet facility in their houses is made in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Prior and present toilet facility in the houses of tourism service providers

Type of	Nature-tourism		Eco-to	urism	ETP		
toilet facility	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula	
Prior							
Open space	0 (0)	1 (2)	0 (0)	2 (4)	0 (0)	2 (4)	
Public toilets	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (2)	0 (0)	1 (2)	
Own toilets	50 (100)	49 (98)	50 (0)	47 (94)	50 (100)	47 (94)	
Present							
Open space	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	
Public toilets	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	
Own toilets	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	

Figure in parentheses is in percentage.

All respondents in 'Kumarakom', 'Thenmala' and 'Kumbalangi' villages had toilet facilities in their houses earlier too. Only very few percentage of respondents were found to depend earlier on 'open space' in 'Pulpally' (4%), 'Aranmula' (4%) and 'Njarakkal' (2%). A meager percentage of respondents in 'Pulpally' (2%) and 'Aranmula' (2%) were

using 'public toilets' earlier. But presently, the entire respondents have toilet facility in their houses. This implies that the respondents in the tourism villages are getting good income from their present job; they are becoming more and more health conscious and aware of the necessity of keeping the house premises and the environment clean.

4.3.6: Type of waste disposal

Public awareness is the key to successful waste management. A classification of respondents in the different tourism villages is made in Table 4.12 on the basis of their prior and present system of waste disposal, so as to understand the measures taken by them to reduce the environmental hazards associated with improper waste disposal.

Table 4.12: Prior and present system of waste disposal of tourism service providers

System of waste	Nature-to	ourism	Eco-to	urism	ET	P
disposal	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
Before						
Solid compost	2 (4)	0 (0)	6 (12)	0 (0)	1 (2)	0 (0)
Burning	22 (44)	28 (56)	24 (48)	25 (50)	28 (56)	32 (64)
Kudumbasree*/local initiatives	3 (6)	2 (4)	10 (20)	1 (2)	0 (0)	3 (6)
Any Other	23 (46)	20 (40)	10 (20)	24 (48)	21 (42)	15 (30)
After						
Solid compost	16 (32)	12 (24)	16 (32)	10 (20)	32 (64)	5 (10)
Burning	6 (12)	13 (26)	10 (20)	13 (26)	6 (12)	25 (50)
Kudumbasree*/local initiatives	20 (40)	6 (12)	15 (30)	5 (10)	7 (14)	9 (18)
Any Other	8 (16)	19 (38)	9 (18)	22 (44)	5 (10)	11 (22)

Figure in parentheses is in percentage.

A tremendous change in the waste disposal system of the respondents can be noticed in all the sample vllages, by shifting from 'burning waste' to 'solid compost' and 'kudumbasree/local initiatives'. The percentage of households that show increase in using 'solid compost' for waste disposal is the highest in 'Kumbalangi' (62%), followed by 'Kumarakom' (28%) and the least in 'Aranmula' (10%). This means that the villagers

^{*}A type of women self-help group.

have become conscious of preserving the environment, by following the environmentally sound and beneficial means of recycling organic materials through composting process. In 'Kumbalangi' village, a very high improvement in the case of number of respondents using 'solid compost' for waste disposal may be due to the fact that the government has spent a good amount to set up compost plants in the local households. The percentage of households that show decrease in using 'burning' for waste disposal is the highest in 'Kumbalangi' (44%), followed by 'Kumarakom' (32%) and the lowest in 'Aranmula' (14%). This shows that the villagers have become more aware about the disadvantages of burning waste, causing air pollution and the triggering of diseases like asthma.

The percentage of households that show increase in using 'kudumbasree/local initiatives' for waste disposal is the highest in 'Kumarakom' (34%), followed by 'Kumbalangi' (14%) and the least in 'Pulpally' and 'Njarakkal' (10%). This shows that because of the awareness that cleanliness is a necessary factor for visitor satisfaction, the villagers have become conscious of preserving the environment and this has also raised the self-employment prospects of micro enterprises like Kudumbasree. The percentage of households that show decrease in using 'any other' facility for waste disposal is the highest in 'Kumbalangi' (32%), followed by 'Kumarakom' (30%) and the least in 'Thenmala' and 'Njarakkal' (2%). This also means that the villagers have become aware of the fact that thoughtless methods of waste disposal may result in the contamination of air and water and may cause very serious health risks due to contaminated air, fire, injuries and the risks of transmission of diseases.

4.3.7: Electrification status of the house

There is a direct relation between income and quality of life of the people. The use of electricity in the households is a doubtless measure indicating this fact. So a classification of the respondents on the basis of the prior and present electrification status in their houses is made in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13: Prior and present house electrification status of the tourism service providers

House	Nature-tourism		Eco-tourism		ЕТР	
electrification status	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
Prior						
Yes	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	47 (94)	50 (100)	48 (96)
No	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (6)	0 (00	2 (4)
Present						
Yes	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)
No	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)

Figure in parentheses is in percentage.

All the respondents other than a meager percentage in 'Pulpally' (6%) and 'Aranmula' (4%) had electricity connection in their house earlier. But, presently, the entire respondents in the six villages under study have electrical power supply in their houses. This means that increased scope of employment opportunities created through tourism have improved the quality of life of the village folks and it has also enabled them the usage of modern conveniences using electricity which, in turn, contributes much to their welfare.

4.3.8: Reasons for joining tourism-related job

The different motivating factors for the people to join tourism-related jobs are identified. A classification of respondents based on the reason for joining a tourism-related job is made in Table 4.14, for registering the difference in the priority of reasons to join tourism-related jobs among the people in the different tourism villages.

Wilcoxon signed rank test is used for testing whether there is any significant difference in the priority of the different reasons for joining tourism-related jobs among the people in the six villages. Twelve factors were spotted as reasons for joining tourism-related jobs and each factor is given a score. The factor having the highest average score in a particular column is the major reason that had prompted the respondents in that particular village for joining a tourism-related job. If the Z-value is significant, it indicates that there exists a significant difference in the reasons for joining a tourism-related job.

Table 4.14: Comparison of different reasons for joining a tourism-related job

	- 100	ture- rism		co- rism	E	ГР
Reasons	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
Job is interesting	3.53	3.66	3.84	3.58	3.78	3.78
Chance to deal with people from different countries	3.50	3.30	3.36	3.36	3.08	3.20
Creates better living conditions	4.50	4.42	4.50	4.38	4.34	4.40
Eagerness to try different jobs	3.98	4.20	4.28	4.16	4.36	4.30
Attraction of tourism as an economic activity	4.06	4.06	4.26	4.32	4.60	4.56
Profitability of the industry	4.46	4.66	4.68	4.42	4.72	4.62
A better substitute to my earlier job	3.90	4.18	3.84	4.20	4.08	4.16
Good business opportunities in tourism	4.52	4.74	4.76	4.50	4.64	4.62
Initial career	2.64	2.00	2.00	2.30	3.82	3.82
Self-employment prospects	4.82	4.68	4.82	4.58	4.72	4.72
Found opportunities for people even without particular educational qualification	4.90	4.66	4.42	4.52	3.98	4.22
Involvement of family in tourism activities	3.64	3.10	3.40	3.40	3.46	3.58
Z-value	0.400 ^{ns}		0.562ns		1.187 ^{ns}	
P-value	0.	689	0.5	574	0.2	235

ns: non-significant at 0.05 levels

Since the Z values in the three columns are non-significant, it shows that the villagers in nature-tourism developed village and developing village, eco-tourism developed village and developing village as well as the ETP developed village and developing village have almost the same reasons that prompted them to choose a job related to the tourism industry. The factors getting the maximum score (ie. above 4) can be considered as the most preferred reasons for joining tourism-related jobs. They are: 'creates better living conditions', 'attraction of tourism as an economic activity', 'profitability of the industry', 'good business opportunities in tourism', 'self-employment prospects' and 'found opportunities for people even without particular educational qualification'.

4.4: Profile of the homestay owners

4.4.1: Age

Hosting a homestay is an interesting experience that allows the owners to share cultures, information, and experience with the tourists from different parts of the world. The agewise distribution of the respondents in the six villages under study is made to understand people in which age category are more interested in the running of homestays.

Table 4.15: Distribution of homestay owners based on age groups

Age group (Years)	Nature-tourism		Eco-tourism		ETP		
	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula	
< 30	2 (10)	0 (0)	1 (5)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	
30-40	4 (20)	4 (20)	3 (15)	6 (30)	2 (10)	2 (10)	
40-50	8 (40)	11 (55)	10 (50)	7 (35)	9 (45)	8 (40)	
50-60	4 (20)	4 (20)	4 (20)	4 (20)	8 (40)	7 (35)	
> 60	2 (10)	1 (5)	2 (10)	3 (15)	1 (5)	3 (15)	
Total	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	

Figure in parentheses is in percentage

Respondents in the '< 30' age group were found only in 'Kumarakom' (10%) and 'Thenmala' (5%). In the '30-40' age group, the highest percentage of respondents are in 'Pulpally' (30%) and the lowest in both 'Kumbalangi' and 'Aranmula' (10%). In the '40-50' age group, the highest percentage of respondents are in 'Njarakkal' (55%) and the lowest in 'Pulpally' (35%). In the '50-60' age group, the highest percentage of respondents are in 'Kumbalangi' (40%), followed by 'Aranmula' (35%) and are low in 'Pulpally', 'Thenmala' and 'Njarakkal' (20%). In the '> 60' age group, the highest percentage of respondents are in 'Pulpally' and 'Aranmula' (15%) and the lowest in 'Njarakkal' and 'Kumbalangi' (5%).

Respondents in the '30-40', '40-50' and '50-60' age groups, comprise the major percentage of the respective samples in each of the sample villages. This shows that people in the '30-60' age groups are more interested in running homestays. It can be

because they are more interested in dynamic activities and in mingling with people from different countries. In all the villages under study, respondents in the '> 60' age group form a reasonably good percentage of the homestay owners. The reasons can be that they can get additional income, can work at home, enjoy more quality time with family, continue other personal interests, meet new and interesting people from all over the world etc. It can also be seen that, in all the six villages, a poor participation is found from the people in the '<30' age group, which shows that they prefer some other jobs of their choice than running homestays.

4.4.2: Gender

There can be natural inhibitions for the females to start a career in hospitality industry due to fear of exploitations. Sorting of the respondents in the six tourism villages based on their gender is made to understand the percentage of females who were able to overcome such inhibitions, and were taking active role in the running of homestays.

Table 4.16: Distribution of homestay owners based on gender

	Nature-tourism		Eco-to	ourism	ЕТР		
Gender	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula	
Male	15 (75)	17 (85)	17 (85)	19 (95)	17 (85)	20 (100)	
Female	5 (25)	3 (15)	3 (15)	1 (5)	3 (15)	0 (0)	

Figure in parentheses is in percentage.

The percentage of female homestay owners was the highest in 'Kumarakom' (25%) and was the lowest in 'Aranmula' (0%). It can be because homestay business may have started in 'Kumarakom' much earlier than in other villages. So women in this village may be more aware about the prospects of running of homestays. The running of homestays is found to be a male dominated one. Women usually experience a feeling of anxiety when they enter a new work arena because of their unconscious perception that their horizons are limited. But it can be overcome, if their families give them staunch support, empower

them by starting a good homestay and through 'them', the family as a whole benefits from their venture.

4.4.3: Grade of the homestay

The grade of the homestays gives useful information to the tourists as it reflects a variety of quality elements and serves as a guide that highlights the broad standards of each homestay. A categorisation of the respondents in the sample villages is done on the basis of the grade of the homestay, so as to distinguish the percentage of homestays in each tourism village that provide high class 'segmented customer approach' facilities to the tourists, by accrediting themselves as per the government norms.

Table 4.17: Distribution of homestay owners based on the grade of homestay

Grade of homestay	Nature-tourism		Eco-t	ourism	ЕТР		
	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula	
Diamond	3 (15)	0 (0)	2 (10)	0 (0)	2 (10)	0 (0)	
Gold	3 (15)	0 (0)	2 (10)	0 (0)	3 (15)	0 (0)	
Silver	4 (20)	0 (0)	3 (15)	0 (0)	4 (20)	0 (0)	
Unregistered	10 (50)	20 (100)	13 (65)	20 (100)	11 (55)	20 (100)	
Total	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	

Figure in parenthesis is in percentage.

A few facts can be understood from the sample of homestay owners collected from the villages under study. The percentage of homestays in the 'diamond' (15%), 'gold' (15%) and 'silver' (20%) categories were the highest in 'Kumarakom'. In 'Thenmala', the percentage of homestays in diamond, gold and silver categories were 10%, 10% and 15% respectively and in 'Kumbalangi' it was 10%, 15% and 20% respectively. It implies that homestays are running very profitably in those villages and hence the villagers are keenly interested in running 'high profile' homestays equipped with ample facilities to attract the tourists. It is a noticeable fact that none of the homestays in 'Njarakkal', 'Pulpally', and

'Aranmula' villages were registered as per the government norms. This signifies that the homestay business is only picking up in those villages. In future, because of the profits that the villagers earn from the homestay, they might get inspired to modify the facilities they offer in the homestays and take initiatives to get accredited in 'diamond', 'gold' and 'silver' categories.

4.4.4: Prior occupation

There can be wide disparities in the social class of the people who are willing to start homestay as a source of income. A stratification of the respondents on the basis of their prior occupation is made, so as to know their social backgrounds.

Table 4.18: Distribution of homestay owners based on their prior occupation

0 1	Nature-tourism		Eco-t	ourism	ЕТР		
Occupation	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula	
Professional	2 (10)	0 (0)	2 (10)	1 (5)	2 (10)	1 (5)	
Business	5 (25)	5 (25)	6 (30)	7 (35)	8 (40)	7 (35)	
Private job	2 (10)	2 (10)	3 (15)	2 (10)	3 (15)	3 (15)	
Retired from govt. service	3 (15)	0 (0)	1 (5)	1 (5)	2 (10)	2 (10)	
Jobless	4 (20)	6 (30)	2 (10)	4 (20)	1 (5)	3 (15)	
Others	4 (20)	7 (35)	6 (30)	5 (25)	4 (20)	4 (20)	
Total	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	

Figure in parenthesis is in percentage.

A major percentage of the homestay owners in each of the six tourism villages had their state of occupation in the categories 'business', 'jobless' and 'others'. The percentage of respondents whose prior occupation was 'professional', 'private job' and 'retired from government service' were found to be comparatively low in the sample villages.

4.4.5: Educational back ground

The education level of an individual is considered to have a strong correlation with his social and economic development. To figure out whether the educational background of the homestay owners is acting as a limiting factor on their success, a grouping of the respondents on the basis of their educational back ground is made.

Table 4.19: Distribution of homestay owners based on educational back ground

Education	Nature-tourism		Eco-to	urism	ETP	
Education	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
Illiterate	1 (5)	3 (15)	0 (0)	2 (10)	1 (5)	3 (15)
LP	0 (0)	2 (10)	2 (10)	4 (20)	0 (0)	1 (5)
UP	3 (15)	4 (20)	3 (15)	3 (15)	3 (15)	2 (10)
SSLC	4 (20)	4 (20)	3 (15)	4 (20)	4 (20)	4 (20)
Pre-degree	2 (10)	5 (25)	4 (20)	5 (25)	4 (20)	5 (25)
Graduation	4 (20)	1 (5)	2 (10)	1 (5)	3 (15)	2 (10)
PG	1 (5)	0 (0)	1 (5)	0 (0)	1 (5)	1 (5)
Professional	2 (10)	0 (0)	2 (10)	1 (5)	2 (10)	0 (0)
Poly technique/ others	3 (15)	1 (5)	3 (15)	0 (0)	2 (10)	2 (10)
Total	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)

Figure in parentheses is in percentage.

It is seen that both highly educated and poorly educated people are running homestays in the six tourism villages. This shows that the education level is not a barrier for starting a homestay. It is a profitable business that can be started irrespective of any particular educational requirement.

4.4.6: Monthly income

The success of a business can be determined based on the increase in monthly income. An arrangement of the respondents in the sample villages is made on the basis of their prior and present monthly income so as to get a picture of the revenues from the homestay business.

Table 4.20: Monthly income before and after starting homestay

_		Nature-	tourism	Eco-to	ourism	ET	P
1	ncome (Rs.)	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
	No income	4 (20)	6 (30)	2 (10)	4 (20)	1 (5)	3 (15)
	< 3,000	2 (10)	2 (10)	1 (5)	5 (25)	1 (5)	3 (15)
	3,000- 6,000	3 (15)	6 (30)	2 (10)	6 (30)	3 (15)	5 (25)
Before	6,000- 9,000	4 (20)	3 (15)	5 (25)	3 (15)	8 (40)	6 (30)
Sef	9,000-	5 (25)	2 (10)	6 (30)	2 (10)	4 (20)	2 (10)
H	12,000						
	12,000- 15,000	2 (10)	1 (5)	4 (20)	0 (0)	3 (15)	1 (5)
	<10,000	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	10,000-	2 (10)	9 (45)	4 (20)	10 (50)	4 (20)	9 (45)
	15,000	, ,	, ,		, ,	. ,	
After	15,000- 20,000	5 (25)	9 (45)	5 (25)	8 (40)	6 (30)	6 (30)
A	20,000- 25,000	4 (20)	1 (5)	7 (35)	2 (10)	7 (35)	4 (20)
	25,000- 30,000	6 (30)	1 (5)	3 (15)	0 (0)	2 (10)	1 (5)
	30,000- 35,000	3 (15)	0 (0)	1 (5)	0 (0)	1 (5)	0 (0)

Figure in parentheses is in percentage.

The income of respondents in all the villages under study shows a considerable increase after the starting of homestays. More than 50% of the homestay owners in 'Kumarakom', 'Thenmala' and 'Kumbalangi' villages have their present income in the categories of Rs. '15,000-20,000', Rs. '20,000-25,000' and Rs. '25,000-30,000'. This means that homestay owners in these villages are getting good income from the running of homestays. More than 70% of the homestay owners in 'Pulpally', 'Njarakkal' and 'Aranmula' villages have their present income in the categories of Rs. '10,000-15,000' and Rs. '15,000-20,000'. This shows that homestay owners in these villages are getting a comparatively lower income than those in the other three villages. This can be because many homestays in 'Kumarakom', 'Thenmala' and 'Kumbalangi' villages are registered

ones having either 'diamond', 'gold' or 'silver' accreditations. Hence they will charge a higher rate depending on the facilities they have in the homestays and only tourists who can afford such rates will prefer to stay there.

4.5: Analysis of the feedback of the homestay owners

4.5.1: Reasons that hindered education

The reasons spotted out by the respondents in the sample villages regarding the factors that resulted in hindering their education are ranked, in order to find out whether any similarity can be noticed among the people in the different villages. Six reasons that hindered the education were given to the respondents and they were asked to give ranks to the reasons, according to the priority in which they have affected their studies in the childhood. The responses given by them in each village are tabulated. The average rank is given for each reason and the response for which the average rank is the lowest is the most prominent reason that hindered the education of the people in a particular village.

Table 4.21: Average rank for each reason which hindered the education of homestay owners

	Nature-tourism		Eco-tourism		ЕТР	
Reasons	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
Non availability of schools near to the village	2.80	3.13	3.60	4.00	4.20	3.95
Non availability of colleges near to the village	4.30	4.52	4.70	5.10	5.30	4.40
Transportation difficulties	3.40	3.32	3.40	3.70	3.30	3.50
Low income in the family	2.70	2.38	2.00	1.70	1.90	2.40
Unawareness of prospects of education	3.40	2.92	2.60	2.30	2.40	2.90
Others	4.50	4.73	4.90	4.40	4.00	3.85

The response of homestay owners in all the sample villages shows that the average rank for each reason which hindered their education is the lowest in the case of 'low income in the family'. This reveals that, in the earlier period, families in the villages had only low income and it had curbed the education of the people in the villages. So, if the present income generated out of running homestays is very high, the homestay owners will be capable of providing high quality education to their children.

4.5.2: Household amenities

Living conditions of the people can be analyzed from their ownership of various household amenities in their houses. So, to recognise the growth in the quality of life of the respondents in the tourism villages, a grouping of them on the basis of their possession of various household amenities prior to and after starting of homestays is made.

Table 4.22: Household amenities before and after starting homestay

Household	Nature-1	tourism	Eco-to:	urism	ЕТР	
amenities	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
Cooking gas (Before)	18 (90)	16 (80)	17 (85)	16 (80)	19 (95)	19 (95)
Cooking gas (After)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)
Fan (Before)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100
Fan (After)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)
TV (Before)	20 (100)	18 (90)	19 (95)	18 (90)	20 (100)	20 (100)
TV (After)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)
Telephone (Before)	18 (90)	12 (60)	13 (65)	13 (65)	18 (90)	17 (85)
Telephone (After)	20 (100)	19 (95)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)
Refrigerator (Before)	18 (90)	8 (40)	16 (80)	15 (75)	19 (85)	15 (75)
Refrigerator (After)	20 (100)	18 (90)	20 (100)	18 (90)	20 (100)	19 (95)
Music system (Before)	18 (90)	7 (35)	14 (70)	13 (65)	14 (70)	13 (65)
Music system (After)	20 (100)	13 (65)	18 (90)	17 (85)	19 (95)	18 (90)
Mixie (Before)	20 (100)	18 (90)	20 (100)	19 (95)	20 (100)	19 (95)
Mixie (After)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)
Grinder (Before)	15 (75)	4 (20)	13 (65)	7 (35)	14 (70)	12 (60)

Household	Nature-	tourism	Eco-to	urism	ET	P
amenities	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
Grinder (After)	20 (100)	19 (95)	20 (100)	19 (95)	20 (100)	20 (100)
Microwave oven (Before)	12 (60)	0 (0)	10 (50)	8 (40)	6 (30)	3 (15)
Microwave oven (After)	18 (90)	3 (15)	14 (60)	14 (70)	9 (45)	10 (50)
Two wheeler (Before)	16 (80)	12 (60)	15 (75)	12 (60)	13 (65)	12 (60)
Two wheeler (After)	20 (100)	19 (95)	19 (95)	16 (80)	19 (95)	17 (85)
Car (Before)	14 (70)	12 (60)	15 (75)	10 (50)	13 (65)	10 (50)
Car (After)	18 (90)	16 (80)	17 (85)	14 (70)	15 (75)	13 (65)
Air Conditioner (Before)	12 (60)	9 (45)	13 (65)	8 (40)	12 (60)	9 (45)
Air Conditioner (After)	18 (90)	12 (60)	20 (100)	10 (50)	18 (90)	15 (75)
Computer (Before)	10 (50)	10 (50)	12 (60)	7 (35)	13 (65)	9 (45)
Computer (After)	19 (95)	17 (85)	20 (100)	13 (65)	18 (90)	13 (75)
Furniture (Before)	20 (100	18 (90)	20 (100)	16 (80)	18 (90)	17 (85)
Furniture (After)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)
Washing machine (Before)	13 (65)	12 (60)	5 (75)	10 (50)	15 (75)	10 (50)
Washing machine (After)	18 (90)	18 (90)	20 (100)	17 (85)	19 (95)	16 (80)
Others (Before)	2 (10)	3 (15)	4 (20)	3 (15)	4 (20)	5 (45)
Others (After)	8 (40)	6 (30)	13 (65)	6 (30)	10 (50)	8 (40)

Figure in parentheses is in percentage.

A comparison between the household amenities owned by the respondents in the six tourism villages, before and after starting of a homestay is made. Sixteen categories of household items including 'cooking gas', 'fan', 'television', 'telephone', 'refrigerator', 'music system', 'mixie', 'grinder', 'microwave oven', 'two wheeler', 'car', 'air conditioner', 'computer', 'furniture', 'washing machine' and 'other items' are considered. It is observed that in all the villages under study, the respondents were able to purchase more number of household items after starting a homestay. This shows that promotion of tourism has helped to increase the living standards of the people in the villages.

'Kumarakom' shows an appreciable degree of development in terms of household amenities mentioned. But 'Njarakkal' and 'Pulpally' are exceptions. None of the villages have secured 100% in owning of house amenities like 'oven', 'car' and 'air conditioner', even after entering into homestay business.

4.5.3: House status

An own house is one of the most valuable economic assets for an individual and the kind of his accommodation is an important indicator of his lifestyle and socio-economic status. To find out the transition in the economic condition of the respondents after starting a homestay, their prior and the present house status are tabulated.

Table 4.23: House status before and after starting of the homestay

House	Nature-tourism		Eco-to:	urism	ETP					
status	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula				
Before										
Own	13 (65)	9 (45)	12 (60)	10 (50)	15 (65)	11 (55)				
Rented	5 (25)	9 (45)	6 (30)	6 (30)	3 (15)	5 (25)				
Provided										
by	2(10)	0 (0)	1 (5)	3 (15)	0 (0)	2 (10)				
employer										
Others	0 (0)	2 (10)	1 (5)	1 (5)	2 (10)	2 (10)				
			After							
Own	19 (95)	11 (55)	17 (85)	14 (70)	17 (85)	14 (70)				
Rented	1 (5)	9 (45)	3 (15)	4 (20)	3 (15)	4 (20)				
Provided										
by	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (10)	0 (0)	1 (5)				
employer										
Others	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (5)				

Figure in parenthesis is in percentage.

The percentage increase of 'own houses' is the highest in 'Kumarakom' (30%), followed by 'Thenmala' (25%) and 'Kumbalangi' (20%) and the lowest in 'Njarakkal' (10%). This can be because people in 'Kumarakom', 'Thenmala' and 'Kumbalangi' started to run homestays earlier than those in the other villages, so that the homestay owners in these villages got more chance to earn a good source of income earlier than those in the other three villages (refer Table 4.20). Table 4.23 shows that, out of the four categories of 'house statuses', the majority of the respondents belonged to either 'own house' or

'rented' category. After running home stay business, 70% or more respondents in each of the six tourism villages came to possess an own house. Naturally the 'rented' house status had come down in all the villages except in 'Njarakkal' and 'Kumbalangi'.

4.5.4: Type of house roofing

Housing is recognized as an important factor for the assessment of human development and societal civilization. Quality of housing, its cost, and availability are crucial factors that determine an individual's quality of life. To figure out the changes in the type of house of the respondents in the sample villages, a classification of them on the basis of prior type of 'house- roofing' and present type of 'house- roofing' after the starting of homestay, is made.

Table 4.24: Type of house-roofing before and after starting homestay

Type of house	Nature-tourism		Eco-tourism		ЕТР	
roofing	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
Before						
Tiled	8 (40)	11 (55)	7 (35)	13 (65)	9 (45)	12 (60)
Concrete	12 (60)	9 (45)	13 (65)	7 (35)	11 (55)	8 (40)
After						
Tiled	4 (20)	10 (50)	4 (20)	11 (55)	6 (30)	10 (50)
Concrete	16 (80)	10 (50)	16 (80)	9 (45)	14 (70)	10 (50)

Figure in parenthesis is in percentage.

A modification of house-roofing is seen in the case of some homestay owners in the tourism villages. This implies that they are getting a good income after the starting of homestays and it has helped them to modify their house. The highest percentage increase of the present 'house-roofing' status of the homestay owners to 'concrete houses' is seen in 'Kumarakom' (20%), followed by both 'Thenmala' (15%) and 'Kumbalangi' (15%) and the lowest is in 'Njarakkal' (10%). A tremendous change in the roofing pattern from 'tiled' to 'concrete' roofing is seen in 'Kumarakom', 'Thenmala' and 'Kumbalangi' villages. This also shows the economic advantage to the homestay owners in

'Kumarakom', 'Thenmala' and 'Kumbalangi' villages, due to early starting of the homestays than in the other three villages.

4.5.5: Toilet facility

Availability of toilet facility in the houses has a significant impact on the sanitation and hygiene practices of the people. A classification of the respondents on the basis of prior and present availability of toilet facility in their houses is made, so as to check the rise in the awareness level of the villagers about good sanitation methods to keep the environment clean.

Table 4.25: Toilet facility in the house before and after starting homestay

Type of toilet	Nature-tourism		Eco-to	urism	ETP			
facility	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula		
Before								
Open space	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (5)	0 (0)	0 (0)		
Public toilets	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)		
Own toilets	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	19 (95)	20 (100)	20 (100)		
			After					
Open space	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)		
Public toilets	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)		
Own toilets	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)		

Figure in parenthesis is in percentage.

All the respondents in the six villages under study except one in 'Pulpally' village had toilet facility in their houses even before starting of homestay. But after starting of homestay, the entire respondents have toilets in their houses. It points to the fact that the villagers have become more cautious about taking better care of themselves, their family's health and their environment through the usage of good sanitation practices.

4.5.6: Type of waste disposal

Improper waste disposal can lead to the contamination of the environment. A distribution of the respondents based on their prior and present methods of waste disposal is made in order to understand the awareness of the respondents about the importance of adopting proper waste management techniques.

Table 4.26: Type of waste disposal before and after starting homestay

Type of waste	Nature-tourism		Eco-to	ourism	ETP			
disposal	Kumarako	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula		
	m							
Before								
Solid compost	1 (5)	0 (0)	1 (5)	0 (0)	1 (5)	0 (0)		
Burning	11 (55)	4 (20)	4 (20)	5 (25)	8 (40)	12 (60)		
Kudumbasree*/ local initiatives	1 (5)	1 (5)	0 (0)	1 (5)	2 (10)	0 (0)		
Any Other	7 (35)	15 (75)	15 (75)	14 (70)	9 (45)	8 (40)		
			After					
Solid compost	7 (35)	2 (10)	5 (25)	3 (15)	15 (75)	3 (15)		
Burning	6 (30)	3 (15)	2 (10)	1 (5)	0 (0)	7 (35)		
Kudumbasree*/ local initiatives	5 (25)	2 (10)	2 (10)	2 (10)	4 (20)	3 (15)		
Any Other	2 (10)	13 (65)	11 (55)	14 (60)	1 (5)	7 (35)		

Figure in parenthesis is in percentage.

The percentage of households that shows an increase in using 'solid compost' for waste disposal is the highest in 'Kumbalangi' (70%), followed by 'Kumarakom' (30%) and the least in 'Njarakkal' (10%). This means that the villagers have become more conscious of preserving the sanctity of the environment, by following the environmentally sound and beneficial means of recycling organic materials, through composting process. The high increase in the usage of 'solid compost' for waste disposal in 'Kumbalangi' can be because of the initiatives taken by the government to set up compost pits at a subsidised rate. The percentage of households that shows a decrease in using 'burning' for waste disposal is the highest in 'Kumbalangi' (40%), followed by 'Kumarakom' and 'Aranmula' (25%) and the lowest in 'Njarakkal' (5%). This shows that the local people might have become more environment-conscious and aware about the disadvantages of burning such as causing disturbing smells, release of toxic gases etc. The percentage of households that shows an increase in using 'kudumbasree/local initiatives' for waste disposal is the highest in 'Kumarakom' (20%), followed by 'Aranmula' (15%) and it is the least in 'Pulpally' and 'Njarakkal' (5%). This also shows that the awareness level of the local folk in the villages for keeping the environment clean has increased and resulted in the growth of local initiatives of microenterprises like 'kudumbasree' units. The percentage of households that show a decrease in using 'any other' facility for waste

^{*} A type of women self-help group.

disposal is the highest in 'Kumbalangi' (40%), followed by 'Kumarakom' (25%) and the least in 'Aranmula' (5%). This also means that, to a great extent, the villagers have become aware of the fact that garbage pollution caused by littering of household waste, will result in soil contamination, water contamination and pollution, and affects the well-being of the tourist destinations.

4.5.7: House electrification status

Electrification of houses brings tremendous change in personal lives and life styles as it reduces labour and saves time to a very great extent. So a comparison between the prior and present house electrification status of the homestay owners in the villages is made, so as to infer the social impact of tourism promotion on the standard of life of the villagers.

Table 4.27: Electrification of house before and after starting homestay

Response	Nature-to	Nature-tourism		Eco-tourism		ЕТР			
response	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula			
	Prior								
Yes	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	19 (95)	20 (100)	19 (95)			
No	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (5)	0 (0)	1 (5)			
			Present						
Yes	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)	20 (100)			
No	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)			

Figure in parenthesis is in percentage.

The houses of the respondents in all the villages except in 'Pulpally' and 'Aranmula' villages were already electrified even before their starting of homestays. But, after starting the homestay, all the respondents were having electrical power supply in their houses.

4.5.8: Reasons for starting homestay

Homestay business can increase the awareness of the owners and the visitors about the need for sustainable practices in preserving the beauty of the region. So, regarding the reasons for starting the homestays, a comparison is made between the opinion of homestay owners in each of the top-category and the developing-category tourism villages.

Table 4.28: Comparison of different reasons for starting homestays in different villages

	Nature-	-tourism	Eco-t	ourism	E	ГР
Reasons	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
To enhance earnings	4.7	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.85	4.85
Experience of other successful homestays	4.5	4.3	4.6	4.5	4.05	4.05
Pleasure in extending hospitality to tourists	4.6	4.5	4.6	4.8	4.60	4.60
To enhance the value of the ancestral property	3.1	2.7	3.3	2.8	3.68	3.68
To serve the tourists the delicious Kerala cuisine which you have expertise	4.6	4.8	4.7	4.8	4.80	4.80
Z-value	0.368 ^{ns}		1.289 ^{ns}		0.000 ^{ns}	
P-value	0.′	713	0.	197	1.0	000

ns: non-significant at 0.05 levels

Wilcoxon signed rank test is used for testing whether there is any significant difference in the priority of the various reasons for starting homestays among the people in the six villages under study. Five reasons are identified as motivating factors for starting homestays and each factor is given a score. The factor having the highest average score in a particular column is the major reason for the respondents in that particular village for starting homestay. If the Z-value is significant, it indicates that there exists a significant difference regarding their reasons for starting homestays among the opinions of people in the two villages that are being compared.

On making three different comparisons between villages under nature-tourism, ecotourism and ETP, no significant difference in the priority of reasons for starting homestays is noticed. The factor having the highest score in each column is the major reason that motivated people in that particular village to start homestay. Out of the five reasons considered, two reasons, viz. 'to enhance earnings' and 'to serve the tourists the delicious Kerala cuisine in which they have expertise' have the highest score (above 4.7) except in 'Kumarakom', where it is 4.6 in respect of the second reason. The reason

scoring the least value in all sample villages is 'to enhance the value of ancestral property'.

4.6: Profile of the tourists

4.6.1: Age

The age of the tourists may affect the choice of a tourism destination. So the segmentation of tourists on the basis of their age is made in order to understand people in which age group have more preference to visit the tourism villages.

The highest percentage of tourists in all sample villages belong to the '30-40' age group, followed by '20-30' which shows that more than 50% of the sample in each village are constituted by the people in the '20-40' age groups. This can be because the "push" factors (intangible factors) that push a tourist away from his home and the "pull" factors that pull him towards a particular destination can be stronger in this age group and hence they occupy a major percentage of the tourist category. The percentage of respondents in the '>60' age group is very meager in the villages, with the highest percentage in 'Kumarakom' as well as 'Thenmala' (6.7%) and the lowest in 'Pulpally', 'Njarakkal', 'Kumbalangi' and 'Aranmula' (0%).

Table 4.29: Distribution of tourists based on age groups

Age group (Years)	Nature-tourism		Eco-tourism		ЕТР	
	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
< 20	4 (13.3)	6 (20)	0 (0)	5 (16.7)	5 (16.7)	1 (3.3)
20-30	8 (26.7)	9 (30)	10 (33.3)	10 (33.3)	7 (23.3)	9 (30.0)
30-40	10 (33.3)	11 (36.7)	12 (40)	12 (40)	14 (46.7)	1 8 (60.0)
40-50	5 (16.7)	4 (13.3)	4 (13.3)	3 (10)	4 (13.3)	1 (3.3)
50-60	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)
> 60	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Total	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)

Figure in parenthesis is in percentage.

This can be because, generally people in the $^{\prime}$ > 60' age group might have some health problems and so may hesitate to go for tours. This hesitation in the minds of elderly

persons can be reduced and tapped into an opportunity by the government and the tourism department by providing the necessary tourism infrastructure in those villages, which are essential requirements for the aged tourists and making tourists of this class more aware of the uniqueness and quality experiences in our tourism villages.

4.6.2: Gender

The distribution of tourists based on their gender is made so as to capture the pattern of male and female tourist arrivals to the villages under study.

Table 4.30: Distribution of tourists based on gender

	Nature-tourism		Eco-to	ourism	ЕТР		
Sex	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula	
Male	21 (70)	21 (70)	22 (73.3)	26 (86.7)	25 (83.3)	21 (70)	
Female	9 (30)	9 (30)	8 (26.7)	4 (13.3)	5 (16.7)	9 (30)	
Total	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	

Figure in parenthesis is in percentage.

In all the six tourism villages, the percentage of female tourists is very less compared to that of the male tourists. It can be because there are several factors, especially the safety aspects for females, which have a high significance, while choosing a tourism destination. So the villages should be projected in both the domestic and the international tourism markets as a highly safe and secure place for female tourists, along with providing the requisite infrastructure like hygienic toilets in the villages. Thus, the number of arrivals of female tourists in the tourism villages can be increased in the future.

4.6.3: Tourist-category

Tourists can be broadly divided into domestic and foreign tourists. In order to understand the choice of the tourist destination by the different categories of tourists in the villages under study, a classification of the respondents based on their tourist-category is made.

Table 4.31: Distribution of tourists based on tourist category

Tourist	Nature-tourism		Eco-to	urism	ETP	
category	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
Foreign	17 (56.7)	4 (13.3)	13 (43.3)	5 (16.7)	12 (40)	6 (20)
Domestic	13 (43.3)	26 (86.7)	17 (56.7)	25 (83.3)	18 (60)	24 (80)
Total	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)

Figure in parenthesis is in percentage.

The percentage of foreign tourists is the highest in 'Kumarakom' (56.7%), followed by 'Thenmala' (43.3%) and 'Kumbalangi' (40%) and the lowest in 'Njarakkal' (13.3%). This can be because 'Kumarakom' and 'Thenmala' have already been very famous in tourism circuits, as government initiatives to promote tourism in these destinations started much earlier. It is appreciable to note that 'Kumbalangi' village is also capable of attracting a good percentage of foreign tourists, which, in turn, testifies to the success of tourism promotional efforts done by the government to boost tourism in this small village. 'Njarakkal' is comparatively a new entrant in tourism business and that can be the reason for the lower number of foreign tourists in this village.

Foreign tourists may be showing interest to visit these tourism villages as they are very keen to know about their culture and traditions which are entirely new to them. So a great number of foreign tourists who prefer to relax from the tight schedule of their busy life and enjoy nature's beauty and tranquility and the warmth of fresh air can be attracted to those tourism villages. More domestic tourists can also be attracted through outstanding advertisement campaigns, providing excellent quality services at affordable prices and projecting the tourism villages as economically feasible travel options.

4.6.4: Nationality

The choice of a particular destination is a dynamic concept and varies in accordance with many parameters. Demographic segmentation of tourists who visited the six different villages is made to identify the nationality-wise preferences of tourists in visiting a particular type of tourism village.

While dividing the samples of tourists which are collected from each of the six tourism villages based on their nationality, certain general observations can be made. In all the villages under study, the percentage of tourists from 'UK' is noticed to be higher than those from other countries. This can be because the people from this country may be novelty-seeking ones and wish to visit places other than the conventional tourism destinations. Tourists from 'France' and the 'USA' occupy the second position in the sample villages. If the perceived utility value of the destinations in terms of assessment about the attributes of these tourism villages and the post-consumption satisfaction is very high for the tourists from 'France' and the 'USA', then they might recommend these peaceful tourism villages to their friends and there is a chance of more tourist arrivals from these countries in future too.

Table 4.32: Distribution of tourists based on nationality

	Nature-tourism		Eco-to	urism	ETI	•
Nationality	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
Austria	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)
Australia	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)
Canada	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
France	4 (13.3)	1 (3.3)	3 (10)	1 (3.3)	3 (10)	2 (6.7)
Germany	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Netherlands	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Switzerland	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
UK	6 (20)	2 (6.7)	5 (16.7)	3 (10)	4 (13.3)	2 (6.7)
USA	4 (13.3)	1 (3.3)	3 (10)	1 (3.3)	3 (10)	2 (6.7)
India	13 (43.3)	26 (86.7)	17 (56.7)	25 (83.3)	18 (60)	24 (80)
Total	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)

Figure in parenthesis is in percentage.

It is also observed that the percentage of foreign tourists from 'Austria', 'Australia', 'Canada' and 'Switzerland' are very less in almost all the six villages. This shows the importance of segmenting the international tourism markets and making adequate tourism

promotional efforts by focusing on the unique attributes of the villages. On doing so, the people from these countries will be made more aware of these tranquil destinations and might be induced to visit the tourism villages.

4.6.5: Educational qualification

For the tourists, there can be many factors that can act as determinants, capable of influencing the choice of a tourism destination. So an assortment of the respondents based on their educational qualification is made so as to get an insight into the level of education of the tourists, who prefer to visit the tourism villages in Kerala.

Table 4.33: Distribution of tourists based on educational status

Education	Nature-tourism		Eco-to	urism	ETP		
	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula	
Below graduation	4 (13.3)	7 (23.3)	3 (10)	5 (16.7)	4 (13.3)	6 (20)	
Graduation	13 (43.3)	16 (53.3)	14 (46.7)	15 (50)	16 (53.3)	17 (56.7)	
Post- graduation	10 (33.3)	4 (13.3)	7 (23.3)	4 (13.3)	5 (16.7)	3 (10)	
Others	3 (10)	3 (10)	6 (20)	6 (20)	5 (16.7)	4 (13.3)	
Total	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	

Figure in parenthesis is in percentage.

The percentage of respondents whose educational qualification is 'graduation'/ 'post-graduation' comprise the major percentage of the respective samples in all the six tourism villages. The highest is in 'Kumarakom' (76.6%), followed by 'Thenmala' and 'Kumbalangi' (70%) and the lowest in 'Pulpally' (63.3%). This can be because, as the vigorous and dedicated promotional efforts to market tourism in these destinations began comparatively earlier by the government, these villages might have come to the mainstream, capable of catching the attention of the highly educated class of tourists even in the international tourism markets.

As the majority of the tourists visiting the six tourism villages in Kerala are highly educated, the local people in these places, who are a marginalised group, get a remarkable

advantage. They get a valuable opportunity to catalyze their economic and social development process through their close association with the highly educated tourists from the different parts of the world.

4.6.6: Occupation

Personality traits, along with the external influences, can affect the pattern of tourist demand in a destination. A classification of the respondents based on their occupation is made so as to understand the social category of the tourists, who visit the tourism villages in Kerala.

Table 4.34: Distribution of tourists based on occupation

Occupation	Nature-tourism		Eco-to:	urism	ET	ETP	
Occupation	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula	
Business	7 (23.3)	5 (16.7)	6 (20)	5 (16.7)	6 (20)	7 (23.3)	
Government	3 (10)	4 (13.3)	3 (10)	2 (6.7)	3 (10)	4 (13.3)	
Private	3 (10)	4 (13.3)	3 (10)	3 (10)	3 (10)	8 (26.7)	
Professional	8 (26.7)	6 (20)	9 (30)	6 (20)	7 (23.3)	8 (26.7)	
Retired	2 (6.7)	1 (3.3)	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	
Student	2 (6.7)	3 (10)	2 (6.7)	3 (10)	3 (10)	1 (3.3)	
Teaching	3 (10)	2 (6.7)	3 (10)	4 (13.3)	2 (6.7)	1 (3.3)	
Others	1 (3.3)	4 (13.3)	1 (3.3)	3 (10)	3 (10)	0 (0)	
Unemployed	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	4 (13.3)	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	
Total	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	30 (100)	

Figure in parenthesis is in percentage.

By observing the distribution pattern of the tourists in the sample villages according to their occupation, certain general observations can be made. In all the six tourism villages, the highest percentage of tourists are 'professionals', with the highest in 'Thenmala' (30%), followed by 'Kumarakom' and 'Aranmula' (26.7%) and the lowest in 'Pulpally' and 'Njarakkal' (20%). This can be because due to the wide exposure opportunities for the 'professional' category people to explore variety trends in tourism markets, they might be showing interest to visit the tourism villages which were earlier dormant and less popular in international tourism markets. So, through innovative thinking, promotion of novel tourism products and priceless value additions, these villages can be lifted to new heights in the global tourism market. The second highest category of tourists belong

to the 'business' category, with the highest percentage in 'Kumarakom' and 'Aranmula' (23.3%), followed by 'Thenmala' and 'Kumbalangi' (20%) and the lowest in 'Pulpally' and 'Njarakkal' (16.7%).

4.6.7: Monthly income of foreign tourists

The income of the tourists visiting a destination has a significant impact on the economic impacts of the tourism activity in that region. On the basis of the monthly income of the respondents who are foreign tourists, a classification is made to get a picture of the economic status of the foreign tourists visiting the tourism villages.

Table 4.35: Distribution of foreign tourists based on monthly income in US dollars

Income	Nature-tourism		Eco-tourism		ЕТР	
(US \$)	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
< 4,000	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
4,000-7,000	0 (0)	1 (25)	1 (7.7)	1 (20)	2 (16.7)	1 (16.7)
7,000-10,000	2 (11.8)	2 (50)	1 (7.7)	2 (40)	1 (8.3)	1 (16.7)
10,000-13,000	5 (29.4)	1 (25)	4 (30.8)	2 (40)	3 (25)	3 (50)
> 13,000	10 (58.8)	0 (0)	7 (53.8)	0 (0)	6 (50)	1 (16.7)
Not specified	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Total	17 (100)	4 (100)	13 (100)	5 (100)	12 (100)	6 (100)

Figure in parenthesis is in percentage.

The highest percentage of foreign tourists who belong to the monthly income categories \$'>13,000' and \$ '10,000 -13,000' are seen in 'Kumarakom' (88.2%), followed by 'Thenmala' (84.6%) and the lowest are in 'Njarakkal' (25%). This shows that the high income foreign tourists prefer to visit 'Kumarakom', 'Thenmala' and 'Kumbalangi' than the other three villages. This trend can be due to the privilege enjoyed by these villages having deep-rooted tourism promotional efforts, with the support from government much earlier. So the high income foreign tourists, who can even afford the pleasures of costlier locations, are showing genuine interest to visit these tourism villages. It speaks of the glory and bewitching power of these pristine locations to attract the elite class tourists towards it. But the presence of comparatively low percentage of high income tourists in 'Pulpally' (40%), 'Njarakkal' (25%) and 'Aranmula' (66.7%) show that these

destinations that are relatively new entrants in tourism markets are becoming popular in the tourist circuits and the high income foreign tourists also show interest to visit these villages.

4.6.8: Monthly income of domestic tourists

A classification of the domestic tourists is made on the basis of their monthly income to differentiate them according to their economic class.

Table 4.36: Distribution of domestic tourists based on monthly income

Income	Nature-tourism		Eco-tourism		ЕТР	
(Rs.)	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
< 30,000	0 (0)	9 (34.6)	2 (11.8)	6 (24)	2 (11.1)	5 (20.8)
30,000-40,000	1 (7.7)	11 (42.3)	2 (11.8)	10 (40)	5 (27.8)	12 (50)
40,000-50,000	2 (15.4)	1 (3.8)	3 (17.6)	2 (8)	2 (11.1)	2 (8.3)
50,000-60,000	3 (23.1)	0 (0)	4 (23.5)	2 (8)	3 (16.7)	2 (8.3)
> 60,000	5 (38.5)	0 (0)	4 (23.5)	1 (4)	3 (16.7)	2 (8.3)
Not specified	2 (15.4)	5 (19.2)	2 (11.8)	4 (16)	3 (17.7)	1 (4.2)
Total	13 (100)	26 (100)	17 (100)	25 (100)	18 (100)	24 (100)

Figure in parenthesis is in percentage.

The highest percentage of the domestic tourists who fall in the high income categories of Rs.'> 60,000' and Rs.'50,000-60,000' are seen in 'Kumarakom' (61.6%), followed by 'Thenmala' (47%) and 'Kumbalangi' (33.4%), while the lowest is in 'Njarakkal' (0%). This shows that 'Kumarakom', 'Thenmala' and 'Kumbalangi' villages are more popular than the other three villages, among the domestic tourists, who belong to the high income categories.

This can be because, as tourism promotional efforts started earlier in these villages, they might have got the wide media coverage in local as well as national media and consequently the tourists from different parts of the county began to visit these areas. It is a natural phenomenon that as demand increases, the price also increases. Hence there can be a general increase in the service rates that are charged for tourism products in these

destinations. This may result in a feeling among the domestic tourists that the tourism services in those villages are within the reach of only high income people and low income group may prefer to visit other tourism villages, which offer quality tourism services to them at affordable rates.

4.6.9: Factors that prompted tourists to visit tourism villages

A number of reasons are responsible for the appeal of a tourism destination. So a division of respondents on the basis of the factors that influenced them to choose a particular destination for their visit was made.

Table 4.37: Different factors that prompted the tourists to visit a tourism village

Eastern	Nature-t	ourism	Eco-tourism		ETP	
Factors	Kumarakom	Njarakkal	Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi	Aranmula
Recommendation by friends	4 (13.3)	2 (6.7)	5 (16.7)	2 (6.7)	3 (10)	2 (6.7)
Previous experience	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	2 (6.7)	2 (6.7)	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)
Passing through/ on the way to another location	2 (6.7)	3 (10)	2 (6.7)	4 (13.3)	4 (13.3)	5 (16.7)
Eagerness to experience traditional hospitality	0 (0)	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	2 (6.7)	2 (6.7)
Advertisements in the media about this village	5 (16.7)	1 (3.3)	4 (13.3)	2 (6.7)	3 (10)	2 (6.7)
Desire to explore somewhere new	1 (3.3)	5 (16.7)	3 (10)	6 (20)	3 (10)	1 (3.3)
Recommendations from tourist information Centers	4 (13.3)	0 (0)	4 (13.3)	5 (16.7)	3 (10)	3 (10)
Inspiration from the narrations of tourist guide	2 (6.7)	1 (3.3)	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	2 (6.7)	2 (6.7)
Holidaying	0 (0)	4 (13.3)	0(0)	2 (6.7)	2 (6.7)	0 (0)
To experience nature's beauty	2 (6.7)	3 (10)	2 (6.7)	2 (6.7)	2 (6.7)	3 (10)
Desire to experience village life	0 (0)	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (6.7)	3 (10)
Came under package tour	2 (6.7)	3 (10)	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	3 (10)	3 (10)
Wildlife	2 (2.7)	0 (0)	4 (13.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Backwater/river/lake	4 (13.3)	4 (13.3)	0 (0)	4 (13.3)	0 (0)	3 (10)

Figures in parenthesis are percentages.

The most important reason that prompted the majority of the tourists (16.7%) to visit 'Kumarakom' is 'advertisements in the media about the village' and the reasons that had influence on the lowest percentage of the tourists (0%) are 'eagerness to experience traditional hospitality', holidaying' and 'desire to experience village life'. The most

important reason that prompted the majority of the tourists (16.7%) to visit 'Njarakkal' is 'desire to explore somewhere new' and the reasons that had influence on the lowest percentage of the tourists (0%) are 'previous experience', 'recommendations from tourist information centres' and 'wildlife'.

The most important reason that prompted the majority of the tourists (16.7%) to visit 'Thenmala' is 'recommendation by friends 'and the reasons that had influence on the lowest percentage of the tourists (0%) are 'eagerness to experience traditional hospitality', 'holidaying' and 'backwater/river/lake'. The most important reason that prompted the majority of the tourists (16.7%) to visit 'Pulpally' is 'recommendations from tourist information centres' and the reasons that had influence on the lowest percentage of the tourists (0%) are 'inspiration from the narrations of tourist guide, 'desire to experience village life', 'came under package tour' and 'wildlife'.

The most important reason that prompted the majority of the tourists (13.3%) to visit 'Kumbalangi' is 'passing through/ on the way to another location' and the reason that had influence on the lowest percentage of the tourists (0%) is 'wildlife'. The most important reason that prompted the majority of the tourists (16%) to visit 'Aranmula' is 'passing through/ on the way to another location' and the reason that had influence on the lowest percentage of the tourists (0%) is 'wildlife'.

4.7: Testing of hypotheses

Economic development

Promotion of tourism in a destination can affect the livelihood of local people in dynamic ways. The impact of tourism promotion on improving the standard of living and the economic health of the people in the villages under study are measured. Eleven parameters were considered for measuring the economic development of the people in the villages after the promotion of tourism there. The responses given by the people in each of the six tourism villages (various categories of tourism service providers and homestay owners) are tabulated to understand their perceptions on the economic development in their village, after tourism was actively encouraged by the government and the tourism department.

Table 4.38: Perceptions of respondents regarding economic development

		Nature-tourism		Eco-tourism		ETP		
Paarmeters Response		Kumarakom Njarakkal		Thenmala	Pulpally	Kumbalangi Aranmula		Overall
1 aai meets	тезропзе	(n=70)	(n=70)	(n=70)	(n=70)	(n=70)	(n=70)	(n=420)
Employment	High increase	9 (12.9)	20 (28.6)	16 (22.9)	6 (8.6)	41 (58.6)	24 (34.3)	116 (27.6)
opportunities	Moderate increase	46 (65.7)	31 (44.3)	44 (62.9)	45 (64.3)	29 (41.4)	29 (41.4)	224 (53.3)
for local		15 (21.4)	· /		` '	` ′	` ′	· · ·
residents	No change		19 (27.1)	10 (14.3)	19 (27.1)	0 (0)	17 (24.3)	80 (19)
Wages of	High increase	29 (41.4)	25 (35.7)	29 (41.4)	20 (28.6)	34 (48.6)	30 (42.9)	167 (39.8)
providers	Moderate increase	41 (58.6)	45 (64.3)	41 (58.6)	50 (71.4)	36 (51.4)	40 (57.1)	253 (60.2)
1	No change	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Advancement	High increase	36 (51.4)	21 (30)	24 (34.3)	11 (15.7)	29 (41.4)	26 (37.1)	147 (35)
in economic condition of	Moderate increase	34 (48.6)	46 (65.7)	45 (64.3)	55 (78.6)	41 (58.6)	42 (60)	263 (62.6)
tourism service providers	No change	0 (0)	3 (4.3)	1 (1.4)	4 (5.7)	0 (0)	2 (2.9)	10 (2.4)
Investment	High increase	36 (51.4)	19 (27.1)	21 (30)	4 (5.7)	16 (22.9)	17 (24.3)	113 (26.9)
opportunities	Moderate increase	34 (48.6)	51 (72.9)	49 (70)	66 (94.3)	54 (77.1)	53 (75.7)	307 (73.1)
for tourism service providers	No change	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Savings of	High increase	38 (54.3)	14 (20)	21 (30)	2 (2.9)	16 (22.9)	13 (18.6)	104 (24.8)
tourism service	Moderate increase	30 (42.9)	50 (71.4)	47 (67.1)	58 (82.9)	54 (77.1)	43 (61.4)	282 (67.1)
providers	No change	2 (2.9)	6 (8.6)	2 (2.9)	10 (14.3)	0 (0)	14 (20)	34 (8.1)
Access to	High increase	22 (31.4)	26 (37.1)	30 (42.9)	20 (28.6)	34 (48.6)	22 (31.4)	154 (36.7)
credit facilities	Moderate increase	42 (60)	39 (55.7)	36 (51.4)	46 (65.7)	36 (51.4)	37 (52.9)	236 (56.2)
for tourism service providers	No change	6 (8.6)	5 (7.1)	4 (5.7)	4 (5.7)	0 (0)	11 (15.7)	30 (7.1)
Ownership of	High increase	47 (67.1)	36 (51.4)	46 (65.7)	34 (48.6)	45 (64.3)	34 (48.6)	242 (57.6)
productive and	Moderate increase	21 (30)	33 (47.1)	24 (34.3)	35 (50)	25 (35.7)	36 (51.4)	174 (41.4)
consumer assets by tourism service providers	N. shansa	2 (2.9)	1 (1.4)	0 (0)	1 (1.4)	0 (0)	0 (0)	4(1)
Number of	High increase	34 (48.6)	28 (40)	29 (41.4)	22 (31.4)	36 (51.4)	26 (37.1)	174 (41.7)
restaurants	Moderate increase	31 (44.3)	40 (57.1)	38 (54.3)	47 (67.1)	34 (48.6)	38 (54.3)	228 (54.3)
owned by local residents	No change	5 (7.1)	2 (2.9)	3 (4.3)	1 (1.4)	0 (0)	6 (8.6)	17 (4)
Number of	High increase	21 (30)	19 (27.1)	23 (32.9)	7 (10)	35 (50)	25 (35.7)	130 (30.9)
stores owned	Moderate increase	34 (48.6)	42 (60)	38 (54.3)	55 (78.6)	34 (48.6)	27 (38.6)	230 (54.8)
by local residents	No change	15 (21.4)	9 (12.9)	9 (12.9)	8 (11.4)	1 (1.4)	18 (25.7)	60 (14.3)
SMEs	High increase	35 (50)	25 (35.7)	32 (45.7)	17 (24.3)	40 (57.1)	27 (38.6)	176 (41.9)
producing	Moderate increase	34 (48.6)	44 (62.9)	38 (54.3)	52 (74.3)	30 (42.9)	34 (48.6)	232 (55.2)
tourism products or services.	No change	1 (1.4)	1 (1.4)	0 (0)	1 (1.4)	0 (0)	9 (12.9)	12 (2.9)
Sale of locally	High increase	38 (54.3)	26 (37.1)	32 (45.7)	15 (21.4)	36 (51.4)	24 (34.3)	171 (40.7)
produced	Moderate increase	30 (42.9)	43 (61.4)	37 (52.9)	55 (78.6)	33 (47.1)	43 (61.4)	241 (57.4)
goods to tourism enterprises	No change	2 (2.9)	1 (1.4)	1 (1.4)	0 (0)	1 (1.4)	3 (4.3)	8 (1.9)

Figures in parenthes are percentages.

The perception of the respondents in respect of all the parameters considered for economic development, except the statements on 'employment opportunities of local residents', 'ownership of productive and consumer assets by tourism service-providers', 'number of restaurants owned by local residents', 'number of stores owned by local residents' and 'SMEs providing tourism products and services', shows "moderate increase" in all the villages except 'Kumarakam' and 'Kumbalangi'. 'Kumarakam' shows "high increase" in respect of all the factors, except 'wages of tourism service providers', where it is 'moderate increase'. 'Kumbalangi' shows "high increase" in factors like 'employment opportunities for local residents', 'number of restaurants owned by local residents', 'number of stores owned by local residents', 'SMEs providing tourism products and services' and 'sale of locally produced goods to tourism enterprises'. The statement on 'ownership of productive and consumer assets by tourism service providers' show "high increase" in all the six villages.

For some of the statements regarding the economic development of the villages after the promotion of tourism, a good percentage of the respondents have opined that a 'high increase'/'moderate increase' is felt. The village in which the highest number of parameters measuring economic development, agreed as 'high increase'/ 'moderate increase' by > 90% respondents in the corresponding village is 'Kumbalangi' (11 parameters). It is followed by 'Kumarakom', 'Thenmala' and 'Njarakkal' (9 parameters) and the lowest is 'Aranmula' (6 parameters). This can be because the early promotional efforts of tourism in 'Kumbalangi', 'Kumarakom' and 'Thenmala' have helped to inform and educate tourists across different parts of the world, about these wonderful destinations, thereby motivating a large number of them, to consider these destinations as a tourist hot spot. It is a very phenomenal achievement for 'Njarakkal', a nascent village in tourism business, to convince its local people about the economic development that can be attained through promoting tourism.

H₁: There exists a significant difference in the level of economic development of people in the different types of tourism villages after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

The income levels of all the respondents are reported to have increased after the promotion of tourism in their villages (Table 4.6 and Table 4.21). Kolmogorov-Smirnov

Goodness of FitTest (K-S test) was used for testing the normality assumptions and P value (.08) greater than 0.05 indicates satisfaction of assumptions. Testing of the hypothesis was done by comparing the perceptions of respondents selected from different types of tourism villages, about their economic development and it was done by using the one way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). F-value (8.545) is significant at 0.01 levels, which shows that there is a significant difference in the perceptions of economic development of the people in the villages under study and the hypothesis is accepted. Duncan's Multiple Range test (DMRT) was done to find out people in which of the villages have the same perceptions regarding their economic development. The results are given in Table 4.39.

Table 4.39: Comparison of the perceptions of people in tourism villages about their economic development

Village	Mean	Std.Deviation	
Nature-tourism (Kumarakom)	87.40 ^{ab}	7.026	
Nature-tourism (Njarakkal)	85.43 ^{bc}	7.64	
Eco-tourism (Thenmala)	86.86 ^{bc}	5.95	
Eco-tourism (Pulpally)	82.86 ^d	5.40	
ETP (Kumbalangi)	89.35ª	4.27	
ETP (Aranmula)	84.88 ^{cd}	7.39	
F-value	8.545**		
P-value < 0.0		0.001	

Means having same letter as superscript are homogeneous.

The mean value is the highest in 'Kumbalangi', which shows that people in this village have the highest perception of attaining economic development, after the promotion of tourism and so they enjoy the first position. It is a commendable achievement for this small village, where tourism was promoted much later than 'Kumarakom' and 'Thenmala' villages. This can be mainly because earlier, the main source of income for

^{**} Significant at 0.01 level

the people in 'Kumbalangi' was 'fishing' and 'agriculture'. But afterwards, when tourism was strongly marketed, the job opportunities like 'homestays', 'hotels', 'catering' as well as 'transportation' flourished in this village and many people, including women, were highly benefited out of it. This might have created a higher perception of economic development through tourism in the minds of the local people of this village. 'Kumbalangi' village also has locational advantage to attract large number of tourists. It is in 'Ernakulam' district, which is one of the main business towns in Kerala and has an international airport, a sea port and two main railway stations too. So the tourists can reach this village conveniently through roadways, once they arrive at the airport/seaport/railway station.

Mean values in 'Kumbalangi' and 'Kumarakom' have the same letter 'a' as superscript, which shows that statistically there is no significant difference between the perceptions of the people in 'Kumbalangy' and 'Kumarakom'. But the mean value is slightly lower in the latter village, which shows that the people in 'Kumarakom' enjoy the second position regarding economic development. It can be because this village is blessed with many tourist attractions, like ride in the houseboats through Vembanad lake, facilities for boating, yachting, bird sanctuary etc. People from different parts of the world come to this village to relish the bewitching experience offered by this destination. So tourism promotion in 'Kumarakom' has opened up many job opportunities for the local people such as 'homestays', 'house boats' 'tourist guide' 'hotels', 'handicraft shops', 'tour operators', 'transportation' etc.

The eco-tourism village 'Thenmala', blessed with a host of attractions like boating on the lake, rope-bridge, trekking, mountaineering, biking, musical fountain, Palaruvi waterfall etc, occupies the third position regarding perception of economic development. The major job opportunities for local people in 'Thenmala' are in the areas of providing travel, accommodation and guiding facilities for the tourists. The Thenmala Eco-tourism Promotion Society (TEPS), an institutional arrangement to undertake eco-tourism activities, has given training to local people in the field of guiding the tourists. Local people have other job opportunities like 'souvenir development', 'small shops', 'hotels', 'selling of local handicraft', 'local forest products', 'preforming art forms', 'restaurants' etc. There are certain small shops and cafeterias owned by the government which also

provide jobs for local people. The 'Kudumbashree' (unit of village women) of Thenmala Grama Panchayath recruits people to these shops and it provides a good source of income for the local women. People in 'Thenmala' village had a slightly lower perception regarding their level of economic development than the people in 'Kumarakom' and 'Kumbalangi' villages. It can be because 'Thenmala' village is about 76 kms away from the nearest international airport (Thiruvanthapuram) and the main tourist attraction in this destination is slightly adventurous in nature. So only those tourists who ardently wish to have an adventurous experience, may prefer to come to this village.

Mean values in 'Thenmala' and 'Njarakkal' have the same letter 'b' as superscript, which shows that statistically there is no significant difference between the perceptions of people in these two villages. But the mean value is slightly lower in the latter village, which shows that the people in 'Njarakkal' enjoy the fourth position. This can be because earlier, the main occupations of the local people in 'Njarakkal' were 'fishing' and 'agriculture' and this region remained almost isolated from outsiders and tourists. But now, after the opening of the Goshree bridges and the active promotion of tourism, tourists began to come to this village. Consequently demand for 'shops', 'restaurants', 'transporters' etc. increased and many people were benefitted out of it. The 'kudumbasree' unit (unit of village women) runs a restaurant that serves delicious sea food items and it provides a good source of income for the local women. This village also has the same locational advantage enjoyed by 'Kumbalangi' village in attracting a large number of tourists, being within the boundaries of 'Ernakulam' district.

People in 'Aranmula' village have the fifth position, regarding the perception on economic development. It can be because tourist arrivals to this village are comparatively low, as approachability to this village is slightly difficult. The nearest airport (Thiruvanathapuram International Airport) is about 117 km away and the nearest railway station (Chengannur) is about 11 km away from this village.

Mean values in 'Aranmula' and 'Pulpally' have the same letter 'd' as superscript, which shows that statistically there is no significant difference between the perceptions of people in these two villages. But the mean value is slightly lower in the latter village, which shows that 'Pulpally' village has the last position regarding economic

development. This can be because, comparatively a low number of tourists come to this destination, as its location is high on the Western Ghats with altitudes ranging from 700 to 2100 m and the nearest airport (Kozhikode International Airport) is about 115 km away and the railway station (Kozhikode) is 110 kms away. Another disadvantage for 'Pulpally' village is that, its main attraction, 'Kurava Island', remains closed due to security reasons for a few days /months, when heavy rainfall prevails consistently. So the number of tourists coming to this village during that period will be low.

 H_{1a} : There exists a significant difference in the level of economic development of people, based on their age, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

The perceptions of local people in the different villages under study, regarding their economic development after the promotion of tourism in their village, is analysed so as to understand whether it differs according to the age group of the respondents.

Table 4.40: Economic development vs. age

Category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	
< 30	16	84.88°	7.15	
30-40	95	90.30 ^a	6.86	
40-50	144	88.73 ^{ab}	6.20	
50-60	102	86.06 ^{bc}	6.44	
> 60	63	85.63°	6.01	
F-value = 5.461** p-value < 0.001				

Means having same letter as superscript are homogeneous.

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness of Fit Test (K-S test) was used for testing the normality assumptions and P value (.06) greater than 0.05 indicates satisfaction of assumptions. One way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed to ascertain whether a significant difference existed in the perception of economic development among people in the

^{**} Significant at 0.01 levels

sample villages, according to their age. The F value (5.461) is found to be siginificant at 0.01 levels, which shows that there is a significant difference in the perceptions of economic development for the people in different age groups and the hypothesis is accepted. This was followed by the Duncan's Multiple Range Test (post-hoc) to ascertain which of the group (age) means were significantly different from the others at significant level, p-value < 0.001. The results of the post hoc comparison table are summarised in Table 4.41.

The people in the '30-40' age group have the highest perception on economic development, after the promotion of tourism and they enjoy the first position. This can be because the maturity level of the people in this age groups is high. They are usually highly energetic and hardworking. So they can be highly motivated to work in order to build a strong economic base for their family. They may be more optimistic in their outlooks regarding economic development. Mean values in the '30-40' and '40-50' age groups have the same letter 'a' as superscript. So, statistically there is no significant difference between the perceptions of people in these two age groups. But the mean value is slightly lower in the latter age group, which shows that people of the '40-50' age group enjoy the second position regarding economic development. This can be because people in this age group may be experienced ones and may know the ups and downs in life.

Mean values in the '40-50' and '50-60' age groups have the same letter 'b' as superscript. So, statistically there is no significant difference between the perceptions of people in the '40-50' and '50-60' age groups. But the mean value is slightly lower in the latter village, which shows that people of the '50-60' age group enjoy the third position regarding economic development. This can be because some people in this age group may have health problems and their perceptions regarding economic development might have become slightly dim due to that aspect.

Mean values in the '> 60' and '< 30' age groups have the same letter 'c' as superscript. So, statistically there is no significant difference between the perceptions of people in the '> 60' and '< 30' age groups. But, considering the mean values, the people in the '> 60' and '< 30' age groups enjoy the fourth and fifth positions respectively. This can be because people who belong to the '> 60' age group and still prefer to work, may be the

ones whose minds are strong. Age has not affected their faith as well as devotion to work and they still find pleasure in finding their own source of income. People in the '< 30' age group are usually less experienced ones and are more dynamic in their outlooks. So their dreams and aspirations regarding earning money may be high and they might not dare to experiment with other job opportunities, even in far off regions/countries.

 H_{1b} : There exists a significant difference in the level of economic development of people, based on their gender, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

The perceptions on economic development of the respondents in different sample villages are analysed, so as to understand whether their perceptions differ according to gender. The results are shown in Table 4.41.

Table 4.41: Economic development vs. gender

Category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation		
Male	340	85.66	6.55		
Female	80	88.29	7.12		
T-value = $3.105** p$ -value = 0.002					

^{**} Significant at 0.01 levels

Independent T test was performed to ascertain whether a significant difference existed in the perceptions on economic development between the two genders of respondents. The T value (3.105) is significant at 0.01 levels. This shows that there is a significant difference between the perceptions on economic development by the males and the females. The mean value shows that the females have a higher perception on the economic development than the males, after the promotion of tourism in their villages and the hypothesis is accepted. This can be because, usually, women give top priorities to their family, while taking important decisions like 'occupation'.

Village women may usually have a low level of education and their job opportunities are limited. They also prefer to do work in such a way that they can live along with their

family members and can spend sufficient time to look after their children and family. So, through the promotion of tourism in the villages, job opportunities for women might have increased like employment in 'hotels, 'restaurants', 'local cuisine', 'home stays', 'women self-help groups' etc. So the perception of women regarding economic development after the promotion of tourism might have become more than that of the males.

 H_{1c} : There exists a significant difference in the level of economic development of people, based on their occupation, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

The perceptions on economic development of the respondents are analysed, so as to understand whether their perceptions differ according to their occupations.

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness of Fit Test (K-S test) was used for testing the normality assumptions and P value (.09) greater than 0.05 indicates satisfaction of assumptions. One way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed to ascertain whether a significant difference existed among the economic development of the people in the villages under study, according to their occupations. The F value (3.044) is significant at 0.01 levels, which shows that there is a significant difference in the perceptions on economic development of the people who have different occupations and the hypothesis is accepted. This was followed by the Duncan's Multiple Range Test (post-hoc) to ascertain which of the group (occupation) means were significantly different from the others at significant level, p-value 0.002. The results of the post hoc comparison table are summarised in Table 4.42.

The people in the occupation categories 'artisan', 'traditional cuisine/catering', 'petty shops' and 'home stay' have the same letter 'a' as superscript. This indicates that, statistically, there is no significant difference among the perceptions of these four categories of respondents. But, the mean values show that the people in the occupation categories 'artisan', 'homestay', 'traditional cuisine/catering' and 'petty shops' occupy the first, second, third and fourth positions respectively regarding their perceptions on the economic development.

Table 4.42: Economic development vs. occupation

Category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation			
Agriculture	54	85.30 ^b	6.52			
Artisan	23	91.01 ^a	5.90			
Fishing	34	84.17 ^b	6.03			
Hotel	43	85.45 ^b	7.21			
Petty shops	35	88.81 ^a	5.07			
Sale of local products and handicrafts	28	83.92 ^b	6.47			
Traditional cuisine/catering	23	89.78 ^a	5.88			
Transportation	33	85.07 ^b	6.56			
Traditional art performance/ tourist guide	27	82.81 ^b	4.55			
Homestay	120	90.48 ^a	7.16			
F-va	F-value = $3.044**$ p-value = 0.002					

Means having the same letter as superscript are homogeneous.

Similarly, the people in the occupation categories 'hotel', 'agriculture', 'transportation', 'fishing', 'sale of local products and handicrafts' and 'traditional art performance/tourist guide' have the same letter 'b' as superscript. This indicates that, statistically, there is no significant difference among the perceptions of these six categories of respondents. But, the mean values show that the people in the occupation categories 'hotel', 'agriculture', 'transportation', 'fishing', 'sale of local products and handicrafts' and 'traditional art performance/tourist guide' occupy the fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth and tenth positions respectively. This may be because, 'artisans' who make high-quality, distinctive products in small quantities by hand or using traditional methods, were earlier facing stiff competition and low demand for their products in the present era of mechanization and import of low price products from countries like China.

But, due to the promotion of tourism, the tourists who are coming to the villages are interested in buying the unique master piece items made by the artisans - like carvings of elephants, jewel boxes, curios, wooden furniture, figurines, granite idols, jewellery, snake boat models etc. So the 'artisan' community might have experienced a higher perception

^{**} Significant at 0.01 levels

of economic development after the promotion of tourism in their village, than people depending on other occupations. Similarly, the 'homestays' began to flourish in the villages, when tourist inflow from distant places began to flourish after the wide marketing of tourism. So people, who are benefitting economically by the running of homestays, also had a higher perception regarding economic development than others.

 H_{1d} : There exists a significant difference in the level of economic development of people, based on their education, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

The perceptions on economic development of respondents from different villages is analysed so as to understand, whether their perceptions differ according to their education. Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness of Fit Test (K-S test) was used for testing the normality assumptions and P value (.06) greater than 0.05 indicates satisfaction of assumptions. One way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed to ascertain whether a significant difference existed among the perceptions of people in different sample villages, according to their education. The F value (3.044) is significant at 0.01 levels, which shows that there is a significant difference in the perceptions of economic development of the people who have different educational backgrounds and the hypothesis is accepted. This was followed by the Duncan's Multiple Range Test (posthoc), to ascertain which of the group (education) means were significantly different from others at significant level, p-value 0.002. The results of the post hoc comparison table are summarised in Table 4.43.

Three letters as superscript for a mean value indicate that the perceptions of the respondents regarding their economic development are highly dependent on their educational qualification. The people in the education category 'professional' have the highest mean value and hence they occupy the first position regarding their perception on economic development. People in the education categories 'professional, 'PG', 'poly technique/others', 'graduation' and 'pre-degree' have the same letter 'a' as superscript. This shows that statistically there is no significant difference among the perceptions of these five categories of respondents. But, the mean values show that the people in the

education categories 'poly technique/others, 'PG', 'graduation' and 'pre-degree' have the second, third, fourth and fifth positions respectively.

Table 4.43: Economic development vs. education

Category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Illiterate	50	84.05°	6.85
LP	45	85.00°	6.39
UP	87	85.45 ^{bc}	7.04
SSLC	98	86.01 ^{bc}	6.36
Pre-degree	60	87.01 ^{abc}	7.96
Graduation	20	87.08 ^{abc}	5.88
PG	6	87.27 ^{ab}	6.03
Poly technique/others	39	90.26 ^{abc}	6.03
Professional	15	91.14ª	8.02
F-va	lue = 3.044** p-va	alue = 0.002	

Means having the same letter as superscript are homogeneous.

The mean values also show that people in the education categories 'SSLC', 'UP', 'LP' and 'illiterate' have the sixth, seventh, eighth and ninth position regarding the perception on economic development. It may be because people in the education categories 'professional', 'poly technique/others', 'PG' and 'graduation', have more exposure to technology and are competent to utilize the scope of information technology in widening their economic opportunities through tourism. That can be the reason for the higher perception of economic development of the people in these educational categories than people having lower educational qualifications.

 H_{1c} : There exists a significant difference in the level of economic development of people, based on their income, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

The perceptions on economic development of respondents from different villages is analysed so as to understand whether their perceptions differ according to their income levels. Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness of Fit Test (K-S test) was used for testing the

^{**} Significant at 0.01 levels

normality assumptions and P value (.07) greater than 0.05 indicates satisfaction of assumptions. One way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed to ascertain whether a significant difference existed in the perceptions of economic development among the people involved in different tourism-related jobs, according to their income levels. The F value (5.461) is significant at 0.01 levels, which shows that there is a significant difference in the perceptions of economic development of the people in the different income categories and the hypothesis is accepted. This was followed by the Duncan's Multiple Range Test (post-hoc) to ascertain which of the group (income) means were significantly different from the others at significant level, p-value < 0.001. The results of the post hoc comparison table are summarised in Table 4.44.

Table 4.44: Economic development vs. income

Category (Rs.)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation		
10,000-15,000	132	84.88°	7.15		
15,000-20,000	115	85.63°	6.01		
20,000-25,000	92	86.06 ^{bc}	6.44		
25,000-30,000	52	88.73 ^{ab}	6.20		
30,000-35,000	29	90.30 ^a	6.86		
F-value = 5.461** p-value < 0.001					

Means having same letter as superscript are homogeneous.

The people in the income group Rs.'30,000-35,000' have the highest mean value, which shows that they have the highest perception on economic development after the promotion of tourism and they enjoy the first position. People in the income groups Rs.'25,000-30,000' and Rs. '20,000-25,000' - letter 'b' as superscript, which shows statistically that there is no significant difference between the perceptions of people in these two income groups. But the mean value is slightly lower in the latter income group, which shows that people who fall in the income group Rs.'25,000-30,000' enjoy the second position and Rs. '20,000-25,000' enjoy the third position.

People in the income groups Rs. '20,000-25,000', Rs. '15,000-20,000' and Rs. '10,000-15,000' have the same letter 'c' as superscript which shows statistically that there is no significant difference between the perceptions of people in these three income groups.

^{**} Significant at 0.01 levels

But, considering the mean values, the people of the income groups Rs. '15,000-20,000' and Rs. '10,000-15,000' enjoy the fourth and fifth positions respectively. This can be because the highest income categories of respondents are those belonging to the categories Rs. '30,000-35,000' followed by Rs. '25,000-30,000'. They are more benefitted economically and so they had a higher perception of economic development than the people in lower income categories.

Social development

Social development is about putting people at the centre of development. It concerns the norms and conventions that govern human interactions. The focus is on improving the lives of citizens, especially the poor, to make society a better place for everyone. Twenty three parameters were considered for measuring the social development of the people in the villages, after the promotion of tourism. The feedback given by the respondents in the sample villages are tabulated so as to understand the role of tourism in the social development of people in those villages.

Table 4.45: Perceptions of respondents regarding social development

			Nature-tourism		Eco-tourism		ЕТР	
Parameters	Response	Kumarakom (n=70)	Njarakkal (n=70)	Thenmala (n=70)	Pulpally (n=70)	Kumbalangi (n=70)	Aranmula (n=70)	Overall (n=420)
Capacity to	High increase	24 (34.3)	23 (32.9)	28 (40)	11 (15.7)	48 (68.6)	27 (38.6)	161 (38.3)
interact friendly	Moderate increase	45 (64.3)	43 (61.4)	41 (58.6)	52 (74.3)	21 (30)	36 (51.4)	238 (56.7)
with tourists	No change	1 (1.4)	4 (5.7)	1 (1.4)	7 (10)	1 (1.4)	7 (10)	21 (5)
Learning of the	High increase	15 (21.4)	10 (14.3)	11 (15.7)	2 (2.9)	24 (34.3)	11 (15.7)	73 (17.4)
	Moderate increase	52 (74.3)	53 (75.7)	56 (80)	59 (84.3)	46 (65.7)	50 (71.4)	316 (75.2)
foreign tourists	No change	3 (4.3)	7 (10)	3 (4.3)	9 (12.9)	0 (0)	9 (12.9)	31 (7.4)
	High increase	8 (11.4)	8 (11.4)	7 (10)	1 (1.4)	16 (22.9)	7 (10)	47 (11.2)
Personality development	Moderate increase	53 (75.7)	50 (71.4)	54 (77.1)	55 (78.6)	53 (75.7)	52 (74.3)	317 (75.5)
	No change	9 (12.9)	12 (17.1)	8 (11.4)	14 (20)	1 (1.4)	11 (15.7)	55 (13.1)
Awareness	High increase	21 (30)	9 (12.9)	12 (17.1)	2 (2.9)	15 (21.4)	4 (5.7)	63 (15)
about other countries and	Moderate increase	45 (64.3)	54 (77.1)	55 (78.6)	59 (84.3)	54 (77.1)	49 (70)	316 (75.2)
their customs	No change	4 (5.7)	7 (10)	3 (4.3)	9 (12.9)	1 (1.4)	17 (24.3)	41 (9.8)

		Nature-tourism		Eco-tourism		ETP		_
Parameters	Response	Kumarakom (n=70)	Njarakkal (n=70)	Thenmala (n=70)	Pulpally (n=70)	Kumbalangi (n=70)	Aranmula (n=70)	Overall (n=420)
	High increase	13 (18.6)	7 (10)	7 (10)	1 (1.4)	8 (11.4)	3 (4.3)	39 (9.3)
Self- confidence	Moderate increase	40 (57.1)	43 (61.4)	47 (67.1)	36 (51.4)	59 (84.3)	38 (54.3)	263 (62.6)
level	No change	17 (24.3)	20 (28.6)	16 (22.9)	33 (47.1)	3 (4.3)	29 (41.4)	118 (28.1)
	High increase	12 (17.17)	5 (7.1)	5 (7.1)	1 (1.4)	2 (2.9)	1 (1.4)	26 (6.2)
Problem solving capacity	Moderate increase	27 (38.6)	20 (28.6)	17 (24.3)	9 (12.9)	19 (27.1)	11 (15.7)	103 (24.5)
cupacity	No change	31 (44.3)	45 (64.3)	48 (68.6)	60 (85.7)	49 (70)	58 (82.9)	291 (69.3)
	High increase	5 (7.1)	4 (4.3)	3 (4.3)	1 (1.4)	2 (2.9)	2 (2.9)	17 (4)
Control over the usage of money	Moderate increase	19 (27.1)	14 (20)	4 (5.7)	2 (2.9)	7 (10)	9 (12.9)	55 (13.1)
usuge of money	No change	46 (65.7)	52 (74.3)	63 (90)	67 (95.7)	61 (87.1)	59 (84.3)	348 (82.9)
	High increase	6 (8.6)	2 (2.9)	1 (1.4)	0 (0)	1 (1.4)	1 (1.4)	11 (2.6)
Decision making ability	Moderate increase	14 (20)	10 (14.3)	13 (18.6)	5 (7.1)	13 (18.6)	10 (14.3)	65 (15.5)
maning womey	No change	50 (71.4)	58 (82.9)	56 (80)	65 (92.9)	56 (80)	59 (84.3)	344 (81.9)
Participation in	High increase	6 (8.6)	3 (4.3)	4 (5.7)	1 (1.4)	5 (7.1)	2 (2.9)	21 (5)
public affairs	Moderate increase	47 (67.1)	47 (67.1)	47 (67.1)	36 (51.4)	61 (87.1)	38 (54.3)	276 (65.7)
	No change	17 (24.3)	20 (28.6)	19 (27.1)	33 (47.1)	4 (5.7)	30 (42.9)	123 (29.3)
Provides	High increase	37 (52.9)	24 (34.3)	29 (41.4)	10 (14.3)	38 (54.3)	22 (31.4)	160 (38.1)
educational	Moderate increase	30 (42.9)	39 (55.7)	38 (54.3)	49 (70)	32 (45.7)	28 (40)	216 (51.4)
experience	No change	3 (4.3)	7 (10)	3 (4.3)	11 (15.7)	0 (0)	20 (28.6)	44 (10.5)
Education level	High increase	36 (51.4)	19 (27.1)	14 (20)	3 (4.3)	12 (17.1)	5 (7.1)	89 (21.2)
in the family	Moderate increase	28 (40)	34 (48.6)	46 (65.7)	39 (55.7)	47 (67.1)	40 (57.1)	234 (55.7)
	No change	6 (8.6)	17 (24.3)	10 (14.3)	28 (40)	11 (15.7)	25 (35.7)	97 (23.1)
Positive	High increase	30 (42.9)	15 (21.4)	9 (12.9)	2 (2.9)	3 (4.3)	4 (5.7)	63 (15)
changes in values and	Moderate increase	34 (48.6)	30 (42.9)	48 (68.6)	26 (37.1)	51 (72.9)	43 (61.4)	232 (55.2)
customs	No change	6 (8.6)	25 (35.7)	13 (18.6)	42 (60)	16 (22.9)	23 (32.9)	125 (29.8)
	High increase	29 (41.4)	16 (22.9)	10 (14.3)	2 (2.9)	6 (8.6)	6 (8.6)	69 (16.4)
Health consciousness	Moderate increase	34 (48.6)	26 (37.1)	43 (61.4)	23 (32.9)	45 (64.3)	36 (51.4)	207 (49.3)
	No change	7 (10)	28 (40)	17 (24.3)	45 (64.3)	19 (27.1)	28 (40)	144 (34.3)
Participation in	High increase	16 (22.9)	16 (22.9)	12 (17.1)	3 (4.3)	24 (34.3)	16 (22.9)	87 (20.7)
community	Moderate increase	48 (68.6)	36 (51.4)	48 (68.6)	39 (55.7)	43 (61.4)	41 (58.6)	255 (60.7)
programmes	No change	6 (8.6)	18 (25.7)	10 (14.3)	28 (40)	3 (4.3)	13 (18.6)	78 (18.6)
Leadership	High increase	17 (24.3)	11 (15.7)	6 (8.6)	0 (0)	4 (5.7)	4 (5.7)	42 (10)
skills	Moderate increase	33 (47.1)	26 (37.1)	36 (51.4)	17 (24.3)	48 (68.6)	36 (51.4)	196 (46.7)

		Nature-to	ourism	Eco-tourism		ETP		
Parameters	Response	Kumarakom (n=70)	Njarakkal (n=70)	Thenmala (n=70)	Pulpally (n=70)	Kumbalangi (n=70)	Aranmula (n=70)	Overall (n=420)
	No change	20 (28.6)	33 (47.1)	28 (40)	53 (75.7)	18 (25.7)	30 (42.9)	182 (43.3)
Preservation of forgotten or	High increase	20 (25.7)	10 (12.9)	9 (11.4)	0 (0)	5 (7.1)	5 (7.1)	49 (11.7)
threatened	Moderate increase	35 (50)	31 (44.3)	34 (48.6)	23 (32.9)	48 (68.6)	37 (52.9)	208 (49.5)
heritage resources	No change	15 (21.4)	29 (41.4)	27 (38.6)	47 (67.1)	17 (24.3)	28 (40)	163 (38.8)
	High increase	24 (34.3)	13 (18.6)	11 (15.7)	1 (1.4)	10 (14.3)	9 (12.9)	68 (16.2)
Social awareness	Moderate increase	40 (57.1)	48 (68.6)	52 (74.3)	51 (72.9)	59 (84.3)	54 (77.1)	304 (72.4)
a wareness	No change	6 (8.6)	9 (12.9)	7 (10)	18 (25.7)	1 (1.4)	7 (10)	48 (11.4)
	High increase	38 (54.3)	23 (32.9)	22 (31.4)	6 (8.6)	29 (41.4)	22 (31.4)	140 (33.3)
Standard of living	Moderate increase	29 (41.4)	44 (62.9)	44 (62.9)	57 (81.4)	41 (58.6)	46 (65.7)	261 (62.1)
	No change	3 (4.3)	3 (4.3)	4 (5.7)	7 (10)	0 (0)	2 (2.9)	19 (4.5)
Progress in	High increase	35 (50)	18 (25.7)	20 (28.6)	3 (4.3)	21 (30)	16 (22.9)	113 (26.9)
linguistic and communication	Moderate increase	32 (45.7)	50 (71.4)	48 (68.6)	59 (84.3)	48 (68.6)	51 (72.9)	288 (68.6)
skills	No change	3 (4.3)	2 (2.9)	2 (2.9)	8 (11.4)	1 (1.4)	3 (4.3)	19 (4.5)
Responsibility	High increase	20 (28.6)	14 (20)	14 (20)	1 (1.4)	24 (34.3)	15 (21.4)	88 (20.9)
and commitment to	Moderate increase	40 (57.1)	42 (60)	45 (64.3)	51 (72.9)	43 (61.4)	46 (65.7)	267 (63.6)
the society	No change	10 (14.3)	14 (20)	11 (15.7)	18 (25.7)	3 (4.3)	9 (12.9)	65 (15.5)
	High increase	16 (22.9)	6 (8.6)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	22 (5.2)
Strengthening of communities	Moderate increase	28 (40)	11 (15.7)	15 (21.4)	6 (8.6)	14 (20)	5 (7.1)	79 (18.8)
	No change	33 (47.1)	56 (80)	53 (75.7)	64 (91.4)	56 (80)	65 (92.9)	327 (77.9)
Number of enterprises	High increase	7 (10)	3 (4.3)	2 (2.9)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	12 (2.9)
providing	Moderate increase	29 (41.4)	11 (15.7)	12 (17.1)	4 (5.7)	11 (15.7)	5 (7.1)	72 (17.1)
voluntary support to tourists	No change	34 (48.6)	56 (80)	56 (80)	66 (94.3)	59 (84.3)	65 (92.9)	336 (80)
	High increase	11 (15.7)	6 (8.6)	1 (1.4)	0 (0)	2 (2.9)	2 (2.9)	22 (5.2)
Recognition in society	Moderate increase	43 (61.4)	21 (30)	29 (41.4)	7 (10)	23 (32.9)	14 (20)	137 (32.6)
	No change	16 (22.9)	43 (61.4)	40 (57.1)	63 (90)	45 (64.3)	54 (77.1)	261 (62.1)

Figures in parenthesis are percentages.

The factor 'capacity to interact with foreign tourists', shows "high increase" only in 'Kumbalangi'. In all other villages, the increase is "moderate". The factor, 'provides educational experience', shows "high increase" in 'Kumarakom' and 'Kumbalangi'. In respect of 'educational level in the family', 'standard of living' and 'progress in linguistic and communication skills', there is "high increase" in 'Kumarakom' and, in all other villages, there is "moderate increase" for these factors. Regarding the factors 'learning of

the language and culture of foreign tourists', 'personality development', 'awareness about other countries and their customs', 'self-confidence level', 'participation in public affairs', 'participation in community programs', 'social awareness', 'responsibility and commitment to the society', "moderate increase" dominates. 'Kumarakom' shows "moderate increase" in respect of 'recognition in society'.

The villages in which highest number of parameters measuring social development, agreed as 'high increase' / 'moderate increase' by > 90% respondents in the corresponding village are 'Kumarakom' and 'Kumbalangi' (11 parameters). It is followed by 'Thenmala' (8 parameters) and the lowest is 'Pulpally' (2 parameters). This can be because, as the initiatives to promote tourism started earlier in 'Kumarakom', 'Kumabalangi' and 'Thenamala', these villages were blessed with good tourist inflow ahead of the other three villages. So people in these three villages were at an advantage than those in the later entrants in tourism sector, in refining their social development skills.

More than 80% respondents in each of the six tourism villages were of the opinion that tourism promotion in their village resulted in 'high increase' / 'moderate increase' with respect to five social development parameters: 'capacity to interact friendly with tourists', 'learning of the language and culture of foreign tourists', 'personality development', 'standard of living' and 'progress in linguistic and communication skills'. This shows the wide acceptance of 'social development' as an advantage through tourism promotion in the village by the people in different villages in Kerala.

H_2 : There exists a significant difference in the level of social development of people in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

The respondents reported improvement in the different parameters of social development after the promotion of tourism in their villages (Table 4.45). Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness of Fit Test (K-S test) was used for testing the normality assumptions and P value (.07) greater than 0.05 indicates satisfaction of assumptions. Testing of the hypothesis was done by comparing the perceptions about social development among respondents selected from different types of tourism villages and it was done by using the one way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The results of one way Analysis of Variance

show that the F-value (17.999) is significant at 0. 01 levels. This shows that there is a significant difference among the perceptions of people in the villages under study about the level of their social development. As there exists a significant difference among the pereptions of people in different villages, Duncan's Multiple Range test (DMRT) was done to find out people in which villages have the same perceptions about social development. The results are given in Table 4.46.

Table 4.46: Comparison of the perceptions of respondents in tourism villages about their social development

Villages	Mean	Std.Deviation
Nature-tourism (Kumarakom)	79.86ª	7.70
Nature-tourism (Njarakkal)	75.85 ^b	8.27
Eco-tourism (Thenmala)	76.01 ^b	5.97
Eco-tourism (Pulpally)	70.65°	4.02
ETP (Kumbalangi)	78.32ª	4.56
ETP (Aranmula)	74.16 ^b	6.57
F-value	F-value 17.999**	
P-value	< 0.001	

Means having the same letter as superscript are homogeneous. ** Significant at 0.01 levels

Mean value is the highest in 'Kumarakom', which shows that the people in 'Kumarakom' have the highest perception of social development and they enjoy the first position. Mean values in 'Kumarakom' and 'Kumbalangy' have the same letter 'a' as superscript, which means that statistically there is no significant difference between the perceptions of people in these two villages. But the mean value is slightly lower in the latter village. It shows that the people in 'Kumbalangy' have the second position regarding social development. Mean values in 'Thenmala', 'Njarakkal' and 'Aranmula' villages have the same letter 'b' as superscript, which means that statistically there is no significant difference among the perceptions of people in these three villages. But the mean value shows that regarding social development, the people in 'Thenmala', 'Njarakkal' and 'Aranmula' have the third, fourth and fifth positions respectively.

The villagers in 'Pulpally' have the lowest level of perception regarding social development and hence they have the sixth position. This can be because the people in 'Kumarakom' and 'Kumbalangi' have certain advantages like early starting of tourism promotion, nearness to towns and educational facilities. So, people in these villages might have experienced a higher perception of social development than others. The reason for the lowest perception of social development for the people in 'Pulpally' village may be because, a good proportion of the local people belong to tribal communities and their level of exposure to modern amenities and people from different parts of the world were comparatively low earlier.

 H_{2a} : There exists a significant difference in the level of social development of people, based on their age, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

The perceptions of respondents in different tourism villages regarding social development are analysed so as to understand whether it differs according to their age group. The results are shown in Table 4.47.

Table 4.47: Social development vs. age

Category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation		
< 30	16	79.88ª	2.56		
30-40	95	75.50 ^b	6.72		
40-50	144	75.24 ^b	7.40		
50-60	102	75.31 ^b	6.50		
> 60	63	77.36 ^{ab}	7.50		
F-value = 2.534* p-value = 0.040					

Means having the same letter as superscript are homogeneous.

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness of Fit Test (K-S test) was used for testing the normality assumptions and P value (.08) greater than 0.05 indicates satisfaction of assumptions. One way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed to ascertain whether a significant difference existed among the perceptions of social developments of the people in the

^{**} Significant at 0.01 levels

villages under study, according to their age. The F value (2.534) is significant at 0.01 levels, which indicates a significant difference among the perceptions of respondents in different age groups and the hypothesis is accepted. This was followed by the Duncan's Multiple Range Test (post-hoc) to ascertain which of the group (age) means were significantly different from the others at significant level, p-value 0.040. The results of the post hoc comparison table are summarised in Table 4.47.

The people in the '< 30' age group have the highest mean value and they enjoy the first position regarding social development. The same letter 'a' as superscript for the '<30' and '> 60' age groups show that, statistically, there is no significant difference between the perceptions of people in these two age groups. But the mean value is slightly lower in the latter village, which shows that the people of the '> 60' age group enjoy the second position. The '> 60', '30-40', '40-50' and '50-60' age groups have the same letter 'b' as superscript. This shows that, statistically, there is no significant difference among the perceptions of people in these four age groups. But the mean value shows that the people in the '30-40', '50-60' and '40-50' age groups have the third, fourth and fifth positions respectively regarding their perception on social development.

People in the '< 30' age group are usually highly energetic, alert and keen learners. That can be the reason for a higher perception of social development for the respondents in this age group than those in other age groups. People in the '> 60' age group usually experience a sense of social isolation, when they retire from jobs and remain unengaged. But once they get engaged as tourism service providers, they get a chance to interact with people from different nations and socio-economic backgrounds. So their body and mind become active and this might have given a higher perception of social development for the people in this age group than the respondents in the other age groups.

 H_{2b} : There exists a significant difference in the level of social development of people, based on their gender, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

The perceptions of respondents in different tourism villages regarding social development are analysed so as to understand whether it differs according to their gender. The results are shown in Table 4.48.

Table 4.48: Social development vs. gender

Category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation		
Male	345	75.15	6.48		
Female	75	78.84	8.37		
T-value = 4.228** p-value < 0.001					

^{**} Significant at 0.01 levels

Independent T test was performed to ascertain whether a significant difference existed in the perceptions of social development of people in the villages under study according to their gender. The T value (4.228) is significant at 0.01 levels. This shows that there is a significant difference between the perceptions of social development by the males and the females. The mean value shows that the females have a higher perception on the social development, after the promotion of tourism in their village, than the males. So the hypothesis is accepted.

Women, especially in villages, have a low level of education and they usually engage themselves in taking care of families and household chores. But after tourism was promoted in the villages, the women got many employment opportunities near to their houses itself. So, many of the obstacles and barriers that had restricted the development of women in villages could be reduced. This has helped them to become financially independent, at least to some extent, and improve their linguistic and communication skills due to chances to interact with tourists from different places. That can be the reason for the higher perception for the females than the males regarding social development.

H_{2c} : There exists a significant difference in the level of social development of people, based on their occupation, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

The perceptions of respondents in different tourism villages regarding social development are analysed so as to understand whether they differ according to their occupations. Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness of Fit Test (K-S test) was used for testing the normality assumptions and P value (.08) greater than 0.05 indicates satisfaction of assumptions. One way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was done to ascertain whether a significant difference existed among the perceptions of social developments of the people in the

sample villages, according to their occupation. The F value (9.611) is significant at 0.01 levels, which indicates a significant difference among the perceptions of respondents having different occupations and the hypothesis is accepted. This was followed by the Duncan's Multiple Range Test (post-hoc) to ascertain which of the group (occupation) means were significantly different from the others at significant level, p-value < 0.002. The results of the post hoc comparison table are summarised in Table 4.49.

Table 4.49: Social development vs. occupation

Category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation		
Agriculture	54	71.97 ^e	4.95		
Artisan	23	75.30 ^{cde}	7.18		
Fishing	34	74.39 ^{de}	3.12		
Hotel	43	77.64 ^{abcd}	6.32		
Petty shops	35	76.17 ^{bcd}	6.18		
Sale of local products and handicrafts	28	78.94 ^{abc}	5.33		
Traditional cuisine/catering	23	76.11 ^{bcd}	6.07		
Transportation	33	76.25 ^{bcd}	7.21		
Traditional art performance/tourist guide	27	79.40 ^{ab}	6.77		
Home stay	120	80.46 ^a	9.06		
F value 9.611 ** P value <0.002					

Means having the same letter as superscript are homogeneous.

Four letters as superscript for a mean value indicate that, the perceptions of the respondents regarding their social development, are highly dependent on their occupation. The people in the occupation category 'homestay' have the highest mean value and they enjoy the first position regarding social development. The same letter 'a' as superscripts is seen in the occupation categories 'homestay', 'hotel', 'sale of local products and handicrafts' and 'traditional art performance/tourist guide'. This shows that, statistically, there is no significant difference among the perceptions of people in these four occupation categories. But, the mean value shows that the people whose occupations are 'traditional art performance/tourist guide', 'sale of local products and handicrafts' and

^{**} Significant at 0.01 levels

'hotel' have the second, third and fourth positions respectively regarding social development.

People in the occupation categories 'hotel', 'petty shops', 'sale of local products and handicrafts', 'traditional cuisine/catering', 'transportation' and 'traditional art performance/tourist guide' have the same letter 'b' as superscript. This shows that, statistically, there is no significant difference among the perceptions of people in these six categories of occupations. But, the mean values show that the people in the occupation categories 'transportation', 'petty shops 'and 'traditional cuisine/catering' have the fifth, sixth and seventh positions respectively regarding social development.

The people in the occupation categories 'agriulture', 'artisan' and 'fishing' have the same letter 'e' as superscript, which shows that, statistically, there is no significant difference among the perceptions of people in these three categories of occupations. But the mean values show that the people in the occupation categories 'artisan', 'fishing' and 'agriculture' have the eighth, ninth and tenth positions respectively. The people whose occupations are 'homestay', traditional art performance/tourist guide', 'sale of local products and handicrafts' and 'hotel' have more chances to interact and converse with different types of tourists, than the people engaged in other occupations. So the perception of social development may be higher for the people in these categories of occupations than others.

 H_{2d} : There exists a significant difference in the level of social development of people, based on their education, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

The perceptions of respondents in different tourism villages regarding social development are analysed so as to understand whether they differ according to their education. Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness of Fit Test (K-S test) was used for testing the normality assumptions and P value (.07) greater than 0.05 indicates satisfaction of assumptions. One way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed to ascertain whether a significant difference existed among people in the villages under study, according to their education. The F value (2.972) is significant at 0.01 levels, which discloses a significant difference among the perceptions of respondents having different levels of education and the

hypothesis is accepted. This was followed by the Duncan's Multiple Range Test (post-hoc) to ascertain which of the group (education) means were significantly different from the others at significant level, p-value < 0.003. The results of the post hoc comparison table are summarised in Table 4.50.

Table 4.50: Social development vs. education

Category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Illiterate	50	73.64 ^b	6.76
LP	45	74.41 ^b	8.77
UP	87	75.94 ^{ab}	6.39
SSLC	98	76.07 ^{ab}	7.94
Pre-degree	60	76.85 ^{ab}	7.00
Graduation	20	77.52 ^{ab}	7.53
PG	6	78.26 ^{ab}	6.36
Professional	15	79.95ª	4.75
Poly technique/Others	39	77.02 ^{ab}	7.58

Means having the same letter as superscript are homogeneous.

** Significant at 0.01 levels

The people in the education category 'professional' have the highest mean value and hence the people in this category occupy the first position, regarding their perception on social development. The education categories 'UP', 'SSLC', 'pre-degree', 'graduation', 'PG', 'poly technique/others' and 'professional' have the letter 'a' as superscript. This shows that, statistically, there is no significant difference among the perceptions of the people in these seven categories. But, the mean values show that the people in the education categories 'PG', 'poly technique/others', 'graduation', 'pre-degree', 'SSLC' and 'UP' have the second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth and seventh positions respectively regarding social development.

The people in the education categories 'illiterate', 'LP', 'UP', 'SSLC', 'pre-degree', 'graduation', 'PG' and 'professional' have the letter 'b' as superscript. This shows that,

statistically, there is no significant difference among the perceptions of these eight categories of respondents. But the mean values show that the people whose educational qualification is 'LP' and 'illiterate' have the eighth and ninth positions respectively.

People in the educational categories 'professional', 'PG', 'poly technique/others' and 'graduation', may have higher linguistics and conversational skills, as they have good educational backgrounds. So they can mingle with the tourists less reluctantly than others and hence may have felt a higher perception of social development, than others with lower educational backgrounds.

 H_{2e} : There exists a significant difference in the level of social development of people, based on their income, in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.

The perceptions of respondents in different tourism villages regarding social development are analysed, so as to understand whether they differ according to their income. Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness of Fit Test (K-S test) was used for testing the normality assumptions and P value (.08) greater than 0.05 indicates satisfaction of assumptions. One way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed to ascertain whether a significant difference existed among the perceptions of social developments of the people in the sample villages, according to their income. The F value (2.534) is significant at 0.01 levels, which indicates a significant difference among the perceptions of respondents in the different income categories and the hypothesis is accepted. This was followed by the Duncan's Multiple Range Test (post-hoc) to ascertain which of the group (income) means were significantly different from the others at significant level, p-value 0.040. The results of the post hoc comparison table are summarised in Table 4.51.

The people in the income group Rs. '30,000-35,000' have the highest mean value and they enjoy the first position regarding social development. The income groups Rs. '30,000-35,000' and Rs. '25,000-30,000' have the same letter 'a' as superscript. This shows that, statistically, there is no significant difference between the perceptions of the people in these two income groups. But the mean value is slightly lower in the latter income group, which shows that the people of the income group Rs. '25,000-30,000' enjoy the second position regarding social development.

Table 4.51: Social development vs. income

Category (Rs.)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
10,000-15,000	132	75.24 ^b	7.40
15,000-20,000	115	75.31 ^b	6.50
20,000-25,000	92	75.50 ^b	6.72
25,000-30,000	52	77.36 ^{ab}	7.50
30,000-35,000	29	79.88ª	2.56
	F-value = 2.534*	p-value = 0.040	

Means having the same letter as superscript are homogeneous.

The income groups Rs. '25,000-30,000, Rs. '20,000-25,000', Rs. '15,000-20,000' and Rs. '10,000-15,000' have the same letter 'b' as superscript. This shows that statistically there is no significant difference among the perceptions of people in these four income groups. But the mean value shows that the people in the income groups Rs. '20,000-25,000', Rs. '15,000-20,000' and Rs. '10,000-15,000' have the third, fourth and fifth positions respectively regarding the social development. The highest income earning categories are those in the income groups Rs. '30,000-35,000' and Rs. '25,000-30,000'. So, due to their rise in financial status and quality of lives, people belonging to these income categories may have felt a higher perception in their level of social development, than those in the lower income categories.

Infrastructural development

The infrastructure base of a region acts as a potential determinant of the attractiveness of a tourism destination. Infrastructure forms an integral part of the tourism package. Sixteen parameters were considered for measuring the infrastructural development in the villages, after the promotion of tourism. The responses of the people in the six tourism villages are tabulated in Table 4.52.

^{**} Significant at 0.01 levels

Table 4.52: Perceptions of respondents regarding infrastructural development

		Nature-te	ourism	Eco-to	urism	ET	P	011
Paarmeters	Response	Kumarakom (n=70)	Njarakkal (n=70)	Thenmala (n=70)	Pulpally (n=70)	Kumbalangi (n=70)	Aranmula (n=70)	Overall (n=420)
	High increase	11 (15.7)	22 (31.4)	19 (27.1)	7 (10)	35 (50)	5 (7.1)	99 (23.6)
Road facilities	Moderate increase	43 (61.4)	30 (42.9)	37 (52.9)	39 (55.7)	33 (47.1)	27 (38.6)	209 (49.8)
	No change	16 (2.9)	18 (25.7)	14 (20)	24 (34.3)	2 (2.9)	38 (54.3)	112 (26.7)
Transportation	High increase	31 (44.3)	8 (11.4)	20 (28.6)	1 (1.4)	0 (0)	1 (1.4)	61 (14.5)
facilities in the	Moderate increase	36 (51.4)	51 (72.9)	49 (70)	31 (44.3)	46 (65.7)	8 (11.4)	221 (52.6)
village	No change	3 (4.3)	11 (15.7)	1 (1.4)	38 (54.3)	24 (34.3)	61 (87.1)	138 (32.9)
	High increase	6 (8.6)	2 (2.9)	1 (1.4)	1 (1.4)	1 (1.4)	0 (0)	11 (2.6)
Hospital facilities	Moderate increase	37 (52.9)	18 (25.7)	15 (21.4)	3 (4.3)	7 (10)	3 (4.3)	83 (19.8)
identities	No change	27 (38.6)	50 (71.4)	54 (77.1)	66 (94.3)	62 (88.6)	67 (95.7)	326 (77.6)
	High increase	1 (1.4)	1 (1.4)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (0.5)
Number of libraries	Moderate increase	26 (37.1)	10 (14.3)	7 (10)	2 (2.9)	3 (4.3)	16 (22.9)	64 (15.2)
noraries	No change	43 (61.4)	59 (84.3)	63 (90)	68 (97.1)	67 (95.7)	54 (77.1)	354 (84.3)
	High increase	3 (4.3)	4 (5.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (2.9)	2 (2.9)	11 (2.6)
Number of clubs	Moderate increase	36 (51.4)	33 (47.1)	36 (51.4)	11 (15.7)	48 (68.6)	29 (41.4)	193 (46)
	No change	31 (44.3)	33 (47.1)	34 (48.6)	59 (84.3)	20 (28.6)	39 (55.7)	216 (51.4)
Electrification	High increase	3 (4.3)	10 (14.3)	10 (14.3)	1 (1.4)	24 (34.3)	2 (2.9)	50 (11.9)
facilities in the	Moderate increase	44 (62.9)	31 (44.3)	34 (48.6)	12 (17.1)	38 (54.3)	17 (24.3)	176 (41.9)
village	No change	23 (32.9)	29 (41.4)	26 (37.1)	57 (81.4)	8 (11.4)	51 (72.9)	194 (46.2)
	High increase	11 (15.7)	14 (20)	13 (18.6)	1 (1.4)	26 (37.1)	9 (12.9)	74 (17.6)
Hotels and catering facilities	Moderate increase	54 (77.1)	33 (47.1)	40 (57.1)	17 (24.3)	39 (55.7)	31 (44.3)	214 (51)
<i>y</i>	No change	5 (7.1)	23 (32.9)	17 (24.3)	52 (74.3)	5 (7.1)	30 (42.9)	132 (31.4)
	High increase	16 (22.9)	14 (20)	11 (15.7)	1 (1.4)	21 (30)	2 (2.9)	65 (15.5)
Travel agencies	Moderate increase	46 (65.7)	31 (44.3)	42 (60)	16 (22.9)	37 (52.9)	12 (17.1)	184 (43.8)
	No change	8 (11.4)	25 (35.7)	17 (24.3)	53 (75.7)	12 (17.1)	56 (80)	171 (40.7)
	High increase	10 (14.3)	7 (10)	1 (1.4)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (1.4)	19 (4.5)
Rain water harvesting plants	Moderate increase	27 (38.6)	12 (17.1)	15 (21.4)	3 (4.3)	14 (20)	10 (14.3)	81 (19.3)
	No change	33 (47.1)	51 (72.9)	54 (77.1)	67 (95.7)	56 (80)	59 (84.3)	320 (76.2)
N 1 C	High increase	7 (10)	6 (8.6)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (1.4)	14 (3.3)
Number of schools	Moderate increase	21 (30)	9 (12.9)	10 (14.3)	1 (1.4)	14 (20)	2 (2.9)	57 (13.6)
	No change	42 (60)	55 (78.6)	60 (85.7)	69 (98.6)	56 (80)	67 (95.7)	349 (83.1)
	High increase	8 (11.4)	7 (10)	1 (1.4)	0 (0)	2 (2.9)	1 (1.4)	19 (4.5)
Number of colleges	Moderate increase	32 (45.7)	21 (30)	30 (42.9)	6 (8.6)	32 (45.7)	13 (18.6)	134 (31.9)
	No change	30 (42.9)	42 (60)	38 (54.3)	63 (90)	36 (51.4)	56 (80)	265 (63.1)

		Nature-to	ourism	Eco-tourism		ETP		Overall
Paarmeters	Response	Kumarakom (n=70)	Njarakkal (n=70)	Thenmala (n=70)	Pulpally (n=70)	Kumbalangi (n=70)	Aranmula (n=70)	(n=420)
Number of	High increase	9 (12.9)	8 (11.4)	1 (1.4)	0 (0)	1 (1.4)	2 (2.9)	21 (5)
institutions	Moderate increase	32 (45.7)	24 (34.3)	32 (45.7)	4 (5.7)	48 (68.6)	36 (51.4)	176 (41.9)
offering vocational training for tourism employment	No change	29 (41.4)	38 (54.3)	37 (52.9)	66 (94.3)	21 (30)	32 (45.7)	223 (53.1)
. 1	High increase	43 (61.4)	17 (24.3)	12 (17.1)	2 (2.9)	2 (2.9)	2 (2.9)	78 (18.6)
Accommodation facilities	Moderate increase	24 (34.3)	29 (41.4)	35 (50)	16 (22.9)	49 (70)	18 (25.7)	171 (40.7)
identies	No change	3 (4.3)	24 (34.3)	23 (32.9)	52 (74.3)	19 (27.1)	50 (71.4)	171 (40.7)
Effective waste	High increase	24 (34.3)	23 (32.9)	28 (40)	11 (15.7)	48 (68.6)	27 (38.6)	161 (38.3)
disposal	Moderate increase	45 (64.3)	43 (61.4)	41 (58.6)	52 (74.3)	21 (30)	36 (51.4)	238 (56.7)
mechanism	No change	1 (1.4)	4 (5.7)	1 (1.4)	7 (10)	1 (1.4)	7 (10)	21 (5)
D 1:1:	High increase	15 (21.4)	10 (14.3)	11 (15.7)	2 (2.9)	24 (34.3)	11 (15.7)	73 (17.4)
Pure drinking water facilities	Moderate increase	52 (74.3)	53 (75.7)	56 (80)	59 (84.3)	46 (65.7)	50 (71.4)	316 (75.2)
water racinties	No change	3 (4.3)	7 (10)	3 (4.3)	9 (12.9)	0 (0)	9 (12.9)	31 (7.4)
Communication	High increase	8 (11.4)	8 (11.4)	8 (11.4)	1 (1.4)	16 (22.9)	7 (10)	48 (11.4)
facilities	Moderate increase	53 (75.7)	50 (71.4)	54 (77.1)	55 (78.6)	53 (75.7)	52 (74.3)	317 (75.5)
	No change	9 (12.9)	12 (17.1)	8 (11.4)	14 (20)	1 (1.4)	11 (15.7)	55 (13.1)

Figures in parenthesis are percentages.

The villages in which highest number of parameters measuring infrastructural development, agreed as 'high increase'/ 'moderate increase' by > 90 % respondents in the corresponding village, are 'Kumarakom' and 'Kumbalangi' (5 parameters). It is followed by 'Thenmala' (3 parameters), and the lowest are in 'Pulpally' and 'Aranmula' (1 parameter). This can be because as tourism began to be propagated in the three villages quite a number of years back, the government as well as the tourism department have spent good amount for developing the basic infrastructural facilities in these villages.

H_3 : There exists a significant difference in the level of infrastructural development in the different types of tourism villages, after the promotion of tourism.

The levels of infrastructural development in each of the villages under study are reported to improve after the promotion of tourism in those villages (Table 4.52). Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness of Fit Test (K-S test) was used for testing the normality assumptions and P value (.09) greater than 0.05 indicates satisfaction of assumptions. Testing of the hypothesis was done by comparing the perceptions about the infrastructural development among respondents selected from the sample villages and it was done by using the one

way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The results of the one way analysis of variance shows that, the F-value (40.670) is significant at 0.01 levels. This shows that there is a significant difference among the peceptions of people in the sample villages regarding the infrastructural development in their villages. As there exists a significant difference among the villages, Duncan's Multiple Range test (DMRT) was done to find out which of the villages have the same level of infrastructural development. The results are given in Table 4.53.

Table 4.53: Comparison of the perceptions of respondents about the infrastructural developments in the villages

Villages	Mean	Std.Deviation
Nature-tourism (Kumarakom)	79.54ª	7.23
Nature-tourism (Njarakkal)	75.49 ^b	5.29
Eco-tourism (Thenmala)	75.91 ^b	8.28
Eco-tourism (Pulpally)	68.55°	3.44
ETP (Kumbalangi)	77.39 ^b	4.40
ETP (Aranmula)	69.16°	5.23
F-value	40.670**	
P-value	< 0.	.001

Means having the same letter as superscript are homogeneous.

Certain conclusions can be made about the infrastructural development in the villages from the perceptions of respondents in each village. The mean value is highest in 'Kumarakom', which shows that respondents in this village have the highest perception regarding the infrastructural development after tourism promotion in the village, and so 'Kumarakom' enjoys the first position regarding infrastructural development. The mean values in 'Njarakkal', 'Thenmala' and 'Kumbalangy' have the same letter "b" as superscript. This shows that, statistically, there is no significant difference among the perceptions of respondents in these three villages. But the mean values show that 'Kumbalangy', 'Thenmala' and 'Njarakkal' villages have the second, third and the fourth

^{**} Significant at 0.01 level

positions regarding infrastructural development. The mean values in 'Aranmula', and 'Pulpally' have the same letter "c" as superscript. This shows that statistically there is no significant difference between the perceptions of respondents in these two villages. But the mean values show that 'Aranmula' and 'Pulpally' have fifth and sixth positions regarding infrastructural development.

Government aided development projects may take time for completion due to delays caused by red-tapism and bureaucracy which may lead to slow decisions on project issues, delay in the approval of completed work by client etc. But the villages in which tourism promotional activities started earlier ('Kumarakom', 'Thenmala' and 'Kumbalangi'), a major part of the fund allotted by the government might have been able to be utilized for completing the proposed tourism projects, thus beautifying the face of the villages aimed at attracting the tourists. So in 'Pulpally', 'Aranmula' and 'Njarakkal' villages, that are later entrants in the tourism sector, infrastructural development projects may also come to a reality, as the government may be aware of the revenue from tourism and its other advantages, including opportunities for job creation.

Tourist satisfaction

Tourist satisfaction is defined as post-consumption evaluation, concerning a specific product or service. It is one of the key judgments that tourists make regarding a tourism service. It is a measure of how tourism products and services that are supplied in a tourist destination, meet or surpass the expectations of tourists. The feedback given by the tourists about their satisfaction about various amenities in the tourism villages are tabulated so as to make a comparison about the quality of various tourism villages.

Table 4.54: Perception of tourists about their satisfaction on different amenities in tourism villages

VISITOR ATTRACTIONS								
		Natur	e	Eco-to	ourism	ET	P	Overall
Parameters	Response	Kumarakom (n=30)	Pulpally (n=30)	Thenmala (n=30)	Njarakkal (n=30)	Kumbalangi (n=30)	Aranmula (n=30)	(n=180)
	Excellent	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	4 (2.2)
Varieties and	Very good	22 (73.3)	3 (10)	9 (30)	6 (20)	21 (70)	10 (33.3)	71 (39.4)
number	Good	6 (20)	22 (73.3)	18 (60)	16 (53.3)	8 (26.7)	18 (60)	88 (48.9)
number	Average	0 (0)	5 (16.7)	3 (10)	8 (26.7)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	17 (9.4)
	Poor	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Quality of service	Excellent	7 (23.3)	1 (3.3)	3 (10)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	12 (6.7)
	Very good	20 (66.7)	11 (36.7)	12 (40)	4 (13.3)	19 (63.3)	3 (10)	69 (38.3)

	C 1	2 (10)	12 (40)	12 (42 2)	20 (((7)	10 (22.2)	((20)	(4 (25 ()
	Good	3 (10)	12 (40)	13 (43.3)	20 (66.7)	10 (33.3)	6 (20)	64 (35.6)
	Average	0 (0)	6 (20)	2 (6.7)	6 (20)	0 (0)	18 (60)	32 (17.8)
	Poor	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (10)	3 (1.7)
	Excellent	3 (10)	2 (6.7)	5 (16.7)	1 (3.3)	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	13 (7.2)
Worthiness of	Very good	20 (66.7)	12 (40)	15 (50)	11 (36.7)	9 (30)	0 (0)	67 (37.2)
money spent	Good	7 (23.3)	15 (50)	9 (30)	17 (56.7)	14 (46.7)	20 (66.7)	82 (45.6)
	Average	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	5 (16.7)	10 (33.3)	18 (10)
	Poor	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	Excellent	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	0 (0) 8 (26.7)	0 (0)	4 (2.2) 54 (30)
A:1-:1:4	Very good	20 (66.7)	8 (26.7)	- ()	4 (13.3)	\ /	1 (3.3)	· /
Accessibility	Good	8 (26.7)	14 (46.7)	13 (43.3)	11 (36.7)	21 (70)	11 (36.7)	78 (43.3)
	Average	0 (0)	8 (26.7)	2 (6.7)	15 (50)	1 (3.3)	14 (46.7)	40 (22.2)
	Poor	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	4 (13.3)	4 (2.2)
ı	T 11		1	AURANT FA		0 (0)	0 (0)	11 (6.1)
	Excellent	4 (13.3)	0 (0)	6 (20)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	11 (6.1)
Varieties and	Very good	21 (70)	2 (6.7)	8 (26.7)	1 (3.3)	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	34 (18.9)
number	Good	5 (16.7)	14 (46.7)	11 (36.7)	15 (50)	16 (53.3)	8 (26.7)	69 (38.3)
	Average	0 (0)	14 (46.7)	5 (16.7)	13 (43.3)	11 (36.7)	17 (56.7)	60 (33.3)
	Poor	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	5 (16.7)	6 (3.3)
	Excellent	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (1.1)
	Very good	15 (50)	4 (13.3)	3 (10)	2 (6.7)	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	26 (14.4)
Quality of service	Good	14 (46.7)	15 (50)	19 (63.3)	12 (40)	17 (56.7)	9 (30)	86 (47.8)
	Average	0 (0)	11 (36.7)	8 (26.7)	15 (50)	11 (36.7)	16 (53.3)	61 (33.9)
	Poor	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	5 (16.7)	5 (2.8)
	Excellent	4 (13.3)	1 (3.3)	6 (20)	0 (0)	3 (10)	0 (0)	14 (7.8)
Worthiness of	Very good	21 (70)	7 (23.3)	14 (46.7)	17 (56.7)	21 (70)	0 (0)	80 (44.4)
money spent	Good	5 (16.7)	20 (66.7)	10 (33.3)	13 (43.3)	6 (20)	9 (30)	63 (35)
1 19 11	Average	0 (0)	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	20 (66.7)	22 (12.2)
	Poor	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	1 (0.6)
	Excellent	4 (13.3)	0 (0)	6 (20)	2 (6.7)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	13 (7.2)
	Very good	21 (70)	2 (6.7)	7 (23.3)	8 (26.7)	7 (23.3)	4 (13.3)	49 (27.2)
Accessibility	Good	5 (16.7)	15 (50)	17 (56.7)	16 (53.3)	19 (63.3)	16 (53.3)	88 (48.9)
	Average	0 (0)	13 (43.3)	0 (0)	4 (13.3)	3 (10)	10 (33.3)	30 (16.7)
	Poor							
			SHOPPING	FACILITIE	ES			
L	Excellent	5 (16.7)	0 (0)	7 (23.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	12 (6.74)
Varieties and	Very good	14 (46.7)	7 (23.3)	10 (33.3)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	32 (17.8)
number	Good	11 (36.7)	8 (26.7)	11 (36.7)	14 (46.7)	17 (56.7)	14 (46.7)	75 (4.79)
number	Average	0 (0)	15 (50)	2 (6.7)	16 (53.3)	12 (40)	16 (53.3)	61 (33.9)
	Poor	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
L	Excellent	4 (13.3)	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	7 (3.9)
Quality of	Very good	15 (50)	5 (16.7)	14 (46.7)	3 (10)	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	39 (21.7)
service	Good	11 (36.7)	15 (50)	12 (40)	19 (63.3)	17 (56.7)	5 (16.7)	79 (43.9)
Service	Average	0 (0)	9 (30)	2 (6.7)	7 (23.3)	11 (36.7)	25 (83.3)	54 (30)
	Poor	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.6)
	Excellent	7 (23.3)	2 (6.7)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	10 (5.6)
	Very good	14 (46.7)	8 (26.7)	7 (23.3)	7 (23.3)	4 (13.3)	3 (10)	43 (23.9)
Value for money	Good	9 (30)	17 (56.7)	19 (63.3)	20 (66.7)	22 (73.3)	21 (70)	108 (60)
	Average	0 (0)	3 (10)	3 (10)	3 (10)	3 (10)	6 (20)	18 (10)
	Poor	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	1 (0.6)
	Excellent	6 (20)	0 (0)	3 (10)	0 (0)	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	11 (6.1)
	17 1	16 (53.3)	0 (0)	6 (20)	2 (6.7)	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	26 (14.4)
-	Very good	10 (33.3)	0 (0)	0 (20)	(-,)			
Accessibility	Good Good	8 (26.7)	4 (13.3)	19 (63.3)	18 (60)	10 (33.3)	6 (20)	65 (36.1)
Accessibility				. /	· /			65 (36.1) 74 (41.1)

		ACC	OMMODA	TION FA	CILITIES	}		
	Excellent	19 (63.3)	0 (0)	3 (10)	0 (0)	3 (10)	0 (0)	25 (13.9)
	Very good	11 (36.7)	5 (16.7)	8 (26.7)	1 (3.3)	11 (36.7)	0 (0)	36 (20)
Varieties and	Good	0 (0)	14 (46.7)	15 (50)	19 (63.3)	14 (46.7)	16 (53.3)	78 (43.3)
number	Average	0 (0)	11 (36.7)	4 (13.3)	10 (33.3)	2 (6.7)	14 (46.7)	41 (22.0)
	Poor	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	41 (22.8)
	Excellent	17 (56.7)	5 (16.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	23 (12.8)
Quality of	Very good	13 (43.3)	10 (33.3)	12 (40)	2 (6.7)	5 (16.7)	0 (0)	42 (23.3)
service	Good	0 (0)	12 (40)	17 (56.7)	16 (53.3)	17 (56.7)	12 (40)	74 (41.1)
Service	Average	0 (0)	3 (10)	1 (3.3)	12 (40)	7 (23.3)	18 (60)	41 (22.8)
	Poor	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	Excellent	20 (66.7)	15 (50)	9 (30)	14 (46.7)	18 (60)	0 (0)	76 (42.2)
	Very good	10 (33.3)	13 (43.3)	18 (60)	15 (50)	11 (36.7)	0 (0)	67 (37.2)
Value for money		0 (0)	1 (3.3)	2 (6.7)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	17 (56.7)	21 (11.7)
	Average	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	13 (43.3)	16 (8.9)
	Poor	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	Excellent	18 (60)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	19 (10.6)
Accessibility	Very good Good	12 (40)	1 (3.3)	6 (20)	0 (0)	9 (30)	0 (0) 7 (23.3)	28 (15.6)
Accessibility			15 (50)	8 (26.7)	16 (53.3)	18 (60) 3 (10)	` /	69 (38.3)
	Average Poor	0 (0)	14 (46.7)	8 (20.7)	10 (33.3)	3 (10)	23 (76.7)	64 (35.6)
	F001	CHIDANG	E IN AND A	DOLIND TH	E DECEDIAT	HON		
1	Excellent		0 (0)	0 (0)	E DESTINAT 0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)
	Very good	0 (0) 3 (10)	0 (0)			0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Road signs	Good	21 (70)	2 (6.7)	3 (10) 15 (50)	1 (3.3)	2 (6.7) 5 (16.7)	3 (10) 6 (20)	12 (6.7) 59 (32.8)
Road signs	Average	5 (16.7)	17 (56.7)	12 (40)	16 (53.3)	16 (53.3)	21 (70)	87 (48.3)
	Poor	1 (3.3)	11 (36.7)	0 (0)	3 (10)	7 (23.3)	0(0)	22 (12.2)
	Excellent	0 (0)	0 (0)	0(0)	0(0)	0 (0)	0(0)	0 (0)
	Very good	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	0(0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.6)
Pedestrian	Good	12 (40)	1 (3.3)	8 (26.7)	4 (13.3)	1 (3.3)	0(0)	26 (14.4)
signs	Average	17 (56.7)	10 (33.3)	15 (50)	10 (33.3)	11 (36.7)	20 (66.7)	83 (46.1)
	Poor	0 (0)	19 (63.3)	7 (23.3)	16 (53.3)	18 (60)	10 (33.3)	70 (38.9)
	Excellent	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Display maps	Very good	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (10)	5 (2.8)
and information	Good	6 (20)	1 (3.3)	15 (50)	0 (0)	2 (6.7)	1 (3.3)	25 (13.9)
boards	Average	18 (60)	21 (70)	15 (50)	17 (56.7)	18 (60)	17 (56.7)	106 (58.9)
boards	Poor	4 (13.3)	8 (26.7)	0 (0)	13 (43.3)	10 (33.3)	9 (30)	44 (24.4)
			PARKIN	G FACILIT	IES			
	Excellent	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	0(0)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	2 (1.1)
	Very good	16 (53.3)	17 (56.7)	11 (36.7)	0(0)	11 (36.7)	0 (0)	55 (30.6)
Ease of parking	Good	8 (26.7)	9 (30)	16 (53.3)	9 (30)	12 (40)	16 (53.3)	70 (38.9)
7 8	Average	4 (13.3)	3 (10)	3 (10)	20 (66.7)	5 (16.7)	14 (46.7)	49 (27.2)
	Poor	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	4 (2.2)
	Excellent	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	7 (23.3)	10 (5.6)
	Very good	17 (56.7)	20 (66.7)	16 (53.3)	13 (43.3)	15 (50)	22 (73.3)	103 (57.2)
Cost of parking	Good	11 (36.7)	10 (33.3)	14 (46.7)	15 (50)	14 (46.7)	0 (0)	64 (35.6)
	Average	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	3 (1.7)
	Poor							
		·	TOILET	FACILITI	ES		·	
	Excellent	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	Very good	6 (20)	0 (0)	5 (16.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	11 (6.1)
Availability	Good	6 (20)	0 (0)	17 (56.7)	12 (40)	4 (13.3)	0 (0)	39 (21.7)
21 + 41140111ty	Average	17 (56.7)	23 (76.7)	8 (26.7)	18 (60)	22 (73.3)	9 (30)	97 (53.9)
			7 (23.3)		` '			
Claonlinass	Poor	1 (3.3)	` ′	0 (0)	0 (0)	4 (13.3)	21 (70)	33 (18.3)
Cleanliness	Excellent	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)

	V	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	Very good	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	Good Average	13 (43.3) 11 (36.7)	0 (0)	10 (33.3)	9 (30)	16 (53.3) 14 (46.7)	0 (0)	48 (26.7) 92 (51.1)
	Poor	6 (20)	, ,		` /		· /	40 (22.2)
	Excellent	0 (0)	7 (23.3)	0 (0)	7 (23.3)	0 (0)	10 (33.3) 0 (0)	0 (0)
	Very good	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Accessibility	Good	9 (30)	2 (6.7)	7 (23.3)	0 (0)	9 (30)	0 (0)	27 (15)
Accessionity	Average	21 (70)	19 (63.3)	22 (73.3)	12 (40)	15 (50)	16 (53.3)	105 (58.3)
	Poor	0 (0)	9 (30)	1 (3.3)	18 (60)		14 (46.7)	48 (26.7)
	1 001	\ /		`	/	6 (20)	14 (40.7)	48 (20.7)
	- II		RANSPORT			0 (0)	0 (0)	1 0 (0)
	Excellent	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Public	Very good	14 (46.7)	0 (0)	7 (23.3)	5 (16.7)	2 (6.7)	8 (26.7)	36 (20)
transport	Good	10 (33.3)	7 (23.3)	14 (46.7)	13 (43.3)	13 (43.3)	18 (60)	75 (41.7)
•	Average	6 (20)	23 (76.7)	9 (30)	12 (40)	15 (50)	4 (13.3)	69 (38.3)
	Poor	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	Excellent	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.6)
	Very good	7 (23.3)	0 (0)	2 (6.7)	1 (3.3)	6 (20)	0 (0)	16 (8.9)
Car rentals	Good	15 (50)	10 (33.3)	16 (53.3)	12 (40)	12 (40)	9 (30)	74 (41.1)
	Average	7 (23.3)	20 (66.7)	12 (40)	17 (56.7)	12 (40)	21 (70)	89 (49.4)
	Poor	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	Excellent	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	Very good	4 (13.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	6 (3.3)
Auto rickshaws	Good	20 (66.7)	5 (16.7)	25 (83.3)	10 (33.3)	11 (36.7)	8 (26.7)	79 (43.9)
	Average	6 (20)	19 (63.3)	5 (16.7)	18 (60)	19 (63.3)	22 (73.3)	89 (49.4)
	Poor	0 (0)	6 (20)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	6 (3.3)
	Excellent	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
C 1''' C	Very good	4 (13.3)	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	6 (20)	0 (0)	12 (6.7)
Condition of roads and	Good	20 (66.7)	14 (46.7)	12 (40)	14 (46.7)	18 (60)	8 (26.7)	86 (47.8)
footpaths	Average	6 (20)	15 (50)	14 (46.7)	15 (50)	6 (20)	22 (73.3)	81 (45)
Tootputiis	Poor	0 (20)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	0 (20)	0 (0)	1 (0.6)
	Excellent	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Cleanliness and	Very good	3 (10)	1 (3.3)	14 (46.7)	2 (6.7)	8 (26.7)	0 (0)	28 (15.6)
general	Good	22 (73.3)	16 (53.3)	10 (33.3)	11 (36.7)	13 (43.3)	15 (50)	87 (48.3)
hygiene	Average	5 (16.7)	13 (43.3)	6 (20)	17 (56.7)	9 (30)	15 (50)	65 (36.1)
78 -	Poor	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0(0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	Excellent	19 (63.3)	12 (40)	15 (50)	0 (0)	5 (16.7)	0 (0)	51 (28.3)
	Very good	10 (33.3)	18 (60)	6 (20)	10 (33.3)	16 (53.3)	5 (16.7)	65 (36.1)
Picnic sites	Good	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	14 (46.7)	20 (66.7)	8 (26.7)	25 (83.3)	68 (37.8)
Tiente sites	Average	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	1 (0.6)
	Poor	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	Excellent	5 (16.7)	7 (23.3)	12 (40)	5 (16.7)	11 (36.7)	0 (0)	40 (22.2)
	Very good	22 (73.3)	20 (66.7)	16 (53.3)	22 (73.3)	19 (63.3)	8 (26.7)	107 (59.4)
Cuisine	Good	3 (10)	3 (10)	2 (6.7)	3 (10)	0 (0)	19 (63.3)	30 (16.7)
	Average	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (10)	3 (1.7)
	Poor	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
			` '				. • (•)	. • (•)
		OURIST INI					0 (0)	2 (1.1)
	Excellent	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	2 (1.1)
Welcome	Very good	14 (46.7)	4 (13.3)	8 (26.7)	0 (0)	4 (13.3)	2 (6.7)	32 (17.8)
	Good	16 (53.3)	8 (26.7)	14 (46.7)	3 (10)	8 (26.7)	10 (33.3)	59 (32.8)
	Average	0 (0)	10 (33.3)	7 (23.3)	22 (73.3)	17 (56.7)	16 (53.3)	72 (40)

	Poor	0 (0)	8 (26.7)	0 (0)	5 (16.70	0 (0)	2 (6.7)	15 (8.3)
	Excellent	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
0 1 6	Very good	10 (33.3)	0 (0)	9 (30)	0 (0)	3 (10)	0 (0)	22 (12.2)
Speed of service	Good	13 (43.3)	8 (26.7)	11 (36.7)	9 (30)	12 (40)	7 (23.3)	60 (33.3)
Scrvice	Average	7 (23.3)	18 (60)	10 (33.3)	15 (50)	11 (36.7)	18 (60)	79 (43.9)
	Poor	0 (0)	4 (13.3)	0 (0)	6 (20)	4 (13.3)	5 (16.7)	19 (10.6)
	Excellent	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Helpfulness of	Very good	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (1.1)
information	Good	17 (56.7)	5 (16.7)	15 (50)	3 (10)	6 (20)	1 (3.3)	47 (26.1)
provided	Average	11 (36.7)	21 (70)	15 (50)	13 (43.3)	19 (63.3)	12 (40)	91 (50.6)
	Poor	0 (0)	4 (13.3)	0 (0)	14 (46.7)	5 (16.7)	17 (56.7)	40 (22.2)
	Excellent	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)		0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	Very good	2 (6.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (3.3)	1 (3.3)	0 (0)	4 (2.2)
Accessibility	Good	14 (46.7)	11 (36.7)	20 (66.7)	14 (46.7)	9 (30)	5 (16.7)	73 (40.6)
	Average	14 (46.7)	19 (63.3)	10 (33.3)	12 (40)	16 (53.3)	14 (46.7)	85 (47.2)
	Poor	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (10)	4 (13.3)	11 (36.7)	18 (10)
Provision of	Excellent	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
information,	Very good	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
services and	Good	16 (53.3)	2 (6.7)	9 (30)	4 (13.3)	12 (40)	1 (3.3)	44 (24.4)
facilities for	Average	11 (36.7)	5 (16.7)	21 (70)	12 (40)	10 (33.3)	12 (40)	71 (39.4)
disabled people	Poor	3 (10)	23 (76.7)	0 (0)	14 (46.7)	8 (26.7)	17 (56.7)	65 (36.1)

Tourist satisfaction is measured based on ten factors, viz. : visitor attractions, hotels and restaurant facilities, shopping facilities, accommodation facilities, guidance in and around the destination, parking facilities, toilet facilities, transportation facilities, quality of the destination, and tourist information and additional services offered. The factors visitor attractions, hotels and restaurant facilities, shopping facilities and accommodation facilities are rated by the tourists, taking into consideration the following four common aspects, viz, 'variety and number', 'quality of service', 'worthiness of money spent' and 'accessibility'. The remaining six factors are rated by choosing appropriate and separate measures.

Table 4.54 shows that for the factor visitor attraction, 'Kumarakom' is rated first by the tourists in respect of all the four aspects considered (80%, 90%, 76.7% and 73.4% respectively). 'Kumbalangi' and 'Thenmala' have second rank for two aspects each. In respect of the aspects 'variety and number of tourism products' (73.3%) and 'quality of service' (66.6%), 'Kumbalangi' is rated second, while for the aspects 'worthiness of money spent' (66.7%) and 'accessibility' (50%), Thenmala is rated second. For the aspect 'varieties and number of tourism products', Pulpally has the lowest rating (10%), while for the other three aspects, 'Aranumula' has the lowest rating (10%, 0% and 3.3% respectively).

For the factor 'hotels and restaurants', 'Kumarakom' is rated first by the tourists in respect of all the four aspects considered (83.3%, 53.3%, 83.3% and 83.3% respectively). 'Thenmala' is rated second for the aspects, 'varieties and numbers' (46.6%) and 'accessibility' (43.3%). 'Kumbalangi' is rated second for the aspect 'worthiness of money spent' (80%) and 'Pulpally' is rated second for the aspect 'quality of service'. The lowest rating for all the aspects is for 'Aranmula' (0%, 0%, 0% and 13.3% respectively).

For the factor 'shopping facilities', 'Kumarakom' is rated first by the tourists in respect of all the four aspects considered (63.3%, 63.3%, 70% and 73.3% respectively). 'Thenmala' is rated second for the aspects, 'varieties and numbers' (56.6%) and 'quality of service' (50%). 'Pulpally' is rated second for the factor, 'worthiness of money spent' (33.4%) and 'Kumbalangi' is rated second for the factor, 'accessibility' (13.4%). The lowest rating for all the aspects is for 'Aranmula' (0%, 0%, 10% and 0% respectively).

For the factor 'accommodation facilities', 'Kumarakom' is rated first by the tourists in respect of all the four aspects considered (100% for all aspects). 'Kumbalangi' is rated second for the aspects, 'varieties and numbers' (46.7%), 'worthiness of money spent' (96.7%) and 'accessibility' (30%). 'Pulpally' is rated second for the aspect, 'quality of service' (50%) and Njarakkal is second for the aspect, 'worthiness of money spent' (96.7%).

For the factor 'guidance in and around the destination', 'Kumarakom' is rated first by the tourists in respect of the aspects, 'road signs' (80%) and 'pedestrian signs' (43.3%) and 'Thenmala' is rated first for the aspect, 'display maps and information boards' (50%).

For the factor 'parking facilities', both 'Kumarakom' and 'Pulpally' are rated first for the aspect, 'ease of parking' (56.7%), 'Kumbalangi', has the second rating and both 'Njarakkal' and 'Aranmula' (0%) have the lowest rating. For the aspect 'cost of parking', 'Aranmula' (96.6%), 'Pulpally' (66.7%) and 'Njarakkal' (46.6%) have the first, second and lowest ratings respectively.

For the factor toilet facilities, 'Kumarakom' is rated first for the aspects 'availability' and 'cleanliness' (20%, 43.3% respectively) and 'Thenmala' is rated second (16.7% and 33.3% respectively). No village is rated by the tourists as 'excellent/very good' for the

aspect 'accessibility'. 'Pulpally', 'Njarakkal', 'Kumbalangi' and 'Aranmula' have the lowest rating (0%) for all the three aspects considered.

For the factor transportation facilities, 'Kumarakom' is rated first by the tourists in respect of all the three aspects considered (46.7%, 26.6% and 13% respectively). For the aspect 'public transport', 'Aranmula' (26.7%) has the second rating and 'Pulpally' (0%) has the lowest rating. For the aspect 'car rentals', 'Kumbalangi' (20%) has the second rating and 'Pulpally' as well as 'Aranmula' (0%) have the lowest rating. For the aspect 'autorickshaws', 'Thenmala' (6.7%) has the second rating and 'Pulpally', 'Njarakkal', 'Kumbalangi' and 'Aranmula' (0% each) have the lowest rating.

For the factor 'quality of the destination', in respect of the aspect 'condition of roads and foot paths', 'Kumbalangi' (20%), 'Kumarakom' (13.3%) and 'Aranmula' (0%) have the first, second and lowest ratings respectively. In respect of the aspect 'general hygiene and cleanliness', 'Thenmala' (46.7%), 'Kumbalangi' (26. 7%) and 'Aranmula' (0%) have the first, second and lowest ratings respectively. In respect of the aspect 'picnic sites', 'Kumarakom' (63.3%), 'Thenmala' (50%) and both 'Njarakkal' and 'Aranmula' (0%) have the first, second and lowest ratings respectively. In respect of the aspect 'cuisine', 'Kumbalangi' (100%), 'Thenmala' (93.3%) and 'Aranmula' (26.7%) have the first, second and lowest ratings respectively.

For the factor tourist information and additional services, 'Kumarakom' is rated first by the tourists in respect of the first four aspects considered (46.7%, 33.3%, 7.7% and 6.7% respectively). 'Thenmala' is rated second for the aspects 'welcome' and 'speed of service' (30 % each). For the aspect 'accessibility', both 'Njarakkal' and 'Kumbalangi' villages (3.3%), have second position. None of the sample villages were rated as 'excellent/ very good' by the tourists for the aspect 'provision of information, services and facilities for people with disabilities'.

H₄: There exists a significant difference in the satisfaction level of tourists in the different types of tourism villages regarding the facilities available.

In the opinion of the respondents selected from the different types of tourism villages, they were satisfied regarding many of the facilities that were available in those villages (Table 4.54). Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness of Fit Test (K-S test) was used for testing the normality assumptions and P value (.06) greater than 0.05 indicates satisfaction of assumptions. Testing of the hypothesis was done by comparing the perception of the tourists selected from the different sample villages, about their satisfaction regarding different facilities that were available in those villages and it was done by using the one way Analysis of Variance.

In the one way Analysis of Variance, the F-value (2.469) is significant at 0.05 levels. Hence it denotes that there exists a significant difference in the satisfaction level of the tourists about the facilities that are available in the different villages under study. As there exists a significant difference between the perceptions of people in different villages, Duncan's Multiple Range tests (DMRT) was done to find out the villages in which the tourists have the same level of satisfaction.

Table 4.55: Comparison of satisfaction of tourists about the facilities in different tourism villages

Villages	Mean	Std.Deviation	
Nature-tourism (Kumarakom)	87.83ª	6.55	
Nature-tourism (Njarakkal)	85.09 ^{ab}	8.72	
Eco-tourism (Thenmala)	86.86ª	5.78	
Eco-tourism (Pulpally)	85.26 ^{ab}	8.13	
ETP (Kumbalangi)	86.00 ^{ab}	6.42	
ETP (Aranmula)	83.66 ^b	10.16	
F-value	2.469*		
P-value	0.032		

Means having same letter as superscript are homogeneous

Respondents in 'Kumarakom' and 'Thenmala' have the same letter 'a' as superscript. So, statistically there is no significant difference between the satisfaction of tourists in 'Kumarakom' and 'Thenmala' villages. But the mean values show that 'Kumarakom' and 'Thenmala' enjoy the first and second positions regarding tourist satisfaction.

^{*} Significant at 0.05 levels

Statistically, there is no significant difference in the satisfaction of the tourists in 'Pulpally', 'Njarakkal', 'Kumbalangi' and 'Aranmula' villages. But the mean values show that 'Kumbalangi', 'Pulpally', 'Njarakkal' and 'Aranmula' have the third, fourth, fifth and sixth positions respectively.

 H_{4a} : There exists a significant difference in the satisfaction level of the tourists, based on their age, in the different types of tourism villages, regarding the facilities available.

The satisfaction of the tourists about the facilities in the different types of tourism villages in Kerala is analysed to understand whether their perception about the tourism facilities in the villages differs according to the age group of tourists. The results are shown in Table 4.56.

Table 4.56: Overall satisfaction of the tourists vs. age

Category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
< 20	21	40.25	5.89
20-30	53	42.08	5.66
30-40	77	42.27	5.69
40-50	21	43.94	6.58
50-60	4	43.53	8.24
> 60	4	40.29	5.87
	$F-value = 0.889^{ns}$	s p-value = 0.491	

ns: non significant at 0.05 levels

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness of Fit Test (K-S test) was used for testing the normality assumptions and P value (.07) greater than 0.05 indicates satisfaction of assumptions. In the one way Analysis of Variance, the F-value (0.889) is not significant at 0.05 levels. Hence, it denotes that there was no significant difference among the perceptions of tourists in the different age groups about their satisfaction in the different villages under study. In other words, the satisfaction of the tourists about the facilities in the villages does not differ much based on their age and the hypothesis is rejected.

 H_{4b} : There exists a significant difference in the satisfaction level of the tourists, based on their gender, in the different types of tourism villages, regarding the facilities available.

The satisfaction of the tourists about the facilities in the different types of tourism villages in Kerala is analysed to understand whether their perception about the tourism facilities in the villages differs according to their gender. The results are shown in Table 4.57.

Table 4.57: Overall satisfaction of the tourists vs. gender

Category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation				
Male	136	42.21	5.77				
Female 44 41.95 6.24							
t -value = 0.229^{ns} p-value = 0.819							

ns: non significant at 0.05 levels

Using the independent T test, it is found that the t-value 0.229 is not significant at 0.05 levels. Hence it denotes that there was no significant difference between the perceptions of male tourists and female tourists regarding their level of satisfaction about the facilities in the villages under study and the hypothesis is rejected.

 H_{4c} : There exists a significant difference in the satisfaction level of the tourists, based on their nationality, in the different types of tourism villages, regarding the facilities available.

The satisfaction of the tourists about the facilities in different tourism villages in Kerala is analysed to understand whether their perception about the tourism facilities in the villages differs according to their nationality. The results are shown in Table 4.58.

Table 4.58: Overall satisfaction of the tourists vs. nationality

Category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation			
Foreign	57	42.45	5.72			
Domestic	123	41.85	6.03			
t -value = 0.621^{ns} p-value = 0.526						

ns: non significant at 0.05 levels

Using the independent T test, it is found that the t-value (0.621) is not significant at 0.05 levels. Hence, it denotes that there was no significant difference between the perceptions of foreign tourists and domestic tourists regarding their level of satisfaction about the facilities in the sample villages and the hypothesis is rejected.

 H_{4d} : There exists a significant difference in the satisfaction level of the tourists, based on their education, in the different types of tourism villages, regarding the facilities available.

The satisfaction of the tourists about the facilities in the different types of tourism villages in Kerala is analysed to understand whether their perception about the tourism facilities in the villages differs according to the education level of the tourists. The results are shown in Table 4.59.

Table 4.59: Overall satisfaction of the tourists vs. education

Category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation			
Below graduation	29	41.57	6.33			
Graduation	91	43.13	6.15			
Post graduation	33	42.30	5.53			
Others	27	40.57	5.91			
F-value = 0.889 ^{ns} p-value = 0.491						

ns: non significant at 0.05 levels

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness of Fit Test (K-S test) was used for testing the normality assumptions and P value (.06) greater than 0.05 which indicates satisfaction of assumptions was obtained. In the one way ANOVA, the F-value (0.889) is not significant at 0.05 levels. Hence it denotes that there was no significant difference among the perceptions of tourists who had different levels of education, regarding their level of satisfaction about the facilities in the sample villages and the hypothesis is rejected. In other words, the satisfaction of the tourists about the facilities in the villages does not differ much, based on their educational qualification.

 H_{4e} : There exists a significant difference in the satisfaction level of the tourists, based on their occupation, in the different types of tourism villages, regarding the facilities available.

The satisfaction of the tourists about the facilities in the different tourism villages in Kerala is analysed to understand whether their perception about the tourism facilities in the villages differs according to their occupation. The results are shown in Table 4.60.

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness of Fit Test (K-S test) was used for testing the normality assumptions and P value (.08) greater than 0.05 which indicates satisfaction of assumptions was obtained. In the one way ANOVA, the F-value (0.572) is not significant at 0.05 levels. Hence it denotes that there was no significant difference among the percpetions of tourists who belong to different categories of occupation, regarding their level of satisfaction about the facilities in the sample villages and the hypothesis is rejected. In other words, the satisfaction of the tourists about the facilities in the villages does not differ much, based on their occupation.

Table 4.60: Overall satisfaction of the tourists vs. occupations

Category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation			
Business	36	43.25	5.59			
Government/retired	26	43.18	4.61			
Private	24	41.88	5.69			
Professional	44	41.95	6.25			
Teaching	15	39.50	5.72			
Others	12	41.87	6.67			
Unemployed/Student	23	43.25	5.59			
F-value = 0.572^{ns} p-value = 0.752						

ns: non significant at 0.05 levels

4.8: Chapter conclusion

Tourism is a multidisciplinary activity that involves several industries and has a significant role in promoting growth, creating jobs and generating revenue for the government. The social contacts between the tourists and the local people may result in mutual appreciation, understanding, tolerance, awareness, learning, family bonding, respect, and liking. Tourism infrastructure in a region comprises different elements at the destinations and enables the visitor the usage of facilities like accommodation, gastronomy, transportation, retail networks and other services. Tourism infrastructure is an integral component of the tourist product of the region. The decision of a tourist to select a particular destination is basically influenced by its comparative advantage in terms of attractiveness over other competing destinations. The tourists are demanding and discriminating, while they decide on a tourism spot for enjoying their vacation. To keep pace with the changing tourist- needs and wants, the identification of the ways to improve the products in a region is highly inevitable.

This chapter is an attempt to analyse the satisfaction of the people in the villages in Kerala, regarding their economic and social development after involvement in tourism-related jobs, infrastructure developments in the village after the promotion of tourism in the village and also the satisfaction of the tourists about the different tourist facilities available in the tourism villages in Kerala.

DISCUSSION. RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Benefits of tourism to the local residents in the villages
- 5.3 Profile of the homestay owners
- 5.4 Profile of the tourists
- 5.5 Motivating factors for the tourists to visit different tourism villages
- 5.6 Role of tourism in the development of villages
- 5.7 Satisfaction of tourists about the facilities in tourism villages
- 5.8 Recommendations

5.1: Introduction

The study was executed to find out the contribution of tourism promotion in the villages in Kerala in the economic and the social developments of the local residents and the infrastructural development of the villages. The improvements that have taken place in the life of local people by the use of efficient resource-conscious activities centered around tourism and their potential to spread in a fair manner in the society were examined. Following are the results derived from the analysis of the feedback received from the three classes of respondents - various categories of tourism service providers, homestay owners and tourists in the six tourism villages in Kerala.

The findings of this study conform to the findings of the previous studies in a number of ways. Researchers like David (1999), MacCannell (1999), Pitcher et al. (1999), Vani (1999), Peter & Joanne (2000), Wunder (2000), Yiping (2000) and Eagles (2001) have found that tourism promotion in the villages contributed to the economic development of the local community significantly. Their findings are similar to the findings of the current study. Findings from the studies of Joy (2012) and Buton (1998) showed that involvement of women in rural tourism has opened up new job opportunities for them and has contributed significantly towards their economic development. This result is also similar to the finding of the current study. Telce and Schroenn (2006) and Sinclair (1998) have observed in their studies that tourism promotion in the villages has resulted in an

increase of income of the villagers and as a result they were able to purchase more number of household amenities. This finding is similar to that of present study and is able to highlight the potential effect of the tourism industry in creating jobs and promoting economic growth in the local community.

Findings from this study corroborate with studies which state that greening tourism can lead to the social development of the host communities (Mill & Morrison, 2006; Klytchnikova & Dorosh , 2009; Ludmilla & Alan (2002); Cohen, 1986; Andereck & Vogt, 2000 and Lee & Back 2003). Roche (1992) and Masudur (2010) have observed that through community participation, local people gain benefits from tourism taking place in their locality, develop positive local attitudes and conserve the local resources. This finding is similar to the finding of present study. Burns (1993) in his study concluded that tourism promotion resulted in community development and was capable to educate the local people and remove the stigma of charity, and involve them in decision-making. Nazneen (2014) in his study revealed that tourism initiatives in Sualkuchi played a vital role towards local participatory governance and self reliance in the local community. The results of these studies are also similar to the findings of present study.

Infrastructure forms an integral part of the tourism package. For instance, road infrastructure enhances accessibility of tourists to different parts of the destination country, while sound airport infrastructure ensures that tourists' experience a comfortable transition across different countries. Communication infrastructure allows quick and cheap communication between the origin and destination country as well as provides maximum information about the destination, thereby reducing uncertainty, fear and asymmetric information. Other infrastructure such as water and energy are also believed to result in more reliable services and thus enhance the attractiveness of the destination (Seetanah et al., 2011). Findings from this study give support to the findings of many studies that pointed that infrastructure base of a country is a potential determinant of the attractiveness of a tourism destination and active promotion of tourism resulted in the infrastructural development of a region (Inskeep, 1991; Menon, 1991; Sudheer, 1991; Frederick, 1992; Gregory, 1994; Kamalakshy, 1996; Antony, 1997; Gunn, 1988; Dwyer et al., 2000; Andrew, 2008 and Liedewij, 2013).

Findings of this study regarding factors that prompted the tourists to visit a tourism village are in tune with the findings of some previous studies. Chan (2009) in her study identified that a number of factors do impact on Chinese visitor travel choice and behaviour, such as safety and cleanliness. Eagles et al. (1992), in their case study on ecotourism in Kenya and Costa Rica, found that word of mouth reputation is a powerful factor that influences the tourists to select a particular area for their visit. Eagles and Elke (1994) observed that national parks, striking natural features, wildlife, interesting flora, specialised outdoor recreation service facilities, knowledgeable guides and service facilities are strong factors that are capable to attract the tourists. Vijayakumar (1995) has observed that the main factor that captivates the tourists to visit Kerala is the nature's beauty and eagerness to experience traditional hospitality. Burger (2000) identified that the strong factor that pulled the tourist to visit a tourism village was desire to enjoy nature's beauty and wildlife.

Findings that were observed in the study regarding factors affecting the satisfaction of tourists in a tourism village were similar to some studies there were conducted earlier. Otto & Neo (2000) showed that facilities for transportation, electricity, telecommunications, sanitation and health infrastructure influence the satisfaction of tourists to a great extent. Smith (1994) and Crouch & Ritchie (2000) have observed that facilities of transportation, water and power supply, use of computer technology and communications are visible and determining features that can enhance the visitors' trip experience.

5.2: Benefits of tourism to the local residents in the villages

- ❖ In the six tourism villages adopted for the study, the majority of the various categories of tourism service providers are in the '30-60' age group.
- Compared to the males, the percentage of females who are employed in different tourism-related jobs are found to be low in the six tourism villages preferred for the study.

- ❖ In the six tourism villages designated for the study, some respondents were working in tourism-related jobs, even before the inception of tourism promotion activities. The income level of such people showed good increase after tourism was actively promoted in their villages.
- ❖ In the six tourism villages, the scope of job opportunities for the skilled and the unskilled villagers has increased as a result of tourism.
- ❖ Tourism provides job opportunities for people with even a low level of education in the six tourism villages nominated for the study.
- ❖ In the six tourism villages marked for the study, some jobless people were able to find a source of income as a result of tourism promotion.
- ❖ Tourism requires significant human resources and plays a key role in providing a good source of income for the people in the six tourism villages. The income of the local people in the six tourism villages has increased, after they chose a tourism-related job in their village. Tourism service providers who fall in the high monthly income category Rs. '25,000-35,000' are found to be the highest in both 'Kumarakom' and Thenmala (32%), followed by 'Kumbalangi' (20%) and the lowest in 'Njarakkal' (12%).
- ❖ A comparison of the ten various categories of tourism service providers in the six tourism villages in Kerala is made based on their present occupation after the implementation of tourism promotional measures in their villages. It was observed that the percentage of the respondents whose occupation was 'agriculture' was the highest in 'Pulpally' (26%), followed by 'Kumarakom' and 'Njarakkal' (18% each) and the lowest in 'Aranmula' (10%).
- ❖ The percentage of respondents whose occupation was 'artisan' was the highest in 'Aranmula' (12%), followed by 'Kumarakom' (10%) and the lowest in 'Njarakkal' (2%). The percentage of respondents whose occupation was 'fishing' was the highest in 'Njarakkal' (30%), followed by 'Kumbalangi' (14%) and the lowest in 'Pulpally' (2%).
- ❖ The percentage of respondents whose occupation was 'traditional art performance' was the highest in 'Kumarakom' (10%), followed by 'Aranmula'

- (8%) and the lowest in 'Njarakkal' (2%). The percentage of respondents whose occupation was 'hotel business' was the highest in 'Kumarakom' (20%), followed by 'Pulpally' and 'Kumbalangi' (16% each) and the lowest in 'Njarakkal' (10%).
- ❖ The percentage of respondents whose occupation was 'tourist guide' was the highest in 'Kumarakom' and 'Thenmala' (6% each), followed by 'Kumbalangi' (4%) and the lowest in 'Njarakkal' and 'Pulpally' (0%). The percentage of respondents whose occupation was 'petty shops' was the highest in 'Pulpally' (16%), followed by 'Njarakkal' and 'Thenmala' (14% each) and the lowest in 'Kumarakom' (6%).
- ❖ The percentage of respondents whose occupation was 'sale of local products and handicrafts' was the highest in 'Aranmula' (20%), followed by 'Pulpally' (12%) and the lowest in 'Kumarakom' and 'Njarakkal' (4% each). The percentage of respondents whose occupation was 'traditional cuisine provider' was the highest in 'Kumbalangi' (12%), followed by 'Njarakkal' and 'Pulpally' (8% each) and the lowest in 'Kumarakom', 'Thenmala' and 'Aranmula' (6% each).
- ❖ The percentage of respondents whose occupation was 'transportation' was the highest in 'Thenmala' (14%), followed by 'Kumarakom' and 'Njarakkal' (12% each) and the lowest in 'Pulpally' (8%).
- The sales in the hotels, handicraft shops, petty shops and of traditional cuisine providers in the villages under study, have increased as a result of tourism.
- ❖ In most of the tourism villages considered for the study, traditional art performers get good income from the tourists who are ardent lovers of art forms.
- ❖ The study reveals that considerable increase can be noticed in the income of artisans in the sample villages due to the purchase of handcraft items by the tourists.
- ❖ It is seen that promotion of tourism has increased the demand for enhanced transportation in the villages under study and resultantly many local people were able to find their livelihood by serving as transportation providers.

- ❖ The study discloses that the saving habit of majority of the respondents in the six sample villages has increased, after they began to work under various categories of tourism-related jobs, including the running of homestays.
- ❖ It can be noticed that the majority of the respondents in the villages chosen for the study were able to purchase more house hold appliances after they began to work under various categories of tourism-related jobs including the running of homestays.
- ❖ In the case of ten various categories of tourism service providers, the percentage increase of 'own house' is the highest in 'Kumarakom' (16%), followed by 'Thenmala' (14%) and the lowest in 'Aranmula' (6%).
- ❖ It can be seen that many respondents were able to modify their type of 'house roofing' and modify their houses, after they began to work under various categories of tourism-related jobs, including the running of homestays in the villages under study. In the case of ten various categories of tourism service providers, the percentage increase of 'concrete house' is the highest in both 'Kumarakom' and 'Thenmala' (20% each), followed by 'Kumbalangi' (16%) and the lowest in 'Aranmula' (12%).
- ❖ Good progress can be noticed in the case of sanitation facilities in the houses of the respondents in the villages considered for the study after they began to work under various categories of tourism-related jobs, including the running of homestays.
- ❖ The study reveals that a shift towards environmentally sound and beneficial means of waste disposal is noticed in the case of many respondents in the villages under study, after they began to work under various categories of tourism-related jobs, including the running of homestays. In the case of ten various categories of tourism service providers, the percentage of households that show increase in using 'solid compost' for waste disposal is the highest in 'Kumbalangi' (62%), followed by 'Kumarakom' (28%) and the lowest in 'Aranmula' (10%).
- ❖ All respondents, except a meager percentage of them who were working under various categories of tourism-related jobs in 'Pulpally' (6%) and 'Aranmula'

(4%) had electricity connection in their house prior to the promotion of tourism. But, presently, after the active promotion of tourism, the entire respondents in the six different tourism villages have electrical power supply in their houses.

5. 3: Profile of the homestay owners

- ❖ The majority of the homestay owners in the sample villages belong to '30-60' age group.
- ❖ The percentage of male homestay owners was more than three-fold than that of the female homestay owners in the six tourism villages under study.
- ❖ Comparatively a low percentage of professionally qualified people was found to run the homestays in the sample villages.
- ❖ The educational level of the homestay owners was found to have no significant role in the successful running of a homestay in the sample villages.
- ❖ Among the six villages selected for the study, a high percentage of 'high profile' homestays accredited with 'diamond', 'gold' and 'silver' certifications was found only in 'Kumarakom', 'Thenmala' and 'Kumbalangi'. Percentage of homestays in the 'diamond' (15%), 'gold' (15%) and 'silver' (20%) categories was the highest in 'Kumarakom'. In 'Kumbalangi', the percentage of homestays in diamond, gold and silver categories was 10%, 15% and 20% respectively and in 'Thenmala' 10%, 10% and 15% respectively.
- ❖ In the six tourism villages adopted for the study, many people who were previously unemployed were found to get a good income after the starting of homestays. The income of the people in the six tourism villages shows a considerable increase, after the running of homestays. The homestay owners, who fall in the high monthly income category of Rs. '30,000-35,000', were found to be the highest in 'Kumarakom' (15%), followed by 'Thenmala' and 'Kumbalangi' (5% each) and was nil (0%) in the other three villages.
- ❖ The percentage increase of 'own houses' for homestay owners is the highest in 'Kumarakom' (30%), followed by 'Thenmala' (25%) and the lowest in 'Njarakkal' (10%).

- ❖ It can be seen that the highest percentage increase of the present 'house- roofing' status of the homestay owners to 'concrete houses' is seen in 'Kumarakom' (20%), followed by both 'Thenmala' and 'Kumbalangi' (15% each) and the lowest in 'Njarakkal' (10%).
- ❖ The study reveals that the percentage of households that show an increase in using 'solid compost' for waste disposal is the highest in 'Kumbalangi' (70%), followed by 'Kumarakom' (30%) and the lowest in 'Njarakkal' (10%).

5. 4: Profile of the tourists

- ❖ The majority of the tourists in the six tourism villages designated for the study belong to '20-40' age group.
- ❖ Among the six tourism villages, tourists within '50-60' age group were found in 'Thenmala' (6.7%), 'Kumarakom' (3.3%) and 'Aranmula' (3.3%) only.
- ❖ Among the sample villages, tourists in '> 60' age group were found in 'Kumarakom' and 'Thenmala' (6.7%) only.
- ❖ The percentage of female tourists was found to be comparatively lower than that of males in the villages under study. The highest percentage of female tourists was found in 'Kumarakom', 'Njarakkal' and 'Aranmula' (30% each) and the lowest in 'Pulpally' (13.3%).
- ❖ The percentage of foreign tourists is the highest in 'Kumarakom' (56.7%), followed by 'Thenmala' (43.3%), and the lowest in 'Njarakkal' (13.3%).
- ❖ Considering the nationality of foreign tourists who visited the sample villages, the percentage of tourists from the 'UK' was found to be the highest.
- ❖ The tourists hailing from 'France' and the 'USA' also showed great interest to visit the different tourism villages in Kerala.
- ❖ A very low percentage of tourists from other countries was found in the six tourism villages considered for the study.
- The majority of the tourists visiting the different tourism villages in Kerala are highly educated. In the sample villages, the percentage of respondents whose

- educational qualification is 'graduation'/ 'post-graduation' is the highest in 'Kumarakom' (76. 6%), followed by 'Thenmala' and 'Kumbalangi' (70% each) and the lowest in 'Pulpally' (63.3%).
- ❖ In the six tourism villages under study, the majority of the tourists are 'professionals', with the highest in 'Thenmala' (30%), followed by 'Kumarakom' and 'Aranmula' (26.7% each) and the lowest in 'Pulpally' and 'Njarakkal' (20% each). The second highest category of tourists belong to the 'business' class, with the highest percentage in 'Kumarakom' and 'Aranmula' (23.3% each), followed by 'Thenmala' and 'Kumbalangi' (20% each) and the lowest in 'Pulpally' and 'Njarakkal' (16.7% each).
- ❖ The highest percentage of foreign tourists who belonged to the high monthly income categories \$ '10,000 -13,000' and \$ '>13,000' were seen in 'Kumarakom' (88.2%), followed by 'Thenmala' (84.6%) and the lowest in 'Njarakkal' (25%).
- ❖ The highest percentage of the domestic tourists who belonged to the high monthly income categories Rs. '50,000-60,000' and Rs. '> 60,000' are seen in 'Kumarakom' (61.6%), followed by 'Thenmala' (47%) and the lowest in 'Njarakkal' (0%).

5. 5: Motivating factors for the tourists to visit different tourism villages

A comparison of the feedback from the tourists in the six tourism villages regarding the reasons that had a major influence on them while they selected a tourism village destination in Kerala showed the following results.

- ❖ The highest percentage of tourists who selected the tourism village owing to 'recommendation by friends' was in 'Thenmala' (16.7%), followed by 'Kumarakom' (12.3%) and was low in 'Njarakkal', 'Pupally' and 'Aranmula' (6.7% each).
- ❖ The highest percentage of tourists who selected the tourism village by virtue of 'previous experience' was in 'Kumarakom', 'Thenmala' and 'Pulpally' (6.7% each), followed by 'Kumbalangi' and 'Aranmula' (3.3% each) and was the lowest in 'Njarakkal' (0%).

- The highest percentage of tourists who selected the tourism village as a result of 'passing through/ on the way to another location' was in 'Aranmula' (16.7%), followed by 'Pulpally' and 'Kumbalangi' (13.3% each) and was the lowest in 'Kumarakom' and 'Thenmala' (6.7% each).
- The highest percentage of tourists who selected the tourism village in view of 'eagerness to experience traditional hospitality' was in 'Njarakkal', 'Kumbalangi' and 'Aranmula' (6.7% each) and was the lowest in 'Kumarakom' and 'Thenmala' (0% each).
- ❖ The highest percentage of tourists who selected the tourism village by virtue of 'advertisements in the media about the village' was in 'Kumarakom' (16.7%) and the lowest in 'Njarakkal' (3.3%).
- The highest percentage of tourists who selected the tourism village in the interest of 'desire to explore somewhere new' was in 'Pulpally' (20%) and the lowest in 'Kumarakom' and 'Aranmula' (3.3% each).
- The highest percentage of tourists who selected the tourism village considering the 'recommendations from tourist information centers' was in 'Pulpally' (16.7%) and was the lowest in 'Njarakkal' (0%).
- ❖ The highest percentage of tourists who selected the tourism village as a result of 'inspiration from the narrations of tourist guide' was in 'Kumarakom', 'Thenmala', 'Kumbalangi' and 'Aranmula' (6.7% each) and the lowest in 'Pulpally' (0%).
- The highest percentage of tourists who selected the tourism village for the sake of 'holidaying' was in 'Njarakkal' (13.3%) and was nil in 'Kumarakom', 'Thenmala' and 'Aranmula' (0% each).
- The highest percentage of tourists who selected the tourism village on the grounds 'to experience nature's beauty' was in 'Njarakkal' and 'Aranmula' (10% each) and was low in 'Kumarakom', 'Thenmala', 'Pulpally' and 'Kumbalangi' (6.7% each).

- ❖ The highest percentage of tourists who selected the tourism village owing to 'desire to experience village life' was in 'Aranmula' (10%) and was nil in 'Kumarakom', 'Thenmala' and 'Pulpally' (0% each).
- ❖ The highest percentage of tourists who selected the tourism village by reason of 'came under package tour' was in 'Njarakkal', 'Kumbalangi' and 'Aranmula' (10% each) and was the lowest in 'Pulpally' (0%).
- ❖ The highest percentage of tourists who selected the tourism village in the interest of 'wildlife' was in 'Thenmala' (13.3%) and was low in 'Njarakkal', 'Pulpally', 'Kumbalangi' and 'Aranmula' (0% each).

5. 6: Role of alternative tourism in the development of villages

The role of alternative tourism in the development of villages in Kerala was measured based on three parameters-economic and social developments of the people in the tourism villages and infrastructural development of the tourism villages. Three hypotheses were formed and subjected to statistical analysis using one way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Duncan's Multiple Range Test (DMRT).

5. 6. 1: Economic development after promotion of tourism in the villages

The analysis of respondents **based on their type of tourism village** shows that the F-value (8.545) is significant at 0.01 levels, which shows that there is a significant difference in the level of economic development of the people in the six different tourism villages. The mean values in the six villages are 'Kumbalangi' 89.35, 'Kumarakom'87.40, 'Thenmala' 86.86, 'Njarakkal' 85.43, 'Aranmula' 84.88 and 'Pulpally' 82.86. Hence it can be concluded that, respondents in the ETP top-category village *Kumbalangy*, the nature-tourism top-category village *Kumarakom*, the eco-tourism top-category village *Thenmala*, the nature-tourism developing-category village *Njarakkal*, the ETP developing-category village *Pulpally* have the first, second, third, fourth, fifth and sixth positions respectively regarding the perception on economic development as a result of tourism promotional activities in their villages.

- ❖ In the case of age group-wise analysis of respondents, the F value (5.461) is significant at 0.01 levels, which indicates that there is a significant difference in the perceptions of economic development among people in the villages under study, according to their age. The mean values for the five age groups are '30-40' 90.30, '40-50' 88.73, '50-60' 86.06, '> 60' 85.63 and '< 30' 84.88. Hence the study suggested that respondents in the age groups '30-40', '40-50', '50-60', '> 60' and '< 30' have the first, second, third, fourth and fifth positions respectively regarding the perception on economic development.
- The gender-wise analysis of the respondents shows that F value (3.105) is significant at 0.01 levels, which reveals that there is a significant difference between the perception of economic development by the males and the females in the tourism villages. The mean values for females 88.29 and males 85.66 suggest that the females have higher perception than the males on the economic development, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.
- The analysis of the respondents **based on their present occupation** shows that F value (3.044) is significant at 0.01 levels, which depicts that there is a significant difference in the perceptions of economic development among the people who serve as various categories of tourism service providers in the tourism villages. Mean values for the various occupations are 'artisan' 91.01, 'homestay' 90.48, 'traditional cuisine/catering' 89.78, 'petty shops' 88.81, 'hotel' 85.45, 'agriculture' 85.30, 'transportation' 85.07, 'fishing' 84.17, 'sale of local products and handicrafts' 83.92 and 'traditional art performance/tourist guide' 82.81. The results suggest that respondents in the occupation categories 'artisan', 'homestay', 'traditional cuisine/catering', 'petty shops', 'hotel', 'agriculture', 'transportation', 'fishing', 'sale of local products and handicrafts' and 'traditional art performance/tourist guide' occupy the first, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth and tenth positions respectively regarding the perception on economic development.
- **Education-wise analysis** of respondents reveals that the F value (3.044) is significant at 0.01 levels, which shows that there is a significant difference in the perceptions of economic development among the people in tourism villages, who

have different educational backgrounds. Mean values for the various educational categories are 'professional' 91.14, 'poly technique/others' 90.26, 'PG' 87.27, 'graduation' 87.08, 'pre-degree' 87.01, 'SSLC' 86.01, 'UP' 85.45, 'LP' 85.00 and 'illiterate' 84.05. The results communicate that respondents in the education categories 'professional', 'poly technique/others, 'PG', 'graduation', 'pre-degree', 'SSLC', 'UP', 'LP' and 'illiterate' have the first, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth and ninth positions respectively regarding the perception on economic development.

The analysis of the respondents **on the basis of their present incomes** reveals that the F value (5.461) is significant at 0.01 levels, which discloses that there is a significant difference in the perceptions of economic development among the people in the tourism villages who belong to different income groups. Mean values of the various income categories are Rs.'30,000-35,000' 90.30, Rs.'25,000-30,000' 88.73, Rs.'20,000-25,000' 86.06, Rs.'15,000-20,000' 85.63 and Rs.'10,000-15,000' 84.88. Hence it was inferred that, respondents in the income categories Rs.'30,000-35,000', Rs.'25,000-30,000', Rs.'20,000-25,000', Rs.'15,000-20,000' and Rs.'10,000-15,000' have the first, second, third, fourth and fifth positions respectively regarding the perception on economic development.

5.6.2: Social development after promotion of tourism in the villages

The analysis of respondents **based on their type of tourism village** showed that the F-value (17.999) is significant at 0.01 levels, which shows that there is a significant difference in the level of social development of the people in the villages under study. The mean values in the six villages are 'Kumarakom' 79.86, 'Kumbalangi' 78.32, 'Thenmala' 76.01, 'Njarakkal' 75.85, 'Aranmula' 74.16 and 'Pulpally' 70.65. The results denote that respondents in the nature-tourism top-category village *Kumarakom*, the ETP top-category village *Kumbalangy*, the ecotourism top-category village *Thenmala*, the nature-tourism developing-category village *Njarakka*l, the ETP developing-category village *Aranmula* and the ecotourism developing-category village *Pulpally* have the first, second, third, fourth,

fifth and sixth positions respectively regarding the perception on social development.

- ❖ In the case of age group-wise analysis of respondents, F value (2.534) is significant at 0.01 levels, which denotes that there is a significant difference in the perceptions of social development among people in sample villages, according to their age. The mean values for the five age groups are '< 30' 79.88, '> 60' 77.36, '30-40' 75.50, '50-60' 75.31 and '40-50' 75.24. The results signify that respondents in the age groups '< 30', '> 60', '30-40', '50-60' and '40-50' have the first, second, third, fourth and fifth positions respectively regarding the perception on social development.
- ❖ The gender-wise analysis of the respondents shows that F value (4.228) is significant at 0.01 levels, which shows that there is a significant difference between the perceptions of social development by the males and the females in the tourism villages. The mean values of females 78.84 and males 75.15 suggest that females have higher perception on the social development than the males, after the promotion of tourism in their villages.
- Analysis of the respondents **based on their present occupation** shows that F value (9.611) is significant at 0.01 levels, which indicates that there is a significant difference in the perceptions of social development among the people who serve as various categories of tourism service providers in the tourism villages. Mean values for the various occupations are 'homestay' 80.46, traditional art performance/tourist guide' 79.40, sale of local products and handicrafts' 78.94, 'hotel' 77.64, 'transportation' 76.25, 'petty shops' 76.17, 'traditional cuisine/catering' 76.11, 'artisan' 75.30, 'fishing' 74.39 and 'agriculture' 71.97. It can be inferred that the respondents in the occupation categories 'homestay', 'traditional art performance/tourist guide', sale of local products and handicrafts', 'hotel', 'transportation', 'petty shops', 'traditional cuisine/catering', 'artisan', 'fishing' and 'agriculture' have the first, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth and tenth positions respectively regarding the perception on social development.

- ❖ Education-wise analysis of respondents reveals that the F value (2.972) is significant at 0.01 levels, which shows that there is a significant difference in the perceptions of social development among the people in the tourism villages who have different educational backgrounds. Mean values for the various educational categories are 'professional' 79.95, 'PG' 78.26, 'poly technique/others' 77.02, 'graduation' 77.52, 'pre-degree' 76.85, 'SSLC' 76.07, 'UP' 75.94, 'LP' 74.41 and 'illiterate' 73.64. The results convey that respondents in the education categories 'professional', 'PG', 'poly technique/others', 'graduation', 'pre-degree', 'SSLC', 'UP', 'LP' and 'illiterate' have the first, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth and ninth positions respectively regarding the perception on social development.
- Analysis of respondents **on the basis of their present incomes** discloses that the F value (5.461) is significant at 0.01 levels, which shows that there is a significant difference in the perceptions of social development among the people in the tourism villages, who belong to the different income groups. Mean values for the various income categories are Rs.'30,000-35,000' 79.88, Rs.'25,000-30,000' 77.36, Rs.'20,000-25, 000' 75.50, Rs.'15, 000-20,000' 75.31 and Rs.'10,000-15,000' 75.24. The results indicate that respondents in the income categories Rs.'30,000-35,000', Rs.'25,000-30,000', Rs.'20,000-25,000', Rs.'15,000-20, 000' and Rs.'10,000-15,000' have the first, second, third, fourth and fifth positions respectively regarding the perception on social development.

5. 6. 3: Infrastructural development after promotion of tourism in the villages

❖ The analysis of respondents based on their type of tourism village shows that the F-value (40.670) is significant at 0.01 levels, which shows that there is a significant difference in the level of infrastructural development in the six different tourism villages. The mean values in the six villages are 'Kumarakom' 79.54, 'Kumbalangi' 77.39, 'Thenmala' 75.91, 'Njarakkal' 75.49, 'Aranmula' 69.16 and 'Pulpally' 68.55. Hence, from the study it can be understood that respondents in the nature-tourism top-category village Kumarakom, the ETP top-category village Kumbalangy, the eco-tourism top-category village Thenmala, the nature-tourism developing-category village Njarakkal, the ETP developing-

category village *Aranmula* and the eco-tourism developing-category village *Pulpally* have the first, second, third, fourth, fifth and sixth positions respectively regarding the perception on infrastructural development in their village after promotion of tourism.

5.7: Satisfaction of tourists about the facilities in tourism villages

- A hypothesis was formed and subjected to statistical analysis using one way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Duncan's Multiple Range Test (DMRT). The analysis of respondents based on their type of tourism village shows that the F-value (2.469) is significant at 0.05 levels, which reveals that there is a significant difference in the satisfaction level of the tourists, about the facilities that are available in the different types of tourism villages in Kerala. The mean values in the six villages are 'Kumarakom' 87.83, 'Thenmala' 86.86, 'Kumbalangi' 86.00, 'Pulpally' 85.26, 'Njarakkal' 85.09 and 'Aranmula' 83.66. The results show that tourists in the nature-tourism top-category village Kumarakom, the eco-tourism top-category village Thenmala, ETP top-category village Kumbalangy, the eco-tourism developing-category village Pulpally, the nature-tourism developing-category village Njarakkal and the ETP developing-category village Aranmula have the first, second, third, fourth, fifth and sixth positions respectively regarding the satisfaction about various facilities that are available in the tourism villages.
- ❖ The **age group-wise analysis** of tourists reveals that t-value (0.229) is not significant at 0.05 levels. It can be inferred that there is no significant difference between the perceptions of tourists in different age groups regarding their level of satisfaction about the facilities in the villages under study.
- ❖ The **gender-wise analysis** of the tourists shows that t-value (0.229) is not significant at 0.05 levels. This result suggests that there is no significant difference between the perception of male and female tourists regarding their level of satisfaction about the facilities in the different sample villages.
- Analysis of tourists **on the basis of their nationality** shows that t- value (0.621) is not significant at 0.05 levels. This result suggests that there is no significant

difference between the perception of foreign and domestic tourists regarding their level of satisfaction about the facilities in the different villages under study.

- ❖ Education-wise analysis of tourists discloses that F- value (0.889) is not significant at 0.05 levels. This result suggests that there is no significant difference among the perception of tourists having different levels of education regarding their level of satisfaction about the facilities in the different sample villages.
- ❖ Occupation-wise analysis of tourists reveals that F- value (0.572) is not significant at 0.05 levels. This result suggests that there is no significant difference among the perception of tourists in different occupation categories regarding their level of satisfaction about the facilities in the different villages under study.

5.8: Recommendations

Based on the findings that are summarised above, some recommendations are made to improve the quality of tourism activities in the villages in Kerala that can enhance their image in both the domestic and the international tourist market.

5.8.1: Enhancing economic development

- 1. Encourage provision for forums and meetings in the villages, where all interested stakeholders in the tourism business can discuss their problems and concerns.
- 2. Special efforts should be taken by the authorities to educate women in the villages about the prospects of tourism and encourage them to utilise their services in their area of skill.
- 3. Encourage the local people to suggest facilities for tourism activities that are beneficial to the community and the environment.

5. 8. 2: Improving social development

- 1. Efforts can be taken to train the villagers to develop their linguistic and communication capabilities.
- 2. Community training programmes can be arranged for knowledge-sharing and building responsibility.
- 3. Train the local people to ensure that proper safety warnings and precautions are clearly displayed at the tourism spots to avoid accidents.
- 4. The villagers can be given proper first aid training to handle emergencies.

5. 8. 3: Increasing infrastructural development

- 1. Facilities for transportation, higher education and health are to be improved.
- 2. Vocational training facilities for tourism employment should be stressed so that availability of excellent tourism guides will not be a limiting factor.
- 3. Deliberate efforts should be taken to provide adequate, neat and hygienic comfort stations.
- 4. Put up clear indicators like road signs, display boards etc. to help the tourists to reach the tourist destination without depending much on third parties.
- 5. If the government can take active steps to improve the internet connectivity in the tourism destinations, the tourists can make use of the Global Positioning System (GPS) facility to find out their route map.

5. 8. 4: Improving tourist satisfaction

- 1. Collect feedback from the tourists in a clear form, consider the items which need immediate consideration and find suitable solution for them at the earliest.
- 2. Local bodies should ensure that the public utility services are not misused or damaged either by the natives or the tourists.
- 3. Transportation facilities for tourists with disability can be given due considertion in the tourism villages.

4. Rooms, sidewalks and wash room facilities accessible to disabled persons should be provided in the villages.

5. 9: Scope for further research

Some of the related areas that can be considered for further research are:

- The role of other types of alternative tourism in the development of villages in Kerala.
- The negative impacts due to the promotion of tourism.
- The scope of homestay business in the tourism villages.
- Empowerment of rural women through tourism promotion.
- Comparitive study between mass tourism destinations and alternative tourism destinations in Kerala.

5. 10: Conclusion

The study showed that tourism has played a pivotal role in providing economic, social and infrastructural developments in the different destinations under study. The developments-economic, social and infrastructural - differ in the sample villages. The satisfaction level of the tourists regarding the facilities available at different tourism villages, also differs.

'Kumarakom', which is a nature-tourism village, ranks first in respect of the three parameters ie, social development, infrastructural development and satisfaction level of tourists, out of the four parameters considered for the study. As regards the other factor economic development, 'Kumarakom' has the second rank. 'Kumbalangi', which is an Endogenous Tourism Project, competes with 'Kumarakom' securing first rank in economic development and second rank in both social development and infrastructural development. In respect of tourist satisfaction, 'Kumbalangi' has third rank, the second rank being secured by 'Thenmala', an eco-tourism village.

The success of the ETP project initiated in 'Kumabalangi' village in 2003 is well reflected here. 'Njarakkal'- the nature-tourism developing category village- has the fourth position in terms of all the parameters mentioned above, except in *tourist satisfaction*,

where it has the fifth position. But the achievement of 'Njarakkal' is worth mentioning, as the developmental efforts in this village started much later (2011) than in those villages below its rank, ie. 'Aranmula' (2005) and 'Pulpally' (2004). It can be inferred from the above findings that 'Aranmula' (ETP project) and 'Pulpally' (Eco-tourism project) are less successful than 'Njarakkal'. This shows that there are some inadequacies in these tourism villages. If these inadequacies are appropriately and effectively remedied with the active support from the government and the various stakeholders of tourism promotion, these villages also can be turned into successful tourism projects.

REFERENCES

- Abhijit Banerjee. (2007). An evaluation of the potential and limitations of eco-tourism as a vehicle for biodiversity conservation and sustainable development in the protected areas of India. (Doctoral dissertation, University Of Delaware).
- Abusaleh Shariff. (ed.) (1999). *India Human Development Report A profile of Indian States in the 1990s*. National Council of Applied Economic Research, New Delhi: Oxford University Press.
- Adams, W. M. (1990). *Green Development: Environment and Sustainability in the Third World.* London: Routledge.
- Ajil Babu, R. (2012). Eco-tourism; the Multiplier Waves: A Learning Experience of Thenmala Eco-Tourism Project in Kerala, India. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 4(5), 19-22.
- Alan Fyall, Christine Callod & Brenda Edwards. (2003). Relationship Marketing: The Challenge for Destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(3), 644-659.
- Aliv Banerjee, Nilanjan Ray, Sukanya Ghosh. (2011). Issues and challenges of tourism development in West Bengal, India. In International Conference on Management proceeding, 677-696.
- Allen, L. R., Long, P. T., Perdue, R. R., & Kieselbach, S. (1988). The impact of tourism development on residents' perceptions of community life. *Journal of Travel Research*, 27(1), 16-21.
- Andereck, K. L., & Vogt, C. A. (2000). The relationship between residents' attitudes toward tourism and tourism development options. *Journal of Travel Research*, *39* (1), 27-36.
- Andereck, K., Valentine, L., Knopf, K.M., & Vogt, C. A. (2005). Residents' perceptions of community tourism impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *32* (4), 1056-1076.
- Andreas Freytag & Christoph Vietze. (2010). Can nature promote development? The role of sustainable tourism for economic growth. Jena Economic Research Papers, 2010-008.

- Andrew Holden. (2008). Environment and Tourism, London: Routledge.
- Ann Sommer Rutherford. (2009). *India health: impact of medical tourism facilities on state health and economy* (Master of Arts in Political Science thesis, Iowa State University, Iowa).
- Anne Hardy, Robert, J. S., Beeton & Leonie Pearson. (2002). Sustainable Tourism: An Overview of the Concept and its Position in Relation to Conceptualisations of Tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 10(6), 475-496.
- Anne Tolvanen, Jussi Rämet, Pirkko Siikamäki, Anne Törn & Markku Orell. (2004).

 Research on ecological and social sustainability of nature-tourism in northern Finland.

 Retrieved from http://www.metla.fi/julkaisut/workingpapers/2004/mwp002.htm.
- Antonia Besculides, Martha, E., Lee, Peter, J., McCormick. (2002). Residents' perceptions of the cultural benefits of tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(2), 303-319.
- Antony Joseph. (1997). *The Role of KTDC in the Promotion of Tourism* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Kerala).
- Ap, J. (1992). Residents' perception on tourism impacts. *Annals of Travel Research*, 19(4), 665-690.
- Archer, B. H. (1982). The Value of Multipliers and their Policy Implications. *Tourism Management*, 3(4), 236-241.
- Ashley, C. & Maxwell, S. (2001). Rethinking Rural Development. *Development Policy Review*, 19(4), 395-425.
- Ashley, C., Roe, D., & Goodwin, H. (2001). *Pro-Poor Tourism Strategies: Making Tourism Work for the Poor*. London: ODI.
- Balaguer, L. & Cantavella, M. (2002). Tourism as a long-run economic growth factor: the Spanish case. *Applied Economics*, *34*(1), 877-884.
- Baloglu, S., & McCleary, K. (1999). A Model of Destination Image Formation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(4), 868-897.

- Banks, V. J., Kallabacher, J. Z. (1980). The Changing U.S. Farm Populations. *Rural Development Perspectives*, *3*(1), 43-46.
- Barcena, A. & Payne, N. (1995). Stewardship and Sustainable Development. *National Forum*, 75(1), 56-58.
- Bartmann, B. & Baum, T. (1998). *Promoting the Particular as a Niche Cultural Tourism Development Strategy in Small Jurisdictions*. Proceedings of the eighth Australian Tourism and Hospitality Research Conference, Bureau of Tourism Research: Australia, 692-698.
- Batra, K. L. (1990). *Tourism in Rajasthan- Problems, Potential and Future Prospects* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Rajasthan).
- Ben Sander. (2010). *The Importance of Education in Eco-tourism Ventures*. Substantial Research Paper, American University.
- Bernardo Duhá Buchsbaum. (2004). *Eco-tourism and Sustainable Development in Costa Rica* (Master of Public and International Affairs thesis, College of Architecture and Urban Studies, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University).
- Bijender Punia, K. (1994). *Problems and prospects of tourism in Haryana* (Doctoral dissertation, Kurukshethra University).
- Bindu, V.T. (2010). Customer Preference and Satisfaction in Health Tourism a study of selected ayurvedic resorts in Kerala (Doctoral dissertation, Mother Theresa Women's University).
- Blackstock, K. L., White, V., McCrum, G., Scott, A. & Hunter, C. (2008). Measuring responsibility: An appraisal of a Scottish national park's sustainable tourism indicators. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *16*(3), 276-297.
- Blamey, R. K. (2001). Principles of Eco-tourism. In David B. Weaver (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Eco-tourism.* (5-22). New York: CABI Publishing.
- Blekesaune, A., Brandth, B. & Haugen, M. S. (2010). Visitors to farm tourist enterprises in Norway. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 10(1), 54-73.

- Bowen et. al. (1991). The Interface between Tourism and Agriculture. *The Journal of Tourism Studies*, 2(2), 43-54.
- Boyd, S.W., Butler, R.W., Haider, W., & Perera, A. (1994). Identifying Areas for Ecotourism in Northern Ontario: Application of a Geographical Information System Methodology. *Journal of Applied Recreation Research*, 19(2), 41-66.
- Boyd, Stephen, Butler, R., Richard, W. (1996). Managing eco-tourism: an opportunity spectrum approach. *Tourism Management*, 17(8), 557-566.
- Bramwell, B. & Lane, B. (1993). Sustainable tourism: an evolving global approach. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *I*(1), 1-5.
- Bramwell, B. & Lane, B. (1994). *Rural tourism and Sustainable Rural Development*. Proceedings from the Second International School of Rural Development. London: Channel View Books.
- Bramwell, B. & Lane, B. (2000). *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships. Politics, Practice and Sustainability*. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Brau, R., Lanza & Pigliare, F. (2003). *How fast are the Tourism Countries Growing? The Cross-Country Evidence*. Retrieved from http://www.feem.it/web/activ/_wp.html.
- Briassoulis, H. (2002). Sustainable tourism and the question of the commons. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(4), 1065-1085.
- Bricker, K. S. & Kerstetter, D. L. (2000). *Eco-tourists and Eco-tourism: Benefit Segmentation and Experience Evaluation*. Retrieved from http://www.ttra.com.
- Britton, S. & Clarke, W. C. (Eds.) (1987). *Ambiguous alternatives: Tourism in small developing countries*. Suva: University of the South Pacific.
- Brohman, J. (1996). New directions for tourism in the Third World. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(1), 48-70.
- Brougham, J. E. & Butler, R. W. (1981). A segmentation analysis of residents' attitudes to the social impact of tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 8(4), 569-590.
- Brown, F. & Hall, D. (Eds.) (2000). *Tourism in Peripheral Areas*. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.

- Budeanu, A. (2005). Impacts and responsibilities for sustainable tourism: A tour operator's perspective. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 13 (2), 87-91.
- Burger, J. (2000). Landscapes, tourism, and conservation. *The Science of the Total Environment*, 249, 39-49.
- Burkart, A. J. & Medlik, S. (1981). *Tourism: Past, Present and Future* (2nd edn.). London: Heinemann.
- Burns, P. (1993). Sustaining Tourism Employment. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 1(2), 81-96.
- Butler, R. W. (1993). Tourism an evolutionary perspective. In J. G. Nelson, R. W. Butler, & G. Wall (Eds.), *Tourism and sustainable development: monitoring, planning, managing* (pp. 27-43).
- Butler, R. W. (1999). Sustainable tourism: A state of the art review. *Tourism Geographies*, *I*(1), 7-25.
- Butler, R., Hall, M. & Jenkins, J. (1998). *Tourism and recreation in rural areas*, Wiley: Chichester.
- Buton, F. (1998). Can Eco-tourism Objectives Be Achieved?. *Annals of Tourism*, 5(3), 755-758.
- Campbell Lisa, M. (2002). Conservation Narratives and the 'Received Wisdom' of Ecotourism: Case Studies from Costa Rica. *International Journal of Sustainable Development*, 5(3), 300-325.
- Can-Seng Ooi. (2002). Contrasting Strategies: Tourism in Denmark and Singapore. Annals of Tourism Research, 29(3), 689-706.
- Carley, M., & Christie, J. (1993). *Managing Sustainable development*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
- Cater, C. I. (2006). Playing with risk? Participant perceptions of risk and management implications in adventure tourism. *Tourism Management*, 27(2), 317-325.
- Cater, E. (1987). Tourism in the least developed countries. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 14(2), 202-226.

- Cater, E. (1993). Eco-tourism in the Third World: Problems for sustainable tourism development. *Tourism Management*, *14* (2), 85-90.
- Cater, E. & Lowman, G. (1994). Eco-tourism: A sustainable option?. Wiley: Sussex.
- Ceballos-Lascurain, H. (1987). The Future of Eco-tourism. *Mexico Journal*, January, 13-14.
- Ceballos Lascarain, H. (1983). Eco-tourism a worldwide phenomenon. In K. Lundberg and D.E. Hawkins, *Eco-tourism; A guide for planners and managers North Bennington* (pp.12-14), Vermont: The Eco-tourism Society.
- Census (2011a). Retrieved from https://kerala.gov.in/at-a-glance.
- Census (2011b). Population enumeration data. Retrieved from *censusindia.gov.in/2011-Common/CensusData2011.html*.
- Cevat Tosun. (2000). Limits to community participation in the tourism development process in developing countries. *Tourism Management*, 21(6), 613-633.
- Chichilnisky, G. (1997). What is Sustainable Development?. *Land Economics*, 73 (4), 467-491.
- Chris Ryan. (2000). The gaze, spectacle and eco-tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(1), 148-163.
- Christiansen, D. (1990). Adventure Tourism. In Miles, J. & Priest, S., (eds.) Adventure Education, State College PA: Venture Publishing, 433-441.
- Christopher Rodger. (2005). A Case Study of Eco-tourism in the Kelabit Highlands: Is it Sustainable? (Masters Programme in Asian Studies thesis, Centre for East and South-East Asian Studies).
- Clarke, J. A. (1997). Framework of approaches to sustainable tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 5(3), 224-233.
- Claudette Juska & Cynthia Koenig. (2006). *Planning for sustainable community-based eco-tourism in Uaxactun, Guatemala* (Master of Science thesis, University of Michigan).

- Clem Tisdell & Clevo Wilson. (2000). A study of the impact of eco-tourism on environmental education and conservation: the case of turtle watching at an Australian site. Working Paper No. 55, Working papers on economics, ecology and the environment, University of Queensland, Australia.
- Clem Tisdell. (2013). *Nature-based Tourism in Developing Countries: Issues and Case Studies*. Working Paper No. 190, Working papers on economics, ecology and the environment.
- Coccossis, H. (1996). Tourism and sustainability: Perspectives and implications. In G.K. Priestley, J.A. Edwards & H. Coccossis (*eds.*), *Sustainable Tourism? European Experiences* (pp.1-21). Wallingford, Oxford: CAB International.
- Coccossis, H. & Constantoglou, M. E. (2006). The use of typologies in tourism planning: problems and conflicts. 46 Congress of the European Regional Science Association.
- Cohen, E. (1978). The impact of tourism on the physical environment. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 5(2), 215-237.
- Cohen, E. (1986). Language and Tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, 13(4), 533-564.
- Cohen, E. (1995). Contemporary Tourism Trends and Challenges: Sustainable Authenticity or Contrived Post-Modernity?. In *Change in Tourism: People, Places, Processes* (pp.12-29). London: Routledge.
- Collins, A. (1999). Tourism development and natural capital. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(1), 98-109.
- Coltman, M. M. (1989). *Tourism Marketing*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Cooper, C., Fletcher, J., Fyall A., Gilbert, D. & Wanhill, S. (2005). *Tourism: Principles and Practice* (3rd ed.). Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Cooper, C., Fletcher, J., Fyall, A., Gilbert, D. & Wanhill, S. (2008). *Tourism: Principles and Practice* (4thed.). Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Cousins, J. A. (2007). The UK based conservation tourism operators. *Tourism Management*, 28(4), 1020-1030.

- Craik, J. (1995). Are There Cultural Limits to Tourism? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 3(2), 87-98.
- Craik, J. (1997). The Culture of Tourism. In C. Rojek & J. Urry (eds.) *Touring Cultures-Transformations of Travel and Theory* (pp. 113-136). London: Routledge.
- Cristiana Zara. (2011). Sacred Journeys and Profane Travellers: Representation and Spatial Practice in Varanasi (Doctoral dissertation, University of London).
- Crompton, J. (1979). An Assessment of the Image of Mexico as a Vacation Destination and the Influence of Geographical Location upon the Image. *Journal of Travel Research*, 17(4), 18-23.
- Crouch, G. I. & Ritchie, J. R. B. (2000). The competitive destination: a sustainability perspective. *Tourism Management*, 21(2), 34-45.
- Dann, G. (1996). The Language of Tourism. UK: Wallingford CAB International.
- Davesh Chaturvedi. (2010). Tourism in India: Ensuring Buoyancy and Sustainability. *Yojana*, *13*(8), 16-18.
- David Snepenger, J., MoLeann Murphy, Ryan O'Connell & Eric Gregg. (2003). Tourists and residents use of a shopping space. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(3), 567-580.
- David Weaver, B. (1999). Magnitude of eco-tourism in Costa Rica and Kenya. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(4), 792-816.
- Debata Bikash Ranjan. (2013). Evaluation of Perceived Service Quality and Loyalty of Medical Tourists to India (Doctoral dissertation, National Institute of Technology, Rourkela).
- Deepak Chhabra. (2001). Heritage Tourism: An Analysis of Perceived Authenticity and Economic Impact of the Scottish Highland Games in North Carolina (Doctoral dissertation, North Carolina State University).
- Department of Environment, Transports and the Regions. (1999). A better quality of life strategy for sustainable development for the UK. London: HMSO.

- Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism. (2002). *Responsible tourism guidelines*. Retrieved from http://www.info.gov.za.
- Deqian, L. (2006). Several Discriminations in Rural Tourism, Agriculture Tourism and Folklore Tourism. Retrieved from http://www.cnki.com.cn.
- Dernoi, I. (1991). About Rural and Farm Tourism, *Tourism Recreation Research*, 16(1), 3-6.
- Desmond A. Jolly. (2005). Consumer Demand for Agricultural and On-Farm Nature-tourism. *Agricultural Economist*, Department of Agricultural and Resource Economics, UC Small Farm Center.
- De-Vaus, D. (2002). Surveys in social research. Australia: Routledge.
- Diana Chan. (2009). Sustainable Tourism in New Zealand: The Chinese Visitors' View (Master of Tourism Management thesis, Victoria University of Wellington).
- Dianne Dredge. (1999). Destination place planning and design. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(4), 772-791.
- Dianne Dredge & John Michael Jenkins. (2007). *Tourism Planning and Policy*. Australia : John Wiley & Sons Limited.
- Dinah Payne, M. & Cecily Raiborn, A. (2001). Sustainable development: The ethics support the economics. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 32 (2), 157 168.
- Dodds, R. & Kuehnel, P. (2009). CSR among Canadian Mass Tourism Operators: Good Awareness but Little Action. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 22 (2), 221-244.
- DOT. (1993). *Rural Tourism: Tourism Discussion*. Paper Number 1, Commonwealth Department of Tourism, Canberra.
- DOT. (1994). *National Rural Tourism Strategy*. Commonwealth Department of Tourism, Canberra.
- DOT. (1995). Cultivating Rural Tourism, Department of Tourism, AGPS, Canberra.
- DOT. (2005). Kerala Tourism (Conservation and Preservation of Areas) Act 2005. Retrieved from http://www.keralatourism.org/tourismact.php.

- DOT. (2016). Kerala tourism official website. Government of Kerala, Retrieved from http.keralatourism.org.
- DOT (2017). Annual report 2016-17. Department of Tourism, Government of India. Retrieved from http://www.tourism.gov.in/annual-report-2016-17.
- Dra.Mª Genoveva MillánVázquez de la Torre, Jose Luis Trechera Herreros & Emilio Morales Fernández. (2012). Rural tourism as an alternative to the development for rural areas and the creation of employment. International Journal of Humanities and Social Science, 2(20), 162-174.
- Driver, B., Brown, P., & Peterson, G. (1991). Benefits of Leisure. State College PA: Venture Publishing.
- Dryzek, J.S. (1997). The politics of the earth: environmental discourses. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Durbarry, R. (2002). The economic contribution of tourism in Mauritius. Annals of Tourism Research, 29(3), 362-365.
- Dwyer, L., Mellor, R., Mistilis, N. & Mules, T. (2000). A framework for evaluating and forecasting the impacts of special events. Proceedings of event evaluation, research and education, Sydney: Australian Centre for Event Management, 31-45.
- Eagles, P.F.J. (2001). Nature-based Tourism Management. 181-232 In G. Wall (Ed.) (1992). Contemporary Perspectives on Tourism. Occassional Paper Number 17, Department of Geography Publication Series, University of Waterloo.
- Eagles, Paul, F. J. and Elke Wind (1994). Canadian Ecotours in 1992: A Content Analysis of Advertising. Journal of Applied Recreation Research, 19(1), 67-87.
- Eagles, Paul, F. J., Jennifer, L. Ballantine & David Fennell, A. (1992). Marketing to the Ecotourist: Case Studies from Kenya and Costa Rica. Paper presented in the IVth World Congress on Parks and Protected Areas, World Conservation Union, Caracas, Venezuela.
- Eber, S. (ed.) (1992). Beyond the Green Horizon: A Discussion Paper on Principles for Sustainable Tourism. Godalming, UK: Worldwide Fund for Nature.

- Ec-Aeidl. (1997). *Marketing Quality Rural Tourism*. Retrieved from http://www.ruraleurope.aeidl/rural-en/biblio/touris/.htm.
- Eckholm, E. P. (1982). *Down to Earth: Environment and Human Needs*. IIED and Earthscan: London.
- Economic Survey. (2010-11). *Directorate of Economics & Statistics*, Government of Kerala.
- Emily McKeone. (2011). *Eco-tourism in Costa Rica: Environmental Impacts and Management* (Bachelor of Arts thesis, University of Nebraska, Lincoln).
- Engel, J. G. (eds.) (1990). *Ethics of environment and development: Global challenge, international response*. London: University of Arizona Press.
- English Tourism Council. (2000). *Action for attractions*. London: English Tourism Council.
- Equations (2008). Community-based Rural Tourism in Developing Countries: Insights and Lessons from the Endogenous Tourism Project in India. Redefining Tourism-Experiences and Insights from Rural Tourism Projects in India, Ministry of Tourism, Government of India.
- Eugeni Aguilo' Pe'rez Jaume Rossello'. (2005). Host community perceptions: a cluster analysis. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(4), 925-941.
- Eugenio-Martin, J. L., Morales, N.M. & Scarpa, R. (2004). *Tourism and Economic Growth in Latin American Countries: A Panel Data Approach*. Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei Working Paper Series.
- Ewert, A. W. & Jamieson, L. (2003). Current status and future directions in the adventure tourism industry. In Wilks, J. & Page, S. J. (eds.). *Managing Tourist Health and Safety in the New Millennium* (pp.67-83), Pergamon, UK: Oxford.
- Fakeye, P. & Crompton, J. (1991). Image Differences between Prospective, First-Time, and Repeat Visitors to the Lower Rio Grande Valley. *Journal of Travel Research*, 30(2), 10-16.

- Farrell, B. & McLellan, R. (1987). Tourism and physical environment research. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 14(1), 1-16.
- Farrell, B. H. (1999). Conventional or sustainable tourism? No room for choice. *Tourism Management*, 20(2), 189-191.
- Farrell, B. & Twining-Ward, L. (2005). Seven steps towards sustainability: Tourism in the context of new knowledge. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 13(2), 109-122.
- Farrell, Tracy, A. & Jeffrey, Marion, L. (2002). Identifying and Assessing Eco-tourism Visitor Impacts at Eight Protected Areas in Costa Rica and Belize. *Environmental Conservation*, 28(3), 215-25.
- Fossati, A. & Panella, G. (2000). Tourism and sustainable development: A theoretical framework. In Fossati, A. and Panella, G. (eds.) *Tourism and Sustainable Economic Development* (pp. 3-23). Dordrecht, Netherlands: Kluwer Academic.
- Frederick, M. (1992). *Tourism as a rural development tool: an exploration of the literature*. (Vol. 22), Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service.
- Friesen Bram. (1995). Safari Tourism to the Ngorongoro Conservation Area, Tanzania (Unpublished Master's Thesis, Catholic University of Nijmegen).
- Fyall, A. & Garrod, B. (1998). Heritage Tourism: At What Price?. *Managing Leisure*, 3(4), 213-228.
- Ganesh, C. (1993). The Role of State Financial Corporations in Financing Small Industries (Doctoral dissertation, University of Kerala).
- Gannon, A. (1994). Rural tourism as a factor in rural community economic development for economies in transition. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 2(1), 51-60.
- Garrod, B. & Fyall, A. (1998). Beyond the rhetoric of sustainable tourism. *Tourism Management*, 19(3), 199-212.
- Garrod, B., Wornell, R., Youell, R. (2006). Re-conceptualising rural resources as countryside capital: The case of rural tourism. *Rural Study*, *22*(2), 117-128.

- Gartner, W. C. (1993). Image formation process. In Uysal, M. & Fesenmaier, D. R. (Eds.), Communication and channel systems in tourism marketing. New York: The Harworth Press.
- Gartner, W. C. (1996). *Tourism Development: Principles, Processes, and Policies*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Gee, C.Y., Makens, J. C. & Choy, D. J. L. (1997). *The Travel Industry* (2nd ed.). New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- George Hughes. (2002). Environmental indicators. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(2), 457-477.
- George, B. (2006). History of Tourism Development in Tamilnadu: Problems and Prospects (1947-2000) (Doctoral dissertation, Madhurai Kamraj University).
- George, R. & Frey, N. (2010). Responsible tourism management: Using social marketing to create positive change. *South Africa Journal of Business Management*, 41(1), 11-23.
- Getz, D. (1987). *Tourism Planning and Research: Traditions, Models and Futures*. Paper presented at Australian Travel Research Workshop, Bunbury, Western Australia.
- Getz, D., & Page, S. J. (1997). Conclusions and implications for rural business development. In: Page, S. J. & Getz, D. (Eds.) *The business of rural tourism: International perspectives* (pp.191-192). London: International Thomson Business Press.
- Ghialy Choy Lee Yap. (2010). An econometric analysis of Australian domestic tourism demand (Doctoral dissertation, Edith Cowan University).
- Gladwin, T. N, Kennelly, J. J. & Krause, T. S. (1995). Shifting paradigms for sustainable development: implications for management theory and research. *Academy of Management Review*, 20(4), 874-907.
- Glenn Kreag. (2001). *The Impacts of Tourism*. A 20-page booklet that provides research-based information on tourism impacts and emphasizes the need for planning, Minnesota Sea Grant product number: T13.

- Goeldner, Charles, R., Ritchie, J. R., Brent, Mcintosh & Rober, W. (1999). *Tourism Principles, Practices, Philosophies* (8th ed.).New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- GOI. (1998). Report of the Seminar on Investment Opportunities in Tourism Sector in Kerala. Government of India Tourist Office, Kochi, 15-17.
- Goodwin, H. (2006). *Community-based tourism failing to deliver?*. London: Department for International Development.
- Goodwin, H. (2011). *Taking responsibility for tourism: responsible tourism management*. Oxford: Goodfellow Publishers Limited.
- Goodwin, H., & Venu, V. (2008). *Kerala Declaration on Responsible Tourism*. Retrieved from http://www.responsibletourism2008.org/keraladeclaration.php.
- Go"ssling. (2002). Global Environmental Consequences of Tourism. *Global Environmental Change*, Part A, 12(4), 283-302.
- Gracious James. (2012). Farm based Rural Tourism in Kerala. *Kurukshethra A journal on rural development*, 60(7), 8.
- Gregory Raju. (1994). A Study of Tourism Potentiality of Cochin (Master of Philosophy Dissertation, Department of Applied Economics, Cochin University).
- Gronroos, C. (1978). A Service-Oriented Approach to Marketing of Services, *European Journal of Marketing*, 12(8), 588-601.
- Guangming He, Xiaodong Chen, Wei Liu, Scott Bearer, Shiqiang Zhou, Lily Yeqing Cheng, Hemin Zhang, Zhiyun Ouyang & Jianguo Liu. (2008). Distribution of Economic Benefits from Eco-tourism: A Case Study of Wolong Nature Reserve for Giant Pandas in China. *Environmental Management*, 42(6), 1017-1025.
- Guide for Local Authorities on Developing Sustainable Tourism. (1998). *Tourism & Environment Publication*. World Tourism Organization.
- Gunn, C.A. (Eds.) (1988). *Tourism planning* (2nded.). New York: Taylor & Francis.
- Gwanya, T.T. (2010). *South Africa Position Paper on Rural Development*. Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, South Africa.

- Hall, C. M. (2000). *Tourism Planning: Policies, Processes & Relationships*. Harlow: Prentice Hall.
 - Hall, C. M., McArthur, S. (1994). *Commercial white water rafting in Australia*, Australian Journal of Leisure and Recreation, *6*(1), 25-30.
- Hammitt, W. E. & Cole, D. N. (1998). *Wildland Recreation: Ecology and Management* (2nded.). New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Hannigan, J. (1994). A Regional Analysis of Tourism Growth in Ireland. *Regional Studies*, 28(2), 208-214.
- Hardy, A., Beeton, R. J. S. & Pearson, L. (2002). Sustainable tourism: An overview of the concept and its position in relation to conceptualisations of tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 10(6), 475-496.
- Harrison, L. C. & Husbands, W. (1996). *Practicing Responsible Tours*. John Wiley and Sons.
- Harron, S. & Weiler, B. (1992). Review Ethnic Tourism. In Weiler, B. & Hall, C. M. (Eds.) *Special Interest Tourism* (pp. 83-92). London: Bellhaven.
- Hasty, J. (2002). Rites of Passage, Routes of Redemption: Emancipation Tourism and the Wealth of Culture. *Africa Today*, 49(3), 47-76.
- Hatton, M. J. (1999). *Community-based tourism in the Asia Pacific*. Ontario/CTC/APEC: School of Media Studies, Humber College.
- Hazra, S. (2011). An Evaluation of tourism stakeholder relationships: a case study of Agra, India (Doctoral dissertation, Bournemouth University).
- He, J. M. (2003). A Study on Rural Tourism Overseas. *Tourism Tribune*, 18(1), 76-80.
- Healey, M. J. & Ilbery, B. W. (1990). *Location and Change: Perspectives on Economic Geography*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Helen Briassoulis. (2002). Sustainable tourism and the question of the commons, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(4), 1065-1085.

- Higginbottom, K. (ed.) (2004). Wildlife Tourism: impact, management and planning. Australia: Common Ground Publishing.
- Holden, A. (2000). Environment and tourism. London: Routledge.
- Holliday, C. O. J., Schmidheiny, S. & Watts, S. P. (2002). Walking the Talk: The Business Case for Sustainable Development. World Business Council for Sustainable development, Geneva, Switzerland.
- Hollinshead, K. (1988). First-blush of the Longtime: The Market Development of Australia's Living Aboriginal Heritage. Tourism Research: Expanding Boundaries. In Proceedings of the 19th annual conference of the Tourism Research Association, 183-198.
- Holloway, J. Christopher. (1994). The Business of Tourism (4th ed.). New York: Prentice Hall.
- Holmberg, J. (ed.) (1992). Making Development Sustainable: Redefining Institutions, Policy, and Economics. Washington, D.C.: Island.
- Honey, M. (1999). Eco-tourism and Sustainable Development. Who owns Paradise?(1st ed.). Washington D.C.: Island Press.
- Honey, M. (2008). Eco-tourism and Sustainable Development: Who Owns Paradise? (2 ed.). Washington DC.: Island Press.
- Hu, W. & Wall, G. (2005). Environmental management, environmental image and the competitive tourist attraction. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 13(6), 617-635.
- Huigen, P., Paul, L. & Volkers, K. (1992). The Changing Function and Position of Rural Areas in Europe. Netherlands Geographical Studies no. 153, Utrecht: Koninklijk Nederlands Aardrijkskundig Genootschap.
- Hummelbrunner, R., & Miglbauer, E. (1994). Tourism promotion and potential in peripheral areas: The Austrian case. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 2(1): 41-50.
- Hunter, C. (1997). Sustainable Tourism as an Adaptive Paradigm. Annals of Tourism Research, 24(4), 850-867.

- HwanSuk Chris Choia, ErcanSirakay. (2006). Sustainability indicators for managing community tourism. *Tourism Management*, 27(6), 1274-1289.
- Iftikhar Hussain & Daisy Das. (2013). Study of Ecotourism: A Special Reference to Assam. *Indian Journal of Applied Research*, 3(9), 567-569.
- ILO. (2008). *Guide for social dialogue in the tourism industry*. Sectoral Activities Programme, Working Paper 265.
- Indicators of Sustainable Development for Tourism Destinations: a Guidebook. (2004). Spain: United Nations World Tourism Organization Publication.
- Indicators of Sustainable Development: Guidelines and Methodologies. (2007). New York: United Nations publication.
- Ingold, T. (1993). Globes and Spheres: The Topology of Environmentalism. In K. Milton (ed.) *Environmentalism: The View from Anthropology (*pp. 31-42). London.
- Inskeep, E. (1991). *Tourism Planning: An Integrated and Sustainable Development Approach*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- ITO. (2001). India Tourist Office. New Jersey: Zeno Communication, 49-60.
- IUCN. (1980). *World Conservation Strategy*. Gland, Switzerland: International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources.
- Jacobus Franciscus Koens, Carel Dieperink & Miriam Miranda. (2009). Eco-tourism as a development strategy: experiences from Costa Rica. *Environ Dev Sustain*, 11(1), 1225-1237.
- Jamal Tazim, Marcos Borges & Amanda Stronza. (2006). The Institutionalization of Ecotourism: Certification, Cultural Equity and Praxis. *Journal of Ecotourism*, *5*(3), 145-75.
- Jingming , H. & Lihua, L. (2002). A Study on the Conceptions of Rural Tourism. Retrieved from http://www.cnki.com.cn.
- John Custance & Hilary Hillier. (1998). Statistical Issues in Developing Indicators of Sustainable Development. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, *161*(3), 281-290.

- Jollyamma George & Merry Zachariah. (2011). An economic evaluation of Thenmala eco - tourism project in Kerala, Asian Journal of Research in Business Economics and Management, 1(3), 349-354.
- Joy, V.S. (2012). Hill Tourism in Kerala (Doctoral dissertation, Mahathma Gandhi University).
- Jubin Joy John, Hari Sundar, G., Anoop Das and Ravikrishnan. (2008). Study on Improving the Potential for Rural Tourism in Kerala - With Emphasis on Developing the Potential of Local Areas of Tourism Importance with Special Reference to Ponnumthuruthu, Anchuthengu and Kumbalangi. Retrieved from http://www.dspace.iimk.ac.in/bitstream/2259/584/1/432-442+Hari+Sundar.pdf.
- Jyotsana Mal. (2010). Globalisation of Healthcare: Case studies of Medical Tourism in Multi-Specialty Hospitals in India (Master of Science in Healthcare Management thesis, Manchester Business School, The University of Manchester).
- Kamalakshy, M. V. (1996). Hotel industry in Kerala with Special Reference to Tourism (Doctoral dissertation, Cochin University of Science and Technology).
- Kanaani, E. (2005). Tourism and Impact on Rural Societies. Dahati Journal, 70(3), 38-42
- Kannan, R. (2011). Administration of Food and Beverage Department in Luxury Hotels of Madurai and its impact on Tourists (Doctoral dissertation, Madurai Kamaraj University).
- Kant, A. (2003). *The Branding of India*. Indian Tourism Ministry Newsletter, 31-42.
- Kaul, R. N. (1985). Dynamics of tourism: a trilogy (Vol. 111). New Delhi: Transportation and Marketing.
- Kavya Michael. (2010). Rural Energy Security and Climate Injustice in India. Southern Economist, 48(17), 63.
- Kennedy, Ondimu, I. (2002). Cultural tourism in Kenya, Annals of Tourism Research, 29(4), 1036-1047.
- Kerala Tourism Department. (2016). Retrieved from https://www.keralatourism.org/.

- Kerala Tourism Policy. (2012). Department of Tourism, Government of Kerala.
- Kerala Tourism Statistics.(2007). *Research and Statistics Division*, Government of Kerala, Department of Tourism.
- Keyim, P., Yang, D. & Zhang, X. (2005). Study of Rural Tourism in Turpan, China. *Chinese Geographical Science*, 15(4), 377-382.
- King, B., Pizam, A., & Milman, A. (1993). Social impacts of tourism: Host perceptions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20(4), 650-665.
- Klytchnikova, I. & Dorosh, P. (2009). How Tourism can (and does) benefit the Poor and the Environment. A Case Study from Panama. *En Breve*, 146, The World Bank.
- Ko, T. G. (2005). Development of a tourism sustainability assessment procedure: a conceptual approach. *Tourism Management*, 26(3), 431-445.
- Koch, E. (1997). A vision of tourism for the new southern Africa: Why tourism matters. Paper prepared for the launch of Action for South Africa's People-First Tourism campaign.
- Kockelman, K. M. & Krishnamurthy, S. (2004). A new approach for travel demand modeling: linking Roy's Identity to discrete choice. *Transportation Research Part B Methodological*, 38(5), 459-475.
- Komilis, P. (1993). Values in the tourism planning and policy making process. In proceedings of the conference *Values and the Environment*, organised by the Faculty of Human Studies, University of Surrey, UK.
- Kousis, M. (1998). Ecological Marginalization in Rural Areas: Actors, Impacts, Responses. *Sociologia Ruralis*, *38*(1), 86-108.
- Kumar Ajith, M. K. (1998). *Psychographic and demographic profiles of foreign tourists visiting Kerala with special reference to spending patterns* (Doctoral dissertation, Cochin University of Science and Technology).
- Kutay, K. (1989). *Eco-tourism and Adventure Travel*. In Tourism and Ecology: The Impact of Travel on a Fragile Earth. North American Coordinating Center for Responsible Travel, Dexter OR: Consultation V, 3-7.

- Kuuder, Conrad Wuleka, Bagson, Ernest, Aalangdong & Oscar, I.(2013). Livelihood enhancement through eco-tourism; a case of Mognori eco-village near Mole National Park, Damongo, Ghana. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 4(4),128-137.
- Lafferty, William, M. & Oluf Langhelle. (1999). *Towards Sustainable Development: The Goals of Development and the Conditions of Sustainability*. London: Macmillan.
- Lane, B. (1994). Sustainable Rural Tourism Strategies: A Tool for Development and Conservation. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 2(1), 12-18.
- Langholz, J. & Lassoie, J. (2001). Combining conservation and development on private lands: Lessons from Costa Rica. *Environment, Development, and Sustainability*, 3(4), 309-322.
- Law, E. (1995). *Tourist Resort Management, Issues, Analysis and Policies*. London: Routledge.
- Lea, J. (1988). Tourism and Development in the Third World. New York: Routledge.
- Lee, C. K., & Back, K. J. (2003). Pre- and post- casino impact of residents' perception. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(4), 868-885.
- Lee, T., & Cromption, J. (1992). Measuring Novelty Seeking in Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(2), 732-751.
- Leiper, N. (1979). The Framework of Tourism: Towards a Definition of Tourism, Tourist, and the Tourist Industry. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6(4), 390-407.
- Leiper. (1990). Adopted from Cooper Chris, Fletcher John, Gilbert David & Wanhill Stephen (1990). *Tourism Principles and Practice* (2nd ed.). London: Longman.
- Lepp, A. & Gibson, H. (2008). Sensation Seeking and Tourism: Tourist Role, Perception of Risk and Destination Choice. *Tourism Management*, 29(1), 740-750.
- Liedewij van Breugel. (2013). Community-based tourism: Local participation and perceived impacts. A comparative study between two communities in Thailand (Doctoral thesis, Radboud University).

- Liu, J. C. & Var, T. (1986). Resident attitudes toward tourism impacts in Hawaii. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 13(2), 193-214.
- Liu Zhenhua. (2003). Sustainable tourism development: a critique. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 11(6), 459-475.
- Loizos Christou. (2012). Is it possible to combine mass tourism with alternative forms of tourism: the case of Spain, Greece, Slovenia and Croatia. *Journal of Business Administration*, Online Spring 2012.
- Ludmilla Oigenblick & Alan Kirschenbaum (2002). Tourism and immigration: Comparing Alternative Approaches. Annals of TourismResearch, 29(4):1086-1100.
- Luigi Cabrini. (2004). Introduction to the Seminars, Rural Tourism in Europe: Experiences, Development and Perspectives. Belgrade: World Tourism Organization.
- Macbeth, J. (1994). To sustain is to nurture, to nourish, to tolerate and to carry on: Can tourism?. *Trends*, 31(1), 42-45.
- MacCannell, D. (1992). Empty Meeting Grounds. New York: Routledge.
- MacCannell, D. (1999). *The Tourist- A New Theory of the Leisure Class*. University of California Press.
- MacDonald, R. & Jolliffe, L. (2003). Cultural rural tourism: evidence from Canada. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(9), 307-322.
- MAF. (1994). *Thinking of Starting in Rural Tourism? A Resource Book*. Ministry for Agriculture and Fisheries, Government of New Zealand.
- Mahmoudi, B., Haghsetan, A. & Meleki, R. (2011). Investigation of Obstacles and Strategies of Rural Tourism Development Using SWOT Matrix. *Journal of Sustainable Development*, 4(2), 136-141.
- Manisha Devendrabhai Thaker. (2004). *Problems and prospects of tourism industry in India* (Doctoral dissertation, Saurashtra University).

- Mannion, A.M. (1991). Additional agents of environmental change: forestry, recreation, tourism, sport and biotechnology, Annals of Tourism Research, 22(4), 843-854.
- Marcos Cohen and Jorge Ferreira da Silva (2010). Evaluation of collaborative strategies for ecotourism and recreational activities in natural parks of Rio de Janeiro. Raprio de Janeiro 44(5):1097-123.
- Masudur Rahman, M. D. (2010). Exploring the socio-economic impacts of tourism: a study of Cox's bazar, Bangladesh (Doctoral dissertation, Cardiff School of Management, University of Wales Institute).
- May, V. (1991). Tourism, environment and development Values, sustainability and stewardship. Tourism Management, 12(2), 112-124.
- Mayo, E. & Jarvis, L. (1981). The Psychology of Leisure Travel. Boston: CBI Publishing.
- Mcintosh, R. W. & Goeldner, C. R. (1984). *Tourism principles, practices, philosophies*. Columbia: Grid Publishing.
- McKercher, B. (1999). Attitudes to a non-viable community-owned heritage tourist attraction. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *9*(1), 29-43.
- Medlik, S. (2003). *Dictionary of Travel, Tourism and Hospitality*. Butterworth-Heinemann, An imprint of Elsevier Science. Linacre House: Jordan Hill, Oxford.
- Menon, M. K. (1991). *Tourism Management and Administrative Problems in Kerala* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Kerala).
- Mercer, D. (1995). Native peoples and tourism: conflict and compromise. In W. Theobald (ed.) *Global tourism: the next decade* (pp.124-145). Oxford: Butterworth Heinemmann.
- Michael, E. (2002). Antiques and Tourism in Australia. *Tourism Management*, 23(2), 117-125.
- Michael Nokokure Humavindu. (2002). *Economics without markets: Policy inferences from nature-based tourism studies in Namibia*. Directorate of Environmental Affairs Research discussion paper, Number 49.

- Middleton, V. T. C. (1998). Sustainable Tourism. British Library, Great Britain.
- Middleton, V. T. C. & Hawkins, R. (1998). *Sustainable tourism: a marketing perspective*. Butterworth: Heinemann.
- Mieczkowski, Z. (1995). *Environmental issues of tourism and recreation*. Maryland: University press of America.
- Mill, R. & Morrison, A. (2006). *The Tourism System* (5th ed.). USA: Kendall Hunt Publishing Company.
- Miller, G. (2001). The development of indicators for sustainable tourism: Results of a Delphi survey of tourism researchers. *Tourism Management*, 22(2), 351-362.
- Milne, S. (1992). Tourism Development in South Pacific Microstates. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(2), 191-212.
- Milne, S. & Ewing, G. (1999). *Encyclopedia of Tourism*, J. Jafari (ed.), London: Routledge.
- Mingyu Yang, Luc Hens, Xiaokun Ou & Robert De Wulf. (2009). Tourism: An Alternative to Development? *Mountain Research and Development*, 29(1), 75-81.
- Mitchell, J. & Muckosy, P. (2008). *A misguided quest: Community-based tourism in Latin America*. London: Overseas Development Institute.
- Mitchell, N., Rössler, M. & Tricaud, P. (2009). World Heritage Cultural Landscapes. A Handbook for Conservation and Management. World Heritage Papers, 26, UNESCO.
- Mohanlal, G. IFS. (2002). Eco-tourism in Kerala, India Linking Green Productivity to Eco-tourism Experiences in the Asia-Pacific Region. In *Asian Productivity Organization Tokyo*, Australia: University of Queensland Printery, 81-82.
- Moreno, M., Salas, F. Otoya, M. S., González, Cordero, D. & Mora, C. (2010). *Análisis de las Contribuciones de los Parques Nacionalesy Reservas Biológicas al desarrollo socioeconómico de Costa Rica 2009*. UNA, CINPE, SINAC. Heredia: Costa Rica.

- Morris Ian. (2010). Why the West Rules-For Now: The Patterns of History, and What They Reveal About the Future. New York: Farrar, Straus & Giroux.
- Moscardo Gianna. (2001). Cultural and Heritage Tourism: The Great Debates. In Bill Faulkner, Gianna Moscardo & Eric Laws (Eds.) (2001). Tourism in The Twenty-First Century (pp.-15). London: Continuum.
- Moscardo Gianna. (2003). Interpretation and Sustainable Tourism: Functions, examples and principles. The Journal of Tourism Studies, 14(1), 112-123.
- Mott MacDonald (2007). Evaluation Study of Rural Tourism Scheme MR Division, Ministry of Tourism, Government of India.
- Mowforth, A. & Munt, I. (1998). Tourism & sustainability: New tourism in the third world. London: Routledge.
- Mowforth, M. & Munt, I. (2003). Tourism and sustainability: Development and new tourism in the Third World. London: Routledge.
- Müller, H. (1994). The thorny path to sustainable development. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 2(3), 131–136.
- Muraleedhara Menon, K. (2007). Broaden Experience Endogenous Tourism. Kerala Calling, 31(2), 33-35.
- Nahab, S. (1975). Tourism Management. London: Tourism International Press.
- Nancy, M., Hodur, F., Larry Leistritz & Kara Wolfe. (2005). Assessing the economic development potential of nature-tourism. *Great Plains Research*, *15*(1), 279-296.
- Nash, D. & Butler, R. (1990). Towards sustainable tourism. *Tourism Management*, 11(3), 263-264.
- Nayar, K. R. (1994). "Politics of Sustainable Development". Economic and Political Weekly, 5, 1327-1329.
- Nazneen Akhtar. (2014). Tourism as an engine of rural development in India a case study of Sualkuchi silk village, Assam. *Indian Streams Research Journal*, 4(1), 33-38.

- Netto, N. (2004). Tourism development in Kerala. In Prakash, B. A. (Ed.) *Kerala's Economic Development: Performance and Problems*. New Delhi: Sage.
- Nevenka Cavlek.(2002). Tour operators and destination safety. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(2), 478-496.
- Nicanor, N. (2001). *Practical strategies for pro-poor tourism: NACOBTA, the Namibian case study.* PPT Working Paper No. 4, ODI, London.
- Nilmadhab Mohanty & Aarushi Goyal. (2012). Sustainable Development: Emerging Issues in India's Mineral Sector. A research study sponsored by Planning Commission, Institute for Studies in Industrial Development.
- Nilsson, P. A. (1999). Tourism's Role in a New Rural Policy for Peripheral Areas: The Case of Arjeplog. In Brown, F. & Hall, D. (ed.) *Case Studies of Tourism in Peripheral Areas* (pp.157-180), Research Center of Bornholm: Nexo.
- OECD. (1994). *Tourism Strategies and Rural Development*. Retrieved from https://www.oecd.org/cfe/tourism/2755218.pdf.
- OECD. (1997). Trends in International Migration. Annual Report 1996, Paris: OECD.
- Oladi, J. (2010). Feasibility study on eco-tourism potential areas using RS and GIS. International Archives of the Photogrammetry, Remote Sensing and Spatial Information Science, Volume XXXVIII, Part 8, Kyoto, Japan, 538.
- Oliver Kru" ger. (2005). The role of eco-tourism in conservation: panacea or Pandora's box?. *Biodiversity and Conservation*, 14(1), 579-600.
- Orams Mark, B. (1995). Towards a more desirable form of eco-tourism. *Tourism Management*. 16(1), 3-8.
- OSEM. (Ontario Society of Environmental Management) Newsletter (1989). Cited in Nelson, J. G. & Edsvik, H. (1990). Sustainable development, conservation strategies and heritage. *Alternatives*, *16*(4), 62-71.
- Otto Holicki & Neo Tladinyane. (2000). *International Organisation Development*. Retrieved from http://www.treasury.gov.za/publications/other/devco-op/section2/07.pdf.

- Page, J. & Getz, D. (1997). *The business of rural tourism*. London: Thomson Business Express.
- Page, T. (1997). On the Problem of Achieving Efficiency and Equity, Intergenerationally. *Land Economics*, 73(4), 580-596.
- Panchal Jenny, H. (2012). *The Asian spa: a study of tourist motivations, "flow" and the benefits of spa experiences* (Doctoral dissertation, James Cook University).
- Paramjeet Kaur. (2013). Medical tourism: a study of medical tourist's perceived dimensions of service quality in selected hospitals of northern India (Doctoral dissertation, Punjab University).
- Parson, E. A. & Haas, P. M. (1992). A Summary of the Major Documents Signed at the Earth Summit and the Global Forum. *Environment*, 34(4), 12-15.
- Paul Lynch, A. (2005). Sociological impressionism in a hospitality context. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(3), 527-548.
- Paul Wilkinson, F. & Wiwik Pratiwi. (1995). Gender and tourism in an Indonesian village. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22(2), 283-299.
- Payne, R. (1993). Sustainable tourism: Suggested indicators and monitoring techniques. In Nelson, J., Butler, R. W., & Wall, G. (1993) *Tourism and Sustainable Development: Monitoring, Planning, Managing* (pp. 249-54). Ontario: University of Waterloo.
- Pearce, D. (1989). *Tourist Development* (2nd ed.). Essex: Longman.
- Pearce, D. G. (2001). Tourism, trams and local government policy-making in Christchurch, New Zealand. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 4(2), 331-354.
- Pearce. D., Markandya, A., Barbier, E. B. (1989). *Blue print for a green economy*. London: Earthscan.
- Pearce Philip, L. (1990). Farm Tourism in New Zealand: A Social Situation Analysis. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17(3), 337-352.
- Perales, R. M. Y. (2002). Rural tourism in Spain. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(4), 1101-1110.

- Perdue, R., Long, P. T., & Kang, Y. (1995). Resident support for gambling as a development strategy. *Journal of Travel Research*, *34*(2), 3-11.
- Perdue, R., Long, P. T., & Kang, Y. (1999). Boomtown tourism and resident quality of life: The marketing of gaming to host community residents. *Journal of Business Research*, 44(3), 165-177.
- Peter Björk. (2001). Sustainable Tourism Development, Fact or Fiction in Small Tourism Companies?. L T A 3 / 0 1, 328-345.
- Peter Mason & Joanne Cheyne. (2000). Residents' attitudes to proposed tourism development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(2), 391-411.
- Peter Murphy, E. (1985). Tourism: A Community Approach. USA: Methuen.
- Petric, L. (2003). Constraints and possibilities of the rural tourism development with special stress on the case of Croatia. Finland: University of Jyvaskyla.
- Pevetz, W. (1991). Agriculture and Tourism in Austria. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 16(1), 57-60.
- Philip Kotler, T., John Bowen, T. & James Makens (2014). *Marketing for Hospitalty and Tourism*. New York: Routledge.
- Pitcher, M. J., Van Oosterzee, P., & Palmer, L. (1999). *Choice and Control: The Development of Indigenous Tourism in Australia*. Centre for Indigenous Cultural and Natural Resource Management, Darwin.
- Pitchford, S. R. (1995). Ethnic Tourism and Nationalism in Wales. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22(1), 35-52.
- Poria, Y., Butler, R. & Airey, D. (2001). Clarifying Heritage Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(4), 1047-1049.
- Pratima Bansal. (2002). The Corporate Challenges of Sustainable Development. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 16(2), 122-131.
- Prideaux, B. (2000). The role of the transport system in destination development. *Tourism Management*, 21(1), 53-63.

- Privitera, D. (2010). The Importance of Organic Agriculture in Rural Tourism. Applied Studies in Agri-business and Commerce (Abstract), 4(1), 59-64.
- Prosser, R. (1994). Societal change and the growth in alternative tourism. In Cater, E. & Lowman, G. (ed.) Eco-tourism: A Sustainable Option? (pp. 19-37). Chichester: John Wiley.
- Puppim de Oliveira, J. A. (2003). Governmental responses to tourism development: three Brazilian case studies. Tourism Management, 24(1), 97-110.
- Queens Land Eco-tourism plan. (2003-2008). Sustainable Tourism in Queensland's natural areas. Retrieved from http://www.tq.com.au/fms/tq.
- Radhakrishnan Anil, S. (2006). Wooing tourists through mobile phones. Retrieved from http://www.hindu.com/2006/08/14/stories/2006081406730400.htm.
- Raktida Siri, B. A. (2009). Indian tourists' motivation, perception, and satisfaction of Bangkok, Thailand (Master of Science Thesis, University of North Texas).
- Ramesh Kumar Miryala. (2015). Trends, Challenges & Innovations in Management. Hyderabad:Zenon Academic Publishing.
- Rao, N. & Suresh, K. T. (2001). Domestic tourism in India. In Ghimire In K. Ghimire (Eds.) The Native Tourist: Mass Tourism within Developing Countries (pp.198-228), London: Earthscan.
- RBI report.(2016). Hand book of statistics on the Indian economy, Retrieved from http://dbie.rbi.org.in.
- Reenu Jindal. (2013). Tourism-Prospects And Marketing Strategy For Tourism (Doctoral dissertation, University Business School, Punjab University).
- Rees, W. (1989). Defining 'Sustainable Development'. UBC Centre for Human Settlements, CHS Research Bulletin, University of British Columbia.
- Renata Tomljenovic & Bill Faulkner. (2000). Tourism and older residents in a sunbelt resort. Annals of Tourism Research, 27(1), 93-114.
- Reynolds, W. (1965). The Role of the Consumer in Image Building. California Management Review, 7(3), 69-76.

- Richards, G. (1996). Production and Consumption of European Cultural Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(1), 261-283.
- Robert Christie Mill (2008). *The Sage Handbook of Hospitality Management*. New York: Sage Publications.
- Robert Kates, Thomas Parris, W. & Anthony Leiserowitz, A. (2005). What is Sustainable Development? *Environment: Science and Policy for Sustainable Development*, 47(3), 8-21.
- Robey Callahan. (1998). Ethnic Politics and Tourism a British Case Study. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(4), 818-836.
- Roche, M. (1992). Mega-Events and Micro-Modernization: On the Sociology of the New Urban Tourism. *The British Journal of Sociology*, *43*(4), 563-600.
- Rodenburg, E. (1980). The Effects of Scale in Economic Development: Tourism in Bali. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 7(2), 177-196.
- Roehl, W. & Fesenmaier, D. (1992). Risk Perceptions and Pleasure Travel: An Exploratory Analysis. *Journal of Travel Research*, 2(4), 17-26.
- Roseland, M. (2005). *Towards sustainable communities: Resources for citizen and their governments*. Gabriola Island: New Society Publishers.
- Roselyne N. Okech (2009). Eco-tourism and the economy: case study of Mara & Amboseli in Kenya. *Journal of tourism studies and research in tourism*, *5*(4), 9-13.
- Ross, S. & Wall, G. (1999). Eco-tourism: Towards Congruence Between Theory and Practice. *Tourism Management*, 20(1), 123-132.
- Ryan, C. (1991). Recreational Tourism: A Social Science Perspective. London: Routledge.
- Ryan, C. (2003). Aspects of Tourism. British Library, Great Britain.
- Rymer, T. M. (1992). Growth of U.S. Eco-tourism and Its Future in the 1990s. *FIU Hospitality Review*, *10*(1), 1-10.

- Sanchey Malviya. (2005). Tourism: Tourism, environment and the society. Gyan Publishing House: New Delhi.
- Scace, R. C. (1993). An Eco-tourism Perspective. In Tourism and Sustainable Development: Monitoring, Planning, Managing, Waterloo: University of Waterloo, 59-82.
- Scheyens, R. (1999). Eco-tourism and the empowerment of local communities. *Tourism* Management, 20(2), 245-249.
- Scheyvens, R. (2002). Tourism for development: empowering communities. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Schiffman, L. G. & Kanuk, L. L. (1978). Consumer Behaviour. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Sebanti Ghosh & Colleen Cameroon. (2006). Strengthening Communities through Community Health Impact Assessment. Strength Based Strategies Conference, Hyderabad.
- Seetanah, B., Juwaheer, T. D., Lamport, Rojid, M. J., Sannassee, S. & Subadar Agathee, R. V. (2011). Does Infrastructure Matter In Tourism Development?. University of Mauritius Research Journal, 17(1), 89-108.
- Sen, A. & Jean Drèze. (1989). Hunger and Public Action. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Sharpley, R. & Sharpley, J. (1997). Rural Tourism: An Introduction. London: International Thomson Business.
- Sharpley, R. (2003). Rural Tourism and Sustainability a Critique. In Hall, D., Roberts, & Mitchell, M. (Eds), New Directions in Rural Tourism (pp. 38-53). Aldershot: Ashgate Publishing Limited.
- Sheryl Ross, Geoffrey Wall. (1999). Eco-tourism: towards congruence between theory and practice. Tourism Management, 20(2), 123-132.
- Shrivastava, P.(1995). The Role of Corporations in Achieving Ecological Sustainability. Academy of Management Review, 20(4), 936-960.

- Simanta Kalita. (2010). A Journey of Empowering a Community for Self Reliance: Endogenous Tourism Project in Sualkuchi, Assam, India. *Field Actions Science Reports*, 4(2), 1-6.
- Simon Chiutsi, Memory Mukoroverwa, Pauline Karigambe & Boycen Kumira Mudzengi. (2011). The theory and practice of eco-tourism in Southern Africa. *Journal of Hospitality Management and Tourism*, 2(2), 14-21.
- Sinclair, T. (1998). Tourism and economic development: a survey. *Journal of Development Studies*, 34(5), 1-51.
- Sinclair, T. & Stabler, M. (2002). The Economics of Tourism. London: Routledge.
- Singh P. K. (2005). Five Decades of Rural Development in India: Tasks Ahead. *Southern Economist*, 44(1), 9-16.
- Smith, C. & Jenner, P. (1992). The Leakage of Foreign Exchange Earnings From Tourism. *EIU Travel and Tourism Analyst*, 3(3), 52-66.
- Smith, S. L. J. (1994). The tourism product. Annals of Tourism Research, 21(3), 582-595.
- Smith Valene. (1977). *Hosts and Guests: The Anthropology of Tourism*. University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia.
- Smith Valene, L. & William Eadington, R. (1992). *Tourism Alternatives: Potentials and Problems In The Development Of Tourism*. New York: John Wiley.
- Stefan Go"ssling. (2002). Human–environmental relations with tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(2), 539-556.
- Stephen Wearing & John Neil. (1999). *Eco-tourism: Impacts, Potentials, and Possibilities*. Butterworth: Heinemann.
- Stephen Williams. (2014). *Tourism: New directions and alternative tourism*, London: Taylor & Francis.
- Sternberg, E. (1997). The Iconography of the Tourism Experience. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(4), 951-969.

- Stone, L. (1989). Cultural cross-roads of community participation in development: A case from Nepal. *Human Organisation*, 48(3), 206-213.
- Streckfuss, J. (1997). *Tourism Potential of Small Farms*, Proceedings of the Alternative Crops Seminar, North West Sydney Regional Development Organization.
- Stynes, D. J. (1997). *Economic Impacts of Tourism*. Illinois Bureau of Tourism, Department of Commerce and Community Affairs.
- Subash, T. (2012). *The Role of District Tourism Promotion Councils in the Promotion of Tourism in Kerala* (Doctoral dissertation, Mahatma Gandhi University).
- Sudheer, S. V. (1991). *Tourism in Kerala: Problems and Prospects* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Kerala).
- Sumanth Gopala Reddy. (2013). *Medical tourism in India: an exploratory study* (Doctoral dissertation, Kansas State University).
- Svetlana Stepchenkova., Alastair, M. & Morrison. (2008). Russia's destination image among American pleasure travellers: Revisiting Echtner and Ritchie. *Tourism Management*, 29(1), 548-560.
- Swarbrooke, J. & Horner, S. (1999). *Consumer Behavior in Tourism*. Great Britain: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Tao, C. H., Eagles, P. F. J. & Smith, S. L. J. (2004). Profiling Taiwanese eco-tourists using a self-definition approach. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 12(2), 149-168.
- Telce, Y. H. & Schroenn, J. L. (2006). The Contribution of HRD to Tourism-Led Development in an African Context. *South Africa Journal of Economics and Management Sciences*, 9(4), 444-457.
- Telfer, D. J. & Sharpley, R. (2008). *Tourism and development in the developing world*. New York: Routledge.
- Telfer, D. J. & Wall, G. (2000). Strengthening backward economic linkages: local food purchasing by three Indonesian hotels. *Tourism Geographies*, *2*(4), 421-447.

- The Hindu. (2007). About 70 per cent Indians live in rural areas: Census report, retrieved from www.thehindu.com/news/national/About-70...Indians-live-in.../article13744 351.ece.
- The Hindu. (2008).Aranmula to host rural tourism festival:, retrieved from www.thehindu.com/todays.../tp-national/.../aranmula...rural-tourism.../article1323452.ec...
- The Johannesburg Declaration on Sustainable Development. (2002). Retrieved from http://www.housing.gov.za/content/legislation policies/johannesburg.htm.
- Thenmala ecotourism official website. (2013). Retrieved from thenmalaecotourism.com/contact.php.
- Timothy, D. J. (1999). Participatory planning: A view of tourism in Indonesia. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(2), 371-391.
- Tisdell, C. (2000). Introduction: Basic Economics of Tourism: An Overview. In, C. Tisdell, ed. *The Economics of Tourism*, Vol. 1: xv–xxxix, Northampton: Elgar Reference Collection.
- Torres, R. (2003). Linkages between tourism and agriculture in Mexico. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(3), 546-566.
- Tosun, C. (2000). Limits to community participation in the tourism development process in developing countries. *Tourism Management*, 21(6), 613-633.
- Tourism Task Force. (2003). Down the track; Better Ways to deliver tourism's land transport infrastructure. Retrieved from http://www.ttf.org.au.
- Turner, L. & Ash, J. (1975). *The Golden Hordes: International Tourism and the Pleasure Periphery*. London: Constable.
- UN. (1999). *Report* of the seventh session of the United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development. Document E/1999/29-E/CN.17/1999/20, New York.
- UN. (2001). *Sustainable development of tourism*. Report of the Secretary-General, Document No. E/CN.17/2001/ PC/21, New York.

- UNCTAD. (2010). *The Contribution of Tourism to Trade and Development*. Note by the UNCTAD secretariat, TD/B/C.I/8.
- UNEP. (2005). Making Tourism More Sustainable: A Guide for Policy Makers. France: UNEP.
- UNRISD. (2011). Social Development in an Uncertain World, United Nations Research Institute for Social Development Research Agenda 2010–2014, Geneva.
- UNWTO. (2004a). Indicators of sustainable development for tourism destinations. A Guidebook. Madrid, Spain: World Tourism Organization.
- UNWTO. (2004b). Tourism and Poverty Alleviation: Recommendations for Action. Madrid: World Tourism Organization.
- UNWTO. (2012). Definition of sustainable tourism. Retrieved from http://sdt.unwto.org/en/content/ about-us.
- Uriely, Israeli, N. A & Reichel, A. (2002). Heritage Proximity and Resident Attitudes Towards Tourism Development. Annals of Tourism Research, 29(3), 858-862.
- Urry, J. (1990). The Tourist Gaze: Leisure and Travel in Contemporary Societies. London: Sage.
- Urry, J. (1995). Consuming Places. London: Routledge.
- Valentin, A. & Spengenberg, J. H. (2000). A guide to community sustainability indicators. *Environmental Impact Assessment Review*, 20(3), 381-392.
- Van den Berghe, P. & Keyes, C. (1984). Introduction: Tourism and Re-Created Ethnicity. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 11(3), 343-352.
- Vani Borooah, K. (1999). The supply of hotel rooms in Queensland, Australia. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(4), 985-1003.
- Verma, M. (2010). Globalization Process in India and the Third World: Certain Areas of Concern. *South Asian Journal of Socio-Political Studies (SAJOSPS)*, 10(2), 13-19.
- Vijay Thakur. (2010). Rural Tourism in India. Yojana, 54(5), 31-33.

- Vijayakumar, B. (1995). Sustainable Development of Eco-tourism in Kerala (Doctoral dissertation, University of Kerala).
- Vincent, J. A. (1980). The political economy of alpine development. *Sociologia ruralis*, 20(3), 250-71.
- Vinodan, A. & James Manalel. (2011). Local Economic Benefits of Eco-tourism: A Case Study on Parambikulam Tiger Reserve in Kerala, India. *South Asian Journal of Tourism Heritage*, 2(4), 93-108.
- Vishaish Uppal. (2011). Outcome Evaluation of UNDP India's Energy, Environment and Poverty Reduction Programmes, commissioned by UNDP India. Ministry of Tourism, Government of India.
- Wallace, G. (1997). *Toward a Principled Evaluation of Eco-tourism Ventures*. Retrieved from www.eco-tourism. org/retiesselfr.html.
- Wang, Y. C. (2006). The new form and model of development of rural tourism in China. *Tourism Tribune*, 21(4), 6-8.
- Watson, Llewellyn, G. & Kopachevsky Joseph, P. (1994). Interpretations of tourism as commodity. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(3), 643-660.
- WCED. (1987). *Our Common Future*. Report of the World Commission for Sustainable Development, Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press.
- Weaver, D. (1999). Magnitude of Eco-tourism in Costa Rica and Kenya. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(4), 792-816.
- Weaver, D. (2002). Eco-tourism. Brisbane: Wiley.
- WEF. (2009). The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report 2009. Managing in a Time of Turbulence. Geneva: World Economic Forum.
- Weinberg, A., Bellows, S. & Ekster, D. (2002). Sustaining Eco-tourism: Insights and Implications from Two Successful Case Studies. *Society and Natural Resources*, 15(4), 371-380.

- Western Australian Tourism Commission. (2000). Partnership 21: 2001-2005 Tourism Industry Plan: a Working Strategy Reviewed Annually. Western Australian Tourism Commission.
- Western, D. (1993). Defining Eco-tourism. In K. Lindberg & D. E. Hawkins (eds.) Ecotourism: A Guide for Planners & Managers (pp. 1-12), North Bennington.
- Wheeller, B. (1993). Sustaining the ego. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 1(2), 121-129.
- Whitlock, W., Van Romer, K. & Becker, R. (1991). Nature-Based Tourism: An Annotated Bibliography. Clemson, SC, Clemson University, Strom Thurmond Institute.
- Wicks, B. E & Merrett, C. D. (2003). Agri-tourism: An economic opportunity for Illinois. Rural Research Report, 14(9), 1-8.
 - Witt, S. F., & Witt, C. A. (1995). Forecasting tourism demand: A review of empirical research. International Journal of Forecasting, 11, 447-475.
- Wood, R. E. (1984). Ethnic Tourism, the State and Cultural Change in Southeast Asia. Annals of Tourism Research, 11(3), 353-374.
- Woodley, A. (1993). Tourism and Sustainable Development: The Community Perspective. In Nelson, J., Butler, R. & Wall, G. (eds.) (1993). Tourism and Sustainable Development: Monitoring, Planning, Managing (pp.135-147). Heritage Resources Centre, University of Waterloo.
- World Summit Sustainable Development. (2002).Retrieved from www.un.org/events/wssd/summaries/envdevj35.htm.
- WTO. (1995). Recommendations on Tourism Statistics. Madrid. Spain: WTO.
- WTO. (1997). International Tourism: a global Perspective. Madrid. Spain: WTO.
- WTO. (1999). International Tourism: a global perspective (2nd ed.). Madrid. Spain: WTO.
- WTO. (2001). Sustainable Development of Tourism: A Compilation of Good Practices. Madrid. Spain: WTO.

- WTTC. (2006). South Africa: the 2007 travel & tourism economic research. Retrieved from www.wttc.org.
- WTTC (2017). Travel & Tourism Economic Impact India. Retrieved from www.wttc.org.
- Wunder, S. (2000). Eco-tourism and Economic Incentives: An Empirical Approach. *Ecological Economics*, 32(3), 465-479.
- WWF. (1995). Eco-tourism: conservation tool or threat?. *Conserve*, 2(3), 1-10. www.https://www.keralatourism.org/.
- Yadghar, A. (2004). Changes process and challenges of rural reclamation and development in Iran. *Journal of rural researches*, 48 (1), 71-90.
- Yang Sinji, Pennington-Gray, Lori Holecek, Donald, F. (1997). Proceedings of the Northeastern Recreation Research Symposium, Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Northeastern Forest Experiment Station, 112-116.
- Yilmaz, S. & Demircioglu Yildiz, N. (2009). The role of climatic elements in public tendency towards alternative tourism: a sample of Turkey. *Atmósfera*, 22(4), 367-374.
- Yiping, Li. (2000). Ethnic Tourism a Canadian Experience. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(1), 115-131.
- Young, G. (1973). *Tourism Blessing or blight?*. London: Penguin.
- Zeppal, H. & Hall, C. (1991). Selling Art and History: Cultural Heritage and Tourism. *Tourism Studies*, 2(1), 47–55.
- Zolile Ntshona and Edward Lahiff. (2003). Community-Based Eco-Tourism on the Wild Coast, South Africa: The Case of the Amadiba Trail. Retrieved from http://www.ids.ac.uk/slsa.

ANNEXURE 1

Interview schedule for the different categories of tourism service providers in the different tourism villages in Kerala

A. Personal background

- 1. Name:
- 2. Age:
- 3. Sex: a) Male b) Female
- 4. Name of your village and district
- 5. Your present occupation after involving in village tourism.
- a) Agriculture b) Artisan c) Fishing d) Traditional art performance e) Hotel
- f) Tourist guide g) Petty shop h) Sale of local products and handicrafts
- i) Traditional cuisine/catering j) Transportation k) Others
- 6. Your earlier occupation.
- a) Agriculture b) Artisan c) Fishing d) Hotel e) Jobless f) Labourer
- g) Petty shop h) Private jobl i) Retired government employee j) Traditional art Performance k) Transportation l) Others

B. Educational Background

- 7. Please mark the appropriate response regarding your educational qualification.
- a) Illiterate b) L. P c) U. P d) S. S. L. C e) Pre-degree/ Plus- two f) Graduation
- g) Post graduate h) Professional degree i) Poly technic /diploma j) Others
- 8. Please rank appropriately the reasons which have hindered the education of your children before the promotion of tourism in the village.

Si. No	Reasons	Rank
1.	Non availability of schools near to your village	
2.	Non availability of colleges near to your village	
3.	Transportation difficulties	
4.	Low income in the family	
5.	Unawareness of the prospects of education	
6.	Others	

C. Economic background

9. Your monthly income before and after taking up of the present job in tourism.

Si. No.	Category (Rs.)	Before	Category (Rs.)	After
1.	No income		<10,000	
2.	< 3,000		10,000-15,000	
3.	3,000-6,000		15,000-20,000	
4.	6,000-9,000		20,000-25,000	
5.	9,000-12,000		25,000-30,000	
6.	12, 000-15,000		30, 000-35,000	

10. Please answer the following questions which make a comparison between your economic conditions before and after joining tourism-related job.

Si. No.	Economic conditions	After	Before
	a. Household amenities		
1.	Cooking gas		
2.	Fan		
3.	Television		
4.	Telephone		
5.	Refrigerator		
6.	Music system		
7.	Mixie		
8.	Grinder		
9.	Microwave oven		
10.	Two wheeler		
11.	Car		
12.	Air conditioner		

Si. No.	Economic conditions	After	Before
13.	Computer		
14.	Furnitures		
15.	Washing machine		
16.	Others		

D. Living Conditions

11. Please answer the following questions which make a comparison between your living conditions before and after joining the present job related to tourism.

Si. No.	Living conditions	After	Before
	a. House You Live in		
1.	Own		
2.	Rented		
3.	Provided by employer		
4.	Others		
5.	b. Type of house Thatched		
6.	Tiled		
7.	Concrete		
8.	c. Toilet facility Open space		
9.	Community toilets		
10.	Public toilets		
11.	Own toilet		
12.	d. Type of waste disposal Solid compost		
13.	Burning		

Si. No.	Living conditions	After	Before
14.	Kudumbasree		
15.	Any other		
16	g. Electrification of house a) Yes		
17.	b) No		

E. General Questions

- 12. Please tick your appropriate response that shows the reason for joining tourism related job.
 - 1. Strongly agree 2. Agree 3. Neutral 4. Disagree 5. Strongly disagree

Si. No.	Reason for joining tourism-related job	1	2	3	4	5
1.	Job is interesting					
2.	Chance to deal with people from different countries					
3.	Creates better living conditions					
4.	Eagerness to try different jobs					
5.	Attraction of tourism as an economic activity					
6.	Profitability of the industry					
7.	A better substitute to my earlier job					
8.	Good business opportunities in tourism					
9.	Initial career					
10.	Self employment prospects					
11.	Found opportunities for people even without particular educational qualification					
12.	Involvement of family in tourism activities					

- 13. Please express your opinion on each of the following parameters that are concerned to an increase/ progress in terms of economic development, infrastructural development, social development, preservation of natural assets and environment in the village after the active promotion of tourism.
- 1. High increase 2. Moderate increase 3. No change 4. Moderate decrease 5. High decrease

Si. No.	Factors pertaining to economic development	1	2	3	4	5
1.	Employment opportunities for local residents					
2.	Wages of tourism service providers					
3.	Advancement in economic condition of tourism service providers					
4.	Investment opportunities for tourism service providers					
5.	Savings of tourism service providers					
6.	Access to credit facilities for tourism service providers					
7.	Ownership of productive and consumer assets by tourism service providers					
8.	Number of restaurants owned by local residents					
9.	Number of stores owned by local residents					
10.	Small and Micro Enterprises producing tourism products or services.					
11.	Sale of locally produced goods to tourism enterprises					
12.	Road facilities					
13.	Transportation facilities in the village					
14.	Hospital facilities					
15.	Number of libraries					
16.	Number of clubs					
17.	Electrification facilities in the village					
18.	Hotels and catering facilities					
19.	Travel agencies					

	Factors pertaining to infrastructural development		
20.	Rainwater harvesting plants		
21.	Number of schools		
22.	Number of colleges		
23.	Number of institutions offering vocational training for tourism employment		
24.	Accommodation facilities		
25.	Effective waste disposal mechanism		
26.	Pure drinking water facilities		
27.	Communication facilities		
	Factors pertaining to social development		
28.	Capacity to interact friendly with tourists		
29.	Learning of the language and culture of foreign tourists		
30.	Personality development		
31.	Awareness about other countries and their customs		
32.	Self confidence level		
33.	Problem solving capacity		
34.	Control over the usage of money		
35.	Decision making ability		
36.	Participation in public affairs		
37.	Provides educational experience		
38.	Education level in the family		
39.	Positive changes in values and customs		
40.	Health consciousness		
41.	Participation in community programmes		
42.	Leadership skills		
43.	Preservation of forgotten or threatened heritage resources		
44.	Social awareness		

45.	Standard of living			
46.	Progress in linguistic and communication skills			
47.	Responsibility and commitment to the society			
48.	Strengthening of communities			
49.	Number of enterprises providing voluntary support to tourists			
50.	Recognition in society			

Thank You

ANNEXURE 2

Interview schedule for the people who run homestays in the different tourism villages in Kerala

A. Personal background

- 1. Name of the respondent:
- 2. Age of the respondent:
- 3. Sex
- a) Male b) Female
- 4. Name of your village:
- 5. Name of your homestay:
- 6. Year of starting this homestay:
- 7. Is your homestay registered with the government?
- a) Yes b) No
- 8. If yes, grade of your homestay
- a) Diamond b) Gold c) Silver d) Unregistered
- 9. Occupation before starting homestay
- a) Professional b) Business c) Private job d) Retired from government services
- e) Jobless f) Others

B. Educational Background

- 10. Please mark the appropriate response regarding your educational qualification.
- a) Illiterate b) L. P c) U. P d) S. S. L. C e) Pre-degree/ Plus- two f) Graduation
- g) Post graduate h) Professional degree i) Poly technic /diploma j) Others
- 11. Please rank appropriately the reasons which have hindered the education of your children before the promotion of tourism in the village.

Si. No.	Reasons	Rank
1.	Non availability of schools near to your village	
2.	Non availability of colleges near to your village	
3.	Transportation difficulties	
4.	Low income in the family	
5.	Unawareness of the prospects of education	
6.	Others	

C. ECONOMIC BACK GROUND

12. Give appropriate answer regarding your present monthly income after starting of homestay (income from homestay alone) and your earlier monthly income.

Si. No.	Category (Rs.)	Before	Category (Rs.)	After
1.	No income		< 10,000	
2.	< 3,000		10,000-15,000	
3.	3,000-6,000		15,000-20,000	
4.	6,000-9,000		20,000-25,000	
5.	9,000-12,000		25,000-30,000	_
6.	12,0000-15,000		30,000-35,000	

13. Answer the following questions which make a comparison between your economic conditions before and after starting of homestay.

Si. No.	Economic conditions	After starting homestay	Before starting homestay
	a. Household amenities		
1.	Cooking gas		
2.	Fan		
3.	Television		
4.	Telephone		
5.	Refrigerator		
6.	Music system		
7.	Mixie		
8.	Grinder		
9.	Microwave oven		
10.	Two wheeler		
11.	Car		

Si. No.	Economic conditions	After starting homestay	Before starting homestay
12.	Air conditioner		
13.	Computer		
14.	Furnitures		
15.	Washing machine		
16.	Others		

D. Living Conditions

14. Please answer the following questions which make a comparison between your living conditions before and after starting of homestay.

Si. No.	Living conditions	After	Before
	a. House You Live in		
1.	Own		
2.	Rented		
3.	Provided by employer		
4.	Others		
	b. Type of house		
5.	Thatched		
6.	Tiled		
7.	Concrete		
0	c. Toilet facility		
8.	Open space		
9.	Community toilets		
10.	Public toilets		
11.	Own toilet		
	d. Type of waste disposal		
12.	Solid compost		
13.	Burning		

Si. No.	Living conditions	After	Before
14.	Kudumbasree		
15.	Any other		
	e. Electrification of house		
16.	Yes		
17.	No		

E. General Questions

- 15. Select the appropriate response regarding the factors that influenced you to start the homestay
- 1. Highly significant 2. Significant 3. Neutral 4. Insignificant 5. Highly insignificant

Si. No.	Factors for starting homestay	1	2	3	4	5
1.	To enhance earnings					
2.	Experience of other successful homestays					
3.	Pleasure in extending hospitality to tourists					
4.	To enhance the value of the ancestral property					
5.	To serve the tourists the delicious Kerala cuisine which you expertise					

- 16. Please express your opinion regarding the following statements regarding the scenario of economic development, infrastructural development and social development in the village after the active promotion of tourism.
- 1. High increase 2. Moderate increase 3. No change 4. Moderate decrease 5. High decrease

Si. No.	Factors pertaining to economic development	1	2	3	4	5
1.	Employment opportunities for local residents					
2.	Wages of tourism service providers					
3.	Advancement in economic condition of tourism service providers					
4.	Investment opportunities for tourism service providers					

Factors pertaining to economic development	1	2	3	4	5
Savings of tourism service providers					
Access to credit facilities for tourism service providers					
Ownership of productive and consumer assets by tourism service providers					
Number of restaurants owned by local residents					
Number of stores owned by local residents					
Small and Micro Enterprises producing tourism products or services.					
Sale of locally produced goods to tourism enterprises					
Factors pertaining to infrastructural development					
Road facilities					
Transportation facilities in the village					
Hospital facilities					
Number of libraries					
Number of clubs					
Electrification facilities in the village					
Hotels and catering facilities					
Travel agencies					
Rainwater harvesting plants					
Number of schools					
Number of colleges					
	Savings of tourism service providers Access to credit facilities for tourism service providers Ownership of productive and consumer assets by tourism service providers Number of restaurants owned by local residents Number of stores owned by local residents Small and Micro Enterprises producing tourism products or services. Sale of locally produced goods to tourism enterprises Factors pertaining to infrastructural development Road facilities Transportation facilities in the village Hospital facilities Number of clubs Electrification facilities in the village Hotels and catering facilities Travel agencies Rainwater harvesting plants Number of schools	Savings of tourism service providers Access to credit facilities for tourism service providers Ownership of productive and consumer assets by tourism service providers Number of restaurants owned by local residents Number of stores owned by local residents Small and Micro Enterprises producing tourism products or services. Sale of locally produced goods to tourism enterprises Factors pertaining to infrastructural development Road facilities Transportation facilities in the village Hospital facilities Number of clubs Electrification facilities in the village Hotels and catering facilities Travel agencies Rainwater harvesting plants Number of schools	Savings of tourism service providers Access to credit facilities for tourism service providers Ownership of productive and consumer assets by tourism service providers Number of restaurants owned by local residents Number of stores owned by local residents Small and Micro Enterprises producing tourism products or services. Sale of locally produced goods to tourism enterprises Factors pertaining to infrastructural development Road facilities Transportation facilities in the village Hospital facilities Number of clubs Electrification facilities in the village Hotels and catering facilities Travel agencies Rainwater harvesting plants Number of schools	Savings of tourism service providers Access to credit facilities for tourism service providers Ownership of productive and consumer assets by tourism service providers Number of restaurants owned by local residents Number of stores owned by local residents Small and Micro Enterprises producing tourism products or services. Sale of locally produced goods to tourism enterprises Factors pertaining to infrastructural development Road facilities Transportation facilities in the village Hospital facilities Number of libraries Number of clubs Electrification facilities in the village Hotels and catering facilities Travel agencies Rainwater harvesting plants Number of schools	Savings of tourism service providers Access to credit facilities for tourism service providers Ownership of productive and consumer assets by tourism service providers Number of restaurants owned by local residents Number of stores owned by local residents Small and Micro Enterprises producing tourism products or services. Sale of locally produced goods to tourism enterprises Factors pertaining to infrastructural development Road facilities Transportation facilities in the village Hospital facilities Number of libraries Number of clubs Electrification facilities in the village Hotels and catering facilities Travel agencies Rainwater harvesting plants Number of schools

Si. No.	Factors pertaining to economic development	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Number of institutions offering vocational training for tourism employment					
24.	Accommodation facilities					
25.	Effective waste disposal mechanism					
26.	Pure drinking water facilities					
27.	Communication facilities					
	Factors pertaining to social development					
28.	Capacity to interact friendly with tourists					
29.	Learning of the language and culture of foreign tourists					
30.	Personality development					
31.	Awareness about other countries and their customs					
32.	Self confidence level					
33.	Problem solving capacity					
34.	Control over the usage of money					
35.	Decision making ability					
36.	Participation in public affairs					
37.	Provides educational experience					
38.	Education level in the family					
39.	Positive changes in values and customs					

Si. No.	Factors pertaining to economic development	1	2	3	4	5
40.	Health consciousness					
41.	Participation in community programmes					
42.	Leadership skills					
43.	Preservation of forgotten or threatened heritage resources					
44.	Social awareness					
45.	Standard of living					
46.	Progress in linguistic and communication skills					
47.	Responsibility and commitment to the society					
48.	Strengthening of communities					
49.	Number of enterprises providing voluntary support to tourists					
50.	Recognition in society					

Thank You

ANNEXURE 3

Interview schedule for the tourists who are visiting the different tourism villages in Kerala

A. Personal background

- 1. Name:
- 2. Age:
- 3. Sex
- a) Male b) Female
- 4. Tourist category
- a) Foreign b) Domestic
- 5. Nationality of the respondent
- 6. Educational qualification
- a) Below graduation b) Graduation c) Post graduation d) Others
- 7. Occupation
- a) Business b) Government official c) Pvt company official d) Professional
- e) Retired Official f) Student g) Service h) Teaching professional i) Others
- j) Unemployed
- 8. Monthly income in US Dollars for foreign tourists
- a) < 4,000 b) 4,000-7,000 c) 7,000-10,000 d) 10,000-13, 000 e) >13,000
- 9. Monthly income for domestic tourists in Rupees
- a) < 30,000 b) 30,000-40,000 c) 40,000-50,0000 d) 50,000-60,000 e) > 60,000

B. Details on visit to the village:

10. Please select the appropriate response regarding the factors that influenced you in selecting this particular village as your tourism destination.

1. Highly significant 2. Significant 3. Neutral 4. Insignificant 5. Highly insignificant

Si. No.	Reasons that influenced your choice of this destination	1	2	3	4	5
1.	Recommendation (friends, family, etc)					
2.	Previous experience					
3.	Passing through/on the way to another location					
4.	Eagerness to experience traditional hospitality					
5.	Advertisements in the media about this village					
6.	Exploring somewhere new					
7.	Recommendations from Tourist Information Centres					
8.	Inspiration from the narrations of tourist guide					
9.	Holidaying					
10.	To experience nature's beauty					
11.	To experience village life					
12.	Came under package tour					
13	Wildlife					
14.	Back water/river/lake					

11.Please select the appropriate response regarding the following factors that are significant for promoting this village as a Quality Visitor Destination.

1. Excellent 2. Very good 3. Good 4. Average 5. Poor

Si. No.	View on the following facilities in this village	1	2	3	4	5
	Factor 1-Visitor attractions:	·				
1.	Varieties and number					
2.	Quality of service					
3.	Worthiness of money spent					
4.	Accessibility					
	Factor 2-Hotels and Restaurant failities:					
5.	Varieties and number					
6.	Quality of service					
7.	Worthiness of money spent					
8.	Accessibility					
	Factor 3-Shopping facilities:					
9.	Varieties and number					
10.	Quality of service					
11.	Value for money					
12.	Accessibility					
	Factor 4-Accommodation facilities:					
13.	Varieties and number					
14.	Quality of service					
15.	Value for money					
16.	Accessibility					

Si. No.	View on the following facilities in this village	1	2	3	4	5
	Factor 5-Guidance in and around the detination:					
17.	Road signs					
18.	Pedestrian signs					
19.	Display maps & information boards					
	Factor 6-Parking facilities:					
20.	Ease of parking					
21.	Cost of parking					
	Factor 7 – Toilet facilities:					
22.	Availability					
23.	Cleanliness					
24.	Accessibility					
	Factor 8- Transportation facilities:					
25.	Public Transport					
26.	Car rentals					
27.	Auto rickshaws					
	Factor 9-Quality of the destination:					
28.	Condition of roads and footpaths					
29.	Cleanliness and general hygene					
30.	Picnic sites					
31.	Cuisine					
	Factor 10-Tourist information and additional service.	s:				
32.	Welcome					
33.	Speed of service					
34.	Helpfulness of information provided					
35.	Accessibility					

Si. No.	View on the following facilities in this village	1	2	3	4	5
36.	Provision of information, services and facilities for disabled people					

Thank you

Annexure 4

List of Publications

Publications

- 1. Dhanya Babu, V. (2016). Study on the Theoretical Framework of Alternative Tourism. *Excellence International Journal of Scientific Research* (ISSN 2394-4242), 3(4), pp. 21-26.
- 2. Dhanya Babu, V. (2015). Medical Tourism India Beckons the Medical Tourists With Its Uniqueness. *Research Scholar* (ISSN 2249-6696), *5*(1), pp. 46-53.
- 3. Dhanya Babu, V. (2015). Prospects of Promotion of Village Tourism in India. *Mirror* (ISSN 2249-8117), *5*(1), pp. 106-114.
- 4. Dhanya Babu, V. (2015). Role of Tourism in the Economic Development of Villages in Kerala. *Excellence International Journal of Scientific Research* (ISSN 2394-4242), *I*(5), pp. 81-92.
- 5. Dhanya Babu, V., Moli Koshy, P. (2011). A Kaleidoscopic View of Tourism Instilled Development in Kerala. *Marketing in the Post Recession Era* (ISBN 93-81361-03-7), Excel India Publishers, New Delhi, pp. 7-21.
- 6. Dhanya Babu, V., Moli Koshy, P. (2010). Village Tourism- an emerging means for sustainable development in Kerala. *International Business: Socio-economic, Ecological, Political, Political and Technological Trends & Dimensions* (ISBN: 978-81-8488-657-30), Himalaya Publishing House, Mumbai, pp. 509-522.

Paper Presentations

- Dhanya Babu, V., Moli Koshy, P. (2009). "Village Tourism in Kerala- The Role of Marketing", in the National Seminar on Creating & Delivering Value for Customers conducted at School of Management Studies, CUSAT on March 27, 2009.
- Dhanya Babu, V., Moli Koshy, P. (2009). "Medical Tourism- India beckons Medical Tourists with its uniqueness", in the National Seminar on New Trends in

- Business Education conducted at St. Joseph's College, Irinjalakuda on 18th and 19th May, 2009.
- Dhanya Babu, V., Moli Koshy, P. (2010). "Village Tourism and development of local folk in Kumbalangy- the first model tourism village in India", in the International Seminar on 365 Day Destination conducted at School of Management Studies, CUSAT on March 18, 2010.
- Dhanya Babu, V., Moli Koshy, P. (2010). "Village Tourism- an emerging means for sustainable development in Kerala", in the International Conference on International Business at Albertian Institute of Management, Ernakulam, on 3rd February, 2010.
- Dhanya Babu, V., Moli Koshy, P. (2010). "A kaleidoscopic view of tourism instilled development in Kerala", in the International Seminar on Emerging Trends in Marketing conducted at St. Gits College, Kottayam, on November 28th and 29th, 2010.
- Dhanya Babu, V., Moli Koshy, P. (2011). "Socio-economic development of women through Village Tourism- A study with reference to Kumbalangy village", in the National Seminar on Adolescent Health: Career Opportunities for Women in the Modern Era conducted at Vimala College, Thrissur on 14th January 2011.