

ISSN: 0972-7310

# Journal of Tourism

An International Research Journal on Travel and Tourism

Vol. XX, No. 1, 2019



Centre for Mountain Tourism and Hospitality Studies (CMTHS)

HNB Garhwal Central University, Srinagar Garhwal, India

## **Journal of Tourism**

Vol. XX, No.1, 2019 ISSN No. 0972-7310

- Patron** : Annapurna Nautiyal, Vice Chancellor, H.N.B. Garhwal University  
(A Central University) Srinagar Garhwal, India
- Editor in Chief** : S.C. Bagri, Ph.D., H.N.B. Garhwal University (A Central University),  
Uttarakhand, India
- Editor** : S.K. Gupta, Ph.D., H.N.B. Garhwal University (A Central University),  
Uttarakhand, India
- Associate Editors** : R.K. Dhodi, Ph.D., H.N.B. Garhwal University (A Central University),  
Uttarakhand, India  
Devkant Kala, Uttaranchal Petroleum and Energy University, Dehradun, India
- Assistant Editor** : Rashmi Dhodi, Ph.D., H.N.B. Garhwal University (A Central University),  
Uttarakhand, India
- Managing Editor** : Suresh Babu, Government Arts College, Ooty, India

### **Editorial Board Members**

- Ratz Tamara, Ph.D., Kodolanyi Janos University of Applied Sciences, Budapest, Hungary
- Harald Pechlaner, Ph.D., Catholic University of EichstaettIngolstadt, Germany
- Dimitrios Buhalis, Ph.D., Bournemouth University, UK
- Maximiliano E. Korstanje Palermo University Argentina
- Gregory E. Dunn, Ph.D., Oklahoma State University, USA
- Zaher Hallah, Ph.D., California State University, USA
- John Charles Crotts, Ph.D., College of Charleston, Charleston, S.C., USA
- Robert Inbakaran, Ph.D., RMIT University, Australia
- Stanislav Ivanov, Ph.D., Verna University of Management, Bulgaria
- Mathew Joseph, Ph.D., University of South Alabama, USA
- Terral Philippe, Ph.D., Universite Paul Sabatier, France
- Brian King, School of Hotel & Tourism Management, Hong Kong
- Babu Geroge, Ph.D., Fort Hays State University, Kansas, USA
- J.D. Lema, Ph.D., Drexel University, USA
- H.H. Chang, Ph.D., Ming Chuan University, The first American University in Asia
- Scott McCabe, Ph.D., Ph.D., Nottingham University, UK
- Mark Miller, Ph.D., University of Southern Mississippi, USA
- Shahdad Naghshpour, Ph.D., University of Southern Mississippi, USA
- Rose Okech, Ph.D., Masino University, Kenya
- Catherine Price, Ph.D., University of Southern Mississippi, USA
- Timothy Reisenwitz, Ph.D., Valdosta State University, USA
- Surekha Rana, Ph.D., Gurukul Kangri University Girls Campus, Dehradun, India
- Geoff Wall, Ph.D., University of Waterloo, Canada
- Mu Zhang, Professor, Ph.D., Shenzhen Tourism College, Jinan University, China
- Bihu Tiger Wu, Ph.D., Peking University, China
- Gandhi Gonzalez Guerrero, Universidad Autonoma del Estado de Mexico, Mexico
- Natan Uriely, Ben-Gurion University of the Negev, Israel.
- Mihai Voda, Dimitrie Cantemir University, Romania

### **Frequency and Subscriptions: Journal of Tourism is published biannual.**

Annual Subscription rates: India-Institutional: INR.2000, Individual: INR. 1000, Abroad- Institutional: US\$ 75, Individual: US\$ 40, Demand Draft or Cheque should be in favour of Finance officer, HNB Garhwal Central University, Srinagar Garhwal and be payable on SBI Srinagar Garhwal (3181) India.

### **Editorial/Subscription Information**

Centre for Mountain Tourism and Hospitality Studies, HNB Garhwal Central University, Srinagar Garhwal-Uttarakhand-246174, India, e-mail:jothnbgu@gmail.com, website-www.jothnbgu.in

## *Foreword*

Journal of Tourism is happy to connect you with its yet another issue of interesting research papers duly approved by the team of eminent reviewers. Journal of Tourism have received good number of papers from tourism researchers for possible publication and the same were subjected to blind review by our team of experts and based on the recommendations of our reviewers, the final list among the pool of papers was selected and following are the research papers identified for this issue.

First paper titled **“A Correlation Analysis of Eating and Drinking Preferences in a Sample of Cannabis Tourists”** authored by Richard Donnelly and James Gould explores cannabis consumption and the appetite preferences of the consumer. The food preferences under the psychoactive effects of cannabis stand part of the study. Suitable methods and tools were used by authors to study the objective besides suggesting some foods options. Authors find that one-third of all sativa and indica users reports that cannabis had no effect on their preferences for meal size or beverage.

Second paper titled **“Stakeholder Collaboration for a Religious Tourism Mega Event”** by Surabhi Gore highlights the significance of stakeholder collaboration in mega event execution and the involved bottlenecks. The author discusses with the “Exposition of the relics of Saint Francis Xavier”, a decennial mega event held in Goa and its successful completion of the event. This paper shares the rationale behind collaboration, conflicts, understanding among the various stakeholders involved in the decennial event. Author also explains the purpose of collaborations such as collaboration for economic benefits, collaboration for conflict management and collaboration for conservation besides sharing the concerns of the stakeholder in organising such a mega event.

Third paper titled **“Rural Tourist Products: An Alternative for Promotion of Tourism in North East India”** authored by Bhaskar Kumar Kakati opines the scope of tourism in North East India by highlighting its rural treasures. The author further records the vibrancy and rural milieu of North East as USP for tourism growth besides the existing challenges and shares the types of community participation in rural tourism promotion while proposing a Government Private Community Partnership (GPCP) model for the betterment of tourism and north east. He further explains the strength of North East Region (NER) in rural folks and the trend prevailing in NER.

Fourth paper titled **“Sustainable Development of Ecotourism in Madhya Pradesh: Prospects and Problems”** by Namrata Kishnani studies the costs and benefits of ecotourism, its role and impact over economy of the state besides stating the initiatives taken by the state government to ensure sustainability in ecotourism besides recording the costs of tourism to the society, environment and the sector. She places valuable ecotourism practices followed by Madhya Pradesh compared to its counterparts in achieving the sustainability in ecotourism and recommends valuable inputs to bring into force by state government.

Fifth paper titled **“Tourism Business Cooperation between India and South East Asian Countries: Studying Interregional Tourist Movements to Explore Buddhist Tourist Places in India”** by Sarfaraz Nasir discusses the much needy topic on cooperation between India and South East Asian countries considering tourism as a bridge. The paper also addresses to revisit the bilateral cooperation between India and South Asian countries in the

field of tourism The author further records the natural bonding between India and South East Asian countries in terms of historical and cultural similarities and focuses on Buddhist circuit besides sharing the glimpse of issues and challenges in interregional tourist movements.

I am confident that this compilation of papers will provide useful inputs to tourism researchers and readers for their academic purposes. At this juncture, Journal of Tourism is committed to record its sincere thanks and respect to the valuable reviewers for their constant support. Due to the continuous encouragement and guidance of our reviewing team, Journal of Tourism has got wider reach and acceptance and emerged as a successful journal in the field of tourism.

**S.C. Bagri, Ph.D**  
Editor in Chief

**Journal of Tourism**  
**An International Research Journal on Travel and Tourism**  
**Vol. XX, No.1, 2019      ISSN:0972-7310**

**Contents**

<b>S.No</b>	<b>Research Paper</b>	<b>Author</b>	<b>Page</b>
	Editorial Note		
1	A Correlation Analysis of Eating and Drinking Preferences in a Sample of Cannabis Tourists	Richard Donnelly, James Gould	1-14
2	Stakeholder Collaboration for a Religious Tourism Mega Event	Surabhi Gore	15-32
3	Rural Tourist Products: An Alternative for Promotion of Tourism In North East India	Bhaskar Kumar Kakati	33-54
4	Sustainable Development of Ecotourism in Madhya Pradesh: Prospects and Problems	Namrata Kishnani	55-70
5	Tourism Business Cooperation between India and South East Asian Countries: Studying Interregional Tourist Movements to Explore Buddhist Tourist Places in India	Sarfraz Nasir	71-89

---

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means- electronic, electrostatic, magnetic tape, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise, without the written permission of the publisher.

---

## Key Words

**cannabis, cultivars,  
cannabis tourists,  
eating, drinking**

# *A Correlation Analysis of Eating and Drinking Preferences in a Sample of Cannabis Tourists*

**RICHARD DONNELLY, PhD**

Assistant Professor of Recreation, Tourism & Hospitality  
University of Northern Colorado, College of Natural and Health Sciences

**JAMES GOULD, PhD**

Associate Professor of Recreation, Tourism & Hospitality  
University of Northern Colorado  
College of Natural and Health Sciences

## Abstract

The purpose of this study was to explore cannabis consumption and the food and beverage preferences of the consumer while under the psychoactive effects of cannabis. A purposive sample of patrons of a cannabis tourism company in Colorado yielded 201 responses. The measurement instrument was composed of seventeen categorical and Likert-type items assessing preferences for cannabis, frequency of food type consumption and beverage choice. Independent Samples T-testing indicated that the frequency of vegetable consumption was higher among users of indica than sativa. Pearson Product correlation testing within the cultivars revealed that the preferred strength of psychoactive effect was most associated with snack food consumption among sativa users and eating meats, dairy, and sugary foods for indica users. Over one-third of all sativa and indica users reported that cannabis had no effect on their preferences for meal size or beverage. The most preferred beverage for consumers of both cultivars was water.

## INTRODUCTION

Cannabis is produced from hybrid cultivars that may be sativa dominant or indica dominate or hybrids of both. Sativa is most associated with an energetic and cerebral effect involving feelings of optimism, creativity and heightened senses. Indica is most related to sedation and a heavy body effect that relaxes the user and has been reported to relieve pain and manage insomnia (Medithrive 2014; Pearce, Mitsouras, & Irizarry 2014; Maule 2015; Cohen, Heinz, Ilgen & Bonn-Miller 2016). Despite the growth of social science applied to marijuana use, few studies (Gould, Donnelly & Iannacchione 2018) have made or tested the distinctions between the cannabis cultivars or strains.

This lack of cultivar distinction or description also applies to longstanding lines of inquiry involving use and abuse (Alcorn, Marks, Stoops, Rush & Lile 2018; Bidwella, York, Williams, Mueller, Bryan & Hutchison 2018; Haug, Padula, Sottile, Andrey, Heinz & Bonn-Miller 2017; Malouff, Rooke & Copeland 2014; Budney, Sargent & Lee 2015), psychotic disorders (Choi, DiNitto, Marti, Nathan, & Bryan 2016; Dekker, Linszen & DeHaan 2009; Haines, Johnson, Carter, & Arora 2009; Kouri, Pope, Yurgelun-Todd & Gruber 1995; Volkow, Baler, Compton & Weiss 2014) including social anxiety (Buckner, Zvolensky & Schmidt 2012; Buckner, Heimberg & Schmidt 2011; Feingold, Weiser, Rehm & Lev-Ran 2016; Ecker & Buckner 2018) and crime (Summerlin 2017; Subritzky, Pettigrew & Lenton 2016; Bennett, Holloway & Farrington 2008; Borodovsky, Crosier, Lee, Sargent & Budney 2016) among others.

In the last decade, more cannabis related research by cultivar has included investigations of medical cannabis strains (Piper 2018), industrial hemp strains (Tang, Struik, Yin, Thouminot, Bjelková, Stramkale, & Amaducci (2016) and strain-specific aromas (Gilbert & DiVerdi 2018). A growing body of

research in plant pathology has been devoted to cultivar-specific investigations involving the chemical diversity of medicinal cannabis (Hazekamp & Fischechick 2012; Hazekamp, Tejkalova, & Papadimitriou 2016), soil microbe processes (Winston, Hampton-Marcell, Zarronaindia, Owens, Moreau, Gilbert, & Gibbons 2014), food allergies (Ebo, Swerts, Sabato, Hagendorens, Bridts, Jorens, & De Clerck 2013) and sativa-specific allergies (Decuyper, Van Gasse, Cop, Sabato, Faber, Mertens, & Ebo 2017).

Although the terms Cannabis “strain” and “cultivar” have been used in the literature interchangeably (McPartland & Guy 2017), strains are not the equivalent to cultivars in formal identification nor do they signify meaningful genetic identities (Brickell 2009; Small 2015; Snoeijs 2002). According to Hazekamp and Fischechick (2012), a better system is needed to clarify the medicinal properties of cannabis thus the term “chemovar” may be preferred given its reliance on the biochemical attributes of a particular plant for its identification (Hazekamp et al. 2016).

Of the 400+ natural components found in the cannabis plant, sixty-six were originally classified as “cannabinoids” (Dewey 1986) and there is currently reported to be 104 identifiable cannabinoids (Lafaye, Karila, Blecha, and Benyamina 2016). Cannabinoids, which are also naturally occurring in humans, affect the user by interacting with specific receptors that partially compose the Endocannabinoid System (ECS) (Mackie 2008). Solo and Battisti (2008) indicated that the ECS facilitates memory and attention and that cognitive performance in humans can be altered by specific cannabinoids. The ECS also involves receptors that influence appetite, pain sensation, and memory (Aizpurua-Olaizola, Elezgarai, Rico-Barrio, Zarandona, Etxebarria, & Usobiaga 2017). The THC, CB1 and CB2 cannabinoids have

reported effects on the brain receptors that influence appetite and caloric intake (Murray, Morrison, & Henquet 2007; Soria-Gómez, Bellocchio, Reguero, Lepousez, Martin, Bendahmane, & Marsicano 2014; Williams, Rogers, & Kirkham 1998). The ECS also regulates other physiological processes that include energy absorption of protein & vitamins, mineral transport and digestion (Jager & Witkamp 2014).

The two principal cannabinoid receptors of the ECS, cannabinoid receptor type-1 (CB1) and receptor type-2 (CB2), are found in the brain, intestines, and immune system (McPartland, Duncan, Di Marzo, & Pertwee 2015; Micale, Di Marzo, Sulcova, Wotjak, & Drago 2013). The CB1/CB2 receptors perform mechanistic roles in memory, appetite, and stress responses (Hill, Cascio, Romano, Duncan, Pertwee, Williams, & Hill 2013) and the regulation of reward and reinforcement (Serrano & Parsons 2011). Cannabidiol (CBD) is the most abundant cannabinoid and has been reported to have anti-anxiety effects and to even affect the psychoactive effects of THC on the consumer (Berry & Mechoulam 2002; Cascini, Aiello, & Di Tanna 2011). Delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) is the biochemical primarily responsible for the psychoactive effects of cannabis on the consumer and has been the most widely studied cannabinoid. THC and CBD can have opposite effects on regional brain function and these effects may underlie their differing biochemical properties including CBD's ability to block the psychotogenic effects of THC (Martín-Santos, Crippal, Batalla, Bhattacharyya, Atakan, Borgwardt, & McGuire 2012).

Cannabis cannabinoids also have varying effects on appetite that include both stimulation (Mattes, Engelman, Shaw, & Elsohly 1994a) and suppression (Farrimond, Mercier, Whalley, and Williams 2011). The cannabinoids associated with appetite stimulation include



THC (Regeison, Butler, Schulz, Kirk, Peek, Green, & Zalis 1976), and are typically derived from indica strains (Corral 2001). More recently, cannabigerol (CBG) has been identified as an appetite stimulant and is also considered non-psychoactive (Brierley, Samuels, Duncan, Whalley, & Williams 2017). Cannabinoids most associated with appetite suppression include CBD (Morgan, Freeman, Schafer, & Curran 2010) and Tetrahydrocannabivarin (THCV) (McPartland, et al. 2015). For example, Warren and Frost-Pineda (2005) found that an inverse linear relationship existed between body mass index and women using cannabis despite its reputation for increasing appetite.

The relationship between cannabis consumption and appetite (Jager and Witkamp 2014) is not new to the literature. This compulsion to increase food consumption has been known in popular parlance as the “munchies” (Haines and Green 1971). Foltin, Fischman, and Byrne (1988) found that after consumption of cannabis, appetite increased, resulting in the consumption of more calories by humans (see also Abel 1970). Brierley et al. 2017 found similar results in rodents. (Nolan and Stoltz 2012) found that this relationship was particularly evident with sweet and savory foods among humans (See also Mattes, Shaw, & Engelman (1994b). Further evidence has been reported specifically involving cannabis and sweets in humans (Dovey, Boyland, Trayner, Miller, Rarmoul-Bouhadjar, Cole, & Halford (2016); Jager and Witkamp 2014) and in rodents (Farrimond et al. 2011; Yoshida, Ohkuri, Jyotaki, Yasuo, Horio, Yasumatsu, Sanematsu, Shigemura, Yamamoto, Margoiskee & Ninomiya 2011). Regeison et al. (1976) found that THC was an appetite-stimulating agent and an effective antidepressant in advanced cancer patients. Recent research on cancer patients revealed that cannabis improved their

appetites and bettered their sense of taste (Lockett, Lintzeris, Allsop, Lee, Solowij, Marin, Agar (2016); Peng, Khaizer, Ahrari, Pasetka, & DeAngelis 2016). Few studies however have explored cannabis and beverage preferences in humans (Nolan & Stoltz 2012). Given that most examinations of cannabis, food, and water consumption involved rodents (Allentuck & Bowman 1942; Ames 1958; Sofia & Knobloch 1976; Williams et al. 1998; Tucci, Rogers, Korbonits, & Kirkham 2004), few specifics about human preferences in both cannabis and food/beverage exist in the literature.

### **PURPOSE**

Nolan & Stoltz (2012) indicated that few studies have thoroughly addressed food intake with drug consumption and that most of this line of exploration has been limited by a focus on substance use disorders and eating. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to explore cannabis consumption by cultivar across the food and beverage preferences of the consumer while under the psychoactive effects of cannabis. This inquiry was guided by the following research questions:

RQ1: Is there a difference between sativa and indica consumers in their frequency of food type consumption?

RQ2: Are there relationships between preferred strength of psychoactive effect and the frequency of consumption of food types by cultivars?

RQ3: What are the proportions of preferred meal size and beverage choice categories between the cultivars?

### **METHODS**

#### *Participants*

A purposive sample of patrons of My420 Tours was taken in April and May of 2017. My420 Tours is a large cannabis tourism company located in Denver, Colorado that provides recreation and tourism services involving cannabis experiences. A link to the study invitation and online

questionnaire was created using *Qualtrics* and the link was posted twice by My420 Tours onto the company's webpage and *Facebook* account. For incentive for each month, all respondents completing the questionnaire were entered to be randomly selected for a free Sushi and Joint Rolling class taught by My420 Tours.

Of the 271 that responded, 65 were eliminated from the data set for item non-responses. Data screening using Mahalanobis distance and centered leverage (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) resulted in the elimination of five outliers from the data set. The remaining respondents (n=201) included in the analysis were 62% women and 38% men with a mean age of 38.14 years. See Table 1 for sample characteristics related to respondent preferences in cultivars, strength of psychoactive effects, delivery systems, and the quantity of cannabis quantity to consume.

#### **INSTRUMENTATION**

The measurement instrument for this study was composed of 17 questionnaire items structured by four cannabis consumption preference items, seven frequency of food type consumption items, one meal size item and one beverage preference item and four demographic items. See Table 1 for categorical and continuous variables assessing cannabis consumption preferences and demographics.

Frequency of food type consumption while under the psychoactive effects of cannabis was composed of seven categories (*Snack foods, Sugary foods, Fruits, Vegetables, Grains, Meats* and *Dairy*) which were assessed by 5 point Likert-type scales (Cronbach's Alpha = .7) using *Never, Rarely, Occasionally, Frequently, Always*. Meal-size preference was assessed using five categories anchored by *small meals* and *extra-large meals* and included a category to indicate that cannabis consumption had *no effect on meal size preference*. For

beverage preference while under the psychoactive effects of cannabis, categories were used to reflect preference for *Water, Sugary drinks, Coffee/Tea, Fruit/Vegetable juices, Beer, Wine, Liquor* and included a category for reporting *no effect on beverage preference* while under the psychoactive effects of cannabis.

#### **DATA ANALYSIS**

Three techniques were used to address the research questions. First, an Independent Samples T-test was used to determine frequency of food type consumption between sativa and indica consumers. Second, the analysis of the relationship between preferred psychoactive effect with frequency of food type consumption by sativa and indica consumers was conducted using Pearson Product bivariate correlations. For the last research question, visual inspection of the preferences for meal size and beverage was assessed by visual inspection of the proportional differences by sativa and indica consumers.

#### **RESULTS**

Independent Samples T-test results revealed one significant difference ( $p < .05$ ) in the frequency of vegetable consumption between sativa ( $m=2.8$ ) and indica ( $m=3.3$ ) consumers. No other frequency of food type consumption mean scores significantly differed between sativa and indica groups. See Table 2 for mean comparisons of frequency of food type consumption between cultivar groups.

Pearson Product correlations between preferred psychoactive effect and frequency of food type consumption revealed different associations within the cultivars. Specifically, preferred strength of psychoactive effect was most associated with snack foods ( $r = .32, p < .01$ ) among sativa users who also showed an inverse but non-significant relationship with vegetable consumption. For indica consumers, the preferred psychoactive effects were most associated with consumption of sugary

foods ( $r = .29$ ,  $p < .05$ ), meats ( $r = .39$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and dairy ( $r = .31$ ,  $p < .01$ ). See Tables 3 and 4 for correlation matrices by cultivar. The percentages of the categories for meal-size and beverage preference revealed mostly similarities within the cultivars. Over one third of all Sativa (36%) and Indica (38%) users reported that their cannabis consumption did not affect their eating behaviors. Over one quarter of all Sativa (29%) and one-third of Indica (34%) users preferred to eat snack-sized portions, however more Sativa users (20%) consumed medium-sized meals than Indica users (10%). Approximately 15% of the users of both cultivars eat large or extra-large portions while under the psychoactive effects. For beverages, large proportions of both Sativa (43%) and Indica (35%) consumers reported that cannabis consumption had no effect on their beverage preferences. The most preferred beverage for Sativa (39%) and Indica (40%) users was water. The next most preferred beverage for Indica users was fruit/vegetable juices (7.4%) and for Sativa consumers, sugary drinks (7.8%). Only three respondents in the sample indicated that they drank liquor and no Sativa users reported preferring beer while under the psychoactive effects of cannabis.

## DISCUSSION

### Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to explore cannabis consumption and the food and beverage preferences of the user while under the psychoactive effects of cannabis. Overall, the findings suggest that there are likely different behavioral outcomes associated with the consumption of *sativa* and *indica* cultivars. Since so few studies in the social sciences have used the cultivar approach, it appears that the results of this study both confirm and partially refute previous research. That indica consumers in this study preferred eating vegetables while under the psychoactive effects seems to be

a contribution to the body of knowledge. In two somewhat related previous inquiries reflecting the current study, vegetables were not made available as a snack option to respondents and the options for sweet snacks were over represented (Foltin et al. 1988). In the Mattes et al. (1994b) study, snacks were categorized by taste hedonics (sweet, salty, sour & bitter) rather than food groups and of the 31 snack options for subjects, only two were vegetable options (carrots as a sweet and raw broccoli as a bitter). Ultimately, they concluded that there was no significant effect of delta-9-THC on hedonic ratings and taste intensity. Differences in the correlations between preferred strength of psychoactive effect and frequency of food type consumption by cultivar further demonstrated the differences in the effects of the two strains on the user. The correlation of preferred effect strength with snack food (e.g. potato chips, corn chips, popcorn) eating among sativa consumers partially supported the findings of Nolan and Stoltz (2012). In their study combining tobacco, cannabis, and alcohol use, elevated food consumption was most associated with the frequency and diversity of drugs, especially alcohol use. Food eaten in higher amounts included both savory and sweet items of which carrots were listed. They also found a significant correlation between BMI and alcohol consumption but annual cannabis use was not correlated with BMI (Nolan & Stoltz 2012). However, increased snack food consumption among users was also demonstrated by Foltin, Brady, & Fischman (1986) and in their sample of adolescent abusers, Farrow, Rees, & Worthington-Roberts (1987) found that more snack foods than fruits and vegetables were consumed. For indica consumers, the significant correlations between preferred effect strength and meat, dairy and sugary foods appears to be a new finding. In support of the research of Foltin et al. (1988), the

current study also demonstrated a relationship between increased consumption of sweets with increased cannabis consumption. They also noted that there were no differences in the distributions of energy intake for carbohydrates, fat and protein between placebo and cannabis groups. The current study demonstrates that increased protein consumption in the forms of meat and dairy maybe attributable to the chemical profile of the indica strain and less so for sativa. Further confirmation of sativa's characteristics was provided by Pearce et al. (2014) who found that the sativa strain was preferred for treating weight loss (See also Abey 2018; Corral 2001) and indica was preferred for appetite stimulation. Notably, in the Foltin et al. studies of the 1980s, the maximum THC content of the same strain of cannabis used in each study was 3%.

The current study also supported the Foltin et al. (1988) finding that smoking active cannabis significantly increased average caloric intake, however, this increased consumption was primarily of snacks between meals, not the size of the meals themselves. Less than 1/5 of the current sample reported eating large or extra-large portions while under the psychoactive effects although no pre-existing food intake behaviors were determined for comparison. Similarly, large proportions of users of both strains indicated that cannabis consumption did not affect their beverage preferences and that water was most preferred. According to Mattes et al. (2014a), drying of the oral cavity after cannabis consumption was a common side effect among subjects which may explain the preference to drink water. These same behaviors were confirmed by Abey (2018) in a study of Sprague Dawley rats that were fed marijuana leaves.

#### **IMPLICATIONS**

The cannabis tourism industry and supporting tertiary services provided by

cannabis friendly businesses may find some benefit from these findings. These businesses might include cannabis related tourism organizations, outfitters, hotels, restaurants, bed and breakfasts, and commercial recreation providers among others. For example, My420Tours in Denver, Colorado offers experiences that include: Greenhouse Grow Tours, Sushi and Joint Rolling Classes, Cooking with Cannabis Classes, A Wine and Weed Walking Tour, The Complete Cannabis Tour, Marijuana Concentrates Class, A Grow and Brewery Tour, Cannabis Massage, A Graffiti Walking Tour, and all-inclusive vacations among others. Since customers are consuming cannabis in the aforementioned activities, it is important to provide products that maximize the quality of their experiences. For example, on tours, it might be helpful to provide food options that include moisture laden vegetables and meat and dairy proteins. Since water is the most preferred beverage for Cannabis consumers of both cultivars, perhaps businesses would do well to provide various types of waters (for example, fruit infused, carbonated water, antioxidant water, sweetened water, nutrient infused, mineral water or spring water).

#### **LIMITATIONS**

There were several limitations that prevent generalizability of the findings. First, the small sample size obtained by purposive sampling limits inferences that could be made and it limited the rigor of the statistical analyses that could be applied in a larger sample. Second, that the majority of the sample was composed of females may have affected the results (Wardle, Haase, Steptoe, Nillapun, Johnwutiwes and Bellisle 2004) if only slightly. Third, self-report measures are susceptible to response biases that affect the validity and generalizability of findings.

## REFERENCES

- Abel, E. L. (1970). Effects of the marihuana-homologue, pyrahexyl, on open field behavior in the rat. *The Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacology*, 22(10), 785-785.
- Abey, N. (2018). Cannabis sativa (marijuana) alters blood stream chemistry and the cytoarchitecture of some organs in Sprague Dawley rat models. *Food and Chemical Toxicology*, 116, 292-297.
- Aizpurua-Olaizola, O., Elezgarai, I., Rico-Barrio, I., Zarandona, I., Etxebarria, N., & Usobiaga, A. (2017). Targeting the endocannabinoid system: Future therapeutic strategies. *Drug Discovery Today*, 22 (1), 105110. doi:10.1016/j.drudis.2016.08.005. PMID 27554802
- Allentuck, S., & Bowman, K. (1942). The psychiatric aspects of marihuana intoxication. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 99, 248-251.
- Ames, F. (1958). A clinical and metabolic study of acute intoxication with Cannabis sativa and its role in the model psychoses. *Journal of Mental Science*, 104, 972-999.
- Alcorn, J., Marks, K., Stoops, W., Rush, C., & Lile, L. (2019). Attentional bias to cannabis cues in cannabis users but not cocaine users. *Addictive Behaviors*, 88, 129-136. doi:10.1016/j.addbeh.2018.08.023
- Bellocchio, L., Cervino, C., Pasquali, R., & Pagotto, U. (2008). The endocannabinoid system and energy metabolism. *Journal of Neuroendocrinology*, 20, 850857. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2826.2008.01728.x
- Bennett, T., Holloway, K., & Farrington, D. (2008). The statistical association between drug misuse and crime: A meta-analysis. *Aggression and Violent Behaviour*, 13, 107-118.
- Berry, E., & Mechoulam, R. (2002). Tetrahydrocannabinol and endocannabinoids in feeding and appetite. *Pharmacology and Therapeutics*, 95, 185-190.
- Bidwella, L., York-Williams, S., Mueller, R., Bryan, A., & Hutchison, K. (2018). Exploring cannabis concentrates on the legal market: User profiles, product strength, and health-related outcomes. *Addictive Behaviors Reports*, 8, 102-106.
- Borodovsky, J., Crosier, B., Lee, D., Sargent, J., & Budney, A. (2016). Smoking, vaping, eating: Is legalization impacting the way people use cannabis? *International Journal of Drug Policy*, 36, 141-147.
- Buckner, J., Heimberg, R., & Schmidt, N. (2011). Social anxiety and marijuana-related problems: The role of social avoidance. *Addictive Behaviors*, Volume 36, Issues 12, pp. 129-132
- Buckner, J., Zvolensky, M., & Schmidt, N. (2012). Cannabis-related impairment and social anxiety: The roles of gender and cannabis use motives. *Addictive Behaviors*, 37, 1294-1297.
- Brickell, C. (2009). *International code of nomenclature for cultivated plants* (8<sup>th</sup> ed.). Leuven, Belgium: International Society for Horticultural Sciences.
- Brierley, D., Samuels, J., Duncan, M., Whalley, B., & Williams, C. (2017). Cannabigerol is a novel, well-tolerated appetite stimulant in pre-satiated rats. *Psychopharmacology*, 233(19-20), 3603-3613.
- Budney, A. J., Sargent, J. D., & Lee, D. C. (2015). Vaping cannabis (marijuana): Parallel concerns to e-cigs? *Addiction*, 110, 1699-1704.
- Cascini, F., Aiello, C., & Di Tanna, G. (2011). Increasing delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol ( $\Delta$ -9-THC) content in herbal cannabis over time: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *Current Drug Abuse Reviews*, 5, 32-40.
- Choi, N. G., DiNitto, D. M., Marti, C., Nathan, C., & Bryan, Y. (2016). Relationship between marijuana and other illicit drug use and depression/suicidal thoughts among late middle-aged and older adults. *International Psychogeriatrics*, 28(4), 577-589.
- Cohen, N., Heinz, A., Ilgen, M., & Bonn-Miller, M. (2016). Pain, cannabis species, and cannabis use disorders. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol and Drugs*, 77(3), 516-520.

- Corral, V. (2001). Differential effects of medical marijuana based on strain and route of administration: A three year observational study. *Journal of Cannabis Therapeutics*, 1, 4359. doi:10.1300/J175v01n03\_05
- Dewey, W., (1986). Cannabinoid pharmacology. *Pharmacological Reviews* 38 (2) 151-178.
- Decuyper, I., Van Gasse, A., Cop, N., Sabato, V., Faber, M., Mertens, C., & Ebo, D. (2017). Cannabis sativa allergy: Looking through the fog. *Allergy*, 72, 201206.
- Dekker, N., Linszen, D., & DeHaan, L. (2009). Reasons for cannabis use and effects of cannabis use as reported by patients with psychotic disorders. *Psychopathology* 42, 350-360.
- Dewey, W. (1986). Cannabinoid pharmacology. *Pharmacological Reviews*, 38, 151178.
- Dovey, T., Boyland, E., Trayner, P., Miller, J., Rarmoul-Bouhadjar, A., Cole, J., & Halford, J. C. G. (2016). Alterations in taste perception due to recreational drug use are due to smoking a substance rather than ingesting it. *Appetite*, 107, 1-8.
- Ebo, D., Swerts, S., Sabato, V., Hagendorens, M., Bridts, C., Jorens, P., & De Clerck, L. (2013). New food allergies in a European non-Mediterranean region: Is Cannabis sativa to blame? *International Archives of Allergy and Immunology*, 161(3), 220-228.
- Ecker, A., & Buckner, J. (2018). Cannabis-related problems and social anxiety: The mediational role of post-event processing. *Substance Use & Misuse*, 53(1), 36-41.
- Farrimond, J., Mercier, M., Whalley, B., & Williams, C. (2011). Cannabis sativa and the Endogenous Cannabinoid System: Therapeutic Potential for Appetite Regulation. *Phytotherapy Research* 25 170-188.
- Farrow, J., Rees, J., & Worthington-Roberts, B., (1987) Health, Developmental, and Nutritional Status of Adolescent Alcohol and Marijuana Abusers. *Pediatrics*, 79.
- Feingold, D., Weiser, M., Rehm, J., & Lev-Ran, S. (2016). The association between cannabis use and anxiety disorders: Results from a population-based representative sample. *European Neuropsychopharmacology*, 26(3), 493-505.
- Foltin, R., Brady, J., & Fischman, M. (1986). Behavioral analysis of marijuana effects on food intake in humans. *Pharmacology Biochemistry and Behavior*, 25(3), 577-582.
- Foltin, R., Fischman, M., & Byrne, M., (1988). Effects of smoked marijuana on Food Intake and Body Weight of Humans Living in a Residential Laboratory. *Appetite*, 11, 1-14.
- Gilbert, A., & DiVerdi, J. (2018). Consumer perceptions of strain differences in Cannabis aroma. *PLoS One*, 13(2), e0192247.
- Gould, J., Donnelly, R., & Iannacchione, B. (2018). Turning over a new leaf in Colorado: an exploration of legalized recreational marijuana preferences, leisure interests, and leisure motivations in a sample of young adults. *World Leisure Journal* <https://doi.org/10.1080/16078055.2018.1521866>.
- Haines, L., & Green, W. (1970). Marijuana use patterns. *British Journal of Addiction to Alcohol and Other Drugs*, 65, 347362.
- Haines, R., Johnson, J., Carter, C., & Arora, K. (2009). "I couldn't say, I'm not a girl"-Adolescents talk about gender and marijuana use. *Social Science Medicine*, 68(11), 2029-36. doi:10.1016/j.socscimed.2009.03.003
- Haug, N. A., Padula, C. B., Sottile, J. E., Andrey, R., Heinz, A. J., & Bonn-Miller, M. O. (2017). Cannabis use patterns and motives: A comparison of younger, middle-aged, and older medical cannabis dispensary patients. *Addictive Behaviors*, 72, 14-20.
- Hazekamp, A., & Fishedick, J. (2012). Cannabis--from cultivar to chemovar. *Drug Testing and Analysis*, 4(7-8), 660-667. doi:10.1002/dta.407
- Hazekamp, A., Tejkalova, K., & Papadimitriou, S. (2016). Cannabis: From cultivar to chemovar IIA metabolomics approach to cannabis classification. *Cannabis and Cannabinoid Research*, 1(1), 202215. doi:10.1089/can.2016.0017
- Hill, T., Cascio, M., Romano, B., Duncan, M.,

- Pertwee, R., Williams, C., & Hill, A. (2013). Cannabidiol-rich cannabis extracts are anticonvulsant in mouse and rat via a CB1 receptor-independent mechanism. *British Journal of Pharmacology*, *170*(3), 679-692.
- Jager, G., & Witkamp, R. F. (2014). The endocannabinoid system and appetite: Relevance for food reward. *Nutrition Research Reviews*, *27*(1), 172-85. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0954422414000080>
- Kirkham, T. (2009). Cannabinoids and appetite: Food craving and food pleasure. *International Review of Psychiatry*, *21*(2), 163-171. doi:10.1080/09540260902782810
- Kirkham, T., & Williams, C. (2001). Endogenous cannabinoids and appetite. *Nutrition Research Reviews*, *14*, 65-86.
- Kouri, E., Pope, H. G., Yurgelun-Todd, D., & Gruber, S. (1995). Attributes of heavy vs. occasional marijuana smokers in a college population. *Biological Psychiatry*, *38*(7), 475-481. doi:10.1016/0006-3223(94)00325-W
- Lafaye, G., Karila, L., Blecha, L., & Benyamina, A. (2016). Cannabis, cannabinoids, and health. *Dialogues Clinical Neuroscience*, *19* (3): 309-316.
- Luckett, T., Lintzeris, N., Allsop, D., Lee, J., Solowij, N., Marin, J., & Agar, M. (2016). Clinical trials of medicinal cannabis for appetite-related symptoms from advanced cancer: A survey of preferences, attitudes and beliefs among patients willing to consider participation. *Internal Medicine Journal*, *46*(11), 1269-1275.
- Mackie, K. (2008, May). Cannabinoid receptors: Where they are and what they do. *Journal of Neuroendocrinology*, *20* (Suppl 1), 10-14. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2826.2008.01671.x. PMID 18426493.
- Malouf, J. M., Rooke, S. E., & Copeland, J. (2014). Experiences of marijuana-vaporizer users. *Substance Abuse*, *35*, 127-128.
- Martín-Santos, R., Crippal, J., Batalla, A., Bhattacharyya, S., Atakan, Z., Borgwardt, S., & McGuire, P. (2012). Acute effects of a single, oral dose of d9-tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) and cannabidiol (CBD) administration in healthy volunteers. *Current Pharmaceutical Design*, *18*, 4966-4979.
- Mattes, R., Engelman, K., Shaw, L., & Elsohly, M. (1994a). Cannabinoids and appetite stimulation. *Pharmacology, Biochemistry and Behavior*, *49*(1), 187-195.
- Mattes, R., Shaw, L., & Engelman, K. (1994b). Effects of cannabinoids (marijuana) on taste intensity and hedonic ratings and salivary flow of adults. *Chemical Senses*, *19*(2), 125-140.
- Maule, J. (2015). Medical uses of marijuana (*Cannabis sativa*): Fact or fallacy? *British Journal of Biomedical Science*, *72*(2), 85-91.
- McPartland, J. M., Duncan, M., Di Marzo, V., & Pertwee, R. (2015). Are cannabidiol and  $\Delta^9$ -tetrahydrocannabinol negative modulators of the endocannabinoid system? A systematic review. *British Journal of Pharmacology*, *172*(3), 737-753.
- McPartland, J. M., & Guy, G. W. (2017). Models of cannabis taxonomy, cultural bias, and conflicts between scientific and vernacular names. *Botanical Review*, *83*, 327-381. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12229-017-9187-0>
- Medithrive Direct. (2014). *Cannabis*. Retrieved from <http://Medithrive.com/cannabis>
- Micale, V., Di Marzo, V., Sulcova, A., Wotjak, C., & Drago, F. (2013). Endocannabinoid system and mood disorders: Priming a target for new therapies. *Pharmacology and Therapeutics*, *138*(1), 18-37.
- Mikuriya, T. H. (1969). Marijuana in medicine: Past, present and future. *California Medicine*, *110*(1), 34-40.
- Morgan, C., Freeman, T., Schafer, G., & Curran, H. (2010). Cannabidiol attenuates the appetitive effects of tetrahydrocannabinol in humans smoking their chosen cannabis. *Neuropsychopharmacology*, *35*, 1879-1885.
- Murray, R., Morrison, P., Henquet, C., & Di Forti, M. (2007). Cannabis, the mind and

- society: The hash realities. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience*, 8(11), 885-895.
- Nolan, L. J., & Stoltz, M. R. (2012). Drug use is associated with elevated food consumption in college students. *Appetite*, 58(3), 898-906.
- Nolan, L. (2013). Shared urges? The links between drugs of abuse, eating, and body weight. *Current Obesity Reports*, 2, 150. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13679-013-0048-9>
- Pearce, D., Mitsouras, K., & Irizarry, K. (2014). Discriminating the effects of *Cannabis sativa* and *Cannabis indica*: A web survey of medical cannabis users. *Journal of Alternative and Complementary Medicine*, 20, 787791. doi:10.1089/acm.2013.0190
- Peng, M., Khaiser, M., Ahrari, S., Pasetka, M., & DeAngelis, C. (2016). Medical marijuana as a therapeutic option for cancer anorexia and cachexia: A scoping review of current evidence. *Journal of Pain Management*, 9(4), 435-447.
- Piper, B. (2018). Mother of Berries, ACDC, or Chocolepe: Examination of the strains used by medical cannabis patients in New England. *Journal of Psychoactive Drugs*, 50(2), 95-104.
- Regeison, W., Butler, J. R., Schulz, J., Kirk, T., Peek, L., Green, M. L., & Zalis, M. O. (1976). A-9-Tetrahydrocannabinol as an effective antidepressant and appetite-stimulating agent in advanced cancer patients. In M. C. Braude & S. Szara (Eds.), *The Pharmacology of Marijuana* (pp. 763-776). New York: Raven Press.
- Serrano, A., & Parsons, L. (2011). Endocannabinoid influence in drug reinforcement, dependence and addiction-related behaviors. *Pharmacology & Therapeutics*, 132(3), 215-241.
- Sofia, D., & Knobloch, L. (1976). Comparative effects of various naturally occurring cannabinoids on food, sucrose and water consumption by rats. *Pharmacology Biochemistry and Behaviour*, 4, 591-599.
- Soria-gómez, E., Bellocchio, L., Reguero, L., Lepousez, G., Martin, C., Bendahmane, M., & Marsicano, G. (2014). The endocannabinoid system controls food intake via olfactory processes. *Nature Neuroscience*, 17(3), 407-415. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nn.3647>
- Solowij, N., & Battisti, R. (2008). The chronic effects of cannabis on memory in humans: A review. *Current Drug Abuse Reviews*, 1(1), 81-98.
- Small, E. (2015). Evolution and classification of *Cannabis sativa* (marijuana, hemp) in relation to human utilization. *The Botanical Review*, 81(3), 189-294.
- Snoeijer, W. (2002). A checklist of some Cannabaceae cultivars. Part a: *Cannabis*. *Division of Pharmacology*, Leiden/Amsterdam Center for Drug Research, Leiden.
- Subritzky, T., Pettigrew, S., & Lenton, S. (2016). Issues in the implementation and evolution of the commercial recreational cannabis market in Colorado. *International Journal of Drug Policy*, 27, 112.
- Summerlin, R. (2017). Federal marijuana enforcement could be catastrophic to Colorado economy. *The Aspen Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.aspentimes.com/priority/main-headline/federal-marijuana-enforcement-could-be-catastrophic-to-colorado-economy/>
- Tabachnick, B., & Fidell, L. (2001). *Using multivariate analysis* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Tang, K., Struik, P., Yin, X., Thouminot, C., Bjelková, M., Stramkale, V., & Amaducci, S. (2016). Comparing hemp (*Cannabis sativa* L.) cultivars for dual-purpose production under contrasting environments. *Industrial Crops and Products*, 87, 33-44.
- Tucci, S. A., Rogers, E. K., Korbonits, M., & Kirkham, T. C. (2004). The cannabinoid CB1 receptor antagonist SR141716 blocks the orexigenic effects of intrahypothalamic ghrelin. *British Journal of Pharmacology*, 143, 520-523.
- Volkow, N., Baler, R., Compton, R., & Weiss, S., (2014). Adverse Health Effects of Marijuana Use. *The New England Journal of Medicine* 3(370), 2219-2227.
- Wardle, J., Haase, A., Steptoe, A., Nillapun, M., Jonwutiwes, K., & Bellis, F. (2004). Gender differences in food choice:



- The contribution of health beliefs and dieting. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine*, 27, 107. [https://doi.org/10.1207/s15324796abm2702\\_5](https://doi.org/10.1207/s15324796abm2702_5)
- Warren, M, Frost-Pineda, K, & Gold, M. (2005) Body mass index and marijuana use. *J Addict Dis* 24 95-100.
- Williams, C. M., Rogers, P. J., & Kirkham, T. C. (1998). Hyperphagia in pre-fed rats following oral delta9-THC. *Physiology & Behavior*, 65, 343-346.
- Winston, M., Hampton-Marcell, J., Zarraonaindia, I., Owens, S., Moreau, C., Gilbert, J. & Gibbons, S. (2014). Understanding cultivar-specificity and soil determinants of the cannabis microbiome. *PLOS ONE*, 9(6), e99641.
- Yoshida, Y., Ohkuri, T., Jyotaki, M., Yasuo, T., Horio, N., Yasumatsu, K., Sanematsu, K., & Shigemura, N., Yamamoto, T., Margolskee, R., & Ninomiya, Y. (2010). Endocannabinoids selectively enhance sweet taste. *National Academy of Sciences Vol 107. (2) 935-939.*

Table 1						
<i>Sample Characteristics</i>						
				<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Avg.</i>
<b>Gender</b>						
	Male			71	35.3	
	Female			117	58.2	
	Other			13	6.5	
<b>Age</b>						38.14
	21+			201		
<b>Type of Cannabis Consumed</b>						
	Sativa			77	38.3	
	Indica			68	33.8	
	Hybrid			40	19.9	
	Unsure			16	8	
<b>Preferred Method of Consumption</b>						
	Glass pipe			52	25.9	
	Joint / paper			65	32.3	
	Edibles			17	8.5	
	Water Pipe			37	18.6	
	Vaporizer			28	14.1	
<b>Quantity</b>						
	1-2 Hits			22	10.9	
	3-4 Hits			29	14.4	
	1/4 Joint			28	13.9	
	1/2 Joint			37	18.4	
	3/4 Joint			12	6	
	Full Joint			39	19.4	
	Full Joint +			34	16.9	

Table 2									
<i>Mean Differences in Food Type Frequency of Consumption Between Cultivars</i>									
Measure	Sativa			Indica			<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i> -value
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>				
Snack Foods	3.09	1.10		3.31	0.97		-1.25	142	0.213
Sugary Foods	3.09	0.89		3.04	1.07		0.30	140	0.768
Fruits	3.43	1.09		3.6	0.99		-0.97	140	0.333
Vegetables	2.82	1.19		3.29	1.16		-2.34	136	0.021
Grains	3.15	0.97		3.4	0.95		-1.59	140	0.115
Meats	3.07	1.17		3.46	1.28		-1.92	139	0.057
Dairy	3.12	1.15		3.27	1.20		-0.76	141	0.447

Table 3										
<i>Correlations Between Preferred Strength of Psychoactive Effect and Frequency of Food Type Consumption -Sativa Group</i>										
Factors	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Strength of effect	40.69	20.57	1							
2. Snack Foods	3.09	1.10	.317**	1						
3. Sugary Foods	3.09	0.89	0.195	.528**	1					
4. Fruits	3.43	1.09	0.021	-0.062	0.07	1				
5. Vegetables	2.82	1.19	-0.157	-0.014	-.235*	.394**	1			
6. Grains	3.15	0.97	0.217	.363**	0.053	0.132	.274*	1		
7.Meats	3.07	1.17	0.219	.295*	-.003	0.2	.319**	.453**	1	
8. Dairy	3.12	1.15	0.098	0.203	-.007	.249*	.399**	.367**	.606**	1.00

Note: \*Statistically significant at  $p<.05$ ; \*\*Statistically significant at  $p<.01$

Table 4										
<i>Correlations Between Preferred Strength of Psychoactive Effect and Frequency of Food Type Consumption-Indica Group</i>										
Factors	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Strength of effect	50.57	25.02	1							
2. Snack Foods	3.31	0.97	-0.58	1						
3. Sugary Foods	3.04	1.07	.292*	.526**	1					
4. Fruits	3.6	0.99	0.195	0.064	0.063	1				
5. Vegetables	3.29	1.16	0.55	-0.131	-0.176	.424**	1			
6. Grains	3.4	0.95	0.207	.373**	.310*	0.139	.256*	1		
7.Meats	3.46	1.28	.385**	0.054	.333**	.247*	.322*	.497**	1	
8. Dairy	3.27	1.20	.307*	0.184	.417**	0.099	0.141	.459**	.586**	1

Note: \*Statistically significant at  $p<.05$ ; \*\*Statistically significant at  $p<.01$

#### **Biographical Sketch for Richard Donnelly PhD**

Richard Donnelly, PhD is an Assistant Professor of Recreation, Tourism & Hospitality in the Department of Human Services at the University of Northern Colorado. He completed his PhD in 2002 at Colorado State University in Human Resource Management and his MS in 1991 at Florida International University in Hospitality Administration. His research interests include food, beverages and Cannabis within the Tourism and Hospitality Industry. richard.donnelly@unco.edu

#### **Biographical Sketch for James Gould PhD**

James M. Gould, Ph.D. is an Associate Professor of Recreation, Tourism & Hospitality in the Department of Human Services at the University of Northern Colorado. He completed his PhD in 2005 at Clemson University in Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management and his MS in 2000 at Georgia Southern University in Recreation Administration. His research interests include Serious Leisure, Sport Tourism, Adventure Sports and Leisure Behavior. His interests also include outdoor special events, natural resource management; fly fishing, paddle sports, hiking and dogs. james.gould@unco.edu

## Key Words

collaboration, stakeholder, event management, festival, religious event, tourism

# *Stakeholder Collaboration for a Religious Tourism Mega Event*

**SURABHI GORE, MPhil, MBA, MTM**

Assistant Professor  
Affiliation: Rosary College of Commerce & Arts  
Department of BBA Travel & Tourism, Navelim, Salcete, Goa

## Abstract

The “Exposition of the relics of St Francis Xavier” is a decennial mega event held at the world heritage site of “Churches and Convents of Goa”. The paper analyses the grounds on which collaborations among the stakeholders are formed during the preparation for the event. It highlights the concerns of the stakeholders. The research also brings to light the issues that lead to conflicts among the stakeholders. The data is collected by personally interviewing the stakeholders through a structured questionnaire. The analysis is done by correlating the responses of the stakeholders with the literature on stakeholder collaboration. The results show that the stakeholders formed collaboration for event management, economic benefits, conflict management and conservation. The concerns expressed by stakeholders were with regards to collaboration, religious tourism, heritage management and event management. Private sector stakeholders have associations that assist them in resolving conflicts through negotiations, whereas among public sector stakeholders, conflicts are covert. The paper's originality lies in examining a decennial event in a unique setting and its implications on the stakeholders. The article would help the policy makers in understanding the problems and issues faced by the stakeholders while planning for tourism events.

## INTRODUCTION

The “Exposition of the relics of Saint Francis Xavier” is a decennial mega event held in Goa, India wherein the revered relics of the saint are taken in a procession from Basilica of Bom Jesus (where the relics are kept at all times) to Se Cathedral for adoration. Both these churches are a part of World Heritage Site of “Churches and Convents of Goa” listed under UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). The event is attended by the faithful from the world over. The event is unique as the relics of the saint are placed for veneration for the pilgrims. Every year in December, the church celebrates the feast of the saint, but during the decennial year, the relics are venerated. The saint is said to have miraculous healing powers. Pilgrims offer wax metaphors of the body parts they want the saint to heal. The paper is based on the event held from November 22 to January 4, 2015, at Old Goa. Figure 1 shows the world heritage site of churches and convents of Goa. Figure 2 shows the picture of the procession of the relics and the relics being venerated by the pilgrims.

The stakeholders for the event are identified as primary (those who are affected directly by the activities in the tourism industry) and secondary (those who are affected indirectly by the activities in the tourism industry) (Clarkson, 1995). The Church organises the event. The state government, along with the tourism department, help the church in managing the event. The other primary stakeholders are travel agents, hotels, taxi operators, transport department and locals. Secondary stakeholders include associations like TTAG (Travel and Tourism Association of Goa), CII (Confederation of Indian Industries, Goa Chapter), GCCI (Goa Chamber of Commerce and industries) and ASI (Archaeological Society of India). For the event, each stakeholder is expected to have the foresight to communicate, cooperate and collaborate with the other stakeholders. The event of this nature requires meticulous planning in multidisciplinary areas, and so collaboration becomes integral. The primary stakeholders need to work in tandem and understand each other's concerns. They are usually more dominant than secondary stakeholders (Reid, 2011; Tiew, Holmes and De Bussy, 2015). The objectives of the study are

1. To analyse the rationale behind forming collaborations among the stakeholders, especially for a religious tourism event.

2. To find out the concerns among the stakeholders for the event and collaboration.

3. To find out the issues, if any, that leads to conflicts among the primary stakeholders.

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review cited below gives a brief on the concepts of world heritage sites, stakeholder theory, collaboration theory, stakeholder collaboration, religious tourism and event tourism. The religious event organised at a world heritage site incorporates these concepts. The event also shows the traits of a tourism event, and so ideas of religious tourism and event tourism are discussed. Additionally, it gives a perspective on the research done in the area of stakeholder collaboration for planning and managing events, issues and conflicts in heritage management.

World Heritage Sites are tourism magnets and national icons. They are resources that are conserved for future generations and also made available to the people for knowledge and pleasure (ICOMOS, 1993). Many heritage sites are also religious tourism sites, and so a proper balance between the two needs to be maintained by the heritage managers. Heritage management involves conservation planning, architectural design, reconstruction techniques and more importantly, the reproduction of the past,

Figure 1. World Heritage Site of Churches and Convents of Goa



Source: Ankur and Shoma (2012)

**Figure2. A) Procession of the relics B) Pilgrims kissing the relics**



Source: Google Images

cross-cultural sensitivity and education (Nuryanti, 1996). Heritage managers need to deal with several issues such as conservation, commoditisation, overcrowding, experiences and interpretation. They put a greater emphasis on preservation without taking into account the site's contemporary purpose (Grimwade and Carter, 2000). Several researchers have concluded that conflicting interest in heritage management leads to tensions and conflicts between stakeholders (Cheung, 1999; Maikhuri, Nautiyal, Rao and Saxena, 2001; Jamal, 2004; Jones and Shawb, 2012; Maharjan, 2012; Nyaupane, 2009; Porter and Salazar, 2005). The conflicts are most likely to surface when the power balance between stakeholders shifts (Mckercher, 1993). Stakeholder theory focuses on identifying and involving all the stakeholders in the functioning of the organisation (Freeman, 1984). A stakeholder in the tourism sector is believed to be anyone who is affected by development positively or negatively. Stakeholder relationships work on three levels of analysis, the, i.e. organisation as a whole, standard operating procedures and day to day activities (Freeman, 2004). Venkataraman (2002) states that if the stakeholder interests are not in tandem with the collaboration, the collaboration collapses and a new partnership will be created. A number of studies have used stakeholder theory to examine policies and strategies formed during events, roles of

stakeholders and stakeholder management (Long, 2000; Larson and Wikstrom, 2001; Larson, 2002; Getz, Anderson, Larson, 2007; Parent and Sequin, 2007; Yasarata, Altinay, Burns and Okumus, 2010; Tkaczynski, 2013; Ziakas, 2013; Phi, Dredge and Whitford, 2014; Pappas, 2014). Collaboration theory stresses on making decisions that are mutually agreeable by all stakeholders (Gray, 1989). Jamal and Getz (1995) defined stakeholder collaboration as “a process of joint decision making among key stakeholders to resolve planning problems of the destination”. They proposed that “Collaboration should be based on the understanding that decisions taken would be followed”. The collaboration's authenticity and control come from the incorporation of the primary stakeholders, external consent, and the presence of ample resources to carry out the process and realise outcomes. Most collaborations are inter-organisational, where organisational goals are pursued by working with other organisations. For religious events, collaboration is interpersonal, intergroup and inter-organisational (Adongo and Kim, 2018). Inter-organisational relationships emerge because organisations or groups need each other (Barringer and Harrison, 2000). Stakeholder collaborations are vital for the tourism industry as it involves multidisciplinary areas. Stakeholder collaboration in the field of tourism may include different aspects of tourism

management, namely planning, organising, decision making, directing, controlling and conflict management. Jha and Mishra (2014) suggested integrative and participative tourism planning for sustainable tourism development. They examined the links between tourists, locals, market and external environment. Collaboration evades the cost of resolving conflicts in the long run (Yuksel, Bramwell and Yuksel, 1999). Sharing can result in a reduction in expenditure (Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Bramwell and Lane, 1999; Healey, 1997). It uses local knowledge to ensure that decisions are up to date and apt (Bramwell and Sharman, 1999). It results in value creation for the stakeholders by fostering on accumulating awareness of stakeholders (Bramwell and Lane, 1999; Gray 1989; Healey, 1997) and gives the stakeholders the right to be heard. Tourism projects become transparent by involving the local community. Reciprocal participation can deliver cost-effective solutions by merging resources (Bramwell and Lane, 1999; Brohman, 1996; Healey, 1997). Yaghmour and Scott (2009) research showed positive outcomes from the collaboration between organisations for Jeddah festival in Saudi Arabia. Larson and Wikstrom (2001) researched on power and inter-stakeholder dynamics at festivals. The study found that the project networks are predominantly based on either a consensus or a conflict perspective. Getz, Anderson and Larson (2007) used case studies in Canada and Sweden to identify the primary stakeholders and their collaborations. Crespi-Vallbona and Richards (2007) researched on the perceptions of stakeholders in Spain. Stokes (2008) addressed the stakeholder orientation of event tourism strategy makers in Australia, and Johnson, Glover and Yuen (2009) focused on the role of community representatives in creating the event in Canada. The barriers of local participation in tourism development at Chilka Lake were found to be collaboration,

infrastructure and funding. (Khuntia and Mishra, 2016)

Events act as a catalyst to build local communities, mount development and structure national identities. Event planning, expansion and promotion is an unexplored area of research (Bramwell, 1997; Gnoth and Anwar, 2000; Highman, 2005) that involves organisations, stakeholders and collaborations to work together in the formulation of objectives, policies and strategies. Janiskee (1980) defined festivals and events associated with festivals as a time for gratifying deeds, leisure, and openly rejoicing the experience. Falassi (1987) stated that festivals rejuvenate the existence of the local community and endorse religious institutions. Schuster (2001) stressed the economic benefits of events. He has also said that thriving events are those that are entrenched in particular destinations and are of interest to local communities. Cerutti and Piva (2015) investigated the role of religious events in local tourism development. From the event tourism literature (Getz, 2002; Getz et al, 2007; Parent and Deephouse, 2007; Andersson and Getz, 2008; Getz and Andersson, 2010; Reid, 2011; Xue and Mason, 2011; Getz and Page, 2016) it is apparent that tourism events requires input and collaboration from numerous actors and stakeholders. Raj, Walters and Rashid (2017) concluded that the larger the event, the more intentions it will have to achieve results for its stakeholders. Event managers have made attempts to find appropriate collaboration mechanisms for resolving uneasy relationships between stakeholders (Aas, Ladkin and Fletcher, 2005; Jamal, 2004; Jamal, Stein and Harper, 2002; Jamal and Tanase, 2005; Tucker and Emge, 2010). It is argued that the dynamic characteristics of collaboration can turn its advantages into conflict over time (Lee, Riley and Hampton, 2010). Li, Wu and Cai (2008) and Su and Wall (2011) researched on heritage and tourism conflicts at world heritage sites in China. Zhang,



Fyallb and Zheng (2015) in their research on world heritage sites in China, concluded that the causes of conflicts relate to problems of management structure, tourism operations, and the deficiencies of legislation. Getz (2008) reviewed literature in event tourism and suggested analysing stakeholder strategies for managing events. The author reviewed the literature on festivals and events concerning the communities and stakeholder relationships (Getz, 2010). Korstanje (2009) compared ancient leisure events to Olympics games in Rome and concluded that both share similar characteristics.

There is substantial research on stakeholder collaboration within the context of an organisation or a destination (Marzano and Scott, 2009; Beritelli and Laesser, 2011; Nunkoo and Ramkissoon, 2012) but, there is a dearth of research in analysing event stakeholders. Few recent studies on in this theme are from Tiew et al., 2015; Todd, Leask and Ensor, 2017. The literature highlights the importance of stakeholder participation in organising an event. The event at Goa displays the characteristics of a mega event. Though religious, it also possesses the traits of a tourism event. The paper attempts to analyse the foundation on which collaborations among the stakeholders are formed during the preparation for the event. It aims to list the concerns of the stakeholders and analyses the issues that lead to conflict. Though stakeholder collaboration is a highly discussed topic, it is not analysed concerning a religious event, set in the state of Goa.

#### **METHODOLOGY**

The initial identification of the stakeholders was made using secondary data like newspapers, magazines and travel brochures. The stakeholders were classified as primary (the stakeholders that are directly affected by the activities in the tourism industry) and secondary (the stakeholders that are indirectly affected by the activities in the tourism industry)

(Clarkson, 1995). For analysing the rationale behind forming collaborations among the stakeholders, an open-ended questionnaire was prepared. Snowball sampling method was used to recognise other probable stakeholders (at the time of personal interview). This method entails identifying stakeholders who would then be asked to suggest other stakeholders they consider vital (Finn, 1996). The questionnaire was prepared in four sections for collaboration, conflicts, event management and locals. It was prepared to conduct personal interviews so that the pattern of interviews remains unchanged. Twenty-four primary and five secondary stakeholders representing both public sector and private sectors stakeholders were interviewed personally. Each interview lasted for forty-five minutes to an hour. The questionnaire was pre-tested by first conducting interviews with secondary stakeholders. A pre-test was conducted to determine whether the interviewee understands the questions and answers provide the information required. After analysing the results of the pre-test, the questionnaire was modified. The data was recorded in the questionnaire form simultaneously. The stakeholders were asked questions about their willingness to form collaborations on various parameters like event management, benefits, conflict management, heritage management and conservation. They were also asked to list their concerns for such collaborations and in general, for the event. Further, they were asked to list their issues with other stakeholders. The analysis is done by relating the results of the study to the concepts discussed in the literature review. In the result and discussion section, first, the purpose of forming collaborations amongst the stakeholders is discussed. Then, stakeholder concerns and conflicts are listed.

#### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Gunn (1988), in his book on tourism planning, specifies that many national

governments participating in tourism are now collaborating with different stakeholders for increased teamwork and association. The organisers of the events are located in a central position in the festival network (Wasserman and Faust, 1994; Provan, Nakama, Veazie, Tuefel-Shone and Huddleston, 2003; Getz et al., 2007). For the event as well, there are specific collaborations formed. The primary reason for such collaboration was the nature of the event itself. The owner of the event was the church; the organising was the responsibility of the church and state and central government. Since the event was

organised at the world heritage site, ASI was involved for restoration, beautification and for providing control measures. Private sector operators like the travel agents, tour operators, hoteliers provided services as and when required but did not play any part in the planning process. Several NGO's (Non-Governmental Organizations) related to tourism also took a keen interest in the planning but were not included in any collaborations. With regards to the role of the stakeholders, Father Alfred Vaz (Convener of the Church Committee and Parish priest of St Cathedral) said that "*The roles for the main stakeholders are defined. Each stakeholder is expected to play their*

**Table 1: Purpose and types of collaboration**

<b>Collaboration Purposes</b>			
<b>Event Management</b>	<b>Economic Benefit</b>	<b>Conflict Management</b>	<b>Conservation</b>
Public sector collaboration between the Government, Church and ASI. Internal committees within government and church.	Instant collaborations between private sector within and outside India. (hotels, travel agents, tour operators) Permanent collaboration is not specific to the event.	No public sector collaboration Private sector collaboration is permanent collaborations not specific to the event.	Church with ASI NGO's

Source: Fieldwork

## **PURPOSE OF FORMING COLLABORATION**

### **Collaboration for Event Management**

*Public Sector Collaboration:* The collaboration was primarily of the stakeholders from the public sector like the church, government and ASI. Since the event is a highly prestigious decennial event, the primary stakeholders were leaving no stone unturned to make the event a success. The three different committees formed were between the government bodies, church and ASI. The development of infrastructure, visitation of tourists, accommodation facilities, food facilities, parking, transport, security and

marketing were under the purview of the government. The church was responsible for the religious activities at the site like taking care of the relics, organising a mass, exhibitions on the life of St Francis Xavier. The ASI took care of the conservation part of the monuments and saw that no rules and regulations were violated. The government and the church also had their internal committees looking after specific jobs. The government committee formed included different bodies like the Village Panchayat, Public Works Department (PWD), GSIDC (Goa State Infrastructure Development Corporation), police, Members of Legislative Assembly (MLA's),

Member of Parliament(MP's) and the locals. The church's committee comprised of locals and priests belonging to different parishes in Goa. *"The government has been cooperative so far, and we are confident about the infrastructural needs,"* said Fr Alfred Vaz, when asked about the committee's performance. Evan and Freeman (1988) stated that stakeholders should take an active part in the decision-making process of the firm in which the stakeholders have a stake. It is worthy to note that though there were collaborations, the decision making rested entirely with the church and the government. The private sector was not involved in any collaboration with the public sector. One of the order form, from the government published in a local daily read, *"All financial and administrative powers relating to execution of any work/infrastructure facilities shall vest with the chairman of the exposition secretariat (Government Committee) and any decision in this respect shall be final,"* (OHeraldo, 2014).

#### **Collaboration for Economic Benefit**

Financial benefits are the most common benefits derived from any event (Raj and Musgrave 2009). However, since this event was religious, the primary stakeholder, i.e. the church and the government were not looking for any economic benefits. It is inevitable that the government will benefit from the money collected as tax. The other stakeholders, like the hoteliers, travel agents and tour operators were collaborating to make maximum profits. There were no formal collaborations formed. The private sector actors on their own were collaborating with different agents within India and internationally to get maximum tourists. Some of these collaborations were permanent collaborations, not specific to the event.

#### **Collaboration for Conflict Management**

*Public Sector Collaboration:* Though there

were some underlying conflicts in the committees with regards to the day to day working of the event, none of the stakeholders wanted to address the issues. There was no collaboration formed to take care of conflicts. The conflicts were overlooked and never discussed. The Sarpanch of Old Goa, Mr Prasad Amonker, when asked about the role of Panchayat, said, *"If anything goes wrong during the exposition the whole blame will come on the panchayat"*.

*Private Sector Collaboration:* The stakeholder collaborations for the private sector organisations for managing conflict were in the form of three associations TTAG (Travel & Tourism Association of Goa), CII (Confederation of Indian Industries), GCCI (Goa Chamber of Commerce and Industries). These organisations work as a link between the members and the government. These bodies help their members by putting forth their issues with the government and by helping the members to find possible solutions. The TTAG is an association of representatives of hotels, travel agencies and tour operators in Goa. It is a non-profit, non-governmental organisation committed to fostering the foundation of sound and constructive tourism in Goa. The CII acts as a "centre of excellence" and provides on-demand training and also coordinates with the government on investment and infrastructure issues. One of the targets for CII is to reduce the skill gap in Goa for the tourism industry. Goa Chamber of Commerce & Industry (GCCCI) is Goa's leading non-profit business organisation, providing support services to business organisations in Goa. With regards to the event, there were no collaborations. However, any issues that the stakeholders had with regards to the event were addressed by these organisations.

#### **Collaboration for Conservation**

Teamwork and alliances are significant

issues in the planning process for tourism. They are believed to be contributing to sustainable tourism development (Bramwell and Lane, 1999; Hall, 2008; Selin, 1999) by involving local communities through the incorporation of ideas (Mitchell and Reid, 2001; Tosun, 2000). The Archaeological Survey of India (ASI) is the organisation that looks after the conservation/restoration/renovation needs of all heritage sites and monuments in India. ASI is also the body which is responsible for research work in this area. For the event, ASI collaborated with the church on all the restoration work. The ASI regularly inspects the monuments for any visual signs of degradation and after approval from its director carries out the work. The officials of ASI thought that they should collaborate with institutions like the National Institute of Oceanography or Goa University to gain insights into research. However, for the event, no such collaboration existed. The other Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO) like Centre for responsible tourism, Charles Correa Foundation, Goa Heritage Action Group, Save Old Goa Action Group collaborates from time to time depending

on the issue at hand. For the event, they were collaborating among themselves to plead to the government to include them in the managing committees. They were also working together and keeping a close eye on the developments that were happening at the site to see to it that no rules and regulations were broken. Several articles on the local dailies highlighted the viewpoints of such groups, but the organising committees did not give any consideration to them.

Pearce (2001), in his discovery, asserted that local tourism policy is a result of “a happy juxtaposition of the right people and the right skills”. Tourism planners need to establish a universal position between the different stakeholders of tourism with regards to heritage management so that it remains mutually beneficial to all stakeholders (Aas et al., 2005). In the case of the event, not including the NGO's was a deviation from the literature.

#### **STAKEHOLDER CONCERNS**

The major themes that emerge from the literature for stakeholder concerns are about collaboration, religious tourism, heritage management and event management. Table 2 summarises the concerns of the stakeholders.

**Table 2: Stakeholder Concerns**

<b>Collaboration</b>	<b>Heritage Management</b>	<b>Religious Tourism</b>	<b>Event Management</b>
Benefits are not shared with all the stakeholders.	Safety	Religious Sanctity	Traffic Management
Decision making rests with the primary stakeholders.	Overexposure at the site	Tourist Education and behaviour	Crowd Management
Undercutting of Prices	Land use and garbage management	Dress Code	Taxi Mafia
	Following rules and regulations	Creating Religious Aura	IFFI (International Film Festival of India)

Source: Fieldwork

### **Concerns for Collaboration**

*Sharing Economic Benefits:* According to collaboration theory, the benefits of the collaboration should be shared by all the stakeholders of the collaboration equally. The private sector stakeholders were reluctant to get into any collaboration as they felt that the benefits would go to prominent stakeholders.

*Decision Making:* In the collaborations formed, all the decisions were taken by the primary stakeholders, i.e. the church and the government. The NGO's who wanted to get involved in the planning were not incorporated in the committees. Research states that collaboration improves the quality of decisions as diverse views are considered (Duarte, 2016; Gray, 1989; Nuhoff-Isakhanyan, Wubben and Omta, 2016), but in this case, the stakeholders were barred from playing an active role in decision making.

*Undercutting Prices:* Many travel agents, tour operators, hotels and restaurants in order to cash in indulge in undercutting on prices. As a result, other honest operators suffer. Also, the government is robbed of substantial tax benefits. There were no measures taken to keep a check on this. One of the travel agent during the interview said that *"Undercutting of prices is a huge problem in Goa. The government should have standard pricing policies for transport and hotel and taxi bookings."*

### **Concerns for Heritage Management**

Tourism planners need to establish a universal position between the different stakeholders of tourism with regards to heritage management so that it remains mutually beneficial to all stakeholders (Aas et al., 2005). The stakeholders were concerned about the safety of the tourist and the monuments. With regards to overexposure, the stakeholders believed that it would not cause any problems. The sarpanch of the village panchayat of Old

Goa Mr Prasad Amonkar said that *"The exposition would cause superficial damage in terms of garbage and land use management and stressed that they could be easily rectified once the event was over."* The stakeholders were also concerned about rules and regulations being followed by the pilgrims.

### **Concerns for Religious Tourism**

Maintaining religious sanctity of the monument was found to be a significant concern. Educating the tourist about the importance of the monuments, dress code, the behaviour of children were some of the concerns addressed. Father Allan, a priest, suggested that *"Religious aura can be created around the site by playing Georgian and Polyphonic music, similar to some European countries to maintain high religious sanctity."*

### **Event Management**

The stakeholders had concerns regarding crowd management and traffic management. Though many volunteers would be on duty managing the traffic, the stakeholders were apprehensive as the event would go on for one and a half month. Managing the taxi mafia is another primary concern of the stakeholders. Another international event, IFFI (International Film Festival of India) would also happen at the same time in Goa, and so the stakeholders were worried about the distribution of resources among delegates and pilgrims. The church expressed its concern regarding the pilgrims becoming soft targets. Father Alfred pointed out that *"Last year NSG (National Security Guard) commandos had visited the churches to assess the area concerning security."*

### **STAKEHOLDER CONFLICTS**

Gray (1989) defined collaboration as a practice of cooperative resolution among essential stakeholders of a destination about the prospects of that destination. He asserted that collaboration could be

effectively used to subdue conflict and move forward with mutual ideas, where stakeholders identify the probable rewards of functioning together. Also, many other authors justified that collaboration can help reduce conflicts. Yuksel et al. (1999) stated that coordination and collaboration help to evade the cost of mediating conflicts at all times. Though the above author's theories stand true for the private

sector where organisations like TTAG, CII and GCCI are formed to resolve conflicts amongst the stakeholders or between the stakeholders and the government, the conflicts between the actors of the public sector were not discussed in the open. Table 3 depicts the conflicts between the primary, secondary sector stakeholders.

**Table: 3 Major Conflicts**

Archaeological Society of India	Church
	Government of Goa
	Public Works Department
Government of Goa	Conservationists
	Locals

Source: Fieldwork

### Archaeological Society of India and Church

ASI and the church do not see eye to eye on the following issues.

- Fire hazard due to cooking being done at the church: The church authorities were planning to provide basic food to the pilgrims at the site. The ASI officials were not very happy with this arrangement as cooking may be hazardous.
- Church grounds being used for playing football by the priests: The parishioners are often found playing football in the grounds of the church which is against the regulations listed by UNESCO for protecting the monument.
- Use of electric bulbs instead of candles at the altar: Earlier times candles were lit at the altar which is now replaced by light bulbs. The priest at the church said that *“The candles were challenging to maintain”*, but ASI officials do not agree and feel that light bulbs may fade the altar paintings.
- The church paintings taken for restoration are never returned: The ASI regularly takes out paintings from the

church for restoration. The ASI official said that *“Some of these paintings are sent out of Goa. Many times they take a very long time to come back”*. The church then accuses the ASI of robbing the painting.

- Monuments referred to as heritage sites and not religious properties: The ASI sees the church monuments as any other historical site, but the priests believe that the monuments are very much alive as prayers and masses are held in both the churches, The Basilica as well as Se' Cathedral every day. Father Allan conveyed his displeasure by saying that *“The ASI looks at the churches as any heritage monument and calls it a “dead monument” without understanding its religious significance.*

The issues listed above were never discussed in public by any of the stakeholders, neither the church authorities nor the ASI. Stakeholders preferred to remain silent to avoid verbal conflicts. These problems can only be solved when both the stakeholders decide to discuss and negotiate matters.

### Archaeological Society of India and Government of Goa

The event site is a UNESCO world heritage site. The regulations given by UNESCO have to be administered by the government, i.e. one hundred meters of the area around the site is a restricted area where only repair/restoration work is allowed, and no new construction can be done. Up till 200m is the regulated area where construction can take place with a NOC from the National Monuments Authority, New Delhi. The ASI officials did not have any information on permission taken by the government officials for constructing toilets and widening the roads by cutting forests. As a corrective measure, the ASI officials issue notices for any activity taking place without proper permission, but their notices are

often ignored. They believed that independent site managers should be appointed to take care of issues at hand and should have the power to take action.

### Archaeological Society of India and Public Works Department

The ASI officials think that due to rampant corruption in PWD all rules and regulations regarding vendor management and shop allocation are not followed despite several warnings. The PWD had started construction of a boundary wall on one side of the church near another historical monument "The Arch of Viceroy". After many complaints, the boundary wall was finally razed. Figure 3 shows an article in the locals daily where the PWD has agreed to remove the illegal wall built near the UNESCO site.

Figure 3: An article in the local daily



Source: Times News Network (2014)

### Government of Goa and Conservationists

The heritage lovers were opposing the construction near the event site as per the UNESCO rules. The government declared that the constructions were only temporary; they would be dismantled once the event is over and the material would be used elsewhere. The conservationists argue that the guardians of conservation and restoration of the churches are themselves not aware of the quality of conservation. They say the research in the area is lacking. The members said that they have written

many times to the authorities about the problems faced by them but till date no action has been taken. World heritage sites are resources that must be managed in such a way that they are conserved for future generations and also made available to the public for its learning and gratification. It is a challenging task for the World Heritage Site managers to find equilibrium between the two demands (ICOMOS, 1993). Figure 4 shows a newspaper article showing opposition by heritage lovers over construction near the site.

**Figure 4: An article showing opposition by heritage lovers over construction near the site.**



Source: Fernandes, 2014

### **Government of Goa and the Locals**

Hall and McArthur (1998) have stated that managers must include the local community in the process of planning so that the plans are superior and diminish the chances of any conflict that may arise. Managers must also ensure that formulated plans are implemented by educating the local community and making them aware of the importance of heritage. The locals believed that many times, their interests were ignored by the government. Many locals wanted to set up shops around the site but felt that the government and the local bodies were not doing anything for their interest. The locals also felt that conservation should not harm the original value of the site. Trained and qualified people should be employed for conservation aspects. Munanura and Backman (2012), in their research on stakeholder collaboration for developing countries, proposed a process model. The model involves identifying stakeholders, assigning them specific roles, developing a collaboration framework for the participation of all stakeholders. The deliberations and feedback mechanism will be able to take care of any stakeholder issues. However, Clarke and Raffay (2015) stressed that stakeholder mapping results in static representations of the stakeholders.

Collaboration may involve mediation from a third party (Moore, 2014). Stakeholders

may defy the authority of other stakeholders, but a mediator almost always has a high authenticity (Huybrechts and Nicholls, 2013; Larson, Getz and Patras, 2015). The success of stakeholder collaboration is dependent on their salience in a collaboration process (Kennedy and Augustyn, 2014; Sheehan and Ritchie, 2005). Identifying stakeholder salience helps effective stakeholder coordination, inclusion or exclusion of stakeholders in cooperative actions, and categorisation of their roles in specific projects (Boatright, 2002; Jamal and Getz, 2000). In the case of the event, negotiation and mediation are required to handle the inherent conflicts present.

### **CONCLUSIONS**

An event requires meticulous planning and logistics support. Managing all aspects of the events is as important as the event itself. Stakeholders having expertise in different areas with regards to tourism, infrastructure, transport and accommodation were involved in making the event a success. A religious event involves not only managing the event with stakeholder collaboration; it also involves the sentiments of people. The event of this magnitude is considered to be an opportunity to create a powerful impact on both pilgrims and tourists. The main reasons for forming collaborations for the event were for event management, economic benefit, conflict management and



conservation. The main stakeholders, i.e. the government and the church formed collaboration for managing the event. All the stakeholders of the event derived benefits. The motive of the church was to make sure that the religious event's schedule is followed and maximum pilgrims venerate the relics. The government was concerned about the destination's image and the public sector bodies united to earn profits. Any conflicts between the private sector stakeholders were managed through various bodies like CII, GCCI, and TTAG. With regards to conservation, the ASI guards all the monuments against any dilapidation. It could also be relevant to note that the event by itself is a temporary phenomenon. As such, the role of long-term relationships, which otherwise are central to any stakeholder collaboration is minimum in such cases. The awareness among the stakeholder of the temporary nature of the relationships may also be a deterrent in the formation of stronger collaborations. The concept of collaboration is extensively used in value chain partnerships. In case of an event, the temporary nature may induce inclination among the stakeholders to try to obtain maximum advantage instead of a negotiating behaviour necessary in collaborations.

The concerns that the stakeholders had were with regards to the collaboration, heritage management, religious tourism and event management. For collaboration, decision making, benefit sharing and undercutting of prices were the primary concerns. Land use and garbage management, overexposure, safety were some of the issues under heritage management. In the case of religious tourism, the stakeholders were worried about creating religious sanctity, educating tourist, dress code and maintaining a spiritual aura. Managing two events, traffic management, crowd management and sharing of resources were concern regarding event management. The impact of the collaboration on conflicts related to

conservation and heritage management is not overt. On the surface, none of the stakeholders are complaining but further delved come up with issues that need to be solved. Heritage groups regularly complain in the local newspapers rather than directly collaborating with agencies. Negotiation and mediation can be used to avoid any conflicts.

The initiative to form collaborations should come from each stakeholder. There should be collaborations between the public sector and the private sector. Academic collaborations between the ASI, tourism department, university and private sector should be initiated. The government should include the participation of cultural and heritage bodies in the committees made for decision making. They are also the stakeholder of tourism and must not be ignored. Lack of communication between the stakeholders has led to conflicts. Priorities should be appropriately communicated to all stakeholders. They should be encouraged to debate about issues and arrive at amicable solutions. The parameters that make this study unique do not allow it to be compared to any other study. Nonetheless, similar events like Ardh Kumbh / Maha Kumbh Mela or Hajj can be analysed to draw generalisations.

The research gives a complete understanding of the role of stakeholders at a religious tourism event. It provides insights on the nature of stakeholder's decision-making process and their motivations to participate in a local religious event. The analysis of the stakeholders for the event gives a view of the social and institutional landscape of tourism in Goa. The research helps the policy makers in understanding the problems and issues faced by the stakeholders while planning for tourism events. Academicians can replicate the research at other religious tourism events to draw generalisations.

## REFERENCES

- Aas, C., Ladkin, A. and Fletcher, J., (2005). Stakeholder collaboration and heritage management. *Annals of tourism research*, 32(1), pp.28-48.
- Adongo, R. and Kim, S., (2018). The ties that bind: stakeholder collaboration and networking in local festivals. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 30(6), pp.2458-2480.
- Andersson, T.D. and Getz, D., (2009). Tourism as a mixed industry: Differences between private, public and not-for-profit festivals. *Tourism Management*, 30(6), pp.847-856.
- Ankur and Shoma. (2012). Churches in Goa. Retrieved from <http://thetravellerware.blogspot.com/2012/10/churches-in-go.html>
- Barringer, B.R. and Harrison, J.S., (2000). Walking a tightrope: Creating value through interorganizational relationships. *Journal of management*, 26(3), pp.367-403.
- Beritelli, P. and Laesser, C., (2011). Power dimensions and influence reputation in tourist destinations: Empirical evidence from a network of actors and stakeholders. *Tourism Management*, 32(6), pp.1299-1309.
- Boatright, J.R., (2002). Contractors as stakeholders: Reconciling stakeholder theory with the nexus-of-contracts firm. *Journal of Banking & Finance*, 26(9), pp.1837-1852.
- Bramwell, B., 1997. A sport mega-event as a sustainable tourism development strategy. *Tourism recreation research*, 22(2): 13-19.
- Bramwell, B., and Lane, B., (1999). Collaboration and partnerships for sustainable tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 7(3-4), 179-181.
- Bramwell, B., and Sharman, A., (1999). Collaboration in local tourism policymaking. *Annals of tourism research*, 26(2): 392-415.
- Brohman, J., (1996). New directions in tourism for third world development. *Annals of tourism research*, 23(1): 48-70.
- Cerutti, S., and Piva, E., (2015). Religious tourism and event management: An opportunity for local tourism development. *International Journal of Religious Tourism and Pilgrimage*, 3(1), 8-16.
- Cheung, S. C. H., (1999). The meanings of a heritage trail in Hong Kong. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(3), 570-588.
- Clarke, A. and Raffay, Á., (2015). Stakeholders and co-creation in religious tourism and pilgrimage. *Religious tourism and pilgrimage management: an international perspective*, (Ed. 2), pp.160-172.
- Clarkson, M. E., (1995). A stakeholder framework for analysing and evaluating corporate social performance. *Academy of management review*, 20(1), 92-117.
- Crespi-Vallbona. M., and Richards, G., (2007). The meaning of cultural festivals: Stakeholder perspectives in Catalunya. *International journal of cultural policy*, 13(1), 103-122.
- Duarte Alonso, A., (2016), July. Stakeholders, collaboration, food, and wine: The case of Jumilla's Gastronomic Days. In *Journal of Convention & Event Tourism*, Routledge. Vol. 17, No. 3, pp. 173-191.
- Evan, W. M., and Freeman, R. E., (1988). *A stakeholder theory of the modern corporation: Kantian capitalism*.
- Falassi, A., 1987. Festival: Definition and morphology. *Time out of Time: Essays on the Festival*, 1-10
- Fernandes, P., (2014). Heritage lovers oppose construction near viceroy's arch. *The Times of India: Times-News network*. Retrieved from <https://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/city/goa/Heritage-lovers-oppose-construction-near-Viceroy-s-Arch/articleshow/44428540.cms>
- Finn, C.B., (1996). Utilising stakeholder strategies for positive collaborative outcomes. In C. Huxham(ed) *Creating Collaborative Advantage* (pp. 152-164). London: Sage
- Freeman, R. E., (1984). *Strategic management: A stakeholder approach*. Boston: Pitman.
- Freeman, R. E., (2004). The stakeholder approach revisited. *Zeitschrift für Wirtschafts-und Unternehmensethik*, 5(3), 228-254.
- Getz, D., (2002). Why festivals fail. *Event management*, 7(4), 209-219.
- Getz, D., (2008). Event tourism: Definition, evolution, and research. *Tourism Management*, 29(3), pp.403-428.
- Getz, D., (2010). The nature and scope of festival studies. *International Journal of Event Management Research*, 5(1), 1-47.

- Getz, D., and Andersson, T., 2010. Festival stakeholders: Exploring relationships and dependency through a four-country comparison. *Journal of hospitality & tourism research*, 34(4), 531-556.
- Getz, D., Andersson, T., and Larson, M., 2007. Festival stakeholder roles: Concepts and case studies. *Event Management*, 10 (2/3), 103-122.
- Getz, D., and Page, S. J., 2016. Progress and prospects for event tourism research. *Tourism Management*, 52, 593-631.
- Gnoth, J., and Anwar, S. A., 2000. New Zealand bets on event tourism. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 41(4): 72-83.
- Gray, B., 1989. Collaborating: Finding common ground for multiparty problems. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass
- Grimwade, G., and Carter, B., 2000. Managing small heritage sites with interpretation and community involvement. *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, 6(1): 33-48.
- Gunn 2nd, C. A., 1988. *Tourism Planning*, 2nd ed, Taylor and Francis. New York.
- Hall, C. M., 2008. *Tourism planning: policies, processes and relationships*. Pearson Education.
- Hall, C., and MacArthur, S., 1998. *Integrated Heritage Management*.
- Healey, P., 1997. *Collaborative planning: Shaping places in fragmented societies*. Vancouver: UBC Press.
- Higham, J. E. (Ed.), 2005. *Sport tourism destinations: Issues, opportunities and analysis*. Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Huybrechts, B. and Nicholls, A., 2013. The role of legitimacy in social enterprise-corporate collaboration. *Social Enterprise Journal*, 9(2), pp.130-146.
- ICOMOS, C., 1993. *Tourism at world heritage cultural sites: the site manager's handbook*. Colombo: International Scientific Committee.
- Jamal, T., 2004. Conflict in natural area destinations: A critique of representation and 'interest' in participatory processes. *Tourism Geographies: An International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment*, 6(3), 352-379.
- Jamal, T. B., and Getz, D., 1995. Collaboration theory and community tourism planning. *Annals of tourism research*, 22(1), 186-204.
- Jamal, T. and Getz, D., 2000. Community roundtables for tourism-related conflicts: The dialectics of consensus and process structures. *Tourism collaboration and partnerships: Politics, practice and sustainability*, 2, p.159.
- Jamal, T. B., Stein, S. M., & Harper, T. L., 2002. Beyond labels: Pragmatic planning in multistakeholder tourism-environmental conflicts. *Journal of planning education and research*, 22(2), 164-177.
- Jamal, T., and Tanase, A., 2005. Impacts and conflicts surrounding Dracula Park, Romania: The role of sustainable tourism principles. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 13(5), 440-455.
- Janiskee, B., 1980. South Carolina's harvest festivals: Rural delights for day tripping urbanites. *Journal of Cultural Geography*, 1(1): 96-104.
- Jha, A. K., & Mishra, J. M., 2014. Integrated and Participatory Approach to Sustainable Tourism Development: A Conceptual Study. *Journal of Tourism*, 15.
- Johnson, A. J., Glover, T. D., and Yuen, F. C., 2009. Supporting effective community representation: Lessons from the Festival of Neighbourhoods. *Managing Leisure*, 14(1), 1-16.
- Jones, R., & Shawb, B., 2012. Thinking locally, acting globally? Stakeholder conflicts over UNESCO World Heritage inscription in Western Australia. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, 7(1), 839-6.
- Kennedy, V. and Augustyn, M.M., 2014. Stakeholder power and engagement in an English seaside context: implications for destination leadership. *Tourism Review*, 69(3), pp.187-201.
- Khuntia, N. and Mishra, J.M., (2016). The Barriers of Community Participation in Tourism Development in Chilika Lake, Odisha India. *Journal of Tourism*, 17(2), 83.
- Korstanje, M.E., 2009. Reconsidering the roots of event management: leisure in ancient Rome. *Event Management*, 13(3), pp.197-203.
- Larson, M., 2002. A political approach to relationship marketing: Case study of the

- Storsjöyan Festival. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 4 (2), 119-143.
- Larson, M., and Wikstrom, E., 2001. Organising events: Managing conflict and consensus in a political market square. *Event Management*, 7 (1), 51-65.
- Larson, M., Getz, D. and Pastras, P., 2015. The legitimacy of festivals and their stakeholders: Concepts and propositions. *Event Management*, 19(2), pp.159-174.
- Lee, T. J., Riley, M., and Hampton, M. P., 2010. Conflict and progress: Tourism development in Korea. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37(2), 355-376.
- Li, M., Wu, B., & Cai, L., 2008. Tourism development of World Heritage Sites in China: A geographic perspective. *Tourism Management*, 29(2), 308-319.
- Long, P., 2000. After the event: Perspectives on organisational partnership in the management of a themed festival year. *Event Management*, 6 (1), 45-59.
- Maharjan, M., 2012. Conflict in world heritage sites of Kathmandu Valley: A case study on the conservation of private house in three durbar squares. *Nepal Tourism and Development Review*, 2(1), 87-104.
- Maikhuri, R. K., Nautiyal, S., Rao, K. S., & Saxena, K. G., 2001. Conservation policy people conflicts: A case study from Nanda Devi Biosphere Reserve (a world heritage site), India. *Forest Policy and Economics*, 2(34), 355-365.
- Marzano, G., & Scott, N., 2009. Power in destination branding. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 36(2), 247-267.
- Mckercher, B., 1993. Some fundamental truths about tourism: Understanding tourism's social and environmental impacts. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 1(1), 6-16.
- Mitchell, R. E., and Reid, D. G., 2001. Community integration: Island tourism in Peru. *Annals of tourism research*, 28(1), 113-139.
- Moore, C.W., 2014. *The mediation process: Practical strategies for resolving conflict*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Munanura, I. E., and Backman, K. F. 2012. Stakeholder Collaboration as a Tool for Tourism Planning-A Developing Country's Perspective. *Journal of Tourism*, 13(1).
- Nuhoff-Isakhanyan, G., Wubben, E. and Omta, S.W.F., 2016. Sustainability benefits and challenges of inter-organisational collaboration in Bio-Based business: A systematic literature review. *Sustainability*, 8(4), p.307.
- Nunkoo, R., & Ramkissoon, H., 2012. Power, trust, social exchange and community support. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(2), 997-1023.
- Nuryanti, W., 1996. Heritage and Postmodern Tourism. *Annals of tourism research*, 23(2): 249-260.
- Nyaupane, G. P., 2009. Heritage complexity and tourism: The case of Lumbini, Nepal. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, 4(2), 157-172.
- Pappas, N., 2014. Hosting mega-events: Londoners' support of the 2012 Olympics. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 21, 10-17.
- Parent, M. M., and Deephouse, D. L., 2007. A case study of stakeholder identification and prioritisation by managers. *Journal of business ethics*, 75(1), 1-23.
- Parent, M. M., and Séguin, B., 2007. Factors that led to the drowning of a world championship organising committee: A stakeholder approach. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 7(2), 187-212.
- Parrikar heads high-level panel on Exposition, 2014. oHeraldo, Retrieved from <https://www.heraldgoa.in/Goa/Parrikar-heads-highlevel-panel-on-Exposition-75417.html>
- Pearce, D., 2001. Tourism trams and local government Policymaking in Christchurch, New Zealand. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 4(2-4), 331-354.
- Phi, G., Dredge, D., and Whitford, M., 2014. Understanding conflicting perspectives in event planning and management using the Q method. *Tourism Management*, 40, 406-415.
- Porter, B. W., and Salazar, N. B., 2005. Heritage tourism, conflict, and public interest: An introduction. *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, 11(5), 361-370.
- Provan, K.G., Nakama, L., Veazie, M.A., Teufel-Shone, N.I. and Huddleston, C., 2003. Building community capacity around chronic disease services through a collaborative interorganizational network.

- Health Education & Behaviour*, 30(6), pp.646-662.
- Raj, R. and Musgrave, J. eds., 2009. *Event management and sustainability*. Cabi.
- Raj, R. and Griffin, K.A. eds., 2015. *Religious tourism and pilgrimage management: An international perspective*. Cabi.
- Raj, R., Walters, P., and Rashid, T., 2017. *Events management: principles and practice*. Sage.
- Reid, S., 2011. Event stakeholder management: developing sustainable rural event practices. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, 2(1), 20-36.
- Selin, S., 1999. Developing a Typology of Sustainable Tourism Partnerships: *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 7:260-273.
- Schuster, J. M., 2001. Ephemerality, temporary urbanism and imaging. Imaging the city: Continuing struggles and new directions. In Lawrence J. Vale and Sam Bass Warner Jr. (Eds.), *Imaging the City: Continuing Struggles and New Directions*, 361-397. New Brunswick, New Jersey: CUPR Books.
- Sheehan, L.R. and Ritchie, J.B., 2005. Destination stakeholders exploring identity and salience. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(3), pp.711-734.
- Stokes, R., 2008. Tourism strategy making: Insights into the events tourism domain. *Tourism Management*, 29(2), 252-262.
- Su, M. M., and Wall, G., 2011. Chinese research on world heritage tourism. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 16(1), 75-88.
- Tiew, F., Holmes, K., and De Bussy, N., 2015. Tourism events and the nature of stakeholder power. *Event Management*, 19(4), 525-541.
- Tkaczynski, A., 2013. A stakeholder approach to attendee segmentation: a case study of an Australian Christian music festival. *Event Management*, 17(3), 283-298.
- TNN. (2014). New Platforms near Viceroy's arch raised. *The Times of India*. October 7
- Todd, L., Leask, A., and Ensor, J., 2017. Understanding primary stakeholders' multiple roles in hallmark event tourism management. *Tourism Management*, 59, 494-509.
- Tosan, P., 2000. Limits to community participation in the Tourism Development Process in Developing Countries. *Tourism Management* 21: 613-633
- Tucker, H., and Emge, A., 2010. Managing a world heritage site: The case of Cappadocia. *Anatolia*, 21(1), 41-54.
- Venkataraman, S., 2002. Stakeholder value equilibration and the entrepreneurial process. *The Ruffin Series of the Society for Business Ethics*, 3, 45-57.
- Wasserman, S. and Faust, K., 1994. *Social network analysis: Methods and applications* (Vol. 8). Cambridge university press.
- Xue, H., & Mason, D. S., 2011. The changing stakeholder map of formula one grand prix in Shanghai. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 11(4), 371-395.
- Yaghmour, S., and Scott, N., 2009. Inter-organisational collaboration characteristics and outcomes: a case study of the Jeddah Festival. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*, 1(2), 115-130.
- Yasarata, M., Altinay, L., Burns, P., & Okumus, F. (2010). Politics and sustainable tourism development: Can they co-exist? Voices from North Cyprus. *Tourism Management*, 31(3), 345-356.
- Yuksel, F., Bramwell, B., and Yuksel, A., 1999. Stakeholder Interviews and Tourism Planning at Pamukkale, Turkey. *Tourism Management*, 20(3): 351-360.
- Zhang, C., Fyall, A., and Zheng, Y., 2015. Heritage and tourism conflict within world heritage sites in China: A longitudinal study. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 18(2), 110-136.
- Ziakas, V., 2013. *Event portfolio planning and management: A holistic approach*. Routledge.

### **About the author**

Surabhi Anup Gore is an Assistant Professor at Rosary College of Commerce and Arts, Goa in the department of BBA Travel and Tourism since 2012. A hospitality graduate from IHM Calcutta, along with a Masters of Tourism Management (MTM), Masters of Business Administration (MBA) from IGNOU, New Delhi and an MPhil degree in Management Studies from Goa University, she is now pursuing a PhD in Management Studies from Goa University. She has total work experience of 14 years, of which ten years are in teaching and four years in the industry. She has contributed a couple of research papers in national and peer-reviewed journals. surabhogore@rediffmail.com

### **Acknowledgement**

I would like to thank Dr Purva Hegde Desai, Department of Management Studies, Goa University for guiding me during my MPhil dissertation. I would also like to extend my gratitude to all the stakeholders of tourism in Goa who shared useful and valuable information with me during my fieldwork. The feedback given by the reviewers and editor in chief of this journal has greatly helped me in writing this article. I extend my deepest gratitude to them.

## Key Words

GDP, employment, seasonality, community, GPCP

# *Rural Tourist Products: An Alternative for Promotion of Tourism In North East India*

**BHASKAR KUMAR KAKATI**

Centre Manager,  
Dr. APJ Abdul Kalam Centre for Policy Research and Analysis,  
Indian Institute of Management  
Mayurbhanj Complex, Nongthymmai, Shillong-793014

## Abstract

North East India has potentiality to become one of the major destinations of tourism industry in India due to its geographical location, ecology and diverse culture. It is homeland of large number of ethnic groups. However, in spite of its geographical, ecological and cultural advantage, influx of both domestic and international tourist to North East India is not high and entire eight states of North East India placed in bottom among entire states and union territories of India in context to both domestic and international tourists' influx. Objective of this paper is to understand the trends of tourism in North East India and highlight some of the major challenges to this industry. Based on analysis of different challenges and tourism possibilities in North East India, this paper also proposes a model for promotion of different products of rural tourism of NER in city-based centre through "Government Private Community Partnership" (GPCP).

## INTRODUCTION

**N**orth East India is the eastern most region of India consists of eight states namely Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Sikkim and Tripura. This region comprises an area of 262,230 square km and shares more than 4500 km of international border with Tibet, Myanmar, Bangladesh and Bhutan. This region is characterised by its hilly and difficult terrain, sizable share of tribal population, strategic location along borders with neighbouring countries and weather conditions and extreme events (Sharma, Joshi, Joshi, Rawal, & Dhyani, 2015). Accordingly, 60 per cent of total areas of NER are under hill, 12 per cent under plateaux and only 28 per cent total areas are under plain. Further the river system of NER enriches the scenic beauty of this region (Bhattacharya, 2008).

"North-east India is treasure trove of myths and mysteries along with some of the best gifts of 'Mother Nature'"(Mazumdar, 2009, p. 1). Interestingly, each state of the North Eastern India is being also referred by its unique name that refers the uniqueness of these states. Arunachal Pradesh which is also known as 'Land of Rising Sun' is famous for its ethnic and linguistic heterogeneity. On the other hand, Assam-the gateway to North-East India is the homeland of two UNESCO recognised heritage sites i.e. *Kaziranga* National Park and *Manas* Wildlife Sanctuary. The 'Sagol Kangjei' (Polo) is said to be originated in Manipur (NCERT, 2017) is refers as 'Land of Jewel' by Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru (Joshi, 2002). Meghalaya which is literally means 'abode of clouds' also termed as 'Scotland of East' by the Britishers (Mazumdar, 2009). Mizoram "credited with having emerged as a peaceful and stable polity and has shown a high degree of social and economic development in recent years" (NCERT, 2017, p. vii) is the home land of homogenous tribal population. Nagaland is the homeland of Naga tribe is also known as 'Switzerland of East'. Another

state of North East Region (NER) which is significant for cultural linkage with Bengal and tribal regions of Mizoram and Assam in Tripura. It is the homeland of Tripuri tribes. Sikkim is the newly added state to the NER<sup>i</sup> is the homeland of *Khangchendzonga* National Park- one of the UNESCO recognised heritage site. Therefore, this region of India has a huge potential for tourism development.

Although the NER is the region of diverse cultural as well as natural heritage and homeland of various tourist products but contribution of tourism sector to State Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and employment is below national average<sup>ii</sup>. Therefore, considering the different products of tourism in NER, as well challenges to rural tourism of NER, in this paper an attempt has been made to analyse the potential of different rural tourist products of NER as well as this paper also proposes a model to promote these rural tourist products of NER in a city based rural setting.

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

Rural tourism is not a new form of tourism rather the history of rural tourism can be traced back to the romanticism movement of late eighteenth century (Ayazlar & Ayazlar, 2015). Although the concept of rural tourism based on holiday concept (Lane, 2009) but “Rural Tourism' has gained immense importance since last two decades and has created a niche impact on tourists' mind as a special-interest form” (Singh, Gantait, Puri, & Swamy, 2016, p. 1) . By definition rural tourism is an activity that takes place in the country side (Reichel, Lowengart, & Milman, 2001). Further rural tourism can be defined as an activity in a local space based on its natural resources and cultural heritage (Sanagustin-Fons, Lafita-Cortés, & Moseñe, 2018). Therefore, Rural Tourism is characterised by “development in small territories with their own identity that have an extensive

offer of diffuse, non-concentrated and small-scale accommodation and leisure activities” (ibid., 5).

The term Rural Tourism sometime synonymously defined as community-based tourism, ecotourism, farm tourism, agritourism, homestay, food and wine tourism (Ayazlar and Ayazlar 2015; Kala and Bagri 2018)because of its complex definition and multifaceted activities(Lane, 2009). This complexity occurs due to different perspectives of different nationalities towards the concept of rural tourism (Ayazlar & Ayazlar, 2015).

Like other forms of tourism, the rural tourism also has both negative and positive impact. Basically, Rural Tourism has three main benefits such as (a) rural tourism has potentially to impact on economic growth, employment generation, out-migration, public service development, infrastructure development and environmental protection (b) entrepreneurship and enterprise development (c) access to remote and non-urban areas (Okech, Haghiri, & George, 2012) . Thus, in Indian context, rural tourism can assist in alleviating poverty through employment generation and basic infrastructure development. Further, rural tourism has potentiality to promote social integration (Singh, Gantait, Puri, & Swamy, 2016). Similar result has been shown by other studies too. A study conducted by Sanagustin-Fons, Lafita-Cortés and Moseñe (2018)in Cinco Villas region has shown that that rural tourism has contributed to economic development of the region. Further they also found that participation of people is necessary for development of rural tourism (ibid). On the other hand, rural tourism is not above of its challenges. Some of the major challenges of rural tourism are lack of market awareness and active participation, legislation, lack of marketing policies and proper planning (ACNielsen ORG-MARG Pvt. Ltd 2012 ; Kala & Bagri 2018; Sanagustin-Fons,



Lafita-Cortés, & Moseñe, 2018).

There are many factors of which are responsible for success of rural tourism are accessibility (ACNielsen ORG-MARG Pvt. Ltd, 2012), infrastructure, fund flow, diverse tourist product (Irrshad, 2010) but above all community participation is most important factors (ibid). In fact, community participation in planning process of decision-making in tourism development is the most essential component of rural tourism development. (Muganda, Sirima & Ezra 2013; Okazaki 2008; Sebele 2010; Simmons 1994). Participation of community in development of rural tourism is essential because community participation ensures ownership which in turn makes the rural tourism sustainable (Moyo & Tichaawa, 2017). Further community participation ensure accountability among the local (Croke, Grossman, Larreguy, & Marshall, 2014), equal distribution of profit among the participants (Rogoff, 2010), empowerment of local, sharing of common goal (Muganda, Sirima, & Ezra, 2013), contribution to national development (Sebele, 2010). Moreover, participation of local communities in tourism development is more important because they are the focal point of tourism development because of the services that they provided at destination such as accommodation, information, catering, transport and other services (Aref, Redzuan, Gill, & Aref, 2010).

There are three types of participation in context to rural tourism as suggested by CevatTosun (2006) such as spontaneous participation that take place when community has full control and authority over the product, induce participation that refers to when community has no voice over the decision taken and coercive participation that refers to when community is not fully involved in decision making rather considering some of their feedback

towards tourism development (ibid). Although Cevat Tosun (2016) has suggested three types of participation in tourism development, Anucha Leksakundilok (2004) has suggested seven types of participation such as manipulation, informing, consultation, interaction, partnership, empowerment, and self-mobilization (ibid).

As discuss above, community participation is essential for rural tourism development. However, there are different barriers which act as a hindering factor of participation of community in decision making process. In fact; "barriers to community participation affect not only residents' engagement but discourage them to involve in tourism-related decision-making even in the future" (Kala & Bagri, 2018, p. 330) . While studying the community participation in the development of tourism in mountainous state of Uttarakhand, Devkant Kala and S.C. Bagri (2018) has discussed about four different kinds of barriers to community participation in tourism development such as physical barriers which includes behaviour of community, lack of knowledge and lack of education. The second type of barrier of community participation is socio-cultural barriers which includes economic status of the community, role of women etc. Attributes like seasonality, lack of expertise, perception of negative impacts are considered as apprehensive barriers and fourth type of barrier according to them is institutional barriers which includes power disparities (ibid).

North Eastern India has a long history of tourism. However, "despite having a comparative long history of tourism most of the tourism authorities in Northeast India have not yet gained much experience in planning, developing and managing tourism sector" (Bhattacharya, 2008, p. 160). The most important hinderance to development of tourism in NER is lack of community

participation in decision making (ibid). So, there is a need to involve community in tourism development as suggested by earlier studies (Sangakorn & Suwannarat 2013; Simmons 1994).

Although most of the studies (Bhattacharya 2008; Choudhury, Dutta & Patgiri 2018; Rizal & Asokan 2013) has discussed about the trend, opportunity, strength, weakness of tourism of North East India in context to rural tourism but fails to discuss the alternative for development of tourism in this region. An attempt has been made in this paper to fill up the gaps of earlier studies.

#### **METHODOLOGY: CONCERN AND CONSIDERATION**

In the introduction of the paper it has been mentioned that contribution of tourism sector to State Gross Domestic Product and employment is below national average. Therefore, it is important to understand the different challenges to tourism industry of NER. Accordingly, this paper tries to understand the major trends and challenges to tourism industry of NER. Further, based on analysis of different challenges and possibilities of tourism in NER, this paper proposed a model for promoting rural tourist products of NER. Thus, objectives of this study are as follows

- To understand the trends of tourism in North East India.
- To find out the challenges to tourism in North East India.
- To analysis the possibility of rural tourism in North East India.
- To develop a model for promoting different products of rural tourism of North East India.

This paper is based on secondary source of data collected from different studies conducted by different organisations. Based on secondary source, this paper tries to analysis the trends and challenges of tourism industry of NER. Accordingly, an extensive literature review was undertaken

as part of larger study whose primary objective is to identify the potentiality and challenges of rural tourism of NER and based on this to propose a model for promotion of rural tourist products of NER. The model namely Government Private and Community Partnership (GPCP) model as proposed by this paper for the promotion of different products of rural tourism of NER is based on both secondary literature and personal experiences of author being travel to different states of NER. Moreover, this paper also employed different training manual as developed by Ministry of Tourism, Government of India as well as other departments working for promotion of tourism in India.

This paper is organized into eight sections. First two sections deal with introduction to this study and assessment of earlier literature to understand the concept of rural tourism, community participation and find out the gap to formulate the objectives of this study. Research methodology adopted for fulfil the objectives of this study is being discussed in third section of this paper. In fourth section, this paper tries to analyses the possibility of rural tourism in NER whereas in fifth section focus is being laid to understand the trends of tourism in NER. Based on analyzing the major trends of tourism in NER, this paper tries to discuss the major challenges to tourism industry of NER in particular and rural tourism in specific in sixth section of this paper. The city-based model for promoting different products of rural tourism of NER has been discussed in seventh section. Moreover, in this section, this paper also discusses the GCPP model to highlight the importance of community participation in promotion of different products of rural tourism and in last or eighth section, this paper making its concluding remarks.

#### **WHY RURAL TOURISM IN NER?**

North Eastern Region of India has long history of tourism development with

declaration of Kaziranga as game reserve in 1916 and wildlife sanctuary in 1950 (Bhattacharya, 2008). This region of India may have great cultural, geographical diversity and may have long tradition of tourism development but trend of tourism in North Eastern Region (NER) shows that NER of India failed to take its advantage in the tourism front in spite of rich cultural heritage and ethnic diversity. The ancient history of entire states of NER remains shrouded in the mist of legends and mythology. Moreover, the written documents basically *Buranjis* of *Ahom* dynasty and writings of different travellers as well as archaeological remains throw light on history of NER. References of different places of NER are found in two Indian epics such as the Ramayana and the Mahabharata. Further other sacred literatures such as Purana, Upanishads etc., have also references of this region. For example, The Mahabharata has referred to the story of *Arjuna's* visit to Manipur and his marriage with princess *Chittangada*. Further the same epic also described the story of war between Lord Krishna and Lord Shiva at Sonitpur of Assam. Further, Kalika Purana refers about story of *Narakashura*- the grandson of Lord Vishnu. Roing in situated Lower Dibang valley in Arunachal Pradesh is mythologically identified with the birthplace of *Rukmini*-the wife of Lord *Krishna*.

Although NER has been mentioned in Indian methodology and different written documents as well as archaeological remains and is the homeland of three different UNSECO recognised heritage sites, yet these are not enough to become the tourist hotspot. Other parts of India also share similar kind of features. Then what makes the NER different from other parts of India in context to tourism in particular and rural tourism in specific? Most important feature of NER which distinguishes NER from other parts of India

in context to rural tourism is its diverse ethnic demographic composition.

NER is the homeland of more than 220 ethnic groups with equal numbers of dialects which makes this region hugely diverse region from other parts of India. It is only part of India where around 27.78 per cent Scheduled Tribe (ST) lives to total population of the region whereas total ST population of India to total population of India, according to Census 2011 is only 8.63 per cent (Registrar General of India). Moreover, NER is primarily rural in nature. Majority of population of NER lives in 42,996 numbers of villages. Except Mizoram, more than 70 per cent people in NER lives in rural area. Percentages of people live in rural areas of NER to total population of NER are 81.64 whereas percentages of population live in rural area of India to total population are 68.86 only. In compare to huge number of villages, NER has only 414 towns. Interestingly only two states of NER have more than 50 towns i.e. Assam has 214 and Manipur has 51 towns. Thus, more than 50 per cent total town areas of NER are situated in Assam. Therefore, the rural nature and homeland of number of ethnic communities in NER make the region most potential for promotion of different rural tourist products. Importantly, each ethnic community of NER has their own identical cultural elements including dress, food habit, dance, music, living style, language etc.

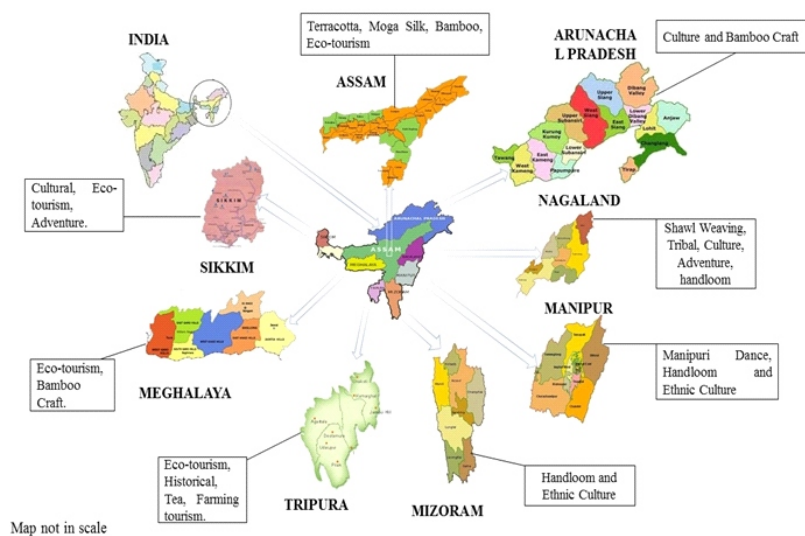
NER as discussed above, diverse demographic composition in NER has the potential to make this region as hotspot for rural tourist destination. Each village of NER has something unique, authentic. For example Kaho is the last village of Indo-China broader situated in Arunachal Pradesh. Junbeel Mela organised by Tiwa tribes of Central Assam is only the festival in NER that showcases the ancient barter system, held every year in January.

Khwairamband Bazar/ Ima Market which is a unique market operated by around 3,000 'Imas' or mother is a unique tradition of Manipur, which can be consider as one of the major examples of women empowerment. Mizoram has the traditional 'Nghahloudawr' shop which means shops without attendant. The shop owners leave the shops open or customers to pick up what they need from the shop according to requirement. The customer after picking up their requirement put the money in the container keeping aside along with rate list of different items. Mawlynnong another place of tourist attraction in Meghalaya is which is considered to be the cleanest village in Asia and because of participation of local community in developing this village as a rural tourist site it became the India's first certified Green Village (NCERT, 2017). Further the local people consider Dawki as cleanest river of Asia. Moreover, unlike other states of India, matrilineal system prevails in Meghalaya. Nagaland has set a number of 'Guinness Book of World Records' such as tallest Rhododendron tree in the world with 108 feet, the largest species of rhododendron is the scarlet Rhododendron arboreim, the tallest paddy plant in the world with eight and half feet(Guinness World Records from Nagaland) . Further, Nagaland is frequently referred as 'Land of Festivals' because of various festivals observed by inhabitants of Nagaland throughout the year is becoming attraction of both domestic and international tourist because of its 'Hornbill Festival'

which is also known as 'Festival of Festivals' held every year from 1-10 December, since 2000. Sikkim is distinguished by its Buddhist monasteries and Himalayan flora and fauna. Tripura-the land of diversity is another attractive destination for tourist in NER. Moreover, in Tripura, popular festival called Orange Festival held every year in November in Jampui which is the highest hill range situated in Tripura.

Rural areas of NER are not only unique for its tradition and natural heritage but also for its rich and varying handloom and handicraft. Handicraft and handloom are one of the major tourist products as they are “unique expressions representing a culture, tradition and heritage of a country” (National Centre for Design & Product Development, 2010, p. 1). This region of India is blessed with “exquisite handicraft and handicraft textiles has about 9 lakh artisans employed in the sector” (IIM Shillong, n.d, p. 32). Every 14<sup>th</sup> person in the NER is dependent on handloom and handicraft products for livelihoods (CII, 2002). Interestingly, knowledge of weaving is one of the major criteria among different groups of NER (Kakati, 2018). Some of the important handloom and handicraft products of NER are carpet, Muga Silk, terracotta, jute craft, embroidered and crocheted goods etc. All these unique products of handloom and handicraft of this region have the potentiality to make the region as one of the major destinations of rural tourism.

**Figure-1: Rural Tourist Products as identified by Ministry of Tourism, Govt. of India**



Along with these products, rural NER is the sources of historical, adventure, agricultural tourism. Accordingly, the Ministry of Tourism, Government of India has identified 47 rural sites<sup>iii</sup> for promotion of rural tourism in NER out of total 172 rural projects of India. These projects have been identified on different identical themes such as tribal culture, handicraft, historical, adventure, terracotta crafts, eco-tourism etc. In above, this paper has discussed the different products of rural tourism in NER. But the question is- Can these products enough to make rural tourism sustainable in NER? Evaluation study on different rural tourism projects in India (ACNielsen ORG-

MARG Pvt. Ltd, 2012) undertaken by Ministry of Tourism, Government of India shows that compare to other parts of India success rate of rural tourism is high in NER. Out of total 107 rural projects taken for study only 41 projects were found to be successful in India, thus success rate is 38.32 per cent. On the other hand, success rate in such rural projects in NER is 50 per cent. If we include average project with successful projects then the success rate will become higher in NER i.e. 80 per cent for NER whereas it is 69.16 for India (See table-1). Finding of this study report is enough to justify the rationale of promotion of rural tourism in NER.

**Table: -1: State wise performance of the rural tourism projects**

State	No. of Projects covered	Successful Projects	Average Projects	Unsuccessful Project
Arunachal Pradesh	3	3	0	0
Assam	4	0	3	1
Meghalaya	2	0	1	1
Manipur	3	1	0	2
Nagaland	5	3	2	0
Sikkim	1	1	0	0
Tripura	2	2	0	0
NER	20	10	6	4
India	107	41	33	33

Source: -Impact & Evaluation Study of Rural Tourism Projects

The same report shows that most of the rural tourist projects got success in NER because of proper implementation of both hardware<sup>iv</sup> and software components<sup>v</sup> of the projects in compare to other parts of India. Accordingly, tourist influx to these areas considerably higher than other unsuccessful projects (ibid). Thus, fulfilment of needs of tourist is one of the most important factors of success of any rural tourist project.

### TRENDS OF TOURISM IN NORTH EAST INDIA

Regional Tourism Satellite Account, 2009-10 prepared<sup>vi</sup> by National Council of Applied Economic Research, is the major source of data for analysing the trends of tourism in NER. Objective of analysing of trends of tourism is to understand the major

challenges to tourism of NER. Accordingly, an attempt is being made to analyse the contribution of tourism to state's GDP, employment generation, number of tourists visit to NER and major contributing states to domestic tourism to this region.

Finding of the Regional Tourism Satellite Account 2009-10 reveals that the tourism scenario in North East region is totally different. The share of tourism in the state's GDP is different in different states. Though there was annual growth of tourist arrival to North East India, still the direct share of tourism to State's GDP is less than that of average share of tourism to GDP of India (see table-2). Among the states of North East India, in Nagaland, tourism contributes highest to state's GDP and lowest in Arunachal Pradesh.

**Table: -2: Contribution of Tourism to State GDP and Employment during 2009-10**

State	Share of Tourism to State GDP (in %)	Direct share of tourism employment in total state employment (in %)
Arunachal Pradesh	1.95	2.56
Assam	2.73	2.87
Manipur	2.18	3.33
Meghalaya	2.14	4.43
Mizoram	2.88	2.59
Nagaland	3.68	3.79
Sikkim	2.83	6.03
Tripura	3.04	4.83
India	3.8	4.37

Source: \*Regional Tourism Satellite Account, Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Sikkim, Tripura, 2009-10

Similarly, the direct share of tourism in North East India to employment is less in compare to total share of India to total employment except Meghalaya, Sikkim and Tripura. On the other hand, in Sikkim, direct share of tourism to employment of state is highest among the entire states of NER but contribution of this sector to total GDP of state is below national average. This is same for state like Meghalaya. Thus, there is a need of policy intervention for growth of this industry in North East India which has huge potential in

accelerating economic growth of the region through contribution to State GDP and employment.

Although in terms of contribution of tourism to state GDP and employment is less than that of national average but encouraging achievement is that there is positive annual growth rate of foreign tourist to North Eastern India during 2013 in entire states of NER (see table-3). Annual growth of foreign tourist was highest in Arunachal Pradesh with 111 per cent and lowest in Tripura with 1.87 per

cent. However, in case of arrival of domestic tourist, Arunachal Pradesh and Manipur experienced negative annual growth. The annual growth was highest in Nagaland with 63.9 per cent followed by Meghalaya with 17.9 per cent. The Regional Tourism Satellite Account 2009-

10 revealed that total number of tourists in Assam is much higher than the other states of North East India. It is because of the infrastructure facilities that available in Assam in compare to other states of North East India. Moreover, it is well connected with railways and airport.

**Table: -3: Number of tourists visited North East India during 2009-10**

State	Domestic Tourist		Foreign Tourist	
	Number	Annual Growth rate (%)	Number	Annual Growth rate (%)
Arunachal Pradesh	1250000	-5	10,846	111
Assam	4680000	4	17,638	5
Nagaland	58,413	63.9	3,679	11.3
Mizoram	68,203	7.6	836	4.5
Manipur	120000	-17.9	2,769	45.1
Sikkim	580000	9.1	31,698	2.11
Tripura	360000	2.9	11,853	1.87
Meghalaya	75000	17.9	8,400	45.1

**Source: Regional Tourism Satellite Account, Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Sikkim, Tripura, 2009-10**

Analysis of Regional Tourism Satellite Account 2009-10 reveals another interesting fact about trends of domestic tourism to North East India. As per the account, more than 70 per cent tourist arrival to different states of North East India was from only 16 states of India (See table- 4). Importantly, out of these 16 states, 6 were from North East India itself. This shows that North East India is still not explored by a number of other states of India. Therefore, domestic tourists from less than 50 per cent states and union territories of India have explored the NER. Majority of domestic tourists' outsiders the NER, who visited NER are

from Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Delhi, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal. Interestingly, state like Manipur was least visited by domestic tourist from others parts of India. This state was mostly visited by tourist from Assam, Nagaland and Meghalaya which constituted 94 per cent of total tourist visit to this state in 2013. The major reason for not visiting Manipur by domestic tourists of outside states of NER may be the political disturbances that developed because of insurgency in the state.

**Table: -4: Per cent distribution of trips to North Eastern States by states of origin during 2009-10**

Name of the Destination	Origin of trips	1st	2nd	3rd	4th
Arunachal Pradesh	Name of State	Karnataka	Uttar Pradesh	Chhattisgarh	Others
	Percentage	31.9	25.3	8.3	34.5
Assam	Name of State	Arunachal Pradesh	West Bengal	Bihar	Others
	Percentage	26.3	17	14.4	42.3
Manipur	Name of State	Assam	Nagaland	Meghalaya	Others
	Percentage	76.7	9.5	7.8	6

Mizoram	Name of State	Kerala	Maharashtra	West Bengal	Others
	Percentage	61.1	11	7.6	20.3
Meghalaya	Name of State	Assam	Tripura	West Bengal	Others
	Percentage	80.7	7.5	5.4	6.4
Nagaland	Name of State	Assam	Manipur	West Bengal	Others
	Percentage	88.3	7.7	1.2	2.8
Sikkim	Name of State	West Bengal	Tamil Nadu	Rajasthan	Others
	Percentage	47.7	13.6	13.5	25.2
Tripura	Name of State	Delhi	Assam	Maharashtra	Others
	Percentage	62.5	18.7	9.2	9.6

**Source: Regional Tourism Satellite Account, Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Sikkim, Tripura, 2009-10**

Trips by purpose are another important criterion for analysing the trends of tourism of any area. Although social visit is an important part of trips but it does not have more impact on promotion of tourist

products. In case of NER, majority of tourist visited the NER for social purpose i.e. to meet friends and relatives (See table-5). Thus, contribution of tourism to state GDP and employment generation is less in NER.

**Table -5: Trips by Purpose (in %) during 2009-10**

Purpose	Arunachal Pradesh	Assam	Mizoram	Manipur	Sikkim	Tripura	Meghalaya	Nagaland	Total
Business	4.4	15	5.8	35.9	4.3	2.3	6	30.4	13.01
Holiday/leisure	5.3	6.5	68.7	0	51	9.1	26.1	1.2	21.16
Social	56.1	47	22.6	54.4	19	71	55.5	10	42.03
Religious	34.2	5.1	0.6	1.4	16	0	0.1	2.1	7.26
Medical	0	8.3	0.9	8.3	0	1	6	54.1	9.83
Others	0	18	1.4	0	9.7	16	6.3	2.2	6.71
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

**Source: Regional Tourism Satellite Account, Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Sikkim, Tripura, 2009-10.**

Therefore, analysis of trends of tourism in NER shows

- Development in tourism industry in NER is uneven among the states of NER.
- Most of the tourists visited to different states of NER are from NER
- NER is not being explored by a number of states and union territories from outside the NER.
- Except social purpose NER is not yet widely explored for other purposes.

### **TOURISM IN NORTH EASTERN STATES: MAJOR CHALLENGES**

“Unlike many other industries, tourism does not lend itself to easy evaluation in economic terms since it is divided into many different activities, including travel, hotel accommodation, catering, car hire and tourist guiding”(Anderson W. , 2011, p. 29). Moreover, this sector also requires other services such as transportation, infrastructure, communication facilities etc., (ibid). Analysis of trends of tourism in



NER reveal that tourism industry of NER suffers a lot that lead to less contribution of this sector to state GDP and employment generation. Moreover, there is uneven growth of tourism in NER across the states. Ministry of Tourism, Government of India and different states of NER along with North Eastern Council (NEC)<sup>viii</sup> has focused on development of tourism in NER but fail to meet the aspiration of tourists due to many reasons. Primary reason of failing such aspiration is flow of fund for development of this industry. Still many states of North East India depend upon for central fund for promotion of tourism in these States.

Irregular fund flow is one of the major reasons for failure of most of the rural tourism projects undertaken by Ministry of Tourism in India (ACNielsen ORG-MARG Pvt. Ltd, 2012). During 2011-12 to 2015-16, the Ministry of Tourism, Government of India has sanctioned Rs. 1193 crore for development of rural tourism in NER (Ministry of Tourism, 2014; 2016). Although, the average sanction amounts of per rural tourism project in NER is more than average sanction amount of per rural tourism project in India i.e. Rs 17 crore for NER and Rs 16.1 crore for India, but there was contradiction between amount sanctioned and amount released and between amount released and amount utilised. During 2011-12 to 2013-14, the Ministry has released only 66.08 per cent fund of total sanction fund to develop rural tourism projects in NER whereas the average released fund for India was 72.15. Therefore, its shows that, although the Ministry has allocated higher amount for development of rural tourism project in NER, but has released less amount in compare to other parts. However, in here, it should be remembered that released of fund does not work in isolation rather depends on different factors. One such factor may be the pattern of utilisation. Performance of

utilisation of fund for promotion of rural tourist project in NER is not satisfactory as compare to other parts of India. During this period, NER has utilised only 56.21 per cent fund of total released fund whereas this percentage was 66.85 per cent for whole India (Ministry of Tourism, 2014). What does this contradiction between amounts sanctioned and released and between amounts released and utilised shows? It shows the lack of coordination between Union government and State governments in implementing different rural tourism projects.

Interestingly NER is the region which provides a large number of employees to travel, tourism and hospitality sector (NSDC, n.d.) but it is region which suffers from absence of adequate number of trained tourist guides(NEC). Lack of skilled trained professional is one of the major challenges to growth of rural tourism in NER. Out of total 952 registered tour operators operating in India till 2012, NER has only 22 registered tour operators (NSDC, n.d.). Further, these tour operators have been shared by only three states of NER i.e. Assam has 10, Sikkim has 11 and Manipur has one tour operators. Thus, rest five states of NER have not any tour operators. Lack of skilled professional in NER is not the outcome of illiteracy rather it is the outcome of lack of motivation, awareness and educational institutions focusing on tourism industry. The Ministry of Tourism has promoted 22 Central Institutes of Hotel Management (CIHM), 33 State institutes of Hotel Management (SIHM) and 21 Food Craft Institutes (FCI) in India. Out of this NER shares only two CIHM, seven SIHM and three FCI (Ministry of Skill and Entrepreneurship, 2014). Further out of total 685 Skill training Centres promoted by Tourism Hospitality and Skill Council, NER shares only 52 such Centres in 2018-19 (Tourism Hospitality and Skill Council). Interestingly, out of 52 such Centres,

Assam shares more than 50 per cent centres. States like Arunachal Pradesh and Meghalaya has not any centres till date.

Tourism industry of NER also suffers from other policy level issues. Inner Line Permit (ILP)<sup>viii</sup> which is being imposed because this region lies in international boarder. ILP is applicable to domestic tourist to visit Arunachal Pradesh, Nagaland and Mizoram. Similarly, Restricted Area Permit (RAP)<sup>ix</sup>, Protected Area Permit (PAP)<sup>x</sup> is applicable for foreign nationals. Moreover, there is not much spatial database on Geographic Information System (GIS) platform available for the tourist spots of these regions. Proper using Global Positioning System (GPS) would assist the tourist to identify directions from the source to destination of each tourist spots. Moreover, tourism in NER also suffers from different logistic challenges such as lack of infrastructure (NEC), lack of basic facilities at tourist destinations (ACNielsen ORG-MARG Pvt. Ltd 2012; NEC n.d.) etc. Transportation which is considered to be one of the major attributes of tourism sector because it 'provide the link between generating and destination regions and the ability for tourists to move around the latter' (Jennifer Reilly et al. 2010 as cited by Rizal and Asokan 2013, p. 237) is another major challenge to the tourism

industry of NER. "In tourism sector, transportation plays an important 'flow' function in the tourism value chain. It links tourists at their origin with appealing stocks of environmental and cultural assets at the destination" (ibid: 237). Although in India, railway is considered as most economical mode of transportation but due to difficult terrain and geographical condition, in NER, still road plays an important role in transportation. As far as hill districts of North East India are concerned, Transportation is dominated by the road transport. The other means of transportations are insignificant. Accordingly, most of the hill districts of NER have no railway route. The NER has total railway routes of 2452.07 Km, but in comparison to total railway routes of India it shares 3.83 per cent only (see Table-6). Interestingly share of Assam to total railway routes of North East India is 93.13 per cent. Still Sikkim and Meghalaya have no railway routes due to hilly terrain. Therefore, in NER road plays a major role in transportation. However, "the cost of maintenance of these roads is also much more than the national average due to the terrain, soil types, high rainfall, long duration of monsoon and shorter working season of maximum five months or so" (NEC, p. 17).

**Table: -6: Railway Routes length (in Km)**

Name of the State	Arunachal Pradesh	Assam	Manipur	Meghalaya	Mizoram	Nagaland	Sikkim	Tripura	NER	India
Railway Routes (in Km)	1.26	2283.7	1.4	0	1.5	13	0	151	2452	64014.9

**Source: Rajya Sabha Unstarred Question No. 1467, dated on 06.08.2010.**

Inflow of tourism is also seemed to be another challenge to tourism industry of NER. Seasonality may refer to tendency of tourist flow to become concentrated in a particular period of time which is relatively short period of year. Seasonality may be

classified in to natural and institutional (Rizal & Asokan , 2013). In case of NER, natural seasonality plays a vital role. Analysis of inflow of tourist to NER shows that influx of tourist in NER is high during November to May and found to be less in

during June to October (See table-7). Therefore, we may divide the year in to two parts based on inflow of tourist to NER. Thus, in a year nearly for about five months many lose employments due to less inflow of tourist to NER. It may be the one of the

major reasons for which local youths are not attracted to this industry in NER as tourism in NER provides seasonal employment rather than regular employment.

**Table: 7- Month wise tourist (both domestic and international) to NER during 2014-15 in per percentage**

Month	Arunachal Pradesh	Assam**	Manipur	Meghalaya	Mizoram	Nagaland	Sikkim	Tripura	NER
June	4.04	7.19	3.29	8.67	7.5	5.6	12.09	5.74	5.56
July	6.11	9.25	4.32	9.6	8.48	4.6	2.96	5.77	5.33
August	3.31	10.13	7.06	7.4	7.48	4.32	1.79	5.52	4.92
September	7.85	8.4	5.65	6.74	8.27	4.41	3.76	8.77	5.99
October	11.53	10.95	5.11	7.81	8.86	2.94	11.32	13.38	7.47
November	8.86	7.56	30.54	6.46	8.9	3.32	7.93	10.76	13.05
December	6.24	9.9	6.2	7.24	7.9	23.96	8.88	12.97	10.95
January	10.67	9.44	7.37	7.04	7.77	8.24	7.78	10.62	8.55
February	9.61	11.07	7.58	6.29	7.06	9.73	6.4	7.51	8.35
March	10.44	2.06	7.57	7.53	9.87	10.66	5.05	6.82	8.78
April	10.57	4.51	7.57	16.93	9.09	10.76	13.02	5.9	10.51
May	10.78	9.55	7.73	8.3	8.8	11.46	19.01	6.25	10.52

Source: - Annual Final Report of Tourism Survey

\*\* Data of Assam is for 2005-2006

### **CITY BASED RURAL TOURISM: AN ALTERNATIVE**

The 'Evaluation cum Impact Study of Rural Tourism Projects' conducted by ACNielsen ORG-MARG Pvt. Ltd (2012), shows that there mainly three reasons associates with success or failure of rural tourism projects in India such as 'location, vicinity to famous tourist spots and diligent implementation and maintenance of hardware and software components' (ibid, 10) . Further the same study suggested that major reasons of failure of most of the rural projects are lack of information dessimination, difficult geographical location,unstable political situation, improper management etc., (ibid). Thus mere physical and financial assistant to a

rural project is not enough to encourage influx of tourist to rural areas. There must be a tourist friendly policy to cater the demand of incoming tourist.

As discussed above, due to different logistical challenges, influx of tourist to NER is not high. In context to tourist influx to NER, the entire states of NER placed at bottom of rank table of domestic and foregin tourist visist to different states of India during 2017. Assam is reported to be the top most destination for domestic tourist among the NER with having 22 rank among all the states and union territories of India while Tripura is being reported for most foreigners visist among NER states with 23<sup>rd</sup>rank among all the states and union territories of India(Market Research

Division, 2018). Thus, there is a need for promote the diverse rural products of NER differently and thus meet the demand of incoming tourist. Therefore, this paper proposes a model for promoting different products of rural tourism of NER attentively in different urban areas of NER. This proposed 'City Based Rural Tourism Project' is based on different earlier studies such as 'Heritage Tourism Handbook' developed by Bruce Green (2010)<sup>xi</sup>, model to mitigate the challenges of seasonality as proposed by Anaadacharan Bhagabati and Prasanta Bhattacharya (2005)<sup>xii</sup>, study report of ACNielsen ORG-MARG Pvt. Ltd (2012)<sup>xiii</sup>, stages in cultural rural tourism development by United States National Heritage Tourism (MacDonald & Jolliffe, 2003) and author's personal experiences being travel to different parts of NER.

The term 'City Based Rural Tourism' itself indicates the promotion of rural set-up in city Centre for promotion of rural products in NER. This city base rural tourism as proposed by this paper will be an urban industry need to develop to promote rural ethnic culture in city center. Accordingly, a city base rural set-up may promote to showcase different cultural diversity of State either in State capital or in different district towns. This city base rural set-up will have all the attributes of rural life. This will be community based and more importantly, entire inhabitants will be the employee of this industry. They may be appointed from diverse background and skill sets. For example, artisans may be employed to promote different handicrafts, weaver for handloom, performing artist for dance, drama and music etc. Moreover, there will be provision for homestay for the tourist in these city-based village centres. In case of NER, homestay can be one of the major tools for promoting rural tourist products as "homestays are not merely tourist accommodation but they reflect the culture of the place they are located in and

have implications on the society and economy"(Sood, 2016, p. 71).

Success of this model of city base rural tourism will primarily depend upon the good will of Government. There is a need of considering tourism as a profit-making self-sustaining industry. Role of the Government will be more crucial promotion of such industry as allocation of land needs to sort out by the Government sector. As it will be executed in city centre, it is expected that a minimum level of basic facilities will be available for the tourist. Moreover, tourists are expected to experience rural set-up as well as ethnic culture in these city centres. On the other hand, this model will be also fruitful to mitigate the problem of seasonality. As in the city base centre, tourist may experience the different cultural attributes of rural community throughout the year, so it is expected that there will be regular influx of tourist throughout the year if political and social situation remain peaceful. This on the other hand, this will automatically provide regular employment to those who will be involved in this industry. As a result, contribution of tourism sector to state GDP will expected to increase. Further, sharing of ethnic culture will also assist in peace building process across the broader.

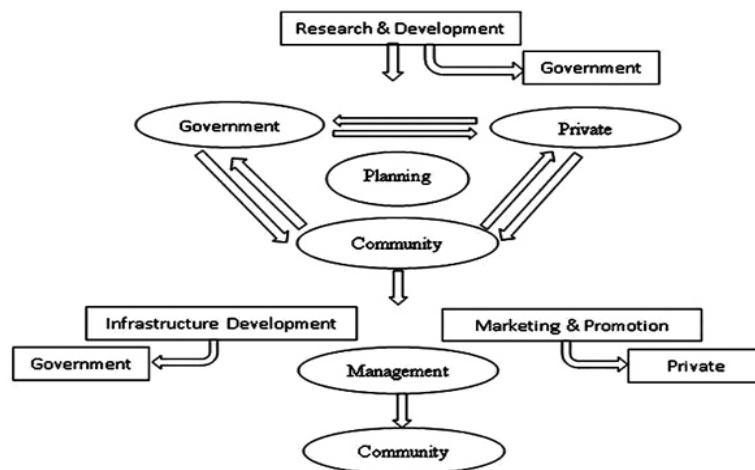
Main drawback of such kind of tourism industry is that it will only highlight the cultural aspects of rural life and keep aside the tourists from experiencing other attributes of rural tourism such as adventure tourism, agricultural tourism, eco-tourism, historical tourism, religious tourism etc. However, city based rural tourism may be one of the best alternatives to promote different cultural attributes of rural life such as dance, music, dress, food, folk art, oral narratives, handicraft, handloom, homestay etc., and within the boundary of such set-up tourists may experience different cultural attributes of different communities.

Management of this kind of tourism

industry is also vital for success of this kind of city based rural tourism. Therefore, this paper proposes 'Government, Private, Community Partnership' (GPCP) model of managing such projects. This model is similar to Public Private Partnership (PPP)<sup>xiv</sup> model but in GPCP, special focus is being laid on participation of community.

Therefore, the entire three parties i.e. Government, Private and Community have specific role to play in managing and implementing this model. This paper proposes five different steps to implement and manage this model such as - Research and Development, Planning, Infrastructure development, Marketing and Management.

**Figure-2: Government Private Community Partnership (GPCP) Model for tourism development**



This model considers research and development as first steps of execution of such tourism projects in city centre. Site selection is most important during implementation of such projects; in fact, success of such projects also depends on proper site selection. Further, understanding the consumers (tourist) behaviour is also important. This activity i.e. researches and development may carry out by the Government sector. Planning constitutes the second phase of this model which is more crucial and important as entire three players have major role in this phase. On the other hand, traditionally in India top-down approach is being used for development of tourism policy (Bhattacharya, 2008). So, participation of community in such projects seems to be negligible or nil. As success of rural tourism is depend upon participation of community, so in planning process, entire three parties must take part. Third

and fourth phase constitutes infrastructure development and promotion of the tourist spot. Infrastructure needs to be developed by the Government sector including both hardware and software components. Promotion of tourist spot needs to carry out by the private sector with focusing on branding of the spots and tourist destination. Finally, the tourist spot should be managed by the community. Community participation is vital for promotion of rural tourist products of NER in city-based centre. On the other hand, one may go on raising question on involvement of community in management of this city-based centre as in NER Government plays the vital role in managing tourism development. It has been discussed in above that as most of the states of NER primarily depend on financial support of the Central Government in promoting the tourism, so most of the tourist products of

NER are not sustainable. With withdrawal of support of Government, they fail in attracting the tourist. Therefore, there is a need of involving community in promoting these tourist products so that it can be self-sustain and can become income generating activity. In context of NER, GPCP model may be suitable for promoting rural tourist products as it not only involves the key player of tourism development in NER i.e. Government sector but also involve both Private sector as well as community in developing tourism in NER. Accordingly, this model will assist in outsourcing the management to community from Government sector. Outsourcings of management of tourism spot not only assist in generating income but also will assist in creating peace and harmony in the region. Further, community involvement will also assist in creating national integrity through direct exchange of cultural heritage between host and tourist. Moreover, involvement of Private sector in this model may lead to promotion business tourism in NER which can be consider as one of the most unexplored potential sector of tourism development in NER.

### **CONCLUSION**

Because of contribution of community-based tourism towards sustainable development, the community-based tourism is increasingly receiving attention as tourism initiatives. Moreover, this form of tourism industry directly contributes to poverty alleviation through employment generation. Further community-based tourism also assists in community development and conservation. Strength of community-based tourism lies in minimal leakages and backward linkages, increases in the local population social carrying capacity, community ownership, livelihood security, efficient conflict resolution and

improved conservation. Further this is the component of tourism management in which revenue from tourism reaching the communities is distributed by them, in accordance to their demand and plan (Spenceley, 2018). Although community-based tourism is important for sustainable but success of community-based tourism depends on many factors such as attractiveness of the tourism assets, type of operation, nature and degree of community involvement etc.,(EQUATIONS, 2008). On the other hand, community participation in tourism development is not new in other parts but in case of NER, participation of community in tourism development is found to negligible which in turn lead to low contribution of this sector to state GDP and employment. Moreover, involvement of all the stakeholders such as Government, Private and community in this model will assist in mitigating the major challenges of rural tourism such as “funding, demand, product development, collaboration, infrastructure, marketing, research and policy” (Joppe & Brooker, 2013, p. 36). Thus, it is expected that community participation in NER will assist in mitigating these challenges of tourism.

The North Eastern Region of India has huge possibility of tourism being its strategic location. Interestingly the entire states of NER have shared international border with at least one country. Although tourism in NER has a great potentiality but still contributes a less to state GDP and employment. Further it suffers lots of logistic problems. There is necessity for development of alternative model for promotion of different products of tourism of NER. In context to this, the city based rural tourism may be one of the best alternatives to promote different products of rural tourism of NER.

<sup>i</sup>Earlier NER has only seven states. Sikkim became the part of NER only in 2002.

<sup>ii</sup>Detail discussed in fifth section of the paper.

<sup>iii</sup>Total four sites have been identified in Arunachal Pradesh by Ministry of Tourism, Government of India. Ego-Nikte (West Siang), Ligu (Upper Subansiri), and Nampong villages (Changland) selected for ethnic culture tourism and village Rengo (East Siang) has been selected for cultural and bamboo handicraft tourism in Arunachal Pradesh. In Assam, the Ministry has selected Asharikandi (Dhubri) for terracotta craft, Saulkuchi (Kamrup) for Moga and Pat silk weaving, Durgapur (Golaghat) for bamboo craft and cuisine and Dehing Patkai (Tinsukia) for eco-tourism. Two villages such as Noney (Tamenglong) and Khongion (Thonbal) from Manipur selected for Manipuri dance while Andro (East Imphal) and Liyai (Senapati) has been selected for terracotta craft and ethnic culture from Manipur. From Mizoram only one village was selected i.e. Thenzwal (Serchhip) for handloom and ethnic culture. Sastgra (West Garo Hills) selected for bamboo craft, Mawlynnong (East Khasi Hills) for eco-tourism and Lalong (Jayantia Hills) for adventure tourism has been selected from Meghalaya. Most of the villages selected from NER for promotion of rural tourism are from Nagaland. Two villages such as Longsa, Mopunchukhet (Mokokchung) selected for shawl weaving, two villages such as Chandtongia (Mokokchung), Avachekha (Zunheboto) selected for cultural tourism, two villages such as Thetsumi (Phek), Kuki Dulong (Dimapur) selected for tribal culture from the state. Further Longiam (Zunheboto) selected for handloom and culture, Leshumi and Mitikhru from Phek selected for adventure tourism and art and craft respectively. Moreover, Chungli Yimti (Tuensang) has been selected for historical and tribal

culture from Nagaland. Most of the villages of Sikkim selected for cultural tourism such as Maniram Bhanjgyang, Rong from South Sikkim, Pendam Gadi Budang, Tunin, Pastenga Gaucharan from East Sikkim, Srijunga Martam from West Sikkim. Two villages have been selected for eco-tourism such as Chumbung and Darap from West Sikkim. Lachen from North district and Tingchim from West Sikkim and Jaubari from South Sikkim has been selected for rugs and carpet, trekking and adventure tourism respectively. In Tripura, the Ministry has identified ten different sites. Among these Harijula (South Tripura), Sarsima (Belonia), Bagbari (Sardar Sub-division), Jampui Hills village (Vanghmun), Malayanagar (West Tripura) has been selected for eco-tourism. Banabithi and Durgabari (West Tripura) selected for tea garden. Three other villages such as Kamalasagar, Devipur (West Tripura) and Kalapania (Sonamara) selected for historical, farming and religious tourism from Tripura.

<sup>iv</sup>This includes construction of permanent structures such as entrance gate, accommodation block, landscaping etc. For details, see ACNielsen ORG-MARG Pvt. Ltd. (2012). *Evaluation cum Impact Study of Rural Tourism Projects*. New Delhi: Ministry of Tourism, Government of India.

<sup>v</sup>This includes different one-time activity such as workshops, seminar, awareness campaign, cultural festival, training etc. For details see, ACNielsen ORG-MARG Pvt. Ltd. (2012). *Evaluation cum Impact Study of Rural Tourism Projects*. New Delhi: Ministry of Tourism, Government of India.

<sup>vi</sup>The Regional Tourism Satellite Account is based on different sources of data such as Domestic Tourism Survey of NSSO, 2008-09, International Passenger Survey of Indian Statistical Institute (ISI), Kolkata, 2010-11, Employment and Unemployment Survey of NSSO, 2009-10, Consumer Expenditure Survey of NSSO, 2009-10 and

State Accounts by State Department of Economics and Statistics, 2012.

<sup>vii</sup>NEC is the nodal agency for entire states of NER, constituted as a statutory advisory body promoted under NEC Act 1971. The council is looking after economic and social development of the eight states of North East India and functions under the Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India.

<sup>viii</sup>ILP is an official travel document necessary for citizen of India to visit certain protected area for a limited period. For details, see Neba, G. (2015). Applicability and Relevance of Inner Line Permit (ILP) in Arunachal Pradesh. *IOSR Journal Of Humanities And Social Science*, 20(7), 50-52.

<sup>ix</sup>Under the Foreigners (Restricted Areas) Order, 1963, the entire Union Territory of Andaman & Nicobar Island and Parts of Sikkim has been declared as Restricted Area. For details see, Ministry of Home Affairs. (1963). *Foreigners (Restricted Areas) Order*. New Delhi: Government of India.

<sup>x</sup>Protected Area Permit is applicable as per Foreigners (Protected Areas) order 1958, all areas falling between the Inner line and the International Boarder of State. This includes (i) Whole of Arunachal Pradesh (ii) Parts of Himachal Pradesh (iii) Parts of Jammu & Kashmir (iv) Whole of Manipur (v) whole of Nagaland (vi) Whole of Sikkim (viii) parts of Rajasthan (ix) parts of Uttarakhand. However, from 2011, PAP is not applicable for Nagaland, Manipur and Mizoram. On the other hand, foreigner must register themselves within 24 hours of entry to Mizoram, Manipur and Nagaland at the Foreigner Registration Office. For details see, Cook, S. (2018). *Permits for North East India and What You Need to Know*. Retrieved February 13, 2019, from <https://www.tripsavvy.com/permits-for-north-east-india-1539554>.

<sup>xi</sup>There are seven steps of developing Heritage tourism. These includes (a)

identification of the Assets and Resources which includes resources like historic and archaeological resources, cultural resources, natural resources and other resources (b) identification of Possible themes which refers to identification of resources according to certain theme ( c) preservation and protection of resources (d) making of tourism site alive through identification of audience, demonstration, presentation, talks etc. (e) collaboration with other partners (f) implementation (g) developing market . For further details see, Green, B. (2010). *Heritage Tourism Handbook: A How-to-Guide for Georgia*. Atlanta, Georgia: Tourism Division: Georgia Department of Economic Development.

<sup>xii</sup>For further details see, Bhagabati, A., & Bhattacharya, P. (2005). Potentiality of Tourism Development in Hill Districts of Assam. *Geographical Review of India*, 62(2), 158-60. They recommended that most of the activities of tourism product should be emphasised during intensive period of the tourism. During this phase focus should be laid on marketing of tourist product, make available of non-fixed roof accommodation as tourist influx is high, promotion of local knowledge. Then, during the preparatory or/and retreating phase focus should be on preparation for tourism marketing and evaluation. Off season can be utilised for preparation of tourist product. Proper campaigning of the region's wide variety of physical and cultural products (the hidden substances for developing tourism) can bring a dramatic change to the present socio-economic situation of the region.

<sup>xiii</sup>There are four stages of Cultural Rural Tourism development. First stage consists of developing of socio-economic plan based on rural resources. Second stage consists of community group plan and improvement of strategies. Development of community partnership consist the third stage. Fourth stage consists of development of centralized



and long-term planning and marketing of tourist products. For details see, MacDonald, R., & Jolliffe, L. (2003). Cultural rural tourism evidence from Canada. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(2), 307-322.

<sup>xiv</sup>Also known as PPP or 3P or P3, public private partnership is a cooperative arrangement between different sectors including public and private. Generally, this kind of agreement is made to for long

period and observed in development of infrastructure. Common objective of this model is to share risk and innovation. For details see, Wojewnik-Filipkowska, A., & Wegrzyn, J. (2019). *Understanding of Public Private Partnership Stakeholders as a Condition of Sustainable Development*. Retrieved on March 30, 2019, from Sustainability: <https://www.mdpi.com/2071-1050/11/4/1194>

## REFERENCES

- ACNielsen ORG-MARG Pvt. Ltd. (2012). *Evaluation cum Impact Study of Rural Tourism Projects*. New Delhi: Ministry of Tourism, Government of India.
- Anderson, W. (2011). Challenges of Tourism Development in the Developing Countries: the Case of Tanzania. *Journal of Tourism*, XII(2), 17-36.
- Aref, F., Redzuan, M., Gill, S. S., & Aref, A. (2010). Community Capacity Building in Tourism Development in Local Communities. *Journal of Sustainable Development*, 3(1), 81-90.
- Ayazlar, G., & Ayazlar, R. A. (2015). Rural Tourism: A Conceptual Approach. In C. Avcikurt(Eds), M. Dinu, N. Hacioglu, R. Efe, & A. Soykan, *Tourism, Environment and Sustainability* (pp. 168-184). Sofia: ST. Kliment Ohridski University Press.
- Bera, G. K. (2013). Temples, Fairs and Festivals of Tripura. *TUI. A Journal of Tribal Life and Culture*, 16(2), 107-115.
- Bhagabati, A., & Bhattacharya, P. (2005). Potentiality of Tourism Development in Hill Districts of Assam. *Geographical Review of India*, 62(2), 158-60.
- Bhattacharya, P. (2008). Tourism Development in Northeast India: Changing Recreational Demand, Developmental Challenges and Issues associated with Sustainability. *European Bulletin of Himalayan Research*, 32, 143-61.
- Choudhury, K., Dutta, P., & Patgiri, S. (2018). Rural Tourism of North East India: Prospects and Challenges. *IOSR Journal Of Humanities And Social Science*, 23(2), 69-74.
- CII. (2002). *CII initiative to improve the handloom and handicraft products of North East*. Guwahati: NEDFi.
- Cook, S. (2018). *Permits for North East India and What You Need to Know*. Retrieved on February 13, 2019, from <https://www.tripsavvy.com/permits-for-north-east-india-1539554>
- Development Commissioner (Handicraft). (n.d.). *About Us*. Retrieved on April 10, 2019, from <http://handicrafts.nic.in/Page.aspx?MID=BOII5FUynjpl5RZJJ8nW1g>
- EQUATIONS. (2008). Community-based Rural Tourism in Developing Countries: Insights and Lessons from the Endogenous Tourism Project in India. In E. Team(Ed), *Redefining Tourism : Experiences and Insights from Rural Tourism Projects in India* (pp. 2-15). New Delhi: Ministry of Tourism, Government of India / UNDP India.
- Green, B. (2010). *Heritage Tourism Handbook: A How-to-Guide for Georgia*. Atlanta, Georgia: Tourism Division: Georgia Department of Economic Development.
- Guinness World Records from Nagaland. (n.d.). *Guinness World Records from Nagaland*. Retrieved April 28, 2019, from Guinness World Records from Nagaland: <https://nagalandgk.com/guinness-world-records-from-nagaland/>
- Irrshad, H. (2010). *Rural Tourism-An Overview*. Government of Alberta: Rural Development Division.
- Joppe, M., & Brooker, E. (2013). Rural Tourism : An Internal Perspective on Challenges and Innovation. *Journal of Tourism*, XIV (1),

- 31-44.
- Joshi, S. (2002). *Manipur The Jewel of India*. Delhi: Akansha Publishing House.
- Kakati, B. K. (2018). *Tribal Women of North East India and Empowerment: Tiwa Women's Participation in Panchayati Raj Institutions*. New Delhi: Nation Press.
- Kala, D., & Bagri, S. C. (2018). Barriers to local community participation in tourism development: Evidence from mountainous state Uttarakhand, India. *Tourism*, 66(3), 318 - 333.
- Katoch, H. S. (2016). *The Battlefields of Imphal: The Second World War and North East India*. New Delhi: Routledge.
- Lane, B. (2009). Rural Tourism: An Overview. In T. Jamal(Eds), & M. Robinson, *The SAGE Handbook of Tourism Studies* (pp. 354-370). London: Sage Publication.
- Leksakundilok, A. (2004). *Community participation in ecotourism development in Thailand*. Sydney: An unpublished doctoral dissertation submitted to School of Geoscience, University of University of Sydney.
- MacDonald, R., & Jolliffe, L. (2003). Cultural rural tourism evidence from Canada. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(2), 307-322.
- Market Research Division. (2018). *India Tourism Statistics 2018*. New Delhi: Ministry of Tourism.
- Mazumdar, J. (2009). *North East India Tourism Guide*. Retrieved on February 08, 2019, from <https://www.prlog.org/10254387-north-east-india-tourism-guide.html>
- Menamparampil, T. (2013). *An Introduction to North East India: Culture and History, Part I*. Guwahati: Guwahati Peace centre.
- Ministry of Home Affairs. (1963). *Foreigners (Restricted Areas) Order*. New Delhi: Government of India.
- Ministry of Skill and Entrepreneurship. (2014). Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No-4845. New Delhi: Parliament of India. Retrieved on May 3, 2019, from [http://164.100.47.194 /Loksabha/Questions/Qttextsearch.aspx](http://164.100.47.194/Loksabha/Questions/Qttextsearch.aspx)
- Ministry of Tourism. (2014). Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No-84. Parliament of India. Retrieved on May 6, 2019, from <http://164.100.47.194/Loksabha/Questions/Qttextsearch.aspx>
- Ministry of Tourism. (2016). Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No-1332. New Delhi: Parliament of India. Retrieved on May 6, 2019, from <http://164.100.47.194/Loksabha/Questions/Qttextsearch.aspx>
- Ministry of Tourism. (n.d.). *Rural Tourism Sites and their USPs*. Retrieved on March 29, 2019, from <http://tourism.gov.in/sites/default/files/Rural%20Tourism%20Sites%20and%20their%20USPs.pdf>
- Moyo, S., & Tichaawa, T. M. (2017). Community involvement and participation in tourism development: a Zimbabwe Study. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 6(1), 1-15.
- Muganda, M., Sirima, A., & Ezra, P. M. (2013). The role of local communities in tourism development: Grassroots perspectives from Tanzania. *Journal of Human Ecology*, 41(1), 53-66.
- National Centre for Design & Product Development. (2010). *Feasibility study for the identification and promotion of commercially viable technologies for product development of the value addition of Bamboo & Cane based products from North East Region of India*. New Delhi: Development Commissioner (Handicrafts), Ministry of Textile.
- NCAER. (2014). *Regional Tourism Satellite Account Sikkim, 2009-10*. New Delhi: National Council of Applied Economic Research.
- NCAER. (2014). *Regional Tourism Satellite Account Tripura, 2009-10*. New Delhi: National Council of Applied Economic Research.
- NCAER. (2015). *Regional Tourism Satellite Account Arunachal Pradesh, 2009-10*. New Delhi: National Council of Applied Economic Research.
- NCAER. (2015). *Regional Tourism Satellite Account Assam, 2009-10*. New Delhi: National Council of Applied Economic Research.
- NCAER. (2016). *Regional Tourism Satellite Account Manipur, 200910*. New Delhi: National Council of Applied Economic Research.
- NCAER. (2016). *Regional Tourism Satellite Account Meghalaya, 200910*. New Delhi: National Council of Applied Economic Research.

- NCAER. (2016). *Regional Tourism Satellite Account Nagaland, 2009-10*. New Delhi: National Council of Applied Economic Research.
- NCAER. (2016). *Regional Tourism Satellite Account Mizoram, 2009-10*. New Delhi: National Council of Applied Economic Research.
- NCERT. (2017). *North East India : People, History and Culture*. New Delhi: Publication Division, NCERT.
- Neba, G. (2015). Applicability and Relevance of Inner Line Permit (ILP) in Arunachal Pradesh. *IOSR Journal Of Humanities And Social Science*, 20(7), 50-52.
- NEC. (n.d.). *Draft North Eastern Council Regional Plan (2017-18 to 2019-20)*. Retrieved on January 31, 2019, from [http://necouncil.gov.in/sites/default/files/about-us/Final%20Regional%20Plan%20NEC%2025\\_04\\_2017.pdf](http://necouncil.gov.in/sites/default/files/about-us/Final%20Regional%20Plan%20NEC%2025_04_2017.pdf)
- NSDC. (n.d.). *Human Resources and Skill Requirements in the Travel, Tourism and Hospitality Sector : 2013-17, 2017-22*. New Delhi: Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship.
- Okazaki, E. (2008). A community-based tourism model: Its conception and use. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(5), 511-529.
- Okech, R., Haghiri, M., & George, B. P. (2012). A sustainable development alternative: an analysis with special reference to Luanda, Kenya. *Sustainability*, 6(3), 36-54.
- Registrar General of India. (n.d.). *List of notified Scheduled Tribes*. Retrieved March 6, 2019, from [http://censusindia.gov.in/Tables\\_Published/SCST/ST%20Lists.pdf](http://censusindia.gov.in/Tables_Published/SCST/ST%20Lists.pdf)
- Reichel, A., Lowengart, O., & Milman, A. (2001). Rural tourism in Israel: service quality and orientation. *Tourism Management*, 21, 451-459.
- Rizal, P., & Asokan, R. (2013). Role Of Transportation In Tourism Industry In Sikkim State, India. *International Journal of Innovative Research & Development*, 2(6), 336-46.
- Rogoff, B. (2010). *Developing destinies: A Mayan midwife and town*. Cambridge: Oxford University Press.
- Sanagustin-Fons, V., Lafita-Cortés, T., & Moseñe, J. A. (2018). Social Perception of Rural Tourism Impact: A Case Study. *Sustainability*, 10(2). doi:<https://www.mdpi.com/2071-1050/10/2/339>
- Sangkakorn, K., & Suwannarat, S. (2013). Local People Participation in Tourism Development: The Case Study of Chiang Mai. Paper presented in "The 2nd Conference on Asian Economic Development" on 14 August 2013 at Faculty of Economics, Chiang Mai University.
- Sebele, L. S. (2010). Community-based tourism ventures, benefits and challenges: Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust, Central District, Botswana. *Tourism Management*, 31(1), 128-140.
- Sharma, S., Joshi, R., Joshi, R., Rawal, R. S., & Dhyani, P. P. (2015). *Progression in Developmental Planning for the Indian Himalayan Region*. Kosi-Katarmal, Almora, Uttarakhand: G.B. Pant Institute of Himalayan Environment & Development.
- Simmons, D. G. (1994). Community participation in tourism planning. *Tourism Management*, 15(2), 98-108.
- Singh, K., Gantait, A., Puri, G., & Swamy, G. A. (2016). Rural Tourism: Need, Scope and Challenges in Indian Context. In A. Kumar(Ed), *Hospitality and Tourism: Challenges, Innovation, Practices and Product Development*. New Delhi: Adhyayan Publishers and Distributors. Retrieved on March 2, 2019, from [www.researchgate.net/publication/322508925\\_Rural\\_Tourism\\_Need\\_Scope\\_and\\_Challenges\\_in\\_Indian\\_Context](http://www.researchgate.net/publication/322508925_Rural_Tourism_Need_Scope_and_Challenges_in_Indian_Context)
- Sood, J. (2016). Homestays in Himachal State, India : A SWOT Analysis. *Journal of Tourism*, XVII (2), 69-81.
- Spenceley, A. (2018). Practical initiatives to responsible tourism in destinations: Community and nature based tourism in South Africa. Kochi: Presented at the 2nd International Responsible Tourism Conference at Kochi (Kerala), 21-24 March 08.
- Tosun, C. (2006). Expected nature of community participation in tourism development. *Tourism Management*. 27:493-504., 27, 493-504.
- Tourism Hospitality and Skill Council. (n.d.). *List of Training Centre 2018-19*. Retrieved on May 2, 2019, from <https://www.thsc.in/>

training-centers/  
Wojewnik-Filipkowska, A., & Wegrzyn, J.  
(2019). *Understanding of Public Private  
Partnership Stakeholders as a Condition of*

*Sustainable Development*. Retrieved on  
March 30, 2019, from Sustainability:  
[https://www.mdpi.com/2071-  
1050/11/4/1194](https://www.mdpi.com/2071-1050/11/4/1194)

#### **About the author**

Bhaskar Kumar Kakati obtained PhD degree in Social Sciences from Tata Institute of Social Sciences (TISS), Guwahati and presently associated with Dr. APJ Abdul Kalam Centre for Policy Research and Analysis, Indian Institute of Management Shillong, Nongthymmai, Shillong-793014 (Meghalaya) as Centre Manager. He has more than eight years of work experiences in different organisations and presently involved with the research work on economic and social development of North East India .bhaskarmorigaon@gmail.com

## Key Words

Sustainable development, madhya pradesh, ecotourism, economic growth.

# *Sustainable Development of Ecotourism in Madhya Pradesh: Prospects and Problems*

NAMRATA KISHNANI

Assistant Professor  
Department of Management,  
Bhopal School of Social Sciences, Bhopal

## Abstract

**Madhya Pradesh**, blessed with beautiful landscapes and panoramic wildlife, is looking for immense opportunities for popularizing sustainable tourism for sensitizing environmental consciousness along with sustainable livelihood. The state government along with its counterpart at central, local level and private partners, have actively invested a huge amount of sums for fostering heritage, pilgrimage, adventure, herbal or eco-tourism under Tourism Policy 2015 which initiated programs like "PRASHAD and Swadesh Darshan". This research study is an attempt to examine the socioeconomic impact of ecotourism in Madhya Pradesh, exploring recent information and figures in journals, government sites, research papers on the internet, etc. The surge in tourism has definitely resulted in increasing livelihood avenues in the tourism and allied sector however, it may result in habitat degradation, a threat to biodiversity, etc if not handled sensitively and responsibly. Thereby it analyzes the role of state government under MPEDB policies and initiatives for fostering ecotourism projects in Madhya Pradesh and its impact. However, the diversity of Indian culture in every region makes it complex to design a strategy to move forward. Geographical boundaries and paucity of time have restrained the study on secondary data.

## INTRODUCTION

**M**adhya Pradesh Tourism is blessed with heterogeneity of topography (Panchmarhi, Madai), beautiful wildlife (Kanha, Bandhavgarh, Pench), cosmopolitan heritage (Mandu, Shivpuri, Gwalior), world heritage sites (Bhimbetika, Sanchi) and religious sites (Ujjain, Narmada, Amarkantak) is becoming one of the top tourists destination. The natural panorama and breathtaking wildlife sightings have captivated not only the tourists but also the film industry. The state proactively supported film production (Padman, Rajneeti, for example) and other social media campaigns which had a significant influence in attracting a huge influx of both foreign and domestic tourists in a cost-effective way. During 2017, foreign tourist arrivals in the state reached around 0.36 million while domestic tourist visits stood at 78.04 million. Gross State Domestic Product (GSDP) of Madhya Pradesh in 2017-18 was Rs 7.07 trillion (the US \$ 109.70 billion) with a CAGR growth rate (in rupee terms) of 14.39 % of which tourism contributed 6-7% of the country's GDP. The Net State Domestic Product (NSDP) grew at a CAGR of around 14.57 % (consistency) between 2011-12 and 2017-18 to reach Rs 6.39 trillion (the US \$99.11 billion). As per budget 2018-19, the state government proposed an allocation of US \$36.84 million for the development of the state's tourism department. The sincerity of its efforts to promote tourism was acknowledged with the recognition as Best Tourism State award for three years in a row from 2015-17. Tourism as a service sector helps people to develop a variety of skills and with its crosscutting impact on various sectors like agriculture, construction, and handicrafts, it creates millions of business and employment opportunities (Murphy, 2013).

However, the flip side of increasing tourism is loss of natural habitat of wildlife (habitat fragmentation) and declining biodiversity apart from climatic variations, pollution and rest. Thus, ecotourism has gained significance by the Ministry of

Tourism for promoting responsible and sustainable tourism. Ecotourism entails the sustainable preservation of a naturally endowed area while ensuring not to damage the ecological balance. (As mentioned in Tourism Marketing by Devashish Dasgupta, Pg 79.) Places like Goa, Kerala, Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Lakshadweep, Himalayan Region and mainly Tiger reserves like Corbett, Kanha, Bandhavgarh, Ranthambore National Park, Kanha Bandhavgarh National Park and Gir Lion Sanctuary have prominently identified ecotourism spots in India. The *International Ecotourism Society* defines it as responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and sustains the well being of Local People. Thereby it looks forth to minimize the negative impact on the locality and sensitizing people with environmental and cultural awareness, giving direct benefits for the conservation of biodiversity and financial benefits to the community. Communities' equal participation is a critical element in the development without tarnishing the cultural values and passing the socioeconomic benefits to the host community. (Ashley & Roe, 2001)

The secondary data analysis of several databases available indicated a relatively unexplored topic in context to Madhya Pradesh. Though the government has initiated a plethora of projects yet hardly any research on its prospects and challenges was taken up. Some Government published reports projected the works undertaken in the current decade, yet the long-term community perspective is unexplored. The research work was presumed to study the developmental implications of ecotourism in Madhya Pradesh. The article is designed in four parts. Review of Literature is the first part followed by research methodology. The paper then discusses results and areas for further exploration.

## **ECOTOURISM IN MADHYA PRADESH A GLIMPSE**

Madhya Pradesh home to Indian wild Cats Royal Bengal Tiger along with nearly 3200 carnivorous and herbivorous animals and birds having thick plantation of approximately 5000 plant species of sal, deciduous and mixed bamboo grasslands spread across the wildlife trail starting from Bandhavgarh national park (northeast) to Satpura, Kanha, Pench and Panna houses (Southeast) apart from four other national parks and 25 sanctuaries It presents a huge opportunity to harness the environmental resources integrating communal welfare with socioeconomic development for long term sustenance.

Madhya Pradesh Ecotourism Development Board (MPEDB July 2005) constituted as a dedicated nodal agency for biodiversity conservation and promotion of ecotourism in the State. The board is accountable for planning, developing and implementing ecotourism sites (Tables at last) in line with its principles. It has selected 14 sites like Delabadi Jungle Camp, Samardha Jungle Camp, Kerwa, Laharpur Ecological Garden, Kathoiya, Satpura Reserve, Pench Reserve and so for the establishment of tourism infrastructure on the available revenue land in the vicinity. Further, the board aims to develop ecotourism at scenic landscapes rich in biodiversity causing minimum disturbance to ecology as a mainstream program like Nature parks, Trekking and Nature Walks, Wildlife Viewing, Water sports, Adventure activities, River Cruise, etc depending on potential site. The local people trained as nature guides/naturalists, hospitality staff, providing local cuisine so as to assist visitors in complete experience with nature. Anubhuti 2017-18 was a departmental initiative to sensitize school/university students through active environmental involvements like nature walk, bird watching, ecosystem exposure, plantation drive and demonstrating wildlife

management in buffer areas of National parks.

However, the complication exists in the conniving rural / forest dwellers and people residing on revenue land through an extensive Participatory Rural Appraisals (PRAs) due to the presence of informal power structures. Suhas Kumar currently Additional Principal Chief Conservator (Wildlife) Ex-Director of Pench National Park mentioned low involvement of the local community and the inability of forest staff to manage fragmented holdings in the high tiger concentration patches of Kanha and Bandhavgarh from a study on Tourism in Kanha, Bandhavgarh, and Pench. While a tourists spurt in adjoining corridors and new constructions have only 9 % of people interviewed in 32 villages engaged in the tourism business depleting the natural resources. Dr. Lynn Woodworth expressed concern on potential environmental impact as a number of respondents visiting the sites highlighted numerous issues like littering of forest floor, waterlogging and soil erosion along trails, discolored water, provocation of wildlife and lack of regulatory enforcement. Management needs to sensitize the visitors and strongly uphold regulatory measures entering the park for limiting the pressure on the forest ecosystem.

#### **RESEARCH OBJECTIVE:**

Tourism is a highly prospering industry with growing economic presence in allied industries like hotels, Transport in the service sector (both organized/unorganized workforce market). The study focuses on:

- To study about various initiatives taken by the state government for developing ecotourism.
- Assess the direct and indirect benefits of ecotourism in Madhya Pradesh.
- To review the role and impact of ecotourism in the socio-economic development of people and the community.

#### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY:**

The research methodology adopted is based on the secondary data from reliable sources along with personal observations. Extensive secondary data is collected through books, published government reports, articles in journals and newspapers. A rigorous search has been done through online sources for studying the role and impact of ecotourism on Madhya Pradesh Tourism. The study attempts to find out the contribution of ecotourism in the rural economy and sustainable forest development keeping all the stakeholder's perspective.

#### **LITERATURE REVIEW:**

“Sustainable Tourism development meets the needs of the present tourists and hosts regions while protecting and enhancing the opportunity for the future. It is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological process, biological diversity and life support systems” (World Tourism Organization). The Central government has identified 15 thematic circuits under Swadesh Darshan scheme and PRASHAD (National Mission on Pilgrimage Rejuvenation and Spiritual Heritage Augmentation Drive) wherein the state has been sanctioned project funds to develop naturally and culturally significant sites .(like Sanchi, Ujjain, Kanha, Pench, Satpura, Bandhavgarh, Pachmarhi, Shivpuri, Gwalior, Omkareshwar, Maheshwar and so). The board entered into Strategic alliance/partnership making available authentic local art (handicrafts, handlooms, music, dance, art, cuisine and so). The provision of seed capital, training, alternate sources of energy and marketing for the local community bridging the economic gap. It has also partnered with Institutes like IITTM (Gwalior), IHM (Bhopal), IIFM (Bhopal) for capacity building, entrepreneurship and developing

welfare project proposals (based on PPP model) driving the human resource development. Jae and other scholars (2017) found government led ecotourism in the developing countries as a general drift for the ecological environment. However the study emphasized excessive involvement of the government in the growth of ecotourism will hamper the community participation in economic and ecological interests for environmental and economic sustainability. Huang, etc. (2015) analyzed the evolutionary competition of the main stakeholders and suggested introducing the social public opinion the mechanism to supervise the government, that the government advocate the tourism enterprises to implement ecotourism by paying subsidies to them, and that the tourism enterprises promote cooperation with the community residents by sharing tourism benefits, improving the public facilities of communities, improving the residents' cultural quality, etc., so as to finally, realize the win-win of the three parties in the competition and the sustainable development of tourism.

Madhya Pradesh conceptualized ecotourism in buffer zones around Kanha, Bandhavgarh National Parks, Pench and Panna Tiger Reserve (Wildlife safaris amount to one-third tourism in India) leveraging the immense biodiversity region to targeted groups sensitizing public along with socio-economic development. According to Mr. G. Krishnamurty, Chief Conservator of Forest, Hoshangabad forest department trained around 600 people for security guards and educating children of Pardshis as Naturalist. Few private players also partnered in community welfare by initializing capacity building and sensitizing local community as naturalists, guides, hospitality and more. (MridulaTangirala Director Operations, Taj Safaris group (At Mahua Kothi, Bandhavgarh). Dense tourism activities (walking trails, watchtowers, bird

watching, entry gates, etc passing buffer and core areas ) will be mutually beneficial in saving wildlife trails and economic interests. ( Travel Operators for Tigers, TOFT -an NGO )

Conservatory management practices internationally prompted management by local Van Samrakshan Samiti after developing the necessary infrastructure and imparting training to local people in hospitality, interpretation, guest entertainment especially empowering women for self-sustenance.( Surayya.T ,2017) Corbett Gram Vikas Samiti initiated Appreciative Participatory Planning and Action method with the community members undertaking Corbett Heritage Trail, Guided Tours, Home-stays, Moti Souvenir Shop, and Information Kiosk with support from grants and resources from local NGOs and community. ( EQUATIONS Dec 2010 ).On similar lines, the Madhya Pradesh government commenced Vikas Samiti and Self Help Groups (SHG) empowering women participation to motivate self-employment through souvenirs shop, handlooms & handicrafts, traditional eateries and so on. The state government created a successful model In Panna Tiger Reserve where it took off the over exploitative use of core areas of National Park by creating facilities in buffer areas, breeding the dispersal tigers. A Careful Replication of same in other national parks will support the sensitization drive and community participation at large.It has increased environmental consciousness (locals /tourists) to counter the problem of poaching, overcutting of wood, theft and timely informing about forest fires and wounded animals.Nabanita (2016) found that there are eleven items of barriers to tourism development and factorized into three factors such as infrastructure creation, collaboration, and funding.

Ecotourism Development can create an



unequal distribution of income contributing to socio-economic problems, affect wildlife and indigenous people and conflict with conservation efforts (Singh and Upadhyay, 2011). The planners must follow the ecological law of the natural resources, the design of the tourism products shall reflect the harmony and unification between human beings and nature, so as to avoid short-term economic behaviors and seek the sustainable coordinative development of three benefits. Kanha & Bandhavgarh National parks flooded with guests (with a carrying capacity of 300-400 and 700-900 guests respectively) are permitting more than the allowed number of vehicles have disturbed the wildlife and ecology.

“The nature of ecotourism development in these National Parks does not in any way involve or even demonstrate community concern. In fact, apart from one or two private players all the others only employ members of the community since it is an economical option.” (Sheksaria Peeyush 2009) It's one of a Case from numerous such instances of non-accountability and non-transparency of the government ignoring the communal harmony and environmental consciousness for mutual socio-economic benefits. MPTDC establishing a resort in Satpura and recently Delabadi Jungle camp (post declaration of Ratapani Tiger Reserve) ignored communities living in Biosphere and rural displacement. The events are in the subsequence of dam construction on river Tawa in 1974 which displaced 25 villages and later non-renewal of the fishing license of the Tawa Matsya Sangh. Ashoka Trust for Research in Ecology and the Environment (ATREE) in their 'Social Assessment Report for the Satpura Landscape', have found that the “role of the communities has been low in the decision making process vis-à-vis the management of natural resources, where they have been used merely in the

implementation of government schemes. The Global Sustainable Tourism Criteria (GSTC) from inputs of various experts, groups, and companies. It defines sustainable tourism in a way that is actionable, measurable and credible. It underlined criteria for hotels, tour operators and destinations in consultation with different stakeholders. (UNEP, UN Foundation, Expedia, Travelocity, Fairmont, Marriott, IH&RA, ASTA, Travelife, Travel Weekly, etc.) It strongly advocated the following rules by 20 big tourism players in India for ecotourism development that states :

- 5 Use of locally available material and local architecture which is in consonance with the surrounding area for setting up a new lodge or resort.
- 5 Per capita consumption of water and energy is high in hotels and lodges. A mechanism must be developed for the tourist to be incentivized for low consumption of energy and water.
- 5 Awareness campaign and sensitizing local community especially youth
- 5 Involving the local community in the management of natural areas and ecotourism
- 5 Preparing an ecotourism master plan for the state and including different places with potential for ecotourism in the plan like core areas of tiger reserves.

#### **INITIATIVES OF MADHYA PRADESH FOR ECOTOURISM DEVELOPMENT**

Madhya Pradesh ecotourism development board has various ongoing eco-tourism projects across the state dedicated to instilling ecological consciousness and economic drive to reduce resource dependency. Widespread community development, especially among women drive the Self-Help Groups and Van Suraksha Samiti motive of economic progress without cultural drift.

Dr Kiran Bisen (DFO of west Chhindwara (MP) in her article “Biodiversity Conservation and Livelihood in Pench Satpura Corridor ” in Tigerland India Film Festival Yearbook 2019, Pg 18-19) stated an

initial revolving fund of Rs 2 lac to five Self Help groups for setting up two Broom enterprises, Dona plate and biodegradable bags of cloth and paper to generate continuous round the year earnings and sustainable employment in home town is one of the few examples. Encouragement of local tribal community having limited access to credit, technology, employment or entrepreneurial opportunities is supported by the government. She further elaborated government efforts for providing alternative livelihood to Pindraikala Village community and many such rural areas who are owners of souvenirs shop, handlooms & handicrafts, traditional eateries and so on exhibiting the art forms of Shivpuri, Bagh, Jhabua, etc.

The state government developed ecotourism infrastructure (zip lines, Butterfly park, Conservation, and interpretation centers) at 150 places currently and manages nine ecotourism sites like Delawadi Forest camp, Kerwa, Samardha Jungle camp and rest. It hugely included the opinion of the local community, trains youth, and women as guides/naturalists connecting with local delicacies, art forms for an alternative livelihood without degrading the natural and cultural heritage. It organizes various tours covering significant wildlife and ecotourism sites like Kanha, Bandhavgarh, Pench, Panna

prominently taking tourists on Elephant / Jeep Safari, Birdwatching, Nature walks, Bonfire, and other thrills.

MPEDB and State Government assisted Solar empowered electrification, training & skill development and marketing assistance to local communities (like Samardha Jungle Camp, Delawadi Jungle camp and more). It further grants recycling entry fees from protected areas for conservation & community development under various heads. MPEDB has proactively taken student awareness programs and skill development programs. It had involved the youth brigade by conducting programs like Wild Walk Awareness Program which takes the participants for a three-day tour to Kanha Tiger Reserve for last four years. The participants learned about camera and filming techniques, Camera Traps, Fireline, alarm Calls and interacted surrounding tribal communities of Baiga and Gond. They also organized programs for school and college students like symposium, Poem, Painting, Documentary and screen films on Environment conservation. It plans to have a capacity building program of short duration (15 days) and certification/diploma courses in Hospitality, Camp Management and Guides, etc for ages 8-25 yrs every year in a certain period.

**Table 1 : Capacity Building Programme**

Year	No of Students	Employability Skill	No Trained
2016-17	53935	Guide	More than 650
2017-18	1, 11,068	Cook	236
2018-19	60,000	Sailor / Boat Rider	30
		Camp Management	115

Source: Tiger land India Film Festival Yearbook 2019

The board successfully completed workshops on “PPP in Ecotourism” and “Strategies for Promoting Ecotourism potential in MP (social media networks, websites targeted at school/college youth for adventure and recreation)” with the objective of optimum resource utilization and minimum wastage. Consequently few projects (Arnika eco-park, Dewas, Beehar eco-adventure park, Rewa, Ralamandal eco-

park, Indore) are such public-private partnership models catering to various age groups and interest criteria. It further plans to explore Herbal Tourism (Dindori, Maihar, Salkanpur, Nakshatra Van), Cultural heritage of Chanderi, Maheshwar, Ecological Gardens & Valley of Flowers Laharpur targeting various interest groups. Similarly, specially designed expeditions like Theme parks (like Fossil Park near

Dindori), Urban Interpretation centers, Chambal Expedition and Forsyth Trail (Pachmadi) for promoting Dolphin in Chambal and Satpura Reserve internationally through yearly programs.

#### **ECOTOURISM PRACTICES IN MADHYA PRADESH:**

An assessment of the current tourists visiting Kanha and Bandhavgarh tiger reserves are escalating at an explosive rate. Domestic and foreign tourists registered a growth of 102% from 2008-09 (137295 visitor entries) onwards. (In Bandhavgarh by 2008-09 growth in domestic visitation was 380% while foreign tourist's visitation skyrocketed by 1194% making a comprehensive figure of growth by 475.43%) An unprecedented increase in ecotourism either led by group tourism for studying biodiversity or social media dominated tourism in national parks with friends or families have both sides of the coin. Ecological activities like bird watching, nature trails, trekking, creating environmental consciousness and conservation under Anubhuti program of government amongst school/college going youth created a high sense of environmental responsibility. It equipped the local youth and women in evolving responsible behavior optimizing tourism service experience for both parties. Whereas weekend destinations and economical gateways concentrated tourists density to eco-parks within the outskirts of the city thereby exploiting the resources, ethnobotanical knowledge alienation of local community and unregulated development.

Kumar Suhas (2013) Ruckuses by jeeps permitted in the parks often breached the safety instructions as clearly visible in many pictures for tiger sighting proving to be an arbitrary or unscientific decision. This has a strong impact on wildlife behavior and ecological depletion. The worst-hit location is Delawadi, Bharka tundra in

Madhav national park, Fort temple trail in Bandhavgarh national park taking visitors to Shesh sheya (Vishnu Ji lying on his snake in resting position) are a glaring example of starting certain visitor activities without planning. Similarly, numerous hotels already operating or popping up has cut off the corridor and restricted wildlife moments thereby threatening ecology. Visitors' feedback and photos clearly highlight the ignorance of the Madhya Pradesh code of conduct issued by the CWLW and NTCA prescribed through mandatory instructions. 78.1% of foreign tourists admire the beauty of nature reserves due to high environmental consciousness while 52% of domestic tourists are highly unsatisfied with not sighting a tiger and won't return. Thus, most of the hotels project Tiger sighting and Jungle safari as the prime attraction. They primarily seek mahouts seating on Elephants to show tigers hiding in grasslands where many visitors, field personnel and guides complain about mismanagement during this tiger show. Few previous studies highlight the overcrowding and other negative impacts of ecotourism. (78% of visitors to Kanha, Bandhavgarh, and Pench National park mentioned) While 35 % of the field personnel also emphasized noise pollution of too many vehicles, littering & soil pollution, disturbance to wild animals and the threat of poaching due to continuous exposure. (Kumar,2011) They also feel the pain of undue pressure for ensuring tiger sightings to visitors and VVIPs. The management must plan less taxing activities (bird watching, Understanding habitats, biodiversity, nature trails, publications, etc) for mitigating the ill effects and ensuring local participation through effective interpretation programs. The program lies more with buffer areas having critically high movement corridors of wildlife. According to previous researches, Vikas Nidhi a development fund incepted in

1996-97 collecting all tourism-related fees/tariffs levied by tiger reserves for relocating a proportionate share to dwellers is minimal. An analysis revealed Kanha Tiger Reserve shares 16.35% of development fund on eco-development works and 4.03% to committees (compensation for crop loss, cattle kills, inaccessibility to forest resources, injury or death of people) is maximum. While Bandhavgarh spends 9.63% on eco-development and 3.97% for annual payments to EDCs with contributions from Panna, Pench, and Satpura. This necessitates the cause of a Comprehensive National Ecotourism Policy which outlines the roles of stakeholders, local participation, and regulatory framework for safeguarding environment, ecology and land usage in or around tiger reserves.

Ecotourism site clearances based on scientific Environment impact assessment based on stringent criteria groundwater usage, energy conservation, water harvesting/recycling, and waste minimization, minimum construction and using green energy with proper accreditation. Regulatory guidelines for promoting low polluting industries and penalizing the guilty through Consortium of Voluntary Environmental Action Groups (CVEAG), MP Pollution Control Board & Environmental Planning & Coordination Organization (EPCO) ensuring compliance, monitoring, and control for the holistic development of eco sites.

#### **DISCUSSION:**

The paper argues the potentiality of ecotourism to safeguard biodiversity and socio-economic benefits for the community at large. A cost-benefit analysis of ecotourism in Madhya Pradesh highlights the conservation efforts and tourism service facilities retaining the cultural heritage. In 2011, the Collaborative Partnership on Forests, comprising 14 international organizations, including the Food and

Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), stated that while ecotourism is growing at 20% annually worldwide, it is harmful to the environment if not harnessed correctly. The Ex-chief minister of Jammu & Kashmir Omar Abdullah quoted “well-planned strategy to boost tourism without compromising the conservation of the environment enforcing construction bans in Pahalgam in May 2012.”

A monthly social awareness magazine Khajuraho Special, 2004 states, tourism has intensified land and air pollution due to high air connectivity in Khajuraho and ill-equipped hotels. Noise pollution (vehicular traffic) and human movement in nesting areas, feeding grounds or so have degraded the habitat affecting their progeny and ecosystem balance. Increased usage of Social media for increasing tourism also highlights accounts of various tourists' and related articles on its mal-effects like littering of the trekking corridor, fuel-wood extraction, Water Logging, trail site erosion as a result of a large number of trekkers', pack animal movement and unregulated grazing by animals. These issues need to be addressed urgently apart from lack of enforcement of laws of the national park, ecological conservation, and Solid waste management/recycling systems. Case accounts of visitors to Madhav National Park, Shivpuri, Kanha, Bandhavgarh or Pench National parks have expressed their concern with biophysical impacts such as soil erosion, damage of vegetative cover and shrinking water bodies due to unplanned land usage prominently visible reducing the qualitative visitor experience. Further mainstream tourism has often ignored the role of tribal community and forests dwellers in conserving the religious, cultural and environmental consciousness.

The tourism industry is a package of the creative and informative service industry. It packages the flora, fauna along with local

art & culture putting a price tag to restrict the affordability to limited few. Thereby marketing requires special skills and partnership with various stakeholders which may be contradictory to social welfare. Communal Resistance to tourism has been due to the low trickledown effect of economic benefits and scoring low on social justice. It has impinged on the resources of the tribal community tarnishing their livelihood, health or basic amenities. Ecologist's opines corporate social responsibility and green accounting may become the bloodline of ecotourism equating the relation of demand, consumption, and supply tacitly absorbing the 70% informal tourism to organized model.

Ecotourism projects comprise mainly of two major components i.e. the capacity building of the local communities and minimal infrastructure development of physical infrastructure (improving basic sanitation and waste management) to minimize the negative impact on the environment. Tourism has resulted in better infrastructure like roads, residential or living structure like hotels, cottages, and electrification of outskirts. Travel agencies and hospitality industry are partners in creating environmental consciousness and monitoring the resource optimization further managing the human-wildlife conflict. (Mr. Carlisle, 2013) This supplemented the cause for conserving the cultural heritage or its historical significance apart from generating additional incomes for locals to reduce migration and poverty in developing countries. Globalization and traveler's friendly policies post millennium have contributed significantly in increasing the diminishing demand of traditional handlooms and handicrafts (Bagh, Chanderi, etc), cuisine or customary practices inclusive of language.

Krithi K. Karanth, (A Ramanujan Fellow,

and executive director of the Centre for Wildlife Studies, Bangalore) explains the nonphysical balance within the ecosystem, quoting: "There are resource impacts water and fuelwood use which has gone up tremendously due to the resorts popping up around our parks. This results in direct conflict between park managers, local people, and the tourism industry. Having swimming pools and flowing water fountains seems extremely wasteful when local people are unable to access clean drinking water in arid regions such as Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh. Moreover, few local people benefit directly from tourism, land prices have gone up, pushing locals away from ancestral lands, and wildlife is becoming an "elite" activity ." As he put forward, "Theoretically, tourism can help support our parks with much-needed conservation funds or employment for local communities. However, in India, we are in a race to magnify tourism growth without any concern for the consequences. Right now there is little 'eco' in wildlife tourism in India."

However, the ambiguity of regulatory policies, prescribed mechanism to monitor the eventual impact of tourism and ongoing contradictory practices make it detrimental to the prime objective of conserving wildlife and environmental consciousness. Bureaucrats or urban planners with limited relevant knowledge and relation with the local community, biodiversity, and traditional cultural practices have left the program objective wayward. The gaps identified between the rhetoric and ground reality in planning, implementing or monitoring ecotourism activities stand as it is due to lack of importance or efforts for taking feedback of tourists and the local community. While on the similar lines' nearly absent outreach program, untrained or aged staff lacks the vitality of program objective. The regulatory laws regarding the land usage of buffer areas are highly

incompetent, which has resulted in mushrooming hotels, resorts polluting the environment, depletion of resources (Ground Water, Cultivable land, etc.) and restricting the wildlife movements in buffer areas.

Infrastructure development around the core or buffer areas has taken a toll on plunging biodiversity and habitat fragmentation creating Human-Wildlife conflict. Construction of National and state highway in Bandhavgarh Tiger Reserve fragmented the habitat resulting in an escalation of Tigers crossing the protected areas to neighboring towns of Katni endangering the cattle and human inhabitants have recently taken notice by authorities. The construction of modern infrastructure has increased the energy demands and solid waste at an alarming rate damaging the environment. Increased technology and electrification dependence escalated wildlife threats.

Ecotourism being a time-bound and a narrow option for selected few in place of a continuing source of income has created inflationary pressures. The dearth of poverty and unorganized employment has led to several leakages in the system due to imported/imitated items being sold in the traditional market by migrants. The rural youth are also shedding away local language, businesses, and cultural practices to make easy monies as guides/naturalists working on petty commission and tips from foreign tourists. (Bandhavgarh, Sanchi, Khajuraho) The lack of trust and cooperation between the local communities, conservationists and authorities have affected the future course of environment programs since mere employment of local community as guides, drivers, etc. (making landowners as meager employees) is a token as majority income goes to private players and government department. Thereby the most important setback propounded is a failure to plow back

revenues from ecotourism activities (sale of teak, timber, tickets, excursion tours so) for conserving the environment or generating no consumptive value in form of foreign income.

The current model requires redefining the role of stakeholders (either consulting, collaborating or ownership) for upscaling the community-based tourism. The limited role of local community restrained to trivial employment opportunities (Tokenism) should be enhanced curbing further rural migration, fragmentation of wildlife habitat or destruction. (Ms. Swathi Seshadri, 2013). Statistics highlight the inability of ecotourism to maintain a steady cash flow over the long run fails to incentivize the locals who often tend to return to consumerism and destructive mass tourism practices. Visitors have often highlighted the strong economic interest of hotels, guides or drivers in peak season running over the capacity for managing the lean months. (as a national park is closed for four months in a year) Thereby Conservation efforts to protect valuable wildlife and their forest habitats may conflict with the interests of local communities. Therefore, intentions of conservation can be misunderstood by the local communities (Crouch and Scott, 2003).

#### **SUGGESTIONS:**

Madhya Pradesh with its rich natural and cultural heritage has a strategically important location in the center of India adjoining to five states have the potentially immense opportunity for developing Wildlife / Medical / Herbal / Adventure / Pilgrimage and other tourism. Launch of Incredible India 2.0 Branding Program and MP's Heart of India or "MP meindilhaibachesa" campaign on social media added a lot of fervor to tourism. However, a strategically well planned and executed social media campaign may be used effectively for generating

consciousness.

Madhya Pradesh Ecotourism Development Board (MPEDB) in liaison with the interest of all the stakeholders (at local, national or international level) is trying to create consciousness amongst all the stakeholders for conservation and economic benefits. Various survey reports highlighted the safety & security of tourists, the digital transformation of tourism and working on reforming the ground infrastructure. Development of ecotourism sites on PPP Model with a proper delineation of responsibilities amongst the stakeholders and monitoring the same will play a strategic role. Generating consciousness among various sects of people based on their demographics through public participation and developing sites as per their interest areas to recall people for long term revenue generation model.

Tourist facilities continue to dominate the tourism experience in the market thereby necessitating water recycling, rainwater harvesting and solar power grids for promoting sustainable services without negatively endangering the environment. Resilience on the carrying capacity of the eco-sites for reducing dependency on permanent structures more escalating energy consumption, solid waste disposal, and ecological disturbance is highly recommended by environmentalists.

Ecologists suggest the usage of biodegradable material like bamboo huts/cow dung pakka huts, non-plastic / glass materials like earthenware used by local community traditionally in collaboration with fore-runners in the hospitality industry. It will not only anchor the cultural values reducing the degradation but more cost-effective model having low sunk costs.

The other most important point is generating income from eco-tourism and reinvesting the same for further development of infrastructure, connectivity

and socio-economic development of the community. This certainly requires a more in-depth study of needs of tourists and local community as 70% income is generated from gate entry fee while another infrastructure is hugely sunk costs as largely tourists prefer day visits than an overnight stay.

Ecotourism needs to be coupled with primarily socio-cultural specificities (skills of community or tribes like Gond art, Bagh sarees, Patalkot lifestyle) of the region instead of generalizing and it shall attune to income generating activities like agriculture, forest products (Bamboo baskets, art Pieces), etc. of the region for adding sustainability to livelihood for communities. Employment of local people as guides, drivers, hospitality or management not only promotes ecological conservation but cultural heritage too when purposefully trained.

Lastly responsible ecological land use planning, monitoring environment quality, encouraging green technology and energy efficient means, outreach/capacity building programs to sensitize environment mindfulness and alternate means of recycling, reduce and reuse.

#### **CONCLUSION:**

The surge in ecotourism as one of the cost-effective means for ensuring sustainable ecological development along with related socio-economic changes in the community have been emphasized by various research studies earlier. However, ecotourism in Madhya Pradesh was a relatively unexplored area. The research highlights the authentic collective pool of data presenting the current and projected ecotourism works by state (MPDEB), social cost benefits of the investment and valuable insights to improve their long-term revenue-generating potential. While tourism frequently benefits those directly involved in it, it may cause hardship for the rest of the local community (Cohen, 1984). The

study further emphasizes the objective of state for depending on Ecotourism (In-Situ Conservation- National Parks, Sanctuaries) inclusive of biodiversity, tribal community, social groups, cultivators, etc to create environment consciousness and economic objectives for sustainable social order. However, the continuous conflicts and divergent interests' areas of various stakeholders conservationists, government, tribal/local community, etc shall be worked

on common consensus by the state who shoulders the responsibility to calibrate resource usage as regulators of socio-economic order facilitating sustainable development along with social partners. Thus, the research gives a lot of scope of future exploration to develop models of sustainable ecotourism development and finding the most profitable, cost-effective and sustainable model.

#### REFERENCES:

- Nayak S .Dr., “ Tourism Industry a sunrise sector for Emerging India ” accessed on 20 May 2019 available at [https://www.academia.edu/6077819/Tourism\\_Industry\\_A\\_Sunrise\\_Sector\\_for\\_Emerging\\_India](https://www.academia.edu/6077819/Tourism_Industry_A_Sunrise_Sector_for_Emerging_India)
- Gayatri .J,(July 6, 2012) “The Paradox of ecotourism”, livemint e-paper accessed on 8<sup>th</sup> July 2019 available at <https://www.livemint.com/Leisure/VfDgNhFJtSpwFGeW1eEstl/The-paradox-of-ecotourism.html>
- “Incredible India 2.0 India's \$ 20 Billion Tourism Opportunity” World Economic Forum 2017 accessed on 20 May 2019 available at [http://www3.weforum.org/docs/White\\_Paper\\_Incredible\\_India\\_2\\_0\\_final\\_.pdf](http://www3.weforum.org/docs/White_Paper_Incredible_India_2_0_final_.pdf)
- “ Tourism & Hospitality “ India Brand Equity Foundation 2018 accessed on 20 May 2019 <https://www.ibef.org/download/Tourism-and-Hospitality-February-2018.pdf>
- Investor's summit, Oct 2016, Tourism opportunities in Madhya Pradesh accessed on 2 June 2019 available at [http://www.mpindustry.gov.in/upload/files/tourism\(1\).pdf](http://www.mpindustry.gov.in/upload/files/tourism(1).pdf)
- Vision Document (2010-2015) Madhya Pradesh Eco-Tourism Development Board
- Rizal P, D. Asokan,(Nov 2013) ” Measuring the Impact of Tourism Industry on Regional Economy of Sikkim State, India”, *Journal of International Academic Research for Multidisciplinary*, ISSN:2320-5083, Vol 1, Issue 10.
- Raunaque Nausherwan, Ahmadi N, Khan A,(Jul 2016) “ Impact of Tourism on Agriculture with Special Reference to Pachmarhi, Madhya Pradesh “, *International Journal of all Research Education and Scientific Methods (IJARESM)* ISSN:2455-6211, Vol 4, Issue 7.
- Surayya.T(2017),“Role of Eco-Tourism for sustainable Rural Development w.r.t to Maredumelli Eco-Tourism Project, Andhra Pradesh State, India” in *Amity Journal of Agribusiness* Vol 2(1), Pg 27-36.
- Kumar Suhas (Feb 2013), “An Assessment of Ecotourism Strategies and Practices in Tiger Reserves of Madhya Pradesh” accessed on 10 June 2019 available at [https://www.academia.edu/8309741/A\\_Note\\_on\\_Tourism\\_in\\_Tiger\\_reserves\\_of\\_Madhya\\_Pradesh](https://www.academia.edu/8309741/A_Note_on_Tourism_in_Tiger_reserves_of_Madhya_Pradesh)
- Eco-Tourism - Interpretation, Conservation & Education available at Eco-Tourism - Pench Tiger Reserve at [www.penchtiger.co.in/pdf/11.pdf](http://www.penchtiger.co.in/pdf/11.pdf) accessed on 11 June 2019.
- Pillai, M.Dr ., “Tourism in Madhya Pradesh: Problems and Prospects” accessed on 8 June 2019 available at [https://www.academia.edu/5607318/TOURISM\\_IN\\_MADHYA\\_PRADESH\\_PROBLEMS\\_AND\\_PROSPECTS](https://www.academia.edu/5607318/TOURISM_IN_MADHYA_PRADESH_PROBLEMS_AND_PROSPECTS)
- Sharma Bharti (2019), “Economic Impact of Rural Tourism in Madhya Pradesh”, *International Journal of Advance Research, Ideas and Innovations in Technology*, ISSN -2454-132, Vol 5 Issue 1 at <https://www.ijariit.com/manuscripts/v5i1/V5I1-1188.pdf>
- Shukla .A(June 2016),” Growth of Travel & Tourism in India: A driver of employment generation and economic development “, *International Journal in Management and Social Science* (Impact Factor-5.276)IJMSS Vol.04 Issue-06, ISSN: 2321-1784 Page 692 available at <http://www.indianjournals.com/ijor.aspx?target=ijor:ijmss&volume=4&issue=2&article=1188>



e=026  
 Pedro Neves(2006),” Tourism Towards Sustainable Regional Development “accessed on 5 June 2019 available at [https://www.kth.se/polopoly\\_fs/1.111267.1550158215!/Menu/general/column-content/attachment/Pedro%20Neves.pdf](https://www.kth.se/polopoly_fs/1.111267.1550158215!/Menu/general/column-content/attachment/Pedro%20Neves.pdf)  
 Madhan Monika, “ SWOT Analysis of selected Tourist Destinations of Madhya Pradesh “, accessed on 3 June 2019 <https://www.iimspune.edu.in/images/pdf/Journal/VolIII-Paper3.pdf>, Pg 19-30.  
 Bhopal International Conference on Sustainable Tourism 2013 Tourism: An Enabler for Conservation, Livelihood, and Sustainable Growth Conference proceedings accessed on 12 June 2019 available at <http://www.ecotourismsocietyofindia.org/fil>

e/BICST2013\_book.pdf  
 Gohil. N. Dr,” Role and Impact of Social Media in Tourism: A Case Study on the Initiatives of Madhya Pradesh State Tourism”, International Journal of Research in Economics and Social Sciences (Impact Factor 4.992) IJRESS Volume 5, Issue 4(April 2015) (ISSN 2249-7382) available at [https://www.academia.edu/12421300/Role\\_and\\_Impact\\_of\\_Social\\_Media\\_in\\_Tourism\\_A\\_Case\\_Study\\_on\\_the\\_Initiatives\\_of\\_Madhya\\_Pradesh\\_State\\_Tourism](https://www.academia.edu/12421300/Role_and_Impact_of_Social_Media_in_Tourism_A_Case_Study_on_the_Initiatives_of_Madhya_Pradesh_State_Tourism)  
 India Tourism Statistics 2018 published in December 2018, accessed on 11 June 2019 available at [http://tourism.gov.in/sites/default/files/Other/ITS\\_Glance\\_2018\\_Eng\\_Version\\_for\\_Mail.pdf](http://tourism.gov.in/sites/default/files/Other/ITS_Glance_2018_Eng_Version_for_Mail.pdf)

**About the Author**

Ms Namrata Kishnani, Assistant Professor in Department of Management of the Bhopal School of Social Sciences, an autonomous NAAC reaccredited 'A' Institute affiliated to Barkatullah University, Bhopal. She has got corporate experience as an accountant in a private limited company in Dubai ( UAE) for 1.5 yrs and as a Banker in State Bank of India for 2 yrs after finishing her MBA. She cleared UGC NET in 2013 in Management and pursued teaching since July 2015 onwards. She currently teaches Economics, International Business, Project Management and Environmental Science apart from pursuing research activities. She has presented several research papers in National and International conferences and published a couple of research papers in peer reviewed research Journals.

**APPENDIX:**

**Ecotourism Resources**

No of National Parks	9
No of Tiger Reserve	6
No of Wildlife Sanctuaries	25
Forest Area	95,221 km <sup>2</sup>
Protected Forest Area	10,862 km <sup>2</sup>

Major Ecotourism Destinations	Near by
Samardha	Bhopal
Kerwa	Bhopal
Kathotiya	Bhopal
Kukru	Betul
Bhilatdev	Hoshangabad
Tighra	Gwalior
Deori	Chambal

**Major Tourist Destinations**

Type	Tourist Destinations
Leisure	Bhopal, Pachmarhi, Bhedaghat, Shivpuri, Jabalpur
Pilgrimage	Ujjain, Maheshwar, Chitrakoot, Bhojpur, Omkareshwar
Heritage	Khajuraho, Gwalior, Orchha, Mandu, Sanchi, Chanderi
Wildlife	Kanha National Park, Panna National Park, Pench National park, Satpura Tiger Reserve.

National Parks	District
Kanha	Mandla
Bandhavgarh	Umariya
Panna	Panna
Pench	Seoni and Chhindwara
Satpura	Hoshangabad
Sanjay	Sidhi
Madhav	Shivpuri
Vanvihar	Bhopal
Fossil	Mandla

### Major Ecotourism Destinations

Destination	Nearest City/Dist	Type of Terrain	Facilities	Activity
Samardha	Bhopal / 25 km	Reserve Forest	Camping Facility + 3 Rooms	Team games, River Crossing, Nature Walk, Bird Watching ,Volley ball, Bullock Cart, Cycling, Rock Paintings
Kathotiya	Bhopal / 22 km	Reserve Forest/ Forest Village	Camping Facility + 2 Rooms	Team games, River Crossing, Rappelling, Nature Walk, Bird Watching ,Volley ball, Bullock Cart, Cycling, Rock Paintings
Kerwa	Bhopal / 10 km	Urban Forest / Picnic Spot	Children's play area, Lawns, Sheds, Sitting area	Day Picnic Spot, Zipline, Archery, Paintball
Kukru	Betul / 80 km	Reserve Forest	7 Rooms, Camping Facility	Coffee Plantation, Wind Energy Plant, Chikal Dhara, Male Ghat Tiger reserve, Unique Landscape
Matkuli	Pipariya / 26 km	Buffer Area of STR	5 Rooms, Camping Facility	River side camping, Trekking, Biosphere reserve , Pachmarhi Hill station
Ranehfall	Khajraho / 14 km	Sanctuary Area	4 Rooms, Camping Facility	Safari, Trekking, Cultural Experience, Local Food
Payli	Jabalpur / 80 Km	Reserve Forest	3 Rooms, Camping Facility	Boating, Beautiful Landscape, Waterfall, Trekking, Local Food, Cycling
Deori	Murena / 17 km	River & Ravines	4 Rooms, Camping Facility	Boating Safari, Beautiful Landscape, Ghariyal, Crocodial, Dolphyn, Turtle, Bird Watching, Local Food, Ghariyal rearing centre
Hinouta	Khajraho / 50 km	National Park	Tenting & Camping	Wildlife, Trekking, Cultural Experience, Local Food, Diamond Mines, Waterfall

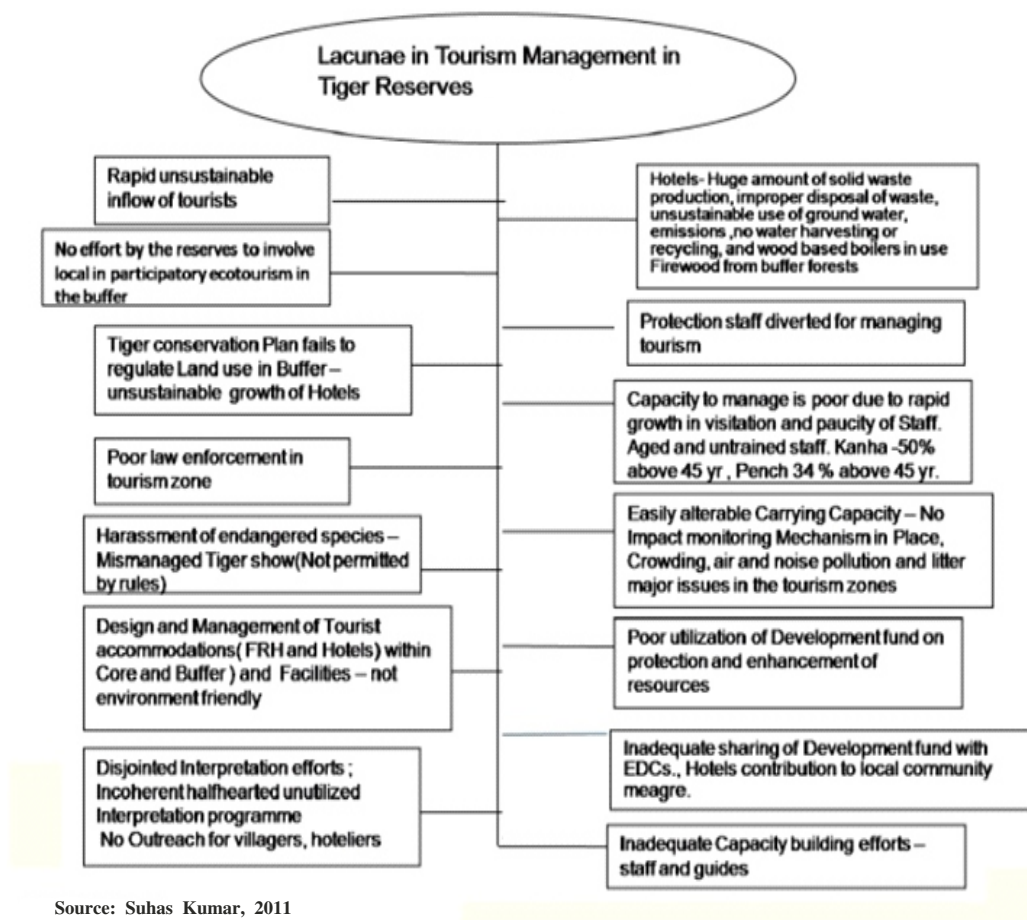
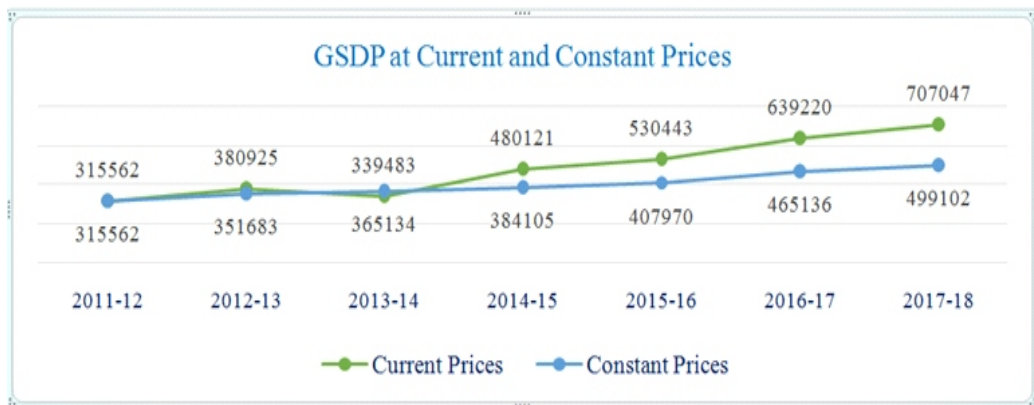


Foreign Tourist Arrivals in Madhya Pradesh

Year	Foreign Tourism (in lakhs)
2008	2
2009	2.3
2010	2.52
2011	2.69
2012	2.76
2013	2.8
2014	3.17
2015	4.21
2016	3.63
2017	3.66

Tourism Industry share in State's GDP

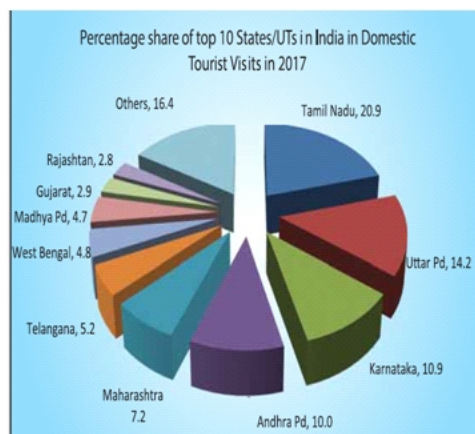
Year	GDP (in lakh crore)
2008	1.97
2009	2.27
2010	2.63
2011	3.12
2012	3.72
2013	4.51
2014	5.08
2015	6.42
2016	7.14
2017	8.26



Source: Suhas Kumar, 2011

### Major Wildlife Sanctuaries

Sanctuaries	District of (M.P.)
Bori	Hoshangabad
Bogdara	Sidhi
Phen	Mandla
Ghatigaon	Gwalior
Gandhisagar	Mandsour
Karera	Shivpuri
Ken Ghariyal	Chhatarpur and Panna
Kheoni	Dewas and Sihore
Narsinghgarh	Rajgarh
Nauradehi	Sagar
National Chambal ghariyal	Murena
Pachmarhi	Hoshangabad
Panpatha	Shahdol
Kuno Palpur	Murena
Pench	Sioni and Chhindwara
Ratapani	Raisen
Sanjay dubri	Sidhi
Singhori	Raisen
Son Ghariyal	Sidhi and Shahdol
Sardarpur	Dhar
Sailana	Ratlam
Ralamandal	Indore
Orchha	Tikamgarh
Gangau	Panna
Veerangana Durgawati	Damoh



## Key Words

international tourism cooperation, india's tourism sector, heritage and cultural tourism, buddhist circuit, india-asean

# *Tourism Business Cooperation between India and South East Asian Countries: Studying Interregional Tourist Movements to Explore Buddhist Tourist Places in India*

SARFARAZ NASIR

Associate Editor  
The Policy Times  
Digital Media House on Public Policy and Foreign Affairs., New Delhi-110067

## Abstract

India's initiatives towards strengthening its cultural and heritage tourism corridors are important for both national and international tourists. In an endeavour to improve its tourism sector, Government of India is actively participating in international cooperation particularly with the countries in Southeast Asia. One of such partner is Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). Member countries of ASEAN and India share a deep rooted cultural and historical bond. In the wake of renewed focus on Indo-ASEAN relations, the paper makes an attempt to review the progress on bilateral cooperation between India and ASEAN in the area of tourism and travel sector. It examines the historical and cultural similarities between India and ASEAN countries. It also briefly outlines the progress in planning and policy making aimed at attracting foreign tourists in and around Buddhist Circuit in collaboration with private and Government players. Further, the paper highlights issues and challenges concerning the tourists arriving from countries in Southeast Asia and presents some policy prescriptions for attracting more international tourists.

## INTRODUCTION

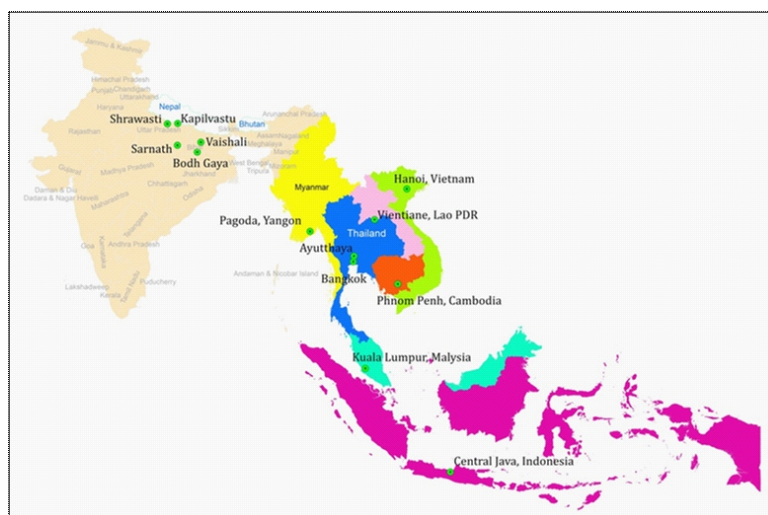
India's partnership with Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), an economic grouping consisting of Brunei, Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Malaysia, Indonesia, Vietnam, Philippines, Singapore and Thailand, has multiple facets covering both economic and political objectives (Yung and Mum, 2009). India has negotiated several agreements and memorandum of understanding (MoU) with the ASEAN. Following the Look East Policy in 1990s, India pursued its partnership with ASEAN with vigour (Garare and Mattoo, 2001). India became sectoral dialogue partner with ASEAN in 1992 and became full-fledged dialogue partner in 1995 (Scott, 2007). First India-ASEAN Summit was held in Cambodian capital city Phnom Penh in 2002 giving further elevation to India-ASEAN relationship. India and ASEAN nations recognized their diverse and pluralistic nature of society. In order to further strengthen their pluralistic societies, India and ASEAN member countries reaffirmed to strengthen their common interests during the first India-ASEAN summit (MEA, 2002). One of such areas of mutual interests is cooperation in tourism sector.

India and ASEAN concluded an agreement in goods trade under the framework agreement on comprehensive economic cooperation with ASEAN in 2009. The same agreement came into effect in 2010 meaning that India and ASEAN give preferential treatment to goods originated in India and ASEAN region for bilateral trade. The impact of the agreement was exponential in terms of trade volume between India and ASEAN. As per the statistics from International Trade Data Centre, Geneva, India's exports to ASEAN increased from US\$ 18 billion in 2009 to 35 billion in 2017, nearly doubled in less than a decade of the implementation of

trade agreement. Similarly, India's imports from ASEAN increased from US\$ 24 billion in 2009 to US\$ 45 billion in 2017. In 2014, India and ASEAN formalized agreement on trade in services, which came into force in 2015. This agreement is a milestone in bilateral relations between

India and ASEAN. These two agreements may also be utilised to strengthen bilateral tourism by implementing smooth process in doing business in the areas of travel related services. This needs special attention in tourism cooperation.

**Map 1: Political Map of India and Southeast Asia**



**Source: Author**

Existing literature suggests positive impact of agreement in trade in services on tourists' arrivals with potential impact on income receiving from tourists (Jensen and Zhang, 2013). India's prolonged relationship with ASEAN and its cultural affinity with its member countries create more favour for India to receive economic benefit out of cooperation in services sector which also include cooperation in tourism sector (Karmakar, 2005).

India's partnership with ASEAN in tourism sector further strengthened with the signing of a memorandum of understanding (MoU) for tourism cooperation in 2012. Its impact on tourism sector is clearly evident. The statistics on tourism sector in India suggests that the tourists arrival from Southeast Asia were 746,069 in 2016, a sharp increase from 540,914 in 2012 and 439,043 in 2010 (Ministry of Tourism, 2012 and 2017). This

also indicates that tourists arrival in India from ASEAN countries has increased substantially after liberalisation of trade in services between India and ASEAN.

#### **India-ASEAN Cooperation in Tourism**

India-ASEAN cooperation in tourism sector is performed through annual ASEAN-India Tourism Ministers' Meeting. During the third Meeting of ASEAN-India Tourism Ministers' (3rd M-ATM+India), held in 2012 in the city of Manado Indonesia, India and ASEAN signed an MoU on strengthening tourism cooperation. Owing to this development between the two partners India became the first Dialogue Partner of ASEAN. As per the MoU, several activities envisaged to be conducted every year to promote mutual tourism (MEA, 2017) including promoting people to people connectivity. With the objective of promoting tourism marketing, an agency

was established namely ASEAN Promotional Chapter headquartered in Mumbai. The agency aims at promoting tourism. The agency is also envisioned to collaborate with ASEAN National Tourism Organisation for further cooperation. As per the MoU, the following were the main objectives outlined to strengthen India-ASEAN cooperation in the area of tourism sector:

- Cooperate in facilitating travel and tourist visits.
- Further strengthen the tourism partnership.
- Enhance mutual assistance and human resource development for tourism sector
- Take necessary steps for exploring avenues of cooperation and sharing of information.
- Exchange information pertaining to statistics and development strategies, investment opportunities and economic data in tourism, travel and hospitality sectors relevant to each other.
- Jointly organize seminars, workshops and face-to-face meetings wherever possible, with a view to exploring and discussing new opportunities and avenues for the development and promotion of tourism and
- Any other area of activity aimed at tourism cooperation.

The fourth meeting of India-ASEAN tourism Ministers were held on 21<sup>st</sup> January, 2013. During this meeting, a protocol was signed to amend the MoU signed earlier. Besides, India-ASEAN tourism website was officially launched for the promotion of tourism between India and ASEAN during this meeting (ASEAN, 2013). It was noted by the Ministers that the implementation progress of the MoU was satisfactory. It was briefed that several steps were taken to boost tourism cooperation between India and ASEAN embracing trips for travel writers from ASEAN countries; sending of

25 academicians from hospitality institutes to ASEAN countries, and participation of delegates from ASEAN countries in Buddhist Enclave, etc.

First International Conference on “ASEAN-India Cultural Link: Historical and Contemporary Dimensions” was held on 23-24 July 2015 in New Delhi to further strengthen the cultural cooperation and engagement between ASEAN and India. Whereas at the 13<sup>th</sup> ASEAN-India summit held in 2015, both India and ASEAN reaffirmed their commitment to continue the cultural cooperation. In fact, the second International Conference on India-ASEAN cultural link was held in Jakarta in 2017 as agreed during the 13<sup>th</sup> India-ASEAN summit.

The fifth meeting of India-ASEAN Tourism Ministers' was held in January 2016 deliberating the implementation of the decisions taken during 13<sup>th</sup> ASEAN-India summit. ASEAN-India tourism ministers' meeting is an institutional framework constituted under the MoU between India and ASEAN signed in 2013. The latest meeting held under this arrangement was 6<sup>th</sup> ASEAN-India tourism ministers' meeting held in January 2018 in Thailand.

The development of cooperation between India and ASEAN member countries in the area of tourism is guided with the principle of peace and shared prosperity, advocated under ASEAN-India partnership agreement signed in 2004 in Vientiane, Lao PDR. As stated earlier, the objective of cooperation in tourism is to strengthen the sector and cooperate on human resource development within the sector. However, the common goal which is not explicitly outlined, the sector has ample of opportunities to tackle some of the common economic problems in India and ASEAN countries. Thus, the cooperation aims at achieving common goals like transforming tourism sector as an important contributor to GDP as well as improving respective foreign exchange

basket, reducing poverty and preserving cultural and historical linkages, etc.

In addition, India and ASEAN countries have potential to cooperate on the pillars of competitiveness in tourism sector through which the tourism sector can be strengthened to attract tourists at global level. According to the World Economic Forum (WEF), Southeast Asian countries have the most tourists friendly destinations with over 104 million tourists arrival in 2015 with an average growth of more than 8% in travel and tourism industry of Southeast Asia (WEF, 2017). It simply means that the industry has potential to create jobs and economic opportunities not only for countries in Southeast Asia but also for the countries which are cooperating with Southeast Asia in the very same sector. India has opportunities to draw lessons from Southeast Asian countries and improve the competitiveness index of its tourism sector. Some of the countries in Southeast Asia have improved its competitiveness by improving the tourists friendly environment and policies. In addition, there are few countries in Southeast Asia which are less competitive on many pillars. Mutual cooperation between India and ASEAN has opportunities to create favourable environment for cooperation in improving their respective tourism industry.

It is important to look into tourism sector as an important catalyst of India's relationship with the ASEAN. The current paper, therefore, examines the progress registered in India-ASEAN cooperation in the area of tourism and travel services. The discussion follows with a brief status of tourism sector in India with foreign tourist arrivals (FTAs) from ASEAN countries. The paper also examines the historical and cultural similarity between India and ASEAN countries. Roots of Buddhism are one of important sources of attraction of tourists from ASEAN countries to India. It also

provides ground for healthy cooperation between India and ASEAN in tourism sector. Therefore, Buddhist Circuit has potential to attract tourists which is also discussed at length. In the end, the paper briefly outlines an analytical review of policy and planning to attract tourists in the areas located in and around Buddhist Circuit by both private and Government players.

### **Review of Literature**

Existing literatures on India's engagement with ASEAN countries discussion range of issues such as cooperation in the area of merchandise trade, trade in services, geopolitical engagement, etc. Saksena (1986) has discussed multiple aspects of development cooperation between India and ASEAN. This paper makes an attempt to highlight status and prospects of Indo-ASEAN cooperation in tourism sector. Some of the important areas, as identified by Saksena (1986), are cooperation in the area of physical connectivity and integration of both the markets for trade investment. India's outreach to ASEAN touched new heights when India launched its Look-East Policy (Garare and Mattoo, 2001 & Joseph, 2009). Yong and Mum (2009) also discussed evolution of India's engagement with ASEAN over time and dealt with several aspects of economic and political cooperation. Joseph (2009) extending the debate of Indo-ASEAN cooperation from trade and geopolitics to agricultural sector, examined that the impact of Free Trade Agreements (FTA) between India and ASEAN on plantation sector. Such debate further opened other domains to discuss Indo-ASEAN cooperation in several areas.

Tourism was one of the important areas identified for cooperation between India and ASEAN, immediately after India became sectoral dialogue partner in 1992. India-ASEAN cooperation is also discussed in detail by Sen. et. al (2004). This paper



argues that there are several sectors in which both India and ASEAN countries require to see their future cooperation and exploit the opportunities therein. Tourism is one such sector. There are limited studies undertaken in the areas of tourism cooperation between India and ASEAN. Chirathivat (1996) presented tourism sector as an important area for cooperation between ASEAN and India.

The paper also discusses possibilities of attracting tourists from Southeast Asian countries to India through the development of religious tourism particularly Buddhist Circuit. A substantial literature is available on religious and cultural tourism in Indian context. However, majority of religious tourism is originated from Europe (Shinde, 2010). In the context of religious tourism, Oslen and Timothy (2006) present a detailed analysis of tourism vs religious pilgrimage and the travel patterns of religious tourism. In addition, the paper also highlights the negative outcomes of religious tourism. On the other hand, Bywater (1994) discussed the possible positive outcomes of religious tourism in terms of its overall economic impact. Heritage and religious tourism in India remains an important area of discussion in literature. For example, Kaur (1985) presents a detailed discussion on religious tourism in Himalayan region. Religious and Heritage tourism are much discussed by Bandyopadhyay et. al (2008) with different perspective. The paper covered the media coverage of religious and heritage tourism in India and found that India is successfully represented an ethnically diverse set of destinations for religious and heritage tourism. There are many literatures available on tourism sector in India, covering medical tourism and relationship between tourism and economic growth (Mishra, et. al, 2011; Gupta, 2008, Crooks, et. al, 2011).

Bashir and Gupta (2017) discussed the

tourists engagements with heritage tourism particularly tourists engaging in craft tour with particular reference to tourists construct with experiential elements. The study examines blogs by tourists and found that tourists like to create memorable tourists experience through enlisting myths and stories associated with particular craft products. The study is limited to the area of Jammu and Kashmir. Sharma (2017) discussed the determinants of Heritage tourism in India's Himalayan State of Himachal Pradesh. The study finds that majority of tourists with their families travel to those places for holiday purpose where their friends had already been to. One of the important finding of the paper is that visiting spiritual places is one of the main motivations for visiting Himachal Pradesh. Therefore, spiritual place is one of the key determinants of heritage tourism in Himachal Pradesh. Religious tourism needs preparedness from the supply side in order to eliminate risks involved in travelling. This issue is discussed by Khanna & Khajuria (2015). This paper brings out perceptions of tourists regarding their apprehensions of safety during travel to Vaishno Devi. This research is based on primary data collected from tourists. It was found that majority of tourists are concerned with natural disasters during their travel to Vaishno Devi. Such preparedness is also required for Buddhist tourism in India. Agarwal et. al (2010) highlights that Buddhist tourism places potential to attract more tourists subject to the conditions of improved infrastructure and safety scenario.

#### **Research Methodology**

The paper's methodology is based on two important case studies viz. 1) Status and prospects of Indo-ASEAN cooperation in tourism sector and 2) Status of development of Buddhist circuit as an attraction factor for tourists from ASEAN member countries. The progress of cooperation

between India and ASEAN and the status and role of tourism sector in the economies of both India and ASEAN are discussed in the first case study. It presents progress made by Indian government in improving Buddhist circuit in the second case study. It also identifies the challenges in making these circuits as attractive and global tourist destinations. A case study method is referred to as consisting of an event, an entity, an individual or a unit analysis (Noor, 2008). This approach is also adopted to analyse tourism sector as well (see for example Morrison & Johns, 2004 and Tikkanen, 2007). Adopting multiple case designs, Yin (1989) gives descriptive analysis of two important cases and construes conclusion from the same.

The present research is based on secondary data collected from the Ministry of Tourism, Government of India. For the purpose to understand future planning in tourism sector, data were collected from annual reports on tourism published by the Ministry of Tourism, Government of India. Data were collected through online portal of the respective Ministries. No field study was taken up for the study.

### **Buddhism**

With over 520 million followers, Buddhism is the world's fourth-largest religion. More than 7% of the global populations are Buddhists. Originated in India and founded by Siddhartha Gautama, Buddhists seek to reach a state of nirvana following the path of the Lord Buddha. Having no concept of a personal god, Buddhists believe that nothing is permanent.

With diverse traditions, beliefs and spiritual practices, Buddhism is largely based on original teachings of Lord Buddha. The basic doctrines, common to all Buddhists, include the four noble truths-- existence is suffering (dukkha); suffering has a cause, namely craving and attachment (trishna); there is a cessation of suffering, which is nirvana; and there is a path to the cessation

of suffering-- the eightfold path.

Buddhism's spiritual development ultimately culminates in Enlightenment. An enlightened follower sees the nature of reality in absolute clarity. This is the goal of the Buddhist spiritual life representing the end of suffering for anyone who attains it.

### **Spread of Buddhism**

Emperor Asoka of the Mauryan Empire significantly strengthened Buddhism. He sent Buddhist missionaries as far as to Syria. Starting with Sri Lanka being converted into Buddhism in the third century BC, Tibet embraced Buddhism in the 7th century and countries of South East Asia in the first five centuries AD. While Buddhism entered China along trade routes from central Asia commencing a four-century period of gradual assimilation. However, in the following centuries, the Hindu revival, the invasions of the Huns in 6<sup>th</sup> century and the Muslims in 11<sup>th</sup> century were significant factors behind the virtual extinction of Buddhism from the land of its birth in India

### **Status of Tourism in India and ASEAN**

India and ASEAN agreed upon a plan of action 2016-2020 as adopted in 2015 to implement the ASEAN-India partnership agreement (ASEAN, 2015). The plan of action in tourism sector outlines the following:

- Support continued consultations between ASEAN and India to promote tourism cooperation, such as in the areas of joint marketing and promotion, seminars, workshops, meetings, sharing tourism best practices and resources including human resource development, practicing sustainable and responsible tourism, tourism information exchange, crisis communications, tourism investment, joint promotion in the areas of niche markets and promotion of tourism standards activities;
- Encourage the private sector

participation from ASEAN and India in the annual ASEAN Tourism Forum (ATF), ASEAN Travex, professional international travel marts held in ASEAN Member States and India in order to create more opportunities for joint promotion of integrated tourism markets and joint investment;

- Strengthen ASEAN-India capacity building programme in the tourism sector, including language courses for tourism stakeholders.

The performance of India and ASEAN countries on the index of travel and tourist competitiveness is outlined in table 1.

**Table 1 (i): Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index, 2017**

Countries	Global Rank	Rank on specific indicators						
		International Openness	Price Competitiveness	Prioritization of Travel & Tourism	ICT Readiness	Human Resources and Labour Market	Health and Hygiene	Safety and Security
India	40	55	10	10	112	87	104	114
Brunei	-							
Cambodia	101	58	51	29	101	110	109	88
Indonesia	42	17	5	12	91	64	108	91
Lao PDR	94	71	14	54	115	65	106	66
Malaysia	26	35	3	55	39	22	77	41
Myanmar								
Philippines	79	60	22	53	86	50	92	126
Singapore	13	1	91	2	14	5	62	6
Thailand	34	52	18	34	58	40	90	118
Viet Nam	67	73	35	101	80	37	82	57

Source: Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report, 2017, World Economic Forum, accessed in May, 2019

**Table 1 (ii): Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index, 2017**

Countries	Global Rank	Rank on specific indicators					
		Environmental sustainability	Air transport infrastructure	Ground and port infrastructure	Tourist service infrastructure	Natural resources	Cultural resources and business travel
India	40	134	32	29	110	24	9
Brunei	-						
Cambodia	101	130	96	108	102	62	76
Indonesia	42	131	36	69	96	14	23
Lao PDR	94	98	97	111	86	71	107
Malaysia	26	123	21	34	46	28	34
Myanmar							
Philippines	79	118	65	107	87	37	60
Singapore	13	51	6	2	24	103	28
Thailand	34	18	122	20	72	16	7
Viet Nam	67	129	61	71	113	34	30

Source: Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report, 2017, World Economic Forum, accessed in May, 2019

As per the latest report of World Economic Forum (WEF) on travel and tourism competitiveness index published in 2017, Singapore has the highest level of tourist friendly indicators in Southeast Asia and Cambodia has the worst level of tourist related indicators. The table 1 clearly shows that these countries have different levels of tourist related facilities and policies. For instance, Malaysia is highly competitive on account of prices for tourists whereas Singapore is less competitiveness on prices. On other indices like ICT facilities, health, hygiene and tourists related services, countries in Southeast Asia have varied performance. Similar is the case with India. These are important areas where India and ASEAN can cooperate and improve their competitiveness through sharing their respective best practices. These countries have rich natural resources as well as strong cultural linkages which can be further strengthened by attracting people's participation across borders through sharing information. This needs ICT technology to be connected between India and ASEAN countries. There exists gaps in ICT readiness and tourist related services between India and ASEAN. Notably, India is extensively following digitization at national level. However, India is ranked 112nd in ICT readiness indicating that there are much more to learn from best practices of Singapore and Malaysia which have good ranking on ICT readiness.

Tourism has emerged as one of the important sectors in India and ASEAN countries. Tourism contributes to economic development of an economy through three specific mechanisms i.e. a) generation of income or contributing to national income, b) creating employment opportunities and c) increasing foreign exchange earnings. Table 2 presents total contribution of travel and tourism sector in GDP in India and ASEAN countries. As evident from table 2, the tourism sector's contribution to India's GDP varies from 9 to 10% during 2005-2016. In 2016, tourism's total contribution to GDP was estimated to be 9.5%, which is a significant contribution. The statistics for ASEAN countries is very interesting. On the one hand, the tourism sector's contribution to GDP in Cambodia increased from 24.6% in 2005 to 32% in 2016 showing an increasing trend. With countries like Lao PDR, Malaysia, Indonesia and Vietnam, the growth rate seems stable. Tourism's contribution to GDP in Lao PDR in 2005 was 13.6% which hover around 14% during 2005- 2016. Indonesia remains same, accounting for nearly 6% share of tourism and travel sector in GDP during the same period. For Malaysia, the share varied from 13 to 14% during 2005-2016, whereas for Vietnam, tourism sector's contribution to GDP was estimated to be 10% in 2005 which decreased to 7.5% in 2016. Increasing trend is visible in the case of countries like Thailand, Philippines and Singapore.

**Table 2: Total Contribution of Travel and Tourism to GDP (in %)**

Country Name	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
India	9.9	9.6	10.1	10.0	9.6	9.2	9.2	9.2	9.2	9.2	9.4	9.5
Brunei	7.3	6.4	7.0	6.9	8.4	7.2	6.8	7.0	7.4	7.6	8.5	8.6
Cambodia	24.6	24.9	24.1	22.7	24.4	27.3	30.6	32.8	32.5	33.3	32.9	31.8
Indonesia	6.2	5.7	5.8	6.2	6.2	5.8	5.7	5.6	5.5	5.8	5.8	5.7
Lao PDR	13.6	11.5	12.7	13.1	13.7	13.9	13.4	13.0	14.2	13.0	14.0	13.8
Myanmar	4.9	3.7	3.9	3.7	3.2	2.4	2.6	4.2	4.2	5.5	7.1	6.9
Malaysia	13.1	13.7	16.4	12.7	13.3	13.1	12.8	12.9	13.7	14.2	13.4	13.8
Philippines	12.5	13.2	14.9	10.4	10.9	11.9	14.0	14.5	15.0	16.6	19.4	20.8
Singapore	8.9	8.3	9.1	8.8	8.8	9.8	9.8	10.2	9.7	9.8	9.6	10.2
Thailand	15.9	16.8	17.7	17.0	15.9	14.0	15.2	16.4	18.3	17.6	19.8	20.8
Viet Nam	10.7	12.9	9.8	11.6	9.2	10.0	9.5	9.7	9.3	9.1	9.2	9.2

Source: World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), data accessed in April, 2019

It is evident that tourism sector is among the top 10 sectors of the economy contributing in more than one ways in India. It has been generating employment, revenues and creating more opportunities within the sector. Apart from heritage and cultural tourism, medical tourism in India is now another emerging sub-field in tourism and travel sector. The sector is creating new avenues for employment as well. The same is also true for countries in ASEAN. Countries like Thailand, Cambodia and Philippines are generating major chunk of revenues out of this sector. Share of tourism sector in generating employment, Cambodia indicates that more than 29% of its total employed population are working in tourism and travel sector in 2016 (Table 3). In India, the sector contributes around 8% of total employment in 2016. Table 3 presents the same statistics for other countries in ASEAN.

It can be inferred from both table 2 and

table 3 that contribution of travel and tourism sector to GDP and employment is more or less in the same proportion. It suggests that to increase employment opportunities in tourism sector, it is essential that sector's contribution to GDP should also increase so as to create new opportunities for employment. In 2016, contribution of this sector in employment in Philippines was 19%. The same was 15% in Thailand in 2016 and 12% in Lao PDR. In Vietnam, travel and tourism sector's contribution to employment has decreased overtime in the same way as the contribution to GDP decreased. Table 3 indicates that in Vietnam the contribution of the sector in employment was about 10% in 2005 which decreased to 7.5% in 2016. However, the number of tourist's arrival is increasing in Vietnam. Table 4 suggests a regular increase in international tourist's arrival in Vietnam from 3.5 million in 2005 to 10 million in 2016.

**Table 3: Contribution of Travel and Tourism to Country's Total Employment (in %)**

Country Name	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
India	9.4	9.4	10.3	8.5	8.0	7.8	7.9	7.9	7.9	7.9	7.9	8.0
Brunei	8.4	7.5	8.1	8.0	9.7	8.2	7.6	7.8	8.1	8.2	9.1	9.0
Cambodia	21.3	21.4	20.6	19.6	20.8	23.0	26.1	28.9	29.1	29.7	29.6	29.2
Indonesia	9.0	8.3	8.6	9.1	9.0	8.6	8.3	8.3	8.3	9.0	9.7	9.8
Lao PDR	11.6	10.3	11.5	11.8	12.4	13.0	12.5	11.9	12.8	11.8	12.2	12.0
Myanmar	4.1	3.0	3.3	3.3	3.0	2.4	3.0	4.5	4.4	5.7	6.0	5.8
Malaysia	11.5	11.9	14.7	11.3	12.1	11.8	11.1	11.2	12.0	12.1	11.8	12.1
Philippines	10.5	11.0	12.4	8.6	9.0	10.2	12.3	13.0	13.4	15.1	17.9	19.1
Singapore	7.3	6.7	7.5	7.0	6.9	7.8	8.4	8.8	8.6	8.5	8.5	8.6
Thailand	13.0	14.0	13.9	14.2	13.5	11.5	11.3	13.1	14.9	12.9	14.6	15.3
Viet Nam	9.9	12.0	9.2	10.7	8.3	9.1	7.8	8.0	7.7	7.6	7.5	7.5

Source: World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), data accessed in April, 2019

As indicated in the table 4, almost all the countries in ASEAN have experienced increase in international tourist arrival. As per the table, India attracted 3.9 million international tourists in 2005 which rose to 14.6 million in 2016, almost four-fold increase in a decade at compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of about 13% during 2005-2016. In Brunei, tourist's arrival increased by nearly two-fold at the CAGR of 5% during the same time period. In ASEAN countries, tourist's arrival has

increased at more than 15% of CAGR in Lao PDR and more than 14% of CAGR in Myanmar during 2005-2016 with about five fold increases in tourist's arrival in both the countries. Tourist's arrival in Cambodia increased nearly four-fold from 1.4 million in 2005 to 5 million in 2016 at CAGR of 12%. Tourist's arrival in countries like Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore and Thailand also increased at CAGR of 8%, 4.5%, 8%, 5.6% and 10% respectively during the same time period (table 4).

**Table 4: Trend of International Tourist Arrivals from 2005-2016(in million)**

Country Name	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
India	3.9	4.4	5.1	5.3	5.2	5.8	6.3	6.6	7.0	13.1	13.3	14.6
Brunei	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Cambodia	1.4	1.7	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.5	2.9	3.6	4.2	4.5	4.8	5.0
Indonesia	5.0	4.9	5.5	6.2	6.3	7.0	7.7	8.0	8.8	9.4	10.4	11.5
Lao PDR	0.7	0.8	1.1	1.3	1.2	1.7	1.9	2.3	2.7	3.2	3.5	3.3
Myanmar	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.1	2.0	3.1	4.7	2.9
Malaysia	16.4	17.5	21.0	22.1	23.6	24.6	24.7	25.0	25.7	27.4	25.7	26.8
Philippines	2.6	2.8	3.1	3.1	3.0	3.5	3.9	4.3	4.7	4.8	5.4	6.0
Singapore	7.1	7.6	8.0	7.8	7.5	9.2	10.4	11.1	11.9	11.9	12.1	12.9
Thailand	11.6	13.8	14.5	14.6	14.2	15.9	19.2	22.4	26.5	24.8	29.9	32.5
Vietnam	3.5	3.6	4.2	4.2	3.7	5.1	6.0	6.8	7.6	7.9	7.9	10.0

Source: Open Database, World Bank, accessed in March, 2019

Bilateral tourists' arrivals and departures between India and ASEAN countries are important factor which provide an ambit for strengthening cooperation between India and ASEAN in tourism sector. With above analysis of the increasing trend of tourist arrivals in India and ASEAN countries there is wide range of cooperation. Bilateral trend of tourists' arrivals from ASEAN to India indicates that majority of tourists are coming from Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. As per the statistics from the Ministry of Tourism, Government of India, almost 40% of total tourists arrived from Southeast Asia was from Malaysia in 2016. The share of Malaysia in 2005 was 40% which remained more or less same during 2005-2016. India receives the second

highest tourists in numbers from Singapore among Southeast Asian countries. Singapore accounts for 22% of total tourist arrived from Southeast Asia to India. The share of Singapore has decreased from 28% in 2005 to 24% in 2010 and 22% in 2015, yet accounting for the second highest share. Third important source of tourists to India among Southeast Asia is Thailand with its share of almost 17% during 2005-2016 (table 5). The table below indicates that tourist arrivals from countries like Brunei, Cambodia and Lao PDR are not reported in the reports of the respective governments. As per the table 5, countries like Indonesia, Myanmar, Philippines and Vietnam accounted for 5%, 7%, 7% and 2% respectively in 2016.

**Table 5: India's Tourist Arrivals from ASEAN Countries (in thousands)**

Country Name	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Brunei	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cambodia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Indonesia	13	17	18	20	20	26	33	30	34	32	35	35
Lao PDR	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Myanmar	6	8	8	12	13	15	25	31	35	55	55	51
Malaysia	96	107	113	116	135	179	208	196	243	262	273	302
Philippines	11	16	16	17	22	25	31	33	42	43	48	53
Singapore	69	83	93	98	95	107	119	131	143	151	152	164
Thailand	42	47	50	58	67	77	92	105	117	121	116	120
Viet Nam	-	-	-	5	6	7	10	11	12	15	15	17
Total	241	282	303	333	360	439	522	541	630	686	700	746

Source: India Tourism Statistics, 2017, Ministry of Tourism, Government of India, accessed in March 2019

In order to better understand the current scenario of bilateral tourism relations between India and ASEAN countries, it is important to analyse the tourist departures from India to the member countries of ASEAN. Statistics suggests that India's tourist departures to Southeast Asia are higher than the tourists' arrivals from Southeast Asia (Ministry of Tourism, 2017). In 2015, total tourists arrived in India was around one million whereas tourists departed from India to Southeast Asia were more than 3 million indicating that 3 times more tourists from India departed to Southeast Asia nations. The

statistics of Vietnam is not reported by the Government of India. As per the available destinations in Southeast Asian countries, more than 60% of India's outbound tourists departed to Singapore and Thailand each with share of above 30% in total tourist departed from India to ASEAN in 2015. Malaysia is another favourite destination for Indians in Southeast Asia which accounted for 22% of India's outbound tourists in 2015 (Table 6). Indonesia accounted for 10% of this. Countries like Brunei, Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar and Philippines accounted for almost 6% altogether.

**Table 6: India's Tourist Departures to ASEAN Countries (in thousands)**

Country Name	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Brunei	-	-	3	4	3	5	5	5	6	6	6
Cambodia	7	9	11	12	12	14	15	19	24	29	37
Indonesia	58	94	123	155	157	159	182	197	231	267	320
Lao PDR	2	2	2	3	2	3	3	3	5	5	5
Myanmar	8	8	8	7	9	10	12	17	52	62	60
Malaysia	226	279	422	551	590	691	693	691	651	770	722
Philippines	21	23	27	31	33	35	43	46	52	61	75
Singapore	584	659	749	778	726	829	869	895	934	944	1014
Thailand	353	430	506	497	597	746	892	986	1028	906	1039
Total	1259	1504	1851	2038	2129	2492	2714	2859	2983	3050	3278

Source: India Tourism Statistics, 2017, Ministry of Tourism, Government of India, accessed in March 2019

### **Buddhist Circuit and Its Role in India-ASEAN Tourism Cooperation**

Buddhist circuit is an important tourism circuit identified for religious, heritage and cultural tourism in India. This circuit has vital role to play in cementing India's cultural linkages and economic cooperation with ASEAN countries. Like many other

countries, India has also been promoting international tourism as a major component of economic progress (OECD, 1967). Moreover, de Kadt (1979) argues that international tourism is the passport to development. Considering this, India's Buddhist circuit has potential to find a place in global tourism destination.

**Table 7: Key Sites under Buddhist Circuit**

Name of Indian States	Site
Bihar	Vaishali, Bodh Gaya, Nalanda, Rajgir
Uttar Pradesh	Sravasti; Kushinagar; Sarnath
Himachal Pradesh	Dhramshala, Lahul, Spiti and Tabo
Arunachal Pradesh	Twang Monastery

Source: Adopted from different sources and Ministry of Tourism, Government of India

India's Buddhist circuit includes all the important places related to Lord Buddha the founder of Buddhism. Buddhism is one of the major religions of the world and accounts for more than 7% of the world's population. Majority of ASEAN countries are Buddhist countries. Tourists from ASEAN countries are spiritually associated with the Buddhist Circuit in India. Therefore, the Buddhist Circuit is an important pilgrimage destination for 450 million practicing Buddhists across the world which include tourists from ASEAN countries. The Buddhist Circuit, thus, attracts tourists from 30 countries, including

countries from ASEAN, to India.

The development of Buddhist Circuit is not only important for strengthening international tourism and cementing India-ASEAN relations but also important for creating more jobs for Indians. India's Buddhist Circuit is attracting tourists from various countries. The number of tourist arrivals at different sites of the Buddhist Circuit is increasing (Geary, 2018). In fact, the compound annual growth in international tourist arrival at various sites of Buddhist Circuit is higher than that of domestic tourists' arrivals. Table 8 indicates this scenario.

**Table 8: Growth in Domestic and International Tourists during 2003-2014**

Sites	CAGR of Domestic Tourists	CAGR International Tourists
Bodh Gaya	21%	22%
Rajgir	18%	45%
Sarnath	5%	8%
Kushinagar	15%	21%
Vaishali	-1%	48%
Saravasti	8%	17%

Source: FHRAI Indian Hotel Industry Survey, HVS Research, 2015

The main sites along the Buddhist Circuit have several infrastructural constraints. In order to attract international tourists, aviation infrastructure as well as last mile connectivity is important to tourist sites. Bodh Gaya, Varanasi and Sarnath are well connected with airports within 15 kms of distances. However, other sites like Kushinagar, Kapilvastu, Vaishali and Saravasti have no direct air linkages rather Patna and Varanasi serve the connecting points. Similarly, a direct train linkage from New Delhi, the capital of India, also has limitations.

These sites have strong train and air linkages. However, sites like Kushinagar

and Saravasti have connectivity via other cities like Gorakhpur and Lucknow respectively. In addition to the present status of connectivity, Government of India, for attracting more tourists, is focusing on strengthening connectivity of Buddhist tourist circuit. Under Swadesh Darshan programme, the Government of India has proposed development and strengthening of several religious circuits including Buddhist Circuit. The Government, under the Scheme of Swadesh Darshan, aims at developing Buddhist sites in several states from Southern states of India to Northeastern states. The table below highlights the proposed developmental projects under the scheme for Buddhist Circuit.

**Table 9: State-wise Proposals to Develop Buddhist Destinations and Related Costs**

Name of State	Name of Destinations	Name of Project	Cost (Rs. In Lakh)
Uttar Pradesh	Saravasti- Kushinagar-Kapilvastu	Buddhist Circuit	9997
Bihar	Bodh Gaya	Convention Centre in Bodh Gaya	9873

Source: Ministry of Tourism, Government of India, available on Ministry of Tourism Website, Accessed in March, 2019



As per the statistics from the Ministry of Tourism, some 70 projects were sanctioned during 2015-2018 having total cost of Rs. 5772.41 crores across the country. Two projects are proposed in Uttar Pradesh and Bihar with total cost of 19870 lakhs. Moreover, Government of India also, in principle, approved Buddhist Circuits with a proposal to develop them with the participation of the private sector.

The following are the circuits among identified circuits by the government;

**Circuit 1: The Dharmayatra or the Sacred Circuit**

This will be a five to seven days circuit and will include visits to Gaya (Bodhgaya), Varanasi (Sarnath), Kushinagar, Piparva (Kapilvastu) with a day trip to Lumbini in Nepal.

**Circuit 2: Extended Dharmayatra or Extended Sacred Circuit or Retracing Buddha's Footsteps**

This will be 10 to 15 day circuit and will include visits to Bodhgaya (Nalanda, Rajgir, Barabar caves, Pragbodhi Hill, Gaya), Patna (Vaishali, LauriyaNandangarh, LauriyaAreraj, Kesariya, Patna Museum), Varanasi (Sarnath), Kushinagar, Piparva (Kapilvastu, Saravasti, Sankisa) with a day trip to Lumbini in Nepal.

The Government has also proposed route plan for overall development of Buddhist Circuit. Major sites of the Buddhist Circuit which include Sarnath, Kushinagar, Kapilvastu, SaravastiSankisa, and Kaushambi are well connected with road and rail from major cities having air transport facilities. Expedient Rail connections to Buddhist sites are available from Varanasi to Sarnath and from Deoria and Gorakhpur to Kushinagar in Uttar Pradesh. Similarly, Saravasti is connected with railways from Balrampur and Kaushambi is well connected with Allahabad by both railways and road. Buddhist Circuit is well connected with a good network of roads.

Considering the historical linkages with Southeast Asian countries, these tourist sites have potential to attract tourists from ASEAN countries. These locations are major tourist sites for Buddhist pilgrimage which will be developed and strengthened by the Government. Increasing connectivity and volume along a set of circuits or packaged itineraries helps to provide 'quality-control' measures, managerial ownership and profit appropriation for the state government and invested agencies through a closed loop of economic activity.

**Map 2: Buddhist Tourist Places in India**



Source: Author

## DISCUSSION

These two cases highlight two distinct but related aspects of India's quest for attracting tourists from Southeast Asia. The first one is arrangement of India's cooperation with ASEAN countries in the tourism sector. Since India is culturally and historically associated with ASEAN countries, both India and ASEAN are striving to get benefit of such historical linkages. It is evident from the case one that India is actively engaged with ASEAN countries particularly in tourism sector. A huge potential is also evident from the statistics of tourist movement from India and ASEAN countries.

Total tourists from ASEAN countries to India, during 2005-2016, increased from 2.41 lakhs in 2005 to 7.46 lakhs in 2016. This is more than three-fold increase in the tourist arrivals in India from ASEAN during the period. On the other hand, during the same period, tourists from India to ASEAN increased from 12.6 lakhs in 2005 to 32.8 lakhs in 2016.

Tourism is service sector in which cooperation needs service sector agreement between India and ASEAN. Service sector linkages provide impetus to tours and travel from one country to another. However, such agreement is still to be materialized. Apart from services agreement in this area, there is a huge challenge of transport connectivity between India and ASEAN countries. In fact, there are limited direct flights between India and all other ASEAN countries. Moreover, there is a need for linking other financial services providing support to business in tourism sector like banking sector connectivity, land transport facilitation and liberalizing visa regimes.

While Buddhist circuit indicates that tourists from these countries can be attracted if better services are provided and transport linkages are in place. Government of India is planning to develop the Buddhist Circuit across the country to attract tourists

from all over the world. Development plans of Buddhist circuit are likely to address challenges relating to transport connectivity linking places of historical importance of Buddhist religion. However, financing constraint remains a big challenge for materializing such projects. Case two brings out details of discussion on proposals to develop Buddhist circuit. Such proposals can be financed through different modes of financing like financing from private sector and also from multilateral agencies like the World Bank. It is important to strengthen the private sector participation for the success of such plans. Participation of private sector in both building up projects along Buddhist circuit and also operating the same will bring in operational efficiency and therefore, more tourists can be attracted.

India-ASEAN cooperation in this area will be strengthened if investment from ASEAN countries is attracted to India's Buddhist heritage. Both India and ASEAN require adopting strategies for materializing service and investment related cooperation with specific focus on tourism sector. One of the important areas of cooperation is to get advantage of services sector agreement. As we know India and ASEAN have already signed agreement on liberalizing their services sector trade through giving preferential treatment to each other. Tourism falls under services sector trade. Travel and tourism can be boosted by inter-country linkages of transport through rail, road and air. Direct linkages of transport with Southeast Asian countries will attract more tourists from Southeast Asia. In fact, Tourists from Southeast Asian countries increased in recent years particularly after expeditious cooperation in tourism sector. In fact, tourist's arrival from Southeast Asian countries to India increased at a CAGR of 8% during 2012-2016. Tourists' arrival from Southeast Asian countries to India and tourists departure

from India to Southeast Asian countries has potential to strengthen people to people connectivity having both economic and other impacts. India has been strategically engaged with ASEAN as a grouping as well as its member countries in individual capacity. Tourism sector can be useful ground for Indo-ASEAN economic and strategic relationships.

### **CONCLUSION**

India's relations with ASEAN countries are both political and economic in nature. In fact, India and ASEAN countries share a long history of shared culture and civilization. As a result, India has been a spiritual destination for people of Southeast Asia. Therefore, tourism, particularly spiritual tourism, is one of the important areas of cooperation. However, there are several issues and challenges that India faces in attracting tourists from ASEAN countries. The most important aspect is seamless and hassle free process of travel between ASEAN countries and India. On most occasions Tourists from Southeast Asia travel from bothland and air modes of transport. However, ominously, there exist many barriers in facilitating seamless transportation.

Both, India and ASEAN, can utilize their long and shared history in strengthening the tourism sector. India's protracted relationship with ASEAN and its cultural affinity with its member countries created favour for India in terms of economic benefit out of cooperation in services sector which also include cooperation in tourism sector. India's cooperation with ASEAN in tourism sector remains an important and driving force for attracting tourists from ASEAN to India. India and ASEAN tourism got a boost with signing of MoU for tourism cooperation in 2012. India and ASEAN held meeting of tourism Ministers in order to materialize the objective of cooperation module agreed between India and ASEAN. The latest meeting held under

this arrangement was the 6<sup>th</sup> ASEAN-India Tourism Ministers' meeting held in January 2018 in Thailand.

Apart from improving bilateral engagement between India and ASEAN owing to tourism and travel cooperation, India needs to think out of box to attract more tourists and efforts have been undertaken by the Government in this regard. However, as per World Economic Forum, India ranked 40<sup>th</sup> at global tourism and travel index (WEF, 2017). It is important to emphasize here that WEF (2017) identified India as one of the upcoming hot spot for global tourism market. However, when it comes to utilise its full potential, India lags behind many countries in the world despite the fact that it has wonderful tourist destinations from natural to cultural and built heritage sites-be it mighty Himalayas, beaches, wildlife, spirituality and world heritage sites.

According to WEF, there are several indicators of tourism competitiveness viz. International Openness of the sector, Price Competitiveness, Prioritisation of Travel and Tourism, ICT Readiness, Human Resource and Labour Market, Health and Hygiene, Safety and Security, Environmental Sustainability, Air Transport, Ground and Port Infrastructure, Tourist Services, Natural Resources and Cultural and Business Travel.

These indicators are important areas in which both India and ASEAN can extend mutual cooperation. Most importantly, countries like Singapore, Thailand and Malaysia and Indonesia are doing well on these identified indicators. Their best practices can be adopted through cooperation mechanism in the tourism sector.

Tourist attraction factors are both religious and non-religious. Tourist destinations and sites need world class

infrastructure to connect through all modes of transport. The scenario of the Buddhist Circuit is already discussed earlier in this paper indicating connectivity of some places with international airports and daily train network. Tourists need better facilities of accommodation and transportation. Government can ensure better transport infrastructure. However, other transport services are mainly operated by private players. Government, therefore, must necessitate promoting better transport services in collaboration with private players so that tourists can be attracted.

What is understandable is that transport connectivity and other infrastructure to Buddhist circuits are not in good condition. Government can provide special facilities to tourists by facilitating special trains and special travel arrangements on large scales. Tourists are being attracted with overall package provided by tour service providers. In such a fast changing and competitive markets, India must take initiatives to strengthen cooperation by inviting private sector participation in this sector. Private players from ASEAN countries and tourist service provider from India can work together to provide attractive and viable

packages for tourist destinations. There is a need for strengthening service sector agreement between India and ASEAN countries particularly between India and Myanmar.

Thus, the Government of India must realize the incredible potential of tourism and travel sector. The time has arrived for a comprehensive draft on National Tourism Policy in order to design operational modalities for the players in the sector with the objective to promote the sector. In fact, the government is working on such policy. The government is focusing on several projects aimed at attracting tourists from the World, yet some of the important steps, as the practical solutions for attracting more international tourists, are following;

- Reviewing the tax structure on hotels and restructure them to make hotel industry competitive.
- Promotion of private sector participation in the sector and limited public sector operation.
- Promotion of heritage sites as packaged tourist destinations and providing incentives to tour operators operating in spiritual and religious circuits for international tourists.

## REFERENCES

- Agrawal, M., Choudhary, H., & Tripathi, G. (2010). Enhancing Buddhist tourism in India: an exploratory study. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 2(5), 477-493.
- ASEAN (2013), Statement of the fourth meeting of ASEAN-India Tourism Ministers, available at <http://asean.org/fourth-meeting-of-asean-india-tourism-ministers-4th-m-atmindia/>
- World economic Forum (2017), South-East Asia most tourism friendly destinations, <https://www.wforum.org/agenda/2017/04/south-east-asia-s-most-tourism-friendly-destinations>
- ASEAN (2015), India-ASEAN Plan of Action, 2016-2020, available at [http://asean.org/storage/images/2015/August/POA\\_India/ASEAN-India%20POA%20-%20FINAL.pdf](http://asean.org/storage/images/2015/August/POA_India/ASEAN-India%20POA%20-%20FINAL.pdf)
- Bandyopadhyay, R., Morais, D. B., & Chick, G. (2008). Religion and identity in India's heritage tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(3), 790-808.
- Bashir, A., & Gupta, B. (2017). Intangible cultural heritage and experiential tourism: A Netnographic Analysis of tourists engaging in craft based tours in Jammu and Kashmir. *Journal of Tourism*, 18(2), 1.
- Bywater, M. (1994). Religious travel in Europe. *Travel & Tourism Analyst*, 2, 39-52.
- Chirathivat, S. (1996). ASEAN-India cooperation in trade and tourism: Trends and prospects. *Journal of Asian Economics*, 7(4), 743-757.
- Crooks, V. A., Turner, L., Snyder, J., Johnston, R., & Kingsbury, P. (2011). Promoting medical tourism to India: Messages, images, and the marketing of international patient travel. *Social Science & Medicine*, 72(5), 726-732.
- deKadt, E.J. (1979), *Tourism, Passport to Development?*, Oxford University Press, Oxford.

- Grare, F., & Mattoo, A. (Eds.). (2001). *India and ASEAN: the politics of India's look east policy* (Vol. 1). Manohar.
- Geary, D. (2018). India's Buddhist circuit (s): A growing investment market for a "rising" Asia. *International Journal of Religious Tourism and Pilgrimage*, 6(1), 6.
- Gupta, A. S. (2008). Medical tourism in India: winners and losers. *Indian Journal of Medical Ethics*, 5(1), 4-5.
- Jensen, C., & Zhang, J. (2013). Trade in tourism services: Explaining tourism trade and the impact of the general agreement on trade in services on the gains from trade. *The Journal of International Trade & Economic Development*, 22(3), 398-429.
- Joseph, K. J. (2009). ASEAN-India pact and plantations: Realities of the myths. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 14-18.
- Karmakar, S. (2005). *India-ASEAN Cooperation in Services: An Overview* (No. 176). Working paper. Indian Council for Research on International Economic Relations (ICRIER), New Delhi.
- Kaur, J. (1985). *Himalayan pilgrimages and the new tourism*. Himalayan Books.
- Khanna S. & S. Khajuria (2015), Travel Risk and Preparedness of Disaster Management Task Force at Shri Mata Vaishno Devi Shrine: A Pilgrim's Perspective, *Journal of Tourism*, 15(2), 93
- Mishra, P. K., Rout, H. B., & Mohapatra, S. S. (2011). Causality between tourism and economic growth: Empirical evidence from India. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 18(4), 518-527.
- Morrison, A., Lynch, P., & Johns, N. (2004). International tourism networks. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 16(3), 197-202.
- MEA (2002), Joint Statement of the First ASEAN-India Summit Phnom Penh, Kingdom of Cambodia, November, 2002 available at <http://www.mea.gov.in/bilateral-documents.htm?dt1/9334/Joint+Statement+of+the+First+ASEANIndia+Summit+Phnom+Penh+Kingdom+of+Cambodia>
- Ministry of Tourism (2017), India Tourism Statistics, 2017
- MEA (2017), [https://www.mea.gov.in/Portal/ForeignRelation/ASEAN\\_India\\_August\\_2017.pdf](https://www.mea.gov.in/Portal/ForeignRelation/ASEAN_India_August_2017.pdf)
- Noor, K. B. M. (2008). Case study: A strategic research methodology. *American journal of applied sciences*, 5(11), 1602-1604.
- OECD (1967), Tourism Development and Economic Growth, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, Paris.
- Olsen, D. H., & Timothy, D. J. (2006). Tourism and religious journeys. *Tourism, religion and spiritual journeys*, 4, 1-21.
- Saksena, K. P. (1986). *Cooperation in development: problems and prospects for India and ASEAN*. Sage Publications, New Delhi.
- Sen, R., Asher, M. G., & Rajan, R. S. (2004). ASEAN-India economic relations: current status and future prospects. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 3297-3308.
- Sharma, A. (2017). Heritage Tourism and Its Determinants in Himachal Pradesh. *Journal of Tourism*, 18(1), 47.
- Shinde, K. A. (2010). Entrepreneurship and indigenous entrepreneurs in religious tourism in India. *International journal of tourism research*, 12(5), 523-535.
- Scott, D. (2007). Strategic imperatives of India as an emerging player in Pacific Asia. *International Studies*, 44(2), 123-140.
- Tikkanen, I. (2007). Maslow's hierarchy and food tourism in Finland: five cases. *British food journal*, 109(9), 721-734.
- World Economic Forum (2017), The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report, available at the website of World Economic Forum.
- Yin, R.K. (1989), Case Study Research. Design and Methods, Applied Social Research Methods Series, Vol. 5, Sage Publications, Englewood Cliffs, NJ
- Yong, T. T., & Mum, S. C. (2009). The Evolution of India ASEAN Relations. *India Review*, 8(1),

### About the Author

Sarfaraz Nasir is a media professional. He was associated with Jamia Millia Islamia University, New Delhi as a faculty to teach both undergraduate and post graduate classes and his area of specialization is Interregional Tourism and Medial Management. [nasirjung@gmail.com](mailto:nasirjung@gmail.com)

# JOURNAL OF TOURISM

An International Research Journal in Travel and Tourism

## SUBSCRIPTION ORDER FORM

Institution       Individual

Name and Designation

Organization

Postal Address

Mobile No.

E-mail

Enclosed a Cashiers Cheque/DD number

date  for Rs./US\$  drawn on

Towards subscription for the Journal of Tourism for one year.

---

Signature and Seal:

Name

Date

Email: inquiries with regard to hard copy subscriptions may be made to  
jothnbgu@gmail.com



# Journal of Tourism

**Centre for Mountain Tourism and Hospitality Studies (CMTHS)**

HNB Garhwal University (A Central University)

Srinagar-Garhwal, Uttarakhand

Tel Fax-00-91-1370-267100

e-mail: [jothnbgu@gmail.com](mailto:jothnbgu@gmail.com)

website- [www.jothnbgu.in](http://www.jothnbgu.in)

*Visit Journal of Tourism online at [www.jothnbgu.in](http://www.jothnbgu.in)*