

# **Tourism for Local Community Development in Mountain Areas: Perspectives, Issues, and Guidelines**

Proceedings of the  
Hindu Kush-Himalayan Regional Workshop on  
Mountain Tourism for Local Community Development



Edited by  
*Pitamber Sharma*

Organised by  
**International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development**  
with support from  
**NORAD - Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation**

**June 19-21, 1995**  
**Kathmandu, Nepal**

Copyright © 1995

International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development

All rights reserved

Cover photograph: Background plate: Manslu Peak (Nepal, 8156m)  
Inset right: Lho Village (Nepal) with a veil of morning smoke - courtesy  
T.B. Shrestha  
Inset left: The Regional Workshop, June 1995

Published by

International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development  
G.P.O. Box 3226,  
Kathmandu, Nepal

ISBN 92-9115-435-0

Typesetting at ICIMOD Publications' Unit

The views and interpretations in this paper are those of the author(s). They are not attributable to the International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD) and do not imply the expression of any opinion concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries.

# Tourism for Local Community Development in Mountain Areas: Perspectives, Issues, and Guidelines

**Proceedings of the  
Hindu Kush-Himalayan Regional Workshop on  
Mountain Tourism for Local Community Development**

ed

Edited by  
Pitamber Sharma

Organised by  
**International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development**  
with support from  
**NORAD - Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation**

June 19-21, 1995  
Kathmandu, Nepal

# Contents

<b>Foreword</b>			
<b>Part 1: Introduction and Opening</b>	<b>1</b>		
<b>Background</b>	1		
<b>Workshop Objectives</b>	3		
<b>Workshop Participants and the Programme</b>	3		
<b>Opening Statements</b>	4		
<i>Welcome Address</i>	4		
<i>Inaugural Address</i>	5		
<i>Vote of Thanks</i>	6		
<b>Part 2: Workshop Proceedings</b>	<b>7</b>		
<b>A. Highlights of the Overview Studies</b>	<b>7</b>		
<i>India</i>	7		
<i>Discussion</i>	10		
<i>Nepal</i>	12		
<i>Discussion</i>	15		
<i>Pakistan</i>	16		
<i>Discussion</i>	19		
<b>B. Issues Emerging from Regional Studies</b>	<b>20</b>		
<b>C. Highlights of the Case Studies</b>	<b>22</b>		
<i>Case Studies from India</i>	22		
<i>Discussion</i>	26		
<i>Case Studies from Nepal</i>	27		
<i>Discussion</i>	31		
<i>Case Studies from Pakistan</i>	32		
<i>Discussion</i>	36		
<b>D. Mountain Tourism Policy Perspectives from the HKH Countries</b>	<b>37</b>		
		<i>Bangladesh</i>	37
		<i>Bhutan</i>	38
		<i>China</i>	40
		<i>India</i>	41
		<i>Myanmar</i>	43
		<i>Nepal</i>	44
		<i>Pakistan</i>	45
		<b>E. Mountain Tourism Perspectives from NGOs and the Private Sector</b>	<b>46</b>
		<i>India</i>	46
		<i>Nepal</i>	49
		<i>Pakistan</i>	53
		<b>Part 3: Guidelines for Sustainable Mountain Tourism</b>	<b>56</b>
		<b>Guidelines for Sustainable Mountain Tourism</b>	<b>57</b>
		<b>A. Broad Policy Guidelines regarding 'Carrying Capacity'; Income, and Employment; and Production Linkages</b>	<b>57</b>
		<i>Policy</i>	57
		<b>B. Guidelines for Linking Tourism with Local Community Development</b>	<b>60</b>
		<b>C. Guidelines for Establishing Monitoring Parameters for Assessing the Impacts of Mountain Tourism</b>	<b>63</b>
		<b>Annexes</b>	
		<b>Annex 1: Workshop Programme</b>	<b>69</b>
		<b>Annex 2: List of Participants</b>	<b>73</b>

# Foreword

**T**he Hindu Kush-Himalayas cover a region of immense natural beauty and a high level of cultural and biological diversity. It is also a region of deep-rooted poverty for its 120 million inhabitants, for whom the environment is rapidly deteriorating under the pressure of an increasing population and the consequently increasing demands on the natural resource systems. The search for sustainable livelihoods under these conditions has to build on the natural comparative advantages in such a way that, while promoting alternative, gainful income and employment opportunities, the issues of poverty, environmental degradation, and empowerment of local communities can be addressed simultaneously. In this task, mountain tourism provides an opportunity as well as a challenge. It is an area of significant concern in integrated mountain development.

In the Hindu Kush-Himalayan region, tourism is already a source of considerable income for the government as well as the private sector. The impacts and implications of tourism, for the fragile physical and social environment of the Hindu Kush-Himalayas and for the development of mountain communities, therefore, need to be assessed, so that strategies, policies, and programmes can be developed to make tourism an environmentally and economically sustainable sector in the mountains. The Mountain Tourism for Local Community Development Project was initiated to address these issues and develop guidelines for sustainable mountain tourism.

The International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD) was established with the objective of promoting the development of an economically and environmentally sound ecosystem and improving the living conditions of mountain communities. Therefore, mountain tourism is an area of priority attention for ICIMOD.

A Hindu Kush-Himalayan Regional Workshop was organised by ICIMOD to share the research findings of the project with a larger and relevant audience of policy-makers, researchers, programme managers, representatives of NGOs, and the private sector. The Workshop brought together participants from seven of ICIMOD's eight Regional Member Countries and was immensely successful in articulating the issues and concerns of mountain tourism.

On behalf of ICIMOD, I would like to express my sincere thanks to NORAD, the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation, for providing the financial support to undertake the studies and organise the Regional Workshop. I also express my sincere appreciation to our collaborating institutions from

India, Nepal, and Pakistan for joining hands with ICIMOD to undertake the studies, and to all the Workshop participants for their contributions to the deliberations.

On behalf of ICIMOD, Dr. Pitamber Sharma, coordinated the Project as well as the Workshop. This report was prepared by him with the help of Hubert Trapp, Sugandha Shrestha, Jeanette D. Gurung, and Sameer Karki, who acted as rapporteurs for different sessions of the Workshop.

Thanks are due to everyone involved in organising the Workshop and preparing this Report.

**Egbert Pelinck**  
**Director General**  
**ICIMOD**

# Part 1

## Introduction and Opening

### Background

**T**he demographic, economic, and environmental problems facing the Hindu Kush-Himalayas (HKH) call for the development of gainful employment and income opportunities, through the promotion of activities that are based on the unique comparative advantages of the region. Such activities should aid the diversification of the mountain economy and provide alternative livelihood opportunities for the enhancement of the living standards of the mountain populations, so that the issues of poverty and environmental degradation can be simultaneously addressed. This requires particular emphasis on the development of non-agricultural activities that are based on the comparative advantages afforded by the environment and resources of the mountains; the development of complementary and supporting physical and energy infrastructures; and the build-up of national and local capacities for diversification of the mountain economy. The Mountain Enterprises and Infrastructure Programme of ICIMOD looks at these issues.

The mountain ranges of the Hindu Kush-Himalayas (HKH) provide some

of the most diverse and contrasting landscapes on earth, with an inherent advantage for sightseeing, trekking, mountaineering, and various other adventure sports. The HKH is home to the highest mountain peaks on earth. Its scenic grandeur is matched, in equal measure, by the rich sociocultural traditions of the population.

Mountain Tourism (which includes all tourism activities for which mountains manifest a comparative advantage) is an area that has the potential for providing alternative, environmentally-friendly income and employment opportunities all across the HKH. In many areas of the HKH, tourism in different forms is emerging as an important activity. However, the promotion of tourism oriented towards the sustainable economic, social, and environmental development of local communities has to a large extent remained neglected.

It is in this context that, in December 1993, ICIMOD, with the support of NORAD, the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation, initiated a project to undertake a review and assessment of mountain tourism in selected regions of India, Nepal and Pakistan. The area-wise coverage

includes the Utar Pradesh (UP) hills and Himachal Pradesh (HP) in India; the Hill and Mountain Regions of Nepal; and the North-West Frontier Province and Northern Areas of Pakistan.

The general objective of the Project was to produce state-of-the-art reviews and create a database on mountain tourism and to investigate the most prominent and critical issues regarding the environmental and economic development of tourist areas and communities through location and area-specific case studies. The specific objectives were (i) to conduct state-of-the-art reviews and assess the impact and implications of mountain tourism; (ii) to assess, through case studies in specific tourist areas, the situation with respect to tourist 'carrying' capacities and explore different alternatives for mountain tourism; (iii) to identify possible mechanisms for integrating tourism with environmental development as well as local farm and off-farm production possibilities; and (iv) to assess and identify possible institutional and other mechanisms for strengthening the capability of the local people and communities to derive maximum employment and income benefits from mountain tourism. The specific purpose of the Project was to synthesise the experiences of mountain tourism from different areas of the Hindu Kush-Himalayas, so that action-oriented workplans and guidelines can be developed and follow-up action initiated for the promotion of sustainable tourism in the HKH.

The country studies were conceived in two phases. In the first phase, the current state of mountain tourism in selected areas in India, Nepal, and Pakistan was reviewed and analysed. These studies provide a comprehensive review of data, policies, and impacts and implications of mountain tourism in each context. The thrust of the analysis was to draw together the major economic, environmental, policy, and institutional issues with respect to mountain tourism and local community development. The Overview Studies were discussed, and the approach to the case studies was determined and consolidated in the First Review Meeting of the Project, held in Pokhara, Nepal, in August 1994.

In the second phase, two location and area-specific case studies were conducted in each country, to investigate, in-depth, the issues that were identified in the Overview Studies. The choice of the case study areas was determined largely by the nature, impact, and implications of tourism for the areas. Therefore, of the two areas chosen for the case studies in each case, one was a relatively old tourist area, and the other was a relatively new area in which the impacts and implications of mountain tourism were just beginning to emerge. The case studies assess the situation with respect to tourist 'carrying capacity'; explore the feasibility of different alternatives to mountain tourism on a sustainable basis; and assess and identify institutional mechanisms and

guidelines for integrating tourism with the overall economic and environmental development of local communities. The area-specific Case Studies cover the Badrinath circuit (including the Valley of Flowers, in the UP hills) and Kinnaur (HP) in India; Ghandruk (in the Annapurna Conservation Area Project) and Manaslu (Northern Gorkha) in Nepal; and the Hunza Valley (in the Northern Areas) and the Kalam Valley (in the North West Frontier Province) in Pakistan. The Case Studies were revised following the Second Review Meeting of the Project held in Kathmandu in March 1995.

The above activities were undertaken by ICIMOD in collaboration with national institutions of each country. A broad framework for the studies, including the guidelines and approaches for the overview analysis of mountain tourism, was prepared at ICIMOD and shared with collaborating institutions from India, Nepal, and Pakistan. The collaborating institutions for the country studies were the Centre for Resources and Environmental Studies (CREST), Kathmandu, for Nepal; TARU - The Action Research Unit, Dehradun, now the Academy for Mountain Environics, for India; and Development Research Group (DRG), Peshawar, for Pakistan.

The Hindu Kush-Himalayan Regional workshop was organised to present and discuss the findings of the above studies and to develop practical guidelines for the promotion of sustainable mountain tourism oriented

towards the economic and environmental development of local communities. The workshop intended to bring together and facilitate interaction among researchers, policy-makers, programme managers, NGOs, and the private sector.

### Workshop Objectives

- To present and share the research findings, as well as the country experiences from the Hindu Kush-Himalayas (HKH), among researchers, policy-makers, programme implementors, NGOs, and the private sector.
- To review and discuss the implications of the research findings for the promotion of sustainable mountain tourism for local community development in the HKH region.
- To develop practical, action-oriented operational guidelines and implementation options for the promotion of mountain tourism in the HKH region, including different follow-up actions that could be undertaken by the concerned agencies and ICIMOD.

### Workshop Participants and the Programme

A total of 45 participants, from outside of ICIMOD, participated in the Workshop, organised at Hotel Everest in Kathmandu from June 19 to 21, 1995. The Workshop was participated in by members of the Coun-

try Study Teams, tourism-related government policy-makers from seven of the eight Hindu Kush-Himalayan countries, researchers, NGOs, private sector individuals, and individuals representing major tourism sector projects and activities in countries in the HKH region. The Programme of the Workshop and the List of Participants appear in Annexes one and two.

The Workshop was inaugurated on June 19 by the Hon'ble State Minister for Tourism and Civil Aviation of His Majesty's Government of Nepal, Mr. Bhim Bahadur Rawal. After the opening session on the first day (June 19), overviews of the **Regional Studies on Tourism** were presented from India, Nepal, and Pakistan. Each country presentation was followed by a policy perspective and the position of the respective government, which was presented by a senior policy-maker from each country.

The second day (June 20) was devoted to the presentation of **Case Studies** from India, Nepal, and Pakistan. Each Case Study was complemented by perspectives on mountain tourism issues and approaches from the Non-governmental sector. Also, the policy experiences and perceptions of the other HKH Countries were presented and discussed.

The third, and final, day was devoted to the finalisation of the **Operational Guidelines** and **Monitoring Parameters for Mountain Tourism**.

## Opening Statements

### *Welcome Address*

Mr. Egbert Pelinck, Director General of ICIMOD, welcomed the participants by expressing satisfaction at the representation of seven of the eight ICIMOD Regional member countries in the Workshop. He noted that the HKH was a region of immense natural beauty, with a high level of cultural and biological diversity but also with deep-rooted poverty and an environment that was rapidly deteriorating under the pressure of an increasing population with rising aspirations.

ICIMOD was established in 1983, to promote environmental conservation and poverty eradication. These issues, in the fragile mountain ecosystems, had been the focus of successive global initiatives such as Chapter 13 of Agenda 21 from the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development. More recently, the Commission on Sustainable Development had emphasised the simultaneous need for environmental conservation and poverty eradication. ICIMOD had been actively involved in the preparation of these initiatives.

Under its various programmes, ICIMOD had been making continuing efforts to systematically explore and identify areas where mountains can offer products and services in economical and sustainable ways. Tourism was one such area, as it pro-

vided an opportunity to capitalise on the natural endowment, which might not be exploitable in any other form. Tourism had the potential to be a major vehicle for national economic development in the future.

However, tourism had its problems, ranging from accelerated deforestation to erosion of cultural values. Further, the benefits of tourism did not spontaneously reach the poor and the marginalised groups nor were issues of the environment addressed. Basically, the Mountain Tourism for Local Community Development Project was initiated to address these issues, with the assumption that mountain tourism, to be sustainable and desirable, had to contribute to the environmental and economic development of local communities.

Mr. Pelinck noted that the Workshop, for the first time, brought together a series of systematic studies on mountain tourism from a common and comparative HKH regional perspective. Promoting sustainable tourism for local community development required the joint effort of government agencies, the private sector, and NGOs, all of whom were represented at the workshop. This was evidence of the role that ICIMOD could play in facilitating the link between policies and practices. He hoped that the participants would provide valuable advice regarding pragmatic follow-up to the present project.

In conclusion, Mr. Pelinck thanked the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD) for its financial support to the project. He also thanked the national institutions from India, Pakistan, and Nepal for collaborating with ICIMOD in undertaking the studies.

### *Inaugural Address*

Mr. Bhim Bahadur Rawal, Hon'ble State Minister for Industry, Commerce, Tourism, and Civil Aviation of His Majesty's Government of Nepal, delivered the inaugural address.

The Minister began by noting that the Workshop theme was of significant contemporary relevance for the HKH, in general, and Nepal, in particular, as tourism was one of the leading sectors in the economy. Under conditions of proper planning and management, tourism could play a significant role in the diversification of the mountain economy and in dealing with issues of poverty alleviation and environmental care.

However, the field realities showed that the growth in mountain tourism created, and exacerbated, a number of economic and environmental problems, which were then left for the resource-poor local communities to address. The environmental impact of rural tourism in mountain areas demanded an integrated management regime that was geared to assess the environmental 'carrying capacity' of tourist areas, establish norms and standards, assess en-

vironmental management requirements, monitor the environmental changes caused by tourism, and plan for the future. Under such a management regime, Nepal had the potential to increase considerably the existing level of tourism. The task of the tourism-promotion strategy was to establish Nepal as a premium destination, offering a premium product.

The Minister noted that Nepal had a lot to learn, and also to offer, in the search for sustainable tourism. New and practical approaches to mountain tourism were emerging in Nepal that showed the potential for environmental sustainability and economic viability at the local level. The Government had introduced efforts to relate and integrate mountain tourism with overall economic and development concerns. A comprehensive tourism policy, providing a direction for the overall development and promotion of tourism, had very recently been adopted by the government. The initiative and the role of the government should be adequately strengthened and complemented by that of the NGOs and the private sector.

Rural development through people's participation was a matter of top-most priority to the present Gov

ernment, as evidenced by the implementation of the Build Your Village Yourself Programme. Since tourism had an important role to play in eliminating poverty in remote areas, special attention was being paid to developing the physical infrastructure for diversifying tourist destinations and devising awareness programmes.

The Minister concluded by thanking ICIMOD for organising the workshop at an opportune moment, and he looked forward to the outcome of the Workshop as a guide to better strategy, policy, and programme formulation and implementation in the tourism sector in Nepal. He wished the Workshop all success.

#### *Vote of Thanks*

The opening session was concluded with a vote of thanks from Dr. Pitamber Sharma, the Coordinator of the Workshop, on behalf of ICIMOD. He thanked the Minister for his thought-provoking inaugural address and all the participants--researchers, policy-makers, NGO representatives, and those from the private sector--for joining hands with ICIMOD to explore this potentially important sector in the mountains.

# Part 2

## Workshop Proceedings

**T**he substantive session of the Workshop began with the introduction to the Mountain Tourism for Local Community Development Project by Dr. Pitamber Sharma, the Project Coordinator. He said that the major purpose of the project was to provide a comparative perspective on mountain tourism across the HKH so that it could become an input to informed policy formulation and tourism management in the countries of the region. The overall assumption, in initiating the studies, was that sustainable mountain tourism had to contribute to local economic, environmental, and community development.

He highlighted five major issues pertaining to mountain tourism which the project was designed to address. These issues were (i) the exploitation of and impingement on natural resources beyond a sustainable limit; (ii) the lack of tourism linkages with local/regional production systems; (iii) lack of retention of benefits in tourist areas; (iv) the high level of seasonality and dependency on external factors; and (v) policy and institutional development. Underlying these issues were the three common concerns of integrated mountain development: poverty alleviation,

environmental regeneration, and concerns related to gender and disadvantaged groups.

Dr. Sharma then introduced the first three studies to be presented at the Workshop, the Overview Studies, which were to provide perspectives on the historical trends in mountain tourism, including the type and nature of tourism; to trace the economic, environmental, and local development and gender implications of mountain tourism; and to analyse the policy/programme and institutional responses to mountain tourism issues in the respective contexts.

### A. Highlights of the Overview Studies

#### *India*

The first overview study to be presented was from India, covering the Uttar Pradesh (UP) hills and HP. Mr. R. Sreedhar presented the study on behalf of the Study Team. The following is a brief highlight of his presentation.

In the UP hills and HP in India, tourism was the most important non-

farm activity. Both were areas of historical, cultural, and religious significance. Tourism resources in the different physiographic regions of the UP hills and HP were then identified in detail. In the lower Himalayas, tourism was based on religious sites and national parks. The Dun Valleys and the mid-hills were noted for administration-cum-tourist towns. Hill stations that were nurtured by the British, such as Dalhousie, Shimla, Chail in HP and Mussourie, Almora, and Nainital in the UP hills, attracted considerable numbers of tourists. However, it was the pilgrim centres of the central Himalayas comprising the "superdhams", such as Badrinath, Kedarnath, Gangotri, Hemkund Sahib, Yamunotri, and so on, lying at altitudes of 3,000 - 3,500m, which were the prime attractions for the majority of religious tourists. The problems and issues in mountain tourism differed from one physiographic region and type of tourism to another. While the major issues in mountain tourism identified at the outset were relevant in each centre, there were additional problems regarding community development in the areas under study. These were related to the lack of basic necessities such as water, fuel, health services, population growth, and expansion of settlements; lack of local control in planning; lack of inducement of outside and local investment; lack of provision of occupational and employment opportunities through tourism development; and the threat of environmental degradation and natural hazards.

It was noted that, in the case of UP and HP, a database needed to be created because existing data had serious limitations. Furthermore, the issues with respect to mountain tourism needed to be characterised in terms of economy, environment, endogeneity, and equity. There was also a need to look at two other elements: **transformation tools (skills, technology, finance) and operatives at the natural resource level (water, energy, biomass) and politico-economic levels (government, markets and community)**. A preliminary list of status descriptors, with respect to tourism, and impact indicators was also prepared in order to analyse the status as well as the impacts/implications of mountain tourism.

The destination analysis of tourism in HP and the UP hills covered about 40 destinations, and these included religious sites, hill stations, and other areas for sight-seeing, pleasure, or adventure sports. Tourism involved about 3.5 million people in HP in 1992/93 and about 25 million in the UP hills. In HP, pleasure and sight-seeing were the major purposes for 62 per cent of the tourists. Pilgrimage accounted for less than 20 per cent. In the UP hills, pilgrimage accounted for 60 per cent of the tourists, and areas like Hardwar and Rishikesh drew as many tourists as the rest of the destinations combined. Analysis of specific tourist centres in terms of popularity, access, infrastructure, and tourist potential presented a comparative un-

derstanding of the problems and prospects of these destinations.

In each case, an overwhelming proportion of tourists were domestic (Indian) tourists - 95 per cent in the case of UP and 96 per cent in the case of HP. About 70 per cent of the tourists in the UP hills were pilgrims who hailed from West Bengal, Tamilnad, Gujrat, and Maharashtra. Foreign tourists accounted for four to five per cent of the total tourist inflow.

In 1989/90 tourism contributed an estimated 1.5 billion Indian Rupees to the HP economy. A similar figure for the UP hills ranged from 2.5 to 2.75 billion. Also, about 74 per cent of the tourists stayed for less than three days in tourist destinations. Seasonality of tourism was noted in the case of pilgrimage tourism, as much of the pilgrimage tourism in the UP hills took place between May and October when the main temples were open. Tourism in hill resorts and stations was basically in the April-June and September-October periods. Tourism in both the HP and UP hills showed an upward trend. In particular, the problems in Kashmir had contributed to a rather rapid growth of tourism in the HP sector. The on-going agitation in the UP hills could affect tourism growth in the area also. In both HP and UP, the government tourism development agencies played a major role in tourism promotion, administration, and even in the provision of tourist facilities.

The Indian Study also presented the natural resources and socioeconomic contexts of the UP hills and HP vis-a-vis tourism. The major issues emerging indicated that many areas in the HP and UP hills had high densities, and the need for off-farm employment was acute and rising; the village and community organisations were not oriented to look for and derive benefits from tourism growth; and the impact of tourism growth on the role and status of women was minimal.

In terms of policy, the Indian presentation highlighted the policy initiatives taken by the Central and the State Governments. In HP, the emphasis on tourism policy was on the creation of basic infrastructure; expansion in accommodation and catering facilities; and the promotion of adventure and cultural-heritage tourism. Initiatives to encourage the participation of the private sector also remained pronounced. Comparatively, the UP hills suffered from a policy void, although a number of steps to encourage tourism had been identified by the Government. These included promotion of tourism during the off-season, diversification of tourist destinations, improvement and extension of pilgrimage arrangements, and ensuring that the benefits of tourism accrue to the local population. In addition, the Central Government had also recommended a special Areas' Programme for hill areas in particular. However, in spite of the policy statements, precious little action had followed. The Central Government

initiative had not followed a policy-programme-plan-action continuum. Management of tourism in an *ad hoc* manner had been rampant. State Governments, on their part, had not undertaken detailed assessment of the tourist resources, nor had tourism been put in perspective in relation to larger development concerns. Also, the incentive provided by the Government had had very little impact on the tourism sector, as it had only fuelled the menace of 'subsidy skimming'.

In conclusion, the lessons in Tourism and Sustainable Local Economic Development from the Indian experience were presented. The macro-economic context of the HP and UP hills, particularly the reliance on the 'money order economy' in the latter, called for ways and means to strengthen the economic base. Tourism could be one way of doing this. At present, the majority of investments in the sector were from outside, and the government policy was totally devoid of equity considerations. Local environmental concerns, particularly land degradation due to tourism in resorts as well as pilgrim centres; water supply constraints; and the rising demand for fuelwood remained neglected. The lack of concern for local community development had meant that the benefits of tourism were not reaching the poor and the disadvantaged sections of society, including woman.

In order to deal with these issues, a number of initiatives and actions at different levels were suggested. A

prime requisite was the formulation of a consistent, community and environmentally-friendly tourism policy at national and state levels for the mountains. The emphasis, in the case of the HP and UP hills, should be to change from a volume-based to a value-based tourism, which could bring high-yield tourists from other parts of India, result in a proportional decline in environmental threat, and enlarge the "tourism cake," which could bring, in its wake, potential for greater quality services and training of local manpower. A strategy for mass tourism, class tourism, and value tourism and its elements was suggested as a guide to the promotion of sustainable mountain tourism in the HP and UP hills.

### *Discussion*

Questions and comments from the floor dealt with the issue of government investment in tourism in India, particularly the factors that guided investment and the implications of Agenda 21 on Tourism policy. Concerns were also raised regarding the control of trade in pilgrim centres. It was mentioned that, in India, tourism funds were often directed to other sectors and explanations were sought regarding the reasons. The role of the private sector had been emphasised in India in tourism promotion and the creation of tourism infrastructure, and yet, tourism development depended largely on government programmes. Why was it that government efforts to promote the private sector had not succeeded?

Commenting on the queries and remarks from the floor, Mr. Sreedhar first noted that tourism investments, in terms of area focus, were obviously influenced by political factors. The emphasis on tourism development in Rampur and Kinnaur in HP was cited as a case in point. As regards Agenda 21, the commitment to the objectives had often been repeated, but precious little concrete work had resulted in terms of translating the intents of Agenda 21, particularly Chapter 13, into action. He noted that there had been considerable overexploitation of natural resources in all tourist destinations where deforestation is occurring to make space for construction. Shimla was an example.

As regards the control of economic activities, particularly trade, by outsiders in the Badrinath area, he said that this was to the tune of 40 per cent of all trade in the area. Further, a large proportion of the goods traded were not locally produced.

The reason why funds earmarked for tourism were often diverted to other sectors could be because the Tourism Department did not come up with a specific programme. In the case of UP, for example, this diversion was towards Public Works.

The private sector was encouraged by government policy, but the problem with the private sector was that they expected a lot more concessions, particularly in the matter of getting cheap public land for construction, etc. In many cases, the

Government was not in a position to oblige because of public resentment. Mr. Sreedhar said that the policy position of the Government was clear on the issue that local communities should benefit from tourism in their areas, but the extent to which this happened was debatable. Some eco-development programmes had been initiated in areas around some National Parks and Protected Areas. The idea had been to reduce the dependency of the local people on National Park resources by providing them with alternative, eco-friendly opportunities. There was great scope for these kinds of initiatives, and in future it is expected that more funds will be put into such schemes.

Dr. Mahesh Banskota, the Deputy Director General of ICIMOD, who chaired the Session, concluded the discussion by noting that the Indian presentation had brought to light a number of interesting issues. The first related to the question of planning for excess capacity, particularly in cases in which the tourist flow jumped from 3,000 one day to 30,000 the next. Given this problem, the services in the pilgrim centres of UP seemed to have coped with the pressure rather well. The second issue was that of concentration of investment in old areas. This was likely to remain true because the marginal cost of investment was likely to remain lower in such areas than in new areas where there was no basic infrastructure. The 'new' areas, in this sense, faced a 'comparative disadvantage'. The third

issue was that of leakages and local benefits. While efforts needed indeed to be made to reduce leakages, it might really not be possible to control them, given the nature of the tourist trade and the capacities of the mountain economy.

Dr. Banskota noted that the categorisation of tourists into mass, value, and class might be debatable as it led one to assume that the richer tourists were, necessarily, more desirable than the others. Furthermore it might not be desirable to develop all potential tourist spots and destinations. Therefore, the areas to be opened up for tourists had to be very carefully identified.

### *Nepal*

The presentation of the Overview Analysis of mountain tourism in the Hill and Mountain regions of Nepal was made by Dr. Kamal Banskota on behalf of the CREST Study Team. A brief highlight of his presentation follows.

At the outset, Dr. Banskota noted that tourism development in the mountains of Nepal was essential to alleviate poverty, to reduce overcrowding in certain areas/destinations, and to promote new tourism areas and products, as it was a major comparative advantage of the country.

In 1993, a little over 334,000 foreign tourists visited Nepal. Tourism

in Nepal had come to mean foreign tourists. Domestic tourism was as yet an undeveloped and unrecorded phenomenon. The growth in tourism over the past decade was, on an average, about six per cent per annum. Seasonality was quite pronounced, and, on an average, about 11 per cent of the annual tourist flow was for the purpose of trekking and mountaineering. The largest growth in the period had been that of Asian tourists. However, the growth in terms of length of stay had been insignificant.

Tourism contributed about 3.8 per cent to the GDP in 1992, up from about one per cent in 1974. However, in spite of the growth in the number of arrivals, there had been no increase in per tourist expenditure. Per day tourist expenditure remained around NRs 747, and per capita expenditure per visit remained around NRs 6,975. The average length of stay of tourists was roughly 9.3 nights.

The database on the linkages of tourism was poor in Nepal. The direct employment attributed to tourism by a 1989 Survey was about 11,000. Other studies showed that this might be an underestimation. Direct tourism activities had a low multiplier effect, both in terms of income and employment. There were significant import leakages. The import content of tourism was estimated to be around 62.2 per cent. The employment multiplier was also low in the tourism sector compared to the tourist-related sector.

There was no clear vision with respect to the objectives of mountain tourism in Nepal. The information base was mostly incomplete and inadequate, particularly with respect to the impact and implications of tourism, levels of tourist expenditure, and the pattern, quantity, and quality of goods and services provided.

Mountain tourism development in Nepal was a critical area not only because it could potentially affect about 10 million people, but also because the area harboured a number of endemic species, was very fragile, and had both high aesthetic value as well as downstream value. Mountain tourism, basically trekking and mountaineering, was limited to three major areas: the Annapurna area, the Sagarmatha or Everest area, and the Langtang area. While the three areas together accounted for over 90 per cent of the trekkers, the Annapurna area alone attracted about 60 per cent of the trekkers. In recent years, there had been a rise in free individual trekkers (FITs) compared to group trekkers in relatively accessible areas. Further, mountain tourism in Nepal was mostly confined to conservation areas or national parks, and the issues of park-people conflict needed to be adequately addressed. A number of approaches to the management of mountain tourism, such as the Annapurna Conservation Area Project (ACAP) and the Makalu-Barun National Park, had been initiated in Nepal. In recent years, the royalty and other rates had been hiked to yield more revenue from mountain

tourism. However, the existing state of affairs indicated that there was a lack of appreciation of the economic value of protected areas. As a result, the leakages and benefits were accruing to areas outside tourist areas and destinations. In terms of revenue generation from tourism in Nepal, the basic issues were the lack of a clear perception of the role of tourism in mountain development, the lack of institutional mechanisms to facilitate a participatory approach to tourism development, and the lack of complementary investments in the promotion and development of mountain tourism to benefit tourist areas.

The Nepal presentation synthesised from extant studies, the impacts of mountain tourism, both negative and positive, on a number of important areas. Tourism had brought positive changes in land use, in some areas, particularly in terms of changes in cropping patterns and a move towards vegetable cultivation and horticulture, while traditional systems of resource management tended to remain neglected in other areas. The problem of bio-nondegradable litter and pollution of both land and water bodies was serious in heavily-frequented treks. Between 1979 and 1988, about 770m tonnes of garbage was reported to have been left at the Everest Base Camp alone. The demand for fuelwood and timber was exacerbated due to mountain tourism. The obvious consequences were deforestation and forest and biomass degradation. The ban on firewood used by trekkers affected only the trekkers and not their porters. Also,

in areas where the earnings from tourism were high, the price of fuelwood was not a strong enough disincentive to the use of fuelwood.

Tourism also had positive and negative sociocultural impacts. While the danger of cultural erosion and loss of traditional values due to tourism was real, it had also encouraged conscious efforts to preserve and maintain the uniqueness of the culture. Employment effects were also considerable. Estimates of direct mandays of employment, generated by mountain tourism, ranged from a high of 1.1 million mandays to a low of 0.5 million mandays. The employment of women in the accommodation sector accounted for about 21 per cent of the total. In many cases, the income effects were not confined to areas that were the destination of tourists, the porters, entrepreneurs, and tour/trek operators hailed from other regions. Also, the import of items for tourist consumption led to income leakages.

The impact of tourism on women was less understood. However, it seemed that tourism tended to increase the burden on women and also encouraged women to take up specialised and skilled activities. **Women who were participating in tourism-related activities in general seemed better off than their counterparts in traditional activities and occupations.** The Nepal presentation also noted a number of other impacts. These included the role tourism played in poverty alleviation by providing more and better op-

portunities; generation of awareness on aspects of culture, heritage, sanitation, and nutrition; infrastructural development to cater for tourist needs; reduction in out-migration; reduction in fertility rates; international publicity regarding Nepal's uniqueness in mountain tourism; and benefits due to better scientific research etc.

It was noted that these impacts were also indicative of a number of issues that needed to be addressed. Limited 'carrying capacity' in the context of the prevailing resource management regime was contributing to the unsustainability of mountain tourism in Nepal. The code of conduct for tourists was generally not being observed nor being monitored. Existing management systems needed to be assessed and a policy framework developed. Tourist destinations had to be diversified and investments encouraged accordingly. Finally, there was a need to define, develop, and operationalise a clear cut research agenda, which would help to build the knowledge base and capacity to deal with the issues arising from the perceived impacts of mountain tourism.

The Nepal presentation provided a detailed review of the tourism policy and institutions in Nepal. It then noted the weaknesses in policy and enforcement mechanisms in almost all areas, including diversification efforts; build-up of tourism infrastructure, environmental effects and remedial measures; and community-level institutional struc-

tures in ensuring benefit flows to local, economic, and environmental development. Lack of coordination among tourism management institutions and the neglect of domestic tourism were other areas needing attention.

The Nepal Overview presented the **lack of assessment of the value of environmental resources** as a major problem in mountain tourism. Government intervention was demanded in areas where the market failed to allocate environmental resource commodities. Market failure was noted in areas such as pollution, littering, and deforestation. There were also problems associated with the distribution of benefits accruing from the use of environmental resources. As a result, there was a weak linkage between mountain development and tourism, and mountain communities were not being the prime beneficiaries of the use of their resources. Mountain tourism in Nepal had followed a demand-driven growth process, and, in most cases, policy interventions had not guided development in desirable directions. Seasonality of mountain tourism was noted as a disadvantage because it resulted in overcrowding in prime tourist destinations, and also because the income and employment effects were largely seasonal. However, seasonality was also noted as a blessing in disguise because it did not interfere with the agricultural cycle in a subsistence setting, and also because seasonality provided nature with the opportunity to recoup itself, particularly during the monsoons.

In conclusion, the Nepal presentation noted the overriding need to internalise mountain-environmental values for local development. In this context, the assessment of 'carrying capacity' in terms of recognising **critical resources, defining critical areas, and identifying critical behaviour, critical development needs and critical institutions** was regarded to be of crucial significance for the sustainable management of mountain tourism for local community development.

### *Discussion*

Dr. Kamal Banskota's presentation elicited a number of queries and comments. Questions were asked concerning why the expenditure per tourist in Nepal had remained essentially the same over the past one and a half decades. Information was sought regarding the size of the total investment that had gone into the tourism sector. It was noted that perhaps the quality of tourism in Nepal had gone down. Also, tourism education was lacking in Nepal. Regarding increased leakages, it was observed that, whereas it was true that the investment ploughed back for community development was low, the proportion of tourist income retained by local economies was low even in a country like Switzerland. The leakage-linkage issue was, admittedly, a complex one and needed to be looked into more carefully. The question of migration was also raised, and it was observed that the objective of tourism promotion in the

mountains need not necessarily be to reduce migration. In fact, such an objective might be counter-productive.

The definition of mountain tourism was also sought from the floor through a question about whether tourists coming to Kathmandu were mountain tourists. It was observed that, perhaps, mountain tourism was basically synonymous with adventure tourism. Commenting on the tourism policy, it was observed that the weakest link in the tourism chain in Nepal was the government. There was very little government monitoring of mountain tourism, particularly in terms of the activities of private entrepreneurs.

Responding to the queries, Dr. Banskota said that the expenditure per tourist had remained practically stagnant over the past almost two decades due to high inflation and the depreciation of Nepali currency vis-a-vis the dollar. The database available in Nepal did not allow for an estimation of the total investment in the tourism sector. Dr. Banskota agreed that the quality of tourism products that Nepal was offering had not developed and that there was a need to develop the manpower to promote responsible mountain tourism. Regarding the question of leakages, it was noted that the figures were based on Nepal Rastra Bank studies. The ACAP experience also showed high leakages. As for the total tourist revenue, it was being ploughed back into tourist areas. It was also noted that there was an

overall lack of transparency, except in areas such as the Annapurna Region. Commenting on the definition of mountain tourism, Dr. Banskota observed that the definition need not be very involved so long as it was understood that the focus was on tourism insofar as it affected rural mountain communities.

### *Pakistan*

The presentation of the Pakistan Overview Study, which covered the North West Frontier Province and the Northern Areas, was made by Dr. Sayeda Zia Al-Jalaly on behalf of the DRG study team.

It was pointed out at the very outset that the database on mountain tourism in Pakistan was quite scant in spite of the fact that about 352,000 foreign tourists visited Pakistan in 1992. In that year, tourism earned approximately 119.9 million US dollars and was the ninth largest foreign exchange earner. Pakistan also had a considerable amount of domestic tourism, of which cultural tourism was an important element. In 1990, about 3.1 million, mainly domestic tourists, were recorded as cultural tourists.

In the NWFP, the Kafir Kalash tribes attracted cultural tourists, both domestic and foreign. Religious tourism was also important in the mountainous regions, as 26 of the 75 'A' category sites important for both Muslims as well as non-Muslims were in the region. However, in

terms of numbers, resort tourism was an important category. Three broad destination areas attracted the bulk of resort tourists. These were the Swat Valley, the Galliat, and the Karakoram Highway region and the Kaghan Valley. The Swat Valley and the Galliat had remained well-known since the British period. The Swat Valley attracted about half a million tourists and the flow was seasonal from April to September. Galliat basically served as a respite for city people from the plains, particularly during the hot summers. The 955km long Karakoram Highway connecting Rawalpindi to the Khunjarab pass had been a major channel of mountain tourism. Towns along the way attracted considerable numbers of tourists. The Kaghan Valley alone received about 40-50,000 tourists, of which about 15 per cent were foreigners. Areas accessible from the Karakoram highway were also the hub of adventure and sports tourism in the mountains of Pakistan and included such areas as Baltistan, Hunza and Chitral, among others. Mountaineering and trekking were important activities although the numbers received rarely exceeded 1,000. Skiing, polo, and white water sports were other tourist sports activities.

The Pakistani presentation dwelt on the economic impact of tourism on a national, macro-scale, and showed that the average Type I income multiplier was 1.99 and was highest for agriculture and livestock. The Type II multiplier showed that the figures for tourism-related sectors were lower

than average. Employment creation through tourism in Pakistan was estimated to be about 81,000, of which 42 per cent was through hotels. Although figures for the NWFP and Northern Areas were not available, the major tourism-linked employment sectors were hotels and restaurants, road transport, retail trade, and porter/guide services. Based on secondary information the implications of tourism for the mountainous areas revealed that portage was an important source of income and employment in the case of adventure tourism. Resort tourism created employment mainly in the service sector, including transport, but demanded some level of skill. In general, the groups that benefitted most from mountain tourism were hoteliers, transport services, local craftsmen, porters, and guides. In 1992 the average expenditure per mountaineer in Pakistan stood at \$2,127.

The mountain regions of Pakistan were some of the most economically backward and poorest regions. While tourism could help in the process of poverty alleviation, this effect did not seem to be spontaneous. Also, much of the income from tourism was not retained in the locality as the bulk of the income accrued to people from outside, mostly large urban areas in the plains. **The degree of benefits reaching the local communities depended largely on the level of integration of the communities within the local economy and the linkages between the different sectors.** In many cases, it was

felt that while the national economy benefitted from increased tourist flow, it was the mountain economy that bore the brunt of the problem. The sociocultural implications of tourism, in terms of social and cultural changes, were also seen. While tourism had generated awareness and, in that sense, induced social change, all the facets of the cultural changes resulting from tourist flows were not positive. For example, the Kalash culture was being strongly impacted by tourism. The presentation also highlighted the developments in tourism infrastructure in the NWFP and Northern Areas. Therefore, the main issues emerging from the state of mountain tourism in Pakistan included the lack of a relevant data base and information, concentration of tourists in a few areas, low economic benefits and sectoral linkages, lack of linkages with local community development, and the slow development of infrastructure commensurate with tourism development.

The demographic, environmental, developmental, and gender implications of mountain tourism were specifically highlighted in the Pakistani presentation. The mountain regions of Pakistan had a population growth-rate exceeding three per cent, with population concentration in a few sheltered valleys. Temporary and seasonal migration were rife and, in many areas, the mountain economy depended on financial flows from outside. The mountain areas were, basically, food deficit areas with a very limited proportion

of cultivated land. Mountain areas in the NWFP and in the Northern areas lay beyond the reach of the monsoons and were rich in wildlife with much of the forest area of the country in these areas. Environmental impacts of mountain tourism were manifest in terms of water and river pollution, pollution of soils and glaciers, deforestation, and congestion in selected resort locations. The Swat Valley, Kagan Valley and Kalam Valley areas evidenced these negative environmental impacts. Littering and pollution, due to biodegradable garbage, were serious problems in mountaineering areas. Parts of the NWFP and the Northern Areas were also the beneficiaries of a number of development initiatives like the Aga Khan Rural Support Programme, the Khunjarab National Park, the Kalam Integrated Development Project, and Biodiversity initiatives. These development projects had the potential for dealing with the negative impacts of mountain tourism and developing the human resources of concerned areas. However, there had been an absence of local-level economic activities induced through mountaineering and trekking tourism in particular. Women, for the most part, remained little affected by mountain tourism, and the growth in tourism had not alleviated the marginalised status of women.

The Pakistani presentation assessed government policies, incentive structure, and institutional development and noted that the tourism policy of the Government was not sensitive to

mountain conditions and imperatives. Sectoral policies, having a bearing on mountain tourism, were also reviewed. The major lacuna was that these policies were not designed with tourism implications in mind. If tourism was to be regarded as an important element in the agenda of mountain development, sectoral policies needed to be responsive to the needs of the tourism sector. In institutional terms, the Central and the provincial governments were expected to play a major role in the provision and expansion of basic infrastructure and accommodation facilities. In the NWFP, the Sarhad Tourism Corporation was created essentially to deal with the promotion of domestic tourism but was not fully operational as yet.

In conclusion, the Pakistani presentation emphasised two over-riding concerns that should be the cornerstones of tourism policy and initiatives. These were the **need to view the role of tourism in the context of mountain development and analyse the structure of the tourism industry with the development of local mountain communities in mind.** A number of imperatives for sustainable development of mountain tourism were noted. These included skills and human capital formation in local communities; greater incentives for local participation in related trades, and helping local communities to respond effectively to tourist needs, by developing their agricultural, live-stock, and horticultural bases. For this purpose, and to enhance the linkages of tourism with local com-

munity development, facilitative, supportive and regulative policy interventions might be required. Assessment of tourism 'carrying capacity' needed to be an essential element in orienting policy initiatives.

### *Discussion*

The discussion on the Pakistani presentation revolved around the socio-cultural impacts of tourism. In the case of small tribal groups, such as the Kalash, it was observed that resistance from the locals to outsiders could be a problem. The question was how could the locals be empowered to deal with the impacts of tourism? Comments were made regarding the possible adverse effects of infrastructural build-up in the fragile mountains. It was thought that land-use planning, in the context of this fragility, should be a matter of priority attention.

Responding to the comments and queries, Dr. Al-Jalaly noted that the sociocultural impacts due to foreign tourists in Pakistan's mountain areas were much less than those from domestic tourists. The problem was that of the imposition of values and lifestyles that were alien to tribes such as the Kalash. This was a very sensitive issue but needed to be appreciated because imposition could lead to resistance. In areas such as Hunza outsiders were not allowed by custom to purchase land. This was one way of empowering the locals. Therefore, strong community organisations needed to be promoted

so that they could deal with the adverse impacts spontaneously.

Land-use problems due to tourism were noted to be of two types. The first related to land speculation. The price of land was artificially raised, mostly by outsiders. Locals were then, naturally, excluded from having a say on the use of the said land. The second was the build-up of heavy infrastructure on fragile land which contributed to landslides, landslips, and a variety of costly environmental problems. Therefore, **land-use planning in tourist areas was an urgent and important issue**, that needed to be looked into more carefully.

### **B. Issues Emerging from Regional Studies**

The Case Studies were conceived to investigate the issues that emerged from the Overview Studies on mountain tourism in each country context. As an introduction to the Case Studies, Dr. Pitamber Sharma highlighted the major issues that had emerged from the Regional Studies.

At the outset, he noted that mountain tourism, for the purposes of the project, was understood to mean **tourism for which the mountains manifest a comparative advantage**. This included all forms of tourism in the mountains. Also, since mountainous areas and communities were predominantly rural, the linkage of such tourism to rural mountain communities was conceived to be an

important aspect of mountain tourism.

He then briefly posited a number of issues that emerged from the Overview Studies. Some differences in nature, scale, and implications of mountain tourism were obviously present, and they varied from one country to the next. In Nepal, for example, tourism meant foreign tourists who came for a variety of purposes: the most important from the mountain community perspective being was trekking and mountaineering. In India, in contrast, pilgrimage was the major motivation for tourism in the UP Hills, and an overwhelming proportion were domestic tourists, even in cases, such as HP, where the major purpose was not pilgrimage. In Pakistan, resort tourism and trekking were important categories, and domestic tourism was predominant. The scale of tourism also varied. In the UP hills, the concern was with a couple of million tourists in a year, while, in Nepal and Pakistan, the numbers were not so large. Differences in the nature and scale of tourism, naturally, added an important dimension to the impact of tourism.

In spite of the differences in the nature and scale of tourism, a number of commonalities, with respect to a number of issues, were clearly seen. **First**, in each country context, the **lack of a defined policy perception of the role of tourism in mountain development** clearly emerged. **Second**, the major concerns in terms of local development, were

high leakages and weak linkages with the productive sectors in each context. **Third**, the **problem of seasonality** was present in each context, but the perceptions of it differed. In many cases, seasonality was not economically advantageous to communities that depended on mountain tourism, but it appeared to have a salutary effect on the environment, because it provided time for nature to renew itself. **Fourth**, **mountain tourism-related policies, in most cases, were weak and *ad hoc*** with the result that there were many instances of policy failure. Often economic incentives were given too little time to succeed, while regulations were given too much time to fail. **Fifth**, the Overview Studies brought out very clearly the fact that, in spite of anecdotal evidence, the **understanding/analysis of environmental effects and impacts resulting from tourism remained very limited**. Also, 'carrying capacity' perceptions, with respect to the environmental and socioeconomic effects of mountain tourism were generally lacking. **Sixth**, in almost all cases, with few selected exceptions, there was a **general neglect in relating tourism to local community development, and local institutional development**. In spite of policy concerns, the question of relating community and institutional developments to tourism did not seem to be operationally perceived as an important issue. As a result, the concern for the disadvantaged and the marginal groups in mountain societies, including women, continued to remain ignored. **Seventh**,

the area of **human resource development and skill training**, which, in many ways, was the key to the realisation of the benefits of tourism in remote mountain communities, also generally remained unrecognised and neglected. As a consequence, it was often outsiders who took advantage of opportunities. **Eighth**, some institutional set-up was present in each country, related to, or dealing with, aspects of tourism. What was lacking in each context were the factors of **intersectoral coordination and institutional development for the promotion of mountain tourism oriented towards local community development**. Also, there was no monitoring framework against which the impact of tourism could be monitored and assessed. **Finally**, the common element emerging from the Studies was that tourism by itself and with the existing orientations did not, and perhaps could not, have a positive and spontaneous impact on some of the most crucial development concerns in the mountains, namely, poverty alleviation, environmental regeneration, and the empowerment of local communities.

The Case Studies were intended to explore and investigate these issues more closely in each context. In each of the three countries, two case studies, one in a relatively old and the second in a relatively new area, were undertaken. The Case Studies also attempted to elucidate different types of tourism. In Badrinath and Kinnaur, in India, the focus was on pilgrimage in the former and sight-

seeing in the latter. In Nepal, trekking was predominant in both the study areas, and it was felt that the lessons from the Ghandruk area in the Annapurna region could be of relevance to Manaslu in Northern Gorkha. In Pakistan, Hunza was a trekking and sightseeing destination, whereas Kalam exemplified resort tourism. However, the thematic focus of the Case Studies in each case was on resource inventory, nature and perceptions of the impact of mountain tourism, 'carrying capacity' considerations, perception of the linkage of tourism and community development, and the development of a framework for the Action Plan and Operational Guidelines for sustainable mountain tourism oriented towards local community development in the study areas

It was with this background that the area-specific Case Studies were presented and discussed in the Workshop.

### **C. Highlights of the Case Studies**

#### *Case Studies from India*

The Case Studies from India were presented by Mr. R. Sreedhar and complemented by Prof. R. Shankar on behalf of The Action Research Unit (TARU), the collaborating institution from India.

The Indian Case Studies focussed on preparing an inventory of tourism resources in Case Study areas; clas-

sification and categorisation of broad touristic zones; evaluation of synergistic impacts; determination of indicative 'carrying capacities'; and the development of specific action plans and implementation frameworks.

The rationale for the choice of the Case Study areas (Kinnaur district in Himachal and Badrinath Circuit in the UP hills) was then provided. Kinnaur district, while representing the Cis and trans-Himalayan habitat, was a newly-opened area where the tourism policy environment remained uncertain and where inputs could be provided for a broad-based tourism and development strategy. The Badrinath circuit, on the other hand, was an epitome of pilgrimage in India and also, because of high altitude meadows, the circuit represented a unique ecology.

A number of critical variables and linkages were conceptually traced for the two Case Study areas. In Kinnaur district, the critical environmental factors, in places like Kalpa Peo, Sangla, and Pooh, were related to the problem of waste disposal, drainage, littering of slopes, water shortage, and land degradation. The critical socioeconomic factors concerning the different population groups benefitting from tourism were the impact on already visible inequities, security of cultural assets, changes in construction practices, opening up of novel, local opportunities, and so on. The critical institutional and managerial factors included local institutions and

mechanisms for dealing with the impacts and implications of tourism as well as related institutional facilities. Critical linkages for 'carrying capacity' considerations in Kinnaur district related to aspects of physical linkages, such as landslides, roads, and communications and economic linkages such as the relationship of tourism to orchard farming, migrant labour, and the like.

Likewise, on the Badrinath circuit, the critical environmental factors in places such as Badrinath and Joshimath were those of waste disposal, drainage, settlement expansion, and sanitation in the pilgrim and related areas. The problems in the Valley of Flowers were those of encroachment, the limited extent of the area, and the change in vegetation form. The critical socioeconomic factors included the temple opening season and austerity among pilgrims. The institutional and managerial factors were similar to those of Kinnaur, except that the problems were accentuated as a result of the heavy flow of pilgrims. In terms of economic linkages, the critical factors were the level of outside control on economic activities and the perceptions of locals about pilgrims.

In terms of tourism resources, Kinnaur district had a rugged terrain and remained largely under snow in winter. While land *per se* was not a constraint, land development remained quite expensive. Horticulture was picking up. Kinnaur was rich in water resources and biodiversity. Places like Rekong Peo, Bhabangar,

Nichar, Sangla, Poari, Kalpa, Kothi, Toshigang Gompa, Pooh, Nako, and so on offered a variety of tourist attractions. Since tourism was just beginning, the impacts were also just surfacing.

The Government of HP had included Kinnaur as part of the new tourist circuit (Sangla-Kalpa-Nako-Pooh-Tabo-Kaza-Rangrik), and a number of activities had been proposed for the development of tourism in the district. These activities related to improvements in infrastructure, accommodation, amusement, and recreation; setting up of tourism clusters; promotion of paying-guest accommodation and wayside facilities; and promotion of a variety of adventure tourism facilities which would include skiing, trekking, ecotourism, and so on.

On the Badrinath circuit, tourism resources consisted of pilgrimage centres and the natural and scenic beauty of the area. The area was also rich in water resources and biodiversity. Socioculturally, the highlands were inhabited by *Bhotia* communities and migrants from the plains. Culturally, there was a marked Hindu impact. The main Hindu pilgrimage sites were Kedarnath and Badrinath. Pilgrim sites were visited for religious merit and, therefore, frugality and a vegetarian diet were seen as essential virtues. Because of the location of the major Sikh pilgrimage site of Hemkund Sahib, there was also a considerable inflow of Sikh pilgrims. Most of the pilgrims were from the plains and relatively

affluent. There were other areas of tourist attraction in the region. Recently, Auli had opened up as a ski resort and was frequented by trekkers and skiers alike. The pilgrimage sites depended largely on the temple opening season for activities and afterwards the traffic became a mere trickle. Seasonality was pronounced but this might also be a saving grace for the area, as the natural vegetation regenerated during the off season.

Government attention, in terms of promoting tourism activities included the development of ski resorts, preparatory work for biodiversity tours in the high pastures, and improvement of civic amenities at the main pilgrimage sites and settlements *en route*.

The presentation detailed the nature, impact, and implications of mountain tourism in both Case Study areas. In Kinnaur, about 2,000 tourists visited the area in 1992. Most were package-group tourists, and only a minuscule were foreigners. Kinnaur was also visited by pilgrims (about 5% of the total) intending to undertake the circumambulation of the Kinnaur-Kailash peak during the season. The average length of stay in Kinnaur was about three days and the majority (over 75%) were pleasure travellers. The tourists were mostly upper middle class or rich. Only a quarter of the tourists were reported to be first-time visitors, and 55 per cent were there for the third time. This showed that the area held a lasting attraction.

In the Badrinath area, over 98 per cent were pilgrims. The proportion of foreigners was quite low. Those from the rest of UP and Garhwal comprised around a third of the pilgrims. In Badrinath, the period of stay was quite short, with hardly any one staying for over two days. Those visiting the Valley of Flowers stayed for some length of time.

In Kinnaur, the current tourist flow had little or no impact or implication on the local production system. Kinnaur crafts appeared to have benefitted from tourism. With the opening of roads, outsiders were taking up lucrative opportunities. The development initiatives of the government, however, related very little to the concerns of the local communities. The only impact on off-farm employment was by way of the employment and income from guest houses, restaurants, etc. In Kinnaur, negative impacts on the environment were visible in the twin settlements of Recong-Peo Kalpa. Waste disposal systems remained grossly inadequate. Construction wastes were evident.

On the Badrinath route, the population, in and around the pilgrimage sites, was almost entirely affected by pilgrimage. At higher altitudes, the promotion of local crafts could bring in additional income. The major environmental problems related to sanitation and solid waste facilities which, during the peak season, were totally inadequate. Forest degradation and depletion along the route to Hemkund Sahib and the

Valley of Flowers were evident. The latter had been declared a biosphere reserve and grazing was banned without considering the ecologically beneficial effects of seasonal grazing. Also, the entrance to the Valley of Flowers showed the stress of too many visitors in a small area. The impact of tourism on culture and tradition, in Kinnaur as well as in the Badrinath zone, did not appear to be very positive.

The assessment of tourism as a development intervention in Kinnaur indicated that, given the scope for horticulture, tourism could perhaps play only an adjunct role. In Kinnaur, the paying guest scheme had, to some extent, helped disperse tourism earnings. In Badrinath, tourism had immense scope to act as a tool for development but this would require working closely with local communities. In terms of alleviating poverty, it was felt that, in Kinnaur, tourism might really be precipitating inequities as the rich benefitted much more than the poor. Growth in long-distance trekking could, perhaps, had beneficial effects in both Kinnaur as well as Badrinath.

The presentation detailed considerations of 'carrying capacity' in both the areas in terms of the critical factor outlined at the outset. Broad estimations of the 'carrying capacity', in terms of visitors in particular areas, given the constraints of infrastructure and other facilities, were also noted. For example, it was shown that, given the present constraints, the Badrinath area could

take a 10 per cent increase, at the most, over the present tourist flow. A dynamic assessment of 'carrying capacity' could be possible only through a regular monitoring and assessment process which was currently lacking.

The presentation also highlighted elements of the proposed Action Plan for the promotion of tourism in the Case Study areas, which sought to build on current efforts being made by the government. In Kinnaur, the fundamental question was whether tourism should be promoted at all. Accommodation remained a limiting factor and needed to be expanded, but private rather than Himachal Pradesh Tourism Development Corporation (HPTDC) efforts were called for. Expansion of paying-guest accommodation was proposed through better flow of information. In most tourist destinations, physical and sanitation infrastructure needed improvement. Alternative tourism options lay in the areas of skiing, trekking, eco-tourism, and culture-based tourism. A better statistical base, better marketing and promotional strategies, monitoring of impacts, and so on were recommended.

In the Badrinath area, specific plans for specific destinations were proposed for places like Mana Village, Badrinath town, the Valley of Flowers, and Tapovan. A better park-people interface needed to be developed in the Valley of Flowers, and diversification was possible in other high altitude meadows. Resource

generation, through the re-introduction of entry tax to Badrinath; regulation on the acquisition of land by outsiders; and legislation against road extension to fragile areas, such as the approaches to the Valley of Flowers, were also proposed. The guidelines for sustainable tourism in the Case Study areas presented a framework for integrating tourism with local economic and environmental development.

### *Discussion*

The discussion revolved around the issue of 'carrying capacity', in methodological as well as operational terms. Was there a measurable 'carrying capacity' threshold? Since 'carrying capacity' thresholds, with respect to different factors or variables might be different, how would it be possible to determine a composite 'carrying capacity' threshold? Was there a need to think of 'carrying capacity' vis-a-vis the gains and benefits to the local community, and, if so, how could this be internalised in operationalising the 'carrying capacity' notion? A number of related queries and comments were made from the floor.

Concerning the involvement of locals in the tourism trade which appeared to be a concern in the Indian Case Studies, the case of Nepal was cited to illustrate the migration of locals to larger urban areas. The Sherpas from the Everest area had been heavily involved in trek operations in the area, but once they achieved some

success, the tendency was to move to Kathmandu. The issue of extending physical infrastructure to pilgrim sites was also raised, particularly with respect to the environmental and economic impacts. For example, it was noted that, if the road connection to Badrinath would not have been there, perhaps the benefits accruing to the local economy would have been greater and the environmental impact much less severe. The issue of rising economic inequalities due to tourism was also raised, and it was suggested that the mechanism leading to such inequalities needed to be better understood.

In response to the comments on 'carrying capacity' issues, it was noted that, methodologically, the question of 'carrying capacity' was quite complex, but some kind of prioritisation of the factors affecting 'carrying capacity', in particular areas, in qualitative, if not always in quantitative terms, could be made. The notion of threshold might be absolute in some situations, and with respect to some factors, but most of the time it was relative. Therefore, the temporal dimension to the notion of threshold was an important one, since 'carrying capacity' assessment was a dynamic process. He agreed that the 'carrying capacity' issue needed more study, particularly in terms of relating the notion to the benefits to local communities.

With respect to the issue of rising inequalities, it was mentioned that, in Kinnaur, large orchard farmers

were the ones that could make tourism-related investments and, therefore, were naturally the prime beneficiaries.

### *Case Studies from Nepal*

While presenting the Case Studies from Nepal, Dr. Kamal Banskota of CREST recapitulated the major issues for investigation in the Case Studies. Evidently, tourism was important for Nepal in terms of foreign exchange earnings and employment, but its potential went beyond these realities. Mountain tourism had the potential to positively impact income and employment opportunities in remote, inaccessible areas. In recent years, environmental degradation had emerged as a constraint in mountain tourism. Other constraints were the lack of development of new tourism products in new areas, poor marketing, and a number of policy and institutional weaknesses. Therefore, tourism promotion in the mountains would require an environmentally-friendly approach and greater opportunities for rural development. Tourism was a competitive industry, and it would have to cater to the changing demand with better and quality services if Nepal was to continue to attract more tourists.

A methodological framework was then presented which defined the role and implications of mountain community and tourism development in the context of the 'carrying capacity' of the Himalayan en-

vironmental resources. In order to achieve sustainable mountain development, recognition of the 'carrying capacity' of the environmental resources was imperative. The methodology demonstrated that 'carrying capacity' could not be viewed as a closed concept which was determined by the immediate attributes of a local environment. Many factors that might appear to be within the 'carrying capacity' might, in fact, already have exceeded the 'carrying capacity'. At the same time, the scope might exist to enhance the 'carrying capacity' of the mountain environment. This scope could be both internal and external. Local 'carrying capacity' could be expanded by internalising external knowledge and technology. Lack of knowledge and appropriate policies might render some 'carrying capacity' underutilised. 'Carrying capacity' could be further disaggregated into social, ecological, and economic and an objective of sustainable mountain development could strike a balance between these carrying capacities. Sustainable mountain development would also depend on the extent to which mountain community development was complemented by tourism development. It was noted that this methodology was operationalised only in a limited sense in the context of the Case Study areas -- Annapurna and Northern Gorkha -- in Nepal. For the purposes of operationalisation of the methodology, the concept of **critical factors** was introduced. These critical factors consisted of the recognition of critical

areas, resources, behaviour, infrastructures, and institutions. Assessment of these factors was then made in the context of the Case Study areas.

The Annapurna Conservation Area, the first Case Study area, covered approximately 7,629 square kilometres and was home to slightly over 100,000 people. It was the foremost trekking region of Nepal, and since 1986, had been managed by the King Mahendra Trust for Nature Conservation through the Annapurna Conservation Area Project (ACAP). The area ranged between elevations of 1,000 and 8,000m and was noted for its biodiversity and variety of ethnic cultures. Household level studies were conducted in Ghandruk, Ghorepani, and Ulleri to assess the impact and implications of mountain tourism.

The potentials for realising the benefits from tourism remained considerable in the Annapurna region. Although the 'carrying capacity' of the area was improving, more innovations in terms of new tourism products were required, to bring the 'carrying capacity' to acceptable standards.

Information derived from the household and community levels showed that, in areas without the provision of alternative energy, tourism had contributed to the shortage of fuelwood. Only a few households indicated direct occupational links with tourism. The indirect links with tourism were mainly in terms of the sup-

ply of agricultural goods to lodge owners. A number of programmes related to infrastructural as well as social and organisational development had been initiated through the auspices of the ACAP. These programmes were designed to improve the living conditions of the population and followed a participatory approach. However, the programmes were concentrated more in the Ghandruk area than in other areas. In general, the households perceived that the situation with regard to physical infrastructure and community and tourist facilities, including sanitation, water supply, schools, and maintenance of scenic areas, was much better at present than in the past. In general, households did not perceive much change in cultural and religious values. Special efforts had been made in Case Study areas to bring women into the fold of conservation, and development activities and women's groups played a key role. The introduction of time-saving technology, drinking water projects, and improved management of forests appeared to have reduced the burden on women. Improvements were also noted in women's education and income. A significant proportion of households perceived this to be a result of tourism. Also, the households perceived that tourism had a salutary effect on the employment and poverty picture of the area. Tourism was noted to have provided better access to income-generating opportunities like food-and-cash production and livestock and handicraft development activities.

The lodging situation was improving with each passing year in the area, and about 95 per cent of the lodges were locally owned. An average lodge provided employment for about 7.5 persons. More females were employed in lodges than males. Use of alternative energy was a matter of price and availability. However, some level of energy substitution was evident between fuelwood and others such as solar, kerosene, and electricity. In general, lodge owners did not consider the existing capacity and quality of lodges to be a constraint on the growth in tourism and felt that the linkage of tourism with aspects of local economic, environmental, and community development remained fairly positive. The role of the ACAP was also perceived to be important in improving the well-being of the community.

The majority of the visitors to the area were free individual trekkers (FITs) who spent about nine days trekking, compared to 14 for group trekkers. The facilities were regarded as fair by a majority of the visitors surveyed. It was generally felt that at present the number of trekkers to the area was adequate, and that any rise in numbers would negatively impact the experience of the trekkers. A majority of the visitors felt the garbage, litter, and sanitation conditions in homes and villages along the trek to be unsatisfactory. Over 90 per cent of the visitors expressed satisfaction from the trek as expected.

Qualitative assessment of the 'carrying capacity' of the area, following the critical factor approach, revealed that the ACAP had classified the area into different management zones, which had implications for the activities that could be undertaken. However, it was felt that this was just a beginning, and a great deal of work remained to be done in terms of developing new products, defining safe minimum standards, and dealing with issues of poverty alleviation. There was also a need to view critical areas in terms of the value of environmental resources. The issue of critical environmental resources was also being addressed by the ACAP programme, but the region was still vulnerable in this respect. Some critical infrastructures, particularly in the area of social development, were put in place by the ACAP, but a lot remained to be done in terms of identifying, assessing, and developing infrastructures that promoted economic growth as well as conservation at the local level. The ACAP again had acted as the catalytic agent in the establishment of critical local level institutions, but the efficacy and effectiveness of these institutions needed to be assessed, since no such mechanism currently existed. The ACAP had also tried to influence the behaviour of both the visitors as well as the actors in the local economic and environmental scene. The system of incentives and disincentives affected the behaviour of households and communities in the use of resources and, in this regard, the scope for

innovative approaches in the area remained considerable.

Northern Gorkha, the second Case Study area, was relatively new to tourism. It was an area of unique topographic and natural diversity. The economy was poor with a majority of food-deficit households. Only group tourism was permitted in the area. The environmental and economic impact of tourism in the area had not manifested in the same way as it had in the Annapurna area, but some trends could be seen. Although it was generally believed that group tourism had less of an impact on the environment, in terms of the demand for fuelwood, this might not be true because porters often depended on fuelwood. Also, the impact of group tourism on the local economy was limited because group tourists were by nature self-sufficient and local people did not find ways to benefit from tourism.

The 'carrying capacity' of the Northern Gorkha area was mixed. If current practices continued, the environmental 'carrying capacity' could be exceeded very quickly. The presentation highlighted the actions required to conserve important critical areas and resources. The economic 'carrying capacity' was already overstretched, and the current practices were not likely to bring in benefits. Also, unmanaged growth of tourism could have serious implications on the social 'carrying capacity' of the area.

A number of areas of action were identified by the Case Studies in each case. In the ACAP area, many of the benefits went primarily to lodge and restaurant owners, and a large proportion of subsistence farmers did not benefit. Also, a larger share of income from tourism tended to leak out. Estimates showed that about 50 per cent of the money spent by tourists was retained in the ACAP area but scope for larger retention existed. The main issue was that of **strengthening the linkages of tourism development with local community development**. Better assessment of the value of environmental resources, defining the limits of acceptable change, and setting up and enforcing standards should be priority issues in the area. The overall information base on the ACAP was poor, and the lack of adequate and systematic information on environmental and socioeconomic conditions severely limited the recommendation domain. Developing new tourism products, like the innovative eco-tourism initiative in the Sikles area; searching for the resolution of conflicts between the needs of the local population and conservation of particular areas; diversifying tourist destinations from areas that exhibit facility constraints; enhancing the monitoring capacity of local institutions; use of direct and indirect incentives to smoothen the uneven distribution of costs and benefits; and priority emphasis on income-generating activities with the potential to improve the socioeconomic well-being of the poorest of the poor -- these were the

areas where added initiatives were required in the ACAP area. Establishment of grass-roots institutions had been one of the most positive achievements of the ACAP initiative. The major problem was to make these institutions sustainable.

A number of lessons from the ACAP area might be of value for the development of the tourism potentials of Northern Gorkha. Lack of community infrastructures and resource management systems were major constraints. The issue of enhancing the social 'carrying capacity' which benefitted both the local community and the tourist required considerable and concerted efforts. Firewood harvesting in Northern Gorkha was an issue that needed to be urgently addressed as the increase in tourist numbers would surely impact the forest situation. Because of extreme poverty in Northern Gorkha, tourism promotion alone was unlikely to help in improving the life of the people. Therefore, environmental conservation and poverty alleviation initiatives needed to go hand-in-hand. Income-generating programmes also needed to be discreetly identified for specific poverty pockets. Among the recommended areas of action in Northern Gorkha were: development of new tourist products and markets based on the concept of the tourism hub; **creation and strengthening of local institutions for conservation and community development programmes; encouraging the participation of women in tourism, community development, and income-generating**

**programmes; motivating the private sector in the development of tourist hubs; and developing effective systems of monitoring and dealing with impacts.**

### *Discussion*

The workability of the 'carrying capacity' approach, in the context of the policy-programme environment in Nepal, was questioned during the discussion. It was noted that tourists themselves also affected 'carrying capacity' because they were not a homogeneous group. Commenting on the links of tourism with local communities, it was suggested that the tourism industry was not determined by the local community alone as there were many regional and international issues involved. The emphasis at the local level should be on preserving the touristic assets of the locality. Therefore, more action research was needed on aspects of local level resource management. It was suggested that the emphasis should be on supporting local institutions. Also, it was noted that a distinction needed to be made between local communities and local institutions, and that perhaps there might even be a need to delink tourism at the local level with local government. Commenting on the concept of community, it was suggested by one participant that the community-based paradigm was out dated, and, therefore, there was a need to build on some other paradigm such as user groups, ethno-development, etc. However, others

noted that the community as a heterogenous entity was not an outdated paradigm and the notions of user groups, ethnicity etc were subsumed within such a community. Community, in this sense, reflected civil society in its most basic form.

In a comment on the need for outside investments to create better tourism infrastructure, it was noted that it was naive to expect the benefits of tourism to accrue to local people when investments were being made from outside. Businesses simply did not hand over profits to local communities and, therefore, a power-sharing politico-economic and environmental context had to be created.

Responding to the comments, Dr. Kamal Banskota mentioned that 'carrying capacity' was not a static concept. Since there were no 'carrying capacity' standards, these had to be defined in each context, based on the perceptions of different groups and changes on the supply side, including management, infrastructure, and so on. The focus on the notion of critical factors was that, if critical factors improved, this would expand the 'carrying capacity' and vice versa.

In conclusion, Dr. Dilli Khanal, Member of the National Planning Commission and the Chairman of the Session, noted that creation of income-generating opportunities was the key to poverty alleviation and this was where the nexus between mountain tourism and poverty al-

leviation needed to be sought. He mentioned the recent initiatives taken by the Government and noted that these would contribute to bringing about positive linkages between mountain tourism and local community development.

### *Case Studies from Pakistan*

The Case Studies from Pakistan were presented by Prof. Mian M. Nazeer, the Team Leader of the Pakistan Study Team, on behalf of the Development Research Group.

In terms of the focus of the Case Studies, the following issues were noted: the competition for resource use between tourists and local communities; the visible environmental and economic impacts of tourism, particularly those of pollution and deforestation due to trekking and mountaineering; the question of 'carrying capacity'; the issue of seasonality and the levelling out of the tourist load; the spread of the economic benefits of tourism to local communities; and the lack of a good statistical base and a clear policy perspective on tourism.

In Pakistan, the Kalam and Hunza Valleys were chosen as Case Study areas to elucidate two types of tourism: one based on resorts and the other based on adventure tourism, basically trekking and mountaineering. In both these areas, a number of critical factors had been looked into. These included tourist resources, tourist areas, attitudes

and behaviour, institutions, infrastructure, social development, and economic security. In looking at these factors, the major concern was **to assess the 'carrying capacity' of the tourist areas, in terms of their potential for local level economic, environmental and community development.**

The Pakistan presentation then highlighted the setting and tourism resources of the Case Study areas. Kalam Valley, the first Case Study area, formed part of the Kalam subdivision of Swat in the NWFP, with an estimated population of around 45,000. The Valley was rather narrow and opened on to a six kilometre wide plateau. Winters were severe and about 80 per cent of the population practiced seasonal migration. Literacy was extremely low. Forests while being degraded remain a major source of income for locals. Potato and maize remained the two main crops. The Kalam Integrated Development Project (KIDP) had introduced a number of vegetable crops that provided the staple for the tourist industry. Kalam was connected to Swat by a metalled road.

The rise of tourism had resulted in significant changes in the settlement pattern of the Valley. Construction, in response to tourist demand, was evident all over the Valley. As a result, real estate prices had gone up and tourism had emerged as a potentially important employer in the local economy. The KIDP had been a major support base of the tourism industry, in terms of developing an

ecologically-sound production base, building up of social infrastructures, management of natural resources, and increasing local participation in development, among many other initiatives. While KIDP had in some ways contributed to the overall development of the Kalam area, the effort did not appear to have strong direct linkages with tourism.

Tourism assets of the area included the salubrious summer climate and scenic beauty, biodiversity and the floral and faunal richness, white water rafting, nature treks along the Ushu, Utrot, Gabrol Valleys, and handicrafts. Nearly 100,000 tourists visited Kalam each year. Pleasure and recreation were the main motivations for tourism. The peak tourist season was in the months of July-September, when about 57 per cent of the annual tourist flow took place. Winter was the tourist slack season. Upper and middle income groups comprised a little over a quarter of the total tourist flow, which meant that Kalam attracted diverse socioeconomic groups. It was an area frequented mainly by domestic tourists.

Hunza, the other Case Study area, in contrast, was an area deeply rooted in history, featuring from Alexander's incursion to the rise of Buddhism in the Gandhara region and well into the present century. The Karakoram highway, which opened in 1978, ended the isolation of Hunza. Hunza was not only noted for its natural beauty but also for the unique variety of cultures and civilisations.

Hunza had a low literacy rate, migration was quite rife, and tourism provided some avenues for off-farm employment. Wheat and maize together with barley and potatoes were the major crops. The production base was dependent on agriculture and horticulture and there was no industrial base. It was an area of rich forest resources, where developing additional forests and improving pasture and range lands remained serious issues.

Development programmes in the Hunza area supported programmes that focussed on income generation, on promotion of social infrastructure, basically health and education, and on evolving long-term strategies for the productive management of natural resources.

The Khunjerab National Park located in Hunza was an established reserve of endangered species. Harmonising the imperatives of conservation with community needs was an issue emerging in the Khunjerab National Park area. The tourism assets of Hunza included the scenic beauty of the area and this consisted of a number of formidable peaks, glacial treks, white-water rafting, and historic and cultural sites such as the Baltit and Altit Forts, Karimabad town, and the Buddhist rock carvings.

In 1994, Hunza received over 14,000 foreign trekkers principally in 2,000 trekking parties. Domestic trekking tourism was also emerging.

The tourism infrastructure of the Hunza area included a 250 bed capacity in existing hotels and inns. The Pakistan Tourism Development Corporation (PTDC) had also added to the tourism infrastructure. The overall tourism trend in Hunza had been rising with an estimated 167,000 tourists (including domestic tourists) in 1993. The peak tourist season was in the months of June to September. About 35 per cent of the total tourists came for rest and recreation, and approximately a quarter were from the upper and middle income group.

Investigations on the impact and implications of mountain tourism in Kalam in the last five years with different groups - residents, tourists, tour operators - revealed that the general perception was of an improvement in the quality of tourism facilities as well as income earnings. It was found that about half of the facilities were managed by locals with a moderate impact on job creation and consumption of local products. Pollution of lakes and nearby streams had increased moderately. Forest degradation and depletion were quite visible. Increase in the physical density of the area had a perceived adverse impact on the image of the area. The impact on society and culture as well as on the role/status of women was negligible. Yet, locals felt more tourism would be good for the area. It appeared that certain areas had reached a point of saturation in the Kalam Valley while others remained grossly under-utilised.

The estimated 'carrying capacity' of 2,500-7,500 persons per day in Kalam proper is already a reality. New areas need to be opened. In economic terms, there appeared to be strong income and benefit leakages. First round leakage comprises around 50 per cent of the income earned. Linkages with the local economy remain weak. Under present conditions it is unlikely that more tourism will be economically or environmentally beneficial to the area. The role of tourism in the overall development of the area has not been conceptualised nor have efforts been made to develop positively reinforcing linkages.

In Hunza, the respondents felt that there had been a very rapid improvement in the facilities of the area in the past five years. Income had also gone up. The local buildings and lifestyle were also, to some extent, being impacted. The pollution effects were perceived to be negligible. Some increase in solid waste was noted. Density of buildings had increased but without much adverse impact. Along the trekking trails, some increase in littering was noted. In economic terms, most acknowledged that locals had benefitted a great deal from tourism-induced investment. In general, it was felt that there was a minimal loss of social, cultural, and environmental values. 'Carrying capacities' in Hunza were far from being exceeded, although on some trails, such as the Patundas trail, some problems were evident.

A comparison between Kalam and Hunza revealed that in Hunza a large majority of respondents felt that a large proportion of income earned remained in the area, while in Kalam this was not the case. In Hunza, custom forbade the ownership of land by outsiders and, therefore, the perception of outsiders taking over the local economy was absent. Hunzakuts, in this sense, remained confident and empowered by their capacity to cater for tourists, while Kalamis felt largely embittered.

The Case Study presentations focussed on the potential 'carrying capacities' of the two areas. It was felt that the potential 'carrying capacity' was considerable and depended on the state of physical and touristic infrastructures and management. To cater to a projected tourist inflow, diversification in present tourist destinations would be necessary. This appeared more urgent in the case of Kalam than in the case of Hunza. However, improvements in trekking management, regulation, and control of littering along trails and improvements in the adaptive skills of local communities appeared to be essential. Some risk of overload was present on trails like Patundas, Pasu, and Batura.

In recommending the Action Plan for tourism development oriented towards local community development, a number of key issues were emphasised. These related to diversification of tourist destinations, encouraging more organised tourism, promoting local management of tourism fa-

cilities, enhancing the market for local products, and ensuring that a positive linkage between tourism and local community development was created.

The main recommendations were the development of the interior assets of Kalam and Hunza. In Kalam this would mean developing areas like Mahodhand, Andrap, Kundlao, and Dhand, and, in Hunza, the selective opening of the Hunza interior for trekking. Resort development often competed with prime arable land, and, therefore, rational land use plans needed to be developed for such areas. A number of key recommendations were made to encourage group tourism in Kalam, better litter and pollution management in Hunza, and preservation of the cultural heritage of both areas, particularly Hunza.

The presentation highlighted the main elements of a sustainable tourism development strategy and emphasised the **need for a better information base for planning developments in institutional and organisational aspects oriented towards tourism that induced local economic and environmental development**; enforcement of legislative controls; operationalisation of policies based on market incentives; and promotion of communication for better marketing. In conclusion, a **monitoring and evaluation system, together with key indicators**, which internalised the 'carrying capacity' consideration was proposed as an approach to sustainable tourism for

local community development. Like other presentations, the Pakistan Case Studies also clearly showed that the issues of poverty alleviation, environmental regeneration, and concern for the disadvantaged (including gender concerns) were not spontaneously addressed by the type of tourism development that was taking place. Therefore, the major thrust of governmental intervention should be to ensure that these issues would remain addressed in the process of tourism development and that tourism would be conceived as an element in the overall development strategy of concerned areas.

### *Discussion*

The discussion on the Pakistan Case Studies centred around the strategy for the diversification of tourist destinations in the Hunza and Kalam areas. It was suggested that, in resort areas such as Kalam, infrastructure (particularly roads) was necessary for diversification of tourist destinations. Such infrastructure would induce the same kind of development that was taking place in Kalam. Information was sought regarding the response of the local-level urban planning process to the growth in tourism. It was suggested that in order to reduce leakages and enhance linkages, development of local-level entrepreneurship was of seminal importance.

Responding to the comments, Prof. Nazeer agreed that infrastructural development in other areas could manifest the same problems, but

forward-looking and pro-active planning was necessary. Such planning needed to be backed by the capability to implement legislative enactments and regulations established for the healthy development of such tourist areas. Moreover, in order to diversify destinations, efforts needed to be made to open a number of destinations. The local-level planning process was either non-existent or inoperational in most tourist destinations. This was the reason why the Case Studies had emphasised the need for **proper land-use planning in tourist destinations**, particularly in resort areas. On the issue of entrepreneurship and skill training, there could hardly be two opinions. However, the areas for training and promotion of entrepreneurship needed to be identified in a prudent manner and had to build on the potentials of existing linkages. He mentioned that the community development focus had to be taken as an approach to mountain tourism management and had to be an important element in the overall development strategy of the mountains.

Mr. Mohmand, the Chairman of the Session, reiterated Prof. Nazeer's response and noted that, since mountain communities remained much less developed than communities in other physiographic regions in Pakistan, the links between tourism and local community development needed to be vigorously promoted at both policy and actions levels. Skill training would go a long way towards promoting these linkages.

#### **D. Mountain Tourism Policy Perspectives from the HKH Countries**

One of the purposes of the Workshop was to share policy perspectives on mountain tourism from different countries of the HKH. The Overview Studies of India (UP hills and HP), Nepal (Hill and Mountain regions) and Pakistan (NWFP and Northern Areas) analysed the state of tourism and tourism related policies in respective contexts and assessed their efficacy with respect to tourism for local community development. These were the perspectives of researchers. The Workshop provided scope for information sharing and dialogue between researchers, policy and programme formulators, and implementors. Also, the policy perspectives of HKH countries, other than India, Nepal, and Pakistan, were presented in the Workshop. Perspectives from the respective countries are given in the following passages.

##### *Bangladesh*

The perspective on sustainable mountain tourism for local community development in the Chittagong Hill Tracts of Bangladesh was presented by Md. Abu Hena Mostofa Kamal, Senior Assistant Secretary in the Special Affairs' Division, Prime Minister's Office, Government of the Republic of Bangladesh.

The Chittagong Hill Tracts (CHT), covering about 13,181 square kilometres, had a variety of touristic

natural and cultural assets. The area was home to a number of tribes and ethnic groups with their own unique customs and lifestyles. In spite of considerable touristic assets, tourism remained unexplored as an avenue for off-farm opportunities. Agriculture remained the mainstay of the economy.

Among the areas of tourist interest in the CHT, mention was made of the Rangamati township located on the banks of Kaptai Lake, Kaptai Lake itself, Chandraghana, Khagrachari, and Bandarban. Rangamati had a holiday resort created by the Bangladesh Parjatan Corporation (BPC).

The Government recognised tourism as an industry in 1991. A National Tourism Policy was announced in 1992, and a National Tourism Council had since been created to develop tourism with increased private sector participation. The Bangladesh Parjatan Corporation (National Tourism Organisation) could also play an important, and pioneering role to facilitate necessary institutional support for promoting CHT tourism. For this, adequate incentives needed to be provided to the private sector.

The infrastructural arrangements for mountain tourism were not well established in the CHT, and the hill people were not well acquainted with tourism entrepreneurship. With better support, mountain tourism in CHT could create new avenues for local employment and the socio-economic development of local communities.

In order to promote sustainable mountain tourism for local community development in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, it was suggested that the Government of Bangladesh should prepare an integrated programme involving national, international, government, and non-governmental organisations and private entrepreneurs. The Government should also provide the required institutional and infrastructural support. Also, a marketing strategy needed to be developed to attract tourists. At present, foreign tourists to the Chittagong Hill Tracts needed prior permission from the Government. The procedures for seeking permission from the Government should be more liberal and simpler.

### *Bhutan*

Tourism Policy perspectives from Bhutan were presented by Mr. Thuji D. Nadik, of the Tourism Authority of Bhutan, and K.W. Yonten, of the Royal Society for the Preservation of Nature.

Since the beginning of tourism in Bhutan in 1974, the Royal Government of Bhutan had adopted a very cautious approach to the growth and development of the tourism industry. The number of tourists had been maintained at a manageable level. The Bhutanese tourism industry was based on the principle of sustainability which meant that it must be environmentally and ecologically friendly, socially and culturally acceptable, and economically viable.

In 1974, only 287 tourists visited Bhutan. This number had increased to 3,971 in 1994. The tourist profile indicated that most are cultural tourists with special interest in Buddhism. The average age was 45, and most came from middle to high income groups. The USA, Japan, and Germany accounted for around 58 per cent of the tourists in 1994.

Mountaineering, which was an activity initiated in 1983, was stopped in 1994 at the behest of the people of the northern regions who considered the peaks to be sacred. Trekking tours were introduced in Western Bhutan in 1978. Popular treks were mainly in western and central Bhutan. Trekkers, who comprised only about five per cent of the total tourists some years back, now comprised about 25 per cent. The rise in the number of trekkers was due to the closure of important *dzongs* and monasteries to tourists as a result of the Royal Government's emphasis on the preservation of cultural heritage and traditional values, ecological awareness among western trekkers who are attracted by Bhutan's pristine natural environment, and the relatively lower rates for trekking compared to cultural tours. Efforts were being made to develop other tourism activities based on the judicious use of natural resources. The principal among these were the development of nature treks, botanical tours, and ornithology trails.

In 1980, the Bhutan Tourism Agency was reorganised to form the Tourism Commercial Organisation under the

Ministry of Communications and Tourism. In 1983, the Bhutan Tourism Corporation was established in an effort to make tourism a sound commercial activity. In 1989, the Bhutan Tourism Corporation was made a fully incorporated, autonomous undertaking under the Ministry of Trade and Industries. In 1991, the tourism industry was privatised, and licenses issued to private tour operators. The Tourism Authority of Bhutan was established, along with the privatisation of the tourism industry, as the public sector organisation responsible for tourism activities.

From the very outset, the tourism policy of Bhutan has been based on the high-value, low-volume principle dictated by the need to minimise the adverse effects of tourism, while ensuring a steady flow of foreign exchange.

Given the limited experience, and the rather exclusive path that Bhutan has chosen for the development of tourism, the impact of tourism on local community development had neither been studied nor had attempts been made to assess the impact of tourism-related activities on the socioeconomic development of mountain communities. The National Conservation Section (NCS) of the Forestry Services' Division was in the process of formulating a management plan for the Jigme Dorji National Park area. The Tourism Authority of Bhutan would be working closely with the NCS on these issues and would attempt to uplift

the socioeconomic conditions of the local people through tourism-related income generation schemes.

### China

The perspectives on mountain tourism in China were presented by Mr. Jian Liu of the Bureau of Coordinated Development of Nature and Society, Chinese Academy of Sciences. His presentation was not limited to the Hindu Kush-Himalayas but touched upon the entire mountain region of China.

The mountainous and hilly areas of China accounted for more than 70 per cent of the country's territory. These regions were not only undeveloped but, in most cases, had a population growth rate that was higher than average. These regions also had rich touristic resources. Promotion of tourism in these regions was one strategy through which the local economy and ecology could be developed.

The mountain tourism resources of China could be classified into three groups: areas of historic legacy, areas with local and minority characteristics, and areas with unique natural scenery and habitats. Almost all the royal tombs and temples with touristic value were located in mountainous regions. Almost all the 56 minority peoples in China, with their unique culture, language and way of life, lived in mountain areas. China had an abundance of biodiversity and 630 sites in the mountains had been

set as biological reserves. Tibet and the mountains of west Sichuan and Yunnan harboured a diversity in ecological habitats which remained major tourist attractions.

Since the 1970s, China had been expanding her share of the tourist market. In 1992, 38.1 million tourists visited China which contributed 3,947 US Dollars to the national economy. Nearly 90 per cent of the tourist flow was accounted for by people from Hong Kong, Macao, and Taiwan. Domestic tourism had also been on the rise in China. Between 1978 and 1992, the level of urban and rural incomes had risen five to six fold as had the expenditure on recreational activities, especially since the rise in tourism. In 1988, the number of domestic tourists was estimated at 300 million. The gross revenue earned was estimated at 17.8 billion RMB *Yuan* ( 1 US \$ equals about 8 RMB). As the Chinese economy grew there was bound to be a more than proportionate growth in domestic tourism.

A number of challenges were also evident in the development of mountain tourism in China. First, the infrastructure required for mountain tourism, in terms of transportation, accommodation, and tour operators and agencies, was poor. Most mountain areas needed to improve the tourism infrastructure and facilities in order to be able to attract more tourists. Second, the concept of sustainability had to be incorporated into the promotion and development of mountain tourism. Policies and plans

designed to integrate mountain tourism with the needs of conservation and protection were still in their infancy in China. In certain areas, the overload of tourists, at particular seasons contributed to the irreparable destruction and degradation of the mountain ecosystem. Third, although domestic tourism was bound to rise rapidly, this group of tourists remained the least aware of the need to protect the tourist resources in the mountains. Littering and the destruction of vegetation and wildlife were common. Fourth, only a small proportion of the total tourism earnings went to the local communities and areas in the mountains. Most of the revenue went to transportation, accommodation, and tour companies, which were dominated by non-local organisations. The only source of earnings for the locals was selling of local souvenirs and food. In 1992, of the 2,354 quality hotels in China, Qinghai, Tibet, and Ningxia had only a total of 33. Lastly, mountain ranges in China had a fragile ecosystem and vulnerable cultures and lifestyles. The local communities could not afford to take preventive or restorative measures to counter the environmental deterioration which might be caused by intensive tourism activities.

Since the 1980s, there had been an increasing trend towards "eco-tourism", "green tourism," and, at present, 'sustainable tourism'. The focus of sustainable tourism was to promote the sustainability of tourism by various means, including the protection of local ecosystems. There-

fore, it was necessary to develop integrated development plans to meet the needs of sustainable tourism in the mountains. Such integrated plans should include aspects of infrastructure, market, resource potential, 'carrying capacity' (or critical load), and designs for sustainable use of mountainous areas for tourism. A rational mechanism of sharing tourism revenue should be established to ensure that the local community, economy, and environment benefitted from tourism. In policy-making, the concept of 'biological reserves' needed to be incorporated into the guidelines for development of mountain tourism.

China had a long history of harmonising man and nature. The philosophy of sustainable development dated back almost 3,000 years. These philosophies need to be incorporated into the development of mountain tourism.

### *India*

The mountain tourism policy perspective from India was presented by Mr. Suresh Chugh, Joint Director, Ministry of Environment and Forests, Government of India. Mr. Chugh noted that sustainability had to be the main thrust in tourism development. Ecological harmony, economic efficiency, conservation of resources, including energy, and promotion of local self-reliance, social justice, and equity were the four elements on which sustainability had to be built. Mr. Chugh's presentation

focused on mountain tourism mainly in protected areas.

Tourism was very intricately related to conservation and community development. While it could play a positive role in ensuring sustainability, it could also lead to degradation and degeneration of resources and social systems if improperly regulated.

India could be divided into 10 biogeographic regions out of which the Trans-Himalayas, Himalayas, and the North East held special interest. These were mountainous areas and as many as 95 protected areas fell into these regions. These areas abounded in a wealth of biodiversity. Almost 40 per cent of India's floral and faunal resource species originated in this region. Tourism associated with the protected areas in the Himalayas had to serve as a tool to maintain ecosystemic integrity, biodiversity, public awareness, and the enhancement of the local people's quality of life. Tourism activities and associated infrastructures, which eroded cultural and environmental integrity without net benefits to the local environment and the local people, were inconsistent with the objective of 'caring for the earth'. In developing greater cooperation between the tourism industry and the protected areas, the primary consideration should be the conservation of the natural environment and the quality of life of local communities. Therefore, tourism plans needed to be developed, which respected the 'car-

rying capacities' of protected areas and local communities. Tourism needed to provide a variety of development alternatives for local people. In this regard, Mr. Chugh noted the various enactments and the 1982 Tourism policy of the Government of India.

In India, the "Biosphere Reserve" concept had been used widely to promote participatory approaches to the conservation of biodiversity in combination with the sustainable use of biological resources through flexible zoning and management systems. The concept could accommodate a variety of ecological, economic, social, and cultural situations. There were nine biosphere reserves and four more were in the offing. Community support was seen as a key element in making the biosphere reserves sustainable. Compatibility between human activities and conservation was actively sought.

The Government had a major role to play in ensuring that community interests were integrated with the sustainable development of tourism areas. Communities needed to be involved in decision-making and also to participate in the management process so that indigenous knowledge could be applied to seeking solutions to management problems. The aim was to assist communities in deriving benefits from tourism development efforts.

Non-Governmental Organisations commonly brought qualities of in-

novation, commitment, flexibility, and the experience of closely working with communities to find solutions to their problems. Their involvement allowed the government to focus on other priority areas, and they also complemented the role of the government in defending the interests of communities. In dealing with the promotion of sustainable tourism, NGOs needed, therefore, to be encouraged to play their due role.

The adverse impacts of mountain tourism were due to visitor overload in certain areas and the inappropriate activities of the visitors. Therefore, 'carrying capacity' considerations, visitor awareness, and the enforcement of the code of conduct were necessary.

The Government of India had looked at tourism not only as a means of revenue earning, but also in terms of community development. With economic liberalisation, more and more areas were being opened to tourists. This required careful policies that were commensurate with the natural and socioeconomic 'carrying capacities'. In India, certain well-known pockets were overcrowded and there was a need to diversify tourist destinations. This required greater publicity and a well-charted marketing strategy.

### *Myanmar*

The policy perspective from Myanmar, with respect to mountain tourism and local community de-

velopment, was presented by U Than Oo, Assistant Director of the Working Committee for the Development of Border Areas and National Races. In making his presentation, Mr. Oo provided a brief survey of the developments that had taken place in the mountainous border areas of Myanmar. The Ministry of Progress of Border Areas and National Races and Development Affairs was responsible for the overall development of Border Areas.

Tourism was considered an important aspect of the economic development of border areas but the initiatives taken in this regard were of very recent origin. In April 1994, the State Law and Order Restoration Council had constituted the Tourism Development Management Committee with the Secretary of the Council as the Chairman. Fifteen sub-committees had been formed to support the Committee. In the border areas, the objective of tourism development was to promote cultural tourism based on the customs, culture, and traditions of the many national races. Under the guidance of the Tourism Development Management Committee, plans were under way to build a village of national races so that the village layout, traditional houses, livelihoods, festivals, arts and artifacts etc, could be displayed and preserved.

Myanmar abounded in natural beauty and unique cultural traditions. The Shan Plateau in Eastern Myanmar, the Kachin mountain ranges in the north, where the Kachin and Rawan

national races lived, and the Chin hills of the Chin races had enormous potentials for the development of mountain tourism based on nature and culture. There was an urgent need for better policies that would explore the market and create the infrastructure for the development of mountaineering, hiking and trekking, hunting, and riverine sports. Tourism was a demanding business and was highly competitive. Entrepreneurship in this field needed to be developed and promoted. Myanmar had a lot to learn from its neighbours in the management and promotion of tourism. Lessons needed to be learned regarding the adverse environmental and cultural consequences of tourism, and a framework for tourism development that contributed to local community, economic and environmental development had to be promoted.

### *Nepal*

The policy perspective from Nepal was highlighted by Mr. Prachanda Man Shrestha, Director General of the Department of Tourism of His Majesty's Government. Since the Nepal Overview Study had reviewed and assessed the tourism policy and environment in Nepal, Mr. Shrestha focussed on some of the current initiatives of the Government.

He noted that, although tourism for sightseeing and pleasure was the major motivation for tourists coming to Nepal, mountaineering provided the first impetus for tourism and, in

this sense, pioneered tourism development. It was only in the 60s and the 70s that culture and other attractions became important. The Tourism Master Plan of 1972 was the first attempt to provide some policy directions in the area of tourism. However, a perusal of the Five-Year Plans showed that mountain tourism in Nepal had been oriented by the development objectives of maintaining regional balance and environmental conservation and by providing alternative employment and income opportunities for mountain communities.

A major problem in the development of mountain tourism had been the gap between the demands and expectations of the tourists and the capacity of the hosts, i.e., the rural communities. Most of the service sector catering to tourist needs was based in Kathmandu and much of the mountains did not have these facilities. This gap needed to be bridged.

Some key policy initiatives of the Government were noted. For example, depending on the fragility of the natural environment and the tourism infrastructure, tourism areas in the Nepali mountains were classified into three categories. These were: the General Trekking Areas, the Guided Trekking Areas, and the Controlled Trekking Areas. The General Trekking Areas were frequented by FITs. In these areas, the scope for local communities participating and benefitting from tourism was higher. Only groups were allowed to visit Guided Trekking Areas. Once ex-

posed to tourism, the people in these areas would be able to derive benefits. The aim was to gradually convert these into General Trekking Areas. In contrast, in the Controlled Trekking Areas, tourist activities were strictly regulated and controlled in view of the environmentally sensitive nature of these areas. Group tourists allowed to such areas had to be accompanied by a government representative.

As a response to the issue of the environmental 'carrying capacity' of trekking areas, the Government had also introduced the system of differential fees for different trekking areas. High fees were charged in areas where the pressure resulting from tourist flow was greater than in other less frequented areas. For example, the fees in the Annapurna and Everest regions were relatively high in order to disperse tourists to other areas. The Government was seriously concerned about enhancing the linkage between tourism and local community development. While the experiment in the ACAP region of ploughing a proportion of the fee to local economic, environmental, and community development activities was well known, the government had recently decided to grant between 30 and 60 per cent of the revenues generated from mountain tourism to local communities for development work. Involvement of local communities in tourism-related activities, through the technical and financial support of the government; protection of the environment and natural resources; and creation of

alternative employment opportunities continued to be at the heart of the Government's tourism policy.

### *Pakistan*

The policy perspective from Pakistan was presented by Mr. Abdul Ghaffar Mohamad, Managing Director, Sarhad Tourism Corporation, NWFP, Pakistan. In his very brief presentation, Mr. Mohamad provided an overview of the structure of tourism-related, government-level institutions in Pakistan. At the federal level, tourism policy formulation was undertaken by the Ministry of Tourism. Under the overall umbrella of the Pakistan Tourism Development Corporation (PCDC), different provinces of Pakistan were looked after by respective provincial departments.

He noted that the Tourism Policy of the Government of Pakistan, enunciated in 1990, emphasised the development of tourism infrastructure and encouraged private sector initiatives. The Government was currently reviewing the tourism policy, particularly in terms of its lacunae and gaps.

Mountain tourism in Pakistan was looked upon as adventure tourism. There were three areas demanding policy attention. First, there was a need to provide low-interest loans or loans with longer repayment periods for tourism-related enterprises such as hotels. Second, in the case of mountain tourism, there clearly was a need to involve local communities

and NGOs in the process because this was the only way through which local people could benefit from tourism and also articulate their views and needs. Third, in many tourist areas of the mountains in Pakistan, land use was being seriously impacted due to unregulated growth caused by tourism. Therefore, there was a felt need to introduce clear land use zoning policies to encourage orderly development.

There was also the need to look at and indicate the role of the government in promoting environmentally-friendly tourism. The Government should create a policy environment in which the private sector could play the role it played best: that of increasing the tourism business and proceeds from tourism. In mountain areas, the capacity to absorb the impacts of tourism remained limited, and, therefore, there was a need to dwell on the nature and intensity of control that would be efficacious. The case of the Kalash tribes was cited as an example.

In Pakistan, there was a lack of Master Plans for Tourism development in the mountain areas of the NWFP and Northern Areas. Urgent planning was a felt need in the Hazara and Malakand Divisions. Diversification of tourism needed to be viewed not only in terms of destinations, but also in terms of the type of tourism. It was noted that there was enough scope for the promotion of winter sports to attract tourists to the NWFP and Northern Areas.

### **E. Mountain Tourism Perspectives from NGOs and the Private Sector**

Perspectives from NGOs and the private sector were articulated by various participants from these sectors. Sonam Dawa from the Ladakh Ecological Development Group, Leh, and S.P. Chamoli from the Himalayan Adventure Institute, Mussoorie, presented the perspective from India. From Nepal, Shailendra Thakali presented the eco-tourism initiatives of the King Mahendra Trust for Nature Conservation in southern Annapurna. Ujjwal Satyal highlighted the collaborative initiative being undertaken through the Quality Tourism Project, and Dibya Gurung provided a perspective on tourism and women in the Annapurna Conservation Area. From Pakistan, Izhar Ali Hunzai threw light on the perspective of the Aga Khan Rural Support Programme relating to innovations to promote community-friendly tourism in rural mountain areas of the Northern Areas of Pakistan.

#### *India*

Mr. Sonam Dawa from the Ladakh Ecological Development Group began by saying that the major concerns of the group were sustainable development, agriculture, education and information, and handicraft development. As such, tourism had not been an area of intense involvement, although it remained an area of considerable concern for the Group.

Introducing Ladakh, Mr. Dawa described the unique moon landscape of Ladakh, the insular weather, the high altitude villages, and the trans-humance grazing. Weather was a restrictive condition to winter tourism, although the scope for winter sports abounded. Ladakh typified the cold desert conditions. Leh was the trade centre of Ladakh, where, traditionally, the wool from Tibet and silk from China were traded.

Tourism in Ladakh did not have a very long history. Before 1947, Ladakh was visited by only a few intrepid travellers, mostly mountaineers, geologists, and those interested in the study of Buddhism, or those exploring the source of the Indus. Tourists were not allowed to visit Ladakh between 1947 and 1974. In 1974, some areas south of Leh were opened to tourists. Buddhist *Gombas* remain the main objects of attraction for foreigners. In 1974, there were only 400 tourists. In 1988, this number had increased to 25,000. The flow of tourists declined after 1990, following political problems in Kashmir. In 1994, 17,000 tourists visited Ladakh. The figure was expected to rise in 1995 if no untoward political developments took place.

In Ladakh, about 10-20 per cent of tourists are foreign. The tourist season was quite short and lasted for only a few months. Ninety per cent of the tourists came between mid-July and mid-September. Because of the extremely seasonal nature of

tourism, most tourist facilities remained closed during off-season.

Mr. Dawa noted that tourism had brought about a number of changes in Ladakh. The unique Ladakhi culture was being commercialised. Even religious festivals, which were traditionally celebrated during the winter season when the local people had time, were now being celebrated during the summer to cater to tourists. Inflation had hit the local economy hard. The poor and the disadvantaged, who derived little benefit from tourism, were the ones who suffered. In many trekking areas, garbage and littering were emerging as serious problems. Objects and artifacts that were venerated for their cultural and religious value were being stolen and sold in the black market to tourists. Wildlife was being hunted, particularly near the northern border, and this had been a cause for serious concern to local people as Buddhism does not allow the killing of animals. Although tourism had opened up some employment opportunities, most of the beneficiaries were younger people, often students, on holiday during the summer. Many of the non-student guides remained unemployed during the non-tourist season, and this created considerable social problems.

From the perspective of an NGO like the Ladakh Ecological Development Group, a number of recommendations were made for eco-friendly and sustainable tourism. These included the need to use local natural, social, and cultural resources

sustainably. **Overcrowding and concentration of tourists in certain pockets had to be avoided**, and, if tourism was to be promoted, **a plan to diversify tourism had to be devised and put in place**. Tourism had to be integrated with the overall development planning of the areas. Such a plan had to ensure that tourism supported the local economy and that local communities were involved in tourism-related decision-making. Awareness generation, at all levels, was essential. **Human resource development was the key to deriving better benefits from tourism and minimising its negative impacts**. Training should remain an essential aspect of tourism promotion in the region. Also, a marketing strategy that attracted tourists with the right attitudes needed to be formulated and implemented.

NGOs could play a very positive role in establishing positive linkages between tourism and local economic, environmental, and community development. However, NGOs also needed support in order to play these roles effectively.

Mr. S.P. Chamoli focussed on sustainable tourism development in the Garhwal Himalayas and presented a perspective of the private sector on mountain tourism issues and approaches. In general, his experience in mountain tourism in the Himalayas showed that the fruits of the tourism boom had not gone to the locals. Instead, tourism had destabilised the environmental and ecological balance and the social and economic sys-

tems. The loss of vegetation at higher altitudes had contributed to bringing about irreparable loss to the floral and faunal systems. Tourism would have very little meaning if it could not induce economic well-being in the mountain population and, at the same time, help preserve the rich natural heritage of the Himalayas.

Mr. Chamoli opined that this could be done by promoting healthy adventure and eco-tourism. The over-concentration of tourists in a few locations had resulted in great environmental stress. There were many natural tourist attractions in the Garhwal region, and the task was to diversify such tourist destinations. Proper training of people, creation of awareness, and provision of infrastructural facilities in terms of services and loans were essential for promoting eco-friendly tourism.

At present, most adventure tour operators and travel agencies were controlled by outside agencies and by big business houses which intimidated the locals. The locals, on the other hand, did not have the requisite capacity for investment and technical know-how. Further, the development of unplanned physical infrastructure had contributed to the displacement of the locals and the destruction of local environment and ecology. Pilgrimage in the Garhwal Region was a case in point. In the past, there were *Chutties* (pilgrim-halting places) every 10-15km in the circumambulation route to the major *Dhams*, namely, Yammunotri, Gan-

gotri, Badrinath, and Kedarnath. The *Chutties* had facilities like the *Dharmasalas*. These were mainly controlled by the locals. The development of roads had altered the whole context. Due to the development of roads, luxury buses could now reach many shrines. The trekking days had been reduced, and the *Chutties* had become dysfunctional in many areas. Pilgrim centres were overcrowded while the *Chutties* were deserted. The pilgrims hardly spent a night in the major *Dhams*. Furthermore, the pilgrim tourists were dealt with by travel agencies and tour operators from places like Delhi, Ahmedabad, Bombay, Calcutta, etc. Little or no benefit went to the locals. Instead, they had been at the receiving end of an overstressed local infrastructure of pilgrim sites, a shortage of essential facilities, and the degradation of the local environment and ecology.

Clearly, if the benefit of adventure tourism was to go to the locals, a very practical and well-planned strategy was needed. There was enormous potential all over the Himalayas for the growth of the adventure tourism industry, namely, mountaineering; trekking; rock climbing; winter sports; water sports, such as canoeing, kayaking, white water rafting, ballooning, para-sailing, and gliding; national parks; sanatoriums, and biosphere reserves. In Garhwal alone, Mr. Chamoli noted eight different kinds of tourist activities that could be promoted. Proper planning of these activities in conjunction with the local com-

munity could contribute to the sustainable development of these areas.

Regarding the needs of the private sector, a number of suggestions were put forward. These included practical training of locals in adventure tourism as mountain guides, rock climbing instructors, pilgrim and archaeological guides, instructors in winter and water sports; creation of infrastructural facilities and technical support for investment and management of guest houses, restaurants, and so on; publicity of new areas through good maps, audio-visual means, and so on; marketing of tourism by developing direct links with local agencies and thus reducing intermediaries; and providing of communication facilities: these were among the suggestions that were made.

In conclusion, Mr. Chamoli mentioned that "Five-Star Tourism" in the fragile Himalayas promoted economic colonisation. Therefore, a balance had to be struck between economic compulsions; social, cultural, and environmental obligations; and the interest of the local communities.

### *Nepal*

Mr. Shailendra Thakali shared the experiences of the King Mahendra Trust for Nature Conservation (KMTNC) and the eco-tourism initiative undertaken under the auspices of the Trust in the Ghale Kharka area in southern Annapurna. First, Mr.

Thakali provided an overview of tourism development and problems resulting from it in the Annapurna region.

The Ghale Kharka area had a relatively low volume of trekkers; less than 900 in a year. The trekking route, here, passed through some of the only remaining virgin Rhododendron forests and villages with unique cultural identities such as Ghale-Kharka, Sikles, and Yanjakot.

He said that it was essential to note the differences between the ACAP initiative and that being made in the Ghale Kharka area. The ACAP initiative focussed on three issues: mitigating the negative environmental impacts of tourism; generating and retaining tourism income in the local economy; and promoting linkages between tourism and local development. The trekkers' entry fee to the Annapurna area (NRs 650) had gone to create an endowment fund through which activities to address the above issues were being undertaken. The basic approach in the Annapurna region had been reaction to the issues that emerged, and various strategies were designed to minimise problems and promote linkages.

In contrast, the initiative in the Ghale Kharka area had been basically proactive. This was possible because tourism in the area was still in its infancy and locals had yet to experience the impacts and implications of tourism on the economy and environment. Tourism de-

velopment in the Ghale Kharka area had been carefully conceived to develop a new and distinctive product and to create a new demand for the wide spectrum of tourism opportunities that Nepal could provide. The aim had been to keep trekkers off the beaten trails, to produce a quality experience, and, at the same time, to maximise tourism revenue for the protection of the natural and cultural heritage.

Tourism-related programmes and activities in the Ghale Kharka area had been planned properly. The locations of a number of lodges and campsites in the area had been carefully identified and determined. Kerosene depots had been established. Micro-hydel schemes had been launched. The use of fuelwood in lodges and at campsites was prohibited. Learning from the experiences of the Annapurna area, where social friction and disharmony due to differential earnings from lodges had been a simmering problem, in the Ghale Kharka area the emphasis had been on small-scale, community-owned lodges and campsites. The community leased lodges and camp sites to individuals or managed these themselves. In general, individual lodges were discouraged and those on public lands, in particular, were banned.

Decentralisation had been and remained the cornerstone of planning in the Ghale Kharka area. Here, tourism guidelines had been developed and introduced through a decentralised framework in the in-

terests of the local people and their environment and through their participation.

The KMTNC experience in the Ghale Kharka area exemplified four major principles at work: **the advantage of demand creation as opposed to demand-led tourism**; a proactive approach to tourism planning and management as opposed to a *reactive* approach; *community* as opposed to *private ownership* of tourism infrastructure; and the operationalisation of a decentralised framework, based on *coordination and control* as opposed to *consensus and independent action*. The result had been the development of a distinctive tourism product designed for a quality environmental and cultural experience. The quality of visitors' experiences was enhanced. Small-scale, community-owned and managed tourism was helping to optimise tourism benefits to the local people. The coordinating efforts of various locally-formed interest groups or committees would, in the long run, contribute to enhancing the quality of resources on which tourism was based.

The experience, which had been labelled eco-tourism in the Ghale Kharka area, also raised a number of questions. How far could or should, an NGO like the KMTNC go in fulfilling the objective set forth by the eco-tourism programme? The present volume of tourists was unlikely to pay for the creation of infrastructure in the Ghale Kharka area. Should the number of trekkers be increased, or

a tourist quota be set, together with increases in the entry fee? Could the local interest groups control private lodges and camping sites? The Trust had set in motion a mechanism and principles essential for developing an environmentally-sound tourism programme. Sustainability, however, was the responsibility of the public sector.

Mr. Ujjwal Satyal spoke about a new initiative that was being undertaken in Nepal through the joint efforts of the UNDP, HMG, and the private sector. This initiative, known as Establishing a Partnership for Quality Tourism, aimed at forging a strong partnership between the public and private sectors to assess the requirements of quality tourism. A Steering Committee, with the Minister of Tourism as the Chairman, was formed to guide the initiative. Under this project, three main activities were being undertaken: village tourism, environmentally-sensitive tourism in the Kathmandu Valley, and international marketing and promotion. The initiative also sought to assist HMG in reconstituting the Tourism Development Board, enabling it to develop the necessary parameters for effective private sector partnership, and preparing the ground-work for a longer term programme of support by the UNDP for the tourism sector.

Three task forces -- for village training, for enhancing urban attractions, and for promoting destinations -- had been set up, and each task force was supervising the implementation

of identified activities. For the Village Training Programme, which related directly to mountain tourism, Syabru Besi village in Langtang was selected as the project area for the development of a Model Trekking Village. Syabru Besi was the gateway to the Valley of Langtang, was relatively close to Kathmandu, and was not a particularly reputed village in terms of sanitation and quality of facilities on the trekking route. It was felt that, given the administrative and other support expected, some concrete results could be achieved within the stipulated time and resources of the project in the village. The aim of the Village Training Programme was to create awareness and generate enthusiasm, not only among the people involved in tourism but also among villagers, by motivating them to engage in tourism-supporting businesses, so that the community as a whole benefitted from the tourism earnings of the region. Local participation in the planning and implementation of the programme and focus on women were the two basic features of the initiative.

The aims were to develop Syabru Besi as a sample village for all the lodge owners to see and to motivate the owners to improve lodges in their own areas. Lodge Operation Training was thus conceived as an entry-point into the community.

The Village Training Programme activities focussed on five major activities. An Observation Tour was organised for local lodge owners to

the Annapurna Conservation Area to show them the achievements that could be made through well-operated lodges. Lodge Operation Training was provided to current and prospective lodge-keepers. A massive community hygiene and sanitation programme was launched through school and health posts and the local youths were mobilised through the formation of Youth Clubs. Income-generating programmes focussing on women were initiated. The Women's Association had taken up the challenge of monitoring the cleanliness and hygiene of the village. The Small Enterprise Development Training Programme for Women (in occupational, managerial, and entrepreneurial skills) had motivated them to take advantage of existing credit facilities and to establish tourism-related businesses such as poultry farming, vegetable gardening, and weaving. Special attention was given to the long-term financial and motivational sustainability of the programme.

The Partnership for Quality Tourism Project sought to encourage partnerships at the local level. Mr. Satyal noted that the seeds had been sown, it remained to be seen whether they would take root and grow.

Ms Dibya Gurung from the Annapurna Conservation Area Project (ACAP) highlighted the impact and implications of tourism on women in the ACAP area and the activities that were being undertaken through the ACAP to induce women's participation in tourism-related activities.

She described the context of Nepali women and noted that, although women comprised 50.3 per cent of the population, they were largely illiterate (25% as opposed to 55% for males), and their enrollment in schools and participation in gainful employment were quite low. The Annapurna region was no exception. The Dhampus area in the Annapurna region (where the Case Studies were undertaken) had different castes/ethnic groups. The workload, social and community status, as well as decision-making context of women within households, varied from one group to the next. *Gurung* women, in general, were better-off than the *Brahmin/Chhetri* women and the *Kami/Damai* women.

Tourism opened up a number of off-farm opportunities and also had implications for the workloads of women. Lodge-keeping, livestock and poultry-raising, petty trade, wage labour, vegetable cultivation, alcohol brewing and selling, and fuelwood collection were the main off-farm opportunities opened up by tourism. The experiences of women involved in tourism revealed that tourism-related activities promoted workload-sharing within households. Such activities were considered better than the drudgery of agricultural work and were, in general, a positive influence on the women. At the household level, women involved in tourism had more say in how money was spent and were also active at the community level in terms of organisation of and involvement in community groups and activities. In

the Case Study village of Dhampus, 13 out of 29 lodges and tea shops were managed and run by women. Ms Gurung also highlighted the process and achievements of the Development of Women's Entrepreneurship Training (DWET) in the ACAP area. The Dhampus experience showed that, whereas the potential for enhancing women's status and their participation and benefits from tourism and related activities were immense, a holistic and integrated programme approach was required to bring this about. This meant that activities concerning community development, natural resource management, tourism management, alternative energy extension, and education needed to be gender sensitive. In this context, a number of gaps in the Government's Tourism Policy were highlighted.

### Pakistan

Mr. Izhar Ali Hunzai, Senior Programme Manager of the Aga Khan Rural Support Programme (AKRSP), spoke on the initiatives taken by the AKRSP in developing Village Guest Houses as an option in promoting eco-tourism in Northern Pakistan.

Mr. Hunzai described the natural beauty, serene quality, history, and legends of the Hunza Valley in Northern Pakistan. The physical environment of the area was harsh with much of the area lying above 2,500m. Mountain Oases provided for settlements, and the subsistence farming of one crop a year was sup-

plemented by nuts and dried fruits. This region had been part of the Silk Route since the second century B.C. It had remained the region of convergence for a diversity of races, cultures, and languages. A rapid transformation of the area began as a result of increased contact with the outside world, especially after the completion of the Karakoram Highway (KKH). Tourism had been one of the phenomenon resulting from the KKH.

Tourism offered many opportunities for increased income, but it also presented potential threats to cultural and environmental integrity. In many areas, tourism had resulted in an unguided and unregulated race to build unbecoming concrete structures with complete disregard for the local environment. This had been a sore in the rural-built environment. A small but significant way to deal with this issue was to use existing room space, available to the farmers of the region, to house nature-loving tourists during the summer months. In most parts of the Hunza area, rural households could spare modest living facilities for use as Village Guest Houses (VGH). The advantages were that it helped internalise the benefits of tourism to the small farmers and took the pressure off major tourism centres to build additional hotels. The VGH were for the ecologically-conscious tourists who wished to live with local communities, respect their culture and values, and enjoy the simple rural life and natural environment around them.

In 1992, the Enterprise Development Division of AKRSP initiated VGHs on a Pilot basis by involving 22 rural households in the Hunza Valley. An initial survey was conducted to select the participants. The selected families were given a week's long training in basic commercial hospitality, including personal and household hygiene, food and beverage services, the privacy and security needs. An inventory for basic amenities and supplies was prepared. Guidelines to tariff, record keeping, and charges were provided. Loans on commercial rates, amounting to US\$50 per VGH, were provided to facilitate the necessary investments.

In spite of a rather disrupted tourist season, many of the VGH reportedly fared well and were expected to do better business once normal tourism in the area returned.

The marketing strategy for the VGH was based on the 'image' of Hunza and the unique experience of living among the mountain communities in one of the most beautiful and unspoiled corners of the earth. The projection of an image of peaceful isolation and opportunities for walking, trekking, exploring, and interaction with people, including participation in festivals, were essential elements in marketing the VGH. Links were established through advertisements and contacts with major tourist information and marketing centres elsewhere in Pakistan.

In order to ensure sustainability, the VGH owners were encouraged to form an association to set minimum standards and to regulate prices, business practices, and customer services. Also, the Association was encouraged to take a greater part in

marketing. The AKRSP experience showed that the VGH Programme could be a viable and eco-friendly strategy for the promotion of mountain tourism for local community development.

**A** primary objective of the Workshop was to develop Operational Guidelines for Sustainable Mountain Tourism in the Hindu Kush Himalayas. To facilitate the discussion regarding the guidelines, Dr. Pramod Sharma, the First Vice-Chairman, presented a draft framework of the Guidelines and Monitoring Parameters for Sustainable Mountain Tourism to the primary of the Workshop. The draft was based on the synthesis of the Regional Overview and Country Case Studies and the discussion with the Country Study Teams. Three Working Groups, each having a broad representation of researchers, policy makers, public and private sector representatives, were then formed to deliberate on the draft framework presented to the Workshop and to finalize the Guidelines for Sustainable Mountain Tourism. The names for the three Working Groups were as follows:

- broad policy guidelines regarding carrying capacity, and income, employment and production link-

# Part 3

## Guidelines for Sustainable Mountain Tourism

**A** primary objective of the Workshop was to develop **Operational Guidelines for Sustainable Mountain Tourism in the Hindu Kush-Himalayas**. To facilitate the discussions regarding the Guidelines, Dr. Pitamber Sharma, the Project Coordinator, presented a draft framework of the Guidelines and Monitoring Parameters for Sustainable Mountain Tourism to the plenary of the Workshop. The draft was based on the synthesis of the Regional Overview and Country Case Studies and the discussions with the Country Study Teams. Three Working Groups, each having a broad representation of researchers, policy-makers, NGOs, and Private Sector representatives, were then formed to deliberate on the draft framework presented to the Workshop and to finalise the 'Guidelines for Sustainable Mountain Tourism'.

The themes for the three Working Groups were as follow:

- **guidelines for linking tourism with local community development; and**
  - **guidelines for establishing monitoring parameters for assessing the impacts of mountain tourism.**
- The three Working Groups were moderated by Dr. Kamal Banskota, Mr. R. Sreedhar, and Dr. Binayak Bhadra, respectively.
- In the final session of the Workshop, Working Group Reports were presented by the respective moderators to the plenary and were approved after discussions and appropriate exchanges. Several follow-up ideas were also suggested by various participants. These included the conduct of more micro-case studies in different eco-zones and areas and in different stages of tourism development; development and dissemination of more action-oriented and practical approaches to tourism development; defining the manpower development and training as well as a community-oriented institutional development agenda at the local level; and development of strategies and approaches for awareness creation on the issues of planning and

management of sustainable mountain tourism at all levels. There was unanimity among the participants regarding the success achieved by the Workshop in bringing together researchers, policy-makers, and development practitioners from different areas to share the findings of the ICIMOD Studies; in discussing the implications of mountain tourism for rural development policies and programmes; and in developing an integrated view and perspective on mountain tourism in the HKH. The **Mountain Tourism for Local Community Development Approach was deemed a necessary and essential approach to tourism development** that would directly contribute to dealing with some of the most pressing and persistent problems of the region, namely, poverty alleviation, environmental care, and the empowerment of local communities.

The Guidelines for Sustainable Mountain Tourism finalised by the Workshop under the three broad themes are presented below.

### Guidelines for Sustainable Mountain Tourism

#### A. Broad Policy Guidelines regarding 'Carrying Capacity'; Income and Employment; and Production Linkages

##### Policy

1. The **goal of tourism promotion in the mountains** should be '*sustainable mountain and community development through tourism*'.

*tainable mountain and community development through tourism*'.

2. The **policy objectives of mountain tourism development should be environmental conservation, poverty alleviation, economic growth with equity, preservation of culture, and visitor satisfaction**. Sustainable mountain tourism should, therefore, lead to

- enhancement of the quality of the mountain environment;
- enhancement of the quality of the life of mountain people;
- enhancement of visitor satisfaction; and
- environmentally-friendly infra-structural development.

3. The **role of tourism** in sustainable mountain and community development may differ from region to region and locality to locality. In general, tourism should be managed in such a way that it should

- promote gainful employment;
- promote production potentials based on comparative advantages and marketing opportunities for local production;
- promote the skills and capabilities of local communities;
- promote the accessibility of the local population to basic health and education;
- promote economic/financial support systems, requisite technology, and the related extension and credit facilities

needed for tourism-related activities; and

- promote women's involvement in community development.

4. From the *perspective of the visitor* it is essential to

- conserve and protect tourism assets;
- develop tourism facilities and infrastructures;
- promote accessibility to information;
- promote visitor safety and security; and
- encourage hospitality as well as hygiene and sanitation.

5. The *role of the Government* with respect to mountain tourism should be in

- laying down broad policy guidelines and directions;
- playing a catalytic role in the development of new tourism products and diversification of both products and destinations;
- exploring and promoting markets and marketing for products in collaboration with the private sector;
- regulating tourism areas in the mountains, developing a transparent process of revenue generation from tourism, and revenue sharing for economic and environmental development of local communities;

- minimising conflicts arising from the competition for resources between tourism activities and local people's needs and the problem of the park-people interface in national parks and protected areas in particular;

- encouraging and coordinating the private sector and local community investments in the development of tourism-related infrastructure;

- ensuring complementarity of tourism and sectoral development policies, particularly with respect to infrastructure development, environmental regeneration, alternative energy extension, support in agricultural and horticultural developments, and credit support; and

- planning and managing land use in tourist areas (and potential tourist areas), including settlement planning and management of the built environment.

6. *Institutional development and coordination was deemed to be of central importance* in the promotion of mountain tourism. Efforts need, therefore, to be made to

- create and strengthen relevant institutions at central, regional, and local levels; and
- encourage coordination and partnership regarding policy, plan, and programme formulation in tourism with the

Private Sector, NGOs, and local community groups and institutions.

7. **'Carrying capacity'** is an important consideration in mountain tourism. With respect to 'carrying capacity', the following guidelines need to be adhered to:

- the management objective of tourism in the area/route has to be defined before a 'carrying capacity' assessment is conducted; and
- in the context of 'carrying capacity', the **limiting factors** need to be defined, assessed, and standards set with regard to the following.

*Environmental (geophysical and biological biodiversity) considerations*

The limiting factors may be

- size of the area,
- resources that could be intensively used,
- seasonality of resource use,
- topography; vegetation cover; fragility of environment including soil, geology,
- sensitivity of flora, fauna to human visitation, including diversity and distribution and conservation needs,
- pollution potential (solid waste, litter, etc),

- demand on environmental resources for energy, and
- impact of infrastructure (roads, lodges, utilities, etc) on ecology.

*Cultural/historical considerations*

The limiting factors may be

- preservation needs of historical, archaeological areas,
- preservation of culture,
- visitor impact on culture and social life of communities and visitor-tolerance levels, and
- visitor density vis-a-vis host's perception.

*Socioeconomic considerations*

The limiting factors may be

- the level of perceived economic costs and benefits (income, employment) to community,
- relations in terms of enhancing local production systems,
- the perceived socioeconomic impact on disadvantaged groups and women,
- the level of perceived outside/local investments,
- perception on developmental linkages, and
- perceptions on human resource development and upgrading of local skills.

### *Infrastructural considerations*

#### The limiting factors may be

- access, transport facilities and type of tourism,
- nature of accommodation and utilities,
- camping grounds and facilities,
- provisions for health emergency and public safety,
- communication, and
- water, sanitation facilities.

### *Institutional considerations*

#### The limiting factors may be

- local institutions for monitoring impacts (environment culture, economy, infrastructure),
- local institutions for linking tourism with economic and environmental development,
- outside/local institutions that can act as facilitators and catalysts, and
- institutions to promote visitor (as well as host) awareness and education and visitor satisfaction.

- Critical zones, spots, resources, etc, need to be identified in terms of the 'carrying capacity' consideration for the present as well as future generations.
- 'Carrying capacity' considerations, and factors bearing on it, should be adequately understood and appreciated by

the concerned local community as well as visitors. Mechanisms to facilitate such internalisation need to be developed at both central, regional, and local levels.

- Implementation of 'carrying capacity' perceptions have to be undertaken through the institutionalisation of participatory mechanisms of supervision, regulation, and control at appropriate levels. A system of feed-back of the operational aspects of 'carrying capacity' to policy-makers and programme implementors has to be developed.
- 'Carrying capacity' should provide the basis for developing policy options with respect to the nature, type, and volume of tourism. Such policy options may be developed in terms of pricing (in the case of fees, royalties, etc), absorption of seasonality effects, and diversification of mountain tourism by product and destination, in particular.

## **B. Guidelines for Linking Tourism with Local Community Development**

1. *A number of missing links* contribute to the prevailing lack of linkages of tourism with local

community development. They are as follow:

- lack of, or limited awareness of, the implications of tourism assets for local economic, sociocultural, and environmental development opportunities;
- lack of catalytic, enabling institutions and organisations at central, regional, and local levels;
- lack of resources to enable community development activities at local levels; and
- lack of focus on human resource development at local levels.

2. The **stage of tourism development** and the **tourism management regime** influence the linkage between tourism development and local community development. The strategy for linking tourism and local community development may differ depending on the stage of tourism development and the management regime.

3. The **critical role that local institutions can play in relating tourism to local community development** has to be recognised in tourism-related policies and programmes, and the promotion of such institutions has to be facilitated. Local institutions can play the following roles:

- generate awareness of opportunities for environmental

and economic development of local communities opened up by tourism;

- build confidence in the communities' ability to innovate and respond to challenges (and empower local resource use groups);
- monitor the impact and implications of tourism; and
- facilitate wider sharing of tourism benefits through the creation and maintenance of social infrastructures.

Local institutional development might itself require support and help from **catalytic institutions** from outside at the regional or central levels. Such institutional support should be managed in such a way that a dependency syndrome does not develop in the long run.

5. Catalytic institutions, at higher levels as well as local institutions, should promote participatory approaches to the planning and management of social infrastructures and environmental care. Such approaches need to be based on

- participatory and transparent decision-making;
- partnership in undertaking activity or in setting priorities;
- a transparent system of accounting and accountability; and
- wide sharing of benefits.

6. The roles of the local government, regional/national government, non-governmental organisations that are field-based, private institutions, and the federation of associations such as Travel or Trekking Agents' Association, Mountaineering Association, etc, will be different, depending upon local/specific situations. Policies should define these roles and facilitate the concerned agencies to play these roles.

7. **Participatory approaches** are relevant in community development programmes dealing with

- primary health care;
- basic and out-of-school education;
- road, trail improvement;
- drinking water schemes;
- afforestation and community-based forestry;
- creation of productive infrastructure;
- rehabilitation of degraded land;
- propagation of alternative and/or efficient energy usage; and
- organisation and mobilisation of women's and poor farmers' groups.

8. **Special consideration of target groups in terms of providing income and gainful employment** opportunities for the poor and disadvantaged groups, including women, should remain a key

element of local community development.

To ensure that specific target groups benefit from tourism:

- tourism products, including goods and services for tourists, should be developed around their skills and resources;
- mechanisms have to be developed to enhance the skills of the target groups so that they benefit from tourism; and
- in regulated or controlled tourist zones, mechanisms have to be developed to plough back some portion of the revenue for activities related to poverty alleviation and environmental care.

9. **Human resource development is the key to fostering and enhancing the links between tourism and local community development.** Potential opportunities opened up by tourism need to form the basis for training needs' assessment. Opportunities may exist for human resource development in the management of lodges and shops, catering, craft production and marketing, food processing, horticulture, poultry-raising, vegetable gardening, alternative energy, nature trail guides, guides to local tourist assets, etc. These opportunities can be exploited through carefully tailored training for local entrepreneurs and other groups. Links have to

be developed with the regional and national institutions that impart such training. Training has to be at multiple levels and on varied aspects. Refresher training and training to upgrade skills have to be regular features.

10. Development and implementation of a **code of conduct for visitors as well as the host population** is an important element in linking tourism development with local community development. Such a code of conduct should facilitate the monitoring and control of the impacts of tourism, on the one hand, and promote responsible behaviour among the visitors and host population, on the other. Development and implementation of the code of conduct should occur through the empowerment of local communities. In all stages, the role of facilitating (or catalytic) agencies will remain crucial.

11. Steps involved in the process of linking tourism with local community development are as follows:

- identification of assets, missing links, and resources;
- tourism product development;
- awareness generation;
- finance and credit support system;
- infrastructure development;
- skill needs' assessment;
- skill development and training;

- operations and management;
- marketing and promotion;
- monitoring; and
- feedback.

**C. Guidelines for Establishing Monitoring Parameters for Assessing the Impacts of Mountain Tourism**

1. The **Tourism Areas** for which the **monitoring system** is to be developed have to be **delimited**.
2. A **profile of the tourism area** should be developed. As a baseline for monitoring, the four following kinds of surveys/information base are essential:

- tourism and related basic resource inventory survey,
- socioeconomic survey,
- visitor baseline survey, and
- agency/lodge/hotel surveys.

While the resource inventory survey should focus on the nature and type of resource base and tourist assets of the area, the socioeconomic survey should provide basic information on socioeconomic characteristics of the area, emphasising aspects that might be influenced by tourism. The visitor baseline survey can be used to collect visitors' perceptions of tourist assets, resource base, infrastructure, and general im-

pressions on the area. Agency/lodge/hotel surveys can provide information on tourism infrastructure and amenities/services available in the area. The parameters used in such surveys can be used to monitor the impacts of mountain tourism.

3. The parameters that might be used for assessing the impact of tourism are given below. Once a consensus is established regarding these parameters, a major task is to **set the standards for impact parameters**. These will be the standards against which the impacts of tourism can be assessed, both quantitatively and qualitatively. The parameters to be established can be grouped into five categories: environmental, sociocultural, economic, gender, and development. However, the relevance of the parameters in measuring the **impact of tourism** per se has to be very carefully established.

#### 4. Parameters for Monitoring Environmental Impacts

**a) Forest and vegetation conditions.** The condition of the forests and vegetation in the tourist area may be monitored in terms of the per cent of **forest cover**, **forest density** in terms of crown cover, estimated **biomass** in terms of MT/ha, and **biodiversity** in terms of indicator species of flora and fauna.

**b) Consumption of fuelwood and other forest products.** This may be monitored in terms of the per capita fuelwood consumption per annum and the share of fuelwood and forest products in the total resource consumption by households, lodges, etc.

**c) Usage of alternative energy.** This may be monitored in terms of the share of alternative sources of energy, such as kerosene, electricity, solar, etc, in the total energy consumption.

**d) Water quality.** Here the parameters may be the measurement of biological contaminants, such as biological oxygen demand (BOD), and physical contaminants, such as silt content, and chemical contamination in creeks, streams, and rivers or other water bodies, e.g., lakes.

**e) Air quality.** Emissions such as smoke, exhausts from vehicles and aircrafts, indoor and localised air pollution as well as visibility can be the monitoring parameters for air quality.

**f) Noise pollution.** The monitoring parameter can be the measurement of noise by source (such as aircrafts) in decibels.

**g) Sanitary conditions.** The monitoring parameters can be the **quantity of litter** in specific locations or along trails. Litter can

be categorised into biodegradable and bio-non-degradable, and, in case of the latter, into toxic and non-toxic bio-nondegradable waste. **Solid waste disposal** in resort areas, on campsites, or along trails may be another parameter for monitoring the impact, particularly of trekking and mountaineering tourism. On heavily frequented campsites, **drainage conditions**, particularly with respect to sewage, may be an important parameter. The relative importance of these parameters is determined largely by the geographical location of the tourist area. At higher altitudes, with extremely low temperatures, decomposition of even biodegradable waste is not possible and may be a source of environmental hazard. **Use of environmentally-friendly technology**, such as solar toilets, use of incinerators etc, periodic or seasonal cleaning of the camps; location-based **institutional systems for cleaning the environment**, and the effectiveness of such systems may be other parameters for monitoring the impact of tourism on the environment.

**h) Biophysical environment.**

There can be a number of parameters, again depending on the geographical location, to monitor the impact of tourism

on the physical environment. These can be the **number and frequency of landslides, the receding of the treelines, the receding of glaciers, eutrophication and drying up of springs and lakes, and changes in micro-climatic conditions.**

**i) Environmental consciousness on the part of the community.**

A final category of environmental monitoring parameters can be indicators to perceive the consciousness of the community with respect to the state of the environment. These may reflect in formation of location-specific **community groups to raise environmental consciousness** and influence the behaviour of the host population as well as the tourists and **activities related to environmental care**, and so on.

**5. Parameters for Monitoring Sociocultural Impacts**

The sociocultural impact-monitoring parameters need to capture a number of dimensions that reflect the sociocultural fabric of a community.

**a) Demographic changes.**

**Trends and patterns of emigration and immigration among households** in the local communities can be important indicators to monitor the impact of tourism. Change in the seasonality of migration can be another important parameter.

**b) Social mobility.** Trends and patterns in social mobility among different groups in the community can be parameters indicating the influence of tourism in a given social order.

**c) Social cohesion, attitudes, and values.** These parameters can only be qualitative. The state of social cohesion in the community and family can be parameters indicating the influence of tourism in the community. The attitude of the members of the community to life, nature, social relationships, religion, and so on can be other indicators of the changes in society resulting from tourism.

**d) Practice of cultural traditions and rituals.** The practice of positively reinforcing cultural traditions and rituals is an effective indicator of the influence of tourism on local communities. These can be assessed in terms of the observance of cultural festivals and a renewed awareness of the cultural identity of the community.

**e) Cultural heritage.** The awareness of cultural heritage is reflected in things such as the preservation and maintenance of cultural assets and artefacts, the state of traditional crafts, and the extent to which traditional architectural styles prevail in the community. Similarly, the maintenance of ethnic, community-specific food and

dress habits may be another indicator of the strength of cultural heritage.

**f) Law, order, and security.** The extent of crime, violence, and corruption can also be used as a parameter for assessing external impacts on communities. The prevalence of prostitution has often been noted as a negative effect of tourism in many Asian countries.

## 6. Parameters for Monitoring Economic Impacts

The parameters for monitoring economic impacts need to reflect income and employment effects; effects on consumption, asset formation, ownership, and reinvestment; and impacts on levels of living in general and the levels of living of the disadvantaged groups in particular.

**a) Contribution to cash income and livelihood options** among households is an effective indicator of the economic impact of tourism. This may be measured in terms of the share of tourism-related income in the total household income; extent of household employment in tourism-related activities; contribution of non-traditional income opportunities due to tourism; and opportunities opened up for the poor and the disadvantaged.

*b) Land ownership*, mainly in terms of the sale and ownership of land to outsiders and the displacement of locals, could also serve as a parameter.

*c) Asset formation* in the area in terms of new construction, ownership of such construction, and other assets as well as savings that might be resulting from tourism.

*d) Wage rates*, relative to price increases and shortages of essential items, may be used to indicate the real impact of tourism on the levels of living in the area.

*e) Prevalence of child labour* may be a parameter to indicate the exploitation that may result from the pressures arising from tourism, particularly in lodge-keeping and catering activities.

*f) Reinvestment of tourism earnings in the locality* can be used as a parameter to indicate the effects of tourism in opening up new opportunities and expanding the multiplier effects of tourism.

*g) Qualitative perception of linkages within the productive sectors resulting from tourism.* The breadth and depth of a sustainable economic impact of tourism are indicated by these linkages. Perceptions of dependence of the local economy on outside, particularly with

regard to the growth of a **dualistic economic structure** consisting of an outside dependent, parallel economy and a subsistence economy. These trends may have implications for the long-run sustainability of tourism.

## 7. Parameters for Monitoring Gender Impacts

These parameters relate to the sensitivity of tourism-induced activities to the needs of women and the promotion of the interests of women as a disadvantaged group within and outside the domain of the households.

*a) Income and employment opportunities for women generated by tourism-related activities* and the extent to which women are facilitated to take advantage of the opportunities. Participation of women in tourism-related trade and the state of women's entrepreneurship may be important parameters.

*b) Effect of tourism-related activities in the overall work burden of women*, as reflected in the increase or decrease in the work burden and the extent of work sharing by male members of the household.

*c) Women's status within households*, as reflected in decision-making with respect to

use of income and other household decisions.

**d) Perception of women's status in the community**, as reflected in the representation of women in community organisations and the participation of women in development activities outside the household.

**e) Level of participation of women in Women's Organisations**, Mothers Groups, etc.

**f) State of women's literacy**, as reflected in the enrollment of girls in school, out-of-school education, and skill training for women.

**g) Attitude of facilitating agencies in promoting women's involvement in entrepreneurship and development work** through credit support, training, and related programmes.

**h) Long-run changes in sex ratios and in the life expectancy of women.**

## 8. Parameters for Monitoring Impact on Development

These would reflect the impact of tourism on generally accepted development parameters. These may include the following.

**a) state of accessibility to the area** in terms of transport and communication;

**b) availability and quality of basic services** at reasonable distances - such as basic health services, elementary schools, and drinking water;

**c) general level of literacy;**

**d) state and vitality of local institutions** such as local government, community resource user groups and their activities in the economic and environmental development of the concerned communities, the extent of dialogue between the government and the community in terms of development priorities, and the realisation of comparative advantages;

**e) extent of human resource development** in terms of the local pool of trained manpower that can innovatively create and take advantage of opportunities;

**f) general enthusiasm in development**, as reflected in the general participation in development of all groups and strata of the community; and

**g) relative change in the condition of the poorest households** in terms of levels of living, basic income, consumption, access to education and health, and fuel and fodder needs.

# Annex 1

## Workshop Programme

**First Day - 9 June, 1995 (Monday)**

10:30 - 11:00

**REGISTRATION**

11:00 - 11:30

**Opening Session**

- Welcome Address by Mr. Egbert Pelinck, Director General, ICIMOD
- Inaugural Address by the Hon'ble State Minister for Tourism and Civil Aviation, Mr. Bhim Bahadur Rawal
- Vote of Thanks

11:30 - 11:45

*Tea/Coffee Break*

11:45 - 01:15

**SESSION ONE**

**Overview of Regional Studies**

**Chair: Dr. Mahesh Banskota, Deputy Director General, ICIMOD**

- Introduction to the Workshop - Pitamber Sharma, Project Coordinator, ICIMOD
- India Presentation - R. Sreedhar, TARU, Dehradun
- Policy Perspective from India - S. Chugh, Ministry of Environment and Forests, India
- Discussion

01:15 - 02:00

*Lunch*

02:00 - 03:15

**SESSION TWO**

**Chair: Mr. A.A. Chowdhury, Deputy Secretary, Tourism, Bangladesh**

- Nepal Presentation - Kamal Banskota, CREST, Kathmandu
- Policy Perspective from Nepal - Prachanda Man Shrestha, Department of Tourism, HMG, Nepal
- Discussion

03:15 - 03:30

*Tea/Coffee Break*

03:30 - 04:45

**SESSION THREE**

**Chair: Mr. Thuji Dorji Nadik, Deputy Managing Director,  
Tourism Authority of Bhutan**

- Pakistan Presentation - Mian M. Nazeer, DRG, Peshawar
- Policy Perspective from Pakistan - A.G. Mohmand, Sarhad Tourism Corporation, Pakistan
- Discussion

04:45 - 05:30

- Synthesis and Guidelines emerging from Regional Studies
  - Binayak Bhadra, CEDA, T.U.
  - Shankar Sharma, CEDA, T.U.
- Discussion

**Second Day - 20 June, 1995 (Tuesday)**

09:00 - 10:45

**SESSION FOUR**

**Case Study Presentations**

**Chair: Mr. Suresh Chugh, Joint Director (WL), Ministry of  
Environment and Forests, India**

- Issues Emerging from Regional Studies and Introduction to Case Studies - Pitamber Sharma, Project Coordinator, ICIMOD
- Case studies from India - R. Sreedhar  
- R. Shankar
- Perspectives from the Non-governmental sector, India
  - Sonam Dawa, Ladakh Ecological Development Group
  - S.P. Chamoli, Himalayan Adventure Institute, India
- Discussion

10:45 - 11:00

*Tea/Coffee Break*

11:00 - 12:30

SESSION FIVE

**Chair:** Dr. Dilli Raj Khanal, Member, National Planning Commission, Nepal

- Case studies from Nepal - Kamal Banskota
  - Bikash Sharma
- Perspectives from the Non-governmental sector, Nepal
  - Shailendra Thakali, KMTNC
  - Dibya Gurung, ACAP
- Discussion

12:30 - 01:30

*Lunch*

01:30 - 02:45

SESSION SIX

**Chair:** Mr. Abdul Ghaffar Mohmand, Managing Director, Sarhad Tourism Corporation, Pakistan

- Case studies from Pakistan
  - Mian M. Nazeer
  - Saiyeda Zia Al-Jalaly
- Perspective from the Non-governmental sector, Pakistan
  - Izhar A. Hunzai, Aga Khan Rural Support Programme
- Discussion

02:45 - 03:00

*Tea/Coffee Break*

03:00 - 04:15

SESSION SEVEN

**Policy and Programme Perspective on Mountain Tourism and Local Community Development**

**Chair:** Dr. Pitamber Sharma, ICIMOD

- Perspective from Bhutan
  - Thuji D. Nadik, Tourism Authority of Bhutan
  - K. W. Yonten, RSPN, Bhutan
- Perspective from Bangladesh
  - A. A. Chowdhury, Ministry of Tourism
  - M.A.H.M. Kamal, Special Affairs Division, Bangladesh
- Perspective from China
  - Liu Jian, Bureau of Coordinated Development of Nature and Society, CAS
- Perspective from Myanmar
  - U Than Oo, Ministry of Development of Border Areas and National Races
- Discussion

Third Day - 21 June, 1995 (Wednesday)

09:30 - 10:00

SESSION EIGHT

Operational Guidelines and Monitoring Parameters for Mountain Tourism

- Broad Guidelines and Monitoring Parameters for Mountain Tourism - Pitamber Sharma
- Discussion and Formation of Working Groups

10:00 - 10:15

- Working Group Meetings

11:00 - 11:15

*Tea/Coffee Break*

11:15 - 12:30

- Working Group Meetings

12:30 - 01:30

*Lunch*

01:30 - 02:45

- Working Group Meetings and Report Preparation

10:00 - 10:15

*Tea/Coffee Break*

03:00 - 04:15

Chair: Mr. Egbert Pelinck, Director General, ICIMOD

- Report Presentation by Working Groups
- Discussion on Follow-up Activities
- Conclusion

# Annex 2

## List of Participants

### BANGLADESH

1. Mr. Abdul Awal Chowdhury, Deputy Secretary (Tourism), Ministry of Civil Aviation and Tourism, Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh, Chittagong, Dhaka  
Fax: 880-31-210146
2. Mr. Md. Abu Hena Mostofa Kamal, Senior Assistant Secretary, Prime Minister's Office, Special Affairs' Division, Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh, Chittagong, Dhaka  
Fax: 880-31-210146

### BHUTAN

1. Mr. Kunzang Wangdi Yonten, Secretary General, Royal Society for the Protection of Nature, Thimphu, Bhutan  
Fax: 975-2-23695
2. Mr. Thuji Dorji Nadik, Deputy Managing Director, Tourism Authority of Bhutan, Thimphu, Bhutan  
Fax: 975-2-23695

### CHINA

1. Mr. Liu Jian, Programme Officer, Bureau of Coordinated Development of Nature and Society, Chinese Academy of Sciences, 52 Sanlihe Road, Beijing 100864  
Fax: 861 851 2458

### INDIA

1. Prof. R. Shankar, Department of Planning and Architecture, University of Roorkee, U.P., India  
Fax: 0091-332-73560  
Phone: 72130; 72349; 73207
2. Mr. R. Sreedhar, TARU/Academy of Mountain Environics, 111/2-1, Rajpur Road, Dehradun (UP), India  
Fax: 91-0135-629944  
Phone: 0135-22567
3. Mr. Sonam Dawa, Director Coordination, Ladakh Ecological Development Group, Karzoo, Leh 194101, Ladakh  
Fax 01982 2484  
Phone: 01982-3746
4. Mr. S.P. Chamoli, Director, Himalayan Adventure Institute, Madhu Cottage, Library Road, Mussoorie 248179, India  
Fax: 91-0135-632446

5. Mr. Suresh Chugh, Joint Director (WL), Ministry of Environment and Forests, Paryavaran Bhawan, C.G.O. Complex, Lodi Road, New Delhi 110003  
Fax: 4360678

**NEPAL**

1. Mr. Basanta Raj Mishra, Chairman, PATA Nepal Chapter, RNAC Building, Kathmandu, Nepal  
Phone: 221585

**PAKISTAN**

1. Mr. Abdul Ghaffar Mohmand, Managing Director, Sarhad Tourism Corporation, 81-D, School Road, University Town, Peshawar, Pakistan  
Fax: (521) 843478
2. Mr. Izhar Ali Hunzai, Regional Programme Manager, Aga Khan Rural Support Programme, Babar Road, P.O. Box 506, Gilgit, Pakistan  
Fax: 92-572-2779 and 92-51-590205
3. Prof. Mian M. Nazeer, Chairman, Development Research Group, 7 Al-Sayed Plaza, Abdara Chowk, Jamrud Road, Peshawar, Pakistan  
Fax: 92-0521-841107  
Phone: 0521-810896
4. Dr. Saiyeda Zia Al-Jalaly, Development Research Group, 7 Al-Sayed Plaza, Abdara Chowk, Jamrud Road, Peshawar, Pakistan  
Fax: 92-0521-841107  
Phone: 0521-841107

2. Mr. Bharat Sharma, Regional Director, Central Regional Directorate, Department of Housing and Urban Development, HMG of Nepal, Babar Mahal, Kathmandu, Nepal  
Phone: 214208 (O); 415246 (R)
3. Mr. Bikash Sharma, Centre for Resource and Environmental Studies, G.P.O. Box 2481, Kopundole, Kathmandu, Nepal  
Phone: 523610
4. Dr. Binayak Bhadra, Professor, CEDA, Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu, Nepal  
Phone: 526336
5. Mr. Binod Krishna Shrestha, Team Leader, Gorkha Development Project, Pulchowk, Lalitpur, Nepal  
Phone: 526454; 527361
6. Mr. Deepak Dhital, Research and Planning, Department of Tourism, HMG of Nepal, KTM, Nepal.  
Phone: 233581
7. Mr. Devendra Nath Gangol, Chief, Tourism Infrastructure Development Project, Patan Dhoka, Lalitpur, Nepal  
Phone: 527852; 523962
8. Ms Dibya Gurung, Gender Specialist, Annapurna Conservation and Area Project, Pokhara. c/o KMTNC, Lalitpur, Nepal  
Phone: 526571

**MYANMAR**

1. U Than Oo, Assistant Director, Office of the Work Committee for the Development of Border Areas and National Races, Ministry for Progress of Border Areas and National Races and Development Affairs, Yangoon, Myanmar  
Fax: 95 1 85257 and 95-1-64336

9. Dr. Dilli Raj Khanal, Hon'ble Member, National Planning Commission, Singha Durbar, Kathmandu, Nepal  
Phone: 228107
10. Mr. Dipendra Purush Dhakal, Additional Secretary, Ministry of General Administration, Kathmandu, Nepal
11. Mr. Ghana Shyam Gurung, Conservation Officer, King Mahendra Trust for Nature Conservation, Lalitpur, Nepal  
Phone: 526571; 526573
12. Dr. Gyanendra Ratna Tuladhar, c/o Yeti Travels, KTM, Nepal
13. Dr. Harka Gurung (Member of the Board of Governors), Director, Asian and Pacific Development Centre, Pesiaran Duta, P.O. Box 12224, 50770, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia  
Fax: 603-2550316
14. Dr. Kamal Banskota, Director, Centre for Resource and Environmental Studies, G.P.O. Box 2481, Kathmandu, Nepal  
Phone: 523610
15. Mr. Kanak Dixit, c/o HIMAL, Patan Dhoka, Lalitpur, Nepal  
Phone: 523845
16. Mr. Karna Shakya, Nepal Heritage Society, Kathmandu, Nepal. c/o Ambassador Hotel, Lain Chaur, Kathmandu, Nepal  
Phone: 410432; 414432
17. Dr. Krishna Bhattachan, Department of Sociology, Tribhuvan University, Kirtipur, Kathmandu, Nepal
18. Mrs. Moti Sobha Shrestha, Executive Director, Hotel Management and Tourism Training Centre, Rabi Bhawan, Kathmandu, Nepal  
Phone: 271780 (O); 521954 (R)
19. Mr. Prachanda Man Shrestha, Director General, Department of Tourism, HMG of Nepal, Kathmandu, Nepal  
Phone: 233581
20. Dr. Prayag Raj Sharma, Professor, Centre for Nepal and Asian Studies, T.U., Kirtipur, Kathmandu, Nepal  
Phone: 231740
21. Mr. Rabindra Adhikari, Ministry of Local Development, HMG of Nepal, Pulchowk, Lalitpur, Nepal  
Phone: 522049
22. Dr. Ramesh Kunwar, Department of Culture, Tribhuvan University, Kirtipur, Kathmandu, Nepal  
Phone: 418433 (R)
23. Mr. Shailendra Thakali, Senior Programme Officer, King Mahendra Trust for Nature Conservation, Lalitpur, Nepal  
Phone: 526571; 526573
24. Dr. Shankar Sharma, CEDA, Tribhuvan University, KTM, Nepal  
Phone: 417811
25. Mr. Shyam Sunder Bajimaya, Chief Conservation Officer, Department of Wildlife and Nature Conservation, Babar Mahal, Nepal  
Phone: 419400 and 220850
26. Dr. Sumitra Manandhar-Gurung, c/o Plan International, Kathmandu, Nepal

27. Dr. Tirtha B. Shrestha, Ecologist, IUCN, Kathmandu, Nepal  
Phone: 526391
30. Ms. Yang Kila She Ja, Snow Leopard Trekking, Kathmandu, Nepal

28. Mr. Ujjwal Satyal, Quality Tourism Project, Kathmandu, Nepal. c/o KMTNC, Lalitpur, Nepal  
Phone: 413992; 526558

**ICIMOD**

29. Prof. Upendra Man Malla, Professor, Department of Geography, Tribhuvan University, Kirtipur, Kathmandu, Nepal

- Mr. Egbert Pelinck  
Dr. Mahesh Banskota  
Dr. Pitamber Sharma  
Mr. Sugandha Shrestha  
Ms. Jeannette D. Gurung  
Mr. Hubert Trapp  
Mr. Sameer Karki

21. Mr. Rajendra Acharya, Director, Local Development, HMG of Nepal, Panchpokhari, Lalitpur, Nepal  
Phone: 522049

22. Dr. Ramesh Kumar, Department of Culture, Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu, Nepal  
Phone: 418133

23. Mr. Shrikrishna Thapa, Senior Programs Officer, King Mahendra Trust for Nature Conservation, Lalitpur, Nepal  
Phone: 526111

24. Dr. Shrikrishna Thapa, Director, Tribhuvan University, Lalitpur, Nepal  
Phone: 418111

25. Mr. Sivan Subar Bajmalya, Chief Conservation Officer, Department of Wildlife and Nature Conservation, Lalitpur, Nepal  
Phone: 418100 and 230850

26. Dr. Sivan Subar Bajmalya, Director, Department of Wildlife and Nature Conservation, Lalitpur, Nepal  
Phone: 418100 and 230850

## ICIMOD Workshop Series

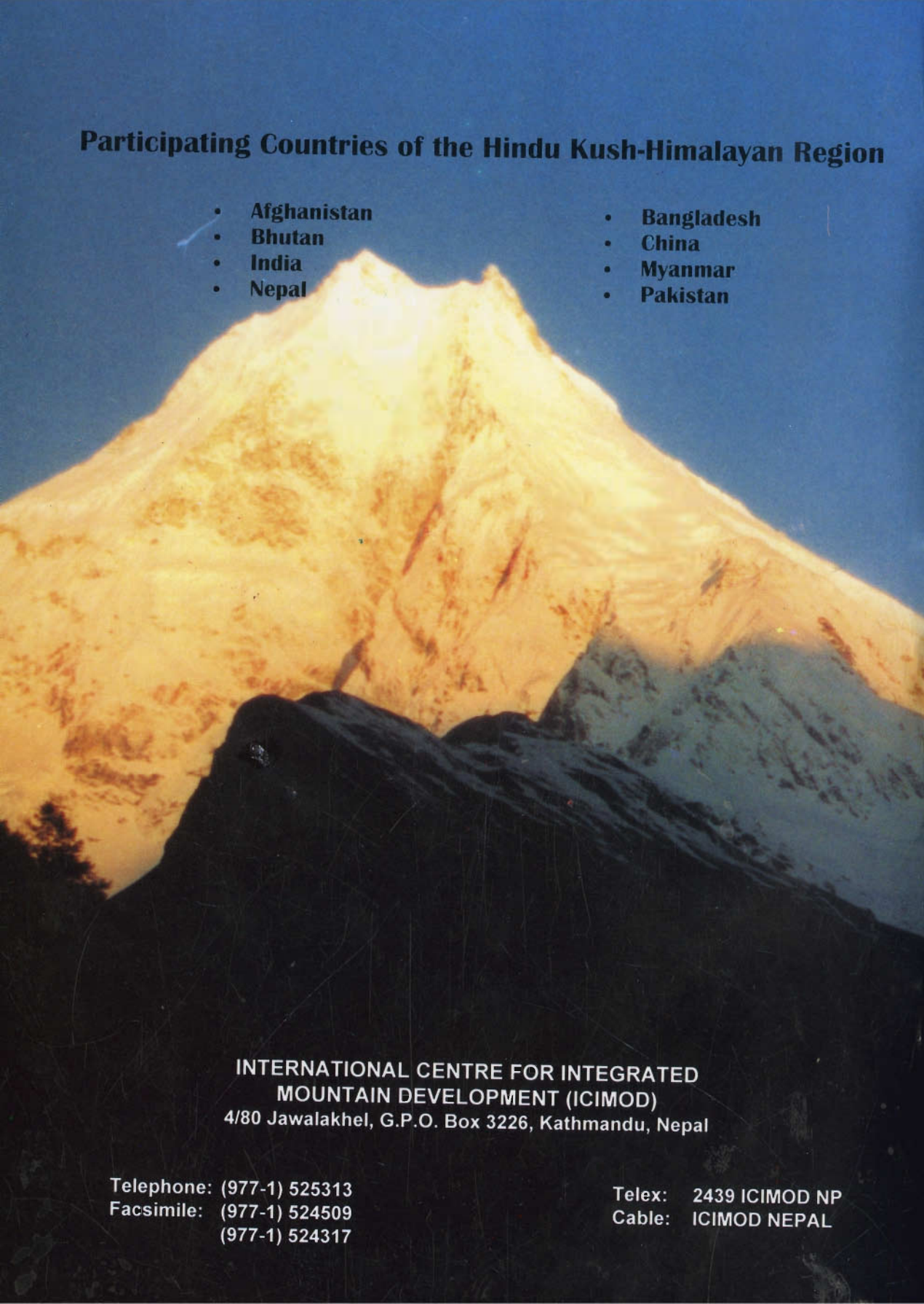
The International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development began professional activities in September 1984. The primary concern of the Centre is to search for more effective development responses to promote the sustained well-being of mountain people. One of the continuing activities of ICIMOD is to review development and environmental management experiences in the Hindu Kush-Himalayan Region. Accordingly, International Workshops/Meetings are organised in major fields to review the state of knowledge and practical experiences and also to provide opportunities for the exchange of professional expertise concerning integrated mountain development. The reports published in this series are given below.

- **International Workshop on Mountain Agriculture and Crop Genetic Resources**  
*16-19 Feb., 1987, KTM, Nepal*
- **International Workshop on Women, Development, and Mountain Resources: Approaches to Internalising Gender Perspectives**  
*21-24 Nov., 1988, KTM, Nepal*
- **International Expert Meeting on Horticultural Development in the Hindu Kush-Himalayan Region**  
*19-21 June, 1989, KTM, Nepal*
- **International Expert Meeting on Apicultural Development in the Hindu Kush-Himalayas**  
*21-21 June, 1989, KTM, Nepal*
- **Regional Workshop on Hydro-logy of Mountainous Areas**  
*11-15 Dec., 1989, KTM, Nepal*
- **Consultative Meeting on Mountain Risk Engineering**  
*20-22 Feb., 1990, KTM, Nepal*
- **International Workshop on the Role of Institutions in Mountain Resource Management**  
*1-4 May, 1990, Quetta, Baluchistan, Pakistan*
- **Seminar on Rural Energy and Related Technologies in Nepal**  
*26-28, Mar., 1991, KTM, Nepal*
- **International Workshop on Mountain Off-farm Employment**  
*17-20 Feb., 1992, KTM, Nepal*
- **Inspirations in Community Forestry**  
*1-4 June, 1992, KTM, Nepal*
- **ICIMOD Methodology Workshop on Rehabilitation of Degraded Lands in Mountain Ecosystems of the Hindu Kush-Himalayan Region**  
*May 29 - June 3, 1993, KTM, Nepal*
- **International Workshop on Institutional Strengthening for Sustainable Mountain Agriculture**  
*28-30 July, 1993, KTM, Nepal*
- **Remote Sensing Applications to the Planning and Management of Environment, Natural Resources, and Physical Infrastructure**  
*Oct. 10 - Nov. 6, 1993, KTM, Nepal*
- **Indigenous Knowledge Systems and Biodiversity Management**  
*13-15 April, 1994, KTM, Nepal*
- **Mini- and Micro-Hydropower for Mountain Development in the HKH Region**  
*13-17 June, 1994, KTM, Nepal*
- **Evolution of Mountain Farming Systems**  
*3-6 Oct., 1994, Pokhara, Nepal*

These Workshops were attended by experts from the countries of the Region, in addition to concerned professionals and representatives of international agencies. A large number of professional papers and research studies were presented and discussed in detail.

Workshop Reports are intended to represent the discussions and conclusions reached at the Workshop and do not necessarily reflect the views of ICIMOD or other participating institutions. Copies of the reports are available upon request from:

**The Publications' Unit**  
**International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD)**  
**G.P.O. Box 3226**  
**Kathmandu, Nepal**



## Participating Countries of the Hindu Kush-Himalayan Region

- Afghanistan
- Bhutan
- India
- Nepal
- Bangladesh
- China
- Myanmar
- Pakistan

INTERNATIONAL CENTRE FOR INTEGRATED  
MOUNTAIN DEVELOPMENT (ICIMOD)  
4/80 Jawalakhel, G.P.O. Box 3226, Kathmandu, Nepal

Telephone: (977-1) 525313  
Facsimile: (977-1) 524509  
(977-1) 524317

Telex: 2439 ICIMOD NP  
Cable: ICIMOD NEPAL