



THE GAZE

JOURNAL OF TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY

Vol. 5

No.1

Year 2013

Chief Editor
Prof. Dr. Ramesh Raj Kunwar

International School of Tourism and Hotel Management
(Affiliated to Salzburg University of Applied Sciences, Austria)

Editorial Policy

The Gaze is an interdisciplinary Journal which welcomes research articles, research abstracts and book reviews for the dissemination of knowledge about tourism and hospitality. Articles should be original and unpublished, based on primary sources or field work or reflecting new interpretations, written in English, but not exceed twenty five pages. The research work should be based on global research methodology in which the researcher will be required to use parentheses or author date system.

Manuscripts should be typed double-space on A4 sized paper with a 4 cm margin on all four sides. The research article should not be less than 12000 words and 8000 words for book reviews. The author should underline nothing except words which are to be italicized. Notes and references should be typed double-space on separate pages which should be included at the end of the articles. The text should refer to notes numbered consecutively throughout the article using raised numbers. The citation and references should be based on APA method. For example (The mentioned below are pseudonym), in text citation, there should be : (Egger, 2013, p.17); Egger (2013, p.19); Egger (2013) sentences at the end (p. 15); if there are more than two authors, Egger et al. (2013, p.21). In the case of references : Thompson, L. (2013). *E- Tourism*, London: Sage Publication.; Smith, R. and Basnet, R. (2005). *Tourism Profile of Nepal*, Kathmandu: Mandala Book Point. In the case of more than two authors: Yagger, M., Thapa, N. and Ranabhat, K. (2013). *Rafting in Nepal*, Kathmandu: Nepal Association of River Rafting Agents. In the case of research paper published in edited book: Fisher, X. (1980). *Life in the Land without Wheels*. In Ortner, M. (Ed.) *Anthropology of South Asia* (pp. 40-54), New Delhi: Adroit Publisher. In the case of research article published in the Journal: Tarlow, C. (1991). *Tourism, Safety and Security*. *The GAZE Journal of Tourism and Hospitality*, 4(1), 7-28. In the case of publication published by organization: Tourism Board (2009) *Natural and Cultural Heritage of Nepal*, Kathmandu: Tourism Board. All these formats are mentioned in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 2009, Sixth Edition, Washington, DC. Entries in the references should be in alphabetical and chronological order of authors. Tables and maps should be submitted on separate pages, numbered with headings. Notations in the text should indicate where these are to appear.

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The Editorial Board has right to accept or reject the articles for publication. If the article is rejected, it will be returned to the author. Authors receive three copies of the issue in which their article appears. The editors welcome enquiries from readers willing to review books.

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International School of Tourism and Hotel Management

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Editorial Note

We are very happy to offer The GAZE, *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality* Vol. 5, No. 1, 2013 to our readers. This journal is published annually in English by International School of Tourism and Hotel Management, which is affiliated to Salzburg University of Applied Sciences of Austria.

The purpose of this journal is to disseminate the knowledge and ideas of tourism to the students, researchers, journalists, policy makers, planners, entrepreneurs and other general readers.

Articles and reviews in the journal represent neither the views of the concerned publishers nor those of editorial board. Responsibility for opinions expressed and for the accuracy of the facts published in the articles or reviews are solely with the individual authors.

We have realized that it is high time to make this effort for tourism innovation and development. We strongly believe that this knowledge based platform will make the industry and the institutions stronger.

The Editorial Board

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Near Field Communication in Tourism a Conceptual Paper

Roman Egger*

Abstract

Modern society is virtually inconceivable without mobile devices and the consequent use of mobile services. The multitude of technologies incorporated in the tiniest of space has turned mobile phones, and smart phones in particular, into the Swiss knives of our times. What is currently perceived to be one of the most promising technologies for the future is Near Field Communication (NFC), which will most likely become the standard in mobile devices in the years to come. Due to the novel nature of this technology, the assessment of its importance for the tourism industry is still relatively unclear. The author is one of the first to focus on NFC in tourism, with the aim of introducing NFC technology and drafting first responses to the following questions: What benefit can NFC technology have for tourism and what functionalities can it trigger? What are the possible future applications in tourism and what challenges will tourism be faced with in this respect?

Keywords: NFC, Near Field Communication, RFID, Mobile, mTourism

Introduction

Information and communication technologies (ICT) have been playing an important role in tourism and have been changing it continuously for some twenty years now. The restructuring triggered by ICT has always led to a modification of strategies and adaptation of business practices, providing the tourism industry with its highly dynamic character. (Buhalis, Law 2008) Since the beginning of the new millennium, the Internet in particular has brought about a revolution in global interaction for a rapidly growing group of users. The new information, communication and distribution opportunities that opened up at the same time, have entailed a wealth of new tools and solutions now being used by the tourism industry.

Mobile telephony developed parallel to ICT and by no means less quickly. In 1992, the first GSM-enabled mobile phone was introduced and the number of users started to grow continuously. As from the year 2000, the number of people using mobile phones increased enormously, leading to a rapid development of the devices based on the more and more exacting demands placed on performance. When the iPhone was introduced

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in 2007, starting the spiral for the most successful smart phones, the mobile Internet breakthrough had arrived. While a few years ago the attempt to bring the Internet to the – at that time under-developed – mobile phone by means of WAP technology had failed, mobile Internet use has meanwhile become a matter of course, not least thanks to the continuously changing data tariffs of mobile network operators. Powerful operating systems, such as iOS5 and Android, integrated photo and video cameras, position and acceleration sensors, transmission technologies such as

Bluetooth and WLAN, GPS for geo positioning and much more are standard features of modern smart phones. In combination with access to the Internet – via mobile website or applications (apps) – myriads of new situations of usage are created. A new technology that will most probably be used in mobile phones and also offering various possible applications for the tourism industry is wireless connectivity Near Field Communication technology. NFC promises to make payment per mobile phone possible in future, to replace keys and open doors, to revolutionise ticketing for events and in the transportation sector, to exchange data between mobile phones, retrieve information from tags and smart posters and much more.

A look at the scientific exploration of the “mobile services & tourism” issue shows that only relatively few papers have been published on this topic so far. The contributions have mainly been made by the IFITT community that has clearly committed itself to this issue with the ENTER conference and the Journal of Information Technology & Tourism. In 2010, Egger and Jooss published a German anthology entitled “mTourism – mobile Dienste im Tourismus” in German; no corresponding work has been published so far in the English literature. A search for publications on Near Field Communication in tourism provides just a mere hand full of papers (mainly Chung & Tsai 2012; Borrego-Jaraba et al. 2011; Isaksson 2010; Baldo 2010; Öztaysi et al 2009; Hardy et al 2008; Madlmayr & Scharinger; Haid 2007 as well as Hui Eow 2009). These papers deal only superficially with NCF, treat it as a side subject or describe a very concrete application from a mostly technology-oriented perspective.

This paper tries to close this gap in the literature by analysing NFC technology in the context of tourism and trying to draft possible applications. The attempt is made to present a technology that could become omnipresent in tourism routines in the near future.

Mobile Services in Tourism

It is impossible to imagine our lives without mobile phones. This is not only true for Western, industrialised societies but is a global phenomenon, with striking rates of use reported mainly from the Asian and African regions. (Egger, Jooss 2010 S12) According to the World Travel Market Trends Report 2011, Africa has even taken over the lead in the mCommerce sector, with the travel industry at the forefront of the movement (WTM 2011 online). Mobile technologies are going to revolutionise tourism (Egger, Buhalis 2008) and mobile services are already being used in numerous sectors of the tourism industry (Ferry et al. 2010). The key features accounting for the breakthrough of mobile solutions are, above all, the possibilities of localisation and personalisation. In future, the demands will be on a pro-active design of corresponding products and on a responsive

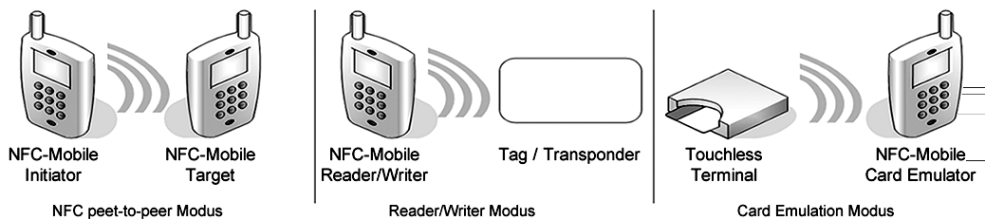
approach to the needs and requirements of holiday-makers in all the phases of their holidaying. Whether on the journey to the point of destination or on site: scarcely anyone will want to do without the convenience of being contactable everywhere and at all times, and everybody will want to be able to obtain place-related information. The transmission technology as such is not so important to the user; it is rather the convenience and usability, i.e. the intuitive operation of the device, as well as fast and secure access to information and communication that count. Convincing and relevant content in the right context of use is seen as the most important acceptance criterion. The ITB World Travel Trends Report 2010/2011 states that already more than 40 percent of tourists worldwide are owners of smart phones with Internet access (IPK 2011, 19); and with the wealth of forecasts at hand, there is consensus in at least one respect: The convergence of Internet and mobile telephony will lead to ubiquitous supply of information, not least for people who are away from their home base on vacation.

NFC Technology

1.1 The technology behind NFC

Mobile interaction with the environment is ensured by transmission technologies such as infrared, Bluetooth, WLAN or visual 2D codes. Contactless interface technologies such as NFC (Near Field Communication) and RFID (Radio Frequency Identification) are on the advance, however (Aust 2005). NFC is a transmission technology based on the standard of contactless smart cards, or more concrete ISO/IEC 14443. With a transmission distance of approx. 10 cm, NFC has deliberately been developed for the close proximity or contact range. Similar to MiFare systems and RFID, NFC is also based on the concept of electromagnetic induction that makes fast, safe and user friendly exchange of data based on the touching paradigm (Borrego-Jaraba 2011) between sender and target possible (Wiedmann et al 2009; SITA 2012; Madlmayr, Scharinger 2009). In contrast to RFID, two generally equal devices are used (an initiator and a target) that can work in both operating modes – which is also what accounts for the performance. The two-way communication allows for three modes of application: NFC devices build up a bi-directional data connection (peer-to-peer) or one NFC device is used to read or write an external tag (reader/writer mode) or the NFC device is used as a smart card (card emulation mode) (Madlmayr, Scharinger 2009).

Figure I: NFC application modes



Source: adapted and modified from Madlmayr, Scharinger 2010

The advantages of the NFC technology are manifold. With NFC, users of mobile phones can safely exchange data and information with other NFC-enabled end points and corresponding tags. There is no need for complicated pairing, as in the case of Bluetooth. Due to the immediate proximity, there is no misunderstanding as to the devices between which communication is to be established. NFC can also be ideally connected with other protocols such as WLAN, UMTS or Bluetooth. Another essential benefit of NFC is that the devices can be operated passively, i.e. without power.

The table below gives an overview of the most important functionalities and possible applications of NFC and NFC trials in the tourism context.

Table I: NFC functionalities & possible applications

Functionality	Possible application	Trial in tourism context
Mobile payment	The mobile phone is used as a credit or debit card at the point of sale.	Google Wallet (e.g. New Jersey Transit System) , NFC payment for London Olympic Games 2012 (by Visa & Samsung)
Information supply	You tap your phone on a tag that is incorporated in objects (e.g. cards or smart posters) or fixed to the surface and you receive access to the respective additional information.	Museum of London, Frankfurt Transport Systems, World Expo 2012 in Yeosu, Korea
Access authorisation	The telephone is turned into a virtual key. With the respective authorisation, hotel room doors can be opened, or access to mountain lifts or skiing resorts, etc. is granted.	Clarion Hotel in Stockholm, Nordic Choice Hotels, SAS,
Network access	Log onto a Wi-Fi network or get Bluetooth by tapping your phone to a tag	Can be created with apps such as "WifiTap".
Management of loyalty, bonus & membership cards	Loyalty, bonus or membership cards are stored on the mobile phone and can be managed there.	
Mobile ticketing	Customers pay with their mobile phone and receive a virtual boarding pass for a public transport system, such as the London Underground for example.	EAT restaurant chain; Pass and Fly by Air France, Nice Côte d'Azur Airport and Amadeus
Workforce management	Workforce can register by touching the tag on a backend system, for example, and will then receive further instructions.	Transport for London (TfL), City of Barcelona, Deutsche Bahn

Functionality	Possible application	Trial in tourism context
Identification	The mobile phone as an identification object to acknowledge certain actions. To identify the driver of a rental car, for example, to open the door and start the engine by means of keyless go.	Hertz Car Rental Modern and Contemporary Art Museum of Nice
Location based services	The use of NFC for location-based services. Especially in buildings to be preferred over GPS; navigation and application concepts for museums and indoor events, for example.	

1.2 Penetration and acceptance of NFC

After mobile voice and text and mobile Internet communication, NFC (Near Field Communication) is often referred to as the third wave in the mobile telephony revolution (IATA 2009). At the World Mobile Congress 2012 in Barcelona, the most important annual event of mobile communication, NFC was the core innovation presented this year, besides the LT (Long Term Evolution) transmission technology. The Gartner Hype Cycle 2011, a benchmark often used to assess technologies, also ranks NFC payment at the peak of inflated expectations. The Gartner Hype Cycle can, however, only be seen as a vague indicator of the current expectations on NFC as it does not refer to general NFC developments but only to the payment functionality, i.e. only to one of the many possible applications.

A decisive criterion for the future success or failure of a new technology standard is the general consensus of business linked to the commitment to jointly support the new technology. In the case of Near Field Communication, this consensus and commitment are ensured by the NFC Forum founded in 2004. The task of the Forum is to advance the use of Near Field Communication technology by developing specifications, ensuring interoperability among devices and services, and educating the market about NFC technology (NFC Forum 2012). The 160 members include manufacturers of mobile phones, network operators, service providers, application providers, financial service institutions and many more. The fact that heavy-weights such as Google (since 2011) are also onboard (Flores 2011) actively pushing this technology (e.g. Google Wallet, the NFC-enabled Google cell phone Samsung Nexus S) will most probably also have a positive effect on NFC penetration.

To date, the NFC chip is installed in only a dozen mobile phone models, but all the major mobile phone manufacturers have announced NFC-enabled phones for this year's Mobile World Congress. Gartner analysts predict an increase to nearly 100 million NFC-enabled end points in the year 2012 (Thompson 2012). At the same time, the most powerful telcos (e.g. AT&T, Vodafone, China Mobile and Deutsche Telecom) are also pushing NFC technology; in 2011 an agreement was reached that NFC-enabled SIM cards should become a worldwide standard (Walters 2011). This would guarantee the breakthrough

in the penetration of NFC. Another possible option is refitting NFC technology with NFC-enabled micro SD cards (e.g. for the iPhone; there are heavy speculations about the NFC-ability of the iPhone5 at the moment) (Engadget 2012; Borrego-Jaraba 2011). But at first, smart stickers can be used to add simple NFC functionalities to mobile phones. Scandinavian Airlines (SAS), for example, gives out smart stickers to all EuroBonus Gold frequent fliers across Scandinavia to make check-in and boarding processes easier and more efficient. The stickers can be used at self service machines, security, fast track, lounges, tax free shopping and at the gate (Clark 2011).

The use of QR codes is often said to be an alternative to NFC. These 2D codes attached to physical objects can be scanned by means of a camera phone. A QR code reader processes the information stored in the code thereby linking physical objects with mobile services (Canadi et al. 2010). While QR codes are already used in tourism – for example on boarding passes – they still have some security drawbacks and in the long run they are unlikely to stand their ground to the superior NFC technology. Google picked up this trend and started to replace its QR code window decals of Google Places by NFC chips (Rosoff 2011).

2. NFC in Tourism

The tourism industry is a highly information-intensive business sector (Poon 1993) involving a wide variety of different processes. In organisations, ICT affect mainly the operative, structural and strategic levels, reducing communication and process costs while increasing flexibility, interactivity, efficiency, productivity and competitiveness (Buhalis and Egger 2005). As NFC is a transmission standard, it will be mainly processes that will be innovated by it. The following table provides an overview of the most important strategic and operative functionalities that can be expected for companies and the most essential benefits for tourists.

Table II: Benefits and functionalities of NFC

Possible strategic effects for companies
Heightening of organisational efficiency and effectiveness
Improvement of quality and services
Increase of competitiveness
Differentiation in product and market segments
Personalisation and mass customisation of services, linked to increase in value at all product levels
Reduction of costs and creation of competitive edge (monetary advantages)
Creation of competitive edge of temporary nature thanks to higher performance and efficiency
Restructuring of business processes and rationalization of operative tasks

Use of novel and innovative business practices
Long-term competitive out performance
Establishment of new, strategic partnerships
Possible operative effects for companies
Optimised distribution of information and optimised reservation processes
Simplification of the relationships between service provider and customer
Reservation, check-in, check-out, boarding
Improvement of customer service
Active management of visitor flows and optimised waiting time management
Performance monitoring and installation of feedback mechanisms
Linking of social media marketing activities
Possible effects for tourists
More convenient handling
Faster process handling (e.g. check-in, boarding)
Increased safety due to NFC specific specifications
Perceived quality of service will be increased

Source: adapted and modified from Buhalis and Egger 2005

In the section above, the most important NFC functionalities that can be expected and some example applications and trials in the tourism context were presented. The focus below will be on some selected cases of use in various sectors of tourism.

♦ Use case – The airline industry

The airline industry is characterised by a high level of processes between passengers and the airport and/or airline, and the entire service chain offers scope for the use of NFC. The Corporate Air Travel Survey 2009 conducted by the International Air Transport Association (IATA) concluded that 50% of passengers worldwide would appreciate more self-service options to accelerate the travel processes. The “Fast Travel 2020 Vision” of IATA is consequently designed to offer self-service options to 80% of passengers worldwide. Accordingly, the IATA together with the GSM Association (GMSA) has defined several NFC use cases for airports that were tested in a project carried out jointly by SITA Lab and Orange Business Services with the aim of analyzing if NFC can remove the neuralgic points of mobile usage in air travel.

The possible scenarios of NFC use investigated in the field test ranged from passenger check-in and baggage check-in to security checkpoints, lounge access, board and post

flight. In the check-in procedure, the NFC boarding pass can be transmitted to the passenger's mobile phone online, via a kiosk or through the air. A trusted service manager is used to do this. The boarding pass is then safely loaded into a travel wallet that is saved on the SIM card of the traveller. There are intentions to replace the currently used 2D barcodes by NFC in future, as the 2D codes meet with only little acceptance among travellers and because their security is vulnerable: they can be forwarded, duplicated and manipulated. If the forecasts about the distribution of NFC technology and NFC-enabled mobile devices come true, between 50% and 80% of all boarding passes issued worldwide could be transmitted to mobile phones according to SITA (2012) by 2018. The share of mobile boarding passes with 2D barcodes in 2011 was a mere 2%.

The passenger at the security checkpoint would touch the NFC terminal with the mobile phone, the boarding pass is called up and the departure control system host lets the passenger pass. No data connection is needed, no special application needs to be started and the mobile phone does not even need to be switched on.

♦ Use case – The hotel and catering industry

The Clarion Hotel in Stockholm carried out a successful pilot test for checking in and out of hotels in cooperation with Assa Abloy in 2011, the biggest and leading manufacturer of lock systems. In the test scenario, guests booked their rooms as usual via one of the various channels. On the day of arrival they received a welcome text message. Via a link to a mobile website, they were able to download the virtual NFC key by indicating their room number. The mobile hotel key application developed by Assa Abloy saves the virtual key on the SIM card of the mobile phone. In the concrete test scenario, the testers were given a Samsung S5230 phone, as only a few mobile phones are equipped with an NFC chip and only this model can save keys and other secure applications to the SIM card. The guests can then go directly to their rooms and open the door by a simple move of their mobile phone. When they check out they tap their phone on an NFC tag in the lobby or check out manually. In both cases, the digital key is deactivated. Should a guest lose his or her mobile phone, the hotel can also remotely deactivate the key. In a next step of development, the digital key is to be provided with additional functionalities, such as payment and loyalty services (Balaban 2012).

Another possible use is for what are referred to as “smart posters”. Smart posters have NFC tags incorporated in them where information such as URLs or defined apps, text messages, phone numbers and calling cards can be stored and called up. In the case of stored URLs, tourists tap on the respective chart or text of the smart poster backed-up by the tag. The respective URL is then called up in the browser of the smart phone. The illustration below shows a smart poster for the Grand Park Hotel in Bad Hofgastein in the province of Salzburg, Austria. This poster could be put up in the lobby, lift or hotel room. Guests can call up current weather forecasts, information about the lift operations in the skiing resorts, summit web cams and an interactive city map via the smart poster. It is also possible to book spa treatments, to check the dinner menu in the restaurant, to call up the event calendar, to provide feedback or visit the hotel's fan page on Facebook.

Figure II : Smart poster of a hotel

Source: The author

◆ Use case - Destinations

The use of NFC enabled Destination Cards in the destination context would appear to be an interesting and promising approach. Many destinations have implemented destination cards to increase guest loyalty, boost the image and brand of the destination and to ultimately improve turnover (Bruhn 2001). At the same time, the use of destination cards provides and generates key data about customer segments and the use of provisions in the region. In most cases, individual regional service provisions are bundled and offered as a package. In future, destination cards can be stored directly on the mobile phone of the guest. Access rights, payment functions and bonus systems and loyalty programmes could all be managed via the mobile destination card. Despite the fact that a wide, highly diversified, promising scenario of possible applications seems to be given, the author is not aware of any pilot tests in this sector.

At the destination level, not only the breakthrough of NFC technology as such, but also the combination with other transmission technologies will be of decisive importance. This for example, when it comes to removing barriers that currently exist with regard to the use of mobile services. Destinations, mainly cities but also skiing resorts, parks, etc. increasingly offer their Municipal Wireless Networks; and with free Internet access a major barrier for the use of data services is brought down.

3. Discussion and Conclusion

NFC technology promises security, uncomplicated use and an added value that can be easily communicated to the user. And yet – as with every technology thrust – it remains to be seen if and to what extent consumers will embrace this technology. A wide range of possible applications opens up for the tourism industry, both in the B2C and in the B2B area. The main challenge to be mastered will be the avoidance of insular solutions and the development of industry-wide standards instead; such as for check-in and boarding processes in the aviation industry. Manufacturers of mobile devices, mobile communication service providers, credit card companies, and so on are currently fervently promoting the introduction of NFC. If a far-reaching penetration is followed by acceptance on the part of the customer, the technology push could before long be turned into a technology pull effect. Customers would then soon demand solutions from the tourism industry that live up to their expectations. If this happens, there will be no way of avoiding NFC in future – not even for small and medium-sized companies.

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Sport Tourism: Understanding the Concept, Recognizing the Value

Ramesh Raj Kunwar*

Abstract

The study of sport tourism has become a very popular in the western countries. Therefore, it is aimed at grasping the knowledge of sport tourism from those studies: its nature, scope, significance, concepts, theories, approaches, models, perspectives and paradigms. This paper is intended to provide a broad understanding of sport tourism and its implications to the people who are involved in tourism industry. It is believed that activities of sport and tourism build social capital by bringing people together and establishing their relationship. In this way they are making the world smaller place contributing to greater understanding between different cultures, tolerance and, ultimately, to world peace with a focus on adventure sport tourism. The study of sport tourism is equally important in the context of Nepal because it is one of the popular destinations for adventure sport tourists and tourism. This paper discusses on water sport in terms of whitewater river rafting tourism in the context of Nepal, which is still ignored and untouched in the field of academia.

Keywords: *sport tourism, sportification of society, typology of sport tourism, nostalgia, adventure sport tourism, water sport in Nepal.*

Research Methodology

Tourism has been studied by several western scholars of different disciplines such as management, ecology, environment, political science, economics, geography, anthropology, sociology, gender, human resources management, law, crisis and disastrous management, conflict and peace studies, psychology, religion, heritage and conservation and others. In the context of Nepal, most of the tourism scholars confined their studies only in the field of mountain tourism and wildlife tourism but no studies have been carried out in the field of whitewater river rafting as one of the promising sectors of tourism in Nepal. Therefore, realizing the importance of sport tourism, adventure travel and water sport, the present author carried out research for understanding the concept and recognizing the value of sport tourism education.

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Writing in 1989, Jafari predicted that the 1990s would be dominated by a knowledge based platform in which the ideology-driven platforms of the past would be supplanted by a more scientific and objective basis for conceptualizing and managing the tourism sector... (Weaver, 2001, p. 4). Therefore, this study has been carried out under the concept of knowledge based platform. Both as an applied and social field of study, it is inevitable that academics should be involved in supplying research to the academia, industry and government. 'Understanding the Concept, Recognizing the Value' as an approach has been borrowed from Williams (2010) for making the title of this study.

Tourism research scholars follow global research methodology as followed by the other disciplinarians. According to Rosenau (1992), (research) "method concerns how one conducts research, analyses the data or evidence, test theories and creates new knowledge" (in Repko, 2012, p. 128). Methodologically this paper has been reviewed from published literatures related with sport tourism, adventure travel and aqua tourism in Nepal. Basically this work is based on interdisciplinary approach. According to Vinsentine (2011: xiii), "... interdisciplinary is a means to identify and study new themes that single discipline would not be able to put into focus, describe interpret by themselves". Newell (2007, p. 240) writes, "interdisciplinary study is a two part process: it draws critically on disciplinary perspectives, and it integrates into a more comprehensive understanding... of an existing complex, phenomenon [or into] the creation of new complex phenomenon" (in Repko, 2012, p. 15). Weaver and Lawton (2002) argue that the multi-disciplinary approach in tourism research is gradually evolving into an interdisciplinary approach, where the perspectives of various disciplines are combined and synthesized (Melkocort & Vos, 2010, p. 37).

The research which has been completed without following proper research methodological tools and techniques is known as sloppy science (Ritchie et al., 2005, p. 2, 5). Therefore, with careful consideration during the research, the author has followed the proper methodological approaches. In course of collecting the data, fieldwork was carried out by the author following mystery shopping during the rafting trips in the Trishuli river of Nepal. Fieldwork is a way of producing knowledge based on the researchers' experiences, i.e. a direct contact with reality, a knowledge by repeated observations and/or by proof of ideas or hypotheses (Hessen, 1961; in Pereiro, 2010, p. 175). Mystery shopping is a form of participant observation, which Loafland (1971: 93) describes as '... the circumstances of being in or around an on-going social setting for the purpose of making a qualitative analysis of that setting' (Miller et al., 2005, p. 119). Mystery guest method has also become another methodology, in which a participant is asked to evaluate experiences and identify important factors that influence the nature of experiences from a guest's viewpoint (Huckstein & Duboff, 1999: in Xie, 2006, pp. 128-129). The unstructured interviews were also taken with the authorities of Nepal Association of Rafting Agents (NARA), some entrepreneurs and Women River guides. Thus, the field and respondents have become the sources of primary data. The information is also collected from secondary sources. Over all, the researcher followed qualitative research method in this study.

Qualitative research recognizes the human relations are complex and focuses on human experience. The justification for using qualitative tools and techniques as opposed to quantitative lies in the fact that it allows more information and perceptions to be obtained

from the people involved and it provides an opportunity to allow them to directly describe and analyze situations. Qualitative research will achieve holistic view of the given issues and will take the wider picture in perspective. Interview is an essential tool in qualitative research method. The semi-structured interviews used in this research allow for a high level of researcher's involvement with participants. Likewise, open-ended questions allow for the participants to discuss and talk about subject matter that may not be included in questionnaire. It, therefore, allows honesty and brings out a greater reality of situation.

Concept of sport tourism and its development

Though, there are several definitions about sport, one of the most influential definitions of sport has been given by Loy et al. (1978). The authors conceptualize sport as a subset of games which in turn is a subset of play. Sport is described in terms of institutionalized games that require physical prowess. Their study on sport is based on game occurrence approach. Further, Young-Shim (2004) defined sport as a professional, amateur or leisure activity that involves "a considerable amount of traveling to play and compete in different destinations and countries" (p. 24). In a similar fashion, McPherson et al. (1989) defined sport as "a structured, goal oriented, competitive, contest based ludic physical activity" (p. 15).

Law (2001) stressed, "Sport is structured in the sense that sports are governed by rules that relate to space and time. These rules may be manifest in a variety of ways, including the dimensions of the playing area and pacing of the game or contest" (in Hinch and Higham, 2006, p.16). Hinch and Higham (2006) argued that "Sport is goal-oriented in the sense that sporting situations usually involve an objective for achievement in relation to ability, competence, effort, degree of difficulty, required skill set and mastery or performance. At one extreme, competition is expressed in terms of winning or losing. Alternatively, competition can be interpreted much less rigidly in terms of competing against individual standards, inanimate objects or the forces of nature (p. 16).

The terms "sport tourism" and "sports tourism" have been defined differently (Hinch & Hingham, 2006). Gammon and Robinson (1999) pointed out " Sports Tourism focuses upon competitive sporting travel, whereas the term Sport Tourism is a far broader concept which embraces sport as being both recreational as well as competitive: both institutionalized and transitory (in Hinch and Higham, 2006, p. 13). The terms sport and sports are often used interchangeably in tourism studies; however, a lack of subject uniformity, cohesiveness and perhaps academic credibility create confusion among people including tourists, scholars, entrepreneurs and so on.

So far as the tourist and tourism is concerned, if a tourist is a person who involves in travelling, tourism involves the travel of non-residents (Murphy, 1985). Hinch and Higham (2001) define sport tourism as 'sport - based travel away from the home environment for a limited time, where sport is characterized by unique rule sets, competition related to physical prowess and a playful nature. According to the authors, sport is recognized as a significant travel activity whether it is primary or secondary feature of the trip.

The concept of sport tourism has become more prominent in the last few years as both

an academic field of study and an increasingly popular tourism product (Gibson, 1989). By recognizing the importance of sport tourism, the academia, government and nongovernmental organizations have been involved in research around the area of sport tourism at the international and national levels. However, the links and relationship in between sport and tourism have largely been overlooked. More importantly, the genre of 'sport tourism' (of sport generating tourism activity or tourism generating sporting activity) is a recent research development (Ritchie & Adair, 2006, p. 3).

The early studies into sport tourism in the UK first appeared the 1960s, but the most recognized works have been undertaken by Glyptis (1991) and Redmond (1991) who were concerned about identifying a complex, multi-faceted, symbiotic link between sport and tourism. The authors suggested the development of sport and tourism is crucial for social and economic benefits. Sports tourism is one of the most entertaining and exciting tourism.

Research Notes (1994) reported that sport tourism, a growing segment of tourism, has been shown to equal 32% of worldwide tourism receipts (in Kurtzman and Zauhar, 2006). World Tourism Organization (2001) has indicated that the contribution of sport and tourism to the gross domestic product (GDP) of industrial nations is between 1-2% and 4-6% respectively (in Ritchie and Adair, 2006, p.2).

Young-Shim (2004) argued that tourism and sport are interrelated and complementary. The author further stated that " Both are powerful forces for development, stimulating investment in infrastructure projects such as airports, roads, stadiums, sporting complexes, hotels and restaurants-projects that be enjoyed by the local populations as well as visitors who come to use them. And once the infrastructure is in place, these two mutual beneficial industries of tourism and sport tourism become the motor for sustainable economic growth, the creation of employment and generation of revenues" (p. 25). The author argued that activities of sport and tourism build social capital by bringing people together and establishing their relationships. "In this way they are making the world a smaller place-contributing to greater understanding among cultures, greater tolerance and, ultimately, to world peace" (p. 25).

Sport is regarded as playing a positive role with respect to community development: 'the strengthening of the social resources and processes in a community, by developing those contacts relationships networks, agreements and activities outside the household that residents themselves identify will make their locality a better place in which to live and work (Thomas, 1995, p. 2; in Hall, 2006 p. 194). The study suggested that sports-related employment can contribute to 'neighborhood renewal' and community development (McDonald & Tungatt, 1992; in Hall, 2006, p.194).

Young-Shim (2004) highlighted the common goals of sport and tourism: "building bridges of understanding between different cultures, lifestyles and traditions , promoting peace and goodwill among nations; motivating and inspiring young people and providing entertainment and enjoyment to relieve the pressures of daily life for large sections of the population" (p. 24).

Typology of Sport Tourism

Gammom and Robinson (1997) have developed the following conceptualization of sport tourist based on the sport and travel motivations:

- Sport Tourism - Individuals and/ or groups of people who actively or passively participate in competitive or recreational sport while traveling. Sport is the prime motivation to travel, although touristic element may reinforce the overall experience.
- Hard Definition - Active or passive participation in a competitive sporting event. Sport is the prime motivational reason for travel (e.g. Olympic Games, Wimbledon, London Marathon).
- Soft Definition - Active recreational participation in a sporting leisure interest (e.g. skiing walking, hiking kayaking).
- Tourism Sport - Active or passive participation in competitive or recreational sport as a secondary activity. The holding or visit rather than the sport, is the prime travel motivation.
- Hard Definition - Competitive or non-competitive sport as an important secondary motivation that enriches the travel experience (e.g. sports cruises, health and fitness clubs).
- Soft Definition- Competitive or non-competitive sport or leisure as a purely incidental element of the holiday experience (e.g. mini golf, indoor bowls, ice-skating, squash).

By following the concept of Standeven and De Knop (1999), Hinch and Higham (2006) illustrated the diversity of the sport tourism market:

Classification	Examples
Sport activity holidays: Single-sport activity holidays Multiple- sport holidays	skiing, cycling, trekking sports camps, holiday clubs (e.g. Club Mediterranee)
Holiday Sport Activities: Organized holiday sport activities independent holiday sport activities	golf, rafting, cruise ship sport activities adventure activities (e.g. bungee jumping)
Passive sports on holidays: Connoisseur observer Casual observers	Olympic Games, Masters golf, Wimbledon tennis championship, Kentucky Derby, museums, halls of fame, stadium tours hurling (Ireland) Bull fighting (Spain), Thai boxing (Thailand)
Active sports during non-holiday time	training camps, recreational sport during business and conference travel
Passive sports during non- holiday time	dragon boat racing spectatorship while in Hong Kong on business

As mentioned earlier, Standeven and De Knop (1999) have identified two types of passive spectators that watch sport events termed 'connoisseur' and 'casual' observers (in Ritchie and Adair, 2006). Connoisseur observers are 'those who have extensive passive involvement and discriminating in the sport activity they watch as spectators or officiators'. Casual observers are those who 'simply enjoy watching an event and who usually happen across it rather than plan their visit to attend it'. Taking into consideration Gammon and Robinson's (1997) 'soft' and 'hard' definitions and sport tourist motivations toward the sport or travel potential passive spectators may be dominated by travel and tourism or by sport.

Glyptis (1989, 1991) introduced the terms 'general dabbler' and 'specialist' to describe different levels of tourist engagement in participant and spectator sports. Hall (1992b) also identified two types of sport tourists; 'activity participants' who regard their participation as a medium of self-expression, and 'players' who are competitive in their participation. The World Tourism Organization and International Olympic Committee (2001) conducted the study and found the distinction between 'sport- oriented holidays' and 'less sport oriented holidays' is the conceptual basis for the study of sports activities during the outbound holidays of German, Dutch and French (in Hinch & Higham, 2006, p.34). Those are distinguished on the basis of spectatorship and physical participation, which is a fundamental difference that merits consideration.

From one survey it is evident that the sport tourist spectator is motivated primarily by the sport known as 'avid spectator'/fan, motivated primarily by the travel known as 'casual spectator' and with a potential mixed interest group known as 'frequent spectator'. The 'avid spectators' are connoisseur observer and 'hard' tourists. Watching competitive sport is their prime motivation. Frequent spectators regularly watch Super 12 matches, however they do not have the same enthusiasm for the sport as 'avid' spectators. Casual spectators will have lower interest levels towards the sport. They are soft sport tourist motivated more toward tourism or other motives with sport being secondary (Ritchie, 2006, p.144 -145).

Sport-as-play normally associated with active tourist behavior (taking part in sport), while sport-as-competition is usually associated with passive tourist behavior (witnessing sport) -though in the latter case sports tourists can also be competitors, such as with young tennis players, following the satellite circuit in Europe, playing to win but sightseeing between matches. "Both sport - as - competition and sport-as-play are legitimate ways of conceptualizing the physical activities we take for granted as sport" (Ritchie & Adair, 2006, p. 5). Coakley (2001) argued that there should be at least three persons (two taking part and a third to act as referee or judge), and they must be engaged in competition to establish a winner (in Ritchie & Adair, 2006, p. 5).

Standeven and De Knop (1999) define sport tourism as all forms of active and passive involvement in sporting activity, participated in casually or in an organized way for non-commercial or business/ commercial reasons that necessitate travel away from home and work locality. Gammon and Robinson (1997) classify them as either 'hard' or 'soft' participants. Kurtzman (2000) increases the complexity of sport tourism by suggesting that there are five main sport tourism categories (or supply side elements of sport tourism).

The categories are: (a) sport tourism attractions; (b) sport tourism resorts; (c) sport tourism cruises; (d) sport tourism tours; (e) sport events tourism; and (f) sport adventure tourism. However, Gibson (1998) suggests three categories of sport tourism including active sport tourism, event sport tourism, and nostalgia sport tourism. Three key questions emerge in the context of sports tourism development: (a) 'What makes sport unique as a tourist attraction or activity?'; (b) 'How is sport tourism manifest in space?' and (c) 'How do these manifestations change over time?' (in Ritchie and Adair, 2006: 8) .

Additionally, Pitts (1999) believed that from a sport marketing and management perspective, sport tourism consists of two broad product categories (p.31). They are: sport participation travel and another spectatorial travel. Sport participation travel involves recreation, leisure or fitness activity, and sport spectatorial involves travel of watching sports, recreation, leisure or fitness activities and events.

Sport tourism development

While writing about the modern development of sport tourism, Hinch and Higham (2006, p. 5) have collected the cross-section of contemporary trends presented by various scholars that include:

- 1) The expanding demographic profile of participants in sports (Gltis, 1989);
- 2) Heightened interests in health and fitness in western societies since the 1970s (Collins, 1991);
- 3) Increasing demand for active engagement in recreational pursuits while on holiday since the 1980s (Priestley, 1995); and
- 4) Growing interest in the prominent roles played by sports and sports events in urban renewal and urban imagery, and the potential to leverage tourism opportunities associated with sports events (Getz, 1998).

What are the foundations for sport tourism development? This will talk about the fundamentals in the study of sport tourism, sport tourism markets and development processes and issues relating to sport tourism. It is equally important to know about sport tourism development in relation to space, place and environment. The next important areas of sport tourism development is its relation to time i.e. short-term, medium-term and long-term time horizon which provides a temperate framework that allows the readers to consider the immediate sport tourism experience, sport tourism seasonality, and its dynamic interrelationship between sport and tourism within evolutionary framework.

Weed and Bull (1999) contended that there are five key factors- ideology, government policy, organizational structure, organizational culture, and key staff- that impact upon the relationship between sport and tourism agencies (in Deane and Callanan, 2006). The specific influence of each of these factors is 'responsible for the limited and fragmented patterns of liaison that have emerged. These processes have been driven by economic and political forces, and by changing social attitudes and values. They have also been facilitated by technological advances, such as satellite television broadcasting (Halberstam,

1999), that have influenced the 'sportification of society' (Standeven and De Knop 1999; in Hinch and Higham, 2006, p.5).

Sport Tourism Motivations

'Who are sport tourists?' What factors motivate sport tourists? To what extent do motivations differ between distinct groups of sport tourists? 'And what travel experiences do sport tourists seek in association with the sport that they pursue at a given destination?' Addressing these questions will provide valuable insights into niche market segmentation decisions. Market analysis, then, is critical to the effective development of sport tourism within the context of regional, national or international tourism destinations (Hinch & Higham, 2006, p. 33).

The diversity of sport tourism market is a motivating factor. Therefore, the varied approaches to market segmentation that exist in sport tourism. The concept of 'work-play, freedom-constraint, competition recreation, and process product are only some of the continua on which sport can be located. The motivations associated with sport tourism niche markets raise intriguing questions for sports events organizers and promoters sport associations, managers of sport venues, destination managers, and tourism marketers.

The logical extension of this market analysis is consideration of development processes, sustainability and planning interventions. Development issues that are of particular interest to sport and tourism practitioners include those related to commodification/authenticity, globalization and industry fragmentation. Sport tourism development and space is interrelationships linking sport tourism generating areas and destinations with the travel patterns associated with sport tourism markets. The basic concepts and themes are roots in economic geography. These concepts are drawn from the study of sport geography and the spatial analysis of sports.

Tourism development processes, as conceptualize in the evaluation in tourism destinations through a life-cycle (Butler, 1978) may be influenced by the powerful dynamics of sports for example, evolving spatial patterns of sports may have a direct bearing on tourism development. The reverse is also true; tourism may impact upon the types of sports practiced in destination areas. Golf serves as a good illustration of this process, given its introduction into the 'new world' by Scottish migrants and diffusion into new regions throughout the world in response to tourist demand.

Redmond's tripartite sport tourism classification includes sport vocations, multi-sport festivals and world championships, as well as sports halls of fame and museums (Hinch & Higham, 2006, p.39). Sport tourism, according to Gibson (1998), can be divided into three categories: active sport, event sport and nostalgia. Active sport tourism consist of several activities including: skiing, bicycle touring, adventure tourism and active participation events or other sporting tournaments. The most widely researched examples of event sport tourism include the Olympic Games, the Soccer World Cup, the Rugby World Cup, the Formula One Grand Prix and major or local sporting events (Ritchie & Adair, 2006, p. 136).

In basic terms, nostalgia can be described as a longing for the past; or, more precisely a past that is simpler and thus preferable to a complex present. Nostalgia is a feeling of

loss or anxiety about the passage of time, accompanied by a desire to experience again some aspects of the past (Jafari, 2000, p. 415). Rooney (1992) commented that nostalgia sport tourism is a unique form of tourism in which tourists search for sporting sports experiences associated with earlier periods. Nostalgic sport tourism presents the opportunity to revisit periods where sport was attached more strongly to place. It provides sport tourists with the opportunity to connect to place in a way that seems to be increasingly difficult in the modern world. Nostalgia sport tourism has been actively developed in North America (in Hinch & Higham, 2006, pp.79- 89). The situation of locational flux has in many cases taken place in association with development of the tourism product, including tourist attractions that target the nostalgia sport tourists. In sports studies, for example, scholars have been interested in the use of sporting nostalgia to augment conservative political campaigns. There are various types of nostalgia, e.g. active nostalgia, restorative nostalgia, social nostalgia, environmental nostalgia, historical nostalgia, personal nostalgia and sporting nostalgia (Jafri, 2000; Ritchie & Adair, 2006; Tarlow, 2009).

Sport tourism and culture

Sport and culture are often treated as separate but complementary activities. The treatment is particularly evident at major sporting events, which may have distinct culture and sporting programs. Popular culture as manifested in sport is one of the main ways that humans develop personal and collective identities. It is through these personal and collective identities that place identity is developed. At its most basic, identity is the way that we perceive ourselves, as individuals and collectives, based on prevailing social and ideological values and practices (McConnell and Edwards, 2000; in Hinch and Higham, 2006, pp. 103-104). Identity is the way in which people make sense of the self through affiliation and bonds with other people and the cultures that define these affiliations (Dauncey & Hare, 2000; in Hinch & Higham, 2006, p.104). National identity is typically thought of in the way that nations differ from each other in terms of stereotypes, symbols and practices, including those associated with sport. Place identity is influenced by many cultural attributes, but sport certainly appears to be one of the most dominant.

Regarding place, sport and culture, Standeven and De Knop (1999) write, "We have essentially treated sport and tourism as cultural experiences sport as a cultural experience of physical activity and tourism cultural experience of place". Place is intimately tied to culture (p.58). Culture relates to sport in a number of ways, but three of the most tangible associations are: (1) cultural programs run in association with sport events; (2) sport as a form of popular culture; and (3) subcultures in sport. Each of these cultural dimensions influences the meaning that is attached to sport spaces, and in so doing, they affect place identity, and potentiality, place marketing for tourism (pp.102-103).

The opening and closing ceremonies of the Olympic Games provide a good example of the conscious mix of sport and culture. There are three types of narrative approaches associated with the opening ceremonies of major sporting events. Moragas Spa (1995) have categorized them as history, party and show (in Hinch & Higham, 2006, p.105). In the first case, the ceremony is treated as a 'unique historic event taking place in that

moment, although forming part of a historic chain'. In the second stance, the ceremony is treated as a celebration and pays particular attention to the event's cultural aspects. 'It is a peak experience; an explosion of culture, theatre and joy. Finally, the third type of ceremony is one of the entertainments. This type of ceremony down plays the 'distraction' of the cultural and ritual structures of the desert and tries to provide 'an entertaining introduction to the "real" excitement. Each of these three approaches, but most particularly the second, may serve the explicit positioning of culture in relation to place.

"... The Athens 2004 Olympic Torch Relay traveled the globe proclaiming 'pass the flame, unite the world'. The Olympic flame is the primary symbol of the Olympic ideals; noble competition, friendship and peaceful coexistence. Apart from sports, education and tourism are the only other ideals that promote similar principles and can contribute to a more peaceful, prosperous and equitable world. Tourism is also increasingly responsible for poverty alleviation and for a greater understanding of our world-leading to peace" (Buhalis & Costa, 2006: Preface).

Pierre de Coubertin's, 'the founding father' of the modern Olympic Movement and the author of the Olympic ideals and principles, definition of Olympism involved four key principles that suggest he had in mind something more advanced than a simple sports competition (OLM, 2002; in Ritchie and Adair, 2006, p. 59): (a) Olympism is a religion. Its followers are expected to adhere to an ideal of a 'higher life' and to strive for human perfection; (b) The Olympic Games represents and displays an elite group "whose origins are completely egalitarian' and its character both moral and chivalrous; (c) The Olympic Games is 'a four-yearly festival of the springtime of mankind' during which a truce to conflicts is created; and (d) Olympism glorifies beauty by the 'involvement of the philosophic arts' in the games.

Sport Tourism, Locations and Seasonality

The tourism industry is in the business of selling places. Space and place are concepts that are central to the geography of sport and the geography of tourism (Bale, 1889; in Hinch and Higham, 2006). The spatial analysis of sport tourism involves the study of the location in which sports occur and the movement of tourists to these locations. Such an analysis finds theoretical foundation in the geography of sport (Bale, 1989), which introduces central place theory, distance decay and location hierarchy for consideration in the study of sport tourism. Central place theory is a particularly useful tool to explain the locational tendencies of urban sport facilities, events and professional sport teams. Bale (1989) refers to 'the growth and decline in importance of different sport location', which parallels Butler's (1980) tourist area life cycle theory (p.77).

The next important aspect of sport tourism is place which may be described as space with meaning. It is especially attractive to tourism marketers who use sport to sell destinations (Hinch & Higham, 2006, p. 119). Both place and space are also related with landscape. The landscape is an illusive term that is commonly associated with attractive scenery (see in detail Knudsen et al., 2008, pp. 1-21). Natural landscapes (and seascapes) are central to the pursuit of many sports. The term sportscape is used in the geography of sport to describe the highly modified (e.g. modern stadium or arena) and technologized

(e.g. corporate suites, closed circuit television) sports environment (Bale, 1994; in Hinch & Higham, 2006, p.119).

It is evident that the most of the sport tourism places as destinations are commodified through the process of marketing. The primary goal of a place marketer is to construct a new image of the place to replace either vague or negative images previously held by residents, investors and visitors (Page and Hall, 2003; in Hinch & Higham, 2006, p.109). In his seminal work, *Place and Placelessness*, Relph (1976) argued that the concept of sense of place was most applicable in the local environment, where individuals are in a position to develop deep attachments to place (in Hinch & Higham, 2006, p.100). The study of the locations and travel flows associated with sports, the way sport infuses space with meaning to create unique tourism places and the resource requirements and impacts of sport tourism are all key themes within the spatial analysis of sport tourism development (Hinch & Higham, 2006, p. 208).

Seasonality is the mid-point on the sport tourism development temporal framework. "Seasonality is defined as a temporal imbalance in the phenomenon of tourism, which may be expressed in terms of dimensions of such elements as numbers of visitors, expenditure of visitors, traffic on highways and other forms of transportation, employment and admissions to attractions" (Butler, 2001; in Hinch & Higham, 2006, p.163).

Sport Tourism, Research and Education

Ritchie & Adair (2006, pp.15-16) while writing about the significance of sport tourism, research and education, they suggest to follow multi or interdisciplinary research to have more insights between the relationship of sport and tourism, its impacts on the economy, society and tourists, and managing many of the issues surrounding the development of sport tourism. Research in the field of sport tourism should endeavor to involve where appropriate, researchers from different disciplines and departments within universities (such as leisure, recreation, tourism, history, anthropology, management). Academics in leisure, recreation, tourism, sport, management and social scientists could work closure together to provide subjects and materials to facilitate the development of specific sport tourism modules, sport tourism specialization and even sport tourism degree programs at undergraduate and postgraduate levels. Swart (2000), in research undertaken about sport tourism curricula, noted that from the 28 academics surveyed, 84 tourism courses were offered, 78% of respondents confirmed that sport tourism was taught in existing cause models. The growth of collaboration and interdisciplinary research in the sport tourism area will heighten the awareness and legitimacy of sport tourism as a field of study and provide additional insights to researchers. This will help to understand the concept and recognize the values of sport tourism as a phenomenon for research, policy, industry and education development or pedagogical development in sport tourism.

Sport Tourism and Crime

There is increasing evidence that sporting events attract criminals who engage in illegal activities. This requires an understanding of the nature of sport tourism and the potential for increased criminal activity within the host destination, whether directly or

indirectly attributable to an event. The crimes may be highly organized activities by groups of criminals who travel to different destinations to prey on visitors attending major global sporting events. The event experience may involve overnight stays in accommodation and additional social activities, both of which have implications on criminal and hedonistic activity.

In some cases, travel to these events is part of the sporting experience and where the influence of crime may arise as nuisance outliers; negative impacts occurring some distance from the sporting venue, associated with the spatial impact of sport (e.g. at transit points such as bars, service stations, and convenience stores) (Bale, 1989). Public drunkenness, disorderly behavior and vandalism by event visitors are common nuisances and these have widespread impacts on the local community (Ritchie & Adair, 2006, pp. 176-177).

The massacre of members of the Israeli team by Palestinian terrorists at the 1972 Olympics provided an explicit example that terrorist activity can be confined to specific targets at an event. In fact, the major development in security at the Olympic Games only arose as a significant planning issue in response to the terrorist attack at the Munich Games (Barker, 2000; Thompson, 1999).

Such negative effects raise the potential host/guest conflict. Jones (2000) applies the concept of serious leisure to football fandom in an attempt to explain the behaviors of football fans as part of the social identity process (in Hinch & Higham, 2006, p.157). The characteristics of serious leisure in this context include longevity in support of a chosen team, strong identification with the chosen leisure activity, investment of significant personal effort and existence, in some cases, of a career path involving stages of achievement and recognition. 'Sports junkies' are tourists whose behaviors are indicative of a strong commitment to their sport or support for their team. The behavior of these sport tourist may create aversion effects (Faulkner et al., 1998), while contributing to accommodation shortages that displace other forms of tourism, such as corporate, business and conference travel (Hinch & Higham, 2006, p.157).

Hooliganism has become a problem in the field of football events throughout Europe. Modeling is an important aspect of this form of social identity construction, whereby 'the neophyte member begins to deliberately adopt mannerisms, attitudes, and styles of dress, speech and behavior that he or she perceives to be characteristic of the established members of the subculture' (Donnelly & Young, 1988; in Hinch & Higham, 2006, p.157). It is logical, therefore, that planners of events intend to maximize positive returns and minimize any negative impacts (such as crime) associated with them.

In an event environment, disorderly and hedonistic behavior involving alcohol and drugs may increase, as many crime and recreational disorder. This can lead to the 'demonstration effect', where, for example, youths are exposed to illegal influences like drugs from event visitors, while seasonal employees emulate the hedonistic lifestyle sometimes associated with public events (Hall et al. 1995; in Barker, 2006, pp.178-179).

According to Graham M. S. Dann (in Jafari, 2000, p. 275), "Hedonism is the unbridled pursuit of pleasure. Instant gratification of the ego and its anticipation are characteristics of the tourist as child. Experientially, hedonism can be particularly ego enhancing in

Third World settings visited by First World tourists, which may explain why some all-inclusive resorts are so designated. Motivationally, hedonism is linked to the behavioral excess exhibited in activities sanctions at home".

Residents' Perceptions on Sport Tourism

Sport tourism researchers are also concerned with the impact of tourism on local community. They have studied on community's reactions towards the sport tourism events and have found both positive and negative reactions. It is Fredline who studied on Motor Sport Events in Gold Coast and Adelaid Grand Prix of Melbourne, Australia. Various authors have suggested possible theoretical frameworks for understanding the reactions given by the different communities of different tourist destinations. The theories are Social Exchange Theory and Social Representation Theory (see in detail Kunwar, 2012) and Expectancy -Value (EV) Model.

Ap has suggested that social exchange theory developed by Emerson in 1972 is helpful in understanding residents' perceptions of the impacts of tourism and that exchange behavior is related to perceptions (Ap, 1992; Fredline, 2006, p. 165; see in detail Kunwar, 2012). It is suggested that residents will have more positive perceptions of tourism if they perceive that their tourism exchanges bring them substantial benefits, but will have negative perceptions of tourism if they perceive these benefits to be outweighed by substantial costs.

Alternatively, Pearce et al. (1996) have proposed the use of social representation theory (in Fredline, 2006). This theory suggests that residents have representation of tourism and events which underpin their perception of impacts, and these representations are informed by direct experiences, social interaction and other sources of information such as the media. It is argued that representations are resistant to change because they form a frame of reference through which new information is interpreted (p. 165).

The tenets of these theories are not contradictory. However, a substantial difference lies in the confidence they place in the rationality of the human mind. The social exchange approach tends to suggest the residents can rationally weigh up the costs and benefits of tourism or events, and their overall disposition toward the phenomenon will reflect some sort of informal cost benefit analysis. In contrast, social representation theory suggests more of an instinctual reaction based on a range of underlying values and attitudes. The theory also acknowledges the tenacity of these values and attitudes which underpin representations and the fact that they are socially reinforced, thus social representations are seen as being fairly persistent (Fredline, 2006, p.165).

Another potential theoretical framework is the expectancy-value model as mentioned above. This theory has been tested by Lindberg and Johnson(1997) in a general tourism context, found that the interaction between the importance that residents place on certain outcomes(value) and the degree to which they believe tourism to contribute these outcomes(expectancy) has some utility in explaining variation in attitudes towards tourism (Fredline, 2006, p.166).

Adventure Sport Tourism

As mentioned earlier, adventure tourism is one of the most important parts of sport tourism. Therefore, an effort has been made to understand its scope, because the following sections are based on the study of whitewater rafting as an adventure sport in Nepal.

The Oxford Dictionary defines adventure as 'unexpected or exciting experience; daring enterprise, hazardous activities'. Its Australian equivalent, The Macquarie Dictionary, gives several meanings, including 'an exciting experience' and 'an undertaking of uncertain outcome; a hazardous enterprise'. The US equivalent, Webster, gives a series of definitions, including 'a remarkable experience', the encountering of risks; hazardous enterprise', and 'a bold undertaking, in which hazards are to be met and the issue hangs upon unforeseen events; a daring feat'. All these definitions thus include elements of excitement, of uncertainty, and of risk and danger (Buckley, 2010, p.8).

Swarbrook et al. (2006, p. 15) write, "Although specific activities don't define adventure, it is apparent that adventure entails action. Adventure is not a passive experience; it's engaging. This engagement can be on physical, intellectual, emotional or spiritual level". Adventure travel is 'a leisure activity that takes place in an unusual, exotic, remote or wilderness destination .It tends to be associated with high levels of activity by the participant , most of it outdoors. Adventure travelers expect to experience various levels of risk, excitement and tranquility, and be personally tested .In particular they are explorers of unspoilt, exotic parts of the planet and also seek personal challenges (Millington et al., 2001 in Swarbrooke et al., 2003, p.28).

The question is when, where and how adventure tourism was originated and developed? The history shows that the adventure sport tourism was started from European Alps since 1741. When the two Englishmen Whindham and Pococke visited Chamonix in France, this marked the beginning adventure tourism. The decades that followed this first incursion into Alps saw the creation of hiking and mountaineering with the landmark event of the first scaling of Mont Blanc (4807 m) in 1786 (Holloway, 1994). This was followed by the first ascent of the Matterhorn by Edward Whymper's party in 1865. This successful and tragic trip led to the popularity and notoriety of that peak, as a result of an accident during their descent from the summit. Clients Douglas Hadow, Charles Hudson and Lord Francis Douglas, as well as guide named Michael Croz, fell to their deaths during the descent (Buckley, 2006, p. 261). A century and a half later the mountaineers introduced skiing into the Alps an activity which originated in Scandinavia and adapted it to winter climbs (1878-1924),...(Bourdeau et al.,2006, p.102).

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Adventure tourism is a worldwide industry with a total annual turnover of around US\$ 1 trillion (Buckley, 2009a). In the USA alone, the scale of the outdoor tourism sector has been estimated at US\$ 730 billion per annum (Outdoor Industry Association, 2007). At a global scale, it appears that the outdoor and adventure subsectors make up about one-fifth of the global tourism and travel sector (Buckley, 2009a), which in turn comprises about 11% of the global economy (WTTC, 2007; in Buckley, 2010).

Adventure tourists can be divided into those participating in hard or soft adventure, in which Millington (2001; in Swarbrooke et al., 2003, pp. 104-105) has defined as follows:

Hard adventure travel requires an element of experience in the activity being undertaken, and because it encompasses an element of risk, participants must be physically and mentally fit. It includes an intimate experience with the environment and culture of the destination. Participants should be prepared for all weather conditions, sleeping arrangements and dietary restrictions. Examples include: climbing expeditions, arduous treks, hang gliding, rock climbing, white-water kayaking and wilderness survival.

Soft adventure requires less physical risk, little or no experience, and offers more convenience in terms of sleeping arrangements and cuisine. Many activities are similar to those in the hard adventure category, yet they occur at a less physically demanding level. Soft adventure offers a wider range of activities and adventure experiences for the traveler. Examples include horseback riding, rafting, sea kayaking, snorkeling, bicycle touring, camping, canoeing, cross-country skiing, dog sledding, surfing, walking tours, wildlife watching and windsurfing.

The scope of adventure tourism has commonly been expressed through lists of specific outdoor activities involved. Buckley (2006a) listed 35-40 such activities, some of them in aggregated categories. In alphabetical order, these were : abseiling, aerobatic aircraft flights, ballooning, black water rafting, bungee jumping, caving, cross-country skiing, diving, downhill skiing and snowboarding, expedition cruises, gliding, hang gliding, heliskiing and heliboarding, hiking , horse riding ,ice climbing , jet boating, kite boarding, mountain biking , mountaineering, off-road 4WD driving, Parapenting and paragliding, quad biking and ATV driving, rock climbing, sail boarding, sailing, sea kayaking, skydiving and parachuting, snowshoeing, surfing, whale watching, whitewater canoeing and kayaking, whitewater rafting, wildlife watching and zorbing (Buckley, 2010, p.5).

There are many adventure activities where guides need particular qualification in order to be able to lead commercial clients. The aim of the tour operator is to make the clients feel that they can safely and successfully engage in a high-risk activity, so as to increase the excitement and consequent satisfaction which the clients experience; but at the same time, to manage the activity as closely and carefully as possible so that actual risk to clients, guides, and the company is as low as possible (Morgan, 2006; in Buckley, 2010, p. 55). The whitewater rafting industry apparently developed after the Second World War, using army-surplus pontoons to make rafts (Buckley, 2010, p. 217).

Tourism in Nepal

The natural beauties of a destination along with sound environment attract people for making their holiday experiences. Nepal has full of natural beauties, diversity in culture and adventurous places. Tourism for Nepalese people is not an interest but it is compulsion because Nepal cannot compete with other developed countries from the viewpoint of development perspectives and so on. Tourism is a panacea for the development of Nepal. Tourism is an economic engineering. This will play important role of collecting foreign currencies and simultaneously it will provide employment opportunities to the people of host country.

Different authors have emphasized that sustainable tourism can be a promising vehicle for economic development and poverty reduction, unlocking opportunities for local economic diversification in poor and marginalized rural areas that lack other significant development opportunities (UNWTO, 2002; in Kruk, 2011, p. 19).

To reduce poverty, the United Nations Summit on the Millennium Goals adopted a global action plan to cut poverty levels in half by 2015 (United Nations, 2009). Poverty-focused tourism, such as pro-poor tourism, can be a key player in achieving the Millennium Development Goals by providing an alternative form of income in areas suffering from poverty, hunger, and disease-either directly or indirectly (UNWTO, 2010; in Nyaupane & Poudel, 2011, p. 1346).

Pro-poor tourism is defined as using tourism in a way that creates net benefits to the poor (Harrison, 2008). Its definition implies that the poor benefits from the income provided by tourists, which can lead to more development in the area. The poor can be employed in tourism businesses, establish or run tourism enterprises, or receive donations or support from tourists. Tourism also provides a market to sell goods and services to tourists (Scheyvens 2007; in Nyaupane and Poudel, 2011, p.1346).

Tourists undertaking activities in Nepal can be divided into four major segments: Aerial, Terrestrial, Aquatic and Niches. The Aerial activities include mountain flight, hang gliding, paragliding, cable car, bungee jumping, ultra light air craft, hot air ballooning and sky diving. The Terrestrial includes mountaineering, trekking/hiking, jungle safari, wild life, honey hunting, mountain biking, rock climbing, caving, skiing, golf, elephant polo, motor rally, Himalayan marathon, triathlon, pony treks. The Aquatic includes rafting, kayaking, canoeing, boating, fishing, angling, canyoning, cascading, jet ski. The Niches include eco-tourism, village tourism, community tourism, agro-tourism, culture tourism, pilgrimage and spiritual tourism, educational tourism, health and wellness tourism, special interest tours (Govt. of Nepal, Ministry of Tourism and Civil Aviation, 2009, p. 13).

According to Nepal Tourism Statistics 2012, the total number of tourists visited Nepal was 803,092 in 2012 (MoCTCA, 2013, p.2). Out of the total number of visitors, 379,627 visited for holiday/pleasure, 109,854 for pilgrimage, 105,015 for trekking and mountaineering, 30,460 for official, 24,785 for business, 17,988 for study/research/employment, 32,076 for conference/convention, and others 70,391. The maximum number of tourists visited from India, P.R. of China, Sri Lanka, USA and UK respectively by Indian Airlines, Jet Airways, Qatar Airlines, Spice Jet and Thai Airlines. The average length of stay of the tourists is 12.60 days. In an average, a tourist spent per

day per person US Dollar 35.6. The government of Nepal collected 356,725 (US \$ `000) as revenue from tourism. There are 522 hotels with 11,087 rooms and 21,498 beds. The government registered Travel Agencies and Trekking Agencies are altogether 2,116 and 1,524 respectively. National Parks and Wildlife Reserves were visited by 267,280 tourists; Pashupati area (excluding Indians) - 139,885; Lumbini (excluding Indians) - 136,067; Manaslu trekking - 3,319; Mustang - 2,965; Humla - 1,508; Lower Dolpo - 982; Kangchenjunga - 635 and Upper Dolpo by 536 tourists. The total number of tourist guides and trekking guides are 2,935 and 8,163 respectively. The total team of mountaineering expeditions were 311 and the government of Nepal collected total NPRs 344,784 (Rs`000) as Royalty (MoCTCA, 2013, pp .2-3)

Realizing the importance of adventure tourism in Nepal, Dhakal (2013) suggests, "Probable new tourism products with blend of adventure sports could be golf played in exotic landscape in hilly locations; international cricket matches; optimum utilization and promotion of overlooked/undeveloped world class rapids in Nepali rivers to promote rafting; further promotion of elephant polo and elephant race as unique gifts to the world of adventure sports; marketing of Nepal as the world's fifth best paragliding location; and Nepal standing as the world's fourth country operating the bungee- jump and 'ultimate swing' professionally" (p. 66).

River Rafting in Nepal

Nepal has a reputation for being one of the best places in the world for rafting and kayaking with outstanding river journeys ranging from steep adrenaline- charged mountain streams to classic big volume wilderness expeditions (Lonely Planet, 2008; in Jarga, 2003, p.46). Likewise, Knowles (1994) also mentions that "Nepal is a river runners' paradise- no other country has such a choice of multi-day trips, away from roads, in such magnificent mountain surroundings, with warm rivers, a semi- tropical climate, impressive geography, exotic cultures, wildlife and friendly welcoming people!" (p.7). This industry has also provided employment, generated foreign currency and provided economic benefit to the riverine population of 'put-in' and 'take-out' points of the riverside. The activities are undertaken in different degrees of rough water to get thrill and excitement. The development of this activity as a leisure sport has been started since 1970s. Basically, the international tourists those who do rafting in Nepal, they can be divided into three groups: a) those who will visit Nepal specially for the purpose of rafting; b) those who will do rafting on the way back from trekking; and c) those who will go to Pokhara and from their they will join in rafting tour.

Nepal is a country of turbulent rivers descending feature and faster than anywhere else in the world. As a result, many rivers have cut steep valley thousands of meters deep, creating enormous, unstable hillsides. Around 6000 rivers are flowing in the country. The major rivers are Mahakali, Karnali, Kali Gandaki, Marshyangdi, Seti, Budhi Gandaki, Trishuli, Bhotekoshi, Sunkoshi, Balephi, Tamakoshi, Dhudkoshi, Arun and Tamur. ith They are the ever flowing source of beauty, inspiration, abundance and infinite adventure. The rugged topography, extreme variations and excessive snow melting, heavy monsoon rainfall make this country an obvious choice for river adventure. The raging rivers passing

through mountain gorge exotic valley and jungles provide ample opportunities for thrilling and adventure activities. The term adventure water sport is interchangeably used with aqua tourism or whitewater river rafting or kayaking.

"Rafting means the travelling of tourists in rivers by using boat or raft like floating equipment for the purpose of entertainment or natural or cultural sightseeing"(HMG, MOTCA,1994, p. 49).Literally, whitewater is the white frothy stuff that splashes and tumbles through a rapid. In more general terms, it is used to describe a type of river where you can expect to find rapids (Mark, 2001, p. 247). A rapid is formed where the riverbed gets more steep, which are any collection of waves, holes, rocks and other features that paddles must negotiate (Mark, 2001, p. 245). Raft or river journeys last anything from a few hours to several days. This category includes a wide range of activity types, from exhilarating white water rafting to easygoing cruising river exploration (Swarbrooke et al., 2003, p. 34).

It is Nima Lama who has written the history of river rafting in Nepal in the book of Peter Knowles published in 1994. According to Lama (1994), "The first crazy river runners arrived in Nepal in the late 1960s". In this regard, Ranabhat and Thapa (2013) write, " The written record proves that it is only Sir Edmund Hillary and his friends made the first historical river journey at Sun Koshi river in 1968" (p. 77). This became the benchmark in the history of river rafting in Nepal, although it was not commercial tour. Historically, commercial river rafting activities started in Nepal only in 1975 (Ranabhat & Thapa, 2013).

An experienced American river guide, Mike Yager came to Nepal in 1974 through Mountain Travel Company and made river journey in Trishuli. Subsequently, he was appointed as operation manager for organizing commercial rafting trip through Himalayan River Exploration under Mountain Travel- Tiger Tops since 1975. Himalayan River Exploration (HRE) was the first business rafting company which organized whitewater rafting trip in the rivers of Nepal.

For the purpose of implementing the rafting business, HRE advertised in the Rising Nepal for "Whitewater Rafting Guide Trainees". It finally selected eight men and they got an extensive training in Nepal and USA (Knowles, 1994, p. 65).

At the same time, the commercial rafting was developing, "expeditions "from overseas were arriving:

In 1975 Major Bashford Snell led an expedition out from Britain to conquer the Trishuli but had the misfortune to break his nose in one of the rapids - now named "Snell's Nose' in his honor. A Czech team of Kayakers attempted parts of the Dudh Koshi in 1973 and in 1976 a British team led by Dr Mike Jones made an award winning film that would put Nepal on the world Kayaking map. The Arun river was first explored by Mike Yager and Nepalese Guides in 1976 and an ABC Sportsman program filmed a kayak attempt on the Upper Arun in 1979. The Indian Navy descended the Kali Gandaki in the early 80's. In 1980 a British Expedition attempted a complete kayak descent of the Marshyangdi from its source. Bruce Mason led a descent of the Karnali River in 1981 (Knowles, 1994, p. 66).

Subsequent to the introduction of rafting business, Nepalese teams attended the International Rafting Rallies in Switzerland in 1987, Siberia in 1988, USA in 1990, France in 1993, and Jambu- Kashmir in 2013 (Ranabhat & Thapa, 2013, p.34). These events gave exposure to the participants in a new business, at the same time, its promotion and marketing in Europe and America. By the same time, rafting tourism was recognized as an important growing source of tourist revenue by His Majesty's Government. Meanwhile, the principal rafting operators formed a professional organization known as Nepal Association of Rafting Agents (NARA) in 1989. Kayaking has also been seen as a prime destination for the recreational whitewater kayaker in Nepal. Since the association was formed, rafting enterprise also got national recognition like other tourism organizations of Nepal.

Nature of Rafting Trip

Like trekking agencies, commercial operators offer many different styles of rafting trip to suit different peoples' idea of a holiday. Knowles and Lama (1994) suggest the main choices are between: Participatory versus everything done for you; Lots of gear and comfort versus light and maneuverable; Large group versus "small is beautiful"; "A really cheap budget will dictate the style of the trip and give you no choice; the equipment will be poor and inadequate, food dreary, comforts few, guides inexperienced, etc. It will also probably be non-participatory and not reactive to clients need and wishes - when money is tight you cannot afford to be flexible! pay a little more, however, and there is a wide choice of different styles of trip" (Knowles, 1994, p.10).

There were only 14 rafting companies in 1988, but in course of development of rafting activities in Nepal, several companies were rapidly emerged. Now, there are 75 companies which might have invested approximately 1 billion Nepalese rupees (Ranabhat & Thapa, 2013, p.81) for the SMEs (small and medium-sized enterprises). The definition of an SME varies significantly depending on geographic location. The EU has defined an SME as having less than 250 employees, less than €50 million in turnover and as being independent of larger enterprises (Buhalis & Deimezi, 2004). Downie (2002) states that a similar definition is adopted in the USA, whereas in Australia and enterprise with less than 50 employees is considered a SME (Buhalis and Murphy, 2009, p. 288). SMEs are particularly important in developing and less industrialized countries. For example, micro businesses (those with fewer than 10 employees) dominate employment in countries such as Italy (47%) and Poland (41%). The majority of rafting operators, however, are small and medium - sized enterprises (SMEs) that own their own rafts and the Kayaks, operate on a localized set of rivers that they know well, hire whitewater guides trip by trip as required, and get most of their clients either through multi- activity outdoor tourism retailers such as World Expeditions (Buckley, 2006, p.33).

So far as the rafting activities are concerned, the companies organize rafting trip in sixteen different rivers of Nepal. Out of which, the following rivers are categorized into three groups: (a) expedition (Sunkoshi, Bhotekoshi, Karnali, Tamore, Dudhkoshi); (b) Adventure (Bhotekoshi, Marshyangdi, Tamakoshi); and (c) Commercial (Trishuli, Seti, Kali Gandaki). Experienced tourists are involved in expedition and adventure tour. An

inexperienced tourist will prefer to do rafting in the third category of rivers. In expedition trip it will take 7-10 days tour; 4- 5 days for adventure trip; and 1-3 for commercial trip.

For these, a customer is charged minimum 30- 60 US \$ per day. Likewise, NPRs 2000 is charged to the Nepalese per day. While operating package tour, the companies facilitate transport, food, camping equipment, rafting equipment, river guide, helper and cook, including the safety measures in a full package basis. The authorities of NARA assumed that approximately 15, 000-20, 000 foreigners and 50, 000 Nepalese undertook this activity in 2012.

Two thousand people have got employment directly and indirectly in this industry (Adhikari, 2013; Ranabhat & Thapa (2013). In the beginning, the most of the guides, but not all, are found working as helpers to the guides in the river. After getting experiences, they go for training to get the license of river guide. The training given at NATHM will last for maximum for 10 days.

As one informant said those who used to work permanently as a guide, cook and helper were paid NPRs 6000 - 15000, 5000 - 8000 and 4000 - 6000, (excluding their trip facilities, i.e. lodging and fooding) as their salary on monthly basis respectively. Nowadays, most of the companies hire the rafting crew and pay them according to the nature of rivers on daily basis.

Since 1998, for the purpose of uplifting rafting business and promoting domestic tourism in Nepal, NARA is continuously organizing two events annually, i.e. Annual Rafting Festival and Faghu Jalayatra Mahotsav on last Saturday of May and in Falgun (Nepali month) on the occasion of Holi festival respectively. Likewise, since 2002, NARA is continuously organizing International Himalayan Whitewater Challenge Competition every year in Nepal. The purpose of organizing this competition is to expose Nepal as one of the important attractive whitewater rafting destinations in the world on one hand and promoting, marketing and developing adventure sport tourism on the other.

The above mentioned facts reveal that Nepal has been recognized as one of the most important sporting adventure tourist destinations in the world. This is proved by the above mentioned tourism statistics. Water sport tourism has also become the source of bread and butter for many people those who follow SMEs and people those who live in the river side who supply different kind of services to the rafters and the companies. This is justified to Van De Berg (n.d) by one of his informants who said, "I like to raft and I like to go rafting. In rafting I can have a good future. It is not bad work because in Nepal it is hard to get a job and rafting is good job. I like rafting, this is my life".

Of the 16 major rivers permitted by Government of Nepal for whitewater rafting and kayaking, the following rivers are the most popular adventure destination:

Rivers	Class	Volumes cumecs	m/km	Total days	River days	Scenic wild	River star
Trishuli	2/3+	300	3	1-4	1-4	*	**
Upper Kali Gandaki	4-	120	5	3	3	**	***
Lower Kali Gandaki	2	250	1.5	5	4	**	**

Rivers	Class	Volumes cumecs	m/km	Total days	River days	Scenic wild	River star
Marshyangdi	4+	80	10	5	4	**	***
Budhi Gandaki	3	90	04	03	02	*	*
Sun Koshi	4-	400	02	10	09	**	***
Upper Sunkoshi	2	40	2	1	1	*	**
Bhote Koshi	4+	90	16	2	2	**	***
Karnali	4	300	4	10	8	***	***
Mahakali Seti/Karnali	3	30	3	10	6	***	*
Bheri	3	130	4	9	6	***	**
Babai Nadi	3+	200	3	8	6	***	**
	2	35	3	4	2	***	*

Note:

1. Total days for a typical trip, to and from Kathmandu or Pokhara.
 2. Scenic/Wild is our subjective rating for scenery and wildlife.
 3. River star is our rating of the river as a kayaking trip- total experience.
- *** Highly recommended. ** Recommended, *Specialist interest.

Source: Knowles and Alardice (1992; in Jarga, 2013)

Guides and their roles

After the establishment of NARA, it is continuously producing human resources, e.g. river guide and cook to meet the needs of the industry and to provide quality services to the clients. NARA provides training to the guides for 10 days in collaboration with Nepal Academy of Tourism and Hospitality Management (NATHM) (Ranabhat & Thapa, 2013, p.80). The guides will be trained on First Aid, AR, CPR, SWRT and Rescue by the national and international expert. This training has produced quality workforce in the technical field of adventure water sport tourism. Up till now, NARA has already produced 1150 river guides. Out of them, 250 rafting guides are seen involving in this profession as mentioned by the authorities of NARA. Many other guides have gone abroad for working in the same field. The guides are the pillars of rafting industry. This is justified by a few scholars (Buckley, 2006; Lopez, 1980; Arnould & Price, 1993) who have psychologically examined the role and responsibilities of the guides and their service aspects of adventure tours. As Parker and Avant (2000) saw the role of mountain climbing guides as 'educational' while Beedie (2003) described mountain guiding as 'choreography' and most recently Sharpe (2005) has applied the term as 'emotional labour' to river guiding.

A rafting guide requires a combination of soft and hard skill, i.e. knowledge about the

river, rapids, level of water, holes and whirls, paddling and skill of negotiating with water. In the academic literature of tourism, recreation, and leisure studies, the main focus of risk management has been on physical safety during the adventure activity itself (Buckley, 2010, p.64). The skilled guides are a key component of physical risk management. This includes both the hard skills to carry out the relevant activities themselves and the soft skills to help clients do likewise.

Prior to start the adventurous trip in the river, the guide's job is to provide safety briefing on 'put in point' and, "if necessary, safety training and tests for all clients" (Buckley, 2010, p. 65). This is commonly combined with basic paddling instructions for those clients unfamiliar with the craft concerned. In whitewater paddle-raft trips, each raft commonly has a staff guide responsible for steering the boat, and during whitewater sections the staff may issue a near-continuous stream of commands to the clients, who are helping to propel and/ or balance the boat (Buckley, 2010, p. 79). According to the 'catastrophe theory' the release of adrenaline helps to improve sporting ability (Fox, 2000), although this is often a short-lived effect to permit 'flight or fight' activity bursts of a physical (gaining more strength) or mental (becoming more focused and less scared) nature (Swarbrooke et al., 2003, p. 77).

Apart from above mentioned, being a guide means having many different roles (see in detail Kunwar, 2009; 2011). A guide should also represent the country's things, like she must be knowledgeable and have physical fitness, be healthy and have good personality. One should know the clients' interests, whether they want to know about river rapids or existing environment of the river, riverine population and their activities in the riverside, culture, religion, ritual, environment and fauna. The guides, in this sense, are coined as 'culture brokers' in Europe and America. Nunez (1989) describes culture brokers in the following terms: "it is clear that in most situations a handful of people, no more economically or intellectually advantaged than their peers, appear to emerge as culture brokers. They learn the necessary second or third language; they change occupations from subsistence or salaried to entrepreneurial; they migrate to potential or developing resort areas, etc.; and if they are successful, they are emulated by the previously less daring" (p.269). Now they have got prestigious tourism community leadership

In multi-day trips, where there is more information to convey, it is commonly reserved for a briefing at the first day's campsite, either on arrival or after the clients have eaten. Such briefings typically include information on: toilet practices, and cleaning, washing, litter control, and other environmental management issues. For example, once in the rafting trip of the western Nepal, according to Buckley (2010), camping sites were environmentally, ecologically and aesthetically polluted from the clients, because of poor communication made by the guide. To which Buckley (2010) focuses on proper communication which should be made by the guide during the trip. From sustainable environmental perspectives, the guides are required to have the managerial skills of the following areas:

Major Subjects of Routine Communications

Subject	Examples
<i>Relevant to tour</i>	
Safety	Throw rope, avoid anger
Logistics	Life boat, carry gear
Logistics, planned	Campsites, stops, day's journey, cooking
Equipment	Expected weather, clothing needs, tents, tarps
Hygiene	Washing, fires, human waste
Hygiene	Do not drop litter, butts
Hygiene	Wash hands, filter water, toilet practice
Observation	Wildlife, rapid
Relationships, on-tour	Existing or new

Source: Buckley (2006, pp.76- 77)

Each tour consists of two different subgroups, the guides and the clients, respectively, who assemble only for the tour and then disperse again. Some of the clients are experienced, that is, they take part in numerous tours of the same general type and thus have an intermittent 'river life' distinct from their 'home life' but with a degree of continuity over time. Other clients are inexperienced: they take one tour as an adventure holiday, and it forms an isolated experience in their life with no other basis for direct comparison. Likewise, some of the guides run the same tours repeatedly all season or indeed year after year: for that period at least, tour guiding provides their living, the tour experience is a central component of their life, and if other guides work the same tour, they form a well-established social workgroup. Other guides work only intermittently or occasionally, or work on different tours each time and each season, making their living principally from other professions (Buckley, 2010, p.73- 75). It is the guide who will not only save the life of the clients, but also he will create fun and thrilling from such adventurous tour in the river.

For different types of tours, there may be more guides than clients or many more clients than guides. For many types of commercial adventure tours, client-to-guide ratios seem to range from about 4:1 to about 12:1 (Buckley, 2007a), but these ratios do not necessarily apply across all types of activities.

Buckley (2006) while describing about the importance of communications in the rafting operation and management, he has categorized four main types of communications, which are considered as quintessential for solving the problems and making successful trip. According to him, "First is the overall conversational context where the same patterns are repeated consistently. Second are routine but critical operational communications, notably those related to risk and safety, health and hygiene, and client satisfaction Third are emergency communications, occurring when at least one participant was at potential

risk of immediate injury or death; and fourth are communications which though not emergencies, nonetheless involved strong emotional overtones for the participants for a variety of reasons" (p. 76).

Women River Guide

Twenty five years after the introduction of rafting tourism enterprises, the Nepalese women gradually entered into this field. It is Mina Gurung who served as the first river guide in Nepal. Later on, approximately, according to the informants, there were altogether thirty women who showed their interest in this sector for working as river guide and kayaker. Some of them have got basic training in the river and eighteen to twenty women got license of river guide from NATHM. Among them, a considerable number of the female guides are involved in this profession. Even some married women are still continuing this profession with a great enthusiasm. Two female guides visited abroad for contesting international rafting competition. It is noticed that the two rafting guides are working in the same profession in the foreign countries. Remaining other six to nine guides are providing services in Kathmandu and Pokhara. All of them are equally competent in handling, paddling, kayaking and guiding in the river. The six courageous, outdoor seekers and strenuous guides have recently established an agency named Himalayan Adventure Nepali Girls which seems to be parallel to 'three sisters' (emphasis added) trekking of Pokhara (see in detail Daddi, 2001). They seem to be quiet enthusiastic for guiding, working and contributing to this field.

Women working as guides in the field of rafting tourism are new phenomenon in Nepal. It has opened a door for women's employment changing their new images and survival. They feel proud of working as rafting guides and kayakers. Most of them think that tourism has given another dimension of work to be engaged in income generating roles. At the same time, they are able to overcome the obstacles by meeting their societal traditional expectations, although the women have not been able to capture in this business in comparison to men. The way they have entered into this profession symbolizes that they have been gradually breaking into male's dominating profession. For women guides, for example, paddling and steering the boat, crossing over the rapids, commanding the clients and balancing the boat, is an empowering experiences "pumping of adrenaline rush" (Swarbrooke, 2003, p. 77). They feel stronger and more confident, ready to face their own society with the knowledge which they have "done it", that they have overcome the test to which Ortner (1999) coined the term "gender radical" (p.217) in the study of Sherpa women and their involvement in trekking business. In order to justify it, she has further used the term "games of liberation" (p.23; in Daddi, 2001) as breaking gender rules. The above mentioned concepts can be linked with the bravery of women river guides of Nepal. In the case of tourists, they feel that (they) have achieved this tour, and in general many of the tourists seem to be indulged in an atmosphere of excitement and thrilling, in contrast to the conventions of everyday life, forming a "structure societus unstructured communitas" (Turner ,1969; Turner and Turner 1973; see in detail Kunwar, 2012, pp. 110-112). This concept has become a new agenda for further research in the field of women river guiding.

Conclusion

The concept of sport tourism has become more prominent in the last few years as both an academic field of study and an increasingly popular tourism product. However, the links and relationship between sport and tourism have largely been overlooked. More importantly, the genre of 'sport tourism' is a recent research development. Those who studied sport tourism as an academic subject, they have suggested that the development of sport and tourism is crucial for social and economic benefits. Sport tourism has been recognized one of the most entertaining and exciting tourism in the world. There are two types of sport tourism: active sport tourism and passive sport tourism. Likewise, the sport tourists are also classified into two: the 'general dabbler' and 'specialist' to describe different levels of tourist engagement in participant and spectator sports. Sport-as-play normally associated with active tourist behavior (taking part in sport), while sport-as-competition is usually associated with passive tourist behavior (witnessing sport).

This study focuses mainly on non-competitive and informal types of sport tourism to which the scholars prefer to use the term as sporting adventure travel as noted earlier. Sport tourism is closely linked with nostalgia. Environment, landscape, space, place, season, culture, identity and image of the people and host country are the essential elements or markers of sport tourism. However, crime, hooliganism, insecurity, negative reactions of the communities cannot be ignored in the study of sport tourism. The concepts, theories, models, approaches, perspectives and paradigms are the key methodological tools for understanding sport tourism and adventure sport in better way. Nepal is one of the most popular adventure tourism destinations in the world where many extra ordinary tourists undertake both soft and hard activities in different places of Nepal. Hence, this study suggests that interdisciplinary research is required to advance the knowledge of sport tourism for students, researchers, policy makers and entrepreneurs.

In the case of Nepal, this preliminary study suggests to the students and researchers to carry out research on conflict between the rafting entrepreneurs and hydroelectric producers, water and heritage, the status of river guide and crucial encounter, gender study, impact of rafting tourism on the riverine population of the 'put-in' and 'take-out' points. In order to promote aqua tourism in Nepal, research in this field is quintessential.

The overall potential research outcomes from the synergic approach includes tourism studies, business studies, social sciences, sport management and leisure studies are as follows:

- Better understanding of the interrelationship between the segments and various components of sport tourism,
- Better understanding of the economic, social, environmental and personal impacts generated from sport tourism,
- Better understanding of the management issues associated with the planning, development and management of sport tourism (Ritchie and Adair, 2006, p.296).

As they hoped, "this catholic approach to sport tourism has provided the reader with a better understanding of the breadth and depth of the field" (p.295).

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Acknowledgements

I would like to express my sincere thanks to Rita Dhungel, a Ph.D. research scholar of University of Calgary, Canada, for making valuable comments and suggestions to this paper. Similarly, I would also like to thank to Bibek Raj Kunwar, a student of Travel and Tourism, NATHM, T.U. for typing this manuscript. Finally, I would like to thank to my wife, Ganga Sen (Kunwar) who was instrumental in making this paper a reality.

Nala and Countryside Tourism

Biswo Nath Ulak*

Abstract

The behaviour of tourists in modern time shows an urgent need to promote countryside tourist destinations in Nepal. Tourism supply needs to be integrated and well coordinated, including all necessary amenities for an enjoyable stay similar to the rural village tourism at Ghandruk, Sarankot, Chitwan etc. at different part of Nepal. More marketing efforts should be made to attract target markets of tourists.

Rural tourism, including agritourism, can play an important role to change the fate of Nala in Kavrepalanchowk District. Nala at present is facing the problem of unemployment and deterioration of natural and cultural qualities. The social and ecological aspect is of great importance rather than economic one. Proper development of such areas should be multidirectional. The increasing interest of domestic as well as international tourist in the villages with countryside tour has created a possibility of establishing Nala as a new destination of Countryside Tourism. These new initiations not only saves one of the historically important village ecologically and culturally but also pave the way for the development of entire community of villages providing new employment opportunity and mobilizing the local resources as well.

The aim of this research work is to explore the opportunity of developing countryside tourism in Nala village with taming exclusive environmental and cultural values, as well as to present its role in the development of tourism in Nepal.

Keywords: *countryside tourism, new tourist destination, rural tourism, exclusive environmental values*

Introduction

The Cambridge dictionary defines ‘countryside’ as ‘the land, which is not in towns, cities, or industrial areas, that is either used for farming or left in its natural condition’. The human settlements near by a town or city are known as countryside. There is a typical name for such settlement as “Kanth” in Nepali language. And in English an inhabitant of a rural area is known as a countryman. .

Tourists to Nepal are lured by the captivating sights and experiences, incredible mountains, and ancient cultures and religions. Nepal is an ecological dreamland, rich in

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biodiversity. The hills of Nepal are home to a diverse array of ethnic caste groups. To visit Nepal is to see “life in a land without wheels” (Kunwar, 1997, p. 201). To better harness Nepal’s unlimited tourism potential, tourism products around social and cultural events could be developed in newer areas such as adventure spots. The tourism products that are available in Nepal are not exploited optimally for the benefit of tourists or tourism operators. There are opportunities for tourism operators and local and national beneficiaries to develop new and innovative models of tourism to deliver more and more equally distributed benefits.

The Government of Nepal has formulated its Tourism Vision 2020 as:

Tourism is valued as the major contributor to a sustainable Nepal economy, having developed as an attractive, safe, exciting and unique destination through conservation and promotion, leading to equitable distribution of tourism benefits and greater harmony in society (MoTCA, 2009, p.5).

The unique geographical setting and outstanding natural beauty has created exceptional tourist attractions to Nepal. The potential to attract tourists into new areas is associated with the long-haul market. The Tourism Industry now demands more meaningful involvement and more responsible and sustainable tourism practices. After the political change of 1990, the local communities, Non Government Organizations and Private Sectors, had been raising very important voice in the way in which tourism is/can developed and, resources mobilization. The tourism sector is as significant to Nepal economy as the Water Resources and Natural Resources (forest) are the Nepal economy. It is more effective and sustainable growth if the responsible authorities including Government of Nepal develop and promote this business. Tourism provides entrepreneurial opportunities to small operators fostering balanced development and empowering rural communities, youth and women, and can dynamics other sectors of the economy, particularly the agriculture sector.

Countryside tourism includes touring rural areas and visiting country-towns and villages, seeking out the experiences and products they have on offer. It is the point of juncture between rural tourism and other forms of tourist activity in rural areas. The central defining characteristic remains the primary interest of the tourist in the rural character of place. There are many landscapes and culture activities available in Nepal suitable to rural and countryside tourism.

Countryside tourism in Nepal is broad enough to include non-farm based offerings, such as bed and breakfast, local museums, local cultures, bhattis (local pubs) and restaurants, arts and crafts, rural tours, and the various types of farm stay where the degree of dependence on tourism, and hence the extent to which the product can be pitched for tourists, goes beyond the coincidental involvement described with agritourism. The appeal to tourists is wider than that of agritourism or culture tourism and the experiences are a mix of staged and intrinsically authentic. It encapsulates important and experiences in the wider landscape beyond the concentration on farms. The influence of countryside aesthetics is critical. It will conceptually located between agritourism and way of life in village and city, because the experiences are a mix of authentic and staged experiences founded on the rural character of place. There are many countryside towns within the

Kathmandu valley and outside the Kathmandu valley. These countrysides have specific character and differ from one to the other. However, all the countryside towns are surrounded by rural areas. Nepali people have demonstrated a good hospitality practices in rural areas at Sarankot, Ghandruk, Chitwan etc. under home stay tourism. The lifestyle and culture of countryside towns are specific and unique in Nepal. Promoting the tourism in countryside will be an ample opportunity to the tourist testing/understanding real culture of Nepal. On the other hand, these small settlements can be developed as countryside tourist destination as they have resources and potentialities attracting tourist.

The current favourable political situation in Nepal has provided a strong base for the development of the tourism industry. Restoration of peace from the political change of 2006 and Constitution Assembly Election of 2008 have a central and decisive role to play as a catalyst in promoting responsible and sustainable tourism, while maximising the benefits from tourism through income and employment in rural areas. Tourism can generate major opportunities for Nepal, if managed properly, as demonstrated in the Khumbu region and the Annapurna Conservation Area (Bajracharya, 2009, p.129). The approach of tourism development should be 'people-centered' rather than 'growth-oriented' (Sharma, 2009, p.48) as Nepal is facing big unemployment problem. Mobilisation of ideal resources will automatically generate the income and contribute in growth. Tourism business should develop in line with local needs and aspirations, taking into account the conservation of environment, maintenance of culture values, and the need for earnings and employment, while at the same time responding to global threats such as climate change, the energy crisis, food security and the current economic crisis. Because of its proven effectiveness as a tool for socioeconomic transformation, tourism should be the most prioritised sector for poverty reduction.

Nepal Tourism Statistics 2011 of Minister of Culture, Tourism and Civil Aviation (GON) has shows that majority of tourists come for holiday and pleasure is 40.41%, followed by trekking and mountaineering 19.77%. Recently both are in decreasing trend with uncertainty of political instability. The indicator shows, other tourist are growing, this is in mainly unofficial business people in a diplomatic presents in Nepal, seeking for investment opportunities. Similarly, the number of pilgrimage from North India is increasing with their economic booming since last decade (Khatri, 2012, p.19). The aggregate tourist arrival in Nepal is increasing trend of 7.22% annually, with the fluctuated rates. There was minus (decrease) of 22.1% in 2001 due to personal insecurity with political uncertainty after Royal Massacre and increased 37.2% in 2007 after the success of 19 days Jana Andolan II of 2006. The rate of tourist arrival is fluctuating within last 20 years (1990s-2010) mainly due to political situation regarding personal security. The average length of stay of a tourist is 10.99 days. The data shows that the minimum days 7.92 stayed in 2002 and 13.51 days in 2004 (Khatri, 2012, p.7). In the year 2001 the Maoist announced to capture Kathmandu and security was weakened. Otherwise length of stay was satisfactory.

The recent data of UNCTAD shows that Nepal is in 20th rank attracting tourist for their longer stay in this country even with the limited tourist services (<http://www.nationsencyclopedia.com/WorldStats/UNCTAD-average-length-stay-visitors.html>). The means of attracting tourist in Nepal are: a) peaceful, friendly and

honest people and b) Himalayas and the diversified natural beauty. A tourist can spend his/her time visiting the heritage sites, making trek to the mountains and villages, participating the local culture from different ethnic groups at different part of country.

Among alternative tour operators, culture and history tours have been popular. However, as awareness and interest in other cultures grows, there is an increasing demand to interact with local communities. More specialized culture tours are offering possibilities to include home stays as part of the cultural tour experience. As part of the trend toward authenticity and interactive holidays, more consumers also want immersion in the language, customs, crafts, cuisine, and other cultural aspects of the region visited.

The cost of travel, their safe accommodation and hygienic food is part of attracting tourist for their longer stay. A tourist can accommodate in Nepal with the daily budget of US\$ 20. From the view point of tourism, Nepalese cities are considered as cheapest cities in Asia. For example, a tourist will spend US\$ 14.89 in Pokhara and US\$ 17.48 in Kathmandu for a day+night (<http://www.priceoftravel.com/2060/asia-backpacker-index>). Tourism promotional activities from Nepal are not enough on these.

At present tourism activities are largely concentrated in the Kathmandu Valley, followed by Pokhara, Chitwan National Park and trekking destinations such as the Annapurna Conservation Area, Sagarmatha National Park and Langtang. Tourist activities and their area need to be expanded as well as tourist production also need to be increased for attracting tourist to longer stay introducing countryside tourism.

Methodology

Research methodology followed in the study is a compound one, comprising historical, descriptive, analytical, empirical, comparative as well as statistical approaches. It encompasses both types of sources of data i.e. secondary as well as primary.

Results of the survey conducted in Nala Village to ascertain the ground realities through recording the views of all stakeholders of tourism in Nala Village including: tourists, locals, hoteliers, and officials of the Ugrachandi Nala Village Development Committee.

Secondary sources of the data collected include; reports of World Tourism Organization, annual reports and year hand book published from time to time from Ministry of Tourism and Civil Aviation of GoN, Tourism Development Board of Nepal, Environmental Sanitation Improvement Plan for Nala, and various books, journals, periodicals, newspapers, websites and others publications referring Nala.

The research employed combination of almost all of the techniques of data collection. Besides own observations, questionnaires were served, structured and semi-structured interviews were conducted with individuals of related field, who influenced the decision-making process at different levels and to varying degrees. These target individuals included government officials, tourists, locals, service providers (hoteliers, transporters), experts and intellectuals, journalists and commentators and others, given the relevancy and relativity subject to their availability and access of the researcher.

The purpose of this study is to explore the natural and cultural heritage treasury hidden in Nala to promote as a countryside tourist place. This assignment has expected to support increasing eco-tourism contributing to economic development as well as awaking local people for conservation natural and cultural heritage of Nala.

Nala

A small city with varieties of houses remained from Malla Period¹ to present is the unique village attraction of learning for tourist on human development. Nala lies between 27° 39' to 27° 65' North Latitude and 85° 32' to 85° 70' East longitude and is located at a mean elevation of about 1,400 meters (4,384 feet) above sea level. The climate of Nala village is sub-tropical with maximum of 35.6°C in April and minimum of -3°C in January and 75% annual average humidity. The temperature in general is 19°C to 27°C in summer and 2°C to 20°C in winter. The average rainfall is 1400 millimeters, most of rainfall occurs during June to August.

Nala has a clustered settlement under the Ugrachandi VDC (Village Development Committee) of Kavre Palanchowk District of Nepal. The name of VDC derived from the famous goddess 'Ugrachandi Bhagawati' located in Nala village. Physically this village is surrounded by green hills from three sides north, south and west and open fertile land lies to Eastern part and is situated at northwest of Kavrepalanchowk District. The two famous river of village Punyamata and Nanyamata flow at south of Nala. The source of Punyamata is Mahadev Pokhari and its watershed cover an area of 64.039 Km² (Christain et al., 2005, p.17). This VDC is surrounded by Tukucha Nala VDC, Nasikasthan Sanga VDC, Banepa Municipality, Rabi Opi VDC and Devitar DVC of Kavre District. Nala is at the middle of the fertile agriculture land and situated at foot hills of Nagarkot with 2.5 kilometers far from Tin Dobato (cross road) of Banepa with good motorable road of 10 minutes drive in vehicle. This town is also linked to Chyamasingha, Bhaktapur with a motorable road of 6.72 kilometers of 15 minutes drive. It is 19 kilometers far from Kathmandu. Public transport services (bus) are available from Purano (old) Bus Park of Kathmandu, Chyamasingh of Bhaktapur and Tindobato of Banepa. In term of the location Nala is very accessible² to all categories of visitors. There are several other scattered beautiful settlements that are included in Ugrachandi Nala VDC, they are Bhandari Gaun, Sera, Aangal, Kakre, Suwara, Tusal, Bantal and Chunalal.

There are 1,444 households with the population of 7,198. Of which there are males 3,550 and females 3,648 (CBS statistics 2011). The population is mixed with the Brahmins, Chhetris, Giris, Tamangs, Magars, Sarkis, Damais, Kamis and Newars. Nala Bazar is the core settlement area of Ugrachandi VDC and mainly populated by Newars with different sub-caste groups as: Shrestha, Pujari, Kishi, Bajracharya, Manandhar, Prajapati, Suwal, Napit, Karmacharya, Dhambar, Khadagi, Ranjitkar, Suwal, Kusle, Joshi, Deula, Putuwar, Achaju, Phaiju, Bhan, Yente, Makai, Libichhe, Pamang, Vaidhya, Pradhan, Aanamuni, Chakubaji, Sat Dware etc. The settlement is divided into nine clusters known as Tole

¹ There are few video documentary made on Nala can be seen in <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LA9BgPozUtU>

² Advise to see the video from internet <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VnKxAJYBCos>.

they are: Lagan Tole, Epa Tole, Menchhe Tole, Yanpa Tole, Gansa Tole, Bijyapati Tole, Tupicha Tole, Poda Tole, Jugi (Damai) Tole, and Kyopwa Tole

Nala is one of the famous trekking and bi-cycling tourist routes in Nepal travelling from Bhaktapur and Nagarkot to Banepa, Dhulikhel, Panauti and Namobuddha even it has good motorable linked road. It is one of the best countryside as it is just out of world's second polluted tourist city, Kathmandu and between the two ancient heritage urban centers Bhaktapur and Banepa with panoramic scenery tour from Bhaktapur, Nagarkot and Banepa.

The Ugrachandi VDC has two secondary schools and a higher secondary school. They are Chandeswori high school, Lincoln Int'l School and Spring Hill English School and the Siddhartha University. This university is the first Buddhist University in Nepal (but not functioning).

History

Nala is a historical and religious place of Nepal. The proper Nala is located at the foot of Manimaya Hill which is also known as Tapoban³. The name of this place presented with Utrapur in the path (homage) to Ugrachandi Goddess. There is a myth that says King Dirgha Rath ruled in Nagaripur in Satya Yuga, the Golden Age. It is also called Nalang and it must have been derived from Kirat as this word Nalang⁴ is similar to the other places name in the time of Kirat Period, i.e. Khopring=Khopa (Bhaktapur), Fanpring = Farping etc (Shrestha, 1993, p.19). This place was known as Nalanggram in Lichhavi Period and continued until Malla Period. It was called Naladesh in Malla Period (Regmi, 1979, p.171). However, there is no any evidence how the name of this place was created. Presently, some Newars of Nala interpreted Na as Water and La as Path, which means water path as Nala is drained by numbers of small rivers and rivulets. History of Nala has been described with different myths in different epoch (Era) of history.

Satya Yuga⁵ (The Golden Age /Era) – The Myth says that there was human settlement in Nala before the evacuation of water from the Kathmandu valley. The settlement was known as Kingdom of Dirgha Rath. King Dirgha Rath was cruel and was severely punished by Sristikanta Lokeswor goddess. Later on he was advised to take fasting on the day of each Aasthami at Punyamata River to freedom from punishment and opening his path to heaven. The angels from heaven also used to come for fasting at Punyamata River once a day of Aasthami that falls in autumn season (September).

Treta Yuga (that succeeded Satya Yuga) - There is a cave behind a big stone in Aangla (Rajatar) just opposite to the Brahmayani Temple, north of Nala. It is believed Maharshi Balmiki has had meditation (Tapasya) and wrote the Ramayan Mahakabya, the great

³ Wild and calm place for practicing meditation

⁴ Dhanabajra Bajracharya also confirmed the word Nalang is derived from Kirat and the settlement should be there from the time of Kirat

⁵ In Hindu philosophy there is found the 'era' within a cycle of four yugas. known as the Satya Yuga, the Treta Yuga, the Dwapara Yuga, and finally the Kali Yuga

Hindu epic, residing in this tunnel (Shrestha, 2003, p.47). People believe the name of river "Punyamata" was taken after Balmaki acquired Punya (virtue) after writing Ramayan. There is also Sita's foot print nearby Bhagawati Temple, a proof of settlement in Treta Yuga?

Dwapar Yuga (that succeeded Treta Yuga) - Kirats were one of the supporters of Pandavas in Mahabharat War. There was Kirat settlement around the villages of Nala. There is continuation the Kirat Devi (Ban Devi) puja after the departure of Kirats. The Kirat Devi puja is happening on any Sundays in the month of Poush (December). All the households bring puja (praying items) from their houses and purchase a young she goat raising money. They go to jungle performing the puja with sacrificing the she-goat. Then they took the goat meat and food items they brought from their houses as offering from god (Shrestha, 1993, p.17). There is a stone sculpture of Yudhisthir Maharaj (the eldest brother of Pandava) at the East yard of Ugrachandi Bhagawati. The Kirat culture and sculpture of Yudhisthir supports the evidence of Dwapar Yuga.

It is believed that the South of Nala and West of Thangu were developed in early stage and many fossils were found from ancient time (Karmacharya, 2003, p.30). People of Nala believed that Manjusri travelled through Nala and spent the night at Lhasapas Saraswati⁶ at Sudal VDC of Bhaktapur District on her/his way to pay homage to Swayambhu and evacuating the water of Kathmandu valley (Shrestha, 2003, p.22). It is believed that s/he had crossed Tel Pokhari (pond) from the middle, walking on the Pokhari and the Pokhari is known as Pala⁷ Pokhari.

Kali Yuga (Immoral Era/ the Iron Age) – This era started from 6th century (A.D.), Amshuvarma's Period (Levi, 1908, p.16). The history of Nala can be traced from the period of Lichhavi Period. The sculpture of Ugrachandi Bhagawati and Sristikanta Lokeswor were made in the period of Mana Deva and Nerendra Deva accordingly. An ancient Jal Dron (stone water bucket) attached to the wall near the temple of Bhagawati at Nala is still found there at Lagan Tole. An inscription of 36 cm wide and 7 cm long is patched in Jal Dron at the stone tap. A date of 118 Jestha Sukla Dashami (in the month of October) is seen in the inscription. The inscription seems to be indicating the inauguration date of water tap. The record belongs to the reign of Shiva Deva II (694 - 705 AD). (Regmi, 1983, p.131).

Malla Regime - Abhaya Malla was succeeded by Jayadeva⁸. According to the Vamshavalis (chronology), his brother, Ananda Malla founded⁹ a new town called Bhaktapur (modern Bhadgaun) and established a new and independent Kingdom there. In addition to Bhaktapur, Ananda Malla founded seven towns in 12th century in the vicinity of well-known temples. These were Banepur (Banepa) near the Charandeshwari

⁶ It is believe this Saraswati came from Lhasa. The question is Saraswati or Manju Shree

⁷ In Newari, Pala means foot step

⁸ A manuscript written in 342 Nepal Era (1221 A.D.) during the period of a certain King named Ranasura (Jayadeva), who was a contemporary of Abhaya Malla, has been discovered. It does not mention "Malla" after Ranasura, but describes him as "Parama Bhattaraka Maharaja" in addition to other titles Bendall thinks he was King in a certain area in Nepal. This view appears to be correct.

⁹ These towns should not founded, may be extended or renovated as there were evidences from Lichhavi period.

temple, Panawati (Panauti) near Prayaga Tirtha, Nala near the temple of Ugrachandi Bhagawati, Dhulikhel near the temple of Narayan, Khadpu near the Swet Bhairab, and Chaukot near Chekor Rishi's hermitage and Sanga near Nasika Pitha. There were 500 households in Nala during Malla regime (Shrestha, 1993, p.6) to be Desh (town) under the Bhaktapur kingdom.

The ruins of Nala fort, situated at a distance of approximately 4 miles from Bhaktapur, can still be seen. In Malla period, a wall had been constructed around the town with seven Dhwakas (the entrance gates). It is the interesting fact that the seven dhwakas (gates) were erected for different purposes. The Layaku (Rajkul) Dhwaka was used for entering and exiting for newly married brides (i.e. wedding procession etc.) and for any gratifying occasions, Baila Dhwaka was used for visiting Sristikanta Lokesrow Bihar for Grihastha Bhikshu (General Buddhist people) and Kyopo Dhwaka for outgoing sewage system of the city and the Karya Dhwaka was for going out and returning after completion of special assignments/projects, Palpukhu Dhwaka for visiting Tibet for Tantrik Vidya and Business work, Gansa Dhwaka for accepting people from other community (immigrant) and Si Dhwaka was used for funeral procession. Nala was under the kingdom of Bhaktapur, but it was repeatedly subjugated by the Gorkhalis (Bajracharya, 1964, p.20). It was therefore necessary to make arrangements for the security of the town and those dhwakas were very useful controlling movements in Nala. Most of gates have been turned into ruined and one still stands on the northern and north-western sides. Beyond the wall, a moat had been dug on the hills, traces of which are still visible. No such arrangements had been made on the eastern, southern and western sides, which comprised territory ruled by Bhaktapur. However, the territory beyond the northern hills belonged to Kathmandu (Regmi, 1970, p.111). There are many stone and copper plate inscriptions and some leaf plates in Nala. These inscriptions were written for information on public services to ensure complying rule of law. Most of the inscriptions were found in Malla period. Those inscriptions denoted that Nala developed from ancient age (before Malla regime).

There are no other traceable evidences of Lichhavis apart from the sculpture of Ugrachandi Bhagawati, Sristikanta Lokeswor, inscription in Jal Dron and name of a street Libi Chhen in Nala. But there are many evidences from Malla regime – stone made main gate, fort, wall, numbers of stone taps and wells, public squares (Dabalis) and streets paved with baked bricks and carved stones. The drainage system demonstrates the Nala civilization from early age. The Sattals (Inns), Temple, Monastery, Stupas and few houses were made with Bihari style, Pagoda style and modern style. Most of the wooden and stone arts were followed the Malla regime. The wood work in houses, temple, inns, Monastery and Stupas were made with beautiful arts demonstrating the culture and human development. Most of the houses of Malla period were destroyed by the earthquake of 1943 (1990 BS) and the wooden frame and panel of windows, doors and other part of the wooden item from ruined houses were used in their new houses. The mixture of wooden art with modern structure can be seen in Nala city. Some respondents opine that there was a palace¹⁰ before the Lichhavi period where the Chandeswory School was constructed.

Culture and Religion

Nepal is a sacred land, a mosaic of different cultures. This country is mainly the point of convergent of two main religions Hinduism and Buddhism. Buddhism occupies a most eminent position in Nepal in Lichhavi and Malla dynasty. Nala also can not deviate from this phenomenon and presently Christianity has been added. Nala seems to be occupied by Hinduism in the beginning and adopted the Buddhism from the period of Lichhavi and Malla regime. There are famous three goddesses, a) Sristikanta Lokeswara, b) Ugrachandi Bhagawati and c) Mahalaxmi

a) Ugrachandi Bhagawati – In Hinduism, it is believed that Ugranchandi Bhagawati the power of goddess, was appeared in the Earth to kill the demon Mahisashur, King of Evil. People of Nala believe that she was appeared in Nala in Satya Yuga to drive the Indra, King of heaven who was annoying to the angels devoting at Asthami¹¹ fasting in Aswin (September) at Punyamata River. People respect on Ugranchandi Bhagawati for a long time.

One of the earliest and most popular Palanchowk Bhagawati temple is situated in the east of Nala. The statue of the Bhagawati was made in 503 AD during the time of king Man Dev the first historical king of Lichhavi period (Levi, 1908, p.39). As the story goes, Mana Dev decided to take time off and meditated at one monastery in Sakhu. His mother commissioned the best artist to make a statue of Bhagawati. The unknown artist first made the masterpiece at Palanchowk Bhagawati. There is a very popular legend that is told repeatedly, about how the four stone masterpieces were done by the same artist. The king's mother was scared with the artist that he would make a replica. Therefore two fingers of the right hand of the artist were chopped off. The artist was not deterred and went on to carve the Nala Bhagawati even without two fingers. Then one of his arms cut off. With the one remaining hand, he carved another version, Shova Bhagawati at Bishnumati. The second arm was chopped off. He then used his feet to carve the Naxal Bhagawati, which originally was called Nawa Sagar Bhagawati. One needs to take a trip to all four sites to authenticate the legend starting with the masterpiece at Palanchowk and the less than mediocre image at Naxal. There seems to be some truth in the legend.

The stone sculpture of goddess Ugrachandi Bhagawati of Nala was installed in a temple. The present four storied pagoda style temple was constructed in the period of King Jagatjyoti Mall of Bhaktapur in Nepal Sambat 741 and completed in Nepal Sambat 767 by Jagat Prakash Mall, the king of Lalitpur. This Temple was renovated in 2002 by French Project and replaced all tiles roof into cooper roof in all four stories. Many goddess devotees had homage to Bhagawati with different materials including a stone pillar and iron peacock from Jitman Pode. It has demonstrated that the community respect to diversity and inclusion accepting the materials from untouchable caste.

There are two types of Bhagawati statues; a) one made of stone and permanently installed in the four storied temple and b) three made of bronze with gold painted. The bronze statues are transferable and they are as follows, i) cross leg with hands, ii) cross leg without hands and iii) with eighteen hands. These three bronze Bhagawati statues are

¹⁰The palace must before the Lichhavi as there are myth of king from satya yuga.

¹¹8th day of lunay month

stored in Dhyo Chhen¹² at Bijyapati Tole. Annually, these three Bhagawati statues will open displayed to public according to their tradition, i) crossed leg without hands on the day after Aksha Tritiya (mid of April), ii) cross leg with hands on the main day (Tika) of Vijaya Dashami (the main festival of Hindu) and iii) the eighteen hands Bhagawati will make round in Nala bazar twice a year first in Ashoj Tritiya (mid September) and second will be in main day (Tika) of Vijaya Dashami. All caste of Nala, i.e. touchable to untouchable will participate in the procession of Bhagawati goddess. Beside those three movable idols each Newari caste has made Bhagawati pictures for their own caste in utensils (in water jug, cooking pot, measuring unit, weapon etc)¹³, they are a) Karmacharya, b) Kishi, c) Pamang, d) Hipo – in sword, e) Bha, f) Dui, g) Jugi, h) Doi, and i) Po. Those items are stored in the senior member's house of their caste (community). Each caste conducts a day puja to their family Bhagawati items with picture in each year. This will be in different days than the main Bhagawati puja and do not clash with each other caste.

b) Karunamaya – Nala people say Sristikanta Lokeswor was appeared in Nala in Satya Yug to punish the then King. They also believed Siddartha Gautam has visited Nala and stayed at Sristikanta Lokesrow for four months while visiting at Namu Buddha. There is a Ashok Chaitya in Nala and they claim Emperor Ashok had visit to homage Nala Karunamaya. But there is no any traceable evidence when the sculpture of Sristikanta Lokesrow was made.

Buddhists have a great role in making Nepalese culture a glorious one. With the popularity of Buddhism, the images were created in a large number during the then Lichhavi period (Wright, 1877, p.140). Due to the quality of Karuna (compassion) of Lokeswor, they were also called Karunamaya. The emergence of a large number of Lokeswor was accompanied by the development of worship rituals, rituals of fasting and recitation of mantras. In this trend of development, the Newar Buddhists in Kathmandu valley worshipped four prominent Lokesworas. They are Bungadyo or Lokanath of Patan, Adinath (Anandadi Lokeswara) of Chovar at Kachapal parvat, Sristikanta Lokeswara of Nala, and Argyaavalokitesvara of Janbahal, Kathmandu. It is believed these Karunamayas were established in the period of Lichhavi King Narendra Deva in 7th century (Gellner, 1996, p.126). The worship of these Lokeswaras has continued since the ancient times. These Lokeswaras have their special virtues of their own. Sristikanta Lokeswara is known for the deed as creator. Bungadyo of Patan is known as harbinger of rain which is indispensable for growing food grains. Adinath Lokeswara of Chovar is known for the virtue of keeping away diseases and improving luck. And Janabahadyo is remembered for the virtue of prolonging longevity of one's life. These four Lokeswaras are specially recognised in the Newar Buddhist culture. In those ancient days job opportunities are limited and so also are the amenities in health and education sectors. Availability of two meals a day, long life, good health, family continuity and discriminative wisdom were recognized as the socio-economic indicators of a successful life and are sought the devotion and religious rituals of the said Bodhisattvas.

¹² Goddesses reside in ordinary house.

¹³ The writer could trace only the Bhagawati picture in sword belongs to Hipo caste. Other caste did not tell exactly what they have.

There is a story about the origin of this Karunamaya in Purana¹⁴. One of the four Karunamayas was lost¹⁵ for a long time which was later found in Nala (Wright, 1877, p.20). The festival of Nala Karunamaya started in 1935 A.D. On the full moon Day of Falgun (March), Nala Karunamaya will be taken out with the ritual of Dasakarmavidhi (ten sacraments) for jatra purpose. The Jatra of Karunamaya Lokeswara is prominent in Nala. By observing jatra, the Nepalese people demonstrated social and religious unity (<http://www.aioiyama.net/lrc/papers/cbhnmm-ppr-14.htm>). The festival of Nala Karunamaya runs for three days during which the deity's idol is given a bath and repainted. On the third day, a grand procession takes place around Nala. The image is carried in a palanquin accompanied by musical bands to the temples of Chandeswori and then brought back to its temple. Pilgrimage and people from Kathmandu and other districts visit Nala to observe the unique culture.

c) Mahalaxmi – Myth says once Nala was subjugated by a ghost and people of Nala were bound to supply sufficient food including a member of family for each night. The ghost used to eat all food including the person who brought the food. This culture was established by the then king (ruler) on rotation basis, one house after the other (family) providing food and a person to the ghost. One day the turn came to a family, who had only couple, husband and wife. On the same night a girl came to their house as a guest. The girl managed to get the permission from family (couple) to take the food for the ghost. On that night the girl was able to kill the ghost and she disappeared. The next day Nala people found the girl was not an ordinary girl and she was Mahalaxmi. From then, people of Nala visit to that house with puja for their prosperity, believing she has visited there. The culture of Mahalaxmi is also popular in Nala.

It is believed the Mahalaxmi (girl) was quite young, then people of Nala worship to Kanya (girl), and organise the Ehee¹⁶ on the day of Akshatritiya in memory of her victory. Nala community respected other girls and thus the culture of Kanya puja began and Ehee in group treating them as Mahalaxmi goddesses. Girls from community and around the villages will be brought in this ceremony. It is another interesting event to observe, that how they respect to young girl in their society.

There is no temple of Mahalaxmi. The idol of Mahalaxmi is kept in a Dhyo Chhen at Ipa Tole where she had visited as a guest. Mahalaxmi jatra is the main festival of Nala worshipping for wealth and prosperity. The jatra lasts for four days at Nepali New Year eve (April) from the day of Dwitiya¹⁷ of full moon to the day of Panchami. People make a big chariot for Mahalaxmi God and put her into that chariot for four days from Dwitiya

¹⁴ The sacred literature of with numbers of popular encyclopedic collections of myths, legends, and genealogies.

¹⁵ There is a myth the Sristikanta Lokeswor was stolen by a Tibetan. He could not take beyond Punyamata River then he left the god at the river unattended and people established him in Nala.

¹⁶ Ehee, Ihi or Bel Marriage (Nepal Bhasa O{xL - Bel bibaha) is a ceremony in the Newar community in Nepal in which pre-adolescent girls are 'married' to the bel fruit (wood apple), which is a symbol of the god Vishnu, ensuring that the girl becomes and remains fertile. It is believed that if the girl's husband dies later in her life, she is not considered a widow because she is married to Vishnu, and so already has a husband that believed are still alive

¹⁷ Second day of the full moon in the first month of Nepali year.

to Panchami. First Mahalaxmi is taken to Gopaleswor Dhap¹⁸ to bath and brought back to bazar and put her into chariot and demonstrate to public and facilitate for local people for pay homage (puja). Similarly, they make chariots for god Narayan and Mahadev. These three chariots with goddess are taken round to Nala on the day of tritiya. This tritiya is known as Akshetritiya, the marriage day of Mahadev and Parvati. People from local area including the Kathmandu valley and Terai also come to Nala to observe this Jatra. Different groups of musical bands devoted to the god and goddess perform music and pilgrimages from different places pay homage Mahalaxmi, Narayan and Mahadev for the prosperity of their life, health and energy. There was a courtesy from Chochhen Tole of Bhaktapur coming with a Naumati musical band in this festival. This could have two purposes one is to get mercy from Mahalaxmi goddess and the other is to promote a cultural tourism at neighboring village.

Mahadev Temple – There is a small pagoda type of temple at Tupicha Tole at wards no 3 of VDC. A four headed Shiva lingam is installed in this temple. Temple has four doors but only the west face is open. People use to say this was replica of the Pashupati Nath in Kathmandu.

Gopaleswor Mahadev – As the story say, after the death of Sati Devi (an epic goddess), Mahadev (one of the Hindu trinity) was mad and started travelling here and there carrying the dead body of Sati Devi. One day he reached at Aangal Village and took rest while he was terribly tired. A symbol of Mahadev was appeared at the evening of Dwitiya of full moon in Baishakh (April) where Mahadev was seated. Rishi and Maharshi came to pay homage at symbol and gave the name of Gopaleswor Mahadev. Now, the place is famous with Gopaleswor Mahadev. It is believed that Mahalaxmi has gone to Gopaleswor Dhap to invite Mahadev to participate in Akshatritiya function. Nala people take the Akshetritiya as the day of Shiva and Parvati married day.

Aastha Matrika – Nala was a part of Bhaktapur kingdom and closed to Bhaktapur. People of Nala follow most culture of Bhaktapur, Kathmandu and Lalitpur communities. Bhaktapur kingdom had established the Asthamatrika by Tantrik (Spiritual craft) to strengthen the productivity, empowerment, prosperity and protect them from enemies and epidemic. Such Asthamatrikas were established in Nala by people as in Bhaktapur and other cities under spiritual guidances. The Nala city was surrounded by Asthamatrika as follows;

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Chamunda Mai at Tushal Village | 5. Mahalaxmi Mai at Thangu (Tapoban) |
| 2. Maheswori Mai at River configuration at Angal Village | 6. Barahi Mai at Raya Village |
| 3. Kaumari Mai at Amaldole Village | 7. Vaishnabi Mai at Pande Village |
| 4. Bramhayani Mai at Dandal Village | 8. Indrayani Mai at Saraswati Dovan (river confederation) |

People of Nala were very happy and well off to afford for relax or enjoyable life. They enjoy their life visiting different goddesses. Nala people visit all the Astha Matrika one

¹⁸ It is believed that Mahalaxmi went to invite Mahadev and Parvati for Akshatritiya occasion.

by one. They spent 8 days a year in different dates visiting each Astha Matrika. Each family visit the goddess and offered puja and good food and they took back home the same food as offering from the Goddesses. They had made an inn at each Matrika where they could take rest during the puja period.

Cultural Sightseeing

Nala is properly situated at foot hills with open fertile land to the east, which also provides sufficient heating and light making the place more pleasant. The people of Nala carrying the typical local culture have been maintaining the religious and cultural heritages of their ancestors. The live culture and farming and friendly people are the main resources in the countryside. Following are the some of the religiously and historically important sites of Nala:

Mahadeb Pokhari – Manimaya hill (Tapoban) has a water pound. There was a myth which tells that Mahadev (Shiva) was overnight on the way to Gosaikunda while he was badly suffered from swallowing the Kalkut Bikh (a lethal poison known as Halahala). The Rishi and Muni (Saints) came for meditation (tapasya) where Shiva had taken rest and, they have Darshan (Sight) and, they gave name with Ratna Chundeswor Mahadev. Then the Manimaya Hill called Tapoban. The water pond is known as “Mahadev Pokhari” It is believed that the Rishi, Muni including general people from locality and distance came to pay homage to Mahadev on the full moon day of Bhadra (August) month believing to get the sight of Ratna Chundeswor Mahadev. It is interesting that the devotees from both religions, Hindu and Buddhist participate in that parba (festival). But they have different purpose. Hindu Tagadhari (upper cast) renews their Janai (sacred thread) and Buddhist Lama (Mahayana) pay homage to Shiva and other caste (Matwali) also participate to offer puja to Mahadev and get sacred thread at their hand (Shrestha, 1993, p.9).

Gupha Dole – There is a cave at north of the Nala where Maharsi Balmaki had meditation and this place is known as Gupha Dole. This is situated at just opposite of Brahamayani temple at the river side. It is lovely place where Balmaki wrote some episodes of Ramayan. This place is also known as “Kalam Masi” as people believes Balmaki had made ink and pen to write the Ramayan episode. This is a nice and peaceful hill top that overlooks valley.

Nala Tunnel – There is a tunnel down to the Kalika Forest at the top of Nala bazar. This is situated right to the Ugrachandi at Lagan Tole and left to the Gansa Tole. Every year the Mahalaxmi Jatra ended at the face of this tunnel. There is baked bricks paved about 100 meters at 60 degree slope and the sunlight can easily enter into tunnel as there is no tall houses in front. This tunnel is regarded as a symbol of the development of Nala.

Nala Ban (forest) – The forest of Nala remains still as a good forest for Kathmandu valley. The ceremonial pole for Bisket Jatra of Bhaktapur and Indra Jatra of Kathmandu are selected the tree from Nala forest. The trees are chopped after a puja goat hits it with its head. Bisket jatra in Bhaktapur begins from last week of the twelfth month of the, year as per Nepali calendar. On the day before the New Year (mid April), about eighty feet long huge pole, linga from the Nala Ban will pulled up by hundreds of people to make

it stand. In Kathmandu, Indra Jatra begins every year from the day of the fortnight Dwadasi of Nepali month of Aswin (September) to the day of Krishna Chaturthi of the next lunar month Ashwin (end of September). It is the eight day long festival. On the first day of Indra Jatra a pole known as Linga or Lyosingh with a flag on the top is made stand at Hanuman Dhoka Choak (Square). This thirty-six feet long wooden pole will choose with great care from the Nala Ban as mentioned before. According to traditional beliefs, Indra had received this flag from Lord Vishnu for protection (Toffin, 1992, p.75).

People of Nala follow all the newari tradition, culture and rituals similar to Bhaktapur apart from major jatras, i.e. Bisket Jatra etc. The cuisines of Nala newar are similar to the other newar's cities in Nepal. The culture of visiting and paying homage to local goddess and annual newari festivals are similar to other newari communities, i.e., Ma ya khou soyagu (mother's day), Digu (family god) puja, Guthi (cooperative), Sithi nakha (special information of starting annual festival), Qyati punhi (beans day), Ba ya Khou soyagu (father's day), Chhotha (Ganesh puja), Gathamo Charhe (Ghanta Karna – killing ghost day), Gulha Chare (information of big festival), Mohni (Dashami), Sunti (Deepawali), Yomari Punhi (special newari dish), Shila charhe (information of ending annual festival) etc.

Livelihoods

The Kingdom of Ni-po-lo is due west of Tou-fan (Tibet). The father (Udaya Dev) of Na-ling¹⁹-ti-po (Narendra Deva) was dethroned by his younger brother (Dhruba Dev); Na-ling-ti-po had to flee to escape from his uncle. Tou-fan gave him refuge and re-established him on the throne; he consequently became their vassal (Levi, 1908, p.69). This demonstrates Narendra Dev was re-established in Nepal from Tibet Empire and Nala could be the point of entry to Nepal (Bhaktapur) and, Nala became one of the trade hubs between Kathmandu Valley and Tibet. This place remained the trade centre for a long time, until the Arnoko Highway started in 1964 AD. So it can simply be guessed that people in Nala must have been involved in trade and business in ancient period.

Nala is famous for 500 Nala 700 Boksi (witch) – A myth says, people of Nala have learned the spiritual-craft from Ugrachandi Bhagawati to overcome from evils and epidemics in those days. A person can gain this skill with a long meditation with following the strict discipline with positive thinking. The men and women having spiritual-craft were/are known as “Tantrik”. This became an occupation for their livelihoods. The Tantriks of Nala visit to other communities and villages as healer and varieties of creative work. There were 500 houses in Nala while King Avaya Deva Malla has renovated it in 12th century. It is believed at least a member of family form house acquired the spiritual knowledge/skills for their livelihoods as they could farm through their Tantrik skills. Tantrik Gyan Singh Karmacharya was famous for completing unbelievable work. Men as well as women have learned the Tantrik knowledge and skills and, the people in other communities were jealous with the intelligence of Nala's women. People from outsider charge them as witch “Boksi” instead of “Tantrik” and blamed the whole Nala as town of Boksi, which sounds injustice indeed. The outside communities whispered each other

¹⁹ The name of Nala could from the Tibetan name of Narendra Deva

saying "500 Nala 700 Boksi", but they could not tell directly to the people from Nala as they do not have any evidence that those women Tantrik misused their Tantras. Tantrism in the time of King Shiva Singh Mall of Bhaktapur at early 16th century was very popular (Shrestha, 1972, p.34). The word Boksi is only a nick title given to a weak woman. These days in backward communities the interest group attempted to tag "Boksi" to the poor, helpless vulnerable and single women and they do so for maintaining their superiority in society. The word Boksi is totally against the spirit of Hinduism and Buddhism. Rather it is inhuman and an offence from human rights stand point to tag someone as 'Boksi'.

Bamboo Work – In early days the livelihoods of Poda in Nala depended on fishing in rivers. They also have had the skills of bamboo art, netting basket and other household materials. Nala people believe the material made from the funeral procession will be anti-evil. They found the bamboo from funeral procession can be recycled for making Kalali (basket) for pilgrimages and Pichha (plate used as net for filtering – used while making local wine - Raksi) for domestic brewery. The art from Poda was found attractive and big demand from neighboring cities and villages, Sanga, Banepa, Khadpu, Chaukot, Dhulikhel, Panauti, Khopasi and Kathmandu valley. The bamboo received from funeral was not sufficient. Then they use other bamboo from Jungle and put a small piece of bamboo in each item ensuring the product making anti-evil. They have improved their skills and start making Dhakki (big plate), Dalo (bucket) etc. from other local materials. It gained a good market, mainly in Bhaktapur and Banepa. Unfortunately, the declining of local raw materials and replacement from plastic and aluminum products, their product lagged far behind in the modern market.

The trade route to Tibet was continued until the motorable linked road made between Banepa to Bhaktapur via Sanga at late 1960s. The trade of Nala declined and people of the town gradually moved towards agriculture occupation. The trade route was completely closed with the completion of Arniko highway in 1970 and the Nala trade confined to local supplies. Employment from agriculture farming was/is seasonal. Most of the town's innovative, creative and traders became unemployed. Consequently, the brain drain started from Nala along with selling of their capital, the land and houses. The household income reduced substantially and could not maintain the socio-economic status. They could not maintain their culture, standardization/maintenance of houses and other infrastructures including the public places, sewage systems and roads. A trail road was opened from Banepa to Nala in 1970s for supplying the agriculture products. Then Nala became famous for supplying the dairy products "Khuwa" (evaporated milk) and potato for Kathmandu valley via Banepa. Nala has demonstrated farming revolution in last few decades. Revolution in farming in the sense that they first increased production of rice, wheat and potato respectively. The production of rice kept the national record in 1963 and wheat in 1973 and potato in 1983.

Despite this prosperous history and great potentiality Nala was doom economically. The state should take care of such things. There was no coordination and cooperation between and amongst leading political parties. This is one of the causes falling down of Nala (Shrestha, 2003, p.33). People of Nala have realised that they have been cheated in democracy where leaders only provided lip service. And these incompetent people remained as peoples' representatives for a long time. The poverty is spread and increased

with ineffective use of local resources. It is time to revitalize the glory of Nala by regenerating the local energy and resources through promoting countryside tourism.

Heritage Conservation

Holy River Purnyamata at the south of village and the green forest with moderate hills from three corners and the open lightning from the eastern part were the magnetism of growing human settlement of Nala. This town was fabricated with the Lichhavi art depicting the strength of their empire on trade and culture. This town was renovated and expanded in 12th century by Malla Kings by constructing their personal houses with beautiful wooden and stone arts carve in pillars, trusts, window/door with panels. These art works were very prevalent in public buildings. Baked brick, carved stone and paved street were found in the public square etc. The manifestation of those art and cultures signifies the human civilization and economic power of Nala²⁰.

Unfortunately, after the Malla kings were overpowered by the Shahs the later did not give proper attention to the art and culture of Nala as in other parts of Nepal. The local community could not maintain the traditional culture, monuments and art handed by their predecessors as they have to struggle for their livelihood at present. So at present some of the arts and monuments like temples and other infrastructure have been left unaired.

Prospect of Tourism in Nala

Geographically Nala is situated next to a big Kathmandu valley which was full of water until the water was drained out and the lake turned into fertile land. Nala became a suitable place for meditation to Rishi-Muni (Hermits) and comfortable living location for human settlement. There were good forest and good plain land at Southeast with sufficient natural resources essential for human living in that area. A myth says this place was pilgrimage place for angels from heaven and visiting place for creator god (Shristikanta Lokeswor), the god of superpower (Ugrachandi Bhawagati) and god of prosperity (Mahalaxmi). Nala would be the route to Kathmandu for Hermits and Buddhists (Bipaswi, Bodhisatwa etc.) including the Manjushree along from Tibet for homage to Shining Lotus (Swayambhu) while Kathmandu valley was full of water.

Nala was pilgrimage place for people of Kathmandu valley and neighboring villages, Banepa, Sanga, Khadpu, Chaukot, Panauti, Khopasi and Sankhu visiting goddess residing in Nala. It is believed that the trust upon the goddess increased in Malla period. Mahalaxmi puja and jatra is an attraction for the prosperity of people and country. Nala became more popular for tirthatan (pilgrimage) as one Bhagawati amongst four and one Karunamaya amongst four Karunamaya in Kathmandu valley reside here. In the Malla period Nala was renovated as a new bride. People had added the art in their houses and public places including added festivals in addition to regular Newari culture (festivals in different dates) to attract people from different parts of country. The King residing Bhaktapur encourage devotional musical bands of Bhaktapur to visit Nala in festival days. Among them a

²⁰ Advise to see the video from internet <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LA9BgPozUtg>

Naumati Baja (Band) from Chochhen Tole of Bhaktapur was continued for the jatra of Mahalaxmi up to last decade as mentioned before.

Different international writers have mentioned about Nala in their book, i.e. Prof. Silva Leve from France has mentioned in History of Nepal, 1908, Lonely Planet etc. This information attracted to the tourist interested on Nala's culture and heritage. In 1980 and 1990s decade the tourist companies in Kathmandu organised a day tour at Nala for international tourist. This was well organised by Yeti Travel of Kathmandu with a coach (big bus) visiting Nala for the day travel. Beside the day tour, this place became famous for trek route from Bhaktapur/Nagarkot to Banepa/Dhulikhel etc. The infrastructure was made with small tea shops, hotels and lodges to attract the international tourist. They have organised community tourism, educating the local Newari culture to national and international tourist. In the event of specific occasion/festival the group tourist were accommodated in individual houses and introduce from preparation to implementation of cultural, i.e. accumulation/collection of goods and items for conducting festivals, participate in cooking special food items and demonstration how to celebrate occasions, i.e. Mha Puja, Bhai Tika, Yo Mari Puni, Quati Puni, Sitthi Nakha etc. This was an opportunity to learning food recipe and building spiritual community. It was a good business and both parties were happy and enjoyed with those events. Unfortunately, following the arm insurgency of 1996 the entire tourist activities of Nala was disturb and the hope for Nala's new business of tourism went in vain.

Now, there is an occasional day tourist groups not as in past organised day tour. However, the trekking route is continued and few numbers of tea shops still exist as there are no alternative employments. The tea shops and snack shops suitable only to locals and domestic tourist. The international tourists just take cold drinks, water and hardly take a cup of tea at their visit to Nala. The tourism services in Nala were adversely affected by the armed conflict and it is yet to recover.

People of Nala are aware of international development and role of tourism in contributing social transformation and economic growth. The fund from the guthi (cooperative) and local government is not sufficient for maintaining the cultural heritage of Nala. They had somehow generated some fund for maintaining the local heritage sites mainly through donation to Ugrachandi and Karunamaya from visitors. It was also stopped as the tourist business was disturbed due to the armed conflict. And people with innovative ideas on tourism and the pioneers of tourist business migrated to Kathmandu and other cities during last few decades. It is estimated there are about 1600 houses in Kathmandu of the people migrated from Nala. Now some of them are interested to returning their village for the sake of establishing tourism industry as they have gained experience of tourism business.

As noted earlier Nala is still a famous trekking and bi-cycling tourist route of Nepal traveling from Bhaktapur and Nagarkot to Banepa, Dhulikhel, Panauti and Namobuddha even it has good motorable linked road. It is one of the best countrysides as it is just out of world's second polluted tourist city, Kathmandu and between the two ancient heritage urban centers Bhaktapur and Banepa with beautiful sceneries way tour from Banepa and Bhaktapur. It is linked with many attractive trekking routs as tourist destinations, i.e. Nagarkot, Helambu, Chandeswori, Shilu Mahadevsthan and Dhaneswori with ancient city Banepa, Swet Bhairab with ancient Khandpu and Chaukot settlements, historic

Panauti city, Dhulikhel town and Khopasi, the industrial city of Kavre District, with international renown tourist centre Namobuddha. Each place above mentioned can be reached by walking tour in a day from Nala. There are neighbouring villages such as Bhandarigaun, Rayagaun, Thakurigaun, Pandegaun, Angal, Tusal, Bule, Kangalgaun, Thapagaun, Dhungakhalgaun, Amaldol, Nayabasti and Sumara in between Nala and famous tourist destination aforementioned. These villages lie approximately in distance of two km. These villages are famous for supplying green vegetables to cities of Kathmandu Valley. Tourist can view the green field and the traditional local farming techniques.

Nala and its neighbouring places are suitable for relaxation with more typical and gratifying life from the suffocating Kathmandu valley. Here people tired of din and bustle of city can have true relaxation and get rid of all stresses of cities. Association with the country life circles around without the amenities such as hot shower, indoor plumbing, a TV and other ties with the world, the countryside tourism usually offer fascinating into natural lull. In Nala and its vicinity area tourist can experience the same country life. Busy people will get an entire package of conveniences plus serenity, incredible beauty of nature, organic food and superb attention from the hosts²¹ and sometimes even distractions which are not normally associated with villages. Some countryside is specially created to have minimum comfort, and in spite of that, vacationers swarm to these destinations. The countryside tourist services offer not only full comfort, but is groomed regions with ethnic culture preserving cultural and culinary heritage

The impact of political and economic change on agriculture in the world over the past twenty years has encouraged interest in farm diversification. Leisure and tourism have been prominent in this shift as farms have been converted to tourist accommodation and in some cases to visitor attractions. Tourism is moving from the periphery to the centre of the rural economy and is promoted and encouraged by statutory bodies such as the Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs and the Countryside Agency (Bramwell, 1994, p.4). Tourism was growing business after 1965, which drastically increased after 1990. It is unfortunate that this business also declined with the armed conflict of 1996 in Nepal. The decade long armed conflict has a great impact in the countryside of Kathmandu valley and around. The economy was badly affected by migration of human and other resources to urban centres from rural areas. The culture of cooperation and tolerance is deteriorated. Mostly the old people and children were left in villages due to the effect of armed conflict. The situation, to some extent, improved after the political change of 2006 and Constitution Assembly Election of 2008. Even today no conducive environment is made there for the youths to return villages, who migrated to urban centres and overseas in the past. Development of tourism business could create such environment for retaining and returning rural human resources.

Nala have suitable infrastructure for potential tourism business - natural scenery, physical buildings, landscape, cheap human resources and accessibility of communication, transport, financial services, health, etc, required to a tourism industry. Besides, there are sufficient settlements (villages) around Nala which can be used for development of countryside tourism.

²¹ This will be a closed service from the individual investor or her/his family.

Conditions for Successful Nala Countryside Tourism Development

Planning is a multidimensional activity and seeks to be integrative. It embraces social, economic, political, psychological, anthropological and technical factors. It is concerned with the past, present and future. Planning is an intellectual process, the cautious determination of the course of action, leaving decision on purpose, facts and considered estimates. Planning is the function of the managers in which s/he decides in advance, what s/he will do. It is a decision making process in which creation and imaginations are essential. Tourism Planning integrates physical and aesthetic decision of land and structure to the site scale usually carried out by professions of architecture, landscape, interior design and fine arts with social, economic and political actions (Kunwar, 2006, p.252).

The participation of local stakeholders is a key factor in making sustainable tourism development programmes a success. The reason for this is simple, if local people are not involved in tourism development strategies, they can obstruct the development process due to the lack of benefits they will accrue. Without local participation, tourism will fail to realise its full potential as a catalyst for the development of local communities and environments (Dhakal, 2009, p.68).

Local participation is not a one-time activity or event to ensure a project's success that can be checked off before a tourism development project starts. Ideally, it should be a process in which all beneficiaries have an active role in the identification and formulation of problems and opportunities, in the design and implementation of strategies, and in the monitoring and evaluation of results. Participation is intrinsically linked to the project cycle as it incorporates reflection and action and follows all the stages of the cycle from analysis, planning, and implementation to monitoring, based on which plans can be adapted (Dhakal, 2009, p.68).

Several tourism models have been experimented in Nepal, and have had positive as well as negative impacts on the environment and communities. This paper attempts to describe on how to design and establish a countryside tourism business in Nala area. There are a number of critical factors which rural communities must seriously consider when examining the possibilities for countryside tourism in Nala areas. They are; quality tourists wishing a holiday experience; various co-operation groups; a strategic plan; focused marketing; and education and training.

Successful tourism involves getting tourists stayed longer in the area. A countryside area must aim to be a "destination" rather than a place to "stop-off". Presently Nala is a stop-off for trekkers from Bhaktapur/Nagarkot to Banepa/Dhulikhel. Insufficient facilities, accommodation and attractions in the countryside area lack the ability to draw visitors to it for anything more than a day or a week. It is in the interest of local providers to work together in order to create an environment which can attract quality tourists in the area. It is obvious that local people get economic benefits from longer stays. Communities that have been successful at getting tourists to stay longer, and make them come back can easily developed high quality tourism. Nala has to demonstrate the 5A services if it has to develop as new countryside tourist destination. The table below elaborates 5A services.

Requirements of Countryside Tourism Holiday Network - THE 5 A's (Heneghan, 2002, p.4)

Accommodation Base	Access Facilities	Available Services	Amenities	Activities
Lodge	Airport	Bank	Scenery	Mingle in Cultural
B & B	Surface travel (Road)	Taxi	Landscape	Pubs
Home Stay	Booking and reservation	Car /Motor bike Hire	Himalayas	Volunteerism
Self Catering	Modern Communication	Mountain bike hire	Mountain	Walks/Trek
Small Hotels	Travel Trade	Entertainment (Theatre)	Forest Rivers	Fishing
Hotel	Logistic Service	Catering	Garden	Sports
Camp Site	Other Facilities	Restaurant		Agri Farming
Caravan Sites		Shops		Heritage site

Co-operation between and amongst countryside tourism service providers, business people and community activists who understand the benefit from tourism in the area is important. Networking and co-operation allows; quality in tourism services; maximisation of pool resources; reduce marketing costs; set up partnerships with government agencies for training, promotion, support and funding; draw up strategic plans for tourism in the area; increase their knowledge base; lobby for support; develop community resources for tourism such as walks, heritage projects, fishing, agrifarming, volunteerism (paid/unpaid), environmental projects, agrifarming and participate in local cultural etc. and strength in numbers.

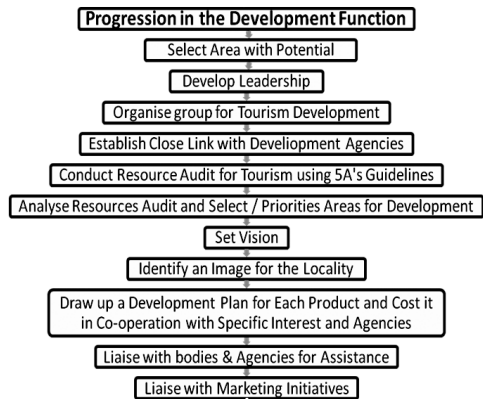
Sustainability is one of the development processes. The concept has been dealt with by several scholars and the term “development” is used in everyday contexts; people speak of the development of an individual, an organisation, a place and society as a whole. There are three important aspects of sustainability: ecological sustainability, social culture sustainability and economic sustainability. Ecological Sustainability ensures that development is compatible with the maintenance of essential ecological process, biological diversity and biological resources. Social cultural sustainability ensures that development increases people’s control over their lives is compatible with the culture and values of people affected by it and maintains and strengthens community identity. Economic sustainability ensures that development is economically efficient and that resources are managed so that they can support future generation (Kunwar, 2006, p.193).

Co-operative effort must be effective and sustainable in this business. There are numbers of cooperatives in Nala and they have sufficient financial resources. Two sets of expectations exist within Nala community - one set of needs/expectations comes from

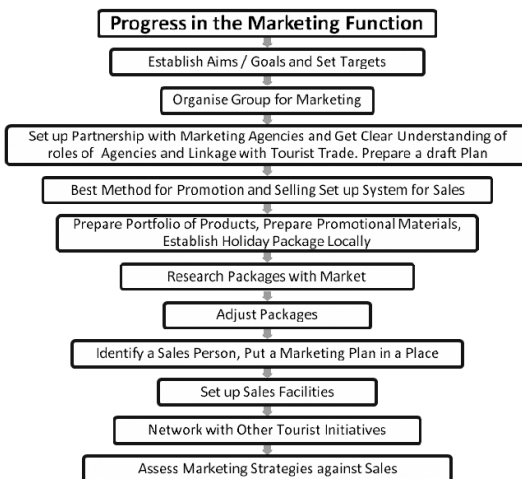
community activists whose expectation of the initiative is development. Therefore they want to concentrate on product and development for tourism in the locality. The second set of needs/ expectations comes from tourism providers who want tangible benefits in the form of improved results from marketing efforts. There are clearly two separate but closely linked functions which the group is expected to fulfill, they are; Development Function and Marketing Function.

The tendency within Nala countryside tourism groups is to spend more time on development and promotion, at establishment when marketing needs, in the form of increased sales. Failure to develop each with parallel strategies for both functions impedes the long term success of the group.

Development Function - This element of the project should undertaken by local community activists to include tourist interests, providers, historians, geologists, environmentalists, anglers, farmers, publications and shopkeepers in the locality who see potential for tourism development in the area. It is vital to develop local leadership skills at this stage. With a development focus, the groups will able to concentrate on identifying local resources such as heritage, rivers, eco and environmental tourist services and activities and establish their development potential, source of finance for development and set up partnership with agencies and bodies who can be of assistance (Heneghan, 2002, p.5). The flow chart at the opposite of this text summarizes the development function.

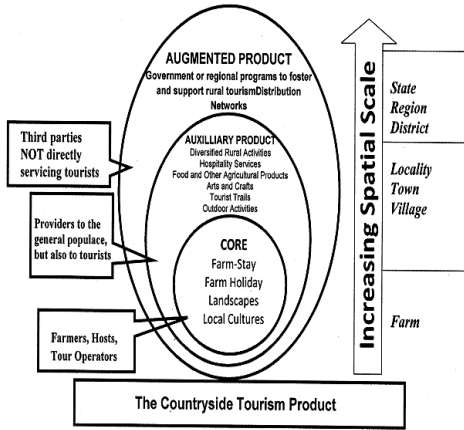


Marketing Function - A separate marketing function focusing only on the tasks of marketing is required. This function will have close links with the development function but will be separate and independent, for example, assessing what the market requires, providing holiday packages, preparing marketing literature and promotional materials and facilitating sales. The marketing function requires people with business and marketing skills, capable of drawing up marketing strategies, measurable by occupancy levels, preparing holiday package unique to the locality and tailoring packages to suit customer needs (Heneghan, 2002, p.6). The flow chart opposite to this text summarizes the marketing function.



The Countryside Tourism Product

The diagram below presents relationship between the different elements that make up the countryside tourism product and impact (Knowd, 2001, p.25).



Core product is understood to be the actual experiences that tourists want to have in village/rural contexts. These experiences are on-site experiences which provide the opportunity to share the culture and countryside living within a natural landscape.

Auxiliary products are those that tourists would like to have as part of their experience, but are not essential to the product. Their role is in core product enhancement will include such things as countryside museums and galleries, the hospitality services tourists receive whilst visiting a countryside, participating in outdoor activities, arts and crafts, and touring on “tourist trails”.

Augmented product represents all the other benefits tourists receive whilst consuming the countryside tourism product that facilitate their consumption. This includes such things as improved amenities and public infrastructure facilities in countryside, interpretive signs, visitor centers and information booths, state sponsored promotion and information distribution, improved access via sign-posting, roadwork or other transport facilitation projects.

Thus the countryside tourism should be developed with suitable accommodation, friendly people and scenic beauty historical and cultural attractions, rest and relaxation. On the other hand, the attraction of natural beauties may be something that cannot be charged (e.g.; scenery) and this will derive income from the value-adding. These descriptions fall well short of actually shedding light on what countryside tourism really is.

Conclusion

Nala is full of ample potentialities which can contribute to develop it as a countryside tourist destination. Natural scenery, cheap labour and human resources, its closeness to capital city of Nepal, being heritage sites, availability of ruins, sufficient space to accommodate varieties of visitors with their special activities – relaxation, day tour, conducting events etc. are, without any doubt, all the resources of Nala. Besides, Nala has tourist products such as handicrafts, typical food, etc. Nala can engage the tourists by providing space for agri-farming so that they will have opportunity to have organic product and fishing as well. Cheap tour guide and homely atmosphere for short staying are also other attractions. Sharing knowledge and skills on human development in countryside of Nepal can be an academic activity in this historical town.

It is evident that Nepal is famous for tourism in the world for both its natural beauty and diverse cultural heritages. Mount Everest, the highest peak in the world and Lumbini, the birth place of Buddha are not only the natural and cultural heritage of Nepal but also of the entire world. Though Nepal has numerous natural beauties, it has not taken advantage of them yet due to lack of proper policy and promotion strategy. The data shows that the national income from tourism is less than 2%. Nepal is full of villages and income of village can only contribute in national income if their potentiality is optimally used by promoting resources. Presently, the tourist stay in Nepal is average 12 days, which can be extended with the development of rural and countryside tourism. Nala will be representative countryside tourism. Mainly Countryside can extend the tourist stay and open avenues for exchange of technology between host and guest as they will stay longer and work closely with host. Nala can be an exemplary countryside tourist destination which has all required conditions and it can be done with minimum investment.

To obtain the above goal of promoting countryside tourism it requires pragmatic policy, institutional and individual commitment and investment. Nala has these capacities with the numbers of functional cooperatives. In addition, there are many competent individuals and family who migrated from Nala after the armed insurgency of 1996 and at present they would like to return their motherland. This will be an ample opportunity to the cooperatives, organisation, individual and family to contribute with the mutual benefits for their future.

The range of cultural activity beside agrifarming and trek routes in Nala is quite endless entirely depending on the inclination and time at tourist disposal, where they can make number of day tours testing the natural beauties and seasonal agritourism enjoying periodic cultural events. It is a high time for systemic developing country-side tourism in Nala and this is an opportunity to use the resources of local governments and Nepal Tourism Board (NTB) to demonstrate their competency in country-side tourism development of Nepal.

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Eclectic Paradigm and the analysis of FDI in tourism in Nepal

Sandeep Basnyat*

Abstract

This paper analyzes the factors that determine the inflows of FDI in tourism sector of Nepal using Eclectic Theory (Paradigm) propounded by John Dunning. It was observed that the first and second conditions (ownership specific advantages and internalization advantages) are firm specific determinants of FDI, whereas, the third is location-specific and, therefore, has a crucial influence on the host country Nepal's inflows of FDI in tourism. It was further observed that the development impact of FDI on the tourism industry of Nepal may be determined by various combinations of three main important factors--policy environment, including policy reforms that trigger further inflows of FDI; the level of development (and maturity) of the tourism industry; and, the geography of Nepal. The paper suggests that MNCs can help Nepal by, among other things, diversifying the supply of tourism products and improving the local service standards.

Keywords: *FDI, eclectic paradigm, OLI theory, tourism investment.*

Introduction

The five year plans of Nepal have conventionally placed tourism below manufacturing and/or agriculture, as it was not considered as an important source of economic growth. However, these days, a “quiet but significant reappraisal” is taking place even in Nepal, which values tourism as a potential means of earning export revenues, generating large numbers of jobs – including for young people and women – promoting economic diversification and a more services-oriented economy, helping to revive declining urban areas and cultural activities, and opening up remote rural areas (UNCTAD, 1999a). In this context, like many other developing countries, Nepal is looking to tourism as a potentially promising avenue for economic development by attracting foreign investment through multinational enterprises (MNEs).

MNE is a recent phenomenon, with the vast majority developing only in the post–World War II years. However, the motivations for international expansion and the nature of MNEs’ offshore activities have evolved significantly over this relatively short period (Birkinshaw, 2003). It is interesting to observe how the United Nations has changed its

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definition of the MNE as these companies have grown in size and importance. In 1973, it defined such an enterprise as one “which controls assets, factories, mines, sales offices, and the like in two or more countries.” By 1984, it had changed the definition to an enterprise (a) comprising entities in two or more countries, regardless of the legal form and fields of activity of those entities; (b) which operates under a system of decision making permitting coherent policies and a common strategy through one or more decision-making centers; and (c) in which the entities are so linked, by ownership or otherwise, that one or more of them may be able to exercise a significant influence over the activities of the others, in particular to share knowledge, resources, and responsibilities (Birkinshaw, 2003). In essence, the changing definition highlights the importance of both strategic and organizational integration, and thereby, the active, coordinated management of operations located in different countries, as the key differentiating characteristic of an MNE (Birkinshaw, 2003). In context of Nepal, such resources committed can take the form of skilled people or research equipment just as easily as plants and machinery or computer hardware.

In context of tourism, data provided by Department of Industry of the government of Nepal shows that there has not been significant FDI inflows; however, and looking at the trend, it surely explains that the amount of FDI in tourism is promising in the future. This study is largely based on the analysis of the facts MNEs take into consideration while making their investment decision in Nepal in general, and in particularly, in tourism sector.

Eclectic Paradigm and FDI

Eclecticism is a conceptual approach that does not hold rigidly to a single paradigm or set of assumptions, but instead draws upon multiple theories, styles, or ideas to gain complementary insights into a subject, or applies different theories in particular cases. It can sometimes seem inelegant or lacking in simplicity, and eclectics are sometimes criticized for lack of consistency in their thinking. It is, however, common in many fields of study. For example, most psychologists accept certain aspects of behaviorism, but do not attempt to use the theory to explain all aspects of human behavior (Gray, 2003).

Eclecticism was first recorded to have been practiced by a group of ancient Greek and Roman philosophers who attached themselves to no real system, but selected from existing philosophical beliefs those doctrines that seemed most reasonable to them. Out of this collected material they constructed their new system of philosophy. The term comes from the Greek meaning "choosing the best" (Gray, 2003).

Definitions of FDI are contained in the Balance of Payments Manual: Fifth Edition (BPM5) (Washington, D.C., International Monetary Fund, 1993) and the Detailed Benchmark Definition of Foreign Direct Investment: Third Edition (BD3) (Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 1996). According to the BPM5, FDI refers to an investment made to acquire lasting interest in enterprises operating outside of the economy of the investor. Further, in cases of FDI, the investor's purpose is to gain an effective voice in the management of the enterprise. The foreign entity or group of associated entities that makes the investment is termed the "direct investor". The unincorporated or incorporated enterprise-a branch or subsidiary, respectively, in

which direct investment is made-is referred to as a "direct investment enterprise". Some degree of equity ownership is almost always considered to be associated with an effective voice in the management of an enterprise; the BPM5 suggests a threshold of 10 per cent of equity ownership to qualify an investor as a foreign direct investor (IMF, 1993).

Once a direct investment enterprise has been identified, it is necessary to define which capital flows between the enterprise and entities in other economies should be classified as FDI. Since the main feature of FDI is taken to be the lasting interest of a direct investor in an enterprise, only capital that is provided by the direct investor either directly or through other enterprises related to the investor should be classified as FDI. The forms of investment by the direct investor which are classified as FDI are equity capital, the reinvestment of earnings and the provision of long-term and short-term intra-company loans (between parent and affiliate enterprises) (IMF, 1993).

According to the BD3 of the OECD, a direct investment enterprise is an incorporated or unincorporated enterprise in which a single foreign investor either owns 10 per cent or more of the ordinary shares or voting power of an enterprise (unless it can be proven that the 10 per cent ownership does not allow the investor an effective voice in the management) or owns less than 10 per cent of the ordinary shares or voting power of an enterprise, yet still maintains an effective voice in management (OECD, 1996). An effective voice in management only implies that direct investors are able to influence the management of an enterprise and does not imply that they have absolute control. The most important characteristic of FDI, which distinguishes it from foreign portfolio investment, is that it is undertaken with the intention of exercising control over an enterprise (OECD, 1996).

The Eclectic theory related to foreign investment, stated as Eclectic Paradigm, was evolved by John Dunning, emeritus professor at the Rutgers University (United States) and University of Reading (United Kingdom) and was studied combining three different determinants together (Gray, 2003). These three different determinants are collectively known as OLI paradigm is a mix of 3 various theories and has been used in this study to analyze tourism investments in Nepal with the conceptual framework that the level and structure of a firm's foreign investment will depend on ownership specific advantages (O), location specific advantages (L) and internalization (I). Dunning (1993) suggests that:

"[...] a firm's value adding activities will depend on three conditions being satisfied:

- (1) The extent to which it possesses sustainable ownership specific advantages vis-à-vis firm's of other nationalities in particular markets it serves or is contemplating serving.
- (2) [...] the extent to which the enterprises perceives it to be in its best interest to add value to its (O) advantages rather than to sell them, or their right of use, to foreign firms. These advantages are called market internalization advantages.
- (3) Assuming conditions (1) and (2) are satisfied, the extent to which the global interests of the enterprise are served by creating, or utilizing it (O) advantages in a foreign location (L). (Dunning 1993, p.79).

The (O) advantages largely take the form of the privileged possession of intangible assets as well as those which arise as a result of the common governance of cross border value added activities. These advantages and the use made of them are assumed to increase the wealth creating capacity of a firm and hence the value of its assets. Having satisfied with the (O) advantages, (I) may reflect either the greater organizational efficiency of hierarchies or their ability to exercise monopoly power over the assets under their governance. Finally, the distribution of these resources and capabilities is assumed to be uneven and, hence depending on their distribution, will confer an (L) advantage on the countries possessing them over those who do not (Dunning 1993, p.79).

It was observed that the first and second conditions are firm specific determinants of FDI, whereas, the third is location-specific and, therefore, has a crucial influence on the host country Nepal's inflows of FDI. If only the first condition is met, firms will rely on exports, licensing or the sale of patents to service a foreign market. However, if the second condition is added to the first, FDI becomes the preferred mode of entry, but only in the presence of location specific advantages. Hence, analysis of all three factors, within the trinity of conditions for FDI to occur, location specific determinants are the only ones that Nepal as a host country can influence directly.

Methodology

Qualitative approach has been applied to analyze the data, which have been compiled from both primary and secondary sources, comparative analysis and descriptive interpretation method is used to explain the trends and phenomena. The Eclectic Paradigm (OLI Theory) has been cited from John Dunning's *Multinational Enterprises and The Global Economy* (1993), while report on *The Determinants of Foreign Direct Investment* by UNCTAD (1998) has also been taken as a reference while analyzing OLI paradigm. As stated earlier, the paper analyses investment in tourism sector of Nepal as a dependent variable and L - advantage as independent variables and examined how different sets of determinants relating to L variables have contributed to the growth of tourism investment in Nepal.

As a major secondary sources of data, World Investment Reports published by UNCTAD from 1996 to 2013 have been chosen. Similarly various other books, journal articles, reports published by government and non-governmental organizations and scholars and also internet have been utilized to collect information and data for the use of secondary purpose of analyzing motives, trends and policy reforms. For the primary source of data, a sample survey was done among the various tourism affiliates invested or owned fully or partly by the foreigners in Nepal. The collected information were verified and used further to compare and support secondary data.

Theoretical Framework and Analysis of Eclectic Paradigm

This paper has assigned investment in tourism sector of Nepal as a dependent variable and all of the above three advantages (O, L and I) in general and L-advantage in particular as independent variables and examined how different sets of determinants relating to L-advantage variables have contributed to the growth of tourism investment in Nepal. From

theoretical as well as empirical analysis it was obtained that the decisions of multinational companies may be affected by their own desire to hold control over the foreign affiliates; however, the ability of a particular country, such as Nepal, to attract foreign direct investment (FDI) in tourism is heavily dependent upon its location specific advantages (L) including the availability of natural and other resources, input prices and costs, investment environment, availability of transportation and communication facilities, economic growth rate and government strategies and policies.

O - Ownership Advantages (or FSA - Firm Specific Advantages)

This firm specific advantage is usually intangible and can be transferred within the multinational enterprise at low cost (e.g., technology, brand name, benefits of economies of scale). The advantage either gives rise to higher revenues and/or lower costs that can offset the costs of operating at a distance in an abroad location.

A Multinational enterprise operating a plant in a foreign country is faced with additional costs paralleled to a local competitor (Gray, 2003). These additional costs could be specified as:

- failure of knowledge about local market conditions
- legal, institutional, cultural and language diversities
- the increased costs of communicating and operating at a distance

Consequently, if a foreign firm is to be successful in another country, it must have some kind of an advantage that vanquishes the costs of operating in an abroad market. Either the firm must be able to earn higher revenues, for the same costs, or have lower costs, for the same revenues, than comparable native firms. Since merely abroad firms have to pay "costs of foreignness", they must have other methods to earn either higher revenues or have lower costs in order to able to stay in business (Gray, 2003).The Multinational enterprise must have some separate advantages with its competitors, if it want to be profitable abroad. Advantages must be particular to the firm and readily transferable between countries and within the firm. These advantages are called ownership or core competencies or firm specific advantages (FSAs) (Gray, 2003).

Gray (2003) mentions that the firm has a monopoly over its firm specific advantages and can utilize them abroad, resulting in a higher marginal return or lower marginal cost than its competitors, and thus in more profit. Existing three basic types of ownership advantages (or Firm Specific Advantages) for a multinational enterprise, that it can possess are:

- monopolistic advantages that receive to the Multinational enterprise in the form of privileged access to output and input markets through ownership of scarce natural resources, patent rights, and the like.
- technology, knowledge broadly defined so as to contain all forms of innovation activities
- economies of large size (advantages of common governance) such as economies

of learning, economies of scale and scope, broader access to financial capital throughout the Multinational enterprise organization, and advantages from international diversification of assets and risks.

Location Advantages (or Country Specific Advantages - CSA)

The firm must use some foreign factors in connection with its native Firm Specific Advantages (FSAs) in order to earn full rents on these FSAs. Therefore the locational advantages of different countries are key in determining which will become host countries for the Multinational enterprises (Gray, 2003). Clearly the relative attractiveness of various locations can change over time so that a host country can to some extent engineer its competitive advantage as a location for foreign direct investment.

The country specific advantages (CSAs) can be separate into three classes:

- E - Economic advantages consists of the quantities and qualities of the factors of production, transport and telecommunications costs, scope and size of the market, and etc.
- P - Political Advantages include the common and specific government policies that influence inward Foreign Direct Investment flows, intra-firm trade and international production.
- S - Social, cultural advantages include psychic distance between the home and host country, language and cultural diversities, general attitude towards foreigners and the overall position towards free enterprise.

I - Internalization Advantages (IA).

Gray (2003) also mentions that the Multinational enterprises has several choices of entry mode, ranking from the market (arm's length transactions) to the hierarchy (wholly owned subsidiary). The Multinational enterprises chooses internalization where the market does not exist or functions poorly so that transactions expenses of the external route are high.

The subsistence of a particular know-how or core ability is an asset that can give rise to economic rents for the firm. These rents can be earned by licensing the Firm Specific Advantages to another firm, exporting products using this Firm Specific Advantages as an input, or adjustment subsidiaries abroad.

Although the three strands - O, L and I advantages - in the explanation of FDI interact with each other, conceptually it can be argued that they should be considered separately (Dunning, 1993). This can be understood with the fact that the ownership specific advantages such as trademark, production technique, entrepreneurial skills, returns to scale refer to the competitive advantages of the enterprises seeking to engage foreign direct investment (FDI). The greater the competitive advantages of the investing firms, the more they are likely to engage in their foreign production. Whereas, location specific advantages such as existence of raw materials, low wages, special taxes or tariffs are the

attractions that provide an alternative for the foreign investors for undertaking the value adding activities of MNCs in sectors such as tourism. The more the immobile, natural or created resources, which firms need to use jointly with their own competitive advantages, favor a presence in a foreign location, the more firms will choose to augment or exploit their O specific advantages by engaging in FDI (Dunning, 1993).

In contrast to the above two, the internalization advantages are the advantages by own production rather than producing through a partnership arrangement such as licensing or a joint venture. Firms may organize the creation and exploitation of their core competencies. The greater the net benefits of internalizing cross-border intermediate product markets, the more likely a firm will prefer to engage in foreign production itself rather than license the right to do so (Dunning, 1993).

Some companies internationalize by gradually moving up the scale, from exporting through joint venturing to direct foreign investment. Others prefer to move straight to the high-commitment–high-control mode of operating, in part because they are entering mature markets in which it would be very difficult to build a business from nothing. Still others choose to adopt a low-commitment–low-control mode, such as exporting or subcontracting. It is also important to emphasize that some firms are “born global,” establishing significant international operations at or near their founding (UN, 2008). Whether this is due to their internal orientation, or the need to move quickly due to the nature of their product or services, such firms do not take such an incremental approach. This is exactly what is seen in tourism sector of Nepal with the emergence of Hyatt Regency Hotel, Pizza Hut and KFC in Kathamandu.

		Category of Advantages		
		Ownership advantages	Internalization Advantages	Location Specific Advantages
Forms of Market Entry	Licensing	Yes	No	No
	Export	Yes	No	Yes
	FDI	Yes	Yes	Yes

Source: Dunning (1981)

In dependence of the categories of advantage there can be chosen the form of the international activity. If a company has ownership advantages like having knowledge about the target market abroad, for example hotel staff with language skills, information about import permissions of certain food not usually available in local markets, appropriate products, contacts and so on, it can do a licensing as in the case of Pizza Hut in Nepal. The licensing is less cost-intensive than the other forms of internalization.

If there are internalization advantages, the company can invest more capital abroad. This can be achieved by export in form of an export subsidiary. The FDI is the most capital intensive activity that a company can choose. According to Dunning, it is considered

that locational advantages are necessary for FDI. This can be realized by hotels which are either bought or completely constructed abroad (Dunning, 1981).

Eclectic Paradigm and FDI in Tourism in Nepal

As mentioned earlier in the paper, ownership advantages incorporates monopolistic advantages that is received by the multinational enterprise in the form of privileged access to output and input markets through ownership of scarce natural resources, patent rights, and the like. Similarly, additional advantages relate to technology, knowledge broadly defined so as to contain all forms of innovation activities. Similarly, foreign firms should have economies of large size (advantages of common governance) such as economies of learning, economies of scale and scope, broader access to financial capital throughout the multinational enterprise organization, and advantages from international diversification of assets and risks.

Nepal still remains as agrarian economy with agriculture as its principal economic activity, employing 80% of the population and providing 37% of GDP (MOI, 2012). Only about 20% of the total area is cultivable; another 33% is forested; most of the rest is mountainous. In addition, economic development in social services and infrastructure has not made dramatic progress due to GDP dependency on India. There are, however, a number of small foreign investments coming to Nepal via the Non Resident Nepali, who are investing in Shopping Mall, Plaza, Real Estate Business, Tourism etc. None of these investments are of the large scale due to lack of market size and scope (MOI, 2012).

Nepal's capital market is still underdeveloped (NRB, 2012). The trading of listed securities at the stock exchanges, often known as secondary capital market transactions, is new for Nepal. Although Biratnagar Jute Mill and Nepal Bank Limited floated their shares in the market in 1937, the formal trading of secondary market in Nepal was started only in 1994 after the establishment of Nepal Stock Exchange. Initially, there were only 62 companies with 25 brokers. The trading system was open outcry system. The most significant change in Nepali secondary market was the establishment of semi-automated system in August 24, 2007 (NRB, 2012).

Currently, NEPSE has increased the number of brokerage houses and more number of companies are listed. It is extremely imperative that Nepal is to address structural changes required to shield the banking sector and the economy from internal and external shocks. It includes consolidating the financial institutions, ensuring sound corporate governance, strengthening internal project and loan analysis, more effective monitoring and control, and better understanding and monitoring of the activities of cooperatives (NRB, 2012). These evidences highlight the fact that ownership advantages are not the primary factors that determine the investment decision of MNEs in Nepal (NRB, 2012).

Despite the fact that the multinational enterprises has several choices of entry mode, ranking from the market (arm's length transactions) to the hierarchy (wholly owned subsidiary), the multinational enterprises chooses internalization on those markets where the market does not exist or functions poorly so that transactions expenses of the external route are high. In such markets, the subsistence of a particular know-how or core ability

is an asset that can give rise to economic rents for the firm. These rents can be earned by licensing the Firm Specific Advantages to another firm, exporting products using this Firm Specific Advantages as an input, or adjustment subsidiaries abroad (Dunning, 1993).

It seems logical to draw inferences of the fact that internalization advantages may have contributed to some of the MNEs to implement their investment decisions in tourism sector of Nepal. However, the core circumstances provide different explanations, more particularly the deterioration of country's economy due to political instability.

The political instability has affected Nepal's economy and people's faith in the country's future. Since the end of the 10-year Maoist insurgency in 2006, the inclusion of the former rebels in the government in 2007 and the abolishment of the monarchy in 2008 - Nepal has been hit with one political crisis after another. The country has been without a parliament for more than a year, after major political parties missed yet another deadline to write a constitution and reach a consensus on the structure of the government. The economic outlook for Nepal hinges on how political uncertainties are resolved as the investor confidence is depressed by concerns over the political transition. Several reports have stressed on promotion and an enabling of business environment and political stability to improve economic performance in Nepal. In such situations, foreign investor's confidence in licensing the Firm Specific Advantages to another firm in Nepal, exporting products using this Firm Specific Advantages as an input, or adjustment subsidiaries abroad are far-away dreams.

Nepal has been receiving some foreign direct investment (FDI), but the amount has been insignificant when compared with that received by other developing countries, including South Asian one. But the list of foreign investors includes such renowned companies as British American Tobacco (BAT), Unilever, Coca-Cola, Standard Chartered and Hyatt. India is the major source of FDI in Nepal so far (about 40%), followed by the United States, China, The British Virgin Islands, Norway, Japan, the Republic of Korea, Canada and Hong Kong (China) in terms of the amount of approved FDI (MOI, 2012).

The major area of FDI has been manufacturing, followed by services and, in particular, tourism more specifically, FDI is concentrated in manufacturing products for export to India (e.g. vegetable fat, soap, tooth paste, Ayurvedic preparations) and overseas (readymade garments). This is followed by hotels. Recent FDI in Nepal is attributed to taking advantage of the further policy liberalization in services sector (MOI, 2012).

The latest value for Foreign direct investment, net (BoP, current US\$) in Nepal was \$87,799,640.00 as of 2010. Over the past 14 years, the value for this indicator has fluctuated between \$87,799,640.00 in 2010 and (\$6,647,984.00) in 2006. Similarly, the latest value for Foreign direct investment, net inflows (BoP, current US\$) in Nepal was \$87,816,140.00 as of 2010. Over the past 38 years, the value for this indicator has fluctuated between \$87,816,140.00 in 2010 and (\$6,647,984.00) in 2006. More recent report from UNCTAD shows that FDI inflows to Nepal in 2011 was \$95 million, an uptick from \$ 87 million in 2010 (MOI, 2012).

Number of Registered Industries in Tourism Sector up to F.Y. 2011 / 2012 in Nepal

Number of Large scale industries registered	72
Number of Medium scale industries registered	145
Number of small scale industries registered	638
Number of Total industries registered	855

Source: Ministry of Industry, Nepal. 2011/12

Note: Foreign investment companies are only small scale industries.

Approved Projects for Foreign Investment and Technology Transfer by Type & Scale in Tourism Up to F.Y 2011/12

No. of Industries	Type			Scale		
	Equity Investment	Equity Investment and Tech. Transfer	Technology Transfer	Small	Medium	Large
625	613	6	6	552	34	39

Source: Ministry of Industry, Nepal. 2011/12

Above data provided by the Ministry of Industry, Government of Nepal shows that the hotel and tourism industry attracted a large number of investments given the attractiveness of Nepal as a tourist destination. Although tourism has experienced a major setback in recent years because of the civil war, this is certainly an area where Nepal has an intrinsic comparative advantage in terms of location specific advantages.

Location specific advantages of Nepal for FDI in tourism

After ten years of insurgency, now that there is peace and security and the biggest hindrance for attracting foreign investments has been removed. What are the other conditions that must be fulfilled to attract FDI? There are many conditions that have to be put in place to attract FDI. It is important to ensure an attractive investment climate. Consistent macroeconomic policies, good governance, economic stability, guarantee of property rights, rule of law and absence of corruption are among the conditions required to attract FDI. Consistency and predictability in economic policies and political stability are preconditions to attract FDI (Rana and Pradhan, 2005).

As stated earlier, many countries have taken policy measures to promote their tourism sector with the intention of attracting more investment so as to maximize its potential as a growth sector. It is estimated that in some developing countries, tourism is already worth more than traditional commodity based or manufacturing exports in terms of export

revenues and share in GDP. Furthermore, since tourism has started to attract more FDI, the sector has become an important avenue for reducing the resource gap in developing countries like Nepal by contributing to gross capital formation, and skills and technology transfer, and by creating jobs, thereby reducing poverty (Rana and Pradhan, 2005).

Tourism is also one of the sectors with potential for “shared growth”, given its ability to employ unskilled labour and establish linkages with many other sectors of the economy. Thus the development dimension of FDI in the tourism industry is considered to be much broader than that of other competing sectors for FDI such as mining. On the other hand, the long and cross-cutting nature of the tourism value chain means that any negative effects of tourism FDI will also be very widespread (Athukorala and Sharma, 2006).

It is clear that the development impact of FDI on the tourism industry of Nepal may be determined by various combinations of three main (among other important) factors (Athukorala and Sharma, 2006). First, and more importantly, is the policy environment, including policy reforms that trigger further inflows of FDI (both generally, and in the tourism industry). This can be broadened to include the perception that the foreign and domestic private sectors will effectively benefit from each other, which can help to create a welcoming environment (Athukorala and Sharma, 2006).

The second set of factors that determine the impact of tourism-related FDI is the level of development (and maturity) of the tourism industry in a Nepal. In economies like Nepal where tourism is a mature sector the tourism industry has built confidence in local sourcing, resulting perhaps in stronger and wider linkages with the domestic economy. Many country studies have suggested that the more mature the industry, the higher is the level of confidence in domestic private suppliers and their capacity to meet the industry’s demands. Consequently there will be greater linkages of TFDI with the local economy, resulting in a positive impact (Athukorala and Sharma, 2006).

Third, geography of Nepal also plays an important role in influencing the nature of impact in two ways (Athukorala and Sharma, 2006). One is in terms of natural resource endowment, where Nepal can be distinguished by the extent to which it can offer beach versus wildlife (safari) or other natural tourist attractions. It is important to note that the impact of the latter type of tourism product (wildlife/natural resource attraction) appeared to involve a greater engagement with local communities in terms of sourcing and corporate social responsibility. This has usually been associated with foreign more than domestic investments. Furthermore, it is in this type of tourism that most impacts appeared to be felt in the immediate vicinity, compared to for example beach or business (urban) tourism, where impacts are spread more widely (Athukorala and Sharma, 2006).

Nepal has been receiving about 60 per cent of FDI from China and India while the remainder has originated from Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries. The country has also been pursuing various policies to attract FDI. Entering the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 2004, participating as a representative in the Bay of Bengal Initiative for Multi-Sectoral Technical and Economic Cooperation (BIMSTEC), and becoming a member of South Asian Free Trade Area (SAFTA) in 2004 are some of the endeavors (MOI, 2012). More recently, a new Trade Policy (2010), a new Industrial Policy (2010) and Nepal Trade Integration Strategy (2010) have also been

released. At high level, the country convened Bilateral Investment Promotion and Protection Agreement (BIPPA) with India in 2011. With the United States, Nepal signed a Trade and Investment Framework Agreement (TIFA) in 2010. She has also signed investment protection covenants with France and Germany. Further, in order to eschew double taxation, agreements have been concluded with India, Norway and Thailand (MOI, 2012).

The law of Nepal also assures the security of investments against nationalization. Besides this, Nepal being a member of Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA) assures the foreign investors against non-commercial risks like currency transfer, breach of contract, war and civil disturbances in the country. As of July 2004, according to the statistics of foreign investment division of Department of Industry, there are about 905 foreign direct investment projects in Nepal that worth approximately US\$ 1.65 billion. These projects in the sectors like Agriculture/Forestry; Manufacturing; Energy; Construction; Mineral; Tourism and other Service related industries have generated employment opportunities to almost 95,000 people in Nepal. India, USA, China, UK, Norway, Japan, South Korea and Germany are the leading countries with highest number of projects in Nepal (MOI, 2012).

Despite having huge potential and supporting policy and legal environment for attracting FDI in Nepal, we have not been able see a considerable surge in its inflows. There are several technical and non-technical reasons behind this. Persistent labor problems, power outages, political instability, cumbersome regulations and tax regime (leading to high transaction costs), corruption, and lack of adequate infrastructure (leading to high transportation costs), among others factors, are impacting FDI inflows to Nepal (Ghimire, 2001). According to Enterprise Survey 2009, 62 percent of enterprises think instability is the biggest constraint despite having plenty of opportunities for FDI in agriculture and agro-based industries, flowers and flowering plants, Pashmina, garments, tourism, health, education, IT, nursing homes, construction, hydropower and alternative energy sources, and manufacturing, among other sectors (Ghimire, 2001).

Conclusion

Tourism is a fast-growing industry that involves many economic and social sectors, making it an excellent development vector. Not surprisingly, the above surveys have also shown that tourism is a high-priority industry for investment in Nepal. With growing international competition between tourism destinations and higher contestability of investment projects, effective promotion is crucial in order to attract investors in the sector.

Tourist destinations like Nepal do not only aim to attract financial capital from abroad, but also human capital, such as entrepreneurs, hospitality and travel managers, and international franchises to market and develop local attractions. In fact, such activities are often pursued very successfully, whereas the attraction of foreign capital for tourism projects often presents more of a challenge. Shortage of capital is a major obstacle for tourism development, and many countries – especially in the developing world such as Nepal – increasingly look to foreign investors to provide capital that will help development of their tourism industries. Multinational corporations (TNCs) in the tourism sector,

therefore, have often had a positive impact on host destinations. Apart from investing capital, foreign MNCs can help Nepal by, among other things, diversifying the supply of tourism products and improving the local service standard. However, attracting FDI in the tourism sector is often difficult, and there is a growing demand for support in this area from the government.

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Book Review

Shanti Barmashkha*

Abstract

Book Title: *Tourism in Pokhara Issues, Trends and Future Prospects for Peace and Prosperity*

Editors: Bishnu Raj Upreti, Pranil Kumar Upadhayaya and Tikaram Sapkota

Publisher: Pokhara Tourism Council (PTC), Swiss National Centre of Competence in Research (NCCR), North- South and Nepal Center for Contemporary Research (NCCR), Kathmandu

Year of Publication: 2013

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The natural beauties of a destination along with sound environment attract people for making their holiday experiences. Nepal has tremendous tourism potentials to develop tourism and attract more tourists. There are several places in Nepal which are very famous for its own beauty. Pokhara, one of the best potential tourist destinations for both domestic and international tourists has been gradually becoming renowned for favorite tourist destination within and outside Nepal. While focusing on the development of tourism, one cannot neglect the hidden impacts brought by the tourism therefore the identification of issues, challenges and gaps is a must. The book *Tourism in Pokhara Issues, Trends and Future Prospects for Peace and Prosperity* edited by Bishnu Raj Upreti, Pranil Kumar Upadhayaya and Tikaram Sapkota explains tremendous potentiality of Pokhara in developing tourism along with existing issues, challenges, trends and future potentiality of Pokhara with recommendations in enhancing sustainable tourism in Pokhara. This book is a collection of different thematic issues in relation with tourism in Pokhara such as natural attractions, cultural heritage, tourism events, marketing and promotion, women's participation, challenges of Fewa lake, codes of conduct in relation with tourism practices, etc. Furthermore, this book also analyzes the trends of tourism in Pokhara for the purpose of balancing both quantity and quality of tourism in Pokhara. This book is a complete packages to readers those who want to know about tourism in Pokhara. There are thirteen chapters which are based on different thematic issues. All those chapters are well organized which gives a sense of completeness to readers.

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Chapter one is entitled 'Tourism in Pokhara: Nepal's pride and means for peace and prosperity' offers Pokhara as a paradise from the perspective of tourism. The huge socio-cultural diversity and physiographic uniqueness of Pokhara have made it unique from other destinations. The authors quite beautifully present how the situation of Pokhara has been changed. Before Pokhara was developed as a professional destination, the credit goes to a French National Maurice Herzog and a team of mountaineers who introduced Pokhara as a mountainous tourist destination when they ascended Mt. Annapurna in 1950. They also explain some of the achievements of Pokhara during its development from the perspective of tourism. At present, Pokhara is well known for city tourism orientation along with famous major tourist destination for adventure tourism and the departure point for the globally known trek route for Annapurna circuit. Despite recognizing Pokhara as a hanging paradise on the earth, the authors present number of challenges. Therefore, there is need of balancing both quantitative and qualitative aspect of tourism in order to maintain its brand. The authors also give some recommendations such as working together, developing trust, mutual respect and complementarities for creating win win situation of all the sectors.

Chapter two, "Historical review of natural and cultural heritage of paradise Pokhara" explains historical, cultural and natural heritages of Pokhara. Pokhara is blessed with natural beauties which help in creating uniqueness of Pokhara. The different natural beauties of Pokhara are Mount Fish- Tail and Annapurna range, various lakes like Fewa, Rupa, Begnas, Seti river George, David's Fall, amazing caves such as Bat's cave, Mahendra cave and adventurous hill- top like Sarangkot, Kaskikot, Pangdurkot, Foksingh and Kahunhot. The cultural heritages of Pokhara add attractions over natural beauties and some of the cultural heritages are Tal Barahi, World Peace Stupa, Gupteswar Mahadev, Bindyabasini, Bhadra- Kali, Bhairav Temple, monasteries and Nepal Christian Church. Pokhara is also rich in cultural diversities. Various ethnic communities are inhabited with peace and harmony. They have their own culture, tradition and lifestyle which are like rainbow but they have great respect to each other. Each festival has its own importance and meaning. The various festivals those are celebrated in Pokhara are Nepali New Year Day, Buddha Jayanti, Krishnaastami, Teej, Bada Dashain, Kojagrat Purnima, Tihar, Tamu Lhosar and many more. The various museums of Pokhara are also contributing their part in making Pokhara as a historical city enhancing natural beauties. Therefore, the blending of all these natural and cultural richness recognizes Pokhara as a "Hanging Paradise on Earth".

Chapter three "Tourism planning, development, management and envisioning future of Pokhara" critically analyze the planning, development and management of tourism in Pokhara. The author presents major milestones in the course of the planned development of tourism in Pokhara. In 1972, Pokhara was declared the headquarter of Western Development Region during the fourth five year plan. Regarding the Tourism Master Plan of 1972, the various propositions came out for the development of Pokhara in terms of tourism but many of the propositions are yet to be implemented. The various researches are also conducted in Pokhara in order to find out challenges in the development of tourism in Pokhara. The concerned organizations such as The Pacific Area Travel Association, Nepal Rastra Bank, Pokhara Branch, and United Nations World Tourism

Organisation (UNWTO) come up with their findings and recommendations for the development of tourism in Pokhara. The formulation of tourism plans and consultation with technical experts from conservation, environment, economics and culture should go together for the smooth implementation of plans and successful outcome. Therefore, the author presents some steps for envisioning tourism plan of Pokhara, they are assessment of tourism resources, envisioning, setting tourism goal, tourism strategy and objectives, development of tourism plan, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the tourism plan.

Chapter four "The economic impact of tourism in Pokhara" analyzes the growth pattern of tourism in Pokhara. Tourism is one of the major resources to build up the economy of Nepal and in context of Pokhara, it has played an important role in the economy of Nepal. With the use of trend function, the author finds that the total tourist arrivals in Pokhara increased at 5.4 per cent per annum during the period of 1976 to 2010. The income of Pokhara has grown with 17 per cent per annum. The income of Pokhara depends on grants by the government on development and regular expenditure, local taxes, services and fees. The Mahendra cave, David Falls and Paragliding have also contributing in increasing of tourist arrival and generating income. Likewise, investment and business enterprises are helping to create employment opportunities in the tourism sector of Pokhara. In regard to the effects of tourism at national perspective, earning of trade, hotels and restaurants are prime factor to determine the growth of GDP of Nepal. It is seen the positive results of the effects of tourism on income, employment and investment in Pokhara but still needs efforts to develop in transportation, electricity, accommodation, trekking, sight-seeing, paragliding and supplying the efficient and moral manpower.

Chapter five is entitled with "Marketing and promotion of Tourism in Pokhara". As the title suggests the importance of Nepal and Nepal as a hot spot destination for adventurous and has potentiality to grow more. The organized his article by giving the concept of marketing in tourism and then gives the importance of advertisement as an effective tool in tourism marketing and promotion. The beauty of Pokhara is the crux in the tourism of Nepal so it is a unique selling destination. He presents the historical overview of marketing in Pokhara. The history of Pokhara began with the trekking and for this the contribution goes to Maurice Harzog. Tourism marketing and promotion is very crucial for the overall growth of tourism. The various concerned agencies, organizations and stakeholders played remarkable role for the marketing and promotion of tourism in Pokhara. The author discusses the role of internet marketing, Nepal Tourism Board, various promotional campaigns, Pokhara Tourism Council, Paschimanchal Hotel Association Pokhara, Trekking Agencies' Association of Nepal, Nepal Association of Tour and Travel Agents, Restaurant and Bar Association of Nepal Pokhara Chapter, role of various tourism association, role of media, non tourist organizations and role of individual tourism entrepreneurs for the marketing and promotion of tourism in Pokhara. He presents some recommendations to strengthen the promotion and marketing aspect of Pokhara.

Chapter six is entitled with "Socio- cultural impact of tourism in Pokhara" presents very important views on tourist cultures always dominate the host culture and bring socio cultural diffusion, infusion, acculturation, assimilation and environmental and economic

influences. Tourism acts as an agent of change. The changes can be seen in socio-cultural values and norms of a society which as a result can bring ranges of change and modification in society and culture. The socio-cultural impacts of tourism are numerous and varied. The author selects thirteen variables for impact assessment and analysis. Those variables are given a short form " FIDELL TALCADS" which is an acronym of those thirteen variables. Those thirteen variables are family structure and social composition, indigenous profession, dining pattern and menu priority, emotion, attitude and behavior, lifestyle and fashion, labor division, traditions, values and norms, arts, crafts, curios and music, language, crime and theft, alcoholism, smoking and gambling, drug abuse and smuggling and sex and prostitution. In conclusion part, the author presents that impact can have deep and lasting consequences which can weaken the socio-cultural system. Therefore, the author proposes for Community Based Responsible Tourism (CBRT) to have balanced tourism growth.

Chapter seven "Women's participation in tourism in Pokhara" emphasizes the women workforce as an additional advantages for tourism industry. The entry of women in tourism industry is recent phenomena. The important factors that determine the socio-economic condition of women in tourism business include income, family, support, training, professional satisfaction, growth in skill and capacity, changes taken place in every day affairs, problems related to the business, problems faced in the commencing phase, difficulty in language and gender inequalities. She presents data which reveals the involvement of women in tourism sector along with the challenges and opportunities for women in tourism sector. Some of the challenges are socio-economic status of women, dual responsibility status of working women in general, inequality as the structural reality in tourism, unfavorable social setting, unbalanced participation and poor work environment, prejudiced appraisal to women, weak social status of women, lack of capacity building related intervention and empowerment. Similarly, she also presents some opportunities which have been observed with increase in women's knowledge, awareness, working skills, sensitization and increasing job opportunities. It is seen that there are positive aspects of women entrepreneurs in tourism and positive features of working women. She also presents some limited interventions made by government and non government organizations to empower women in tourism sector. So, the author has given recommendations to all stakeholders to play constructive roles for development of women and empowerment in tourism.

Chapter eight "Environmental aspects of tourism in Pokhara" presents the intimate relationships between tourism and environment as tourist friendly environment is most important for recognizing any place as tourist destination. The author briefly presents geographical setting, tourist statistics and population of Pokhara. Although Pokhara attracts both domestic and international tourists but the other side, it is equally facing the pressure of environment pollution. The author describes the major causes of pollution in Pokhara which harm tourist environment and they are solid waste management, air pollution, noise pollution and pollution at Fewa Lake. If the condition of pollution goes with no prevention then the Pokhara will lose tourism business and main tourist hub will be faded. The author presents the initiations taken by different organizations for the preservation of tourism in Pokhara such as Hotel Barahi, Tiger Mountain Pokhara Lodge,

Pokhara Chamber of Commerce and Industry and Pokhara Tourism Council. In order to preserve environment for being more degraded, the author presents some strategic plan which mainly focused on hotel owners, local people, farmers, business men, government workers, political parties, CBOs, NGOs and major stakeholders of tourism for making Pokhara eco friendly and responsible tourism destination.

Chapter nine “Tourism events and facilities in Pokhara: Current status and future potentials” discusses tourism related events and services in Pokhara. The events associated with natural environment, culture and tradition play a great motivation factor for tourists. The author presents different range of tourism related events which are making a live tourist destination. The activities which are different and special to tourists are city sightseeing tour overlapping with soft walking, hiking as a day trip in surrounding mid hills, trekking, rock climbing and mountaineering, general sports, air sports which includes paragliding, ultra light mountain flight and Zip-Line., social tourism related events such as English New Year street festival, Holi Purnima, Nepali New Year fewa festival, Ashare ropain festival and various other events. There are number of tourism service providers to the visitors and those facilities are health related facilities, education related facilities, rural tourism and home-stay related facilities. Similarly, the author, discusses on the potential of tourism events such as potential of health, education and sports tourism related events, potential for volunteer tourism, nature based tourism products and related events, cultural heritage based tourism events, village tourism linked tourism events and services, exploring additional trekking routes and additional adventure sports events,

Chapter ten is entitled of Ethical aspects (codes of conduct) for responsible tourism management in Pokhara. This chapter analyzes moral and ethical aspects which are the foundation for responsible tourism management in Pokhara. The development of tourism without the notion of sustainability has challenged tourism sector so the ethical foundation and a commitment to sustainability should be considered which can minimize the negative impacts that may encounter in tourism. The author gives concept of responsible tourism with highlighting importance of ethical issue of responsible tourism. Without considering ethical values in planning, development, operation and management of tourism, it is certain that some damages will occur in tourism industry. Despite being a second biggest tourist hub for both domestic and international tourists in Nepal, Pokhara is also not far from enjoying challenges such as unsustainable uses of biophysical resources, degradation of socio- culture environments, unhealthy competition among tourism entrepreneurs and conflict at inter and intra-organizational level. Therefore, the author seeks the importance of ethical codes of conduct for marking responsible and sustainable tourism in Pokhara. Similarly, the author also highlights issues of ethical aspects and earlier interventions for the formulation and implementation of ethical codes of conduct along with the current collaborative approach of tourism practitioners, researchers, and other stakeholders in introducing and strengthening the ethical aspects of tourism at destination level in Pokhara.

Chapter eleven “Role of tourism in urban-rural integration: Reflections from trekking (adventure) tourism in Pokhara” come up with the concept of integration of urban-rural in tourism and need of this integration in tourism in Pokhara. The integration of urban-rural areas is getting wide in sustainable planning issues which mostly focus on the various levels of the responsible organizations and between the organizations and the

stakeholders. The contributions are given by pioneers in context of trekking and adventure related mountain tourism and the role of tourism for urban-rural integration in Nepal. Those pioneers are Ekai Kawaguchi, Boris Lissanevitch, Bill Tilman, Maurice Herzog, Jimmy Roberts and Jhalak Thapa. There is need of integration of rural-urban tourism in order to uplift the living standard of the people through tourism. The authors also highlight number of trekking tourism destinations with many facets of such urban-rural integration such as Round Annapurna, Annapurna Sanctuary, Ghandruk- Ghorepani, Machhapuchhre Model trek and Maradi Himal, Jomsom- Muktinath, Nar- Phoo, Upper Mustang, Dhaulagiri round and Dolpa. The authors put some recommendations in order to reduce the factors that weaken the strength of the urban-rural integration concept through tourism in Pokhara. Those recommendations are the concept of Pokhara as a regional tourism hub to be up-scaled, exploration, development and conservation of unique identity of rural areas (villages), some explicit interventions at rural level, offering more benefits to the locals, initiation to gastronomy (food) tourism in rural areas, inclusion of excluded rural communities, joint promotion of urban-rural areas, trainings and workshops, human resource development, entry fees at Annapurna Conservation area Project (ACAP) area and closure of tourism businesses after 11 pm in Pokhara.

Chapter twelve "Fewa Lake and tourism in Pokhara" put forward the interrelationship between Fewa Lake and tourism in Pokhara. Fewa lake is not only the central means of attracting tourists in Pokhara but also a source of income, employment and livelihood for number of entrepreneurs and workers in Pokhara. The authors present the interesting myths and legends about the formation of Fewa lake and how was Fewa lake named. The authors also present geographical features, demographic elements, vegetation aquatic and wild animals of Fewa lake together with comparison of past and present situation of Fewa lake. At present, numerous changes can be seen in Fewa lake area. Although, it is the center of tourism in Pokhara, the Fewa lake is facing challenges caused by natural calamities and anthropogenic. The challenges caused by natural calamities are burying, decrease of deepness and shrinkage. The challenges caused by anthropogenic are pressure on land use, increased physical construction, unplanned settlement, sporadic overpressures on the boating management, lack of moral and ethical practices by nearby settlers. There are various organizations while some are active and some are passive but most of the organizations are working for the protection of Fewa lake. The authors urge for the protection of important heritages of Fewa lake so they offer some recommendations to government, concerned bodies, political parties and preservation experts to give attention for preservation and sustainable development of Fewa lake.

Chapter thirteen "Annapurna conservation: The crux of tourism in Pokhara" explains Annapurna Conservation Area Project (ACAP) arguing that the Annapurna region and Pokhara are interconnected and inseparable from each other and for this ACAP has played a catalytic role. The Annapurna Conservation Area Project (ACAP) is an experimental model which is developed in order to promote the concept of "Conservation Area" through an "Integrated Conservation and Development Programme" approach in the country and abroad. The author also briefly describes the management zones of Annapurna Conservation Area which are divided into four zones. Those zones are intensive use zone, protected forest grazing zone, special management zone and wilderness zone. The author shows

how the ACAP works with the support from various commercial and professional tourism associations such as Nepal Tourism Board (NTB), Trekking Agencies' Association of Nepal (TAAN), Pokhara Tourism Council (PTC), Tourism Management Sub- Committees and other tourism related organizations in implementing tourism related programs in Pokhara. The ACAP is a successful project for effective combination of resource conservation with ecotourism promotions and it is promoting community- based tourism focusing effective participation of the local people and other relevant stakeholders. Despite all these achievements, still there are some challenges, for which author presents some recommendations especially for National Trust for Nature Conservation and Annapurna Conservation Area project for the effective management of tourism in Annapurna Conservation Area.

The book is a complete package for those who want to know about the overall issue of tourism, present situation, challenges and future potential of tourism in Pokhara. The book based on the different thematic issues presents detail description on the issues of tourism in Pokhara. The main concern of this book is to identify the challenges that are hindering on the way of tourism development and providing future possibilities for the overall development of tourism in the destination both in quantity and quality. The book clearly guides the readers on all the aspects of tourism in Pokhara as each chapter has highlighted the each issue of the destination. After reading this book, one can feel that if all the sectors coordinate with each other then development is not very far to achieve.

Having acknowledged all these efforts, there are some shortcomings in this work. The first issue is as this book has focused on various thematic issues but it itself has not given a clear concept on thematic. Secondly, the first and second editors are scholars of conflict and peace but there is lacking of peace-tourism as a discourse in this work. It would be a justice to this book if anyone had linked with anyone of the chapters with some theoretical approaches on peace- tourism as already developed by different scholars. This book seems just a profile of tourism in Pokhara but lacks theoretical analysis and approaches. Only very few chapters are theoretically strong. In their acknowledgements, it is written that "This tourism-related target in recent times is also associated with prospect of achieving holistic peace and progress through tourism". Similarly, the word 'build peace', 'peace sensitive', 'socio- political stability and peace' are used in few chapters but does not much engaged in how to build peace and prosperity to achieve holistic peace and progress through tourism or tourism through peace. The wrong use of reference misleads the readers in finding resource for further research (see p.171, ref. Achary, M. "Women in the tourism and related sectors" is not the major title of the research paper, it is just a sub heading of the paper, 2001). There are also some spelling errors as well, e.g. "Devi's Fall" in several chapters and so on.

Despite all those mishaps, the book has highlighted the overall issue of tourism in Pokhara which can be a good guide. This is the first book of Pokhara which gives full information about one of the golden triangles of Nepal. The recommendations provided by the authors are very helpful for government and tourism related organizations for developing effective plans and policies for the development of tourism in Pokhara. Those recommendations are also equally important for academics and researchers for further research. The authors have presented the details in a very well organized way which is

the strength of this book. Likewise, the other strength is all the chapters and contents within the chapter are coherent and well organized along with very simple and understandable lyrical writing. The book will be very useful resource for researchers, students, academics, government officials and all tourism related organizations.

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Since its inception it has established cooperation with numerous universities in Nepal, Singapore, Austria, Australia, Thailand, United Kingdom and United States of America. Likewise, FHS and Tribhuvan University of Nepal have already entered into the bilateral agreement to promote faculty and student exchange, joint research program and accreditation to each other's degree.

Published by
International School of Tourism and Hotel Management
Dillibazar, P.O. Box: 5196, Kathmandu, Nepal
Tel: 977 1 4434350, 4434185
Email: info@ist.org.np
Website: www.ist.org.np