Residents' perception towards tourism impacts in Kashmir

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Abstract

Purpose - The purpose of this study is to understand the residents' perception towards environmental, social, cultural and economic impacts of tourism development in Kashmir.

Design/methodology/approach - The research instrument containing 27 items pertaining to six variables is adopted from the literature. A mix-method survey approach is used to solicit residents' perceptions regarding environmental, social, cultural and economic impacts of the current level of tourism development. A total of 326 useful responses were subjected to descriptive statistics, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and post hoc analysis using SPSS (Version 22.0).

Findings - In general, the negative and positive impacts of tourism development are well perceived by the residents. The results indicate that the residents display positive perception regarding economic impacts, however, social and environmental impacts are negatively perceived. Furthermore, barring level of education, the study found no significant difference in the residents' perception towards tourism impacts (environmental, social, cultural, economic, quality of life and cost of living).

Research limitations/implications - The paper identifies perceived impacts and issues of tourism development thereby, proposing possible mitigating measures. Also, the study identifies the need to develop a comprehensive policy framework addressing the issues related to the resident's negative feelings towards tourism impacts. Further, the study envisages the need for engaging residents in developing a progressive and participatory planning process for future tourism activities in the area.

Social implications - The study offers critical social implications for city tourism development. It suggests a community-based approach should be adopted to sensitize residents about the positive benefits of tourism.

Originality/value - The study is a novel attempt concerning residents' residents perceptual differences towards tourism impacts. Furthermore, this study investigated socio-cultural impacts of tourism under two separate categories for better understanding. in doing so, this study provides finer understanding of perception of residents towards tourism impacts in Indian context. The findings of the study will prove critical for different stakeholders in developing future tourism framework and policies in the region.

Keywords Environmental impacts, Perception, Social exchange theory, Tourism impacts, Social impacts, Kashmir

Paper type Research paper

1. Introduction

Globally, tourism industry has emerged as one of the key industries contributing to economic development and employment generation (WTTC, 2018a; Zhuang et al., 2019). For instance, in 2017 Travel and Tourism alone accounted for 10.4% of the world's gross domestic product (GDP) and provided 313 million jobs worldwide (WTTC, 2018b). Over the past seven decades, tourism industry has experienced continued growth both in developed and developing countries (Manzoor et al., 2019). Tourism is inherently an interactive exchange process which involves a direct and reciprocal relationship between tourists and residents (Brida et al., 2011). The outcome of this exchange process is the unique experience tourists derive and the perception and attitude residents build toward tourism and its impacts. Thus, the character of this interaction component can have both positive

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and negative consequences. In tourism literature, these positive and negative elements are referred to as impacts of tourism, which influence both residents and tourists (Brida *et al.*, 2011). The positive impacts of tourism include; increase in per capita income, employment opportunities, improved standards of living, improved public infrastructure and recreational facilities, preservation and promotion of host culture. On the other hand the negative impacts include; increase in the cost of living, depletion of natural resources, traffic congestion and overcrowding, an increase in crime rate and drug usage (Tichaawa and Moyo, 2019; Andereck *et al.*, 2005; Cardoso and Silva, 2018).

Literature has documented that the local residents are the focal point of tourism development and their support plays a key role in the sustainability of tourism (Lee, 2013; Gonzalez et al., 2018; Fletcher et al., 2016). Moreover, the literature establishes that resident's perception toward the impacts of tourism is crucial for the development of tourism in the area. It reflects, how the residents perceive the impact of tourism on their community determines their support for it (Látková and Vogt, 2012; Bimonte and Punzo, 2016). For instance, the perception of positive impacts encourages the residents to support tourism, while as the perception of negative impacts discourages residents from supporting it (Látková and Vogt, 2012; Jaafar et al., 2015; Hammad et al., 2017). Unlike other industries, tourism industry involves tourists visiting the places where people live, therefore, the tourist influx increases the chances of friction between tourists and residents. Hence, it is imperative that the perceptions of residents toward tourism impacts are thoroughly researched and documented. This will help in determining optimal planning for tourism development while at the same time minimizes negative impacts of this development on the resident population.

The investigation and comparison of the perceptions of residents towards the impacts of tourism development would bridge a number of gaps in resident perception literature. First, the majority of the studies regarding the perception of tourism impacts have been conducted in developed countries such as Andereck et al. (2007) and Kim et al. (2013) in the USA, Stylidis et al. (2014) in Greece, Su et al. (2005) in China, Miyakuni (2012) in Japan and Eraqi (2007) in Egypt. Only a few studies have been reported in developing countries (Liu and Li, 2018). Second, those studies that have been conducted in developing countries have tended to neglect underdeveloped conflict-ridden areas such as Kashmir. Third, only a few studies have used the social exchange theory (SET) while studying resident's perception and attitude toward tourism impacts (Wang and Pfister, 2008; García et al., 2015; Látková and Vogt, 2012; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015). Fourth, in the Indian context, only a few studies have concerted to investigate resident's perception regarding tourism Impacts. However, these studies have adopted a comparative approach, for instance, Karanth and Nepal (2012) compared perceptions of benefits and costs between Indian and Nepali households, similarly, Jutla (2000) compared tourist perceptions with residents' perceptions in Shimla. Moreover, research on perceptual differences toward tourism impacts across resident groups has also remained unexplored.

In this backdrop, current study aims to understand the perceptions of residents toward the impacts of tourism, namely: impact, social impact, cultural impact and economic impact, in Kashmir and examine differences, if any, in residents' perceptions towards these impacts across different resident groups. The remainder of the paper is organized as follows; Section 2 presents a brief overview of the tourism industry of Kashmir which is followed by a literature review and hypotheses development in Section 3. Section 4 presents the methodology adopted which is followed by data analysis and results in Section 5. This is followed by a detailed discussion of major findings in Section 6 and implications in Section 7. Finally, the limitations and further research direction are discussed in Section 8.

2. Overview of tourism industry of Kashmir

Surrounded by great The Himalayas, including some of the highest mountain peaks of the world, the Valley of Kashmir offers a diverse landscape, climate and culture to attract

tourists from different parts of the globe. The beauty of Kashmir Valley is further augmented by its round the year snow-clad mountains, freshwater lakes and densely populated forests with rivers flowing in-between (Malik and Bhat, 2015). This distinctive tourist attractions offer more scope to the tourism industry to offer multiple tourism products and services such as health tourism, adventure tourism, ecotourism, pilgrim tourism, wildlife tourism, heritage tourism, cultural tourism, rural tourism, leisure tourism and golf tourism (Singh and Unjum, 2016; Dar, 2014).

According to the Economic Survey of Jammu and Kashmir (J&K), 2017 tourism accounted for 6.98% of the local GDP. Also, J&K recorded a growth rate of 51.2 and 21.2% in growth rates of domestic and foreign tourist visits over the previous year (Ministry of Tourism, Gol, 2018). In India, the J&K is one of the famous destinations ranking 18 and 22 in domestic and foreign tourist visits respectively, out of 36 states and union territories. Yet, on the basis of the number of tourist arrivals, J&K has not yet been able to make its position among the top 10 tourist destinations in the country. This dismal performance of the tourism industry with so many tourist attractions could be attributed to it being highly vulnerable to turmoil and its political instability (Shah et al., 2013). The security scenario of the state worsened in 1990 when it was hit by an armed rebellion against the establishment and thereby, affecting the tourism industry. Consequently, the number of tourists visiting the Valley came down to 15,546 in 1990 as against 545,614 in 1985 (Malik and Bhat, 2015). However, the local residents and the administrative machinery showed their resilience towards reviving the industry and from the year 1995, the industry showed signs of recovery (Malik and Bhat, 2015). According to the economic survey of Jammu and Kashmir (2017), the number of tourists visiting Kashmir Valley further increased and reached up to 1,929,764 in 2012, 1,525,099 in 2013, 1,540,527 in 2014, 1,280,586 in 2015 and 1,431,720 in 2016.

3. Literature review

3.1 Social exchange theory

Social exchange theory is primarily grounded on the premise that individuals develop a perception of an object of interest-based on the relative costs and benefits derived from it. The theory is inter-disciplinary in nature and its roots are traced in economics, anthropology, sociology and social psychology (Liu, 2012). Social exchange theory was initially applied in the context of economics by Homans (1958) to understand human behaviour subsequently, Emerson (1962) and Blau (1964) extended social exchange theory for studying the interaction process between residents and organizations for maximizing benefits and minimizing costs. This was followed by the wide applicability of social exchange theory across a wide range of disciplines for understanding the perceptions and attitudes toward of parties involved in a relationship/interaction.

In general, the main focus of social exchange theory has largely remained on the understanding perceptions towards the relative costs and benefits of a social relationship (Gan, 2020). Nonetheless, social exchange theory has witnessed wide applicability across a range of other dimensions such as; justice (Tepper and Taylor, 2003), commitment (Bishop *et al.*, 2000), social power (Molm *et al.*, 1999) and leadership (Liden *et al.*, 1997) are studied in the context of organizational behaviour. Due to its indispensable explanatory power, the theory has been extensively used on other diverse areas such as the exploration of romantic relationships (Liu, 2012), information technology service relationships (Park *et al.*, 2015), satisfaction studies in the case of outdoor recreation facilities (Bryant and Napier, 1981) and treatment of unconsummated marriage (Rosenbaum, 2009).

In the context of tourism, the theory has been widely adopted as a theoretical framework for exploring the perception and attitude of residents and tourists toward tourism development (Andereck and Vogt, 2000; Zuo *et al.*, 2017; Nunkoo and So, 2016). As the focal point of social exchange theory and tourism are grounded on the social exchange process, social

exchange theory is considered appropriate for explaining residents' attitude towards tourism (Özel and Kozak, 2017) and it acts as a "frame of reference that takes the movement of valued things (resources) through the social process as its focus" (Emerson, 1976, p. 359). The theory postulates that residents will perceive tourism favourably and support its development only if they believe that the benefits derived from tourism outweigh its associated costs (Andriotis, 2005; Jurowski *et al.*, 1997). Therefore, the construction of positive or negative perceptions of residents is dependent on their belief about costs and benefits associated with tourism activity (Rasoolimanesh and Jaafar, 2016; Nunkoo and Gursoy, 2012). It can be inferred that residents would develop negative perceptions toward tourism if they associate higher costs with it than the benefits received from it (Jurowski *et al.*, 1997; Latip *et al.*, 2018; Lv *et al.*, 2019; Tam *et al.*, 2013).

The literature demonstrates that residents mostly evaluate costs and benefits associated with tourism from various perspectives such as; social, economic, cultural and environmental (Brida *et al.*, 2011; Rasoolimanesh *et al.*, 2015). During the past decade, the theory has been used across other domains of tourism such as residential proximity and attitude towards tourism development (Jurowski and Gursoy, 2004); place image and support for tourism development (Stylidis *et al.*, 2014); community well-being and attitudes toward tourism development (Park *et al.*, 2016); place attachment and attitudes towards tourism development (Eusébio *et al.*, 2018) and environmental and social conflicts and residents' perceptions (Gan, 2020). Thus, the social, economic, cultural and environmental impacts of tourism which are the focus of this study, in the purview of social exchange theory are discussed in the succeeding section.

3.2 Impacts of tourism development on host-communities

During recent years, there is burgeoning attention on studying the impacts of tourism on host communities which can be classified into both positive and negative impacts (Jurowski et al., 1997). Moreover, the focus of the majority of the studies has particularly remained on four key impacts of tourism such as economic, social, cultural and environmental (Almeida-García et al., 2016; Rivera et al., 2015). These positive and negative impacts of tourism-related to economic, social, cultural and environmental perspectives are discussed as follows:

3.2.1 Economic impacts. Economic impacts of tourism refer to any type of economic benefit or cost accruing to or paid by residents and local government because of tourism development (Gursoy et al., 2010; Long and Kayat, 2011). The positive aspects of this impact can be attributed to the better employment opportunities, contribution towards economic growth or increase in income of local residents (Diedrich and García-Buades, 2009; McDowall and Choi, 2010; Mensah, 2012). It is logical to deduce that the positive economic impacts of tourism lead to the development of a positive perception of local residents toward tourism. Nonetheless, it is found that these positive economic impacts become stimulators for developing tourism in a region (Dyer et al., 2007). On the other hand, tourism development is criticized for its negative impacts such as increased cost of living, inflation in land and house prices, temporary and low-paid employments (Kwan and McCartney, 2005; Lorde et al., 2011; Gursoy et al., 2010; Yu, 2011; Gutiérrez, 2010). Although tourism development leads to employment generation it in some cases it has also been argued that the majority of these jobs are offered to expatriates (Musinguzi, 2012). This further aggravates the negative perceptions held by residents towards tourism development.

3.2.2 Social impacts. Social impacts of tourism refer to any changes that have bearing on the social life of the residents for instance change in the quality of life, daily routine and behaviours (Glasson et al., 1995; Fredline et al., 2003). The tourism development of a region often leads to certain positives such as; improved quality of life, increasing entertainment alternatives and improvement in destination image (Kim, 2002; Kim et al., 2013; Stylidis

et al., 2014), which in turn, lead to the cultivation of positive perceptions toward tourism. Moreover, the negative social impacts can not be overruled. The negative impacts include; prostitution (Sharma and Dyer, 2009), drug abuse (Tosun, 2002), criminal offenses (Brida et al., 2011) and overcrowding and traffic congestion (Kim, 2002).

3.2.3 Cultural impacts. Culture is the shared set of values and beliefs that a group of people follow and is reflected in their behaviours and the way of life (Al-Abdullah, 1999). Tourism development is associated with both positive and negative impacts on host communities (Eragi, 2007; Garau-Vadell et al., 2016; Hanafiah et al., 2013). The positive impacts include the refinement of cultural activities (Brunt and Courtney, 1999) and reinforcement of cultural identities (Akkawi, 2010). This cultural refinement and reinforcement have been found to increase the pride of the residents and also, reinforce the cultural identity (Yoon et al., 2001; Sanchéz-Cañizares et al., 2014). The negative cultural impacts of tourism include abandoning local culture traditions (Kim, 2002), changing personal appearance according to the visitors (Türker and Öztürk, 2013) and weakening of local culture (Garau-Vadell et al., 2016). One stream of researchers has amalgamated social and cultural impacts of tourism into a single construct labelled as socio-cultural impacts (Alhasanat and Hyasat, 2011; Choi, 2013; Hernández and Mercader, 2015). However, another stream of researchers has opined that studying the social and cultural impacts of tourism in isolation offers a much better and holistic understanding (Brunt and Courtney, 1999; Ling et al., 2011; Garau-Vadell et al., 2016; Zaidan, 2016). Thus, the current study investigates the social and cultural impacts of tourism development separately.

3.2.4 Environmental impacts. Environmental impacts of tourism refer to any adverse or beneficial changes to the environment, resulting partially or completely due to tourism activities (Bonimy, 2008). The impacts of tourism on the environment are inevitable as tourism is often developed in fragile settings using natural resources. Any tourism development activity is associated with its possible negative and positive consequences on the surrounding environment (Liu and Var, 1986; Liu et al., 1987; Yoon et al., 1999). However, the negative impacts of tourism outweigh its positive impacts as it leads to the two important phenomena, namely, pollution and depletion of natural resources (Sunlu, 2003). Moreover, it is believed that tourism development has a direct influence on the environment as it leads to an increase in the construction of tourist facilities and amenities (Bonimy, 2008). Also, it disturbs local wildlife and leads to deforestation. The positive impacts of tourism on the environment are debatable in which some researchers argue that tourism development leads to uplifting the appearance of the destinations, thereby, creating greater awareness towards environmental conservation and gathering support for the preservation of the environment (Diedrich and García-Buades, 2009; Tomljenovic and Faulkner, 1999).

3.3 Hypotheses development

Perception refers to the process of assigning meaning to an object based on an individual's selection, decoding and interpretation of external stimuli (Simão and Môsso, 2013). In the context of tourism development, it refers to the resident's feeling and evaluation of tourism as a product, as well as its impacts (both positive and negative) on host communities (Lindberg and Johnson, 1997). It reflects that residents' perception toward tourism impacts would vary depending upon their demographic characteristics, their reliance on tourism, their community attachment, tourist influx, involvement with tourists and tourism activities among many other factors (Vargas-Sánchez et al., 2009; Andereck et al., 2005; Brida et al., 2011; Postma and Schmuecker, 2017). Among these discriminatory factors, residents' socio-demographic characteristics offer a valid starting point to critically evaluate the residents' perceptual differences toward tourism impacts. Moreover, these Socio-demographic variables are known to provide a common framework while assessing factors influencing residents' perceptions towards tourism development (Su et al., 2018).

3.3.1 Gender. Literature documents mixed results regarding differences in the perception of male and female residents toward tourism impacts. Some studies, for instance, Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2010) in Mauritius found that gender plays a significant role in shaping the attitude of residents towards tourism impacts and men tend to have a more positive attitude in comparison to women. It is found that men perceive that tourism leads to certain positive changes such as job creation and improvement in the quality of life. Likewise, Liu and Li (2018) suggested that significant differences in perception between men and women are reported in which men tend to perceive positive tourism impacts more vigorously than women. In accordance with these findings, many other studies have reported the variation in perception between men and women toward tourism impacts (Tichaawa and Moyo, 2019; Andereck and Nyaupane, 2011; Látková and Vogt, 2012; Ritchie and Inkari, 2006; Chen, 2000; Fredline and Faulkner, 2000; Harvey et al., 1995). However, contrary to this some studies have found no significant difference in the perception of men and women towards tourism impacts with respect to most of the tourism impacts (Simão and Môsso, 2013; Wang and Lou, 2018; Moyo, 2016). Thus, it reflects that literature is assorted in terms of perceptual differences between men and women toward tourism impacts, and this warrants further clarification of the phenomenon. Hence, the following hypothesis is formulated for testing:

H1. There is a significant difference in perception towards tourism impacts regarding environment, culture, society, economy, quality of life and cost of living between male and female residents.

3.3.2 Marital status. Although, marital status is an important demographic variable it is the least reported in existing studies on tourism impacts. Even though it is observed that orientation, perception and attitude of an individual change with the change in his marital status (Al-Saad et al., 2018), but results are inconclusive regarding which group (married or unmarried) has a more positive perception toward tourism impacts. For instance, Williams and Lawson (2001) revealed that married individuals differed significantly in their perception of tourism impacts in comparison to unmarried individuals. Similarly, a study by Saygin et al. (2015) found statistically significant perceptual differences between married and unmarried people. In addition, Al-Saad et al. (2018) also posited a significant influence of marital status on resident's perception towards the socio-cultural impacts of tourism. In contrast to this, Long and Kayat (2011) in Vietnam found no significant difference in the perception of married and unmarried individuals toward tourism impacts. Similar findings are reported by Kuvan and Akan (2005) in Belek, Antalya while studying residents' attitudes toward general and forest-related impacts of tourism. Thus, it remains inconclusive whether significant differences exist in the perception of residents toward tourism impacts with respect to marital status, and accordingly following hypothesis is proposed for testing:

H2. There is a significant difference in perception towards tourism impacts regarding environment, culture, society, economy, quality of life and cost of living across resident groups by marital status.

3.3.3 Age. One's age (that is, young, middle-aged or old aged) is a vital factor likely to influence ones' perception regarding tourism impacts. This is because with age the consciousness of an individual towards certain social settings is expected to increase. As tourism is a social exchange process, and individuals' perception toward tourism impacts on host society is expected to vary with respect to his/her age. It has been empirically revealed that attitude towards tourism varies with age, and in most of the cases, either young/middle-aged residents are found to be inclined towards embracing positive economic impacts of tourism (Bastias-Perez and Var, 1995; Chen, 2000; Long and Kayat, 2011). Contrary to this, McGehee and Andereck (2004) found older people to be more supportive of tourism activities in their community and agreed less with negative statements about tourism impacts. Similarly, with respect to perception towards tourism impacts, many studies found that perception varies across different age groups (Rasoolimanesh and

Jaafar, 2016; Andereck and Nyaupane, 2011; Látková and Vogt, 2012; Brougham and Butler, 1981; Perdue *et al.*, 1990; Smith and Krannich, 1998). Nonetheless, some researchers have also observed that age is an insignificant predictor of residents' perceptions towards tourism impacts (Davis *et al.*, 1988; Belisle and Hoy, 1980; Ryan and Montgomery, 1994). Thus, there is ambiguity regarding the role of age in shaping perception and attitude toward tourism impacts and it remains inconclusive whether perception towards tourism impacts varies across different age groups, namely, younger, middle or older group. Accordingly, to test empirically if the perception of residents varies across different age groups, it is hypothesized that:

- H3. There is a significant difference in perception towards tourism impacts regarding environment, culture, society, economy, quality of life and cost of living across various age groups.
- 3.3.4 Place of residence. The rural-urban disparity in developing countries like India is more prominent and is a key parameter influencing perceptions of individuals. Empirical evidence reveals that urban residents are less supportive of tourism development as compared to rural residents (Nunkoo and Ramkissoon, 2010). This difference in attitude and perception is attributed to the fact that rural tourism remains unexploited to a greater extent as compared to urban tourism (Nunkoo and Ramkissoon, 2007). However, several researchers have challenged the view that the place of residence has any association with the perception of residents towards tourism impacts (Back and Lee, 2005; McCool and Martin, 1994). Therefore, evidence points to a lack of consensus among researchers about the place of residence being a valid or invalid predictor of residents' perception. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:
 - H4. There is a significant difference in perception towards tourism impacts regarding environment, culture, society, economy, quality of life and cost of living with respect to the place of residence.
- 3.3.5 Source of income. As a key premise of social exchange theory residents' economic dependence on tourism has a significant influence on their perceptions toward tourism impacts. Empirically, it has been found that the economic dependence of residents in the tourism industry also influences their perception of its impacts (Gonzalez et al., 2018; Jurowski and Gursoy, 2004; Snaith and Haley, 1999; Haley et al., 2005). Thus, it reflects that if residents are receiving benefits out of tourism relationships they are more likely to develop positive perceptions towards it. In other words, people working in tourism-related jobs are more likely to develop favourable attitudes and perceptions towards their impacts and develop fewer concerns about the negative impacts of tourism development. This argument is supported by Glasson (2004), who in the city of Oxford found that people working in the tourism industry developed favourable perceptions towards tourism impacts. Similar evidence is reported by many other studies such as; Ritchie and Inkari (2006), Gursoy et al. (2002) and Williams and Lawson (2001). Thus, it can be concluded that the more economic dependence on tourism, the more likely it is that residents perceive the impacts of tourism favourably. Accordingly, it is hypothesized that:
 - H5. There is a significant difference in perception towards tourism impacts regarding environment, culture, society, economy, quality of life and cost of living in relation to their source of income with tourism.
- 3.3.6 Level of education. Education, as much as income has remained a strong predictor of residents' perception and attitude towards tourism impacts. It is believed that people with higher levels of education have a more positive perception of tourism impacts. Many studies in both developed and developing countries have empirically observed that residents with higher levels of education have a more positive perception of tourism impacts such as Haralambopoulos and Pizam (1996) in Samos, Greece; Tichaawa and Moyo (2019) in Zimbabwe; Gonzalez et al. (2018) in Spain; Andriotis and Vaughan (2003) in Crete,

Greece; Andriotis (2004) in Crete, Greece; Caneday and Zeiger (1991) in Deadwood, SD and in Zambia by Husbands (1989). Thus, varying levels of perception are expected across resident groups with varying levels of education. Those with a higher level of education will perceive tourism impacts more favourably as compared to ones with lower levels of education. Accordingly, this study hypothesized that:

H6. There is a significant difference in perception towards tourism impacts regarding environment, culture, society, economy, quality of life and cost of living across various educational levels.

4. Methodology

4.1 Survey instrument and data collection

The questionnaire consisting of 27 items adapted from literature (Table 1) with slight modifications is used to capture the perception of residents' towards the impacts of tourism regarding environmental, social, cultural and economic impacts. The questionnaire comprising two sections; the first section captured demographic characteristics of respondents (such as gender, marital status, age, place of residence, source of income and level of education) measured on a nominal scale; the second section consisted of the items related to the tourism impacts measured on five-point Likert scale with anchors ranging from 1 (significantly worsen i.e. very negative perception) to 5 (significantly improving corresponding to very positive perception). For the purpose of interpretation, the criteria of Simão and Môsso (2013) is followed wherein the values for measurement items equal or above 3.5 are considered to be favourable, values between 2.5 and 3.4 indicate neutral perception and values below 2.5 correspond to the unfavourable respondent perception.

Table	1 Questionnaire items and sources	
S.no.	Items	Source
1	Employment opportunities	Haralambopoulos and Pizam (1996)
2	Personal income	
3	Price of land	
4	Price of basic staples	
5	Price of houses	
6	Standard of living	
7	Drug use and trafficking	
8	Criminality	
9	Socioeconomic position of women	
10	Changing habits/lifestyles of the population	Wall and Mathieson (2006)
11	Alcohol consumption	
12	Movement of people and vehicles	
13	Preservation of sites/areas with historical, cultural and aesthetic value	
14	Local art production	
15	Traditional cuisine	
16	Traditional local activities (festivities, music, dance and games)	Simão and Môsso (2013)
17	Noise pollution	
18	Soil pollution	
19	Air pollution	
20	Pollution of the seawater and other watercourses	
21	Environment and ecosystems protection	
22	Cleaning and hygiene of public spaces	
23	Quality of health care	
24	Quality of the public services (transportation, transportation infrastructure and education)	
25	Local economic activity	
26	Wealth generated for the country	
27	Infrastructures (hotels, roads, bridges and airports)	

As showed in Figure 1 the survey was administered to the residents of Kashmir Valley between 1 May and 25 June 2019. The area consists of 72.62% of rural and 27.38% urban population (India Census, 2011). To obtain adequate data for the study a total of 500 questionnaires were administered using both online and hand-delivered methods. A total of 326 complete and usable questionnaires were received, resulting in a 65% response rate. The study used a convenience sampling method as recommended by previous studies (Carmichael, 2000; Korça, 1998; Teye *et al.*, 2002) as no reliable sampling frame was available.

4.2 Profile of respondents

As presented in Table 2, the majority of the respondents were male (64.1%) falling within the age group of 21–40 years (77.9%). Further, more than 80% of the respondents were either graduates or post-graduates. With respect to the association of income with tourism, around 31% of the respondents reported having direct income-association with tourism and 24.5% reported an indirect income-association with tourism.

4.3 Reliability and validity analysis

The data is screened for missing values and outliers, and none were found. To examine validity exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with the principal component method and Varimax rotation is conducted to confirm convergent and divergent validity. The examination of Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (with a value of 0.856) measure of sampling adequacy revealed that the data is adequate for EFA (Hair *et al.*, 2016). The factor extraction based on Eigenvalue criteria of greater than 1 is used for factor extraction. As shown in Table 3 the factor analysis resulted in the extraction of six factors with factor loading more than 0.7, explaining 70.74% of the total variance. Also, Harman's single factor criteria are used to test common method bias, in which Factor 1 (economic impact) explained 29.668% of the variance, less than a critical limit of 50% thus, confirming the absence of significant common method bias in the data set (Table 3). In the EFA four items related to variable social impacts showed significant cross-loading with more than one factor and were dropped from subsequent analysis as recommended by Hair *et al.* (2016). Thus, of the 27 measurement items, 23 items were loaded on the six factors as expected.

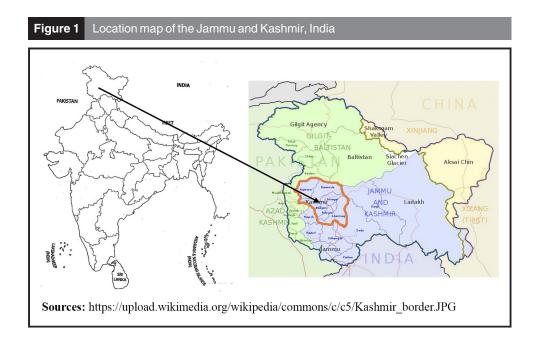


Table 2 Demographic characteristics	of respondents (n = 326)	
Demographic characteristics	Frequency	(%)
Gender Male Female	209 117	64.1 35.9
Marital status Single Married Widowed Divorced	256 67 3 0	78.5 20.5 1.0 0
Age <20 21–40 41–60 >60	25 254 41 6	7.7 77.9 12.6 1.8
Residence Rural Urban	170 156	52.1 47.9
Income (INR) Directly related Indirectly related Not related	101 80 145	31.0 24.5 44.5
Education No formal education Under graduate and below Graduate PG and above	4 57 67 198	1.2 17.5 20.5 60.8

The Cronbach's alpha values and composite reliability estimates were calculated for all factors, the values for both exceeded the threshold of 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978; Hair *et al.*, 2016), confirming the uni-dimensionality of each measure and ensuring all measures were reliable. To assess convergent validity, standardized factor loadings and average variance extracted (AVE) is calculated. As presented in Table 3, the standardized factor loadings for each item is higher than 0.7 on its associated factor and the AVE values for all constructs exceeded the limit of 0.5 and AVE for each latent variable is higher than inter-construct correlations (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hair *et al.*, 2016). Moreover, the results of construct correlations presented in Table 4, showed that correlations between latent variables are statistically significant and range from 0.084 to 0.523. Thus, showing the absence of multi-co-linearity and displaying discriminant validity.

5. Data analysis and results

5.1 Descriptive statistics: tourism impacts

The descriptive statistics about residents' perceptions about the impacts of tourism are presented in Table 5. The results with respect to latent variable environmental impact reflect a mean value of 2.413 and mean values of individual items El1 (noise pollution = 2.45), El2 (soil pollution = 2.43), El3 (air pollution = 2.34) and El4 (pollution of seawater and other watercourses = 2.34), respectively. This reflects a negative perception of residents towards the impacts of tourism on the environment as it is believed to be the cause of the noise, air and water pollution. Thus, any tourism activity in the area is perceived to impact the environment negatively and degrade the quality of air and water. Similarly, with respect to the latent variable

Measurement items	Factor loadings	Eigenvalue	Variance explained	CA	CA if item deleted	CR	AVE
Factor 1 Noise pollution Soil pollution Air pollution Pollution of the sea water and other watercourses	0.847 0.736 0.729 0.786	6.824	29.668	0.783	0.753 0.722 0.703 0.739	0.857	0.774
Factor 2 Environment and ecosystems protection Movement of people and vehicles Cleaning and hygiene of public spaces	0.701 0.736 0.732	3.483	15.145	0.737	0.709 0.701 0.714	0.766	0.723
Factor 3 Preservation of sites/areas with historical, cultural and aesthetic value Changing habits/life styles of the population Traditional local activities (festivities, music, dance and games) Local art production Traditional cuisine	0.785 0.709 0.766 0.772 0.756	2.075	9.023	0.836	0.825 0.808 0.791 0.804 0.787	0.870	0.757
Factor 4 Drug use and trafficking Alcohol consumption Criminality (murder, robbery, kidnapping and pick pocketing)	0.849 0.894 0.808	1.436	6.243	0.823	0.702 0.721 0.834	0.887	0.850
Factor 5 Employment opportunities Local economic activity Wealth generated for the country Personal income Infrastructures (hotels, roads, bridges and airports)	0.894 0.927 0.800 0.827 0.748	1.337	5.812	0.912	0.893 0.875 0.891 0.898 0.906	0.923	0.839
Factor 6 Price of land Price of basic staples Price of houses Extraction method: principal component analysis Rotation method: Promax with Kaiser normalization ^a	0.952 0.802 0.930	1.116	4.854	0.887	0.834 0.869 0.809	0.924	0.671

Component	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	1.000					
2	0.523	1.000				
3	0.116	0.129	1.000			
4	0.354	0.220	0.221	1.000		
5	0.107	0.084	0.329	0.336	1.000	
6	0.124	0.128	0.347	0.257	0.278	1.000

quality of life, the results reflect a mean value of 2.494and mean values of individual items EI5 (environment and ecosystem protection = 2.45), EI6 (movement of people and vehicles = 2.54) and EI7 (cleaning and hygiene of public spaces = 2.50). These results indicate a neutral perception of residents towards the impacts of tourism on their quality of life. Thus, it signifies

Table 5 Residents perceptions about the impacts of tourism			
Latent variables and measurement items	Mean	SD	Variance
Environmental impact	2.413	0.889	
Noise pollution	2.45	1.070	1.144
Soil pollution	2.43	1.081	1.170
Air pollution	2.34	1.162	1.350
Pollution of the seawater and other watercourses	2.34	1.252	1.567
Quality of life	2.494	0.970	
Environment and ecosystems protection	2.45	1.143	1.305
Movement of people and vehicles	2.54	1.357	1.840
Cleaning and hygiene of public spaces	2.50	1.270	1.613
Cultural Impact	3.246	0.958	
Preservation of sites/areas with historical, cultural and aesthetic value	3.08	1.301	1.693
Changing habits/lifestyles of the population	3.21	1.206	1.454
Traditional local activities (festivities, music, dance, games)	3.27	1.240	1.539
Local art production	3.28	1.221	1.490
Traditional cuisine	3.39	1.195	1.429
Social impact	2.450	1.051	
Drug use and trafficking	2.39	1.223	1.497
Alcohol consumption	2.38	1.312	1.722
Criminality (murder, robbery, kidnapping and pickpocketing)	2.58	1.129	1.274
Economic impact	3.714	0.840	
Employment opportunities	3.75	1.317	1.735
Local economic activity	3.59	1.227	1.507
Wealth generated for the country	3.62	1.242	1.542
Personal income	3.84	1.187	1.408
Infrastructures (hotels, roads, bridges and airports)	3.77	1.251	1.565
Cost of living	2.843	0.945	
Price of land	2.88	1.480	2.191
Price of basic staples	2.83	1.244	1.549
Price of houses	2.82	1.404	1.970

that the residents are least concerned about tourism activities in the area. Further, with respect to latent variable cultural impacts the results reflect a mean value of 3.246 and mean values of individual items CI1 (cultural and aesthetic value = 3.08), CI2 (changing habits/lifestyles of the population = 3.21), CI3 (traditional local activities= 3.27), CI4 (local art production = 3.28) and CI5 (traditional cuisine = 3.39). Once again the results revealed a neutral perception of residents towards the impacts of tourism on their culture. Thus, any tourism activity in the area is perceived to be innocuous towards their cultural identities.

Furthermore, in the context of latent variable social impacts, the results reflect a mean value of 2.450 and mean values of individual items SI1 (trafficking = 2.39), SI2 (alcohol consumption = 2.38) and SI3 (criminality = 2.58). The results reflect that the residents have a negative perception of the impacts of tourism on their social lives. Thus, any tourism activity is perceived to impact society negatively and is associated with an increase in drug use and alcohol consumption in the area. The only exception to these findings is the neutral perception of residents towards the effect of tourism on criminality. Thus, any increase or decrease in criminality is not associate with tourism activities. Quite consistent with the common belief regarding economic impacts of tourism on residents the results revealed a mean value of 3.714 and mean values of individual items EC1 (employment opportunities = 3.75), EC2 (local economic activity = 3.59), EC3 (wealth generated for the country = 3.62), EC4 (personal income = 3.84) and EC5 (infrastructures = 3.77). This reflects a positive perception of residents towards the economic impacts of tourism. Thus, tourism activities in the area are believed to contribute positively towards personal and well as national incomes. Finally, with respect to the latent variable cost of living, the results reflect a mean value of 2.843 and mean values of individual items EC6 (the price of land = 2.88), EC7 (Price of basic staples = 2.83) and EC8 (the price of houses = 2.82). Thus, any increase in the prices of basic amenities is also associated with an increase in tourism activity.

5.2 ANOVA-perceptual differences across demographic groups

The results of analysis of variance (ANOVA), shown in Table 6, reveal that there is no significant difference in the perception toward tourism impacts, namely, cost of living (p < 0.75), environmental impact (p < 0.06), quality of life (p < 0.32), cultural impact (p < 0.83), social impact (p < 0.61) and economic impact (p < 0.06) between male and female resident population. Hence, H1 is not supported. Similarly, results show no significant difference in the perception of single, married, widowed and divorced residents about the cost of living (p < 0.30), environmental impact (p < 0.77), quality of life (p < 0.48), cultural impact (p < 0.91), social impact (p < 0.36) and economic impact (p < 0.84). Therefore, H2 is rejected. Further, data reveal that respondents are indifferent in their perception toward tourism impacts, namely, cost of living (p < 0.18), environmental impact (p < 0.76), quality of life (p < 0.25), cultural impact (p < 0.30), social impact (p < 0.13) and economic impact (p < 0.41) across different age groups are witnessed. Thus, H3 is not supported. The results further show that there is no significant difference in the perception of tourism impacts between rural and urban residents (p > 0.05). Thus, H4 is also rejected.

With respect to residents' perception regarding tourism impacts, no perceptual difference in any of the tourism impacts was found across respondents by their economic dependence on tourism, namely, cost of living (p < 0.36), environmental impact (p < 0.24), quality of life (p < 0.15), cultural impact (p < 0.32), social impact (p < 0.44) and economic impact (p < 0.14. Thus, p < 0.14 is also not supported. However, results further, reveal that residents with different levels of education perceived some impacts of tourism differently for instance; the cost of living (p < 0.02); quality of life (p < 0.01) and cultural impact (p < 0.04). However, no significant difference in resident perception regarding environmental impact (p < 0.40), social impact (p < 0.15) and economic impact (p < 0.15) are observed with respect to varying educational levels. Thus, p < 0.16 is partially supported.

5.3 Tukey HSD post hoc analysis

As the ANOVA indicated statistically significant differences in the perception toward the quality of life, cost of living and cultural impact across resident groups by educational levels a Tukey honestly significant difference (HSD) post hoc test is conducted to exhibit the group difference. As shown in Table 7, the results indicate that regarding the latent variable cost of living, respondents who were at least graduates had a stronger positive perception of the impacts of tourism, as against those with no formal education. Hence, it is found that a group with no formal education differed significantly from those who were graduates (I-J = 2.06, p = 0.02). These results indicate that graduates have a stronger positive perception in comparison to those with no formal education. Similarly, the post hoc test for the latent variable quality of life reveals that those with even minimal levels of education had more positive perceptions as compared to those with no education. The results reflect means differences of individual groups as no formal education and undergraduate and below (I-J = 1.84, p = 0.00), no formal education and graduates (I-J = 1.90, p = 0.00) and no formal education and post-graduation and above (I-J = 1.85, p = 0.00). Thus, in the context of quality of life, it can be inferred that there exists a clear difference between educated and uneducated population with educated people having stronger positive perception towards tourism impacts. Finally, the post hoc test for latent variable cultural impact reveals that difference in perception is driven by two groups including respondents who are undergraduates and below and those with post-graduation and above. The results reflect the mean difference (I-J) of 0.47 and significance level (p) 0.03. Hence, suggesting that people with higher levels of education tend to have stronger positive perception than people with less education.

Table 6 ANOVA results	ts											
	Ger	Gender	Marital	Aarital status	Ą	Age	Resic	Residence	Inco	ncome	Educ	=ducation
Latent variables	F	Sig.	Ц	Sig.	Щ	Sig.	F	Sig.	Н	Sig.	F	Sig.
Cost of living	0.12	0.75	1.212	0.300	1.618	0.186	3.526	0.062	1.003	0.368	3.091	0.028
Environmental impact	3.360	0.068	0.255	0.775	0.381	0.767	0.250	0.617	1.425	0.243	0.987	0.400
Quality of life	0.989	0.321	0.724	0.486	1.366	0.254	0.368	0.545	1.891	0.153	3.818	0.011
Cultural impact	0.046	0.830	060.0	0.914	1.223	0.302	0.197	0.658	1.141	0.321	2.813	0.040
Socialimpact	0.260	0.610	1.011	0.366	1.876	0.135	0.169	0.682	0.808	0.447	1.773	0.153
Economic impact	3.425	0.066	0.163	0.849	0.901	0.414	0.153	969.0	1.984	0.140	1.751	0.158

	Independe	ent variable			
Dependent variable	(I) EDU	(J)EDU	Mean difference (I-J)	Std. error	Sig.
Cost of living	No formal education	Undergraduate and below	1.62763 (NS)	0.73683	0.12
		Graduate	2.06433*	0.73610	0.02
		PG and above	1.67335 (NS)	0.71661	0.09
	Undergraduate and below	No formal education	-1.62763 (NS)	0.73683	0.12
		Graduate	0.43670 (NS)	0.28349	0.41
		PG and above	0.04572 (NS)	0.22814	0.99
	Graduate	No formal education	-2.06433*	0.73610	0.02
		Under graduate and below	-0.43670 (NS)	0.28349	0.41
		PG and above	-0.39098 (NS)	0.22578	0.31
	PG and above	No formal education	-1.67335 (NS)	0.71661	0.09
		Under graduate and below	-0.04572 (NS)	0.22814	0.99
		Graduate	0.39098 (NS)	0.22578	0.31
Quality of life	No formal education	Undergraduate and below	1.84685**	0.57097	0.00
		Graduate	1.90351**	0.57041	0.00
		PG and above	1.85965**	0.55530	0.00
	Undergraduate and below	No formal education	-1.84685**	0.57097	0.00
		Graduate	0.05666 (NS)	0.21968	0.99
		PG and above	0.01280 (NS)	0.17679	1.00
	Graduate	No formal education	-1.90351**	0.57041	0.00
		Under graduate and below	-0.05666 (NS)	0.21968	0.99
		PG and above	-0.04386 (NS)	0.17496	0.99
	PG and above	No formal education	-1.85965**	0.55530	0.00
		Undergraduate and below	-0.01280 (NS)	0.17679	1.00
		Graduate	0.04386 (NS)	0.17496	0.99
Cultural impact	No formal education	Undergraduate and below	0.75676 (NS)	0.56810	0.54
		Graduate	0.24211 (NS)	0.56754	0.97
		PG and above	0.28120 (NS)	0.55251	0.95
	Undergraduate and below	No formal education	-0.75676 (NS)	0.56810	0.54
		Graduate	-0.51465 (NS)	0.21857	0.08
		PG and above	-0.47555*	0.17589	0.03
	Graduate	No formal education	-0.24211 (NS)	0.56754	0.97
		Under graduate and below	0.51465 (NS)	0.21857	0.08
		PG and above	0.03910 (NS)	0.17407	0.99
	PG & Above	No formal education	-0.28120 (NS)	0.55251	0.95
		Under graduate and below	0.47555*	0.17589	0.03
		Graduate	-0.03910 (NS)	0.17407	0.99

6. Discussion

The study aimed to analyze residents' perceptions towards tourism development impacts using social exchange theory with reference to Kashmir, India. During the past two decades, examination and understanding of tourism impacts have witnessed burgeoning attention alike from scholars and practitioners (Brida *et al.*, 2011; Belisle and Hoy, 1980; Andriotis, 2004). Research has documented that tourism development can have economic, environmental and socio-cultural impacts on residents, these impacts, in turn, can be either positive or negative (Almeida-García *et al.*, 2016; Látková and Vogt, 2012). Although, research on tourism impacts is mature, however, the findings are scattered and inconclusive (Gursoy and Rutherford, 2004).

From the results, it emerges that the residents perceive tourism development leads to negative impacts on the environment as they agreed that it causes a significant increase in environmental pollution specifically soil, noise and air pollution. Similar results are reported by Bonimy (2008), who found that Tennessee residents perceive tourism has a negative impact on the environment. Further, Ko and Stewart (2002) found that the development of tourism negatively affects the natural environment and is directly related to an increase in air

and water pollution. Also, the results inferred that residents attach negative feelings about the impacts of tourism on society. It is revealed that residents perceive that tourism development leads to an increase in drug use, trafficking and alcohol consumption. Similar results have also been reported by Simão and Môsso (2013), who in Sal Island found that residents feel that tourism development induces negative influences on the host population. Thus, it reflects that the future prospects for the tourism development in Kashmir could face serious challenges if the perceptions of residents are not managed properly. Moreover, the global novel coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic is expected to have a lasting impact on the tourism industry as residents would perceive visiting tourists to be risk carriers (OECD, 2020). Consequently, it is expected to stimulate negative resident perceptions of visiting tourists in the future.

Further, results indicate that residents have a positive feeling towards the economic impact of tourism development. Similar findings are reported by many studies for instance; Hammad *et al.* (2017) in Abu Dhabi; Andereck *et al.* (2005) in the USA; Andereck and Nyaupane (2011) in Arizona; Látková and Vogt (2012) in Midwest state, USA; Rasoolimanesh *et al.* (2015) in Malaysia, who found that the residents hold a positive perception of the economic impacts of tourism. This finding is also validated in a more recent study by Alrwajfah *et al.* (2019) in Jordan, they reported that positive perception of residents towards the economic impacts of tourism. It is argued that the positive economic impact is viewed as a prime reason for the development of tourism in any area (Brankov *et al.*, 2019; Dyer *et al.*, 2007).

Moreover, results demonstrate that residents are indifferent in terms of the impact of tourism on culture. Similar findings are reported by Brunt and Courtney (1999) in Dawlish, the UK who found that residents do not attach any significance to the cultural impacts of tourism. This possibly could be attributed to the indifference of the residents towards negative social and cultural costs vis-à-vis expected economic benefits earned through tourism development. Further, results show that residents associate tourism development negatively with quality of life. It implies that residents associate reasons such as increased traffic and crowds in the area, unhygienic public spaces and amenities, degradation of the environment and ecosystem. with tourism development and thereby perceive that it diminishes the quality of life. This finding links with the observation of Cardoso and Silva (2018), who found that residents perceive an increase in the movement of traffic affects the destination negatively. However, contrary to this, Simão and Môsso (2013) in Sal Island found that residents are indifferent towards the impact of tourism on the cleanliness of public spaces, movement of people and protection of the ecosystem. This deviation in the results could be attributed to the notions that, in general residents feel that tourism negatively impacts the environment and ecosystem; this perception will further alleviate their negative perception towards environmental protection.

Related to the differences in perception of residents toward tourism impacts, it is maintained that there are no significant differences in perception toward tourism impacts across resident groups by age, gender, source of income and place of residence. This finding is supported by many other studies such as Davis *et al.*, 1988; Liu and Var, 1986; Madrigal, 1995 and Pizam, 1978. Thus, it occurs that residents are indifferent in their perception towards tourism impacts irrespective of their age, gender, source of income and place of residence. Nonetheless, the results locate perceptual differences across residents with different levels of education. The perceptual difference is demonstrated across a range of tourism impacts such as quality of life, cultural Impact and cost of living. This result coincides with the findings reported by Brankov *et al.* (2019) in Serbia while studying residents' perceptions of tourism impacts. Moreover, it is logical to deduce that the awareness level about tourism impacts is likely to be more among residents with higher levels of education. Thus, higher levels of education play a significant role in rational evaluating of the cost/benefit equation of tourism development (Davis *et al.*, 1988). In

addition, while examining residents' perceptions of tourism impacts similar results were also posited by Hsu (2006) stating that in Lan-Yu, Taiwan demographic characters including education influence residents' perceptions.

Finally, the post hoc results of the study revealed that there exists a significant group difference between uneducated and educated people in terms of their perceptions towards the quality of life, culture and cost of living impacts of tourism. It is detected that the higher the level of education more the positive perceptions toward tourism impacts. This finding is validated by Brankov *et al.* (2019), who found that Serbian people with secondary education and university degrees had a more positive perception towards tourism impacts. Similar results have also been found by various studies emphasizing the level of education as an important predictor of resident's perception toward tourism impacts (Hernández *et al.*, 1996; Teye *et al.*, 2002; Andriotis and Vaughan, 2003; Almeida-García *et al.*, 2016).

7. Implications

7.1 Theoretical implications

From a theoretical perspective, this study offers significant insights into resident perception toward tourism impacts on the host community. The study validates the basic framework of social exchange theory in the Indian context. The study also contributes to the tourism literature regarding the resident's perception of tourism impacts. Further, the study investigates the influence of various tourism impacts such as; environmental impact, social impact, cultural impact and economic impact. Also, the study validates differences in perception toward tourism impacts across resident groups by demographic characteristics such as age, place of residence, gender, marital status and affirms that role of education in perceptual differences among residents toward tourism impacts.

7.1.1 Managerial implications. The study offers implications to policymakers and practitioners. Firstly, as the residents perceive that tourism development leads to negative impacts on the environment, a specific environmental policy related to tourism impacts is meticulously framed and implemented. This policy should address environmental issues and maintain a separate budget derived from tourism revenue for environmental protection. Moreover, tourist awareness programmes, waste management strategy and campaigns such as "tree for tourist (T4T)" can be very useful in building resident's trust and perception about tourism development. Also, a tourism information system (TIS) could be used not only to acquire information regarding tourists but also to solicit the suggestions/views/complaints of local residents and act accordingly. This will enable tourism planners to understand the sentiments of people who are in direct contact with tourists and provide them with vital inputs for strategic tourism development policies. Further, for fostering sustainable tourism development, there is a need to develop and launch all-inclusive informative and educational campaigns to communicate the incremental benefits to residents vis-à-vis future tourism development.

Related to the issue of mitigating negative impacts of tourism on the resident population, tourism planning bodies incorporate plans to reduce negative impacts and at the same time induce trust-building measures to build the confidence of residents on planning bodies. Thus, reducing the residents' concerns about the negative impacts in the region, thereby, encouraging them to support future tourism development. It is logical to believe that residents will support future tourism development if they have a positive perception of the social, cultural, environmental and economic impacts of tourism (Stylidis *et al.*, 2014). Several measures could be incorporated to enhance resident support for tourism development such as having a more integrated and participatory planning process that will include all the interested groups especially the host community while carrying out the planning process, strengthening the democratic process by letting non-elected members i.e. community members exercise some control over decisions that affect their lives directly,

etc. The involvement of stakeholders in planning and execution is identified as an essential factor for future tourism development (Mudimba and Tichaawa, 2017). In a similar vein, Yu (2011) also found that in the USA positive perception of residents with respect to sociocultural and economic impacts positively affects their support for tourism development.

8. Limitations and future research directions

Being focussed only on perceptions and demographic characteristics, the study has overlooked the effects of other possible factors that might influence resident perceptions towards tourism impacts in the Indian context. Hence, factors such as length of residence, contact with tourists, knowledge about tourism and proximity with the tourism centre. should be the next logical focus of any subsequent research on the perception of tourism impacts. Also, the current study is centred on resident perception only, however, future research can compare perceptions between residents and tourists. The current study adopted a cross-sectional approach, nonetheless, future research can use a transversal approach over a longer time span.

More important, the study warrants a careful generalization of its findings, as the results do not confirm that the increase in the level of education has any positive or negative association with the residents' perception towards tourism impacts. Also, the post-hoc analysis of this study is based on group comparisons and the group of un-educated residents is minuscule in number, therefore, it is not logical to draw inferences unless substantial empirical support is attainted across a range of different tourism destinations.

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